CHAPTER 1
In the early 1900s, Canada was seen at home and abroad as a British colony. Several groups, including women, immigrants, and Aboriginal peoples, were struggling for equality.

CHAPTER 2
The First World War provided new opportunities for women and Aboriginal peoples, who had previously been discouraged from participating in military conflicts.

CHAPTER 3
Canadians celebrated the end of the First World War by adopting new music and fashions. During the “Roaring Twenties,” women fought for social and legal equality, labour unrest gave rise to the formation of unions, and Canada strengthened its status as an autonomous nation.

CHAPTER 4
The Great Depression was a decade of hardship and despair that highlighted weaknesses in the Canadian and global economy. As people struggled to survive, tensions divided the country, notably between immigrants and non-immigrants, men and women, and Western and Central Canada.

UNIT 1
Canada in Transition: A Nation Emerges

During the first half of the 20th century, many events, trends, and themes shaped Canada and its diverse population. International recognition, domestic changes, acts of intolerance, and economic hardships forced many Canadians to ask hard questions about who they were and what they valued. The tragedy and triumph of two world wars saw Canada come of age as an independent nation, but still a proud and valued member of the British Commonwealth.
CHAPTER 2
The First World War had a profound impact on Canada. On the battlefield, Canadian troops fought well as a united force and began to see themselves less as British Empire colonials and more as citizens of an independent country.

CHAPTER 5
The atrocities of the Second World War were used in recruitment posters to appeal to Canadian nationalism. As the war continued, Canadians became less tolerant of immigrants, in particular enemy aliens. Japanese Canadians were one of the groups targeted and were sent to internment camps where many families were separated.

CHAPTER 5
The global economic crisis of the 1930s gave rise to totalitarian dictators who promised a better life for their citizens. Adolf Hitler’s imperialistic aggressions led to the Second World War, in which Canadian troops fought for the first time as an independent nation.
A Different Canada

GUIDING QUESTIONS

Society & Identity
- How did women influence Canadian society in the early 1900s?
- Why were the attitudes of English- and French-speaking Canadians different regarding Britain?
- What attitudes did many Canadians have toward minorities?
- What steps did the government take to control immigration to Canada?
- What challenges did Aboriginal peoples face in the early 1900s?

Economy & Human Geography
- How did technology impact Canada’s economy during this period?
- What impact did industrial development have on the natural environment?

Autonomy & World Presence
- What was Canada’s relationship to Britain at the turn of the century?

TIMELINE

1896
Wilfrid Laurier becomes prime minister of Canada
Klondike gold rush begins

1899
Canadian volunteers fight in the Boer War in South Africa

1903
Alaska boundary dispute settled between the United States and Canada

1905
Alberta and Saskatchewan become provinces

1906
B.C. First Nations leaders take their land claim to King Edward VII of England
On a cool October evening in 1904, a tall, dignified man stood in front of a crowd in Toronto’s Massey Hall. He was Wilfrid Laurier, Canada’s prime minister. Laurier stepped to the podium that night and presented a bold vision of Canada for the new century:

*Let me tell you, my fellow countrymen, that the twentieth century shall be the century of Canada and of Canadian development. For the next seventy-five years, nay for the next one hundred years, Canada shall be the star towards which all men who love progress and freedom shall come.*

—Wilfrid Laurier, *Toronto Globe*, October 15, 1904

What was Canada like at the beginning of the 20th century when Laurier made his bold prediction? Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec were much smaller than they are today. Newfoundland was still a self-governing colony, and the territory of Nunavut had not yet been created. The census of 1911 reveals that Canada’s population was only 7.2 million, less than a quarter of what it was by the end of the century.

People’s attitudes about good manners and behaviour in general, the role of women, national identity, minorities, and Aboriginal peoples were also different then. In this regard, Canada fit the claim that “the past is like a foreign country; they do things differently there.” In our study of history, it is important to try to see the world through the eyes of Canadians at that time if we want to understand why they took the actions that they did.
By the early 20th century, most Canadians lived on farms or in small villages, yet morals and manners of the day were set by a minority of middle- and upper-class Anglophones. These people were greatly influenced by the attitudes of Victorian England. This period—named after Queen Victoria, who was the British monarch from 1837 to 1901—was known for its appearance of moral strictness. Families were expected to attend church regularly; they supported Britain and the monarchy; and they believed in honour, virtue, and duty. It was an age in which right and wrong, good and evil, seemed clear; they were not seen as issues that needed discussion or debate.

There was little tolerance for those who did not obey the law, and the application of the law could be quite harsh. At the time, the death penalty was the sentence for murder. Most convictions, however, were for crimes against people’s property. Drunkenness was a close second.

Women of the Era

In the early 1900s, the Woman’s Christian Temperance Union, founded in the 1870s, was still actively campaigning for prohibition. These women saw alcohol as the cause of many of society’s problems. They also supported women’s right to vote. With the vote, women believed they could influence the government to address social problems of the day, such as child labour, pollution, and poverty. Nellie McClung was a well-known suffragist who, together with other women, campaigned for women’s rights (see Chapter 3).

Since moral codes of behaviour were strict and well-defined, the courtship of young, middle-class ladies was a formal affair under the watchful eyes of their families and community. Once married, women had few rights over property or children, and divorce was rare. Women were not considered persons under the law—unless they committed a crime. Even a woman’s salary was legally the property of her husband. Women who worked outside the home, usually before marriage, were employed mainly as servants or factory workers. Some women were teachers and nurses; a few even became doctors.
Arts and Leisure

As Canada started to become more urbanized, its literature and art became more sentimental, expressing a preference for rural life, simple values, and happy endings. In 1908, Lucy Maud Montgomery published the much-loved novel *Anne of Green Gables*, a rural romance set in Prince Edward Island. Stephen Leacock gently mocked small-town Ontario life in his humorous *Sunshine Sketches of a Little Town* (1912). Ernest Thompson Seton wrote moving stories about animals. Pauline Johnson, daughter of a Mohawk chief and his English wife, read poems about her Mohawk heritage to packed halls. Ontario painter Homer Watson gained international recognition with his farm scenes. In Québec, Ozias Leduc painted religious works and landscapes filled with a sense of spirituality. In British Columbia, Emily Carr explored the landscapes and peoples of the West Coast through painting and writing.

For leisure, Canadians enjoyed outdoor activities, such as running, cycling, and rowing. In the summer, trips to the beach were popular despite confining “bathing costumes.” In the winter, tobogganing was a must.

Still a British Nation

At the beginning of the 20th century, some of Britain’s colonies, including Canada, had their own governments but still depended on Britain to resolve disputes with other countries. The British government often made decisions that did not have Canada’s best interests in mind.

The Alaska Boundary Dispute

The dispute was over the exact border of the Alaskan “pan-handle,” a strip of land running down the Pacific Coast between British Columbia and Alaska. Of particular concern was the question of ownership of a fjord called the Lynn Canal. This waterway provided access to the Yukon, where gold had been discovered in 1896. In a speech, Prime Minister Laurier reflected on the relations between Canada and the United States:

> I have often regretted… that we are living beside a great neighbour whose… are very grasping in their national actions and who are determined on every occasion to get the best in any agreement…
>  - Wilfrid Laurier, October 23, 1903

In 1903, the matter was finally settled. The British, weary from fighting the Boer War in South Africa and unwilling to become involved in another international conflict, determined that the Lynn Canal was part of Alaska, not B.C. Many Canadians were angered by this decision, believing Britain had sold out Canada’s interests to keep peace with the U.S.
French-Canadian Nationalists

While unhappy with Britain's decision regarding the Alaska boundary, most English-speaking Canadians were proud to be British subjects, and they shared Britain's dreams of expanding the British Empire. These imperialists had eagerly supported Britain in the Boer War in 1899.

French-speaking Canadians, however, did not share this enthusiasm for the British Empire. They were the descendants of people who had settled New France more than 200 years earlier, and they saw themselves as Canadiens rather than British subjects. French Canadians tended to be nationalists, believing that Canada should have autonomy and be totally independent from Britain. For example, nationalist leader Henri Bourassa resigned from Laurier's Cabinet when Laurier agreed to send volunteers to fight with the British in South Africa during the Boer War. Bourassa's stand against Canada's involvement in Britain's wars became an even bigger issue during the First World War.

Language rights was another issue that divided French-speaking and English-speaking Canadians. After a bitter dispute, French Canadians first lost the right to French-language instruction in Catholic schools in Manitoba, then in Saskatchewan and Alberta. Henri Bourassa voiced the concerns of many French Canadians when he suggested that Canadiens might not have any reason to stay in Canada if their rights as a minority were not protected, as the people of Québec had believed they would be at the time of Confederation.

FIGURE 1–3 This postage stamp shows the extent of the British Empire in 1898.

Using Evidence The British Empire was the biggest of the European empires that controlled much of the land and people of the world. What does the expression "the sun never sets on the British Empire" mean?

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. **Perspectives** Imagine you could go back to the Canada of 1914. What attitudes would you find most difficult to deal with? Why? What specific social values do you hold that would conflict with those commonly held in 1914?

2. Describe the situation of women in Canada in the years before the First World War.

3. Explain why some Canadians did not share enthusiasm for Canada's ties to Britain. Do you think their objections were justified? Explain.

KEY TERMS

- **imperialists** people who support imperialism, the policy of one nation acquiring, controlling, or dominating another
- **Canadiens** French descendants of the original settlers of New France
- **nationalists** people who have a strong attachment to their culture or nation
- **autonomy** the power to govern oneself and make one's own decisions
- **homesteaders** newcomers who claimed and settled land
- **ethnocentric** the belief that one's own culture is superior, and that other cultures should be judged by its values
- **head tax** the fee that Chinese immigrants were required to pay after 1885 in order to enter Canada
Canada’s Changing Population

After becoming prime minister in 1896, Laurier realized that for Canada to prosper, it needed more people, especially in the West. His government launched an advertising campaign to attract immigrants to Canada. It circulated posters in the United States and northern and eastern Europe promoting the Prairies as the “Last Best West” to distinguish it from the American West, where land was becoming limited and more expensive. These efforts resulted in a significant increase in immigration.

Entry into Canada was easy if you were reasonably healthy and had funds to establish yourself. The federal government offered immigrants willing to farm the Prairies 65 hectares of land for only $10. These homesteaders, as they were called, had three years to build a house and begin cultivating the land. The loneliness and harsh conditions of life on the Prairies prompted some to move to urban centres.

Not Everyone Is Welcomed

Some Canadians did not welcome changes to Canada’s ethnic composition. Many French-speaking Canadians were concerned that the new immigrants would outnumber the Francophone population. Most Canadians were ethnocentric, believing their own race or group was superior, and therefore they disliked “outsiders.” As a result, many newcomers to Canada experienced discrimination.

Eastern Europeans, particularly the Ukrainians and Polish people who settled the Prairies, were targets of ethnic prejudice. Their language and customs were unfamiliar to Canadians, who often ridiculed these people.

Many Chinese, Japanese, and South Asian immigrants settled in British Columbia. They too, suffered from discrimination and racism. R.B. Bennett, a future prime minister, reflected popular prejudice when he declared in 1907, “British Columbia must remain a white man’s country.” As long as Asian immigrants did work that other Canadians considered too unpleasant—such as hauling coal, packing fish, and washing dishes—their cheap labour was generally accepted. But when Canadian workers began to fear that Asian immigrants would compete against them for other jobs, they joined in denouncing them.

The federal government tried to limit immigration from Asia in 1885 by introducing the Chinese Immigration Act. Under this Act, every Chinese immigrant to Canada had to pay a head tax of $50 upon arrival. In 1907, an angry mob of 9000 people smashed windows and destroyed signs on stores owned by Chinese and Japanese immigrants in Vancouver. This race riot resulted in severe restrictions on Japanese immigration. A year later, there was a virtual ban on East Indian immigration.

Thinking Critically
How does Canada benefit from its ethnic diversity? In what ways is the immigrant experience different today?
Is today’s government responsible for injustices of the past?

In the early 1980s, Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau refused to apologize for past injustices committed by Canadian governments. He claimed that we cannot rewrite history; we can only try to be just in our time. Those calling for apologies say it is not about rewriting history. They feel acknowledging that the government and its institutions took wrong turns in the past shows that we are on the right road today.

Since 1988, federal and provincial governments have recognized and tried to compensate for past wrongs by issuing official apologies. In 1988, the Conservative government apologized to Japanese Canadians for their internment during the Second World War (see Chapter 5) and again in 1990 to Italian Canadians for similar reasons. Perhaps the most significant event to date has been Prime Minister Stephen Harper’s 2008 formal apology to Canada’s Aboriginal peoples, acknowledging that “the treatment of children in Indian residential schools is a sad chapter in our history” (see Chapter 8). Supporters of this approach hope that such apologies offer closure to a hurtful past. Opponents say that no matter how sincere an apology, it cannot undo what has been done.

The following Canadian immigration case studies examine two apologies and corresponding responses.

The Chinese

As you read earlier, the federal government tried to discourage Chinese people from coming to Canada by imposing a head tax in 1885. The tax was increased from $50 to $100 in 1900, and to $500 in 1903. On July 1, 1923, the federal government introduced the Chinese Exclusion Act—an Act that tried to halt Chinese immigration altogether. Chinese Canadians refer to this day as Humiliation Day. The Act was in place for more than 20 years; it was repealed in 1947.

In 1984, the Chinese Canadian National Council (CCNC) began a campaign for an apology from the federal government. They also asked for a repayment of $23 million, the amount collected from 81 000 Chinese immigrants who were forced to pay the tax.

In 1993, the Canadian government rejected the redress claim stating that it was more important to erase inequality in the future than to compensate people for past mistakes. Dr. Alan Li, the then-president of the CCNC, disagreed. He stated:

Returning the money is only basic justice. It is a strong statement of principle that a government cannot, and should not, and must not, benefit from racism.

—Alan Li, Speech, 1994
In 1995, the CCNC approached the United Nations Human Rights Commission to ask for their help with this issue. In 2006, the Canadian government agreed to address the claim and offered a parliamentary apology for the head tax and exclusion of Chinese immigrants from 1923 to 1947. The federal government promised financial redress of $20,000 to each of the surviving head tax payers or their spouses.

For over six decades, these malicious measures, aimed solely at the Chinese were implemented with deliberation by the Canadian state. This was a grave injustice, and one we are morally obligated to acknowledge.

–Prime Minister Stephen Harper, June 22, 2006

For Sid Chow Tan, national chairperson of the CCNC and president of the Head Tax Families Society of Canada, the apologies must not distract us from present-day problems. He stated:

The historical injustices of the Chinese Head Tax are being replicated today through Canada’s exploitative guest-worker programs and restrictive immigration policies. The descendants of these policies will be demanding apologies in future decades. We should deal with this present reality and not just dwell on the past, especially if a history that we are supposed to have learnt from is repeating itself.

–Sid Chow Tan

The Komagata Maru

In 1908, the federal government passed the Continuous Passage Act, a law requiring all immigrants to come to Canada by a non-stop route. This effectively made immigration from countries such as India impossible, since there were not any steamship companies that offered direct routes to Canada. This law was challenged in 1914, when the passengers on the Komagata Maru, a steamer chartered to carry Sikh immigrants from Hong Kong to Vancouver, were refused entry to Canada.

In May 2008, the British Columbia legislature extended an apology for the Komagata Maru incident. A few months later, at a Sikh festival in B.C., Prime Minister Harper also offered an apology for the incident. Sikh organizations have rejected the prime minister’s apology, comparing it to the formal apology to Chinese Canadians in 2006. The Sikh community requested a formal apology in the House of Commons, which would grant this issue the respect and dignity they feel it deserves. The Conservative government has since said there will be no further apology.

Analyzing the Issue

1. Compare the responses of Prime Minister Trudeau to those of Prime Minister Harper. What might explain the differences in their opinions?
2. Official apologies for past wrongs have accelerated since 1988. Why do you think that has happened? Would you support treating all claims for redress for past wrongs equally? Why or why not?
3. Organize a debate on the topic: Should we try to right the wrongs of past generations?
Cultural Extinction?

As thousands of immigrants settled into the western provinces, Aboriginal peoples found themselves more and more displaced. Their lives were regulated by the Indian Act passed in 1876. By the 1880s, most Aboriginal peoples of the Prairies were living on reserves. The main purpose of reserves was to free up land for settlers and immigrants from Europe, and to avoid the violent clashes that had taken place between Aboriginal peoples and settlers in the United States.

On the reserves, Aboriginal people were encouraged to take up farming instead of traditional hunting. But their attempts to adapt to farming were hindered by several factors: the soil on the reserves was often unsuitable for crops. They traded their land for equipment and livestock but were given hand tools and animals ill-suited for plowing. Even when Aboriginal farmers managed to harvest crops, efforts to sell them were often hindered by government agents who would deny them the passes they needed to leave the reserve and market their crops. As a result, many Aboriginal people experienced hunger.

Loss of land was not the only problem Aboriginal peoples faced. The Canadian government established residential schools in an attempt to force Aboriginal children to set aside their identity and traditions and become part of the dominant culture. Children were taken from their communities by Indian agents, police, or priests and sent to schools hundreds of kilometres away. The overcrowded dormitories, unsanitary conditions, and lack of medical care caused tuberculosis and other diseases to spread quickly. Many students were physically and sexually abused. They were punished for speaking their language, forbidden to practise their culture, and denied contact with their families.

Residential schools, reserves, and enforced farming were all part of the federal government’s policy of assimilation, which was intended to make Aboriginal peoples abandon their traditions and adopt a European way of life. This policy had been in place since 1871, and by the early 1900s the populations of Aboriginal peoples were declining. By 1913, an article in Maclean’s magazine claimed that “the white man of Canada... is slowly, steadily and surely absorbing his red brother.” Aboriginal peoples did not agree. Their struggle to establish land claims and reclaim their culture was just beginning.

KEY TERMS

Indian Act an Act created to regulate the lives of the First Nations of Canada
reserves land set aside by the government for the use of First Nations
residential schools government-authorized schools, run by the churches, in which Aboriginal children lived apart from their families and were educated in Canadian culture
assimilation adoption of the customs and language of another cultural group so that the original culture disappears

WEB LINK

The last residential school closed in 1996. Find out more about Canada’s residential schools on the Pearson Web site.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. Despite their poor treatment in Canada, immigrants kept coming. Explain the factors that attracted immigrants to Canada.
2. Why were many English- and French-Canadian people upset by the changes to Canada’s ethnic composition?
3. Describe the steps taken in British Columbia to restrict Asian immigration.
4. Describe the policies of the federal government that were designed to assimilate Canada’s Aboriginal peoples.
Millions of immigrants came to Canada in the 20th century. They were lured by the promise of freedom, land, and a better quality of life. As new people came to Canada, the original inhabitants of the country were forced off their land. First Nations peoples in British Columbia reacted by asserting their rights to Aboriginal land and self-government. Squamish Chief Joe Capilano, a respected and talented speaker, played a major role in championing this cause.

On August 14, 1906, delegates led by Chief Capilano met with King Edward VII at Buckingham Palace. They brought with them a petition expressing their dissatisfaction with the Canadian government and their claim to land. Although they could not present the petition directly to the king because of protocol, they discussed these issues with him during the audience.

The delegates were enthusiastically received when they returned to Canada. Chief Capilano toured B.C., speaking to First Nations peoples throughout the province. He told his audiences that the king supported them in their dispute with the Canadian government. The effectiveness of his speeches was clear in The Victoria Daily Colonist headline on May 8, 1907. It claimed, “Cowichan Indians in Restless Mood: Alleged That Tribal Discontent Is Aroused Through Oratory of Joe Capilano.”

But Canadian authorities disputed the royal promise of King Edward because there was no written record supporting the chief’s claim. This highlighted one of the key differences between European and Aboriginal cultures: Europeans relied on written records while Aboriginals trusted verbal promises.

The more active Capilano became in the cause, the more the Canadian government threatened him with prosecution and labelled him a troublemaker. Until his death in 1910, Capilano continued his struggle for Aboriginal rights. It was not until the latter half of the 20th century that the Supreme Court of Canada began to recognize Aboriginal rights.

1. Describe what the delegates might have hoped to achieve in going directly to King Edward VII.

2. List the differences between the activism of First Nations in the early 20th century and that of First Nations today. How would you relate the early struggles to those of today?

3. During his journey to speak with the king, Chief Capilano wore a blanket crafted to give spiritual protection. In 2009, the Squamish Nation celebrated the historic return of the blanket to Salish traditional territory at the Squamish Lil’wat Cultural Centre. Where should an important artifact like Capilano’s blanket be kept?

What If...

Imagine that the king had convinced the Canadian government to acknowledge the grievances presented in the petition. How might this have changed the attitude of Canadians and the government toward Canada’s Aboriginal peoples?
Building Your Skills

Analyzing Evidence: Primary and Secondary Sources

Throughout this textbook, you will be presented with many points of view concerning issues in history, government, and geography. You are not expected to agree with these points of view, but to use them to come to your own conclusions. The following guidelines will help you in analyzing historical information.

Dealing with Evidence
There are two main categories of evidence: primary and secondary. Primary sources are created at the time of an event. Eyewitness accounts are the most obvious primary sources. These are often found in diaries, government documents, photographs, newspaper articles, and political cartoons. Secondary sources are created after the event, often describing or analyzing it. The perspective of time may provide a more balanced analysis in these sources.

Understanding Bias
When you interpret evidence, you cannot help but see it through personal biases. Similarly, primary and secondary sources carry the authors' personal views. Having a bias is not necessarily wrong. It is important, however, to be aware of biases when you analyze evidence. These might include political, racial, religious, ethnic, gender, or economic biases.

Reliability and Credibility
When you read a document, it is important to determine how reliable it is as a source of information. Ask yourself questions such as:
- Who is the author? Was he or she close to the event?
- Why might the author have recorded the event?
- What are the author's information sources?
- What is the purpose of the document, and who was the intended audience?

Photographs should also be examined closely when they are used as a historical piece of information. The reader should ask: Who took the photograph? How was the photograph to be used? Sources of information must also be credible, that is, they must be accurate and record the truth. One way to determine the accuracy of a source is to see whether the information is supported by other sources. The following sources offer information about immigrants to Canada in the years before the First World War.

Source 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Number of People</th>
<th>% of Total Immigration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>150,542</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>139,009</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>18,623</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ukrainian</td>
<td>17,420</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>16,601</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>9,945</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>7,445</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Jewish</td>
<td>7,387</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>4,938</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Bulgarian</td>
<td>4,616</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>25,903</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>402,429</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source 2**

A historian describes the attraction Canada had for farmers from Eastern Europe:

*In the mountain trenches of Galicia... the furrows of the strip farms ran to the very edges of houses. No wonder that... pamphlets (promoting Canada) were so successful. Across the oceans lay a promised land where 160 acres [65 hectares] of fertile soil could be had for the asking. Thus was initiated a great emigration of Poles and Ukrainians from Austria-Hungary.*

–Pierre Berton, The Promised Land

**FIGURE 1–10 Immigrants to Canada in 1913**
Source 3

 CONDITIONS IN THE SLUMS AS DESCRIBED BY J.S. WOODSWORTH, A MINISTER AND SOCIAL ACTIVIST, IN A LETTER TO A WINNIPEG NEWSPAPER IN 1913:

Let me tell you of one little foreign girl. She lives in a room.... Her father has no work.... The place is incredibly filthy. The little girl has been ill for months—most of that time living on the bed in which three or four persons must sleep and which also serves the purpose of table and chairs. For weeks this little girl has had an itch which has spread to the children of the surrounding rooms. She has torn the flesh on her arms and legs into great sores which have become poisoned.

—J.S. Woodsworth

Applying the Skill

1. Classify each of the sources as primary or secondary. Explain your choices.

2. How reliable might the statistics in Source 1 be? What are some possible reasons for inaccuracies in population statistics?

3. Make a list of information about immigrants that can be found by examining Source 3. What questions would you ask to determine how reliable this photograph is as a historical source? Given the advances in digital technology, are photographs today more or less reliable than those taken 100 years ago? Explain.

4. How reliable is Source 4? What does it tell us about Winnipeg in 1913?

5. Use all four sources to create a picture of Canadian immigration at this time. List some additional sources that might help you to get a more complete picture of the subject.
Urbanization

While thousands of immigrants were settling farms on the Prairies, thousands more were moving to towns and cities. Some immigrant groups, particularly Jewish people, who were not allowed to own land in Europe, chose urban life, which was more familiar to them. For others, living in large communities without having to do back-breaking farm work was appealing. Canada’s economy was in transition and the rise in manufacturing meant more job opportunities in urban centres. The population of Canada’s western cities exploded in the early 1900s. For example, Winnipeg expanded from 42,340 people in 1901 to 136,035 people in 1911. It optimistically called itself the “Chicago of the North.”

The growing cities were filled with contrasts between the wealthy and the poor. The rich lived in luxury. They usually had servants; their houses were lit by electricity, warmed by central hot water heating, and had running water. Across town, the working class lived in shacks and overcrowded tenements. Low wages forced women and children to take jobs and work long hours to support their families. Restrictions on child labour were few and seldom enforced. Lack of clean water and proper sewers, together with pollution from neighbouring industries caused widespread health problems. Pneumonia, diphtheria, tuberculosis, and typhoid were common in poorer districts. Still, people flocked to the cities, attracted by jobs as well as by cultural and social opportunities unavailable in rural Canada.
Innovations
Farther and Faster

While not exactly an information highway by today’s standards, the pace of change in communications in Canada in the years before the First World War seemed amazing. Radio messages could be sent over oceans, telephones connected people in cities, and Canadians were experimenting with new and faster ways to travel from place to place.

The telephone
Invented in the 1870s, the telephone was increasingly popular in the early 1900s. People had to share lines and go through an operator to make a call.

Wireless communication
Italian-born Guglielmo Marconi invented the wireless telegraph, receiving the first wireless radio message sent across the ocean in 1901, at Signal Hill in Newfoundland.

The bicycle craze
Bicycles were the new craze at the turn of the century, when one in 12 people owned a bicycle. Bicycles liberated women from restrictive clothing and from chaperones, even though they were often criticized for riding.

Air travel
The Wright Brothers made the first airplane flight in the United States in 1903. In Canada, Alexander Graham Bell and Douglas McCurdy developed the Silver Dart, a gasoline-powered biplane.

The Father of Radio
Québec-born inventor Reginald Fessenden has been called Canada’s greatest forgotten inventor. He made the first broadcast of music and voice in 1906. Fessenden was later called the Father of Radio.
An Economy Transformed

From its earliest days as a young British colony, Canada was known for its abundance of natural resources. The export of timber, wheat, and minerals was an important part of Canada's economy. Canada's export industries also benefited from cheap shipping costs across the Atlantic Ocean. As well, the opening of the Panama Canal in 1914 created a shorter shipping route for Canadian products from the West Coast en route to Europe. Mining also contributed to the economic boom in the early 1900s. Prospectors and investors flocked to the Yukon and British Columbia after gold was discovered near the Klondike River in 1896.

The Manufacturing Industry

In the late 1800s, electric power was becoming more widely available with wood- and coal-burning steam engines. In the early 1900s, hydroelectric power stations were built to provide power to Canada's factories. The arrival of electricity in factories was an enormous boost to Canada's industrial growth. With electric power, bigger and better machines could be used to produce many more goods. This industrialization created more jobs in manufacturing. Much of the small manufacturing sector was tied to processing resources or providing tools and equipment for farms and homes. Few people could foresee that the rising popularity of automobiles would change the economy of southern Ontario and the way in which Canadians lived and worked.

With jobs came an increase in the demand for consumer goods. Canada Dry, Shredded Wheat, Palmolive soap, Heinz ketchup, and other brands became familiar to Canadian shoppers, along with the first five-cent chocolate bar. In 1913, more than 300,000 telephones were in use in Canada, and more and more automobiles were appearing on Canadian streets. By 1914, wireless radios were used on board many ships, following their much-publicized role in the rescue of passengers on the ill-fated RMS Titanic in 1912.
Corporate Giants

Corporations grew larger during this period of industrial expansion. Huge companies, such as Maple Leaf Milling, Massey-Harris, and Imperial Oil controlled much of industry. With little competition, employers could set high prices for the goods they produced and pay low wages to their workers. Some workers began to form trade unions to press for better pay, reduced hours of work, and better safety conditions. When employers refused to give in to union demands, some unions went on strike. Most employers opposed union demands. As a result, strikes could get violent and, in some cases, the police and military were called in to break up the protests. For example, in 1913, coal miners in Nanaimo were involved in a bitter strike that lasted more than two years. The miners were striking over unsafe working conditions and low pay, while the Western Fuel Company, to keep wages low, was trying to stop the workers from forming a union. Eventually, the Canadian government sent in troops to bring the situation under control. They arrested 39 people.

Financial speculation caused by the boom of the previous two decades saw many businesses expand quickly, but by 1910, a series of bank failures led to a collapse in the stock market. By 1914, Canada was in a recession after almost two decades of rapid growth. Industries cut back on production, and many workers became unemployed. On the Prairies, most farmers were planting a new, higher-yielding wheat, but the boom was over—the international demand for wheat was down.

KEY TERMS

hydroelectric power electricity produced from the energy of falling water
industrialization change in production systems to large-scale mechanized factories
trade union a group of workers who unite to achieve common goals in discussions with owners and management of businesses and industries
recession a decline in the economy resulting in lower levels of employment and production

Thinking Critically Why do you think mail-order companies were so popular in the early 1900s? Compare online shopping today with catalogue shopping of the past.
Resources and the Environment

From the early days of exploration, Canada was seen as a land of plenty with an endless supply of natural resources, such as fur, water, timber, and minerals. For most Canadians in the early 1900s, protecting the environment was not the issue it is today. In 1914, however, residents of British Columbia saw how human interference could seriously damage an important natural resource. Workers for the Grand Trunk Railway were blasting a new railway line in the Fraser Canyon when an explosion caused a rockslide at Hell’s Gate Canyon. This rockslide had disastrous effects on the spawning beds of the sockeye salmon. The fallen rocks were massive and partially blocked the river. This blockage increased the river’s current, which prevented many salmon from swimming upstream to spawn. The rocks remained in place for about 30 years before a fish ladder was constructed to allow the spawning fish to swim up the rapids. But catches of Fraser River salmon would never again equal the pre-war numbers of 20 to 30 million fish.

The rockslide posed a particular hardship for the Stó:lo First Nation whose culture and livelihood were founded on fishing in the Fraser River. They worked for days to save the fish, carrying them one at a time over the fallen rocks. As stocks improved, commercial fishers were given a monopoly on fishing to help compensate for their financial losses. The Stó:lo, however, were never given back the allocations they had before the Hell’s Gate rockslide.

Incidents like this rockslide demonstrated that our actions could have lasting, negative effects on the environment. Since the first national park was established in Banff in 1885, the federal and provincial governments had been setting aside land to ensure some of Canada’s natural landscape was protected. By 1914, British Columbia had three national parks: Mount Revelstoke, Yoho, and Glacier. The B.C. government had already designated Strathcona and Mount Robson as provincial parks. Today, there are nearly 1000 provincial parks and protected areas in British Columbia.
The Athabasca Oil Sands

Canada’s landscape still holds a wealth of resources, but today people are more aware of the impact that exploiting these resources has on the environment. One current example is the Athabasca oil sands in northeastern Alberta. The oil sands hold the world’s largest reserve of crude bitumen, a sticky, tar-like form of petroleum. About 1.3 million barrels of oil are produced from the oil sands each day. One method used to extract the oil is open-pit mining, in which the oil sand is dug out of the ground and then mixed with hot water to separate the oil from the sand.

Extracting the oil has an environmental impact. Open-pit mining scars the land. Separating the oil from the sand requires large amounts of water, which is diverted from the Athabasca River. The water needs to be heated, and burning natural gas produces greenhouse gases. The Alberta government has programs in place to try to offset environmental effects. However, debate continues over how to best use this resource while minimizing the negative impact on the environment.

War and Change

When Laurier predicted the 20th century would be the century of Canadian development, he could not have predicted that Canada would play a role in a devastating war involving many countries throughout the world. He also could not have predicted the events and issues that have shaped Canada’s identity during the past century. In the following chapters, you will learn about these events. You can be the judge as to whether the 20th century really became “Canada’s century.”

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. Describe the contrasts between rich and poor in cities during this period.
2. What technological changes were taking place in Canada prior to the First World War?
3. Explain why employers and unions had stormy relations in these years.
4. Imagine you are a reporter sent to cover the Hell’s Gate Canyon rockslide. Send a telegram to your newspaper describing the tragedy. Include a headline.
CHAPTER FOCUS QUESTION

What defined Canada in the early 1900s, and what attitudes and expectations did Canadians have for the century ahead?

In the two decades before the First World War, Canada experienced remarkable changes. Wilfrid Laurier skilfully guided Canada through 15 years of prosperity, as well as political and social upheaval. Immigration transformed Canada into a truly transcontinental nation with growing cities and industries. Agriculture and manufacturing prospered. New technologies changed social and cultural habits. However, not all Canadians were part of the new positive outlook. Aboriginal peoples, immigrants, women, and workers struggled for their rights. By 1914, Canada was beginning to resemble the country we live in today.

1. **Perspectives**

   a) People living in Canada in the two decades before the First World War had many different perspectives. Use the organizer to summarize how people in each of the groups might have viewed their place in Canada. Include one or more reasons why they would have had that perspective.

   b) Many factors affect a person’s perspective. The boxed list includes those that generally have a significant influence on one’s perspective. Add any factors not included that you feel are relevant to your situation. Rank the factors in the chart according to the importance they have in determining your perspective (one being the greatest influence).

   c) What effect do you think your background has on the way you view Canada today?

   d) Your perspective will determine how you view the past as well as the future. Do you have a mostly positive or negative view of Canada’s future? Give reasons for your choice.

2. **Vocabulary Focus**

   Review the Key Terms listed on page 5. Form small groups. Each member of the group selects five terms from the list and writes each term and its definition on an index card. Collect and shuffle all the cards. Each player selects one of the cards, reads the definition, and asks another member of the group to identify the term. Alternatively, each player reads the term and asks for the definition. Continue this process until all the cards have been used.

3. **Knowledge and Understanding**

   From what you know of Canadian history before 1913 and from what you have learned in this chapter, how was the French-Canadian view of Canada different from the English-Canadian view? What issues were viewed differently by these two groups?
4. Use information in this chapter to discuss the interactions between the Canadian government and immigrants such as Chinese people.

5. Public hearings on the testimony of Canada’s Aboriginal peoples about their treatment in residential schools are underway. What should be the goal of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission? Would you recommend the same process for other groups? Why or why not?

6. Historians look for turning points in history, marking the change from one era to another. Many see the First World War as the end of an era and the beginning of the modern age. What recent event would you choose as a turning point in Canadian or world history? Explain your choice.

Critical Thinking

7. Using the groups from the organizer, list both the positive and the negative impacts of the various changes that were taking place in Canada at the start of the 20th century. Write a paragraph stating which group gained the most and which group lost the most as a result of these changes.

8. Choose three new technologies from today that you think will have as great an impact as did those described in this chapter. Support your choices with at least two reasons.

9. Examine the following quotation from Olga Pawluk, who was 18 years old when her family moved to Canada from Ukraine. What does this document say about some immigrants’ perception of Canada at that time? How accurate was Olga in her description of Canada? Upon what was she basing her opinion?

   I didn’t want to go to Canada... I didn’t know where Canada was really, so I looked at the map. There were hardly any cities there. It looked so wild and isolated somehow and I felt that it would be very difficult to live there.... I felt I was going to a very wild place.

   –Quoted in Living Histories Series, 2000

Document Analysis

10. Read through the statistics and information about Canada in the table below. Select the four changes that you think were most significant to Canada’s emerging autonomy and explain your choices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1914</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>8 million</td>
<td>33.7 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Anthem</td>
<td>God Save the King</td>
<td>O Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>British</td>
<td>Canadian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flag</td>
<td>Union Jack</td>
<td>Maple Leaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governor General</td>
<td>Duke of Connaught (British)</td>
<td>Rt. Hon. Michaëlle Jean (Canadian)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Affairs</td>
<td>British Foreign Office</td>
<td>Canadian Dept. of Foreign Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final Court of Appeal</td>
<td>Judicial Committee of the Privy Council</td>
<td>Supreme Court of Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House of Commons</td>
<td>221 MPs (all male)</td>
<td>308 MPs (69 women)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>133 Conservative</td>
<td>77 Liberal Party of Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>86 Liberal</td>
<td>49 Bloc Québécois</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37 New Democratic Party</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senate</td>
<td>87 Senators (all male)</td>
<td>105 Senators (35 women)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eligible Voters</td>
<td>1 820 742</td>
<td>23 677 639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prime Minister</td>
<td>Robert Borden, Conservative</td>
<td>Stephen Harper, Conservative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 1–7 Canada’s population and government in 1914 and 2009
Canada and the First World War

GUIDING QUESTIONS

Society & Identity
- What challenges did Aboriginal soldiers face during the war and upon their return home?
- What effect did the War Measures Act have on the legal rights of Canadians?
- How did Canada’s contribution on the battlefield affect Canadian identity?
- What effect did the war have on the role of women?
- What impact did conscription have on Canadian unity?

Autonomy & World Presence
- How did Canada get involved in the First World War?
- What was the war’s impact on the home front?
- How did the nature of warfare and technology contribute to a war of attrition?
- What were conditions like for men in the trenches?
- Describe Canada’s military role in the First World War.
- What factors contributed to Canada’s emerging autonomy?

TIMELINE

1914
Archduke Franz Ferdinand assassinated in Sarajevo
Germany invades Belgium and France
Britain declares war on Germany; Canada automatically at war
War Measures Act passed in Canada

1915
Canadian troops exposed to poisonous gas at the Battle of Ypres

1916
Canadians suffer heavy losses in the Battle of the Somme
Women in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta gain the right to vote in provincial elections
When the First World War began in 1914, few believed it would last very long. Many young people in Canada and elsewhere saw the war as an exciting chance for travel, adventure, and glory. Most were afraid that the conflict would be over before they could get into the action. Many people signed up with noble, romantic ideas, such as the honour of fighting for the British Empire to which Canada belonged:

These young men were the cream of Canada’s youth and chivalry, all volunteers, all willing to face the great adventure for King and country, for freedom and civilization. No conscripts were they, but freemen, glad and willing to demonstrate Canada’s loyalty and to make some return to England for the civil and religious liberty we had enjoyed under the protection of her flag....

—Manliness and Militarism: Educating Young Boys in Ontario for War, 2001

“The Great War,” however, was a far different reality than this romantic vision. It was modern, industrialized warfare on a vast scale. The “war to end all wars” claimed the lives of more than 8 million soldiers, cost almost $350 billion, and changed the map of Europe. What could cause such a devastating international conflict? Why was the war so long and terrible, and what were the long-term effects of the war on our nation? To answer these questions, we must understand the historical forces at work in Canada and around the world at the time—in particular, nationalism, imperialism, colonialism, and militarism.
KEY TERMS

imperialism the policy of one nation acquiring, controlling, or dominating another country or region

militarism a nation’s policy of enlisting, training, equipping, and maintaining armed forces ready for war

Slavic relating to peoples in eastern, southeastern, and central Europe, including Russians, Serbians, Croatians, Poles, Czechs, etc.

Causes of the First World War

What caused the First World War? There is no simple answer. At the beginning of the 20th century, several factors pushed the world to the brink of war. Industrialization drove the Great Powers—Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia—to expand their territories. As they sought more land, resources, and influence, they also tried to protect their territory by building up their military resources and creating alliances. Meanwhile, the nations colonized by the Great Powers struggled to keep their independence. These power struggles created tension around the world, and one event, as you will read about later, triggered the First World War.

Imperialism and the Age of Empires

Why were the Great Powers so prepared to engage in war? Since the 15th century, several European nations had been aggressively expanding their territory (see Unit opener map). Powerful countries practised imperialism by establishing colonies all over the world to create empires. They exploited the land and resources of the weaker nations they controlled. Massive industrialization in the 19th century fuelled the Great Powers’ desire to expand their domains, giving them access to more raw materials and creating new markets for their manufactured goods. Africa—with its wealth of gold, diamonds, ivory, agricultural land, and other resources—became the last frontier for colonizers in the late 1800s. European empires aggressively pursued their interests in Africa, often competing for the same territory.

At the beginning of the 20th century, Germany was struggling to establish itself as an imperial power. Its colonies in Africa were not as economically or strategically advantageous as the areas controlled by Britain. Germany’s leaders wanted their country to have its own “place in the sun” and to extend its sphere of influence. Germany’s aggressive pursuit of this goal brought it into conflict with other imperial powers, in particular Britain and France.

Increasing Militarism

Imperialism brought crisis after crisis, fostering distrust and tension among the Great Powers. As they expanded their empires, the Great Powers developed their military resources to protect their interests and intimidate each other. They glamorized their armed forces, and the size of their armies and navies became essential to national prestige. They embraced militarism and saw war as an acceptable way to resolve conflicts and achieve their goals. Militarism was a constant threat to peace in the years leading up to the First World War.
By the beginning of the 20th century, Britain had established the largest navy in the world to protect its vast empire. Germany’s desire to be a major power in Europe drove it to build up its military resources to match Britain’s naval strength. In response, Britain dramatically increased the size of its navy and built the HMS *Dreadnought*, the largest and fastest battleship in the world. Germany in turn built more ships, including dreadnoughts of its own. It also increased the size of its army and its reserve of weapons. This buildup of military resources forced France—who had long-standing grudges with Germany—to arm itself in a desperate attempt to maintain the balance of power. This arms race increased international tensions, and by 1914 Europe had become an armed camp.

The Role of the Balkans

As the Great Powers struggled to expand their colonies around the world, they also fought over limited resources in Europe. Of particular interest were the Balkans, a cultural and geographic region on the Adriatic Sea in southeastern Europe. Three different empires—Russia, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottomans—wanted to control this area.

- Russia’s approach was to promote Pan-Slavism, the idea of uniting the Slavic peoples of the Balkans. Russia hoped that supporting these nations would allow it access to the region’s warm-water ports. This was extremely important to Russia as most of its ports were frozen in winter, limiting its ability to import and export goods.
- Austria-Hungary saw Pan-Slavism as a threat to its power. Several of the nations under its control were Slavic and located in the Balkans, including Slovenia and Croatia. Austria-Hungary feared that it would lose its grip on its territory if these peoples united.
- For more than 100 years, the Ottoman Empire had controlled the Balkans and southeastern Europe, as well as areas of northern Africa and the Middle East. But this empire was crumbling by the beginning of the 20th century. It had already lost its hold of the Balkans and feared losing even more territory.
The False Security of Alliances

These intense rivalries in Europe resulted in a rush to make or join alliances. By the early 1900s, all the Great Powers in Europe were in alliances with other countries, promising to support one another if they were attacked.

- The **Triple Alliance** was made up of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. However, when the war broke out in 1914, Italy did not follow the Triple Alliance into battle. Instead, it joined the war in 1915 on the side of the Triple Entente.
- The **Triple Entente** (also known as the Allies) consisted of France, Britain, and Russia.

These countries hoped that forming alliances would reduce the threat of war, but it proved to have the opposite effect. Alliances made it easier for a country to be drawn into war. Because members pledged to protect one another, if any one of them was involved in a conflict, its allies would automatically have to fight as well. As you will see, one dramatic event was all it took to drag the whole of Europe into war.
The Threat of Nationalism

As the Great Powers sought to expand their empires, they paid little attention to the interests of the nations they colonized. They practised their own type of nationalism, showing great pride in and patriotism for their mother country. But another type of nationalism—an intense loyalty toward and desire to preserve one’s own cultural identity, language, and traditions—simmered in the colonized countries.

The Balkans were a hotbed of nationalism. Some of the countries in the area were newly created while others regained independence as the Ottoman Empire disintegrated. The Austro-Hungarian Empire also controlled several Slavic nations that wanted independence and rebelled against Austrian rule. Bosnia, in particular, was highly contested as Serbia wanted to include this territory within its borders. Some Bosnian Serbs formed the Black Hand, a group willing to fight for their nationalistic goals. They wanted to unite the Slavic peoples to form “Greater Serbia.” To Austro-Hungarian imperialists, Serbian nationalism was a deadly idea that had to be crushed at all costs.

A Chain Reaction

In 1914, to demonstrate its imperial rule, the Austro-Hungarian Empire sent its crown prince, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, to Bosnia’s capital of Sarajevo. His visit gave the Black Hand an opportunity to strike back at the Empire, whom they viewed as an invader. As their procession made its way through the city, a Black Hand member, Gavrilo Princip, shot and killed Archduke Ferdinand and his wife.
This assassination triggered a chain reaction that started the First World War. Austria-Hungary blamed Serbia for the assassination. As part of the agreement of the Triple Alliance, Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany offered Austria-Hungary a “blank cheque,” promising to support them even if they went to war. When Serbia refused to submit to an ultimatum from Austria-Hungary, the Empire declared war. This caused Russia to mobilize its troops to defend Serbia as part of its promotion of Pan-Slavism. Germany responded with its own mobilization. This prompted Britain to put its navy on alert and France to mobilize its army. When Germany violated the neutrality of Belgium in order to attack France, Britain declared war on Germany to protect its ally. Canada, as part of the British Empire, automatically went to war, too. Gradually, the conflict drew in more and more countries around the world.

**T I M E L I N E**

**Timeline to War, 1914**

- **June 28** Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie are assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia.
- **July 6** Germany promises Austria-Hungary a “blank cheque” to support any military action in Serbia.
- **July 23** Austria-Hungary delivers an ultimatum to Serbia, requesting severe consequences:
  - Serbia must dismiss all anti-Austrian teachers, government workers, and army officers.
  - Austrian officials will be allowed to enter Serbia to investigate the assassination.
  - Serbia must cooperate with the Austrian investigation.
- **July 26** Russia begins to mobilize its armed forces in anticipation of war.
- **July 28** Austria-Hungary rejects Serbia’s partial acceptance of its demands and declares war.
- **July 31**
  - Russia announces its general mobilization.
  - Austria-Hungary and Germany demand that Russia stop mobilizing; Russia ignores this command.
  - France agrees to respect Belgium’s neutrality, but Germany refuses.
- **August 1** Germany declares war on Russia.
- **August 3** Germany declares war on France.
- **August 4**
  - Germany invades Belgium and Luxembourg to attack France.
  - Britain declare war on Germany.
  - Canada is automatically at war as part of the British Empire.

**P R A C T I C E Q U E S T I O N S**

1. Build a flow diagram that links the following in sequence, noting any events that occurred simultaneously: assassination of Franz Ferdinand and his wife, invasion of Belgium, creation of the Triple Alliance, Britain declares war on Germany, and Russia mobilizes troops.

2. **Significance** List the causes and contributing factors that resulted in the outbreak of war and then select the three you think are most important. Justify your choices.

3. Imagine you are the prime minister of Canada. Compose a letter to the prime minister of Britain explaining why you do, or do not, support an alliance between Britain, Russia, and France.

4. Write a well-reasoned argument for the following proposition: “The First World War was unnecessary and could have been prevented.”
Political cartoons are a useful source of information about historical or current issues. They simplify an issue by portraying political personalities or events in an exaggerated way and using symbols to represent ideas. In this way, they are a very effective means of convincing a reader to see an issue in a specific way. But the perspective about the issue presented in a political cartoon is often extreme and harshly critical. They represent political figures as caricatures, exaggerating their physical and personality traits for comic effect. Political cartoons often use stereotypes to emphasize their message. They also employ analogy to compare people or events to other things that the audience will relate to and understand. While these devices help convey perspectives on historical events or current issues, you need to be aware of the biases and prejudices that may taint political cartoons when you interpret them.

Steps to Interpreting Political Cartoons

1. Read the text and look closely at the drawing.
2. Identify the central issue or event in the cartoon.
3. Identify the devices used by the cartoonist (caricature, analogy, words, symbols, stereotypes, sizing, etc.).
4. Identify the biases of the cartoonist by examining the devices used.
5. Interpret the cartoon.

FIGURE 2–6 The Chain of Friendship. This British cartoon appeared in some Canadian newspapers at the outbreak of war. It highlights some of the main causes of the First World War by representing the European countries in 1914 as different characters.

Applying the Skill

1. Identify the countries represented by the child and the adult who is picking on him. Why is one country shown as a child?
2. The cartoon uses caricatures of speech and clothing to identify European countries. Identify Germany, Britain, France, and Russia. Explain your choice in each case.
3. Use the cartoon to make a list of the countries on either side of the conflict. Compare your list to the map in Figure 2–4.
4. What is the meaning of the title of the cartoon? Could it be interpreted as an ironic or sarcastic title? Explain.
5. Evaluate the cartoon. How effectively does it deliver its message? Explain.
Canada’s Response to the War

Although Canada had become a political union in 1867, Britain still controlled the foreign policy of all its dominions. This meant that when Britain declared war on Germany, Canada was automatically at war, along with the rest of the British Empire.

Mobilizing the Forces

In 1914, most English-speaking Canadians were of British origin, and they supported the war out of a strong patriotic feeling for Britain and the Empire. One Toronto newspaper captured the excitement of the time:

Cheer after cheer from the crowds of people who had waited long and anxiously for the announcement of Great Britain’s position in the present conflict in Europe greeted the news that the Mother Country had declared war against Germany. Groups of men sang “Rule Britannia,” others chanted while singing “God Save the King”; some showed their sense of the seriousness of the situation by singing “Onward Christian Soldiers”....

–Toronto Mail and Empire, August 5, 1914

Wilfrid Laurier, the leader of the Liberals and a French Canadian, joined English Canadians in pledging support for Britain and the Empire. Laurier stated, “It is our duty to let Great Britain know and to let the friends and foes of Great Britain know that there is in Canada but one mind and one heart and that all Canadians are behind the Mother Country.”

Prime Minister Borden initially offered Britain 25,000 troops, but more than 30,000 volunteers from across Canada signed up within a month. Many felt the patriotic urge to defend their “mother country.” A lot of people volunteered because they believed that the war would be over by Christmas. Others signed up because they were unemployed and the war meant a chance to escape financial hardships at home.

Not all Canadians who wanted to volunteer were welcome. Women were considered too frail and too emotional to partake in battle, so they were encouraged to stay at home and support the soldiers. Women who did join the services worked as nurses and ambulance drivers behind the front lines. Initially, the Canadian forces did not accept Aboriginal peoples and were reluctant to take African and Japanese Canadians. Volunteers from these groups managed to overcome such racist attitudes to join, but few were promoted. Such discrimination did not prevent these recruits from serving their country well (see Case Study, page 48). Tom Longboat, an Onondaga from the Six Nations Reserve in Ontario, was a well-known athlete and Boston Marathon runner. During the war, he became a courier, carrying messages between the trenches in France, a position reserved for the fastest runners in the army.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Daily Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Major-General</td>
<td>$20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colonel</td>
<td>$6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td>$4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captain</td>
<td>$3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lieutenant</td>
<td>$2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sergeant</td>
<td>$1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporal</td>
<td>$1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>$1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 2–8 Canadian Army rates of pay, 1917
A National Identity Emerges

Canada had to prepare for war. When Canada joined the war, its army swelled from 3000 to more than 30,000 soldiers. The enormous task of training and supplying the troops with clothing and munitions went to Sam Hughes, the Minister of Militia. Camp Valcartier in Québec was built in only four weeks to house and train Canada’s soldiers. After basic training that lasted only four months, 32,000 enthusiastic, but ill-prepared, Canadian and Newfoundland troops set sail for England.

Before the war, Canada was a patchwork of regions. Few transportation and communication connections existed, and travel across the country was difficult. Regions had little contact with one another; people lived their lives close to home. Wartime training changed that. Young men from all over the country came together to train, first at Valcartier, then at bases in England. As they gathered and worked together, they began to develop a national sense of Canadian identity. In the words of one Canadian soldier:

“We were in Witley Camp [in England] and right alongside us was a battalion from French Canada. We didn’t speak much French and they didn’t speak much English, but they were the finest sports you ever saw.... You met people from Nova Scotia, or from Prince Edward Island, clean through to British Columbia.”

—Ben Wagner

The army formed by these volunteers was known as the Canadian Expeditionary Force (CEF). When the CEF arrived in England, British commanders assumed that, as a colonial army, the CEF would be integrated into the larger, more experienced British units. For much of the war, however, the CEF maintained its independence and fought as a separate unit, which contributed greatly to a growing sense of national identity and autonomy.
Canada’s Minister of Militia

Sam Hughes was also in charge of Canada’s armament industry. He created the Shell Committee to oversee the manufacture of artillery shells. Canada provided a large portion of Britain’s shells. Hughes, however, was a poor administrator and the Ministry of Militia soon became bogged down in inefficiency and war profiteering. While he insisted on using Canadian manufacturers, troops were often supplied with equipment that was inappropriate or of poor quality. By mid-1915, contracts worth about $170 million had been signed with wealthy businessmen, but only $5.5 million in shells had actually been made. Some of the shells were of such poor quality that they exploded before being fired, killing the gun crews. In one case, soldiers were equipped with boots that fell apart in the rain due to soles made of pressed cardboard. Troops came to hate the Canadian-made Ross rifle because it jammed, so they picked up British-made Lee-Enfield rifles from dead soldiers when possible. Hughes was dismissed from his post in 1916, but not before being knighted by King George V.

The War Measures Act

To meet the demands of war, Prime Minister Borden introduced the War Measures Act in 1914. The Act gave the government the authority to do everything necessary “for the security, defence, peace, order, and welfare of Canada.” For the first time, the federal government could intervene directly in the economy to control transportation, manufacturing, trade, and agricultural production. The government also had the power to limit the freedom of Canadians. It could censor mail. It suspended *habeas corpus*, which meant that police could detain people without laying charges. Anyone suspected of being an “enemy alien” or a threat to the government could be imprisoned, or deported, or both. Recent immigrants from Germany and the Austro-Hungarian Empire were treated particularly harshly under this Act. Approximately 100,000 of them had to carry special identity cards and report regularly to registration officers. More than 8500 people were held in isolation in internment camps. These policies fostered nationalism and prejudice in Canada, and led to attacks on German-owned clubs and businesses.

**PRACTICE QUESTIONS**

1. Examine the quotation on page 32. What does this document say about the attitude of people in Canada toward Britain at this time? How does the quotation on page 33 demonstrate a growing feeling of Canadian identity among Canadian troops?

2. What prevented women and other groups from participating in the war?

3. Why did the government feel the need to control the economy, transportation, and trade after war was declared? Was this a genuine need? Explain.

4. List the civil liberties suspended by the War Measures Act.

5. Explain why there was such enthusiasm for the war when it began.
The War on Land

Germany’s Schlieffen Plan, developed years before the First World War began, was a bold strategy for a two-front war. Germany believed it could fend off Russia in the east while it defeated France in the west with a lightning-speed massive attack. The timetable left little room for error. German armies needed to drive through Belgium and swing south to capture Paris within a few weeks. Once this was accomplished, Germany could turn its attention to Russia. The Schlieffen Plan made two critical assumptions:

- It would take Russia time to mobilize its huge army. But Russia’s forces were already on the move when Germany declared war.
- Britain would remain neutral. The plan relied on the fact that in the past, Britain had not become involved in disputes between countries in Europe. But, as part of the Triple Entente, Britain had promised to defend France if it was attacked. Also, all the Great Powers had promised not to attack Belgium, so Britain felt compelled to enter the war when Germany did just that.

The Reality of the Schlieffen Plan

The Schlieffen Plan almost worked. By August 1914, German troops were only 50 kilometres from Paris. But German leaders had made some changes that weakened the original plan. They pulled troops from the west to reinforce their defences in the east. The soldiers were exhausted by the pace of their attack through Belgium and into France. The Allies were able to rally and stop Germany’s advance at the Battle of the Marne in September 1914, making a quick German victory impossible. Instead, the German army dug a defensive line of trenches along the River Somme and into Belgium. To counter this, British and French troops dug their own system of trenches to face them. Eventually a vast network of trenches stretched from the English Channel to the Swiss border. Between the trenches of the two enemies lay no man’s land, a terrible wasteland of corpses, barbed wire, and mud. By Christmas 1914, armies protected by trenches that ran through northern France and Belgium on the Western Front were locked in a stalemate. With millions of soldiers on each side, neither Britain and France nor the Germans were able to advance, and no one was prepared to retreat.
**Life in the Trenches**

No soldier could ever have been prepared for the horrible conditions of trench warfare. Trenches were cold and damp in the winter and often flooded in the heavy rains of northern France and Belgium. Muddy trenches became stinking cesspools, overrun by rats. Men spent weeks in the trenches without washing, which allowed disease to spread. Soldiers’ clothes were infested with lice, and many men developed trench foot, a painful condition that caused their feet to swell and turn black. Many of the wounded were left to die in no man’s land because rescue attempts were too dangerous. Mental exhaustion also took its toll. Men were in constant fear for their lives, either from deadly sniper fire or from exploding shells. One soldier reported:

> The air is full of shells... the small ones whistling and shrieking and the heaviest, falling silently, followed by a terrific explosion which perforates even the padded eardrums, so that a thin trickle of blood down the neck bears witness that the man is stricken stone-deaf. The ground rocks like an express train at full speed, and the only comparison possible is to a volcano in eruption with incessant shudder of earthworks and pelting hail of rocks.

*—Quoted in Toronto Globe, April 15, 1916*

**FIGURE 2–12** Many Canadian soldiers lost their lives in the trenches and suffered psychological disorders and nervous breakdowns.

**Gathering Information** What can you tell about life in the trenches from this photograph? How might these conditions have contributed to psychological problems?

**KEY TERMS**

- **artillery** large guns used to fire shells
- **war of attrition** a military strategy based on exhausting the enemy’s manpower and resources before yours are exhausted, usually involving great losses on both sides

**New Technology and the War**

New technologies developed at the beginning of the 20th century changed the way wars were fought. In earlier wars, foot soldiers, supported by cavalry (soldiers on horses), tried to outmanoeuvre the enemy to take control of the battlefield. By 1914, however, new weapons were so powerful and deadly that it was suicidal to charge across open ground. Machine guns fired at unprecedented speed; massive artillery attacks killed thousands. Airplanes, invented only a decade before the war began, flew over the battlefields to pinpoint the enemy’s location and movements and were later equipped with machine guns and bombs.

Although soldiers were using modern weapons on the battlefield, many of their commanders failed to understand how the new technologies demanded new tactics. Over the next three years, generals stubbornly engaged in a war of attrition, each side repeatedly attacking the other until one was completely exhausted and unable to continue. To attack the enemy, soldiers were ordered “over the top,” meaning they had to leave the relative safety of the trenches to face the horror of no man’s land. Hundreds of thousands of soldiers on all sides were slaughtered as they were mowed down by machine guns. These weapons kept either side from advancing, which was the main reason for the stalemate on the Western Front. Later in the war, armoured tanks were used to protect soldiers as they advanced across the battlefield. Tanks could break through the protective wall of barbed wire in front of trenches. By 1918, the trench system was itself obsolete.
Major Canadian Battles

The first division of the Canadian Expeditionary Force (CEF) arrived in France in February 1915. These forces soon became involved in combat along the Western Front, including decisive battles in France and Belgium at Ypres, the Somme, Vimy Ridge, and Passchendaele.

The Second Battle of Ypres

Some of the bloodiest battles of the early war were fought in and around the Belgian town of Ypres. On April 22, 1915, French and Canadian troops were blinded, burned, or killed when the Germans used chlorine gas, a tactic that had been outlawed by international agreement since 1907. As the clouds of gas drifted low across the battlefield, soldiers tried to escape from the deadly fumes. Many suffocated or choked to death. One soldier described the scene as follows:

[We noticed] a strange new smell…. A queer brownish-yellow haze was blowing in from the north. Our eyes smarted. Breathing became unpleasant and throats raw…. Some fell and choked, and writhed and frothed on the ground…. It was the gas.

–Canada and the Battle of Vimy Ridge, 1992

Despite the Germans’ use of poison gas, the battle continued for a month, but neither side gained much advantage. More than 6000 Canadians were killed, wounded, or captured holding their ground until reinforcements arrived.

One of the doctors serving with the Canada Corps was Lieutenant-Colonel John McCrae, who wrote the famous poem “In Flanders Fields” to commemorate Canadians serving at the Second Battle of Ypres. It is said that he wrote the poem in about 20 minutes, but tossed it aside because he was dissatisfied with it. The story goes that a soldier later found it and convinced him to send it to a popular British magazine.
The Battle of the Somme

In July 1916, the Allies launched a massive attack against a line of German trenches near the Somme River in France. The attack failed because
- The Allies shelled the German lines for days before the attack began, but the shells did not destroy the Germans’ defences or the barbed wire around their trenches.
- The commanders used tactics that, though previously successful, proved to be useless in trench warfare. Troops were ordered to march across open fields, and wave upon wave of men were shot down by German machine guns.
- Despite heavy losses on the first day of battle—including nearly 58,000 British troops—the attack continued.

The battle lasted five months and the Allies captured only 13 kilometres of land. Both sides suffered heavy losses. There were more than 1.25 million casualties, with almost 24,000 Canadians among them. The Royal Newfoundland Regiment alone lost approximately 90 percent of its men, and every officer was either wounded or killed. Most soldiers were badly shaken by the slaughter.

Despite their heavy losses, Canadian troops distinguished themselves during the Battle of the Somme and were brought in to lead assaults in several major battles over the course of the war.

The Battle of Vimy Ridge

In 1914, the Germans took control of Vimy Ridge, a key position near the Somme. This vantage point gave a clear view of the surrounding countryside, supply routes, and enemy positions. For more than two years, both French and British forces tried to capture the ridge but were unsuccessful.

Late in 1916, Canadian troops were chosen to lead a new assault on Vimy Ridge. Lieutenant-General Julian Byng, a popular British officer (later appointed a governor general of Canada; see Chapter 3), carefully planned the attack. His troops trained and rehearsed until Byng decided they were ready. In preparation for the attack, artillery bombarded German positions for more than a month. Meanwhile, sappers (army engineers) built tunnels to secretly move troops closer to the ridge. On April 9, 1917, Canadian troops moved into position. The Canadian Corps followed their plan of attack and in less than two hours they had taken their first objective. On April 10, they captured Hill 145, the highest point on the ridge. By April 12 they had taken “the pimple,” the last German position.

It was a stunning victory. The Canadians had gained more ground, taken more prisoners, and captured more artillery than any previous British offensive in the entire war. Although the cost was high—more than 3500 men were killed and another 7000 wounded—the losses were significantly lower than in any previous Allied offensive. Byng’s meticulous planning and training, and Canadian professionalism and bravery, had paid off. The Battle of Vimy Ridge marked the first time that Canadian divisions attacked together. Their success gave them a sense of national pride and the reputation of being an elite fighting force.
Passchendaele
Byng was promoted for his role at Vimy. His replacement was a Canadian, General Arthur Currie, a former realtor from Victoria, British Columbia. As the first Canadian appointed to command Canada’s troops, Currie brought an increasingly independent Canadian point of view to the British war effort. Although he was a disciplined leader open to new strategies, Currie still took orders from General Haig. In October 1917, Currie and the CEF were asked to break through German lines and retake the town of Passchendaele in Belgium. Haig’s earlier assault on Passchendaele had left massive shell craters, which the heavy autumn rains turned into a muddy bog. Currie warned that casualties would be high, but Haig overruled him. Currie was right. The Canadians captured Passchendaele, but the “victory” resulted in more than 200 000 casualties on each side, including more than 15 000 Canadians. The Allies had gained only seven or eight kilometres, and the Germans soon recaptured the town.

Women on the Western Front
More than 2800 women served during the First World War. They were part of the Royal Canadian Army Medical Corps and worked on hospital ships, in overseas hospitals, and in field ambulance units on the battlefields. Many were killed or injured by artillery fire, bombs, and poison gas.

FIGURE 2–16 Passchendaele; soldiers and horses sometimes drowned in the mud-filled craters which could be more than 30 metres wide.

FIGURE 2–17 Edith Anderson, of the Six Nations Grand River Reserve, cared for wounded soldiers in France.

Practice Questions
1. What was the Schlieffen Plan, and why did its failure result in a stalemate on the Western Front?

2. Judgement: Discuss whether chemical weapons should be allowed in warfare. The use of gas as a weapon was outlawed by the 1907 Hague Convention. What is the point of an international agreement if, when the time comes, countries do whatever they wish?

3. Make a list of conditions at the front that might have contributed to psychological stress damage. Use the information on pages 35–39 to gather information.

During the First World War, transportation and weapons technology developed rapidly as nations dedicated their resources to the war effort. The result was an industrial war with more casualties than had ever been experienced.

**A new type of warfare** The machine gun was largely responsible for changing the way wars were fought. Its ability to fire about 400–500 rounds per minute made it an effective defensive weapon. Both sides lined their trenches with hundreds of machine guns, making infantry attacks across no man’s land futile and forcing leaders to develop new strategies.

**Deadly fire** During the First World War, more powerful and accurate artillery was developed. New field guns could fire shells almost 40 kilometres upward to hit targets 130 kilometres away. Often the shells were filled with explosives and shrapnel, deadly metal balls, or steel fragments.

**Lighter than air** Dirigibles (inflatable airships) were developed in the late 1800s. Germany’s Ferdinand von Zeppelin built huge, rigid dirigibles that were filled with a lighter-than-air gas, such as hydrogen, and propelled by an engine suspended underneath. Germany, France, and Italy used dirigibles for scouting and bombing missions during the First World War.
New armour The British developed tanks to shelter soldiers from gunfire while crossing no man’s land and to drive through the barbed wire that lined the trenches. In doing so, tanks solved the problems of trench warfare. They were first used during the Battle of the Somme to break through the German lines.

Chemical warfare Germany was the first to use poison gas on the battlefield, releasing clouds of chlorine gas at Ypres in 1915. The gas blinded soldiers and attacked their respiratory systems. Early in the war, the only defence against poison gas was rags soaked in water or urine. Later, anti-gas respirators, or gas masks, made poison gas a less effective weapon.

The silent enemy Although the United States and Britain did much of the work developing early submarines, Germany used them the most. Their U-boats (from Unterseeboot, or “under-sea boat”) were armed with torpedoes that could sink large ships. Germany used its submarines to attack the convoys of merchant ships and freighters that carried supplies to Britain in the hopes of starving the British into submission.

Warfare in the air Planes were first used to scout enemy positions. Later in the war, pilots would throw grenades at enemy planes or shoot at them with hand-held guns. Eventually, top-mounted guns were added to planes and both sides engaged in aerial dogfights.
The War in the Air

During the First World War, airplanes were still a new invention and being a pilot was very dangerous. Many pilots were killed in training and due to mechanical failure. The average life expectancy of a pilot in 1917 could be measured in weeks. Parachutes were not introduced until late in the war. Thousands of air crew and pilots were killed, many in training.

At the beginning of the war, pilots flew alone in biplanes doing aerial reconnaissance, photographing and reporting on enemy troop movements. Soon, however, pilots on both sides were armed, dropping bombs on the enemy below and firing guns at each other in the air. Fighter pilots had to be sharpshooters with nerves of steel and lots of luck. Aerial dogfights were spectacular scenes as pilots used elaborate spins and rolls to avoid enemy planes and stay out of their line of fire.

Air Aces

When a pilot could prove that he had shot down five enemy aircraft, he became an ace. Although Canada did not have its own air force (Canadians who wanted to be pilots had to join the British Royal Flying Corps), it produced a number of aces. Among them were Billy Bishop, Ray Collishaw, Billy Barker, William May, and Roy Brown. Some historians credit Brown with shooting down the German flying ace Manfred von Richthofen, who was known as the Red Baron. Because aces became heroes in their homelands, they were often withdrawn from active duty overseas to promote fundraising and recruitment at home.
Canada's top air ace in the First World War was William Avery “Billy” Bishop, from Owen Sound, Ontario. His record was impressive. He shot down 72 planes, the second highest number of “kills” in the war (Germany’s Red Baron had 80). Bishop was the first Canadian pilot to be awarded the Victoria Cross, Britain’s most prestigious medal for bravery. He became the toast of Canada because of his success, and toured to promote the war effort and help sell Victory Bonds. In the following passage from his diary, he describes some of his daring adventures:

He dived for about 600 feet [180 metres] and flattened out. I followed him and opened fire at forty to fifty yards [35 to 45 metres] range, firing forty to fifty rounds. A group of tracers (“visible bullets”) went into the fuselage and centre section, one being seen entering immediately behind the pilot’s seat and one seemed to hit himself. The machine then fell out of control in a spinning nose-dive. I dived after him firing....

I must say that seeing an enemy going down in flames is a source of great satisfaction. The moment you see the fire break out you know that nothing in the world can save the man, or men, in the doomed machine.

But the life of this Canadian legend was less glamorous than it appeared. In a letter home to his wife, Margaret, he wrote:

I am thoroughly downcast tonight.... Sometimes all of this awful fighting makes you wonder if you have a right to call yourself human. My honey, I am so sick of it all, the killing, the war. All I want is home and you.

—Billy Bishop

In warfare, society’s norms are put on hold, as soldiers are often expected to kill, and in some cases are glorified for their number of kills. Many soldiers, past and present, suffer emotional trauma after experiencing the atrocities of war and have difficulty adjusting when they return home. At the time of the First World War, soldiers’ battle stress was called shell shock or battle fatigue. It is currently identified as post-traumatic stress disorder.

1. Bishop’s diary is his personal account of what happened. His “kill” total has sometimes been questioned because his deeds were not always witnessed. Explain why you think Bishop was given credit for the “kills.” Is the diary a primary source? Evaluate it as a historical source.

2. Using the two sources presented here, identify Bishop’s personal reactions to killing in warfare. What might account for his conflicting feelings?

3. Bishop most likely killed the pilots he shot down. He needed courage and nerve to do what he did. What do you think the effect of the war would be on someone like Bishop?

4. Do you think soldiers today are encouraged to count “kills”? Why or why not?

5. Are there times when killing is not justified in the heat of battle? Explain.

FIGURE 2–19 A stamp commemorates Canadian air ace Billy Bishop.
The War at Sea

When war broke out between Britain and Germany, leaders expected that huge battles would be fought at sea. As part of the growing militarism in the years before the war, Britain asked Canada to help contribute to its naval forces. In 1910, Prime Minister Wilfrid Laurier introduced the Naval Service Act, which authorized the building of Canadian warships. The ships would be under Canadian control but could be turned over to Britain if war broke out. Many French Canadians felt that Canada should not automatically support Britain in war. This created tensions with English Canadians, most of whom felt they owed Britain their allegiance.

During the war, Britain relied heavily on its own navy to protect the freighters that brought supplies and troops to the Western Front. While Canada’s navy was small and unable to contribute much to the war effort, Canada’s merchant marine played a significant role in the war by doing the dangerous work of ferrying munitions and food to Britain. Although not officially members of the armed forces, many merchant marines lost their lives when their ships were attacked crossing the Atlantic.

Submarine Warfare

Although Germany could not match Britain’s navy in size and strength, its U-boat was a dangerous weapon because it could travel under water without being detected. Equipped with torpedoes, U-boats took their toll on Allied warships and merchant ships. Eventually the Allies developed the convoy system to help protect their ships from the German U-boats. Freighters travelled together and were defended by armed destroyers. The Allies also developed an underwater listening device that helped them locate and destroy U-boats. Both of these advances helped to greatly reduce the threat of German submarines.

Germany’s aggressive use of submarines also contributed to the United States entering the war in 1917. In 1915, a German U-boat sank the Lusitania, a British passenger liner, killing close to 1200 passengers. Among the dead were Canadian and American civilians. In February 1917, Germany announced that U-boats would sink any ship within the war zone around Britain—including ships that were not from Allied countries. German leaders believed that this move would put a stranglehold on Britain and help end the war. But this threat also made American ships targets and encouraged the United States to enter the war on the side of the Allies on April 2, 1917.

**FIGURE 2–20** The sinking of the Lusitania

Thinking Critically Explain why the United States felt justified in entering the war after the sinking of the Lusitania. Can you think of any recent events that resulted in political and military conflict? What are some non-military options to resolve disputes between countries?
The Home Front

Canada and many of its citizens were committed to supporting the war effort. Prime Minister Borden replaced Sam Hughes’s Shell Committee with the more efficient Imperial Munitions Board, and munitions factories started building ships and airplanes as well as shells. The production and export of Canadian goods reached record highs. Resources such as lumber, nickel, copper, and lead were in high demand. Canadian farmers produced as much wheat and beef as they could to feed the troops overseas. This demand for Canadian goods helped its economy boom during the war.

Most of what Canada produced was exported to Europe, so many goods became scarce within Canada, which caused prices to rise. Some Canadian businesses made enormous profits from the inflated prices. Workers became increasingly frustrated by government controls that kept wages low yet allowed prices to rise. Workers’ demands for higher wages and better working conditions became a major issue after the war.

Supporting the War Effort

By 1918, the war effort was costing Canada about $2.5 million daily. The government launched several initiatives to cover these costs.

• Canadians were urged to buy Victory Bonds. The government raised close to $2 billion through these bonds, which Canadians could cash in for a profit when the war was over.

• Honour rationing was introduced to help combat shortages on the home front. Canadians used less butter and sugar, and the government introduced “Meatless Fridays” and “Fuel-less Sundays” to conserve supplies.

• In 1917, the Canadian government introduced income tax—a measure that was supposed to be temporary. Affluent individuals and families had to pay a tax of between 1 and 15 percent of their income.

• A corporate tax was also introduced, charging businesses four percent of their revenues. Many Canadians thought this was too low, considering the profits some companies made during the war.

Despite these efforts, the government still did not raise enough money to cover the costs of the war effort. It had to borrow money from other countries, in particular the United States, to pay its debts.
Getting the Message Out

During the First World War, Canadians were bombarded with propaganda. It was everywhere: films, magazine articles, radio programs, political speeches, and posters. Appealing to their sense of patriotism, propaganda encouraged people to join the army, buy Victory Bonds, use less fuel, eat less meat, and support the government. Some of the campaigns used social pressure to encourage men to join the army, contributing to the fact that the majority of Canadians who served in the First World War were volunteers.

Propaganda often distorted the truth. The number of Allied soldiers killed or wounded was minimized, while enemy casualties were exaggerated. British commanders were praised even as they continued to waste lives in futile attacks. When Germany invaded Belgium in 1914, refugees who escaped to England told horrible stories about the invasion. Writers used these stories to portray German troops as barbarians intent on destroying the civilized world. While this propaganda was intended to recruit soldiers, it also fuelled prejudice on the home front. Many Canadian citizens were treated as enemy aliens, subjected to harsh restrictions by the government and violent attacks by angry citizens.

Women and the War

Before 1914, middle-class women had few options for working outside the home. Some became nurses or teachers. Others were employed as domestic servants or worked at low-skill, low-paying jobs in food and clothing industries. During the war, increased industrial production created a demand for labour. Women were hired for all types of work, from operating fishing boats to working on farms. One Toronto woman who worked filling artillery shells described her motivation on the job as follows:

“There was everybody, every single class.... [W]e began to realize that we were all sisters under the skin.... [T]here’s nothing that draws people together more than mutual trouble.... [W]e felt, “The boys are doing that for us, what are we doing for them?” You just rolled up your sleeves and you didn’t care how tired you were or anything else.”

—Tapestry of War, 1992

What effect did the war have on the role of women?
Suffrage Is Granted to Women

Without women’s efforts on the home front, Canada’s wartime economy would have collapsed. But when the war ended, most employers assumed that women would return to work in their homes. Many women believed that their contribution to the war effort should allow them to make decisions about how their country was run. During the 1915 provincial election in Manitoba, one of the Liberal Party’s campaign promises was to give women the right to vote. They kept their promise, and Manitoban women received this right in January 1916. Thanks to the efforts of suffragists across the country, women in other provinces soon won the right to vote as well. Alberta and Saskatchewan followed Manitoba’s example later in 1916, with Ontario and British Columbia following in 1917. In 1918, women were granted the right to vote in federal elections, with the exception of Aboriginal and immigrant women.

The Halifax Explosion

During the war, Halifax was a valuable base for refuelling and repairing Allied warships. It was also the chief departure point for soldiers and supplies headed to Europe. The harbour was extremely busy, but there was little traffic control and collisions were frequent.

On December 6, 1917, the SS Mont Blanc, a French vessel carrying more than 2500 tonnes of explosives, was accidentally hit by another ship. The collision caused an explosion so powerful that it devastated Halifax’s harbour and levelled much of the city. More than 2000 people were killed, another 9000 were injured, and thousands were left homeless by the explosion and the fires it caused.

KEY TERM

propaganda information, usually produced by governments, presented in such a way as to inspire and spread particular beliefs or opinions

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. How was propaganda used during the war? Discuss whether it is appropriate to manipulate information for patriotic purposes during war. What differences, if any, are there between propaganda and advertising?

2. List specific military contributions made by Canada.

3. Explain how women contributed to the war effort, and describe how their status in Canadian society changed as a result.

4. What contributions did Canadians on the home front make to the war effort?

5. Imagine you are the prime minister and you have received a request for aid from the mayor of Halifax after the 1917 explosion. Write a response explaining why help will be limited.
Aboriginal Peoples and the First World War

Canada’s Aboriginal peoples contributed greatly to the war effort, both by giving money to the cause and by volunteering for the armed forces. This was despite the fact that First Nations’ land claims were being brought before the government, and they faced racism, bigotry, and poverty. In fact, at the start of the war, the government discouraged Aboriginal peoples from enlisting. Why, then, did they take part in the conflict?

Many Aboriginal peoples felt strongly about their relationship with the British Crown, with which they had signed important agreements. Many were descended from Loyalists who had fought for Britain in the American Revolution and in the War of 1812. In the words of one Aboriginal soldier:

...[T]he participation of Great Britain in the war has occasioned expressions of loyalty from the Indians, and the offer of contributions from their funds toward the general expenses of the war or toward the Patriotic Fund. Some bands have also offered the services of their warriors if they should be needed.

—Indian Affairs, Annual Report, 1913–1914

Young Aboriginal men saw the war as an opportunity to prove themselves. Most came from isolated communities and thought the war would be an opportunity for adventure. Also, soldiers were paid, so there was an economic incentive for volunteering.

The hunting tradition of many Aboriginal peoples was excellent training for the battlefield, where steady nerves, patience, and good marksmanship made them excellent sharpshooters. Francis Pegahmagabow, an Ojibwa, and Henry Louis Norwest, a Métis, both won Military Medals for their exceptional service as snipers and scouts. Inuit soldier John Shiwak compared sniping to swatching, shooting seals in open water as they popped up to breathe. Often, Aboriginal spiritual traditions went to the Western Front, as recounted by Francis Pegahmagabow:

When I was... on Lake Superior, in 1914, some of us landed from our vessel to gather blueberries near an Ojibwa camp. An old Indian recognized me, and gave me a tiny medicine-bag to protect me, saying that I would shortly go into great danger. Sometimes [the bag] seemed to be as hard as rock, at other times it appeared to contain nothing. What really was inside it I do not know. I wore it in the trenches, but lost it when I was wounded and taken to a hospital.

—Francis Pegahmagabow

In the end, more than 4000 Aboriginal peoples volunteered for service, including nurse Edith Anderson Monture and Boston Marathon winner Tom Longboat, an Onondaga, who served at the Somme.

Looking Further

1. What motivated Aboriginal peoples to enlist in the First World War? What qualities helped them to excel on the battlefield?

2. Do you think Aboriginal peoples’ contribution to the war effort would have been featured in a textbook 50 years ago? Why or why not?
The Conscription Crisis

By 1917, thousands of Canadian men had been killed and many thousands more had been seriously wounded. Many men were working in essential industries at home to support the war effort, so there were not enough volunteers to replenish the Canadian forces in Europe.

When the war began, Prime Minister Borden promised there would be no conscription, or compulsory enlistment, for military service. But when Borden learned how many men were needed to win the battle at Vimy Ridge, he saw that Canada would have to send more troops to Europe. In 1917, Borden introduced the Military Service Act, which made enlistment compulsory. At first, the Act allowed exemptions for the disabled, the clergy, those with essential jobs or special skills, and conscientious objectors who opposed the war based on religious grounds. Conscription turned out to be a very controversial and emotional issue that divided the country and left lasting scars.

Opposition in Québec

While Canada had a high overall rate of volunteers, recruitment was uneven across the country, with the lowest levels in Québec. Many French Canadians were farmers and were needed at home. The majority of them did not feel a patriotic connection to either Britain or France because their ancestors had come to Canada generations before. They saw the Military Service Act as a means of forcing them to fight in a distant war that had no connection to them. Relations between Francophones and Anglophones were also strained because French language rights had been lost in many schools outside Québec. When Francophone men did volunteer, there was little effort to keep them together and few officers spoke French. This did little to encourage French Canadians to volunteer to fight overseas and made them feel like second-class citizens on the home front.

Québec nationalist Henri Bourassa was one of the most outspoken critics of conscription. Bourassa believed that the country had lost enough men and spent enough money on a war that had little to do with Canada. Spending more money and sending more troops would bankrupt the country and put a strain on Canada’s agricultural and industrial production. He argued that a weakened economy would eventually threaten Canada’s political independence. He also believed that conscription would bitterly divide the nation by aggravating tensions between Francophones and Anglophones. Bourassa was right. Violent clashes erupted in Québec between people protesting conscription and those who supported the war.

KEY TERMS

conscription  forced enlistment in the armed forces of all fit men of certain ages

Military Service Act  a 1917 Act that made conscription compulsory for all Canadian men between the ages of 20 and 45, calling up the younger men first

conscientious objector  a person who opposes war for religious or moral reasons
The Labour Movement

Farmers, particularly on the Prairies, also opposed conscription because they needed their sons to work the farm at home, not fight a war overseas. Industrial workers felt they were already contributing to the war effort and did not want to give up their jobs to fight in Europe.

In British Columbia, the coal miners of Vancouver Island led the labour movement’s opposition to conscription. During the war, miners were urged to increase their output, while wages and working conditions did not improve and the mining companies made more profit. Workers were already finding it difficult to provide for their families because of soaring prices and low wages, and conscription would mean they would earn even less. In 1917, labour leader Albert “Ginger” Goodwin led a group of smelter workers in a strike, demanding an eight-hour workday. During the strike, Goodwin received his conscription notice to report for duty, even though he had been previously excused from active service because he had “black lung” from working in the mines. Goodwin applied for exemption from service. When he was turned down, he hid in the mountains with several other union members and conscientious objectors. He was eventually tracked down and killed by the police.

The Khaki Election of 1917

Prime Minister Borden soon realized that there was strong opposition to conscription in many parts of Canada. To try to strengthen his position, he asked Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberals to join his Conservatives to form a union or coalition government. But Laurier was firmly against conscription, believing the “law of the land... declares that no man in Canada shall be subjected to compulsory military service except to repel invasions or for the defence of Canada....”

Failing to get the Liberal leader’s support, Borden passed two pieces of legislation to try to ensure he would win an election. He introduced the Military Voters Act, which allowed men and women serving overseas to vote. He also passed the Wartime Elections Act, which gave the vote to all Canadian women related to servicemen, but cancelled the vote for all conscientious objectors and immigrants who had come from enemy countries in the last 15 years. The 1917 election became known as the khaki election because of these attempts to win the support of people serving during the war.

Before the election, Borden was able to sway some Liberals and independents who favoured conscription to join him in forming a wartime Union Government. In addition, the Liberals lost much support outside Québec because of Laurier’s position on conscription. As a result, the Union Government won the majority of votes in the 1917 election.
Conscription Divides the Country

The Union Government won the election with strong support from the armed forces and women, but the anger and resentment stirred up by the conscription debate did not subside. In Québec, people continued to demonstrate against conscription even after the election. Crowds in Montréal marched through the streets shouting “À bas Borden” (“down with Borden”). Canadian troops were pelted with rotten vegetables and stones when they taunted French Canadians for refusing to enlist. Tensions finally erupted at anti-conscription riots in Québec City during the Easter weekend of 1918. On April 1, four demonstrators were shot and killed by soldiers. Ten soldiers were wounded over that weekend as well.

Nevertheless, conscription took place. Of the 401,882 men across Canada who were called up, only 125,000 were enlisted and about 25,000 conscripted soldiers reached France before the end of the war.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Union Government (Borden)</th>
<th>Liberals (Laurier)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Atlantic Canada</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Québec</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ontario</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Canada</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 2–30 Results of the 1917 election by region; number of seats in Parliament

Using Evidence: Find evidence to support the view that the 1917 election divided the country.

**FAST FORWARD**

Conscription Around the World, 2009

1. Why do you think some countries have conscription while others do not?
2. Do you think that there should be mandatory military service in Canada? Explain your thinking.

**FIGURE 2–31** Mandatory military service in countries around the world in 2009

**PRACTICE QUESTIONS**

1. Why did Prime Minister Borden believe that conscription was necessary? Who was opposed to conscription and why?
2. Write a letter to the editor of the Vancouver Sun from Henri Bourassa explaining why conscription was not good for the country.
3. In pairs, create small election posters for the khaki election. Aim your advertising at two of the following groups: soldiers, women, French Canadians, or English Canadians.
4. Why do you think Borden did not allow conscientious objectors or recent Canadian immigrants from enemy countries to vote in the 1917 election? Why did he not give the vote to all women in 1917?
5. By 1917, Canadian soldiers were being used as “shock” troops, leading the attacks in battles. Imagine you are in the position of Robert Borden. Make a list of pros and cons for sending more troops.
The End of the War

After three long years in a stalemate on the Western Front, two important events in the spring of 1917 changed the direction of the war. Like the other members of the Triple Entente, Russia dedicated its resources to the war. Thousands of soldiers died fighting along the Eastern Front. At home, supplies and food were limited and prices soared. People became increasingly frustrated, and a series of revolutions forced Czar Nicholas to abdicate in March of 1917. The Provisional Government was formed, but the Russian people were still dissatisfied with it and the war. In October 1917, socialist revolutionaries, called Bolsheviks, overthrew the Provisional Government, promising the war-weary public “peace and bread.” They began negotiating with the Central Powers to end the war.

While Russia’s internal politics weakened the Allies on the Eastern Front, another important event of early 1917 shifted power on the Western Front. The United States, still angered by the sinking of neutral ships such as the Lusitania, learned that Germany promised to support Mexico if it attacked the United States. On April 2, 1917, the United States declared war on Germany. In eight months, American soldiers reached the Western Front.

The Hundred Days Campaign

On March 3, 1918, Russia and the Central Powers signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. This truce on the Eastern Front freed German troops to fight on the Western Front. Germany knew that it needed a quick victory before American troops reached France. In a desperate offensive beginning in March 1918, the German army struck at weak points in the Allies’ lines and drove deep into France. Positions that had been won at great cost in lives, including Ypres, the Somme, and Passchendaele, were lost within weeks. By the summer of 1918, the new front line was only 75 kilometres from Paris.

With the arrival of the Americans, the Allies rallied and were able to stop the German advance. In August 1918, the Allies launched a series of attacks that came to be known as the Hundred Days Campaign. Canada’s offensives were among the most successful of all the Allied forces during this campaign. Canadian troops, under the disciplined command of General Currie, broke through German lines and won important battles at Arras, Cambrai, and Valenciennes.

The Central Powers Collapse

Their final offensive in France and the battles of the Hundred Days Campaign exhausted the Germans and the rest of the Central Powers. They had no reserves and could not continue without fresh troops, food, and supplies. The Central Powers collapsed one by one. In November 1918, the German Kaiser abdicated and fled to Holland and Austria-Hungary agreed to a ceasefire. An armistice, or truce to end the war, on the Western Front was finally signed in a railway car in France at 5:00 a.m. on November 11, 1918. The war was to stop at 11:00 a.m. This corresponds to the date and time of our modern-day Remembrance Day ceremonies.
Canada’s Emerging Autonomy

After signing the armistice, the leaders of the Allies and the other countries that won the war met in Paris in 1919 to discuss the terms of a peace agreement. The Paris Peace Conference lasted for six months and resulted in a number of treaties that defined new borders and compensation for losses suffered during the war. More than 30 countries attended the conference, each with their own agenda. Germany and its allies were not allowed to participate. Russia, which had already negotiated the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany in 1918, was not invited.

Participating in Peace

The Paris Peace Conference marked an important moment in Canada’s emerging autonomy from Britain. Because Canada had contributed so much to the war and its soldiers had fought under Canadian leaders on the battlefields, Prime Minister Borden demanded Canada have its own seat at the conference. U.S. President Woodrow Wilson opposed Canada’s participation. He thought that Britain should vote on behalf of the British Empire and that a separate vote for Canada was really just another vote for Britain. But British Prime Minister Lloyd George reminded Wilson that Canada had fought longer and supplied more troops than other countries. In the end, Canada won a seat at the conference and Borden insisted that he be included among those leaders who signed the Treaty of Versailles. For the first time, Canada gained international recognition as an independent nation.

The Treaty of Versailles

One of the treaties that came out of the Paris Peace Conference was the Treaty of Versailles. This document laid out the terms of peace between Germany and the Allies. Initially, U.S. President Wilson proposed a 14-point plan for “just and lasting peace” that emphasized forgiveness and future international cooperation. But some Allied leaders wanted to shame Germany and make it pay for the damage their countries had suffered during the war.

What factors contributed to Canada’s emerging autonomy?

What If…

Imagine Canada had not been given a separate seat at the Paris Peace Conference. How might that have affected Canadian autonomy?

### FIGURE 2–33

Approximate* number of military casualties of the First World War (in thousands)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Dead</th>
<th>Wounded</th>
<th>Missing</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>659</td>
<td>2032</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>3050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1359</td>
<td>4200</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>5921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>4065</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>5768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>1700</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>6700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria-Hungary</td>
<td>922</td>
<td>3600</td>
<td>855</td>
<td>5377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Although precise casualty numbers for the First World War are not available, these numbers can be considered a reliable estimate of the casualties incurred by these countries.

### FIGURE 2–34

Leaders from around the world gathered in Versailles, outside of Paris, to negotiate a peace agreement, which became known as the Treaty of Versailles.
In the end, the Treaty of Versailles included the following terms:

- Germany had to agree to a **War Guilt Clause**, meaning that it had to accept sole responsibility for causing the war.
- Germany’s territory would be reduced. Alsace-Lorraine would be returned to France. Rhineland, on the west bank of the Rhine River, would remain part of Germany but would be demilitarized. Some of Germany’s land would be given to Poland so it would have a corridor to the sea. Germany also had to give up control of its colonies.
- Germany had to pay war reparations totalling approximately $30 billion.
- The German army was to be restricted to 100 000 men. Germany also had to surrender its navy—including its U-boats—and much of its merchant fleet. It was not allowed to have an air force.
- Austria and Germany were forbidden to unite.

The Treaty of Versailles was signed on June 28, 1919. Naturally, Germany was reluctant to agree to such punishing terms, but it submitted because the Allies threatened to resume fighting. The reparation terms were particularly harsh. Like other European countries, Germany’s economy was in ruins after the war and it could not make full reparation payments. Under the Treaty of Versailles, different ethnic and cultural groups were combined to create new nations, which left many people without a homeland. This meant that the feelings of nationalism that helped fuel the war were still unresolved. Many historians believe that, instead of lasting peace, the treaty brought the certainty of renewed war. Even British Prime Minister Lloyd George later found the terms too harsh. He observed that, “We shall have to fight another war all over again in 25 years at three times the cost.”
Did the war have a positive or negative effect on Canada?

The First World War brought profound changes to Canada. It changed the way we see ourselves as a nation. Canadian troops fought well as a united force and their victories at Vimy Ridge and Passchendaele distinguished them as disciplined and courageous fighters. The need for war supplies stimulated the economy, resulting in major growth in Canadian industry. Women won the right to vote for the first time. The First World War marked Canada’s coming of age as it moved from a collection of disparate communities to a nation united by a sense of pride and identity. Canada gained international status by participating at the Paris Peace Conference, and Canadians began to see themselves less as colonials in the British Empire and more as citizens of an independent country. According to Canadian historian George Woodcock,

…the emergence of Canada… as a nation among nations within the broader world context, caused people to think less of what divided them than of what united them. They shared a single, if immense, geographical terrain, a common historical tradition in which their various pasts intermingled of necessity, and an identity in which the sense of being colonial—and therefore being linked irrevocably to a land far away—metamorphosed into a sense of being Canadian. —George Woodcock

A Country Divided

The war had a very negative effect on the solidarity of Canada. The issue of conscription and the bitterness of the debate between Anglophones and Francophones have never been completely forgotten. Those who spoke out against conscription were accused of being unpatriotic and labelled cowards. Such accusations isolated many French Canadians from the federal government that had broken its promise not to impose conscription. The War Measures Act also caused problems in many communities where immigrants from Eastern European countries suffered racial discrimination even after the war. Aboriginal leaders, who hoped their peoples’ contributions to the war would ensure them a better situation, were disappointed. If anything, Canadian society was more discriminatory than ever.

The Cost of War

The losses both at home and throughout the world were staggering. Approximately 1.5 million people were killed during the First World War, and millions more were psychologically or physically wounded. The economic costs of the war in destruction and lost productivity were enormous. Between 1914 and 1918, Canada sent many millions of dollars’ worth of materials overseas, creating a debt that took decades to pay off. Some historians challenge the idea that the First World War marked Canada’s coming of age. Historian Jonathan Vance asks, “How could a war that saw the deaths of 60,000 Canadians and the wounding of 170,000 others become a constructive force in the nation’s history?” Vance believes that Canada’s “coming of age” was a myth that developed during the 1920s and 1930s to transform the horrors of the war into a more positive experience. The maturity myth was meant to help heal the country, Vance says, because believing in it meant wartime losses had served a real purpose for Canada.

Analyzing the Issue

1. Define “coming of age.” How did the First World War help bring about Canada’s “coming of age”?
2. Make a study tool on the theme of Canadian unity and the effects of the First World War. Which events enhanced Canadian unity and which diminished it?
3. You and a partner have been chosen to be on a panel to discuss the impact of the First World War on Canada’s development. One of you will defend George Woodcock’s position, the other, that of Jonathan Vance. Prepare your arguments and present them to the class for further discussion.
The League of Nations

The Treaty of Versailles included the formation of the League of Nations. The League was Woodrow Wilson’s brainchild—as the idea of international cooperation was one of the most important elements of his 14-point plan for lasting peace. The League was based on the principle of collective security. If one member came under attack, all members united against the aggressor, much as the forging of alliances hoped to accomplish at the beginning of the war. As part of his struggle to be included in the Paris Peace Conference, Prime Minister Borden also won the right for Canada to become a member of the newly formed League. The League’s 42 founding nations first met in Paris on January 16, 1920.

The idea of a League of Nations was not welcomed by everyone. Britain and France had doubts about it and wanted the freedom to pursue their imperialist ambitions. But their leaders realized that Wilson’s proposal had propaganda value, so they agreed to the basic concept, at least in principle. Smaller nations, always concerned about becoming victims of the great powers, eagerly looked forward to a new era of peace. Ironically, the United States refused to join the League. Wilson had powerful opponents who rejected the principle of collective security, which would involve the U.S. in world affairs.

The League’s Limitations

In many ways, the League of Nations proved to be a more idealistic vision than a practical solution to world problems. The refusal of the United States to join the League greatly undermined its effectiveness to resolve disputes in the years after the First World War. It required the nations of the world to cooperate with one another, which was not something they had done very well in the past. The League could punish an aggressive nation by imposing economic sanctions against it, thus restricting trade with the offending nation. But the League did not have a military force of its own to impose its decisions on aggressor nations. Nor was it easy to impose sanctions.
Canada After the War

After four long years of fighting, Canadian soldiers were finally on their way home. Most returned to Canada in early 1919 only to find that there were no steady pensions for veterans, no special medical services for those wounded in the war, and above all, few jobs. To make matters worse, many employers had grown rich during the war. The veterans had made the sacrifices, but it seemed that others were reaping the rewards.

Aboriginal soldiers returning to Canada faced even greater disappointments. During the war, they benefited from some of the social changes that took place, including gaining the right to vote under the Military Voters Act. Aboriginal peoples also believed that their contributions to the war effort would be acknowledged. But they found that nothing had changed. They still faced prejudice, and Aboriginal soldiers received even less support and opportunities than other veterans after the war.

Flu Pandemic of 1918

During the winter of 1918 to 1919, a deadly influenza virus (called Spanish Flu) swept across Europe, killing millions. Many returning soldiers carried the virus to North America. Young people were especially susceptible to the virus, which caused the deaths of an estimated 21 million people worldwide, more than the war itself. From 1918 to 1920, approximately 50 000 Canadians died during the epidemic. Many small Aboriginal communities were almost wiped out. Schools and public places were closed for months in an effort to stop the spread of the virus, and in some communities, people were required to wear breathing masks in public.

Figure 2–36 After the devastation of the First World War, conditions were right for the flu virus to spread rapidly.

Developing Understanding Why are these people wearing masks?

Worldwide Pandemics

When an infectious disease spreads rapidly across a continent or the whole world, it is called a pandemic.

Today, pandemics can spread more rapidly due to increased mobility of the global population. The SARS outbreak of 2003 demonstrated how air travel could help spread disease across continents. H1N1, or Swine Flu, which was first identified in Mexico in 2008, rapidly spread around the globe. H1N1 is a very similar strain to the Spanish Flu, which caused the pandemic of 1918 that killed millions.
CHAPTER REVIEW

CHAPTER FOCUS QUESTION

What effect did Canada’s participation in the First World War have on Canadian society and its status as a nation?

The First World War influenced many events throughout the 20th century. It was also Canada’s “baptism of fire” and helped create a Canadian identity. Before the war, Canada was part of the British Empire. Many Canadians identified with Britain as much as they did with Canada. The First World War changed that. Men from across the country trained together and then fought together far from home. Canadian troops proved themselves at Ypres, Vimy Ridge and other battles, and Canada won a place at the peace table at the end of the war. But the war also exposed a deep divide in the land: the different goals and aspirations of French and English Canadians were dramatically at odds, as the conscription crisis of 1917 had shown. On the positive side, women, working in factories and fields and doing jobs formerly reserved for men, saw their roles in society differently as a result. In 1917, women voted for the first time in a federal election. Although the cost in lives was great, the First World War helped transform Canada into a modern industrial nation with international standing.

1. Complete the following organizer to show how Canada changed over the course of the First World War.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>August 1914</th>
<th>November 1918</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relations with Britain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status of women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feelings of national identity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of government</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French–English relations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vocabulary Focus

2. Review the Key Terms listed on page 25 to help you understand the nature and progress of the First World War and its effects on Canada. Learn the key terms of the chapter by using the method of key term review presented in Question 2 of the Chapter Review in Chapter 1. Alternatively, use the key terms in a letter that Robert Borden might have written to explain why and how the war started, how it was progressing, and why it was good or bad for Canada.

Knowledge and Understanding

3. Create an annotated timeline showing steps to Canadian autonomy. This will be an ongoing assignment throughout the history section of this course. Start at 1914 and add dates to the timeline as you progress through each chapter. Provide the date and name of the event, and explain how the event contributed to Canadian autonomy.

4. Create a bubble diagram, or flow diagram, around the assassination of Crown Prince Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo. Link events that led up to the assassination and what resulted from it. Try to show cause and result where possible.
5. You have the opportunity to accompany either Robert Borden or Henri Bourassa during the weeks when conscription was a national issue. Write a series of blogs on your experience. Be sure to mention the Wartime Elections Act, the Military Service Act, and the election of 1917.

6. In a small group, discuss the following: Without the support received from the home front, Canadian soldiers would not have been as successful on the battlefields of Europe. Write down your group’s responses so you can share with the rest of the class.

7. Review the descriptions of technology and trench warfare. In a letter home from a First World War nurse or soldier, explain why you think so many soldiers are being killed or wounded. When you have finished your letter, bracket any parts that the wartime censors would have “inked out” of your letter.

8. Write a paragraph explaining the concept of total war. Provide specific examples from Canada during the First World War.

Critical Thinking

9. In a small group, discuss the wartime internment and monitoring of “enemy aliens.” Record your thoughts on display paper and present the results of your discussion to the class. In what ways was the treatment of these immigrants unjust? Do you think immigrants could be treated this way today in a similar situation? Can you think of modern parallels?

10. Use the organizer you developed in the Chapter Focus section to help you answer the following:
   - Assess Canada’s contributions to the First World War. Provide specific examples of Canadian contributions and evaluate how important that contribution was to the war effort.
   - Explain the social, political, and economic impacts of the war on Canada.

11. **Cause and Consequence** How did each of the technologies in the innovations feature help to change the nature of war?

Document Analysis

12. Primary sources give us glimpses into what people of a certain period were thinking about, and into the issues that were important to them. At the beginning of the war, being part of the British Empire meant that Canada almost automatically went to war when Britain was threatened by a powerful enemy. Most Canadians of British origin accepted this but feared that Canadians would lose their identity by being put into British army units to fight as “British” soldiers. Consider this excerpt from a 1916 letter to Prime Minister Robert Borden from his Minister of Militia, Sam Hughes:

   I do recall my visit to Britain in the autumn of 1914. I did expect... that I would have been permitted to exercise some “control and direction” over our gallant Canadian boys... But there had evidently been some communication... that “control and direction” of this magnificent Force should be under the British government direct.
   The then Mr. George Perley, Acting High Commissioner, implied such in the following words: — “You do not pretend surely to have anything to do with the Canadian soldiers in Britain.”

   –Excerpt from letter, November 1, 1916

As you read through the excerpt, consider the following questions.
- What surprised Hughes on his 1914 visit?
- What was the heart of the issue for Hughes and other Canadians?
- Knowing what you know about Sam Hughes, why do you think he would call the first Canadian volunteers a “magnificent force”?
- How important was it to Canadian identity that Canadians fight as part of their own army?
Canada in the 1920s

1919
Winnipeg General Strike gives voice to post-war dissatisfaction
League of Nations established, with Canada as a full member

1920
British Columbia votes against Prohibition

1921
Minority government elected
Agnes Macphail becomes first woman elected to Parliament
Frederick Banting and Charles Best discover insulin

1922
Prime Minister Mackenzie King refuses to send troops to support Britain during the Chanak Crisis

1923
Mackenzie King signs the Halibut Treaty with the United States and refuses to let Britain sign
Foster Hewitt gives play-by-play for first radio broadcast of a Canadian hockey game
CHAPTER FOCUS QUESTION

How did Canada adjust to political, social, and economic changes following the First World War?

The 1920s are generally thought of as a decade of prosperity, fun, and wild living. To some extent this was true. The end of the war released an emotional flood of relief. Prompted by the horror and exhaustion of war, young people in particular tried to sweep away the remnants of the old world. This was the “Jazz Age.” Bold new music, shocking fashions, and crazy fads quickly spread across the United States and into Canada.

This 1927 editorial from Canadian Homes and Gardens may give a false picture of what life was really like for most women, but it certainly catches the optimism of the age:

There is a certain magic to housekeeping these days—the magic of electricity—over which I confess I never cease to marvel. Your modern housewife leaves the dishes within a machine, pops the dinner into an oven, laundry into a washer, and jumps into a roadster [car] with never a thought except for... the round of golf which she is away to enjoy for an afternoon. She returns to find the washing done, her china and crystal sparkle, a six course dinner is ready for serving.

—Canadian Homes and Gardens, May 1927

Life did improve for many people in the 1920s. For many more, however, the prosperity of the decade was merely an illusion. Life continued as before, filled with discrimination, poverty, and lack of political power.

KEY TERMS

Chapter 3

Canada in the 1920s

61

communism

Winnipeg General Strike

collective bargaining

Prohibition

Persons Case

Famous Five

Canadian Constitution

regionalism

Old Age Pension Act

Chanak Crisis

Halibut Treaty

King-Byng Crisis

Imperial Conference

Balfour Report

Statute of Westminster

Depression

©Pearson Canada

1924

Revised Red Ensign approved for use on Canadian government buildings abroad

1926

King-Byng Crisis illustrates Canada’s need for autonomy from Britain

Imperial Conference leads to publication of the Balfour Report

1927

Federal government introduces old-age pensions; first government-run assistance program in Canada

1929

Persons Case opens way for Canadian women to be appointed to the Senate

Stock market crashes
An Uneasy Adjustment

In November 1918, Canadians celebrated the end of the First World War. Soldiers returned home to find that there were few support services for them, and few jobs. Many Canadians who had jobs were also dissatisfied. During the war, workers had reluctantly agreed to lower wages as part of their patriotic duty. After the war, inflation made it difficult for many people because wages no longer covered the cost of rent and food. Workers demanded more money, and confrontation with employers was inevitable.

The Rise of Communism

At the end of the First World War, many people around the world were dissatisfied with governments and the disparity between rich and poor. As you read in Chapter 2, the Bolsheviks established a communist regime during the violent 1917 Russian Revolution. Under communism, all the means of production (such as factories and farms) and distribution (transportation and stores) are publicly owned. There is no private or individual ownership of business or land. The Bolsheviks encouraged workers around the world to join this revolution. Communism never gained widespread support in Canada, but the ideas of these revolutionaries inspired workers in Canada to try to improve working conditions.

Workers Respond

Workers’ demands for higher wages, better working conditions, and the right to join unions resulted in numerous strikes across Canada. Many strikes were long, bitter disputes. Standoffs between workers and employers, for example, led to four years of labour wars in Eastern Canada. Most communities in the Maritimes depended on a single employer for jobs: the British Empire Steel Corporation. When demand for wartime industries declined after the war, the company tried to save costs by reducing wages. The workers responded by reducing their output and striking. When the strikes turned violent, the company looked for support from provincial police and federal troops. In 1926, a Royal Commission criticized the labour practices of the British Empire Steel Corporation, but the Commission’s findings did little to ease suffering and poverty in the Maritimes.

There were also many strikes over wages and working conditions in western Canada. Some western union leaders were more socialist in their policies, believing as the Bolsheviks did, that ordinary people should be more involved in government. At the Western Labour Conference in March 1919, union leaders from Western Canada founded One Big Union (OBU), which would represent all Canadian workers. The OBU’s goal was to help workers gain more control of industry and government through peaceful means. The main weapon would be the general strike, a walkout by all employed workers.
Canada’s Changing Economy

Canada began the 1920s in a state of economic depression. By the middle of the decade, however, the economy started to improve. Wheat remained an important export for Canada, but there was also enormous growth in the exploitation of natural resources and manufacturing. The demand for Canadian pulp and paper grew, and new mills were built in several provinces. Mining also boomed. Record amounts of lead, zinc, silver, and copper were produced for export. These minerals were used to produce consumer goods such as radios and home appliances. The expanding forest and mining industries increased demand for hydroelectric power and several new hydro-generating stations were constructed to provide Canadian industries with cheap energy.

The United States Invests in Canada’s Economy

Before the war, Canada traded mainly with Britain. After the war, Britain was deeply in debt, and the United States emerged as the world’s economic leader. During the 1920s, American investment in Canada increased. American companies invested in pulp and paper mills and mines across Canada. The majority of these resources were then exported to the U.S. Almost 75 percent of the newsprint produced in Canada was exported to the U.S. Most of the metals mined in Canada were used in American-made products, such as cars and radios.

American Ownership of Canadian Businesses

Rather than lend money to Canadian businesses, the way the British had, most American investors preferred to set up branch plants. By manufacturing cars in Canada for the Canadian market, American car makers avoided having to pay Canadian tariffs. By the end of the 1920s, the Canadian auto industry had been taken over by the “Big Three” American automobile companies—General Motors, Ford, and Chrysler. American companies also owned a large proportion of Canada’s oil business, nearly half of the machinery and chemical industries, and more than half the rubber and electrical companies.

Many Canadians were so pleased with American investment that they did not question the long-term consequences. It was true that the United States enriched Canada’s economy by extracting or harvesting raw materials (primary industries), but these materials were transported to the U.S. for processing and manufacturing (secondary industries). It was the American economy that benefited most from this development.
The Winnipeg General Strike: Labour Unrest or Communist Conspiracy?

In 1919, the labour movement grew across Canada. Workers formed trade unions in many different industries. These groups usually demanded higher pay, better working conditions, and an eight-hour workday. Scores of workers took action by walking off the job. It is said that more workdays were lost to strikes and lockouts in 1919 than in any other year in Canadian history.

Post-war tensions between labour and business boiled over in Winnipeg, at that time the financial centre of Western Canada and its largest city. The city’s metal and building trades workers demanded higher wages, a shorter workweek, and the right to collective bargaining, which would allow union leaders to negotiate with employers on behalf of the union members. Labour and management negotiated for months. Finally, in May 1919, negotiations broke down and the Winnipeg Trades and Labour Council voted for a general strike. Up to 30,000 people walked off the job, crippling the city.

The strike closed factories and retail stores. Many people sympathized with the striking workers, including firefighters and postal workers. There were no streetcars or deliveries of bread or milk, and no telephone or telegraph services. Winnipeg was paralyzed. The Strike Committee, which coordinated the strike, bargained with employers and allowed essential food items to be delivered. Opponents of the strike felt that this showed that the strikers were running Winnipeg, instead of the legally elected civic government.

Not everyone sympathized with the strikers. Many people in Canada worried that the formation of trade unions might lead to the same violent uprisings that happened in Russia. The Red Scare contributed to an anti-communist sentiment that made people nervous about unions. In response to the strike, business leaders, politicians, and industrialists formed the Citizens’ Committee of 1000. The committee saw the union leaders as part of a communist conspiracy to overthrow the government. They urged Winnipeg’s leaders to restore order. The city responded by firing the entire police force, who sympathized with the strikers, and replacing them with a special force to contain the strike. The mayor of Winnipeg also had many civic workers and the strike leaders arrested.

The federal government decided to intervene because it feared that the disruption and protest could spread to other cities. It changed the Criminal Code so that foreign-born union leaders—and anyone whom it believed was trying to start a revolution—could be arrested and deported without trial. The federal government also sent troops to Winnipeg to try to restore order.

On June 21, strikers held a parade to protest the mayor’s actions. The parade turned violent when the Royal North-West Mounted Police and the city’s special force, armed with clubs and pistols, charged the crowd. In the resulting clash, one striker died, 30 were injured, and scores were arrested. This event became known as Bloody Saturday. Defeated, the strikers returned to work after a 43-day protest.
What did the strike achieve? In the short run, the union movement suffered a setback. Seven of the arrested leaders were convicted of conspiracy to overthrow the government and served between two months and two years in prison. Many striking workers were not rehired; others were taken back only if they signed contracts vowing not to join a union. Distrust and divisions between the working class and businesses grew deeper.

In the long run, the verdict is less clear. A Royal Commission set up to examine the strike found that the workers’ grievances were valid. Gradually, much of what they fought for was achieved. Some of those involved in the strike took up political positions in which they could work toward social reform. For example, J.S. Woodsworth (a well-known social reformer who was arrested during the strike) went on to found the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (see Chapter 4), which later became the New Democratic Party.

Looking Further

1. Write a newspaper headline to explain the reaction of the Citizens’ Committee of 1000 to the Winnipeg General Strike. Remember the attitudes and values of the times.

2. Write a letter to the editor of a newspaper to explain why you think the Winnipeg strikers were, or were not, justified in their actions.

KEY TERMS

Winnipeg General Strike massive strike by workers in Winnipeg in 1919

collective bargaining negotiation of a contract between unions and management regarding such things as wages and working conditions

Red Scare period of fear that communism would spread to Canada

Bloody Saturday June 21, 1919, when the Royal North-West Mounted Police charged a crowd of protesters during the Winnipeg General Strike

FIGURE 3–4 Canadians were able to show their support for the strikers in Winnipeg by buying bonds to assist in the “fight for liberty.” The Workers’ Defence Fund used the bonds to help pay for the legal costs of those arrested.
Bootlegging Across the Border

There was one product that Canada exported in large quantities to the United States: illegal alcohol. Although organizations such as the Woman’s Christian Temperance Union succeeded in bringing about prohibition during the First World War, alcohol was still available for those with money. People could get it as a “tonic” from a doctor, or from a “bootlegger”—someone who made or sold alcohol illegally. By 1920, the provincial governments had to admit that Prohibition was not working: it was too unpopular with most Canadians. From 1921 on, most provincial governments regulated the sale of alcohol rather than ban it. In a series of plebiscites, Canadians eventually adopted government-controlled liquor outlets.

In the United States, Prohibition continued until 1933. Canadians took advantage of this golden opportunity to supply the U.S. with illegal liquor. Rum-running—smuggling alcohol into the U.S.—became a dangerous but profitable business. Ships from ports in the Maritimes and Québec, speedboats from Ontario, cars and trucks from the Prairie provinces, and salmon trawlers from British Columbia transported alcohol to the U.S. as fast as they could. Although it was dangerous, rum-running was extremely profitable. Many Canadians tolerated rum-runners and admired how they flouted the U.S. authorities. Canadian governments seemed content to close their eyes to the practice.

FIGURE 3-5 This young woman with a liquor flask in her garter reflected the carefree attitude toward alcohol that was at odds with those who supported Prohibition.

Thinking Critically In what ways would this young woman have outraged the older generation? What comparisons can you make with the attitudes of young and old today?

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. Explain the terms communism, general strike, and collective bargaining.

2. a) What was the effect of the 1917 Communist (Bolshevik) Revolution in Russia on Canada?
   b) Why was the One Big Union seen as a threat?

3. Review the concept of perspective and world view in Building Your Skills (page 82). In a two-column organizer, list reasons why the views from the following two newspaper sources would differ.

Source 1
...this is not a strike at all, in the ordinary sense of the term—it is a revolution. It is a serious attempt to overturn British institutions in this Western country and to supplant them with the Russian Bolshevik system of Soviet rule....

–Winnipeg Citizen, May 17, 1919

Source 2
It must be remembered that [Winnipeg] is a city of only 200 000, and that 35 000 persons are on strike. Thus it will be seen that the strikers and their relatives must represent at least 50 per cent of the population. In the numerical sense, therefore, it cannot be said that the average citizen is against the strike... there is no soviet [revolutionary council]. There is little or no terrorism.

–Toronto Star, May 23, 1919
The Roaring Twenties

The upswing in the economy meant that many Canadians could afford more luxuries and leisure time. The decade became known as the “Roaring Twenties,” reflecting the general feeling of indulgence. The misery of the First World War was over and people enjoyed the new forms of entertainment that were available. The “flapper” look dominated women’s fashion. “Bobbed” hair, hemlines above the knees, and silk stockings outraged the older generations. Young people also scandalized their parents with dances such as the Charleston, the Shimmy, and the Turkey Trot.

Increased Mobility

In the 1920s, the automobile was beginning to change the landscape of the country. The invention of the assembly line in 1913 by Henry Ford meant that cars could be mass produced inexpensively and quickly. The most popular automobile was the Model T Ford. By the late 1920s, 50 percent of Canadian homes had an automobile. Its popularity prompted more and better roads to be built, making it easier for people to travel.

Aviation expanded rapidly in the years after the war. Airplanes helped to make the rugged coast of British Columbia and Canada’s remote northern regions more accessible. Many veteran pilots became “bush pilots” who flew geologists and prospectors into remote areas to explore mining opportunities. Wilfrid “Wop” May was one of the best-known bush pilots who became famous for his daring exploits. In 1929, he and another young pilot tackled dangerous flights from Edmonton to help save the people of Fort Vermilion from a contagious outbreak by delivering serum. May’s most famous adventure was his participation in the RCMP hunt for Albert Johnson, the “Mad Trapper” of Rat River. May’s flight made Canadian history due to the duration of the chase and because it was the first time two-way radios and aircraft were used in pursuit of a criminal.

Improved Communications

By the 1920s, the telephone had become a standard household appliance. Telephone lines were shared by many neighbours, which meant anyone could listen in on your conversation. Widespread use of the radio began to break down the isolation between far-flung communities. It soon became a necessity, bringing news as well as popular culture and entertainment into Canadian homes across the country. The radio was a revolutionary development. Smaller Canadian stations, however, soon found it difficult to compete with bigger, more powerful stations from the United States. By the end of the 1920s, nearly 300 000 Canadians were tuning in to American stations for their news and entertainment. Canada would move to introduce legislation to ensure Canadian content, which you will learn about in Chapter 6.
An alternative to the snow shovel
Born in Québec, Arthur Sicard responded to Canadian winters by inventing the snow blower in 1925. The difficulty of travelling on snowy roads in early automobiles led him to find a way to efficiently remove snow. He adapted a four-wheel drive truck to carry a snow-scooping section and a snow blower that would clear and throw snow up to 30 metres away from the truck.

Rogers hits the airwaves
In 1925, Edward Rogers of Toronto invented the world’s first alternating current (AC) radio tube, replacing the noisy, battery-operated model. The AC radio tube allowed radios to be powered by ordinary household electric current. In 1927, he launched the world’s first all-electric radio station, called Canada’s First Rogers Batteryless (CFRB). In 1931, he was granted Canada’s first television licence.

A medical breakthrough
In 1921–1922, Frederick Banting, assisted by Charles Best, discovered insulin. This discovery continues to help millions of people suffering from diabetes. In 1923, Banting won the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine.

A vehicle of necessity
Armand Bombardier of Valcourt, Québec, was only 15 years old when he developed the snowmobile in 1922. Over the next few years, he improved on the first machine and designed vehicles that could travel on snow-covered roads. His invention helped people in rural and remote areas of Canada overcome the isolation of winter.

During the 1920s, Canadians witnessed rapid changes in technology. Many innovations occurred in household appliances, and inventors from Québec made surviving the Canadian winter a little easier.
Arts and Leisure

With the Roaring Twenties and new-found prosperity, people sought out different forms of entertainment. Canada began to find its voice as a nation with a distinct culture. As a result, several new forms of distinctly Canadian art and entertainment emerged in the 1920s.

Moving Pictures

Soon radio entertainment was rivalled by moving pictures—the movies. At first, movies were silent. An orchestra or piano player would provide sound effects to accompany the silent screen, while subtitles conveyed the messages and dialogue. The “talkies” arrived in 1927 with comedians such as Laurel and Hardy and the Marx Brothers.

Movies about Canada were made here during the early days, but Canadian-made films could not compete with productions from the big studios in the United States. Eventually Hollywood came to dominate the industry. In the absence of a home-grown industry, many Canadian actors, writers, and technicians were drawn to the glitter and glamour of Hollywood. Many were very successful. Movie star Mary Pickford, born in Toronto, became known as “America’s Sweetheart.”

A New Canadian Art

The increased American influence on Canada’s culture coincided with the development of a new Canadian art movement. In 1920, the Group of Seven held an exhibition in Toronto that broke with traditional Canadian art. These painters were in tune with the new post-war national confidence. Rather than imitate realistic classical styles, members of the group sought to interpret Canada’s rugged landscape as they saw it, using broad, bold strokes and brilliant colours. Although criticized by some critics in the early years as the school of “hot mush” painting, the Group of Seven had gained wide acceptance by the end of the 1920s.
Canada’s Growing National Identity

The emerging sense of independence and identity was also reflected in Canadian literature. The political magazine Canadian Forum first appeared in 1920. Political debates and works of Canadian poets and writers appeared regularly on its pages. As well, Maclean’s magazine published Canadian stories and articles from across the country, being careful to use only Canadian spellings. Canadian novelists R.J.C. Stead, F.P. Grove, Martha Ostenso, and Morley Callaghan wrote novels about Canadians and their experiences. And poets A.J. Smith and Frank Scott wrote passionately about Canada and Canadian issues. Yet Canadian magazines and writers found it difficult to compete with American magazines and books.

Sports as Popular Entertainment

The thirst for entertainment led to tremendous interest in spectator sports. Hockey came into Canadian homes across the country when sportswriter Foster Hewitt made the first play-by-play radio broadcast in 1923. Canadian athletes also succeeded on the international stage, including two notable athletes who excelled in several sports. Lionel Conacher was a baseball player, a star at lacrosse, a football player, and an NHL all-star. Nicknamed the “Big Train,” Conacher was known for his power, stamina, and speed. One day in 1922, he hit a triple in the last inning of a baseball game to win the championship for his team and then later the same day he scored four times and assisted once in lacrosse, bringing victory to that team as well. Fanny “Bobbie” Rosenfeld is one of Canada’s greatest female athletes. She was a star at basketball, softball, hockey, and tennis, as well as track and field. In the 1928 Olympic Games in Amsterdam, she won a gold and a silver medal for Canada, becoming a national hero and the best-known Canadian woman of her time.
Emily Carr was a unique Canadian artist and writer. Born in 1871 in Victoria, B.C., she trained in the United States, England, and France at a time when new trends in twentieth-century art were developing. She was also inspired by the Group of Seven. She was moved by their bright, powerful images and inspired by their uniquely Canadian vision and commitment to their art. Lawren Harris, one of the Group, became her mentor and helped her develop her artistic style.

Carr seemed to thrive in the isolation of British Columbia's wilderness and drew her themes from First Nations culture and the raw power of nature. She painted scenes of West Coast forests and Aboriginal cultures. Carr made many journeys to sketch at isolated villages in coastal B.C. She described her work as follows:

Local people hated and ridiculed my newer work.... Whenever I could afford it I went up to the North, among the... woods and forgot all about everything in the joy of those lonely wonderful places. I decided to try and get a good a representative collection of those old villages and wonderful totem poles as I could.... Whether anybody liked them or not I did not care a bean. I painted them to please myself in my own way.... Of course nobody wanted to buy my pictures.

—Emily Carr

At first, Carr gained little recognition for her work. She had almost abandoned hope of making a living from painting when the National Museum in Ottawa organized a showing of West Coast art built around her work. Carr eventually had shows at the Vancouver Art Gallery and in Eastern Canada.

Emily Carr’s expression also took the form of writing, publishing journals and five books. She won a Governor General’s Literary Award for *Klee Wyck*, a collection of stories about her life with British Columbia First Nations peoples. Another well-known book is her autobiography, *Growing Pains*.

1. To what degree did the isolation of Victoria and B.C. influence the art of Emily Carr?
2. Would you consider Emily Carr’s art to be uniquely Canadian? Explain your answer.
3. How important is art like that of Emily Carr and the Group of Seven in developing a Canadian identity? Explain.
4. Why are her paintings so popular today? Explain your answer.
Missing the Roar

Not everyone benefited from the social and economic changes of the Roaring Twenties. Many Canadians still battled discrimination, lack of political representation, and poverty.

The Role of Women

In the 1920s, hopes were high for reforms in health, education, and the working conditions for women and children. Women were gaining more control of their lives and were taking on roles traditionally held by men, such as factory workers, politicians, and even sports stars. Despite these gains, women still faced many social and political restrictions.

Women’s Social Status

The main role of women was as wives and mothers. Married women were expected to stay at home and raise a family. Single women had limited career opportunities. They could be nurses or teachers, but these jobs paid very poorly. A few women became doctors, lawyers, professors, or engineers, but most women who worked in business or industry held jobs as secretaries, telephone operators, or sales clerks. Women usually earned much less than men for doing the same job.

Women in Politics

Although most women had won the right to vote in federal elections in 1918, only four women ran for office during the 1921 election. Only one, Agnes Macphail, won her seat. Macphail was the only woman in the House of Commons until 1935. The four Western provinces elected nine women to their legislatures, but the federal and provincial governments remained firmly male dominated. Although progress for women at the political level was slow, they made gains in social reform. Mary Ellen Smith, British Columbia’s first female Member of the Legislative Assembly (MLA), and reformer Helen Gregory MacGill fought to expand rights for women and children. By the end of the 1920s, an Equal Rights measure was passed in the B.C. legislature. It reversed most of the laws restricting the political and legal rights of women.

How did women advance their status during the 1920s?

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIMELINE</th>
<th>The Advance of Women’s and Children’s Rights in B.C.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>Equal Guardianship of Infants Act gives women same rights to their children as men Helen Gregory MacGill appointed British Columbia’s first female judge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1918</td>
<td>The Women’s Franchise Act passed, allowing most women to vote in federal elections Mary Ellen Smith becomes B.C.’s first female Member of the Legislative Assembly Minimum Wage Bill for Women passed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>Mothers’ Pensions Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>Mary Ellen Smith appointed first female Cabinet minister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922</td>
<td>Jury duty for women approved Maternity Protection Act prohibits the employment of women until six weeks after delivery Fathers made responsible for the maintenance of their children</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**The Persons Case**

The Persons Case of 1929 brought the issue of women participating in politics to a head. Emily Murphy, a well-known suffragist, was appointed a magistrate in Alberta. Her appointment was challenged on the basis that only “persons” could hold this office under the BNA Act, and that women were not “persons” in the eyes of the law. The Supreme Court of Alberta ruled that Murphy did, indeed, have the right to be a judge, but the matter did not stop there. Emily Murphy and four other women activists, known as the Famous Five, challenged Prime Minister Mackenzie King to appoint a woman senator and to clarify the definition of “persons.” In April 1928, the Supreme Court of Canada decided that women were not “persons” under the Canadian Constitution. Murphy and her associates appealed to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in Britain. On October 18, 1929, the Judicial Committee declared its support for the women:

> [The exclusion] of women from all public offices is a relic of days more barbarous than ours.... To those who would ask why the word “person” should include females, the obvious answer is, why should it not?

—Privy Council Judgement, October 18, 1929

Following the decision, Henrietta Muir Edwards wrote:

> Personally I do not care whether or not women ever sit in the Senate, but we fought for the privilege for them to do so. We sought to establish the personal individuality of women and this decision is the announcement of our victory. It has been an uphill fight.

—Quoted in *A Harvest to Reap: A History of Prairie Women*, 1976

The struggle for equality was far from won. The economic upheaval of the next decade would threaten the Famous Five’s hard-earned gains.

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**KEY TERMS**

- **Persons Case** a court case in which the Famous Five successfully fought to have women declared “persons” under Canadian law in 1929
- **Famous Five** five Alberta women who fought for the political status of women
- **Canadian Constitution** the document that describes the powers and responsibilities of the government and its parts, and the rights of citizens

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**FIGURE 3–12** The Famous Five were Nellie McClung, suffrage activist and writer; Emily Murphy, writer and the first female magistrate in the British Empire; Irene Parlby, the first female cabinet minister in Alberta history; former MLA Louise McKinney; and Henrietta Muir Edwards, who helped found the National Council of Women of Canada and the Victorian Order of Nurses.

**Thinking Critically** How do the backgrounds of the Famous Five represent the changing roles of women in the early 20th century?

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**TABLE 3–5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1923</td>
<td>Factory Act amendment prohibits children under 15 from working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>Equal inheritance approved for boys and girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>Mary Ellen Smith appointed the first female speaker of the B.C. legislature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929</td>
<td>Women declared “persons” under Canadian law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>Equal Rights measure gives women legal equality with men</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Aboriginal Peoples: The Struggle to Preserve an Identity

Aboriginal peoples saw little of the good life in the 1920s. As you read in Chapter 2, Aboriginal veterans returning from the battlefields of Europe found that their contribution to the war effort did little to change their situation at home. Aboriginal peoples were still not classified as “persons” under the law. They could not vote in provincial or federal elections. In British Columbia, Aboriginal people did not win the right to vote in provincial elections until 1949. It was not until 1960 that all Aboriginal peoples across Canada could vote in federal elections.

A Policy of Assimilation

The government continued to use residential schools in an attempt to assimilate Aboriginal children. First Nations peoples were instructed by the government to replace traditional or family leaders with graduates of residential schools. This practice often divided the community between those who supported traditional leaders and those who sought to replace them.

In the early 1920s, First Nations peoples in British Columbia challenged the federal and provincial governments by fighting for the right to hold potlatches, an important cultural ceremony among certain peoples of the Pacific Coast. At this ceremony, births, deaths, marriages, and other significant events were recorded in the oral tradition. Potlatches involved families and even entire villages and was a way of establishing status in tribes.

The government viewed potlatch ceremonies as an obstacle to assimilation. The practice was forbidden in 1884. The ban was vigorously enforced after the First World War when the Kwagiulth people decided to hold several potlatch ceremonies in 1921. The provincial government arrested the chiefs responsible, and many were sentenced to jail terms.
The Struggle for Land
Aboriginal peoples in British Columbia continued to struggle for land claims, or Aboriginal title, in the 1920s. Only a few First Nations peoples on Vancouver Island had negotiated land treaties. The federal government had set aside large tracts of land as reserves, but it had been taking some of this land without the consent of the Aboriginal bands involved. These were known as cut-off lands. Aboriginal leaders wanted their claims to the land recognized by the federal government. As you read in Chapter 1 (page 13), Joe Capilano travelled to London, England, in 1906 to present a land claim petition to King Edward VII. Several years later, the Allied Tribes of British Columbia appealed the federal government taking cut-off lands. They claimed the government had gone against the Indian Act, which regulated relations between the federal government and the Aboriginal peoples. The federal government responded by changing the Indian Act so that Aboriginal consent was not needed to transfer reserve lands to the government. The Act was also amended to prevent anyone from raising money to pursue land claims without special permission. This made it virtually impossible for First Nations peoples to fight for Aboriginal title.

The Road to Self-Determination
In addition to residential schools and cut-off lands, Aboriginal peoples also fought against the federal government’s use of enfranchisement to try to enforce assimilation. In 1920, the Indian Act was changed to allow the government to enfranchise people without their consent. This meant that the government could take away a person’s Indian status and land. Aboriginal peoples resisted the government’s policy of involuntary enfranchisement and it was given up two years later. But Aboriginal women who married men who were not status Indians were still forced to give up their Indian status (see Chapter 10).

Cayuga Chief Deskaheh (Lord General), a leader of the Six Nations Council of the Iroquois Confederacy, took the issue of Aboriginal self-determination to the League of Nations in 1923. He wanted international recognition of the Six Nations as an independent state and to end ties with Canada and the Indian Act. The Six Nations would have their own laws, financing, employees, and police. In a radio talk in 1925, Deskaheh explained the rationale behind the Six Nations’ fight for self-determination. Unfortunately, Britain blocked Deskaheh’s efforts for the League of Nations to hear the Six Nations’ claims. Self-determination for Aboriginal peoples in Canada is still an issue today.

This story comes straight from Deskaheh, one of the chiefs of the Cayugas. I am the speaker of the Council of the Six Nations, the oldest League of Nations now existing. It was founded by Hiawatha. It is a League which is still alive and intends, as best it can, to defend the rights of the Iroquois to live under their own laws in their own little countries now left to them, to worship their Great Spirit in their own way, and to enjoy the rights which are as surely theirs as the white man’s rights are his own.

—Chief Deskaheh
African Canadians: Undisguised Racism

The Canadian government discouraged the entry of African Americans into Canada during the heyday of immigration before the First World War. Those who managed to move to Canada faced blatant discrimination. In Nova Scotia, the Education Act of 1918 allowed separate schools for “Blacks” and “Europeans,” a policy that remained unchanged until 1954. Racial segregation was openly practised and, in some instances, supported by the courts. For example, in 1921, the Superior Court of Québec ruled in favour of racially segregated seating in Montréal theatres.

There were also instances of tolerance. In 1919, the Brotherhood of Railway Employees accepted black porters as members. In 1924, Edmonton City Council refused to support an attempt to ban African Canadians from public parks and swimming pools.

Immigrants

After the First World War, the Canadian government adopted immigration restrictions, giving preference to applicants from Britain and the United States. Some Canadians did not want restrictions on immigration for selfish reasons and others welcomed immigrants because they would work for low wages in jobs that Canadian workers did not want. Labour groups, however, supported the restrictions because unions saw the willingness of some immigrants to work long hours for low wages as “unfair competition.”

Restrictions on Asian immigrants were particularly severe. In 1923, the federal government passed a law that virtually excluded Chinese immigrants to Canada until 1947 (see Chapter 1). A Canada-Japan agreement in 1922 restricted immigration from Japan to 150 servants and labourers per year.

In 1925, as the economy improved, the government relaxed restrictions on immigration. Thousands of immigrants landed monthly at Canada’s ports looking for jobs and security. Many were forced to work in terrible conditions for pitiful wages.

Practice Questions

1. **Perspectives:** What does it mean to be a “person” in a legal sense? How did the idea of not being a person affect women, Aboriginals, and visible minorities?

2. What was the attitude toward women in positions of authority in Canada during the 1920s?

3. Give examples to show that the federal government was pursuing a policy of cultural assimilation of Aboriginal peoples. What responses show that Aboriginal peoples were prepared to defend their rights?

4. With a partner, list the issues and criticisms faced by women in the 1920s and women of today. Which are most similar and most different?

5. How were blacks treated in Canada during the early 20th century?

6. Which groups supported immigration and which did not? Explain.
A New Challenge to Federalism: Regionalism

After the war, regionalism, or the concern of the various regions of the country with their own local problems became more pronounced in Canadian politics.

The Maritimes

During the 1920s, the Maritime provinces (Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island) found that their influence in national politics was declining. The population in the Maritimes was small, which meant it had fewer seats in Parliament. Some businesses and banks moved to Ontario and Quebec, while others suffered because their products (such as coal) were no longer in demand. Prominent business and political leaders formed the Maritime Rights movement and urged politicians to promote policies that would benefit the Maritimes.

The Prairies and Rural Ontario

Other regional challenges came from farmers on the Prairies and in rural Ontario. They were frustrated by the National Policy of 1878 that placed tariffs on foreign goods imported into Canada. These tariffs made foreign goods more expensive, encouraging people to buy goods produced in Canada. Western farmers felt alienated by this policy because they had no such protection. They were forced to buy Canadian-made machinery, but their agricultural products were sold on the open world market. Farmers wanted free trade, abolishing tariffs and allowing them to buy cheaper American-made machinery. They also wanted lower freight rates and storage fees.

When neither the Liberals nor the Conservatives met their demands, farmers formed their own political parties. By the early 1920s, Ontario and the Prairie provinces had all elected members of United Farmers’ parties to their legislatures. In some provinces, these parties formed the government. In 1920, the federal Progressive Party was created, led by Thomas Crerar, a former Minister of Agriculture in Robert Borden’s Union Government. The Progressive Party wanted a new National Policy based on free trade and public ownership of the railways.

KEY TERMS

- **federalism** a political system that divides power between federal and provincial legislatures
- **regionalism** a concern for the affairs of one’s own region over those of one’s country
- **free trade** trade between countries without tariffs, export subsidies, or other government intervention
Québec

The economic boom in the 1920s, and Québec’s proximity to the United States, led to rapid growth in many Québec industries. Cheap labour and vast forests resulted in the expansion of the province’s pulp and paper industry to feed the U.S.’s demand for newsprint. Increased manufacturing in Canada and the U.S. during this decade helped to expand Québec’s mining industries. To provide power to its growing industries, Québec took advantage of the hydroelectric potential of its many rivers. The abundant hydroelectric resources attracted the aluminum industry, and the Aluminum Company of Canada opened several plants.

As Québec’s industries expanded, so did its desire to protect its own interests. Hostility to the Conservative Party because of conscription and language rights helped the Liberals sweep all 65 seats in Québec in the 1921 federal election. Provincial politics were dominated from 1920 to 1936 by Premier Louis-Alexandre Taschereau’s Liberal Party.

Western Interests

For most of the 1920s, British Columbia was led by Liberal John Oliver, who often attacked the federal government for favouring the interests of Eastern Canada. B.C.’s growing economic strength during the 1920s meant its politicians had a stronger voice in federal politics. The products of B.C.’s forests and mines were in demand. Communities grew around the new pulp and paper mills and mines. After the war, the port of Vancouver began to benefit from the Panama Canal that had opened in 1914. More importantly, Pacific Coast ports could challenge Eastern Canada’s dominance in shipping Western grain. Premier Oliver went to Ottawa three times to demand railway freight rates be reduced, a fight he won each time. As a result, annual shipments of grain from B.C. ports increased throughout the 1920s. By the end of the decade, 40 percent of Canada’s grain was exported through B.C.
Canadians Choose a New Government

Regionalism and the Progressive Party greatly influenced the results of the 1921 federal election, effectively upsetting the balance of power between the Liberals and Conservatives.

In the 1921 election, both the Liberals and the Conservatives had new leaders. William Lyon Mackenzie King was chosen to lead the Liberals in 1919. He had a reputation as a reformer and was an authority on social and economic issues. Arthur Meighen, a brilliant debater and long-standing Member of Parliament, was chosen to replace Borden as the leader of the Conservatives. While King always tried to find the middle path that would offend the fewest people, Meighen believed in principles over compromise and did not care who might be offended by his stand on issues. Meighen's hard line alienated many groups before the election. His involvement in creating the Conscription Act and the new electoral laws of 1917 meant he had little support in Quebec. His harsh treatment of the leaders of the Winnipeg General Strike also provoked the hostility of the labour movement.

The Progressive Party's election platform was based on their proposed National Policy, calling for free trade and to nationalize the railways. In the election, the Progressives managed to win an astonishing 64 seats, mostly in Western Canada. This made it the second largest party in Parliament, giving the Liberals a minority government. Because they were not the majority, the Liberals needed the support of some of the opposition members to pass legislation.

Despite its initial success, the Progressive Party did not last very long. However, it was influential in bringing about changes to Canada's social policy. In 1926, for example, King was challenged by the Progressives to set up an old age pension. The Old Age Pension Act was passed in 1927. The Act was an acknowledgement that government had a role to play in providing a network of social services for its citizens. The Progressive Party lost public support in the 1925 and 1926 elections, and it eventually dissolved. But it did manage to change Canadian politics by helping to create Canada's first minority government.

FIGURE 3–17 In a 1920 speech, Arthur Meighen said, “Thousands of people are mentally chasing rainbows, striving for the unattainable, anxious to better their lot and seemingly unwilling to do it in the old-fashioned way by honest intelligent effort. Dangerous doctrines taught by dangerous men, enemies of the State, poison and pollute the air....”

Using Evidence What groups was Meighen referring to? How would they have reacted to his speech?

P R A C T I C E Q U E S T I O N S

1. List the concerns expressed by each region during the 1920s: Maritimes; Quebec; Prairies and rural Ontario; Western Canada. To what extent were the concerns resolved?

2. Why was the Progressive Party so successful during the 1921 election? What impact did this have on the federal government from 1921 to 1926?
Canada’s Growing Independence

After the First World War, Prime Minister Borden took a number of important steps that raised Canada’s profile internationally, including participating in the Paris Peace Conference and signing the Treaty of Versailles (see Chapter 2). Mackenzie King, once he became prime minister, continued to push for greater independence from Britain.

The Chanak Crisis

In 1922, Mackenzie King refused Britain’s call for support when British occupation troops were threatened by nationalist Turks during the Chanak Crisis. Chanak was a Turkish port controlled by Britain as a condition of one of the treaties signed at the Paris Peace Conference. If Turkey regained this port, it would have clear access to Europe through the Black Sea to the Mediterranean. Britain saw this as a threat and sent a telegram to King, asking him to send Canadian troops to support the Empire. Instead of automatically granting Britain’s request, King brought the issue to Parliament. By the time the issue was debated in the House of Commons, the crisis in Turkey had passed. The Chanak Crisis marked the first time that Canada did not automatically support the British Empire in war.

The Halibut Treaty

The following year, Canada negotiated a treaty with the United States to protect halibut along the coasts of British Columbia and Alaska. Mackenzie King insisted that Canada be allowed to sign the Halibut Treaty without the signature of a British representative. Britain wanted to maintain its imperial right to sign international agreements on Canada’s behalf. When Britain tried to pressure King into letting their representative sign the treaty, King insisted that it was a matter between Canada and the U.S. He threatened to set up an independent Canadian representative in Washington, and Britain backed down. The Halibut Treaty was the first treaty negotiated and signed independently by the Canadian government.

The King-Byng Crisis

In 1926, Mackenzie King publicly challenged Britain over the role of the governor general and Britain’s influence on Canada’s internal politics in what became known as the King-Byng Crisis. During the election of 1926, King was able to avoid the issue of the scandal and appeal to nationalist sentiments. He claimed that it was undemocratic for the Governor General, an official appointed by Britain, to refuse to take the advice of the prime minister, who was elected by Canadians. Since the King-Byng crisis, no Governor General has acted against the wishes of an elected prime minister.
©1925 Election. Prime Minister Mackenzie King's Liberals win fewer seats than Meighen's Conservatives.

King wishes to remain prime minister. King asks Governor General Viscount Byng to let him remain in power because he has the support from the Progressives in Parliament. (The prime minister and Cabinet can stay in power if they maintain the majority of votes in the House of Commons.)

Governor General Byng grants King's request. The governor general is responsible for making sure that the Canadian prime minister and government have the confidence of Parliament.

Byng refuses. He argues that the vote of censure has to be completed first. King resigns.

King asks for another favour. King asks Governor General Byng to dissolve Parliament and call an election. King knows he will lose the Parliament vote but that he will win a general election.

A customs scandal erupts in 1926. The Conservatives call for a motion of censure—a vote of strong disapproval—against King's government. The scandal weakens the Progressive Party's support for King's Liberal government.

Meighen gets the boot. Governor General Byng appoints Meighen, the leader of the Conservatives, to be prime minister. Meighen's government is ousted from Parliament three days later after a non-confidence vote.

Another election. Byng is forced to dissolve Parliament and call an election in September 1926.

King returns to power. King and the Liberals win a majority government in the 1926 election.

FIGURE 3–18 After the King-Byng Crisis, King gained national support by claiming it was undemocratic for the governor general, a British representative, to go against the wishes of a prime minister elected by Canadians.

KEY TERMS

Chanak Crisis the Canadian government's refusal in 1922, lead by King, to support British troops in defending the Turkish port of Chanak; the first time the Canadian government did not support the British military.

Halibut Treaty a 1923 treaty between Canada and the U.S. to protect halibut along the Pacific Coast; the first treaty negotiated and signed independently by the Canadian government.

governor general the person who represents the British crown in Canada

King-Byng Crisis a situation that occurred in 1926 when Governor General Byng refused Prime Minister King's request to dissolve Parliament and call an election

coalition a formal alliance of political parties

confidence in politics, it means support

prorogue to postpone or suspend, as in Parliament

FIGURE 3–19 This cartoon shows the three opposition leaders, Stéphane Dion, Gilles Duceppe, and Jack Layton, pointing at Stephen Harper.

Using Evidence How would you have advised Governor General Jean regarding Harper's request to suspend Parliament?

FAST FORWARD

King-Byng Revisited in 2008?

In 2008, Prime Minister Stephen Harper faced a crisis similar to that of Mackenzie King in 1926. The three opposition parties (Liberal, New Democrat, and Bloc Québécois) were dissatisfied with the minority Conservative government’s financial policies and formed a coalition to oust the government. They asked Parliament to hold a non-confidence vote against Harper’s government. Before the vote took place, Harper asked Governor General Michaëlle Jean to prorogue, or suspend, Parliament for a month so the government could bring in a new financial policy. Governor General Jean agreed. During the month Parliament was suspended, Harper managed to convince the Liberal leader to accept the Conservatives’ new financial plan and support them in the non-confidence vote. With the Liberals’ support in Parliament, Harper’s Conservative government stayed in power.
Building Your Skills

Establishing Cause, Effect, and Results

How many times have you been asked to discuss the causes of an event on an exam? As you probably know, it is much easier to describe what, where, and when an event happened than to explain why it happened. For example, there is no disagreement that the First World War (what) began in Europe (where) in 1914 (when). Explaining the causes, effects, and results of the war is not so straightforward. Was one country more responsible than others? Why did countries declare war? Why did the generals continue to use outdated tactics? What future events resulted from the decisions made at the Paris Peace Conference?

Events in history are the result of many other events that directly or indirectly caused that incident to happen. This is called causality. Understanding causality helps us to see the relationship between one event (the cause) and another event (the effect). The effect then leads to long-term results or consequences that in turn lead to more effects (see Figure 3–20). Some of the results of the First World War still affect us today. For example, the location of boundaries in the Balkans, and in Middle East countries such as Iraq, established by the treaties of 1919, are still a source of conflict today. Historians (and geographers) use cause-effect-results organizers to explain change.

People often have different perspectives and world views. Few people will understand events in exactly the same way. They will explain the causes, effects, and results of an event in different ways, and their differing viewpoints will often lead them to different conclusions about the same event.

Although the discussion on this page deals with history, you will find examples of cause and effect throughout this textbook. Issues related to politics, human rights, population, and the environment all raise questions about cause-effect-result relationships. Is the drop in voter turnout in elections related to demographics? What impact did the atrocity in the Second World War have on the development of human rights legislation? What changes in the environment can be directly related to global warming?

Applying the Skill

1. Referring to Figure 3–20, create a cause-effect-results organizer for the Winnipeg General Strike.
2. Identify the background causes of regionalism in Canada during the 1920s.
3. Note the immediate and longer-term effects of closer relations between Canada and the United States in the 1920s.
4. Record the effects of discrimination on one or more of the following groups during the 1920s: Aboriginal peoples, African Canadians, or immigrants.

![Figure 3–20](image)

**FIGURE 3–20**
Cause-effect-results organizer for the First World War
The Imperial Conference and the Balfour Report

It was at the Imperial Conference of 1926 that Canada made the greatest progress toward changing its legal dependence on Britain. At this conference, the dominions of the British Empire (Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and the Irish Free State) requested formal recognition of their autonomy, the freedom to govern themselves. A special committee under the leadership of Lord Balfour, a respected British politician, examined the request. The committee’s findings, published as the Balfour Report, supported the dominions’ position:

…(We) refer to the group of self-governing communities composed of… Britain and the Dominions. Their position and mutual relation may be readily defined. They are autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown.

—Summary of Proceedings at the Imperial Conference, 1926

The Statute of Westminster

The recommendations of the Balfour Report became law in 1931, when the Statute of Westminster was passed by the British government. This statute formally turned the British Empire into the British Commonwealth. The commonwealth countries were considered free and equal states that shared an allegiance to the British Crown. Canada was now a country equal in status with Britain and could make its own laws. There were, however, two remaining restrictions on Canada’s independence. Canada’s constitution, the British North America Act (BNA Act), remained in Britain because the Canadian federal and provincial governments could not agree on an amending formula, the procedure for changing the Act. As well, the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, a court of final appeal for Canadians, resided in Britain until 1949.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. What was the significance of each of the following for Canada: Chanak Crisis, Halibut Treaty, Statute of Westminster?
2. How was King able to turn an election defeat in 1925 into an election victory?
3. Explain the challenges faced by minority governments.
4. Patterns and Change: Review the Fast Forward. Which elements of the King-Byng Crisis and Harper’s prorogation of Parliament are the same? What is the key difference between the two events?
5. What restrictions to Canadian autonomy remained after the Statute of Westminster was passed?
Was Canada more or less independent by the end of the 1920s?

While Canada gained greater political independence from Britain in the 1920s, it developed much closer economic and cultural ties to the United States. In 1922, U.S. investment in Canada topped that of Britain’s investment for the first time. By 1930, 61 percent of foreign investment in Canada was from the U.S. During the same period, close to a million Canadians moved to the U.S. in search of better jobs and higher pay.

Despite a growing cultural industry in Canada, most Canadians listened to American radio stations, watched Hollywood films, and drove American-designed Model T Fords. Even Canadian sports teams were being bought up by U.S. interests. The National Hockey League became Americanized as smaller Canadian cities were unable to compete following the inclusion of U.S. teams.

One historian described the close ties between Canada and the United States in the 1920s:

...in the immediate aftermath of the war, the United States had a... depression and Canada had a... depression too. Coal strikes broke out in the United States; coal strikes broke out in Canada. The United States embarked on Prohibition; so... did almost all the provinces of Canada. The United States spawned the Prohibition gangster; Canada spawned the Prohibition rum-runner to keep him supplied.

~Ralph Allen, Ordeal By Fire: Canada, 1910–1945

A Separate Identity

Had the U.S. simply replaced Britain in controlling Canada’s development? On the one hand, Canada’s economy was very dependent on that of the U.S. Canada was also awash in American popular culture. But it is hard to say how much the exposure to American entertainment diminished Canadian identity in the 1920s. For example, the people of Québec remained relatively untouched by the influence of American culture in Canada. A different language and a protective church helped to ensure that most French Canadians remained beyond American influence.

On the other hand, concern about American cultural and economic domination made Canadians determined to protect their identity. A Royal Commission in 1928 recommended that the government regulate private radio to ensure Canadian content. Although Canadians benefited from having a larger, more prosperous neighbour to the south, they never showed interest in becoming part of the U.S. J.A. Stephenson, a British correspondent in Canada during the 1920s, observed:

The people of Canada are imbued with... a passion to maintain their own separate identity. They cherish the rooted belief that they enjoy in their existing political and social order certain manifest advantages over their neighbours.

~Quoted in Contemporary Review, October 1931

Analyzing the Issue

1. In Vancouver in 1923, U.S. President Warren Harding made the following statement about the interdependence of Canada and the U.S.: “We think the same thoughts, live the same lives, and cherish the same aspirations....” Do you think many Canadians would have agreed with Harding? Why or why not?

2. Write a letter to the editor of a newspaper, explaining why you agree or disagree with President Harding’s statement. Give examples of Canada’s dependence or independence to support your argument.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Britain %</th>
<th>U.S. %</th>
<th>Other %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1918</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922</td>
<td>47</td>
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<td>1925</td>
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<td>44</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3–21 Percent of foreign investment in Canada

Interpreting the Table In what year did U.S. investment in Canada overtake that of Britain? What are some reasons that might account for this change?
The Stock Market Crash

In the latter half of the 1920s, the North American economy was booming. In 1929, the president of the Vancouver Board of Trade, Robert McKee, reflected a sense of optimism in the financial community when he told a business audience that “prosperity was so broad, so sound, [and] so hopeful” that it inspired confidence in the future.

However, as you will see in the next chapter, the prosperity soon came crashing to an end. On Tuesday, October 29, 1929, the New York Stock Exchange collapsed. On that day, prices of all stocks fell dramatically. The order to traders was to “Sell, sell, sell!” More than 16 million shares changed hands, but prices continued to fall. Everyone knew a disaster had occurred. As you will read in the next chapter, the stock market crash marked a shift from the prosperity of the 1920s to the crushing poverty of the Depression of the 1930s.

FIGURE 3–22 Front page of Toronto’s The Globe just days before the stock market crash

Using Evidence How does this front page show the different opinions on the state of the stock market prior to the crash? What words express concern? Confidence?
CHAPTER FOCUS QUESTION
How did Canada adjust to political, social, and economic changes following the First World War?

Canadians in the 1920s began to develop a distinct sense of identity from Britain. Events and developments following the First World War at times encouraged and at other times hindered this trend.

1. a) Complete the organizer below, gathering examples of events from the chapter that helped in the growth of a Canadian identity and examples of events that worked against developing an identity.

b) Which of the examples do you think had the greatest impact on the growing sense of Canadian identity? Which examples most hindered the growth of a Canadian identity? Give reasons for your choices.

c) How many of the examples affect your sense of identity as a Canadian today? Explain.

d) Pretend you are in a foreign country and are mistaken for an American by someone you meet. How would you explain the difference? What makes us Canadian?

Vocabulary Focus
2. Review the Key Terms listed on page 61. Create a three-column organizer for the key terms in this chapter using the following headings: social; political; and economic. Place each term into the category you think is correct. If a term fits in more than one category, place it in all columns you think are appropriate. Make a note about the terms you are having difficulty understanding and review them.

Knowledge and Understanding
3. Continue the annotated timeline begun in Chapter 2 showing steps to Canadian autonomy. Review the events that are covered in the chapter. Write the name and date of each event on the timeline and explain how the event contributed to Canadian independence.

4. List the advantages and disadvantages of foreign investment and branch plants in Canada. Use your list to determine whether the positive impacts of foreign investment outweigh the negative impacts.
5. Discuss why the 1920s are described as the “Roaring Twenties.” Do you agree with this name? Explain your answer. If you do not agree, decide on another name.

6. What do the immigration policy, Aboriginal policy, and treatment of African Canadians reveal about the attitudes and values of Canadian authorities in the 1920s?

7. What current political parties offer a change from traditional parties? How effective are these alternative parties at influencing government policy?

8. What was the long-term impact of the King-Byng Crisis?

Critical Thinking

9. Compare the struggle of women and Aboriginal peoples during the 1920s. In your opinion, which group was more successful in the short term and long term? Provide specific evidence to support your opinion.

10. Rank the following from most to least important for their impact on Canada’s independence. Provide information to support your ranking.
   - Chanak Crisis
   - Halibut Treaty
   - King-Byng Crisis
   - Imperial Conference
   - Balfour Report
   - Statute of Westminster

11. Debate: Prime Minister Mackenzie King did more for Canadian autonomy than any other Canadian prime minister.

Document Analysis

12. What point is the cartoon below making about Canadian identity? WASP stands for White Anglo-Saxon Protestants and refers to Canadians of British descent. United Empire Loyalists fought for Britain during the American Revolution and, after the war, settled in what is now Canada.
The 1930s: A Decade of Despair

**GUIDING QUESTIONS**

**Society & Identity**
- What were the effects of the Great Depression on Canadians?
- How did minority groups fare during the Depression?
- How did the Depression affect women?
- How did Canadian social programs evolve?
- How was Québec nationalism expressed in the 1950s?
- What was the government’s response to the Great Depression?

**Politics & Government**
- What new political parties appeared in response to the Depression?

**Economy & Human Geography**
- Where were the causes of the Great Depression in Canada?
- How involved should the government be in the economy during a depression?

**Autonomy & World Presence**
- What were the effects of the Depression on the global community?

**TIMELINE**

- **1929**
  - New York Stock Exchange crashes on Wall Street

- **1930**
  - Severe drought devastates the Prairies (1930–1937)
  - R.B. Bennett becomes prime minister

- **1931**
  - City dwellers outnumber rural population in Canada
  - Statute of Westminster is passed by the British government, making Canada an autonomous state within the British Commonwealth

- **1932**
  - Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF) established
  - Federal relief camps established

- **1933**
  - Unemployment hits highest level
  - Hitler comes to power in Germany
CHAPTER FOCUS QUESTION
What were the causes, effects, and responses to the Great Depression?

James Gray was a young man at the beginning of the Depression. This account of his family’s struggle to survive those difficult years is a vivid picture of the hardships endured by ordinary Canadians in the bleakest decade of the 20th century:

For two months, half a million farm people huddled around stoves and thought only of keeping warm. If food supplies ran low, they ate less. Only when fuel reached the vanished point would they venture to town for a load of relief coal.... Winter ended with a thaw and presently we were into summer which was much worse.... There was no escape from the heat and wind and dust of the summer of 1936.... From Calgary to Winnipeg there was almost nothing but dust, in a bowl that extended clear down to Texas. Within the bowl was stifling heat, as if someone had left all the furnace doors open and the blowers on.

—James Gray, The Winter Years, 1976

For most Canadians, the 1930s was a decade of despair. In this chapter, you will learn about the causes, effects, and government’s response to the Great Depression.
Causes of the Great Depression

The end of the prosperity of the 1920s came as a surprise to many Canadians. The stock market crash on October 29, 1929 marked the beginning of a recession, which progressed to a decade-long depression in Canada and around the world. Prior to examining the causes of the Great Depression and what was happening in the economy at the time, a basic knowledge of economic principles is necessary.

Basic Economic Principles

In a market economy, or free enterprise system, the means of production—factories, machinery, and land—are owned by individuals, not the government. Individuals decide what types of goods and services they produce and the prices for their products. People are free to buy what they like from whomever they choose. Canada has a mixed economy, meaning that the government has some involvement in the economy, including the creation of government-owned industries (for example, Canadian National Railways), limitations on workers’ rights to strike, and subsidies to support certain industries.

In a market or mixed economy, production and prices are determined by supply and demand. Supply refers to how much of a product is available; demand refers to how much people want that product; the price of the product varies based on supply and demand.

Prosperity
Recession
Depression
Recovery

FIGURE 4–1 People flood the streets of New York after the stock market crash.

FIGURE 4–2 In the economic cycle, market economies have ups and downs.

Thinking Critically: How would governments try to alter this cycle? Provide specific examples.
Overproduction

During the 1920s, many industries in Canada expanded as demand for their goods was high. But when the economy slowed down, many companies faced overproduction as they produced more goods than they sold. At first, manufacturers lowered prices and stockpiled goods. Eventually, they cut back and produced fewer goods. This decrease in production led to layoffs in factories, which meant people could not afford to buy consumer goods, so sales slowed down even more.

Economic Dependence on Exports

The Great Depression exposed a major weakness in the Canadian economy: its heavy dependence on the export of primary resources. Two exports in particular—wheat from the Prairie provinces, and newsprint from British Columbia, Ontario, and Québec—made Canada extremely vulnerable to changes in world markets. Eighty percent of Canada’s production on farms, and in forests and mines was exported.

In the early 1920s, wheat farmers in Canada and the United States produced record quantities of crops and sold them at record prices. But as more countries, including Argentina and Australia, produced wheat crops, there was more competition on the international market. Wheat was being overproduced and the price of wheat began to fall. As international sales decreased, farmers’ incomes dropped. Soon, many were unable to meet their mortgage and loan payments.

Tariffs and U.S. Protectionism

Canada’s economy was hit particularly hard because of its close ties to the U.S. economy. The United States had become Canada’s biggest trading partner and largest investor. Consequently, when the U.S. economy “crashed,” Canada’s economy was bound to feel the effects.

Since the United States did not need raw materials from other countries, it imposed high tariffs on foreign goods. These tariffs were meant to protect the U.S. domestic market by making foreign items, such as Canadian wheat, more expensive. However, this protectionism led other countries to impose their own tariffs in response to the United States’ actions. Tariffs caused a slowdown in world trade as opportunities for export shrank. Canadian exports decreased substantially as the U.S. and other countries stopped buying Canadian products.
Debt from the First World War

The United States lent several countries money during and after the First World War. Many of these countries relied on trade with the U.S. to raise money to pay these debts. But as protectionism grew, international trade decreased and several countries were unable to pay back the loans. Britain and France in particular relied on German reparations to pay their war debts. After the First World War, Germany’s economy was in ruins. The enormous reparations it was obligated to pay Britain and France under the Treaty of Versailles further stunted its ability to recover (see Chapter 5). Because Germany could not make its reparation payments, Britain and France in turn could not pay their war debts.

Speculation and the Stock Market Crash

Business was booming in the early 1920s. Companies wanted to expand, and in order to raise money, they would issue shares (or stocks). Investors bought these shares believing that the company would do well and the value of the stocks would rise. Between 1922 and 1926, Canadian companies issued $700 million worth of new shares.

During the 1920s, many investors were buying “on margin.” This meant buying shares with only a 10 percent down payment, assuming that when the prices of the stocks increased the remaining 90 percent would be paid. This process is called speculation. Loans for stocks were easy to obtain, and high demand had driven the price of stocks up beyond their real value.

When some investors started selling their stocks in order to cash in on high profits, others rushed to follow their lead. As a result, stock prices fell. People panicked and began to sell off huge volumes of stocks, making prices drop even further. On Black Tuesday, October 29, 1929, the New York Stock Exchange collapsed, followed by the Toronto and Montréal Stock Exchanges.

Falling Off the Economic Edge

The effects of the stock market crash were devastating. Investors who had borrowed heavily to buy shares went bankrupt in a single day. While few Canadians actually invested in stocks, the crash affected millions of people. Many companies cut back on production or closed their doors when the prices of their goods dropped. More and more people lost their jobs and could not find work. Without jobs, they could no longer afford to buy such items as cars, radios, or telephones. Without customers, the people who worked in the factories producing these goods also lost their jobs. Within a year, millions of Canadians were out of work.
Chapter 4  The 1930s: A Decade of Despair

Industrialization leads to bigger and more complex economies.

Bigger economies need more capital and international loans, making financial arrangements more intricate.

World economy becomes more integrated and reliant on trade.

Industrialized countries look to resource-rich countries, such as Canada, for raw materials.

Consumer spending is reduced.

Production surpasses demand as industries produce more than they can sell.

Prices fall and producers’ profits suffer.

Farm income decreases.

Demand for raw materials declines.

Fewer workers are needed, leading to higher unemployment. People spend less and have more consumer debt.

New York Stock Exchange crash sets off the world financial and economic collapse resulting in the Great Depression.

Cycle of supply and demand

FIGURE 4–5 Causes of the Great Depression

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. a) What factors contributed to the Depression? 
   b) Explain how a reduction in consumer spending can result in a slowdown in the economy.

2. Why was the Depression so severe in Canada? What part of the country was hardest hit? Why?

3. Explain why Canada’s close economic ties to the U.S. contributed to the Depression.

4. Why were so many people able to invest in the stock market?

5. Patterns and Change How was the financial collapse of 2008–2009 similar to and different from the 1929 crash?
The Desperate Years: Making Ends Meet

The Depression affected the entire country, but conditions in the Prairie provinces were particularly severe.

Drought on the Prairies

In the boom years of the early 1920s, many farmers planted wheat to take advantage of world demand and rising prices. But one-crop farming takes its toll on the land. Farmers replaced native grasses with wheat crops, which used up nutrients in the soil. Just after the economic crash in 1929, the Prairies were hit by a disastrous drought that lasted almost eight years. Many farmers could not grow crops and families struggled to survive.

As the drought deepened, the winds began. Millions of hectares of fertile topsoil—dried up by the drought and overfarming—blew away. By mid-spring of 1931, there were almost constant dust storms. Dust sifted in everywhere. It piled in little drifts on windowsills, and got into cupboards and closets. In a bad windstorm, people could not see the other side of the street. The semi-arid area in southern Alberta and Saskatchewan, known as Palliser’s Triangle, was hit especially hard.

As if this were not enough, a plague of grasshoppers descended on the Prairies. They stalled trains and buses and clogged car radiators. The insects effectively wiped out any crops that farmers on the Prairies managed to grow during the drought. This combination of events devastated many farms and forced thousands of families to abandon their land.
Unemployment

As the Depression deepened, more and more factories and businesses closed their doors and people lost their jobs. In a population of more than 11 million, only about 300,000 Canadians earned enough money to pay income tax in 1939. At that time, married people earning more than $2000 and single people earning more than $1000 paid tax. People were evicted from their homes because they could not afford to pay rent. The loss of a job also meant the loss of respect, as this man explained:

“I never so much as stole a dime, a loaf of bread, a gallon of gas, but in those days I was treated like a criminal. By the twist in some men’s minds, men in high places, it became a criminal act just to be poor, and this percolated down through the whole structure until it reached the town cop or railway bull and if you were without a job, on the roads, wandering, you automatically became a criminal.”

—Quoted in Ten Lost Years, 1997

Collecting Pogey

Thousands existed on “pogey,” government relief payments given to those who did not have an alternative source of income, similar to welfare today. The government did not make getting relief easy. The payments were purposely kept low—$60 per month in Calgary to $19 per month in Halifax for a family of five—to encourage people to look for work rather than depend on the payments. People had to wait in line for hours and then publicly declare their financial failure. They also had to swear that they did not own anything of value and prove that they were being evicted from their home. If the applicants met these requirements, they received vouchers that could be exchanged for food and other essentials. The vouchers were never enough to cover expenses, and getting them was a humiliating experience.

Private charities helped by providing used clothing and meals, while soup kitchens were set up to help the hungry and homeless. For some people, the hardships were too much to bear. One Winnipeg man came home to discover that his wife, who had been living on relief, had drowned their son, strangled their daughter, and poisoned herself. The note she left said, “I owe the drugstore forty-four cents. Farewell.”

Permanent Food Banks

In 2008, Food Banks Canada helped more than 700,000 Canadians in an average month. They reported a 20 percent increase in this number during the recession of 2008–2009. The two largest groups accessing food banks are those living on social assistance and those with low-paying jobs.

While some food banks are government funded, most rely on the generosity of Canadians. People donate money, food, clothing, and their time. Their contributions are an example of active citizenship and help to support the less fortunate.

1. What do permanent food banks reveal about the Canadian economy and the lives of many Canadians?
Riding the Rails

By the winter of 1933, more than one quarter of Canada’s workforce was unemployed. The country was filled with young, jobless, homeless men drifting from one place to another, looking for work. They travelled across the country by “hopping” freight trains. Some men even rode on the roof or clung to the rods underneath the train.

After “riding the rails,” the men would stay a day or two in the many shantytowns that had sprung up in and around cities. These sprawling shantytowns were often referred to as “jungles.” Sydney Hutcheson, a young unemployed man in the summer of 1932, recalls what life was like during these years:

...I made Kamloops my headquarters as there were hundreds of men in the jungles on the north side of the Thompson River right across from town.... I made three round trips across Canada that summer by boxcar.... I carried my pack sack with a change of clothes, razor, a five pound pail and a collapsible frying pan that a man made for me in the jungles in Kamloops in exchange for a pair of socks. I also had a little food with me at all times such as bacon ends, flour, salt, baking powder and anything else I could get my hands on.

–Sydney Hutcheson, Depression Stories, 1976

The Disadvantaged

Canadians who had difficulty earning a decent wage when times were good suffered even more during the Depression. Even with emergency assistance payments, there was discrimination. City families received more than country families because it was assumed that country families had livestock and a big garden. Some groups of people, including immigrants, Aboriginal peoples, and women, were particularly disadvantaged.

New Canadians

The Canadian government had previously supported immigration because it served the economic interests of Canada. During the Depression, however, immigrants were viewed with hostility when they competed for scarce jobs. Many immigrants who were already employed lost their jobs because they had been the last to be hired. By 1935, more than 28 000 immigrants were deported from Canada.
The Chinese population in Vancouver suffered greatly. Already at a disadvantage due to immigration policies and social prejudice, many Chinese people did not qualify for relief payments. By 1932, many were starving. By [1932] destitute Chinese men, most of them elderly, were begging in the street.... The first... Chinese deaths from starvation finally forced the provincial government to show some concern. It funded the Anglican Church Mission’s soup kitchen..., but it expected a Chinese to be fed at half of what it cost to feed a white man on relief. Some destitute Chinese said they’d rather starve than accept relief.

—Denise Chong, The Concubine’s Children, 1994

Jewish people in particular were targeted and they faced blatant anti-Semitism. Many professions were closed to them; employers often posted signs forbidding them to apply. Across Canada, many clubs, organizations, and resorts barred Jewish people. These barriers made it particularly difficult for Jewish people to make ends meet during the Depression.

Aboriginal Peoples
Aboriginal families on relief were given only $5 a month, compared to the $19–$60 received by non-Aboriginals. They were expected to live off the land, even though conditions on the reserves were so poor that they had been unable to do so for decades. The government continued to take cut-off lands from the reserves, further limiting Aboriginal peoples’ resources. In one particular case, the government transferred land from the Squamish Capilano Indian Reserve to the company that was building the Lions Gate Bridge without consulting or compensating the First Nation. While visiting Canada in 1939, King George VI and his wife Queen Elizabeth drove over the completed bridge to honour it. A request by the Squamish First Nation that the Royals stop, receive gifts, and meet Mary Agnes Capilano (see Chapter 1) was ignored. Later they were assured that “Their Majesties took particular pains to acknowledge the homage of their Indian subjects, and that in passing them the rate of speed was considerably lowered.”

KEY TERMS
transient an unemployed person who moves from place to place in search of work
deport to send back to one’s country of origin
anti-Semitism discrimination or hostility toward Jewish people
In the 1930s, the primary responsibility of women was seen to be the maintenance of the home and family. Most women were expected to get married and leave the labour force as soon as they could. There were a limited number of jobs considered acceptable for middle-class women. Most were clerical, “pink collar” sector jobs for which women earned 60 percent of men’s wages. The garment industry, involving long hours of piece work, was one of the few occupations open to minority and working-class white women. One woman who had a job at that time remembered:

“My family were very unhappy with my having a job on the [Victoria] Times.... They didn’t feel that either my sister or I should be working in the first place. My father got poison pen letters from people saying “What are your daughters doing taking the bread out of the mouths of starving people.”

—Illustrated History of British Columbia, 2001

During the Depression, many women who did have jobs were forced into unwanted retirement and married women were fired from their jobs. Most were told that these measures were taken to provide jobs for men supporting families. But Agnes Macphail, the first female Member of Parliament in the House of Commons, claimed that in taking employment, women were doing what they could to ensure the survival of themselves and their families.

Most families suffering economic hardship relied heavily on women’s capacity to find ways to cut household costs. They gave up commercially prepared foods and kept bees to cut down on sugar costs, expanded gardens, and picked wild berries. They found ways to reuse everything, such as transforming old coats into quilts. Flour bags were particularly useful, as this mother recalled: “You’d take an empty sack of flour... give it a good wash and bleach out the lettering... cut two holes for the arms and one at the top for the neck.... You had a dress for a nine-year-old girl.”

For women on the Prairies, the dust bowl added another problem on washday:

“I could never get my laundry white. I’d try and try. The children’s things, the curtains and the sheets, why they all looked as grey as that sky out there. I’d work my fingers to the bone scrubbing.... We were lucky to have a deep well and good water but even down that well... the water came up with dirt and dust in it.... The wind blew that dust all the time. It never stopped.”

—Ten Lost Years, 1997

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—Ten Lost Years, 1997
Suffragist Nellie McClung lamented the effect of constant work on women:

On the farms before electricity and labour saving devices lightened their loads, women’s work obsessed them. Their hours were endless.... Many broke under the strain and died, and their places were filled without undue delay. Some man’s sister or sister-in-law came from Ontario to take the dead woman’s place.

—The Stream Runs Fast, 2007

Pregnancy and the young offspring it brought added to the household’s difficulties. The sale and advertisement of birth control information and abortion were offences under the Criminal Code, yet couples managed to have fewer children as the Depression deepened. The general fertility rate (the annual number of births per 1000 women) went from 128 in 1921 to 99 in 1931 and to 89 by the end of the decade.

Many single and married women in desperation wrote to Prime Minister Bennett. Barbara Harris, a young woman from Moose Jaw, explained her difficult situation:

Dear Sir-
I am 19 yrs. of age Mr. Bennett, but it really is impossible for me to get work. I haven’t got any shoes to wear & no coat & so I haven’t any home or any relatives here. I’m all alone as it were. Now I tho’t perhaps you could help me a little.... Here... it just seems impossible to get relief unless you go & work for your board & room & I can’t work like that as I need clothes so badly. It’s even a fact that not only haven’t a coat to wear but haven’t any stockings either. Mr. Bennett if you could just help me out a little bit I would be very pleased & would appreciate it very much & would you kindly give me an answer.

—The Wretched of Canada, 1971

Bennett responded to many of these women by sending them $2–$4 of his own money. This was a lot of money at the time, considering that government relief was $10–$15 a month. Despite this aid, women and their families suffered greatly during the Depression.

Looking Further

1. What were the social attitudes toward women during the 1930s? What were the objections to women working during the Depression?
2. Evaluate the impact of the Depression on married women compared to married men, and on single women compared to single men.
3. Make a list of three to five lessons that we should learn from the difficulties faced by women and families during the Depression. Share your list.
4. What roles do you think women would have preferred during the 1930s?
The Plight of Women

For women, there were few jobs other than domestic work, which paid just a few dollars a week. Some critics believed working women actually contributed to the Depression. Médéric Martin, a former mayor of Montréal, summed up the attitude of many toward working women:

Wouldn’t national life be happier, saner, safer if a great many of these men [the unemployed] could be given work now being done by women, even if it meant that these women would have to sacrifice their financial independence? Go home to be supported by father, husband, or brother as they were in the old pre-feministic days?

–Chatelaine, September 1933

Most unemployed single women did not qualify for government relief and had to rely on charities to get by. In Vancouver, women’s groups such as the Women’s Labour League campaigned for more support. As a result, the city provided milk for babies, clothing allowances for women and children, and medical care for pregnant women during the Depression.

The Fortunate Minority

While the majority of people suffered during the Depression, wealthy Canadians with secure jobs noticed little change in their lifestyle. Gray Miller, for example, earned $25,000 a year as chief executive officer of Imperial Tobacco. In contrast, clerks in the company’s United Cigar Store earned only $1,300 a year working 54 hours a week. As deflation led to falling prices, money was worth more and the living conditions for those with secure jobs improved. A young reporter in Victoria who was paid only $15 a week found that he could live well. Saturday night dances at the Empress Hotel were easily affordable. “For two dollars a couple, a three-course dinner was served with full valet service at tables arranged in cabaret style around a magnificent ballroom.” For the majority of Canadians, however, this lifestyle was an impossible dream.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. What part of Canada was hardest hit by the Depression? Explain.

2. a) What seemed to be the government’s attitude toward people who had lost their jobs? Why do you think this was the case? Do you think this attitude exists today toward the unemployed?
   b) Compare the possible attitudes of people who received social assistance in the 1930s and those who receive assistance today.

3. What did people have to do to qualify for “pogey”? Why do you think people were given vouchers instead of cash?

4. Reread James Gray’s description of the 1930s on page 89. Write a first-person account of the summer of 1936 on the Prairies.

5. Write a paragraph describing conditions in Vancouver’s Chinese district during the Depression. Explain why conditions were so harsh. Include information you have learned from previous chapters.

6. Provide specific evidence explaining how minority groups fared during the Depression.
Responding to the Depression

Prime Minister Mackenzie King was unprepared to deal with a crisis on the scale of the Depression. He believed the situation was temporary and that, in time, the economy would recover. When desperate Canadians turned to the federal government for financial help, King told them this was the responsibility of municipal and provincial governments. The financial strain of the Depression, however, had bankrupted many municipalities. When the Conservative Opposition asked why some provincial governments were not being helped by the federal government, King said he would not give “a five-cent piece” to a Conservative provincial government.

King never lived down this impulsive remark. The Conservatives used his statement to build support during their 1930 election campaign. King lost to Richard Bedford Bennett and his Conservative majority government.

The Government’s Response

Prime Minister Bennett was no more in favour of government relief than Mackenzie King had been. He once told a group of students that “one of the greatest assets a man can have on entering life’s struggle is poverty.” Nevertheless, Bennett’s Conservative government introduced several measures to help Canadians through the Depression.

- Bennett’s government introduced the Unemployment Relief Act, which gave the provinces $20 million for work-creation programs. In spite of this spending, the economy did not improve.
- Bennett tried to “use tariffs to blast a way” into world markets and out of the Depression. He raised tariffs by an average of more than 50 percent to protect Canadian industries, which provided protection for some businesses. In the long run, it did more harm than good, as other nations, in turn, set up trade barriers against Canada.
- The Prairie Farm Rehabilitation Act was introduced in 1935 to help farmers build irrigation systems and reservoirs. But by this time, drought and poverty had forced many families to leave their farms and move elsewhere.

FIGURE 4–12 As the situation in Canada grew worse, Prime Minister Bennett became a target for people’s anger and frustration. A deserted farm was called a “Bennett barnyard”; a newspaper was a “Bennett blanket.” Roasted wheat was “Bennett coffee.” A “Bennett buggy” was an automobile pulled by horses when the owner could no longer afford the gas to run it.
The growing number of jobless, homeless men drifting across the country frightened many middle-class Canadians. The “Red Scare” was still dominant in Canada, and Prime Minister Bennett feared these men would come under the influence of the Communist Party. In 1931, Bennett introduced a law outlawing communist agitation. Communist Party leader Tim Buck was convicted in defiance of this law, and spent two years in prison.

**Working for Twenty Cents a Day**

In addition to relief payments and soup kitchens, Bennett created a national network of work camps for single men in an attempt to provide relief from the Depression. In British Columbia, the provincial government had already established work camps, and these were absorbed into the federal camps. Work camps were usually located deep in the woods, so the men were completely isolated. Men worked on projects such as building roads, clearing land, and digging drainage ditches. They were paid $0.20 a day and given room and board. The food was terrible, and the bunks were often bug-infested. More than 170,000 men spent time in these camps.

**The On-to-Ottawa Trek**

In 1935, more than a thousand men left the relief camps in the interior of British Columbia in protest against camp conditions and to demand higher pay. They gathered in Vancouver, holding rallies and collecting money for food. Under the leadership of the Relief Camp Workers’ Union, the men decided to take their complaints directly to the prime minister in a protest that became known as the **On-to-Ottawa Trek**. Crowding into and on top of freight cars, the trekkers rode through the Prairies. Many people supported them by donating food and supplies, while others joined the trek. By the time they reached Regina, Saskatchewan, there were more than 2000 trekkers and their protest had gained national attention.

Bennett responded to the trekkers by calling in the RCMP to stop them in Regina. The protesters were confined in a local stadium, and only the leaders were allowed to continue on to Ottawa. The union leaders who met with Prime Minister Bennett had great hopes of being heard, but Bennett attacked the leaders as communist radicals and troublemakers.

Back in Regina, the RCMP were ordered to clear the trekkers from the stadium. The trekkers resisted, battling the RCMP and the local police for hours. The incident became known as the **Regina Riot**. One officer was killed, many were injured, and 130 men were arrested.
Trouble in Vancouver

When the federal government closed relief camps in 1936 and the provincial government reduced relief payments, many men were left destitute. In protest against the lack of government support, these men would conduct “sit-ins” at various buildings until the government responded to their complaints. In April, 1600 protesters occupied the Vancouver Art Gallery, the main post office, and the Georgia Hotel. Most of the protesters were convinced to end their sit-in without incident. At the post office, however, the men refused to leave; they were eventually evicted with tear gas.

Roosevelt’s New Deal

When Franklin Roosevelt became the U.S. president in 1933, he introduced a “New Deal” that created public work programs for the unemployed and for farmers. His most drastic action was the introduction of the Social Security Act. This Act provided several social assistance programs, such as old age pension, unemployment insurance, and financial assistance for dependent mothers and children. Under the New Deal, the U.S. federal government spent billions of dollars to get the economy working again. The New Deal did not pull the United States out of the Depression. It did, however, help millions to survive, and it gave hope for the future in a time of national despair.
Bennett’s New Deal

Bennett was initially reluctant to spend government money on relief. But in his radio addresses prior to the 1935 election campaign, Bennett surprised listeners and his Cabinet colleagues by introducing his own version of Roosevelt’s New Deal which included

- fairer, progressive taxation so that people who earned more money paid more tax
- insurance to protect workers against illness, injury, and unemployment
- legislation for workplace reforms that regulated work hours, minimum wages, and working conditions
- revised old-age pensions to help support workers over 65 years of age
- agricultural support programs to help farmers and the creation of the Canadian Wheat Board to regulate wheat prices

Many voters saw Bennett’s change in policy as a desperate attempt to win votes and not as a true shift in his views. They questioned the value of social insurance programs for people who did not have a job and so could not make a claim. For most people it was too little and far too late.

KEY TERMS

laissez-faire an economic condition in which industry is free of government intervention

welfare state a state in which the government actively looks after the well-being of its citizens

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. What actions did governments take to deal with the Depression? Explain.

2. What were the main complaints of relief camp workers?

3. Do you think the On-to-Ottawa Trek was a success or failure? Provide evidence to support your opinion.

4. Which three of Bennett’s New Deal proposals do you think had the greatest impact on Canadians? Support your choices.
How involved should the government be in the economy during a depression?

Before the Great Depression, governments generally did not interfere in the economy. Instead, they relied on a laissez-faire approach, letting the free enterprise system regulate itself. During the 1930s, the public pressured governments to create work programs and to provide money for those who could not help themselves. Some governments, most notably the U.S., followed the advice of British economist John Maynard Keynes who believed that governments needed to jump-start the economy. He supported spending money on programs that would put people back to work. Once they were working, people would spend money. The increased demand for goods would mean more jobs and more spending.

Opposition in the U.S. criticized Roosevelt’s New Deal as a “...frightful waste and extravagance.... It has bred fear and hesitation in commerce and industry, thus discouraging new enterprises, preventing employment and prolonging the depression.” In Canada, Prime Minister Bennett’s campaign during the 1935 election promised his version of the New Deal. He said, “In my mind, reform means Government intervention. It means Government control and regulation. It means the end of laissez-faire.” Mackenzie King, who won the election, believed that the economy would improve on its own in time. He warned that

A house is not built from the top down. It is constructed from the ground up. The foundation must be well and truly laid, or the whole edifice will crumble. To seek to erect an ambitious program of social services upon a stationary or diminishing national income is like building a house upon the sands.

—W. L. Mackenzie King, 1935

Many of the social programs created by the New Deal are part of today’s “social safety net” in Canada and the U.S. These programs help to protect people and businesses during an economic crisis. Since the Depression, people have debated the role of the government in Canada’s economy. Most Canadians believe that even if the country is not experiencing a depression, it is the government’s duty to provide basic services, such as education, health care, unemployment benefits, and other kinds of social assistance. This is referred to as a welfare state. Other people support a competitive state in which the government creates an atmosphere of competition for businesses by cutting spending on social programs and reducing taxes. Most Canadians believe in a mixed economy, where the government provides a certain level of social services but is not overly intrusive in planning and running the economy (see Figure 4–17).

During the 2008 economic crisis, many governments referred to the lessons learned during the Depression to support intervention in the economy. With little opposition, the Canadian government provided $12 billion of economic stimulus. In the U.S., which was harder hit by this recession, the government supplied $787 billion to bail out failing industries and curb rising unemployment.

Analyzing the Issue

1. Draw a flow chart to illustrate Keynes’ theory of how government spending could lift a country out of a depression.
2. In a two-column organizer, summarize the arguments for and against government intervention in the economy during an economic slowdown and during a period of economic growth.
3. Why do you think there was little opposition to government intervention in the economy during the 2008 recession?
Politics of Protest

As Ottawa struggled to find ways to cope with the Depression, some Canadians looked to new political parties for solutions.

The Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF)

The Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF), founded in the Prairie provinces in 1932, was Canada’s first socialist party. The CCF believed that capitalism breeds inequality and greed and had caused the Depression. The CCF supported a socialist system in which the government controlled the economy so that all Canadians would benefit equally. Their ideas appealed to a wide variety of people who were dissatisfied with the government’s response to the Depression. At the CCF’s convention in Regina in 1933, J.S. Woodsworth was chosen as party leader. The party platform, known as the Regina Manifesto, opposed free-market economics and supported public ownership of key industries. It advocated social programs to help the elderly, the unemployed, the homeless, and the sick. Woodsworth also urged the government to spend money on public works to create employment. By 1939, the CCF formed the Opposition in British Columbia and Saskatchewan.

The Social Credit Party

The Social Credit Party was another political party from Western Canada that offered an alternative to Canadian voters. The party’s leader, William “Bible Bill” Aberhart, was a charismatic preacher. Social credit was based on the belief that capitalism was a wasteful economic system. Under capitalism, banks hoarded money, preventing customers from buying goods that capitalism produced. Aberhart felt that the government should release money into the economy so that people could spend it. The theory of social credit appealed to many people from Alberta because the Depression had devastated their economy and they resented the power and control of the banks in Central Canada. Under Bible Bill’s leadership, the Social Credit Party won 17 seats in the federal election of 1935 with nearly 50 percent of the popular vote in Alberta.

Aberhart promised each citizen a “basic dividend” of $25 a month to buy necessities. The federal government challenged the right of a province to issue its own currency, and social credit was disallowed by the Supreme Court. Despite this setback, the Social Credit Party remained in power in Alberta until 1971 under Aberhart’s successors, Ernest Manning and Harry Strom.
Union nationale

In Québec, Maurice Duplessis, a former Conservative, joined forces with some disillusioned Liberals to form the **Union nationale**, a party that supported **Québec nationalism**. The Union nationale relied heavily on the support of the Roman Catholic Church and rural voters. Duplessis blamed many of Québec’s social and economic problems on the English minority in Québec, which controlled the province’s economy. The Union nationale’s political platform was based on improved working conditions, social insurance programs, publicly owned power companies, and a system of farm credits. During his first term, however, Duplessis’ promises of reform evaporated, and he did little to improve economic and social conditions in Québec. Despite this, he remained premier until 1959 with the exception of one term from 1939 to 1944 (see Chapter 6).

Provincial Solutions

During the Depression, voters expressed their dissatisfaction with government inaction by voting out ruling provincial parties. As the CCF and Social Credit parties gained momentum in Western Canada, and the Union nationale gained power in Québec, voters in other provinces also made their voices heard by electing new governments.

In Ontario, the provincial Liberals came to power in 1934 for the first time in 29 years. The Liberal leader was a populist farmer, Mitchell Hepburn, who won wide support by championing the causes of “the little man.” He railed against big business and was fond of flamboyant gestures, such as auctioning off the provincial government’s fleet of limousines. Although Hepburn tried to improve Ontario’s economy, he did little to help the unemployed and was against **unionization**.

In British Columbia, Dufferin Pattullo was elected premier in 1933, returning the Liberals to power in that province. Pattullo was a strong believer in greater provincial spending power. He introduced reforms to shorten the workday, increase the minimum wage, and increase relief payments by 20 percent. Public works projects were launched, most notably the Fraser River bridge at New Westminster and a new city hall for Vancouver. Pattullo’s projects were short-lived, however, as the federal government challenged his authority to introduce programs that were considered to be in the federal domain.

**KEY TERMS**

- **Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF)** Canada’s first socialist party founded in the Prairies in 1932; advocated government control of the economy
- **capitalism** an economic system in which the production and distribution of goods are owned privately or by shareholders in corporations who have invested their money in the hope of making a profit
- **Regina Manifesto** platform of the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation party; it supported public ownership of industry and social programs to assist those in need
- **Social Credit Party** political party founded in Western Canada; opposed to capitalism
- **Union nationale** nationalist French-Canadian political party led by Maurice Duplessis
- **Québec nationalism** a movement advocating for the protection and development of Québécois culture and language
- **unionization** the formation of labour unions

- **How was Québec nationalism expressed in the 1950s?**

**FIGURE 4–19** Hon. Maurice Duplessis (second from right) pictured here in August 1946
Photographs convey information and provide insights into many areas of study in this textbook. Historical photographs are a useful primary source of information about past events. To make use of a photograph as a historical source, you must do more than look at the photograph; you need to interpret the information it provides. This is called decoding.

A photograph is an image created by a photographer. As such, it reflects that person's world view. In the same way, any meaning you take from it will be influenced by your world view (see Chapter 1, Chapter Review). It is important that you try to be open-minded when looking at photographs.

Paintings do not claim to represent reality. Photographs do, but they can be manipulated. Images can easily be altered with today's digital technology, so you must be aware of the intention of the photographer and how the photograph is being used when you try to decode its meaning.

Steps to Decoding Photographs

1. Examine the photograph carefully and describe what you see. Does the image have clues as to when it was taken and where? Who is in it? What is happening? Why was the image taken? Does the caption help to answer these questions?

Examine Figure 4–20. How many of the previous questions can you answer?

2. Analyze the image and ask questions. It may help to divide the image into sections to examine details. What are people in the image doing? Do their facial expressions and body language suggest anything? Are there signs, buildings, landmarks, or other clues visible? Analyze Figure 4–20 using these questions and any others you think are relevant.

3. Evaluate the photograph as a source of information. Do not simply accept the image as showing what happened. Is it reliable and credible? Is there bias in the presentation? (Review Building Your Skills, Chapter 1.) What is your evaluation of Figure 4–20?

4. Draw conclusions based on the information you have collected and consider what information is missing. The photographer frames the image and the story by focusing only on a part of what he or she can see. Does outside information help you to better understand the contents of the picture? Read about the circumstances of the On-to-Ottawa Trek on page 102. Does this change your interpretation of the picture? Why or why not?
Applying the Skill

1. Apply the four-step decoding process to the images below and then answer the questions accompanying each image.

**FIGURE 4–21** Relief camp in the 1930s. Compare and contrast the description of relief camps on page 102 with this photograph. Do you think the picture was staged? Which details do you consider most significant and why? Is it a fair representation of a bunkhouse in a 1930s relief camp? Why or why not?

**FIGURE 4–22** Protesters at the free-trade Summit of the Americas held in Quebec City, 2001. What point of view does this photograph represent? Why do you think so? What evidence is there in the image that the protesters were aware that the media were covering the event? Compare and contrast this image with Figure 4–20. Which image is a better source of information? Why?
A Change in Federal Government

By 1935, five years after Bennett was elected prime minister, voters were frustrated by his inability to deal with the crisis of the Depression. In the federal election, they returned Mackenzie King to power.

King did not support government intervention in the economy. He believed that in time, the economy would improve on its own. King also felt that spending money on social programs during a depression did not make economic sense, and that it was better to wait until the economy was strong before introducing these expensive programs.

King’s views clashed with the findings of the National Employment Commission, which he had set up in 1936 to examine the state of unemployment in Canada. The commission recommended the federal government spend millions of dollars on job creation and training programs. King ended up spending only a fraction of what was recommended.

Federal-Provincial Tensions

In 1937, King created the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations to examine the thorny issue of federal-provincial relations and to look into the responsibilities of the different levels of government. The unemployment crisis of the Depression had caused a great deal of tension between the federal and provincial governments. There was disagreement over which government had the right to collect tax money and which government should pay for social and unemployment assistance.

The Commission’s findings, referred to as the Rowell-Sirois Report, recommended that the federal government give the poorer provinces grants, or equalization payments, to ensure that every province was able to offer its citizens the same level of services. The Commission also recommended that the federal government bear the responsibility for unemployment insurance and other social benefits such as pensions.

The wealthier provinces did not like the idea of equalization payments because they did not want their tax dollars going to other provinces. The provinces also felt that many of the Commission’s recommendations would mean a loss of provincial power. By the time the Commission made its report, the economy had started to turn around. More people were finding jobs, and there was a mood of cautious optimism. Canada’s involvement in the Second World War meant most of the Commission’s recommendations were either pushed aside indefinitely or adopted later.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. List the political parties that were started during the Depression. Identify the supporters, leader, and policies of each party. Where on the political spectrum would each party sit?

2. What difficulties did provincial governments encounter in dealing with the problems of the Depression? Give examples from British Columbia and Alberta.

3. What were Mackenzie King’s views on government involvement in the economy?

4. What were the main recommendations of the Rowell-Sirois Report? Why did the wealthier provinces dislike these recommendations?

KEY TERMS

Rowell-Sirois Report report of the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations, a commission set up in 1937 to examine the Canadian economy and federal-provincial relations

equalization payments a federal transfer of funds from richer to poorer provinces
Innovations
Medical Advances

During the 1930s, a number of Canadians pushed the boundaries of science and technology. As the government looked for ways to ease the economic suffering, Canadians tried to find ways to improve the lives of others, especially in the areas of health and medicine.

**Pablum stands the test of time** In 1930, doctors at Toronto's Hospital for Sick Children created Pablum, the first pre-cooked, vitamin-enriched cereal for infants. For 25 years, the hospital received a royalty for every package sold. In 2005, H.J. Heinz Company acquired the Pablum brand. How does the development of Pablum reflect the social conditions of the Depression?

**Saving lives on the front lines** Norman Bethune was a Canadian doctor, inventor, and political activist. As a dedicated physician in Montréal during the Depression, Bethune provided free medical care to the poor and advocated for a social system of health care. He also volunteered for the Spanish Civil War (see Chapter 5). He was the first to set up a blood bank close to the front lines and organize a mobile blood-transfusion team.

**A revolutionary brainwave** Canadian doctor Wilder Penfield founded McGill University's Montréal Neurological Institute in 1934, which became an international centre for education and research on the brain. Penfield is most known for developing a surgical treatment for epilepsy known as the "Montréal Procedure." He used a local anesthetic so patients remained conscious during the operation, and then probed their brains to locate the site of the seizures. Doctors today still use maps of the sensory and motor sections of the brain that were drawn from these operations.
During the turbulent years of the 1930s, Canada was led by two men who were studies in contrast. William Lyon Mackenzie King and Richard Bedford Bennett both had a profound effect on Canada. Yet history’s judgement of each man has been vastly different.

King, one of the most dominant political leaders in Canadian history, was prime minister of Canada for almost 22 years, from 1921 to 1930, save for a few months in 1926, and from 1935 to 1948. One historian has called him the “...greatest and most interesting of prime ministers.” Bennett led Canada for five years going from landslide victory in 1930 to disastrous defeat in 1935 after one term in office. Bennett's negative historical reputation comes from what was seen as his failure to find a solution to the Depression. He eventually left Canada and died in England as a member of the House of Lords, forgotten by Canadians and generally ignored by historians.

Bennett’s One-man Show

In 1930, there were high hopes that the energy and competence Bennett displayed as leader of the Opposition would help the new prime minister find solutions to the economic crisis. However as the Depression worsened, so did his reputation. Bennett lacked the common touch and never wavered in his conviction that he was right. Even his supporters agreed that he liked to hear himself speak, paying little attention to the opinions of others. Members of his Cabinet accused him of running a one-man show, seldom informing them of important decisions. It was joked that when Bennett was mumbling to himself, he was holding a Cabinet meeting. This insensitivity toward the opinions of others and his unwillingness to compromise hindered Bennett’s efforts to deal with the worsening Depression.

King: The People Pleaser

King was a pragmatic and cautious politician who avoided making decisions if he could. He had a feel for the mood of the country and unlike Bennett, he was patient, willing to wait for events to unfold. He claimed that “it is what we prevent, rather than what we do that counts most in Government.”

Bennett was a millionaire bachelor who made his home in Ottawa in a suite occupying a whole floor of the luxurious Château Laurier Hotel. It was small wonder that poverty-stricken Canadians felt little affection for him. However, they did not see the private man who, according to Bennett, between 1927 and 1935 gave nearly $2.5 million to charities from his own income. Sometimes this was in response to the many letters he received from Canadians asking for his help (see the letters on page 99). Bennett secretly sent many of these people money. His generosity was uncovered in his private papers after his death.
King was notorious for dull and ambiguous speeches that blurred the issues and seemed to promise everything to everyone. These speeches infuriated many listeners. In fact, King was a skilled negotiator who wanted desperately to keep Canada united—French and English, the different regions and social classes—and his vague manner was a deliberate technique to try to please everyone. His successes seemed to result from being the leader who divided Canadians the least.

After King's death, it was discovered that this apparently colourless man had, as he wrote in his diary, "a very double life." He had kept a detailed personal diary from his student days in the 1890s to his death in 1950. The nearly 30,000 pages in the diaries revealed that King was a believer in spiritualism, obsessed with clocks and mystical numbers. He held seances in which he communicated with the dead, especially with his mother, Wilfrid Laurier, and others.

1. Why was King a more successful politician than Bennett? Do you think his reputation as an effective leader is justified? Explain.

2. What were the strengths and weaknesses of each leader?

3. How was Bennett perceived by Canadians during the Depression? Do you think this image of him was justified? Explain your answer.

4. Is it necessary to know private details of the lives of our politicians to evaluate their role in Canadian history?

5. Should we judge politicians based on their accomplishments or personalities?

FIGURE 4–24 King as Wobbly Willy

Interpreting a Cartoon Mackenzie King was known for his reluctance to make decisions. Is the cartoonist effective in conveying this idea? Why or why not?
The Depression and Global Politics

During the 1930s, many countries around the world were suffering from an economic slowdown. As in Canada, many people lost their jobs and were destitute, and governments looked for solutions to the economic crisis.

Germany After the War

Germany, in particular, suffered the effects of the Depression. Since the end of the First World War, Germany had grown increasingly unhappy with the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. It bitterly resented the “war guilt” clause that required it to pay $32 billion in reparations to other countries. These payments put a great strain on the German economy, which had been ruined by war. To meet the payments, the government printed large amounts of money in the 1920s, which in turn lowered the value of the German currency. As German money became worth less and less, the price of basic goods continued to rise.

To control this inflation, Britain, France, and the United States agreed to give better terms for Germany’s reparation payments. Germany made a modest recovery. However, when world stock markets collapsed in 1929, the weakened German economy was affected more than most countries. As you read at the beginning of this chapter, Germany’s inability to make its reparation payments affected the economies of other countries and contributed to the causes of the global Depression.

FIGURE 4-25 This photograph, taken in 1923, shows a German woman using several million marks to fuel her stove.

Using Evidence What can you conclude about the value of German currency from this photograph?
The Depression in Asia

The Empire of Japan, the only independent Asian nation with a colonial empire, developed a strong manufacturing industry after the First World War. Tariff barriers and the decline of international trade during the Depression greatly affected Japan’s economy, which relied on raw materials from the United States and other countries. To deal with the slowdown, Japan adopted Keynesian economics and increased government spending to stimulate the economy. It also put into action an aggressive plan to expand its territory to gain resource-rich lands by invading China’s northern province of Manchuria in 1931 (see Chapter 5).

Russians Embrace Communism

After the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917, Russia experienced a series of political upheavals that led to a civil war. In 1922, Russia joined with several other communist countries to form the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.) or Soviet Union. During the Depression, the Soviet Union’s communist economic system insulated it from the economic slowdown experienced by other countries. It appeared to many as though the communist system worked, while the capitalist system had failed. This in turn increased people’s interest in communism. But the people of the Soviet Union paid a price for their economic progress. Joseph Stalin’s ruthless dictatorship robbed the Soviet people of their political and social freedom, and his economic and agricultural policies led to the deaths of millions of people (see Chapter 5).

Prelude to War

The economic crisis of the 1930s resulted in social and political instability around the world. As you will learn in Chapter 5, this instability was the perfect breeding ground for dictators who gained power by offering solutions and hope to desperate people. Ambitious plans to expand territories and resources led to a global military conflict, which had a profound impact on Canada’s development and its reputation on the world stage.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. Explain why Germany was affected so deeply by the Depression.
2. How did other countries try to help Germany during the Depression?
3. What effect did the Depression have on Japan? How did Japan respond?
4. Why did communism gain attention during the Depression?
CHAPTER FOCUS QUESTION  What were the causes, effects, and responses to the Great Depression?

For most people, the Great Depression of the 1930s was a decade of hardship and despair. Formative historic events such as the Great Depression often lead to conflict. As you have seen in this chapter, the Depression highlighted weaknesses in the Canadian economy and its close ties to the United States. As the government struggled to provide relief to many suffering Canadians, regional political parties were created that offered new ideas and hope to Canadians. The Great Depression was a national crisis that, in many ways, divided the country: the rich and poor, the immigrants and non-immigrants, men and women, and Western and Central Canada.

1. Create an organizer such as the one below. Provide as many examples as possible for each category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Effects</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic Cycle</td>
<td>New Political Parties</td>
<td>New Social Programs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vocabulary Focus

2. Review the Key Terms on page 89. Then, go to the Pearson Web site and complete the activity.

Knowledge and Understanding

3. Continue the ongoing timeline assignment. Write the name and date of each event that occurred in this chapter on the timeline and explain how the event contributed to Canadian independence.

4. What were the major weaknesses in the Canadian economy from 1919 to 1939? How did these weaknesses make the Depression in Canada particularly severe? How did Canada’s economic problems compare to those of other countries? Why was there a reluctance on the part of many governments to take aggressive action to correct these problems?

5. a) In what ways did the federal and provincial governments respond to the needs of Canadians during the 1930s?

b) What does this response say about the values that were held by society at the time? Use the personal memories in this chapter to support your answer.

c) How successful were the government responses?

6. Suggest three actions that could have been taken to prevent the Depression. Why do you think these were not done?

7. Why were Aboriginal peoples, Asian men, and women in a particularly desperate situation in the 1930s?
8. In your view, which political party would each of the following have supported during the Depression? Explain your choice.
   a) owner of a small business
   b) single unemployed person
   c) farm wife
   d) hourly paid worker

Critical Thinking

9. Construct a cause and effect diagram for the Great Depression. Refer to Building Your Skills on page 82. Use your diagram to list and explain three key lessons that today's governments should learn from the Great Depression.

Evidence

10. Choose three images from the chapter that you think best illustrate the impact of the Great Depression on Canadians. Explain your reasons for choosing each of the photographs.

Judgements

11. With a partner or in a small group, imagine you are the founding members of a new political party in the 1930s. Your party is dedicated to solving the economic and social problems of the Depression. On a single page, write your party's name, a summary of the country's major problems, and a five- to ten-point declaration of your party's program. Include a catchy slogan or statement that sums up what your party stands for.

Document Analysis

12. Use Figure 4–26 and Figure 4–27, and the content of this chapter, to answer the following:
   a) Which were the two worst years of the Depression? List and explain the evidence you used to reach your decision.
   b) What might explain Saskatchewan and Alberta's steep decline in per capita incomes from 1928 to 1933?
   c) Which provinces do you think were least affected by the Depression? Explain your response.

![FIGURE 4–26](image_url)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1928–1929 Average $ per Capita</th>
<th>1933 Average $ per Capita</th>
<th>Percentage Decrease</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saskatchewan</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alberta</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manitoba</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Columbia</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>47</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prince Edward Island</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ontario</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Québec</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Brunswick</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nova Scotia</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 4–27 Average per capita incomes, 1928/1929 and 1933
Canada and the Second World War

GUIDING QUESTIONS

Society & Identity
- What effect did the war have on the role of women?
- What impact did conscription have on Canadian unity?
- What effect did the War Measures Act have on the legal rights of Canadians?

Politics & Government
- Why were totalitarian leaders able to gain power in Europe and Asia?

Autonomy & World Presence
- How did the war raise awareness of human rights issues?
- How did Canada get involved in the Second World War?
- What was the war’s impact on the home front?
- Describe Canada’s military role in the Second World War.
- What factors contributed to Canada's emerging autonomy?

TIMELINE

1939
- Germany invades Poland
- Britain and France declare war on Germany
- Canada declares war on Germany

1940
- Germany invades Denmark and Norway
- Germany invades the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and France
- Evacuation of Dunkirk
- National Resources Mobilization Act
- France surrenders to Germany
- The Battle of Britain

1940–1943
- North African Campaign

1940–1944
- Battle of the Atlantic

1941
- Germany invades the Soviet Union
- Japan bombs Pearl Harbor
- U.S. declares war on Japan
- Battle of Hong Kong
- China officially declares war on Japan
CHAPTER FOCUS QUESTION
How did the Second World War impact Canada socially, politically, and economically?

On the Sunday of Labour Day weekend in 1939, Canadians gathered around their radios to hear King George VI address the rumours of war that had been heard across the country.

For the second time in the lives of most of us we are at war. Over and over again we have tried to find a peaceful way out of the differences between ourselves and those who are now our enemies. But it has been in vain. We have been forced into a conflict. For we are called, with our allies, to meet the challenge of a principle which, if it were to prevail, would be fatal to any civilised order in the world.

—Historical Royal Speeches and Writings

Once again, the world was at war. What would war mean to Canadians? How was this war different from the First World War? How was Canada different as a nation at the beginning of the Second World War? In this chapter, you will learn about the events of the Second World War and the contributions made by hundreds of thousands of Canadians during its course.

KEY TERMS
- totalitarian state
- Nazis
- Holocaust
- policy of appeasement
- British Commonwealth Air Training Plan (BCATP)
- total war
- Allies
- Axis
- Dunkirk
- Battle of Britain
- Pearl Harbor
- Battle of Hong Kong
- Battle of the Atlantic
- Bomber Command
- Dieppe Raid
- Italian Campaign
- D-Day
- Liberation of the Netherlands
- genocide
- enemy aliens
- arsenal of democracy
The Rise of Totalitarianism

As you learned in Chapter 4, the economic crisis of the 1930s led to social and political upheaval in countries around the world. During the Depression era, several charismatic leaders promised solutions to their citizens’ woes, but soon emerged as powerful dictators.

The term totalitarian describes political philosophies that put the state above all else, including the rights of the individual. In a totalitarian state, the government has total control over all aspects of politics and society. It uses violence and intimidation to gain power, and then relies on its police force to maintain its control. Usually, the ruling party bans other political parties and does not tolerate any opposing ideologies. Propaganda and censorship reinforce the party message and control society. The government controls the economy and all the resources of the state, and uses these to further its goals. The state has one leader who has absolute power. In the 1930s, different forms of totalitarian states arose in Germany, Italy, Spain, the Soviet Union and, in a different way, Japan.

Stalin’s Soviet Union

By 1917, the Communists had taken control of Russia. In 1924, Joseph Stalin became the leader of the Communist Party in what was now the Soviet Union. By 1928, he had gained total control of the Soviet Union and began to implement a series of five-year plans to industrialize the country and give the government complete control of the economy. The first step of Stalin’s plan was to collectivize agriculture, which meant seizing all privately owned land. Next he created industrial projects, including building coal and steel mills, roads, and railways. Stalin focused on building industry and the military, practically ignoring the needs of the people. The government controlled all media and imposed strict censorship and travel restrictions on everyone. The secret police arrested anyone deemed to be a threat, and the government controlled the courts. During the Great Purge of the late 1930s, Stalin eliminated anyone he believed opposed the communist government or his power. Millions of people were convicted of crimes against the state and hundreds of thousands were executed. Many more Soviet people died of exhaustion or starvation in Gulags, labour camps that Stalin established in Siberia.
Mussolini’s Italy

After the First World War, Italy suffered from chaotic economic and political conditions. Benito Mussolini took advantage of the situation. He established the Fascist Party, which emphasized nationalism and challenged Italy’s democratic government. His new political movement found support in the government and with the middle class. Mussolini created the Blackshirts, gangs of fascists who intimidated their opponents by attacking communists and socialists in the streets. Their favourite tactic was forcing bottles of castor oil, a laxative, down a victim’s throat. Promising to revitalize Italy and to restore Italian pride, the increasingly militaristic National Fascist Party won 35 seats in the election of 1921. Although the Fascists were anti-communist, Mussolini used the totalitarian model of the Soviet Union as a blueprint for his own plans to rule Italy. In 1922, Mussolini led the March on Rome: he gathered 26 000 Blackshirts outside the city and demanded that the government be turned over to him. Soon after taking power, Mussolini—who was called Il Duce (“the leader”)—brought all communications, industry, agriculture, and labour under fascist control and turned Italy into a totalitarian state.

Fascist Germany

Like Italy, Germany was politically and economically unstable at the end of the First World War. The kaiser had abdicated and a democratic govern-ment, the Weimar Republic, was set up. But the German people distrusted the government since it had signed the Treaty of Versailles, which had added to the country’s economic struggles after the war. Many Germans wanted a leader who could solve the country’s problems.

Hitler Comes to Power

In 1920, Adolf Hitler joined the National Socialist German Workers’ Party, also known as the Nazis, and by 1921 he was the leader of the party. The Nazis gathered support throughout the 1920s by criticizing the Weimar Republic and the humiliating terms of the Treaty of Versailles. Hitler persuaded Germans that he could save the country from the Depression and make it a great nation again. In 1932, the Nazis became the largest party in the Reichstag, the German parliament, and in 1933 Hitler became chancellor of Germany.

Once in power, Hitler—called Führer (“the leader”)—ruled his country through intimidation and fear. He banned all political parties other than the Nazis and used the Gestapo, a secret police, to enforce his rule. Hitler’s government defied the terms of the Treaty of Versailles by stopping all reparation payments and rebuilding Germany’s military. It also subsidized farmers and poured money into public projects. To the delight of the German people, unemployment went down and the economy improved.
**The “Master Race”**

The Nazi Party believed that the German people were a “master race” of Aryans, a supposedly “pure” race of northern Europeans. Non-Aryans, including Jewish people, Roma (“Gypsies”), and Slavs, were considered inferior. People with mental or physical disabilities were despised because they destroyed the image of the master race. Communists and homosexuals were also targeted as undesirables. The Nazis banned non-Aryans and undesirables from teaching or attending schools and universities, holding government office, or writing books. As early as 1933, the Nazis set up concentration camps to isolate these people from German society.

Hitler’s regime of hatred targeted Jewish people in particular. During his rule, he passed the Nuremberg Laws, which forced Jewish people to wear the Star of David at all times, banned marriages between Jews and Aryans, and made it illegal for Jewish people to be lawyers or doctors. The Nazi government also encouraged violence against Jewish people. On the night of November 9, 1938, Nazi mobs attacked Jewish homes, businesses, and synagogues across Germany. Many Jewish people were terrorized, beaten, and imprisoned for no reason. The attack was called *Kristallnacht* or “Crystal Night” because sidewalks in many parts of the country were covered with broken glass from windows. Their persecution escalated even more after that night. More laws were introduced which made it illegal for them to own businesses and restricted their travel. Eventually, Hitler and Heinrich Himmler, the head of Hitler’s elite police unit, instituted the “Final Solution” and the *Holocaust*, which you will learn about later in this chapter.
Fascism in Spain

As in Germany and Italy, Spain struggled with economic and political strife after the First World War. During the Depression, Spain’s democratic government was unable to prevent widespread poverty, and people became more and more dissatisfied. Led by General Francisco Franco, fascist rebels—called Nationalists—tried to overthrow the elected socialist government in 1936. This rebellion resulted in a brutal civil war that lasted three years. Although democratic governments around the world chose not to get involved in the conflict, socialist supporters from several countries went to Spain to join in the fight against Franco and fascism. More than 1200 Canadian volunteers, called the Mackenzie-Papineau Battalion (the Mac Paps), fought in the Spanish Civil War. They went to Spain even though the Canadian government passed a law that made it illegal for them to fight in foreign wars. One of the volunteers was Dr. Norman Bethune, a Canadian surgeon and political activist (see Chapter 4).

Despite their efforts, Franco—with military support from Hitler and Mussolini—won the war and became the ruler of Spain in 1939. Once in control, Franco proved to be a brutal totalitarian dictator who ruled by intimidation and violence. Thousands of people were imprisoned in concentration camps or executed, and many others were used as forced labour to build railways and dig canals. Franco ruled Spain until he died in 1975.

Totalitarianism in Japan

Japan also became a totalitarian state in the 1930s, but there were important differences between Japan and the fascist states of Europe. Japan had all the elements of a totalitarian state. Many people had strong nationalist sentiments and notions of racial superiority. Japan had a government loyal to a single leader, the emperor. The country’s parliament, called the Diet, had little power because government ministers answered only to the emperor. Much of the power rested with the military and the Zaibatsu, large family-run corporations, such as Mitsubishi. These groups took advantage of the political and economic problems of the Depression to gain control of the country. Influenced by European fascism, Japan took on many of its characteristics, including a Gestapo-like police force, the Kempeitai, which had the power to arrest, torture, and kill anyone thought to be an enemy of the state. Militarists took control of Japan in the 1930s and began strengthening the empire by conquering other countries and seizing their resources.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. In your own words, explain the term totalitarian.
2. What common conditions led to totalitarianism in Italy, Germany, and Spain?
3. List the ways in which Stalin, Mussolini, and Hitler each made his country a totalitarian dictatorship.
4. How did the Nazis try to accomplish their goal of a “master race” in Europe?
5. What was Canada’s involvement in the Spanish Civil War?
6. How were totalitarian leaders able to gain power in Europe and Asia?
Causes of the Second World War

As you have read, different forms of totalitarianism took hold in Europe, the Soviet Union, and Japan during the 1930s. Like the colonialist leaders of pre–First World War empires, the totalitarian leaders of these states had nationalistic ambitions to expand their territory and resources. Germany and Italy felt that they had been cheated by treaties at the end of the First World War and wanted to right these wrongs. Japan wanted access to more resources to help support its industries. In other countries, leaders were conscious of the sacrifices their citizens had made during the last war and wanted to avoid another conflict at all costs. All these factors contributed to the Second World War.

Hitler’s Imperialistic Ambitions

When Hitler came to power in 1933, he intended to make Germany a powerful nation again. Part of his plan involved uniting the “master race” of Germanic people and taking back territory that he believed belonged to Germany. In the years leading up to the Second World War, Hitler put his plan into action.
Appeasing Hitler

In 1936, Hitler ordered his troops into the Rhineland, an area along Germany’s western border that had been demilitarized and put under French protection by the Treaty of Versailles. Although this was a violation of the treaty, Britain and France chose not to act at the time. Two years later, Germany annexed, or took over, Austria. Again, this was another breach of the treaty, but Britain and France chose not to act. They were willing to make concessions to maintain peace. However, their weakness made Hitler bolder.

Next, Hitler set his sights on the Sudetenland, a territory populated by ethnic Germans given to Czechoslovakia at the Paris Peace Conference. When Hitler threatened to invade this territory, British and French leaders met with him in Munich to try to negotiate. In exchange for the Sudetenland, Hitler promised not to invade the rest of Czechoslovakia. British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain announced to the world that the Munich Agreement and their policy of appeasement would secure “peace for our time.” Only six months later, in March 1939, Hitler broke his promise and Germany invaded Czechoslovakia. Hitler’s actions made it clear that the policy of appeasement had failed. Another war in Europe was looming.

The Nazi–Soviet Non-aggression Pact

After taking over Czechoslovakia, Hitler planned to unite East Prussia with the rest of Germany. This territory had been separated from Germany when the map of Europe was redrawn at the Paris Peace Conference, giving Poland a strip of land so it had access to the Baltic Sea and making Danzig an independent state under the protection of the League of Nations. Before Hitler could act, he had a problem to solve. If Germany invaded Poland, the Soviet Union would likely regard Germany’s actions as a threat to its own security. In August 1939, Hitler stunned the world by signing a non-aggression pact with Joseph Stalin, leader of the Soviet Union, even though the Nazis hated communists and vice versa. Both countries pledged not to fight each other if one of them went to war, and they agreed to divide Poland between them. Germany was now free to make its move.

On September 1, 1939, German troops invaded Poland, and bitter fighting followed. This time, Britain and France responded immediately. They ordered Germany out of Poland by September 3, 1939. When Germany ignored this deadline, Britain and France declared war.

Failure of the League of Nations

While the policy of appeasement failed to prevent German aggression, the League of Nations was not effective in preventing nationalistic aggression in other parts of the world. The League was supposed to help maintain world peace, but it was too weak and did not have a military to enforce its decisions. The League’s ineffectiveness in the following two military conflicts helped pave the road to war.
Japan Invades Manchuria

As part of its plans to expand its territory and influence, Japan invaded the Chinese province of Manchuria in 1931. The Chinese government appealed to the League of Nations to take action against Japan. The League condemned Japan’s action and tried to negotiate. Japan merely withdrew from the League and continued with its policy of aggression. In 1937, it expanded its invasion of China and the two countries were at war.

Italy Invades Abyssinia

Like Hitler in Germany, Mussolini wanted to expand Italy’s territory and power. Still bitter that Italy had not received more land in Europe after the First World War, Mussolini wanted to expand Italy’s resources by adding to its African colonies. In the spring of 1935, Italy attacked Abyssinia (now Ethiopia). Abyssinia had never been colonized and was one of the few independent African nations. It fought hard against the Italian invasion and won support around the world. The League of Nations immediately voted to impose trade sanctions against Italy. But this action was not very effective because oil, a crucial import for Italy, was not included in the sanctions. At this point, the League still hoped for Italy’s support if there was a new war with Germany.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. **Cause and Consequence** Use a graphic organizer to show the causes of the Second World War (similar to the one on page 82 in Chapter 3). Explain the effect and result for each cause of the war.

2. Explain why appeasement was used by Britain and France toward Germany.

3. Why was the non-aggression pact important to both Germany and the U.S.S.R.?

4. Why was the League of Nations unable to stop the aggression of Japan and Italy? How did this failure encourage Hitler?
Canada’s Response to the Threat of War

As events escalated in Europe, with Hitler’s aggressive policies and the civil war in Spain, many Canadians asked why lives should be risked in another European war when Canada itself was not threatened.

Canada’s Policy of Isolationism

Throughout the events of the 1930s, Canada practised isolationism, keeping out of affairs outside its borders. Prime Minister William Lyon Mackenzie King did not want Canada to become involved in another world conflict and had hoped that Britain’s policy of appeasement toward Hitler would be successful. The First World War had deeply divided Canada on the issue of conscription, and Canadians had made many sacrifices in that overseas conflict. King knew that if he imposed conscription in this war, he and the Liberal Party would lose support in Québec. Besides, Canada was just starting to come out of the dark years of the Depression. The economy was slowly improving and King did not want the country plunged back into debt.

Canada’s Response to Jewish Refugees

While King knew that the Nazis were tyrannizing people, he maintained Canada’s isolationist policy. Like King, many Canadians believed that what was happening in Germany was a domestic issue that should not affect them. This attitude influenced Canada’s immigration policies and attitudes toward Jewish refugees fleeing persecution in Europe.

(N)othing is to be gained by creating an internal problem in an effort to meet an international one.... We... must seek to keep this part of the Continent free from unrest.

–Diary of Mackenzie King, Tuesday, March 29, 1938

WEB LINK Read more from King’s diary on the Pearson Web site.

FIGURE 5–10 After meeting Hitler in Germany, Mackenzie King (centre) wrote the following in his diary on June 29, 1937: “[Hitler] smiled very pleasantly and indeed had a sort of appealing and affectionate look in his eyes. My sizing up of the man as I sat and talked with him was that he is really one who truly loves his fellow-men....”

KEY TERMS

isolationism the policy of remaining apart from the affairs of other countries
refugee a person displaced from his of her home and territory by war and other acts of aggression
Anti-Semitism in Canada

Some Canadians supported the dictators who had seized power in Europe or approved of Hitler’s policies and hatred of Jewish people. In Québec, some nationalists called for an independent Québec with a pure French-Canadian population. Anti-Semitism in Canada during the 1930s was not restricted to extremists. It was shared by many in mainstream society, and was reflected in newspapers and in general conversation.

Anti-Semitism and isolationism influenced Canada’s immigration policies in the 1930s. After Kristallnacht in November 1938, Liberal Cabinet Minister Thomas Crerar recommended that 10 000 Jewish people be allowed to immigrate to Canada, but the Cabinet refused his suggestion.

Jewish refugees were seen as a burden on the state. As you read in Chapter 4, due to rising unemployment, Canada was reluctant to accept immigrants other than those from Britain or the United States who could support themselves. The government restricted immigration in the 1930s. As a result, the number of immigrants to Canada fell from 166,783 in 1928 to 14,382 in 1933. The number of deportations also increased to nearly 30,000 by 1936.

The SS St. Louis

Canada’s immigration policy and refusal to accept Jewish refugees had tragic consequences in 1939. The S.S. St. Louis left Hamburg, Germany, in May with 907 Jewish passengers desperately trying to escape persecution. The St. Louis was denied entry in Cuba, South America, and the United States. Canada was the passengers’ last hope. The Canadian government refused to let the St. Louis dock in any port because the passengers did not qualify for entry as immigrants. The ship was forced to return to Europe. Tragically, many of the people aboard later died in concentration camps during the Holocaust.

FIGURE 5–11 Passengers aboard the S.S. St. Louis looked to the Canadian government to accept them as refugees.

Using Evidence At what stage of the journey was this photograph probably taken? Explain.
Canadians Speak Out

Many Canadians did not share the government’s anti-Semitic views. Cairine Wilson, Canada’s first female Senator and chair of the Canadian National Committee on Refugees, spoke out against the banning of Jewish refugees from Canada. Prime Minister Mackenzie King was urged to offer the Jewish refugees sanctuary. In 1938, there were more than 150,000 Jewish people living in Canada. Rallies were held in many parts of the country in support of a more humane immigration policy. When the S.S. St. Louis was turned away and its passengers sent back to Nazi Germany, newspaper editorials also lashed out at the government:

“This country still has the bars up and the refugee who gets into Canada has to pass some mighty stiff obstacles—deliberately placed there by the government.... Immigration bars... are undesirable.... We are deliberately keeping out of this country [people] and money who would greatly add to our productive revenues. We are cutting off our nose to spite our face.”

–Winnipeg Free Press, July 19, 1939

Despite these objections, Canada still admitted only about 5000 Jewish refugees between 1933 and 1945.

Changing Attitudes

The Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, enacted in 1982, guarantees that every Canadian has the right to live “without discrimination based on race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, sex, age, or mental or physical disability.” Due in large part to the Charter, discrimination of any form is unacceptable in Canada today. You will read more about the Charter in Chapter 10.

Practice Questions

1. Why were many Canadians isolationist in the 1930s?
2. What reasons were given for Canada’s admitting so few Jewish refugees fleeing persecution in Europe? Do you think that official reasons were the real reasons? Explain.
3. How do you think Prime Minister Mackenzie King could form such a misguided opinion of Adolf Hitler?
4. Why were the Jewish refugees so desperate to leave Germany? Provide specific information from this chapter.
5. Why do you think discrimination like this was considered acceptable by many people in the 1930s and is not acceptable today?
6. Judgements To what extent should Canadians be responsible for trying to stop human rights abuses in other countries?
Canada Declares War

On September 1, 1939, Germany invaded Poland. Two days later, Britain and France declared war on Germany. In the First World War, when Britain declared war on Germany, Canada was automatically at war. But, in 1939, Canada was an autonomous country with no such obligation. Prime Minister Mackenzie King knew that once Britain became involved in such a major conflict, Canada would almost certainly support it, but the decision to join the war had to be a Canadian one, decided by Canada’s Parliament.

Parliament Votes for War

On September 8, King called a special session of Parliament to decide whether Canada would join the war. He gave a strong speech in favour of declaring war. His Minister of Justice, Ernest Lapointe from Québec, also spoke in favour of the war. But Lapointe spoke bluntly about what conscription would do to Liberal supporters in Québec:

“I am authorized by my colleagues in the Cabinet from Québec, to say that we will never agree to conscription and will never be members or supporters of a government that will try to enforce it.” This statement helped win support for the war in Québec and convinced voters that Canada’s involvement in the war was necessary. Conscious of how conscription had divided the country during the First World War, King assured Parliament, and Québec, that “So long as this government may be in power, no such measure [conscription] shall be enacted.”

King’s position on joining the war was supported by the opposition Conservative Party. Only J.S. Woodsworth, leader of the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF), argued against going to war. He believed that nothing could be settled by war and tried to convince the government that Canada should remain neutral. But Woodsworth did not find support for his pacifist position, and Parliament voted in favour of going to war. On September 10, 1939, Canada declared war on Germany.

**KEY TERM**

**British Commonwealth Air Training Plan (BCATP)** A program to train pilots and aircrew during the Second World War; it produced half of all Commonwealth aircrew and is the largest air training program in history.

**FIGURE 5–13** Troops departing from Winnipeg

*Using Evidence* Carefully examine this photograph. How do you think most Canadians felt about going to war? Consider the feelings of those who were staying home as well as those who were going to fight.
Mobilizing Canada’s Resources

Despite its willingness to join the war, Canada was not prepared for it. Its armed forces were small and unfit for combat. The Canadian army had only 4300 troops, a few light tanks, and no modern artillery. The air force and the navy were small with outdated equipment.

Unlike the First World War, there were no crowds cheering on the streets when Canada declared war in 1939. Many Canadians vividly remembered the horrors of the last world conflict. Still, Canada had no trouble finding volunteers. In September 1939, more than 58 000 people volunteered for service. The Canadian army initially rejected African-Canadian volunteers because of racist attitudes. As the war continued, however, African Canadians were encouraged to join the regular army and the officer corps. As in the First World War, Aboriginal peoples volunteered at a higher percentage of their population than any other group in Canada. Among them was Thomas Prince, a Brokenhead Ojibway from Manitoba. Prince became a sergeant and served in Italy and France as part of an elite unit. One of Canada’s most decorated soldiers, he received ten medals, including the Military Medal for bravery given to him by King George VI.

Many people still felt strong ties to Britain and volunteered from a sense of duty. Others were driven by a sense of new-found national pride. After years of economic hardship, some Canadians were attracted by the lure of a steady income. The first Canadian troops sailed from Halifax on December 10, 1939.

The British Commonwealth Air Training Plan

Mackenzie King hoped that Canada’s contribution to the war effort would be mostly supplies and training, rather than troops, so that he could avoid the issue of conscription. In December 1939, Canada agreed to host and run the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan (BCATP). Pilots and other flight personnel from all over the Commonwealth came to Canada to train with British instructors. Airfields were built on the Prairies and in other locations near small towns and villages. Old aircraft were refitted and returned to service for training purposes. The program was a major Canadian contribution to the war effort. The BCATP trained more than 130 000 pilots, navigators, flight engineers, and ground crew. The total cost was more than $2.2 billion, of which Canada paid more than 70 percent. Contrary to King’s hopes, however, Canada’s role in the war went far beyond its involvement in the BCATP.
Total War

The demands of total war meant that the federal government became more involved in planning and controlling the economy. In April 1940, the Department of Munitions and Supply was created and industrialist C.D. Howe was put in charge. Howe, whom you will learn more about in Chapter 6, was given extraordinary authority to do whatever it took to gear up the economy to meet wartime demands. He told industries what to produce and how to produce it. He convinced business leaders to manufacture goods they had never made before. Soon, Vancouver was building ships for the navy, Montréal was constructing new planes and bombers, such as the Lancaster, and Canada’s car industries were producing military vehicles and tanks. Munitions factories opened in Ontario and Québec. If the private sector could not produce what Howe wanted, he created Crown corporations to do the job. Even farmers were told to produce more wheat, beef, dairy products, and other foods. Under Howe’s leadership, the government ran telephone companies, refined fuel, stockpiled silk for parachutes, mined uranium, and controlled food production. Some called him the “Minister of Everything.”
**Axis Advances**

With the declaration of war in September 1939, the **Allies** (Britain, France, and Commonwealth countries including Canada, Australia, and New Zealand) raced to get their forces organized. The alliance of Germany, Italy (1939), and Japan (1940) became known as the **Axis**. Allied troops were quickly stationed along France’s border with Germany, where they waited for Germany’s next move. But for seven months, from October 1939 to April 1940, nothing happened. This period became known as the “phony war,” and many people started to believe there might not be a war.

These illusions were shattered when Germany renewed its **blitzkrieg** (“lightning war”), attacking Denmark and Norway in April 1940. The **blitzkrieg** was an extremely successful war tactic that used surprise, speed, and massive power to quickly overwhelm the enemy. War planes would often lead the attack, knocking out key enemy positions and supply lines. With lightning speed, German panzers (tanks) would crash through enemy lines, driving forward as far as they could. Soldiers would also parachute into enemy territory, destroying vital communication and transportation links. The attacks left the defending army confused and, eventually, surrounded.

Using these tactics, Germany quickly conquered Denmark and Norway. Germany then attacked the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Belgium. Within weeks, all three countries were overrun. Hitler then set his sights on France.

**Evacuation at Dunkirk**

Within days of launching an attack on France through Belgium, German panzers reached the English Channel and surrounded Allied forces in the French port of **Dunkirk**. If the Allied troops surrendered, Britain would lose the bulk of its army. They had to escape before the Germans captured the town. In an act of desperation, the British navy rounded up every boat capable of navigating the English Channel. Hundreds of fishing boats, pleasure crafts, and ferries joined navy and merchant ships as they headed across the Channel for Dunkirk. The evacuation began on May 26. Two days later, the German **Luftwaffe** bombed the port of Dunkirk. The evacuation was finally completed on June 4, 1940.

It was a dramatic rescue. Nearly 340 000 Allied soldiers, thousands more than originally anticipated, were brought to safety in Britain. This could have been a disastrous loss for the Allies. Instead, the evacuation of Dunkirk was seen as a “miracle” and helped boost morale.

After the evacuation at Dunkirk, the German army continued to sweep through France. The French army proved to be no match for the German troops, and on June 22, 1940, France surrendered. Britain and the Commonwealth now stood alone against Germany.
Battle of Britain

Once France fell, Hitler launched “Operation Sea Lion,” his plan to invade Britain. For this scheme to succeed, the Royal Air Force (RAF) had to be defeated so that German forces could cross the English Channel and land in Britain. In July 1940, the Luftwaffe started a massive bombing campaign, aimed at destroying harbours and shipping facilities in southern England. In August, the Germans targeted airfields and aircraft factories. On August 24, German planes bombed several areas of London (some historians believe that this was accidental, while others claim it was a deliberate attack). In retaliation, the RAF bombed the German city of Berlin. This attack enraged Hitler. He ordered the Luftwaffe to bomb London and other British cities. These raids, which become known as “the Blitz,” took place over many weeks, destroying buildings and terrifying and killing civilians.

Although the Germans had more aircraft than the British, they were unable to defeat the RAF. One reason was that the British had a very advanced radar system that warned them of German air raids. The British also used Spitfires and Hurricanes, two extremely effective fighter planes. In addition, the RAF was reinforced with pilots, planes, and supplies from Canada and other Commonwealth countries. In September 1940, as the RAF shot down more and more German bombers, Hitler finally gave up on his plans to invade Britain. During the Battle of Britain, more than 23,000 people, mostly civilians, were killed.

North-African Campaign

Once Hitler was certain of victory in France, and days before the German Luftwaffe attack on Britain, Axis forces began what would become a three-year campaign in the deserts of North Africa. This campaign, known as the Desert War, was a struggle for the control of valuable resources and strategic positions.

As you read earlier, Italy wanted to increase its territories in Africa. Its first move had been to invade Abyssinia in 1935. Once Italy formally entered the war on the side of the Axis in June 1940, British cavalry and tank regiments immediately invaded Libya (an Italian colony). Italy, in turn, invaded Egypt with its sights on the Suez Canal, a major strategic point.

To have any hope of victory, the Axis had to dominate the Mediterranean by controlling its two access points: the Strait of Gibraltar and the Suez Canal (see map on page 135). Holding these waterways would give the Axis armies access to the oil-rich Middle East.

By December 1940, the British Commonwealth forces had all but destroyed the Italian army. German forces were dispatched to the area to support the Italians and to prevent an Allied victory in North Africa. Germany had hoped their Italian allies would quickly overrun Allied forces in the region. Instead, it now found its forces engaged on a second front.

Over the next three years, neither side won decisive victories. The tide turned in 1942 with a final Allied victory in North Africa in May 1943. The Allied forces could now focus on their next objective: the invasion of Sicily and the liberation of Italy, which you will read about later in this chapter.
**Operation Barbarossa**

After Germany’s defeat in the Battle of Britain, Hitler launched “Operation Barbarossa” (“red beard”) on June 22, 1941. This massive attack on the Soviet Union broke the non-aggression pact that Hitler had signed with Stalin in 1939. Hitler saw the Soviet Union as a source of raw materials, agricultural land, and labour for the German army, and conquering the Soviet Union was part of his long-term plans for a new German Empire.

The Soviets were unprepared for the attack, enabling the German army to strike deep into Russian territory. By autumn, they had reached the outskirts of Moscow and Leningrad (now St. Petersburg). But the Germans were ill-equipped for the long and bitterly cold Soviet winter and soon lost their advantage. In 1942, Germany launched another offensive in the Soviet Union, this time focused on the rich oil fields in the south. The German troops got as far as Stalingrad, but were stopped once again by the severe winter. The Germans could not turn back. Nor could they hope for reinforcements, since the Axis powers were also engaged in North Africa. After suffering more than 300,000 casualties, the German army surrendered in early 1943.

After the German surrender, the Soviet army went on the offensive, retaking much of the territory it had lost. Hitler’s aggression also assured that the Soviets joined the war on the Allies’ side.

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**FIGURE 5–19** Extent of Axis control in Europe and North Africa, 1942

*Reading a Map* Use this map and the text in this section to understand the scope of Axis control in Europe and North Africa.
The War in the Pacific

As you read earlier, Japan began a campaign to expand its territory in the 1930s. By 1941, it was prepared to invade American and European colonies in Southeast Asia to gain control of valuable resources such as oil, rubber, and tin. Japan knew such action would almost certainly involve the United States, which had thus far remained neutral in the war.

Japanese strategy depended on a quick and decisive strike against the United States. In a surprise attack on December 7, 1941, Japanese planes bombed the U.S. naval base in Pearl Harbor, on the island of Hawaii. More than 2400 people were killed and much of the American fleet was destroyed. Japan then bombed the U.S. territory of the Philippines. The surprise bombings stunned the Americans. On December 8, the U.S. joined the allies and declared war on Japan. Japan’s allies—Germany and Italy—then declared war on the United States. The whole world was now at war.
Battle of Hong Kong

Only hours after bombarding Pearl Harbor, Japan attacked Hong Kong, a British colony. Weeks earlier, Canada had sent two battalions, from Winnipeg and Québec, to reinforce the British and Commonwealth forces in Hong Kong. The Canadians were inexperienced and the 20,000 Allied soldiers were no match for the skilled Japanese soldiers. After 18 days of bitter fighting, Hong Kong fell to the Japanese on what would be known as "Black Christmas," December 25, 1941. Every Canadian was either killed or taken prisoner.

Nearly 1,700 Canadian prisoners of war (POWs) faced brutal conditions and were later used as slave labour. More than 260 of these POWs died during three and a half years of imprisonment. Canadians at home were horrified to learn the fate of the soldiers and angry that troops had been sent to Hong Kong. The Japanese treatment of Allied troops may have encouraged the anti-Japanese sentiment that culminated in the internment of Japanese Canadians. You will read about this later in the chapter.

Practice Questions

1. Explain why German forces needed to invade Britain if they were to hold Western Europe. What efforts did they make to do this?
2. How did Canada contribute to the Allied victory in the Battle of Britain?
3. What strategic benefit was there to controlling the Mediterranean? Why would the Axis have needed to control this area?
4. Do you think it was an error on Germany’s part to invade the U.S.S.R.? Explain.
5. Using the information about each of the major battles in this section, explain the strategic advantages of the Axis forces as well as how these eventually led to the major turning point that occurred in Stalingrad.
6. Why did the Japanese attack the U.S. navy at Pearl Harbor? How did this attack change the course of the war?
7. Why would Canada send troops to Hong Kong? Why were Canadians angry when they learned the fate of troops in Hong Kong?
Canada’s Contribution to the War Effort

Canadians contributed to the war effort on all fronts. Over the course of the war, Canada expanded its navy and air force to help reinforce the Allies.

**Battle of the Atlantic**

When war broke out, the Royal Canadian Navy (RCN) had only 13 ships and 1819 sailors. Desperately short of equipment and personnel, Canada embarked on a massive building and training program so that by the end of the war, the RCN had grown to 400 vessels and more than 100,000 sailors. By 1941, the Battle of the Atlantic was in full swing and Canada’s contribution was much needed. As in the First World War, Britain was almost completely dependent on food and military supplies from Canada and the United States. But the Allied supply ships bound for England were being attacked by “wolf packs” of German U-boats patrolling the Atlantic. Germany was trying to starve Britain by cutting off vital shipping routes.

**The Allies Gain Momentum**

For the first three years of the war, it seemed that the Allies would lose the Battle of the Atlantic. German submarines pounded convoys, sinking hundreds of ships. Some German submarines even sailed into the Gulf of St. Lawrence and up the St. Lawrence River to attack ships there. Gradually, the situation started to turn around. The British had cracked the German naval code, allowing the Allies to track German submarine movements more easily. As well, the Allies were building more ships than were being destroyed.

**Canada’s War at Sea**

Canada also helped turn the tide. The RCN is credited with providing about half the escorts across the Atlantic. Better training of Canadian navy personnel and more sophisticated equipment contributed to the Allies’ success. The Women’s Royal Canadian Naval Service was created in 1942. Most “WRENs” were limited to shore-based jobs, and worked as wireless operators, coders, drivers, and operational plotters.

To protect supply ships from German torpedoes, the Allies sailed in convoys so warships could help to protect vessels carrying vital supplies. But even convoys did not stop the attacks. German U-boats destroyed hundreds of supply ships, sinking millions of tonnes of cargo. In response, Canada started building small warships, called corvettes, to escort convoys across the ocean. The corvette was quick and manoeuvred well, but it was not a very stable vessel. Nevertheless, the corvette was the best ship that could be built in such a short time. The corvettes were helped by long-range Liberator bombers, which could fly from bases in Britain and Canada to protect much of the convoy’s route. By May 1943, the Allies believed they had won the Battle of the Atlantic.
War in the Air

Like the RCN, the Royal Canadian Air Force (RCAF) grew quickly once the war began. More than 215,000 people enlisted in the RCAF and, at one point, 35 Canadian squadrons were posted overseas. Canadian aircrews participated in bombing raids in North Africa, Italy, Northwest Europe, and Southeast Asia.

The Women's Division (WD) of the RCAF was created in 1941. Women trained as clerks, cooks, hospital assistants, drivers, telephone operators, welders, instrument mechanics, and engine mechanics. The RCAF refused to let licensed female pilots fly until later in the war. Women ferried bombers to Britain, but they never took part in combat.

Bomber Command

The RCAF also participated in one of the most controversial missions of the war: night bombings over Germany. As part of Britain’s Bomber Command, Canada's Bomber Group pounded German cities, including Dresden and Cologne, night after night. These cities were targeted for a number of reasons: to retaliate for the German air raids on English cities, to diminish German morale, and to destabilize German industrial centres. Tens of thousands of civilians were killed by these air raids. One of the worst attacks was on the city of Hamburg in July 1943. Relentless bombing by the Allies created a firestorm and the city was engulfed in flames. The city was practically destroyed and more than 40,000 civilians were killed.

The casualty rate for the RCAF aircrew was as high as seven out of ten. Nearly 10,000 Canadian Bomber Group members lost their lives during the war.

FIGURE 5–23 Bombing raids on German cities, like Hamburg, killed thousands of civilians.

Making Generalizations What would you say was the effect of bombing raids on Germany, based on this photograph?

KEY TERMS

- Battle of the Atlantic: the struggle between the Allies and the Axis powers to control the Allies' shipping route across the Atlantic Ocean
- corvettes: small, fast, warships built in Canada to help protect convoys in the Atlantic Ocean
- Bomber Command: the section of the RAF that directed the strategic bombing of Germany

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. How did Canadian sea and air forces change over the course of the war?
2. Explain why the corvette and the convoy system were so important to the Allied war effort.
3. What did Winston Churchill mean when he said everything in the war depended on the outcome of the Battle of the Atlantic?
4. Describe the contributions of women in the navy and air force.
5. Why do you think the casualty rate for the RCAF was so high?
6. Is the bombing of civilian targets ever justified? Explain your position.
Advances in War Technology

Technology played an important role in the Second World War and in many ways determined its outcome. Major technological advances were made in weaponry, communications, intelligence, and medicine.

**Peril of the seas**

Both the Allies and the Axis powers used submarines, which were much more efficient than in the First World War. The Germans invented a snorkel that made it possible for U-boats to recharge batteries underwater, reducing the time on the surface, where it was vulnerable to attack.

**Finding the enemy**

Radar (radio detection and ranging) is an electronic system that uses radio waves to detect objects beyond the range of vision. It gives information about the distance, position, size, shape, direction, and speed of approaching aircraft. Radar was a deciding factor in the Battle of Britain.

**A new type of terror weapon**

The German V-2 rocket had a range of 350 kilometres. V-2s were used with deadly effect against London in the closing days of the war. Wernher von Braun, the designer of the V-2, moved to the United States after the war. After becoming a U.S. citizen, he designed the Gemini and Apollo rockets that eventually led to the U.S. moon landing in 1969.

**The deadliest weapon**

The United States developed the atomic bomb, which permanently changed warfare. In this weapon, a sphere of concentrated radioactive material about the size of a baseball could easily destroy a city.
Technology in the air The first jet-propelled airplanes were used in the Second World War. Because jets could fly higher and faster than propeller-driven planes, both the Axis powers and the Allies worked around the clock to produce as many jets as they could. However, jets were not perfected until after 1945. Not enough were produced to affect the outcome of the war.

Treating the wounded Great advances were made in medical technology as doctors tried to repair the hideous wounds of war. Penicillin, an antibiotic, was first isolated in 1929 by British scientist Alexander Fleming and was used to treat infections in humans in 1941. Recovery rates for wounded soldiers increased significantly due to penicillin. Below, a Canadian doctor treats a German soldier in 1944.

Secret codes The Germans developed a coding machine, known as “Enigma,” which converted radio messages into code. This machine spurred the development of an early computer that could decode German signals.
The Tide Turns

In 1942, the tide of the war finally began to turn. The Allied forces became stronger when the United States entered the conflict in December 1941. With the Americans’ help, the Allies started to gain ground in North Africa. They were more and more successful against U-boats in the Atlantic and made important advances in the Pacific.

The Dieppe Raid

By the middle of 1942, the Soviet Union, now one of the Allied powers, had lost close to a million soldiers in its desperate fight against invading German troops. Stalin demanded that the Allies invade Europe from the west to weaken Germany by forcing it to fight the war on two fronts.

The Allies had hoped to postpone the full invasion of Europe, but they felt ready for a trial run. A smaller raid would allow them to test new techniques and equipment, and serve as a scouting mission for a future invasion.

The 2nd Canadian Division was chosen to be the main attack force in a raid on the French port of Dieppe. The plan was to launch four pre-dawn attacks along the coast, followed by the main attack on Dieppe. Air force bombers and tanks brought in by ship would support the troops.

On the morning of August 19, 1942, one of the ships carrying Canadian soldiers to Dieppe met a small German convoy. The two sides engaged in a brief sea battle, and the noise alerted German troops on shore. To make matters worse, the ships were delayed and the troops landed in daylight. They were easily machine-gunned by waiting German soldiers. Allied tanks were ineffective because they could not get enough traction to move on the steep, pebbled beach. Communication between the ships and troops on shore was poor. Believing the first wave of soldiers had reached the town, commanders sent reinforcements ashore. These troops, too, became trapped on the beaches. Unable to retreat or advance, they were easy targets for the German soldiers on the cliffs along the coastline.

**KEY TERM**

**Dieppe Raid** the 1942 trial raid by Canadian troops against Germany’s occupation of Dieppe; Canada suffered heavy losses

**Figure 5–24** Dead Canadian soldiers and tanks on Dieppe beach, August 19, 1942

Using evidence canadian troops were supported by tanks that arrived in transport ships, but most never advanced far from the shoreline. Find evidence in this photograph to suggest why tanks were useless in this attack.

**TIMELINE Major Canadian Battles, 1939–1945**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>September 1939–May 1943</th>
<th>May 26–June 4, 1940</th>
<th>August–October, 1940</th>
<th>December 7–25, 1941</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battle of the Atlantic</td>
<td>Battle of Dunkirk</td>
<td>Battle of Britain</td>
<td>Battle of Hong Kong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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**We were sacrificial lambs… They were there waiting for us—they knew it was just a matter of time. In fact, one German at Dieppe actually asked us: “What took you so long?”**

—Thomas Hunter

©PEARSON CANADA
Disaster or Learning Experience?

The Dieppe Raid was a terrible failure. Casualties were high. Of the nearly 5000 Canadian soldiers involved in the nine-hour battle, 907 were killed. Almost 600 were wounded and another 1946 were taken prisoner. Ross Munro, the Canadian war correspondent who accompanied the troops to Dieppe, described the raid and its devastating results:

> For eight hours, under intense Nazi fire from dawn into a sweltering afternoon, I watched Canadian troops fight the blazing, bloody battle of Dieppe. I saw them go through the biggest of the war’s raiding operations in wild scenes that crowded helter skelter one upon another in crazy sequence. There was a furious attack by German E-boats while the Canadians moved in on Dieppe’s beaches, landing by dawn’s half-light. When the Canadian battalions stormed through the flashing inferno of Nazi defences, belching guns of huge tanks rolling into the fight. I spent the grimmest 20 minutes of my life with one unit when a rain of German machine-gun fire wounded half the men in our boat and only a miracle saved us from annihilation.

—Ross Munro, The Windsor Daily Star, 1942

Opinion is divided as to whether Dieppe was a valuable learning experience or a complete disaster. Some historians claim that the Allies were later able to launch a successful invasion based on what they had learned at Dieppe. Others maintain that the raid was poorly planned and taught the Germans more than it taught the Allies.

FAST FORWARD

Reporting War

Today, news reports make it possible for us to see what is happening on a battlefield almost instantly. Many have argued, however, that what we see on the news is not always an accurate report of what is happening in a war zone. Several factors can influence what is reported on the news. For example, reporters “embedded” with combat units are often sympathetic to the young soldiers they live and work with. Back home, newspaper editors and television directors choose stories that will attract viewers so they can sell advertising. The government may also censor news reports to prevent security risks or to put their own slant on events. Some people argue that improved coverage of war is positive because it keeps us informed of what is happening in distant parts of the world. Others maintain that this coverage is negative because it hardens us to images of war so that we are no longer shocked by what we see.

1. Can a news broadcast ever completely avoid bias and show viewers the “truth”?
2. Should reporters tell us everything they see on the front lines?
The Italian Campaign

After the failure at Dieppe, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill felt that the best way for the Allies to recapture Europe was through what he called the “soft underbelly” of Europe: Sicily and Italy. The Allied victory in North Africa made it possible for forces to launch their attack from the south. The invasion ended up lasting almost two years and cost thousands of lives. The “underbelly” proved anything but soft.

Battle of Sicily

On July 10, 1943, Allied forces invaded Sicily. Once again, the Canadians proved themselves to be fierce opponents. They fought Italian and German soldiers through 240 kilometres of mountainous terrain, losing 562 soldiers in the battle. The Allies captured the island after 38 days.

This victory quickly led to Mussolini’s downfall. He was overthrown and the new Italian government surrendered. The Germans, however, continued to defend their Italian territory.

Battle of Ortona

The Allies followed the Germans as they retreated to mainland Italy. Canadians were given the task of capturing the medieval town of Ortona on the Adriatic Sea. Before they could reach the heavily fortified Ortona, the Canadians had to capture several smaller villages, cross the river Moro, and fight across several kilometres of German-occupied territory. The regiment describes the battle:

> Throughout the night of December 8th–9th the RCR [Royal Canadian Regiment] maintained its position on the feature which came to be known... as “Slaughterhouse Hill.” The fighting was most confused, the enemy appearing on several sides of the perimeter as well as within it... the incessant shellfire from both sides turned the night into pandemonium.

–A Regiment at War, 1979

Once they reached Ortona, advances were slow and battles were often fought house by house on the town’s steep, rubble-filled streets. Canadians captured the town on December 28, 1943, but lost 1372 soldiers before the Germans withdrew. After capturing Ortona, Canadian troops advanced through Italy until they were sent to join the campaign in France. Nearly 6000 Canadians were killed in Italy.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. Why was the Dieppe Raid unsuccessful? Do you think it was a disaster or a learning experience? Support your opinion.

2. Explain why the Italian Campaign was strategically important to the Allies.

3. In your own words, describe the Battle of Ortona.
Building Your Skills

Reading a Map

Historical maps are useful documents that give specific information. They are a visual way of conveying facts as well as concepts. As with other historical documents, the information included in these types of maps is selective, so you must examine them carefully.

Steps to Reading a Map

1. Look at the title and legend of the map below. These should tell you the historical period of the map, its main purpose, and the other kinds of information that the map is meant to convey.

2. Examine the names (or symbols) closely. Look for patterns in the information. Why, for example, are some names bigger or bolder than others? Certain colours may be used to illustrate similarities in or differences between regions.

3. Now read the map by analyzing the information. Ask yourself: What is this map about? How is the information being communicated? What conclusions can be drawn from this map?

Applying the Skill

As you read about the events that occurred in Europe between 1942 and 1945, refer to Figure 5–27. Go through the three steps in reading a historical map, and answer the questions below.

1. What is the map about? What are the six pieces of information given in the legend?

2. The cartographer (map-maker) has shown a limited number of cities. How would you explain the choice of Dunkirk, Stalingrad, and Palermo?

3. What ideas does the map convey about
   a) the importance of the success of the North African campaign to the Allies?
   b) the role of the U.S.S.R. in defeating Germany?
   c) the importance of supremacy in naval forces for the Allies?
   d) the importance of an effective air force?

FIGURE 5–27 Allied advances on Germany, 1942–1945
D-Day: The Normandy Invasion

The Allies immediately followed their success in Italy with the biggest Allied invasion of the war. On **D-Day**, June 6, 1944, the Allies launched a full-scale invasion of Europe called “Operation Overlord.” To avoid a disaster like Dieppe, the Allies planned and rehearsed the invasion down to the smallest detail.

The Allies launched their attack by landing their troops on five beaches along an 80-kilometre stretch of the Normandy coast in northern France. The beaches were code-named Sword, Juno, Gold, Omaha, and Utah. The soldiers on the beaches had massive air and naval support. The Allies were able to disrupt transportation and communication lines before the attack by dropping paratroopers behind enemy lines and bombing targets on the beaches. Their naval support also allowed the Allies to bring in more than a million troops, along with military vehicles and supplies, after the initial landing.

The D-Day invasions were also successful because the Allies had managed to keep the details of the attack a secret from the Germans. Although the Germans had anticipated an attack, they thought it would come from the north. The weather also helped the Allies. A storm delayed the initial attack and the Germans believed that the Allies would not attempt a landing in bad weather. As a result, the German defence was poorly coordinated.

**Juno Beach**

On the morning of June 6, 1944, 14 000 Canadian soldiers arrived at Juno Beach (see Figure 5–28) as part of the first wave of the attack. They had to make their way past the German defences, including concrete barriers, barbed wire, and land mines, to take the beach. By the end of the day, the Canadians had fought their way inland by about nine kilometres. Although they were successful, casualties from the day were high—359 Canadians died and 715 were wounded.
Battle of the Scheldt

It took the Allies weeks of constant fighting to expand their territory before they could begin an advance through France and Belgium toward Germany. The 11-month campaign was exhausting and there were several moving moments in which the Allies were welcomed as the liberators of Europe. In September 1944, for example, Canadians marched triumphantly through Dieppe where only two years earlier they had suffered a terrible defeat.

In October, Canadians were given the task of clearing enemy troops from the Scheldt River in Belgium. This river was important because it connected Antwerp to the North Sea. Although the Allies had already liberated Antwerp, German forces controlled the river and access to the sea. The Canadians achieved their goal after a month of bitter fighting, allowing the Allies to bring in supplies for their final advance into Germany.

Battle of the Rhineland

On February 8, 1945, the Allies—including approximately 175,000 Canadians—began their attack to drive the Germans back over the Rhine River and out of the Netherlands. The fighting was slow as soldiers struggled through mud and flooded fields against fierce German resistance. Nearly 23,000 Allied soldiers were killed, including more than 5,300 Canadians. The Germans lost about 90,000 men, including 52,000 who were taken prisoner. On March 10, the German army withdrew to the east bank of the Rhine River, allowing the Canadians to continue north to liberate Holland.

Liberating the Netherlands

Once the Allied forces had reached the Rhine River and Germany, the Canadians were given a separate task: liberating the Netherlands. This was a difficult job. An earlier Allied attempt to free Holland had failed and German troops had practically destroyed the port cities of Amsterdam and Rotterdam and flooded much of the countryside. By the end of 1944, food and fuel supplies to the Dutch had been cut off and many were starving to death. The bitter winter of 1944–1945 made difficult conditions even worse.
**Lasting Gratitude**

After reaching the Rhine, it took another month of fighting to drive the Germans out of the Netherlands. On April 28, 1945, the Allies negotiated a truce with Germany, allowing them to bring much needed supplies to the Dutch people. Convoys of trucks carrying food and fuel eventually delivered thousands of tonnes of supplies to civilians.

As they liberated towns and cities throughout the Netherlands, Canadians were hailed as heroes in victory parades. Percy Loosemore, who travelled with Canadian soldiers, wrote:

> When we entered Holland from Belgium, the Dutch people seemed overwhelmed with joy at their deliverance and the end of the war for while the Belgians had been liberated for some time, the Dutch were celebrating both the end of the war in Europe and their own immediate liberation. Bunting hung everywhere, people cheered as we drove by… Once, when I stopped my car, children gathered around and proceeded to decorate our vehicle with flowers and coloured streamers. To witness the enthusiastic joy and happy faces of these people was a great pleasure to me… I was deeply moved.

—Quoted in A Soldier’s View, 2005

**Victory in Europe**

While the Allies invaded Germany from the north and west, the Soviet Union attacked from the east. Facing certain defeat, Germany surrendered to the Allies on May 7, 1945. Hitler committed suicide in a bunker in Berlin before he could be captured. The war in Europe was over and the Allies declared May 8 as Victory in Europe (VE) Day.
Japan Surrenders

After the Allied victory in Europe, the war in the Pacific intensified. By mid-1945, most of the Japanese air force and navy had been destroyed, but the army was still strong. In March 1945, the Americans, the main Allied force in the Pacific, had begun fire-bombing Japanese cities trying to force them to surrender. Although these bombing raids destroyed cities and killed thousands of people, the Japanese declared that they would “fight to the last person” and not surrender.

The Atomic Bomb

For some time, American and British scientists had been working on the Manhattan Project, a top-secret plan to develop an atomic bomb. In 1942, Canada was notified of the project and asked to contribute uranium, an important component of the bomb. The Canadian government agreed, and secretly bought the Eldorado mine at Great Bear Lake, Northwest Territories, to produce the uranium.

On August 6, 1945, an American bomber plane (named “Enola Gay” after the pilot’s mother) dropped an atomic bomb over the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The destruction unleashed by the bomb had never been experienced before. Three days after the bombing of Hiroshima, a second atomic bomb was dropped on the city of Nagasaki. While precise casualty numbers are not available, it is estimated that the two bombings killed approximately 100,000 people and wounded another 100,000. Long-term effects, such as cancer, affected many more Japanese citizens.

The War Ends

The Japanese, realizing that they could not withstand the awesome power of the new U.S. weapon, surrendered on August 14, 1945. Finally, after six long years and the loss of millions of lives, the Second World War was over.

KEY TERMS

Manhattan Project: the code name during the Second World War for the American plan to develop the first atomic bomb.

Atomic bomb: a bomb containing radioactive material, capable of destroying an entire city or region.

FIGURE 5–32 The nuclear detonation at Nagasaki on August 9, 1945, created a mushroom cloud that rose many kilometres into the air.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. What was D-Day? Why was it necessary? In what ways did the D-Day invasion differ from the raid on Dieppe? What role did Canadian troops play in both of these invasions?

2. In your own words, describe the situation in the Netherlands in the spring of 1945. Why were Canadian troops considered heroes in the Netherlands?

3. Compare and contrast how the war ended in Europe and Asia.
Are weapons of mass destruction ever justified?

On July 16, 1945, a group of American scientists tested the first atomic bomb—the most powerful weapon ever built until that time. The scientists who witnessed the test were awestruck by the power of what they had created.

We knew the world would not be the same. A few people laughed. A few people cried. Most people were silent. I remembered the line from the Hindu scripture—the Bhagavad-gita. Vishnu is trying to persuade the prince that he should do his duty and to impress him, takes on his multi-armed form and says, "Now I am become Death, the destroyer of worlds." I suppose we all felt that, one way or another.

—Robert Oppenheimer, scientific director of the Manhattan Project

Two atomic bombs, dropped on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, ended the war, but controversy regarding their use continues to this day. Was it necessary to use such a deadly weapon? Even before the atomic bomb was dropped, there were those who believed its use could never be justified. Admiral William Leahy,an advisor to U.S. President Harry Truman(686,747),(747,834), opposed the bomb. In 1944, he advised Truman’s predecessor, Franklin Roosevelt, not to use the bomb.

Personally I recoiled at the idea and said to Roosevelt: “Mr. President, this would violate every Christian ethic I have ever heard of and all known laws of war. It would be an attack on the non-combatant population of the enemy....

It was my opinion that the use of this barbarous weapon at Hiroshima and Nagasaki was of no material assistance in our war.... The Japanese were already defeated and ready to surrender.... My own feeling was that in being the first to use it, we had adopted an ethical standard common to the barbarians of the Dark Ages. I was not taught to make war in that fashion, and wars cannot be won by destroying women and children....

—I Was There, 1950

FIGURE 5–33 Hiroshima before the bombing
Colonel Paul Tibbets, commander of the air force squadron that dropped the bombs on Japan and pilot of the plane that dropped the bomb on Hiroshima, rejected such criticism because he felt it failed to take into consideration the “context of the times”:

As for the missions flown against Japan on the 6th and 9th of August, 1945, I would remind you, we were at war. Our job was to win. Once the targets were named and presidential approval received, we were to deliver the weapons as expeditiously as possible, consistent with good tactics. The objective was to stop the fighting, thereby saving further loss of life on both sides. The urgency of the situation demanded that we use the weapons first—before the technology could be used against us.

—Quoted in news release by Airmen Memorial Museum, 1994

For almost 200 years, war strategists have been influenced by the writings of Carl von Clausewitz, a Prussian general and military theorist. In his book On War, he writes about his theory of absolute war:

To introduce into a philosophy of war a principle of moderation would be an absurdity. War is an act of violence pushed to its utmost bounds.

—Quoted in Gwynne Dyer, War, 1985

Weapons now exist that have the potential to destroy all life on Earth. Nations have stockpiled thousands of warheads hundreds of times more powerful than the first atomic bombs. Arsenals and laboratories store biological weapons designed to spread diseases. Governments maintain stores of deadly chemical weapons. Von Clausewitz could never have envisioned destruction on such a scale.

Thankfully, some nations have agreed to treaties that limit the testing of nuclear weapons and that reduce the arsenal of nuclear weapons. Still, both the United States and Russia have the capability to destroy the world several times over. Many other nations also have nuclear arms and large quantities of chemical and biological weapons.

Analyzing the Issue

1. What reasons did Admiral William Leahy give against using the atomic bomb?
2. What three arguments did Colonel Paul Tibbets give to support the use of the atomic bomb on Japan?
3. What do you think Robert Oppenheimer meant by “We knew the world would not be the same”?
4. Do you think there are any circumstances in which weapons of mass destruction can ever be justified? Explain your answer.
Crimes Against Humanity

Atrocities inflicted upon civilians and POWs during the Second World War brought the issue of human rights to the world’s attention, and ultimately led to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (see Chapter 10).

The Holocaust

The anti-Semitic and racist views of Hitler and the Nazi government were well-known in the 1930s. By 1941, the Nazi government adopted the “Final Solution”—a horrifying plan of genocide. Hitler ordered all Jewish people and “undesirables” to be shipped to concentration camps, such as Bergen-Belsen and Buchenwald in Germany, and Auschwitz and Treblinka in Poland. Upon arrival, guards stripped them of their clothes and valuables, shaved their heads, and separated families. The weak, the old, and the young were immediately killed in gas chambers. Healthy people worked as slave labourers. When overwork, starvation, and disease weakened them, they too were murdered. By 1945, the Germans had killed more than 6 million Jewish people and another 5 million Roma, Slavs, and other “undesirables.” Though the Allies had known about German concentration camps, they did not realize the full extent of the horrors of the Holocaust until they pressed closer to Germany and saw the Nazi atrocities.

The Nuremberg Trials

In 1945, the Allies established an International Military Tribunal in Nuremberg, Germany, to prosecute prominent Nazi leaders and many others for atrocities committed during the war. Twelve defendants were sentenced to death and others were imprisoned. This is the first time in history that leaders of a country were charged for immoral acts during wartime. The Nuremberg Trials became a model for prosecuting war criminals in Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia (see Chapter 10).

Atrocities in Asia

Liberators of Japanese POW camps also encountered terrible war crimes committed during the war. Mass killings, human experimentation, famine, torture, and forced labour were a few of the hardships suffered by POWs and civilians alike. Since many of Japan’s wartime acts violated international law, the alleged crimes were subject to trial in international courts of justice, similar to the Nuremberg Trials. The Tokyo Trials heard these cases and passed sentence on military personnel found guilty of war crimes and crimes against humanity.
The War at Home

Canadians at home made enormous contributions to the war. Under the policy of total war, many Canadian factories were dedicated to producing supplies and war materials. In 1944, Canada produced 14,000 tanks and personnel carriers, more than 4000 aircraft, and 16,000 artillery pieces. Factories operated non-stop, and Canadians worked long hours to run them.

Women and the War Effort

As in the First World War, women joined war industries in roles that were unusual for them at the time. They worked as welders, drillers, and punch-press or machine operators. “Rosie the Riveter” became a popular nickname for these working women. Women were in high demand as factory workers and many moved from rural areas to industrial centres. With government funding, some companies built dormitories close to their factories to house workers.

Canada’s Wartime Economy

With so much increased production and employment, people suddenly had more money to spend. At the same time, there were fewer goods to buy as most of what was produced was shipped to Britain. Prime Minister W. L. Mackenzie King wanted to avoid soaring inflation and hoped to prevent the massive debt that had burdened Canada after the First World War so the government took the following steps:

- As Minister of Finance, James Ilsley enthusiastically encouraged Canadians to buy Victory Bonds. The government used the money to help finance the war, and people cashed in the bonds for profit after the war.
- Ilsley increased income taxes for added revenue.
- In 1941, the Wartime Prices and Trade Board, which had been set up in 1939, froze all wages and prices to try to prevent inflation.
- In 1942, King introduced food rationing, limiting the amounts of certain goods that Canadians were allowed per week. Each Canadian adult was limited to about 1 kilogram of meat, 220 grams of sugar, 250 grams of butter, and about 225 grams of coffee. Canadian rations were generous compared with those in England and the United States.
Women and the War Machine

The Second World War changed Canadian society. Most young men joined the military and many went overseas. At the same time, industrial production greatly increased, meaning that more workers were needed. Although women in poorer families and on farms had always worked, the middle-class ideal was that women looked after the home and men went out to work. This pattern was so engrained that middle-class men resisted even the idea that their wives would go to work, believing that it would indicate, among other things, that the men could not provide for their families. During the Depression, governments wanted women to stay at home to keep more men employed. When the war changed everything, attitudes had to change too.

The National Selective Service Program

During the war, the National Selective Service program registered women for work in factories and established daycare centres in Ontario and Québec, where industry was concentrated. Women also joined the Canadian Women's Army Corps (CWAC), serving mostly as clerks, drivers, and nurses. By 1945, almost one-third of all Canadian women were employed in the war effort.

Ronnie, the Bren Gun Girl

Governments used propaganda and created stereotypes to mobilize the home front and to change the public’s mind about women in the workforce. Working in the war effort had to seem glamorous, exciting, and patriotic. The Americans created Rosie the Riveter to idealize the working woman. Her posters show her with sleeves rolled up, ready to pitch in and help her country. Canada’s stereotypical working woman was Ronnie, the Bren Gun Girl, who was, as opposed to Rosie, a real person working in a munitions factory.

Looking Further

1. In your own words, describe how the role of Canadian women changed from the Depression to the end of the Second World War.
2. Examine, describe, and compare the images of Rosie the Riveter and Ronnie, the Bren Gun Girl. What do they tell us about the societies they represent?
3. Describe social controls that might be used against a woman who chose to live independently rather than participate in the war effort.

FIGURE 5–37 Ronnie, the Bren Gun Girl—a real Canadian woman named Veronica Foster

FIGURE 5–38 Rosie the Riveter represented the idealized American woman contributing to the war effort.
The Growing Demand for Social Change

The federal government’s Wartime Prices and Trade Board was also established to help reduce social unrest. It limited the power of trade unions by controlling wages so that striking would be less effective. The shortage of labour, however, often worked to the unions’ advantage, and many ignored restrictions on the right to strike. Workers wanted higher wages but they also demanded the right to bargain. The board was unable to prevent steel workers in Nova Scotia and coal miners in Alberta and British Columbia from going on strike in 1943. In 1944, the federal government softened its policy, allowing workers the right to join a union and forcing employers to recognize their workers’ unions.

The war also brought changes to the role of government. The wartime government had been involved in almost every aspect of Canadians’ lives, and many Canadians wanted some of this involvement to continue. The Co-operative Commonwealth Federation party and its platform of social reform was becoming increasingly popular at both the national and provincial levels, a fact that was not lost on Prime Minister Mackenzie King. In 1943, the CCF made up the Opposition in Ontario. In 1944, it formed the government in Saskatchewan under T.C. “Tommy” Douglas. Mackenzie King had already brought in an unemployment insurance program in 1940. In 1945, he expanded Canada’s social assistance by bringing in the Family Allowance program, which helped families cover the cost of child maintenance. Canada’s policy of “cradle to grave” social security had begun.

The Conscription Crisis

Prime Minister Mackenzie King had promised there would be no conscription when Canada declared war in 1939. But the speed with which the Germans occupied Europe in 1940 stunned Canadians and made it clear that thousands of soldiers would be needed to fight against the Nazis. Canadians, including the opposition Conservative party, demanded that their government do more for the war effort. In response to these demands, King’s government quickly brought in the National Resources Mobilization Act (NRMA). This Act gave the government special emergency powers to take over the nation’s resources. Most significantly, the NRMA allowed for conscription, although only for home defence.

KEY TERMS

“cradle to grave” social security: social assistance provided by the government, from birth to death

National Resources Mobilization Act: an Act passed in 1940 enabling the government to do whatever was necessary for the war effort; it was amended in 1942 to allow conscription

FIGURE 5–39 The government reminded Canadians that everyone was involved in the war effort—and to be aware of possible spies in their midst.

Identifying Viewpoints: How serious does the danger of spying and sabotage appear to be from this poster? What course of action does it suggest citizens take? What techniques does it use to create an impact on the viewer?
Canadians Vote on Conscription

As the war progressed, the Conservative opposition continued to pressure Mackenzie King to bring in conscription. But the prime minister knew that there would be strong resistance to conscription in Quebec. As in the First World War, many Quebecois did not feel connected to a war in Europe that did not directly affect Canada.

King decided to hold a plebiscite to get Canadians’ views on conscription. He used the slogan “Not necessarily conscription, but conscription if necessary” to describe the government’s position on the issue. On April 27, 1942, voters were asked whether they would release the government from its promise not to send conscripts overseas. In all provinces but Quebec, the majority voted “yes.” Once again, the issue of conscription divided the nation.

“Yes” to Conscription

Mackenzie King finally allowed conscription for overseas service by amending the National Resources Mobilization Act in August 1942. Many Quebecois felt betrayed by King’s actions. There were riots in Montreal to protest King’s decision. The Quebec legislature passed a motion condemning the federal government’s actions.

King managed to avoid the issue of conscription for the next two years. But after heavy Canadian casualties during the campaigns in Italy and northwest Europe, there was a severe shortage of trained infantry. King could no longer avoid the issue and agreed to send conscripts overseas.

In 1944, King conscripted 15,000 men for active service under the NRMA. In the final months of the war, 12,908 NRMA conscripts were sent to Europe. Only 2,463 of these Canadian conscripts ever reached the front.

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<td>27.9</td>
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**FIGURE 5–41** Plebiscite results for selected provinces, 1942

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**KEY TERMS**

plebiscite a vote on a particular issue

effnet aliens nationals living in a country that is at war with their homeland

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**PRACTICE QUESTIONS**

1. What three initiatives did the Canadian government undertake to prevent inflation and pay for the war? How successful were these initiatives?

2. What social changes took place in Canada during the war? What demands were unions making?

3. Cause and Consequence: What unintended consequences do you think were caused by women being a major part of the war effort?

4. Explain how Mackenzie King managed to avoid sending conscripts overseas. Why did he eventually have to send conscripts overseas?

5. Why was Quebec so opposed to conscription? What had changed between 1917 and 1944? How do you think people felt about conscripts? Why?
Racism and Japanese Canadians

When war broke out, more than 22,000 Japanese Canadians were living in British Columbia. No evidence indicated that they supported Japan in the war, nor did the government consider these enemy aliens a security risk. But anti-Japanese sentiment grew in Canada after the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the invasion of Hong Kong in 1941. In early 1942, the Canadian government caved in to public pressure. For the second time in its history (see Chapter 2), the War Measures Act was invoked. All Japanese Canadians living near the British Columbia coast were “invited” to move to the Okanagan Valley. They would be settled in temporary “relocation centres.” In the wake of anti-Japanese marches in Vancouver, about 750 people moved voluntarily. Soon, the government forced all Japanese Canadians, regardless of how long they had lived in Canada, to leave the coast.

Government officials separated families, sending members to different internment camps in the interior of British Columbia where they were held until the end of the war. David Suzuki, a famous Canadian environmentalist and broadcaster, was interned with his sisters and mother when he was six years old, while his father worked at a labour camp. Some families chose to go to Alberta or Manitoba. These locations were farther away, but at least families were allowed to stay together.

The situation worsened in January 1943. Federal government officials, called Custodians of Enemy Property, were given the power to confiscate and sell Japanese Canadians’ property. People who had been relocated inland lost everything. Possessions were auctioned off and the owners received almost nothing.

In 1945, the federal government offered Japanese Canadians a choice: they could apply to be sent to Japan, which had been devastated by war, or they could agree to permanently settle east of the Rocky Mountains. Some people challenged Canada’s right to deport innocent citizens, but the Supreme Court upheld the government’s position. In all, 3964 Japanese Canadians were deported—2000 were Canadian citizens. Thousands of other Japanese Canadians were relocated to other parts of Canada.

In 1947, the government finally cancelled the policy. It was not until 1988 that the federal government apologized for its actions. As compensation, it agreed to pay the people still living who were affected by this policy $21,000 each. It also agreed to restore Canadian citizenship to any person who had been deported to Japan.

Looking Further

1. Why were Japanese Canadians relocated and detained during the Second World War?
2. How would posters like Remember Hong Kong (on page 137) contribute to these attitudes?
3. In your opinion, what would be just compensation for Japanese Canadians interned during the war?
4. Canadian veterans who were POWs in Asia were not compensated for being starved or used as slave labour in Japanese factories, even though their mistreatment violated the rules of war. People often cite the compensation given to Japanese Canadians as a reason why the Canadian government should negotiate with the Japanese for compensation for these veterans. Do you agree with this reasoning? Explain your thinking.

FIGURE 5-42 A Japanese Canadian family awaits relocation from Vancouver, 1942. Many families were separated, with men being interned separately.

Thinking Critically Why do you think the men were interned separately?
What the War Meant to Canada

The Second World War had many long-lasting economic, social, and political effects on Canada. As you will read in the next chapter, these effects ushered in tremendous changes in post-war Canadian society.

Economic Growth

Arsenals supply armies with weapons. In 1940, before the United States entered the war, President Roosevelt called the United States the "arsenal of democracy." Roosevelt promised to arm and support the Allies, while staying out of the actual fighting. Canada, as part of the Empire, supplied both soldiers and an arsenal, providing Britain with the weapons and resources it needed to resist Germany from 1939 onwards.

Under its policy of total war, Canada provided major military and economic support to the Allies. The value of goods it produced rose from $5.6 billion in 1939 to $11.8 billion in 1945. During the war, Canada gave the Allies billions of dollars in financial aid.

Virtually every sector of the Canadian economy boomed. There was a rapid increase in the production of aluminum, which was used in the manufacture of aircraft. Wood and paper production rose, as did mining and smelting. There was also a great increase in the demand for petroleum to fuel tanks, trucks, and airplanes. A wave of exploration led to discoveries of new oil fields in Alberta. Many jobs were created in production, transportation, processing, and providing services for the new industries.

The wartime boom brought another important change to the Canadian economy. Agriculture, once the most important sector of Canada’s economy, was overtaken by manufacturing. Canadian cities and the industrial areas around them became much more important contributors to the economy after the war. During the period from 1939 to 1949, Canada had transformed itself from a rural economy to a modern industrial nation.

Societal Changes

The Second World War changed Canadian society in several ways. Women were employed in great numbers during the war. Their contribution helped to raise their profile in society and promote their rights as workers. There was a significant wave of immigration as about 48,000 war brides—along with approximately 21,000 children—arrived from Europe to join their soldier-husbands after the war. The government encouraged war brides to come to Canada by paying for their trip. Once they arrived, many faced a difficult adjustment as they became members of a new culture and society.

In addition to war brides, thousands of people displaced by the war came to Canada to start a new life. After the war, Canada eventually loosened some of its immigration restrictions to allow more people to come to Canada to meet the growing demand for labour. But, for the most part, Canadian immigration policy remained unchanged. It allowed mainly immigrants from preferred countries in Europe to enter Canada.
Building an Identity

Canada’s enormous contribution to the war, in both human and economic terms, gave it a new role on the world stage. Just two decades earlier, Canada had been a colony in the British Empire. By the end of the Second World War, Canada had emerged as a major player in a global conflict, with one of the world’s largest navies and fourth-largest Allied air force. Once again, Canadian troops proved themselves on the battlefields, and were recognized for their contribution to the Allied victory. In addition, the efforts of Aboriginal, Asian, and black soldiers—along with those from other minority groups—during the war helped further civil rights for all Canadians. Although many Canadians were killed, wounded, and captured, the Second World War became a defining event in the development of Canada’s identity.

But it was a good war for Canada too, because it made us a great nation. I mean... it showed us what we could do. We just weren’t a bunch of wheat farmers and Nova Scotia fishermen and lumbermen in B.C. We were a nation. A big and tough and strong nation.

—Quoted in Barry Broadfoot, Six War Years, 1974

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<tr>
<td>Britain</td>
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<td>Japan</td>
<td>1 506 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>295 000</td>
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Thinking Critically Casualty numbers for the Second World War vary widely depending upon their source. Give some possible explanations.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. a) How did the war end the Depression?
   b) What were the major changes in Canada’s economy during this period?
2. In what ways did the war change the social make-up of Canada? In what ways was it unchanged?
3. In your opinion, which branch of the armed forces had the greatest impact on the outcome of the war? Provide evidence from the chapter.
4. Do you agree that “it was a good war”? Explain.
5. What were the three most significant ways that the Second World War changed Canada?
Unlike in the First World War, Canada entered the Second World War as a recognized and independent nation. Even so, ties to Britain were still very strong. After Britain declared war on Germany in September of 1939, Canada almost immediately followed suit. The war put the development of Canadian industry into overdrive. On the home front, women took over many of the jobs formerly done only by men and everyone had to adjust to rationing and the rigours of a war economy. Canadians fought in Hong Kong, Dieppe, Italy, Normandy, and Holland. The Canadian navy grew enormously during the war, protecting the sea lanes over which the products of Canadian forests, farms, and factories travelled to Britain and Russia to help the war effort. Canadian pilots and crews fought in the Battle of Britain and flew thousands of missions over Europe. The need for more personnel brought back conscription, which again threatened to split the nation. Canada’s participation was critical to the war effort and won the nation increased status in the post-war world.

1. Complete the following organizer to show the impact of the Second World War on Canada.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Significance of the Event</th>
<th>Long-lasting Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Hong Kong</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dieppe Raid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Britain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Ortona</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of the Scheldt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of the Atlantic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberating the Netherlands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D-Day</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Explain the significance of each of the following to Canada:
   a) Battle of Hong Kong
   b) Dieppe Raid
   c) Battle of Britain
   d) Battle of Ortona
   e) Battle of the Scheldt
   f) Battle of the Atlantic
   g) Liberating the Netherlands
   h) D-Day

7. The Nazis killed millions of Jewish people in the Holocaust during the Second World War, but their anti-Semitism became official government policy in the 1930s. What position do you think the Canadian government should have taken toward Germany before the war? Might the war have been prevented if other countries had protested? Explain.

8. Find examples in the textbook of divisions within the country that were exacerbated by the war.
Critical Thinking

**Significance**

9. Use the organizer you created in Question 1. Which three events had the greatest impact on Canada? Provide evidence to support your opinion.

**Cause and Consequence**

10. Could war have been avoided if Britain, France, and their allies had stood up to Hitler’s demands earlier than they did? Why do you think politicians were so ready to appease Germany in 1939? Prepare reasoned arguments for both sides of these questions.

11. During the Second World War, Canada and its allies practised “total war.” Explain how this contributed to the Allied victory. How successful would Canada have been if it had participated in the war on a limited basis, such as with the war in Afghanistan?

12. Discuss with a partner how the following countries and groups might have viewed Canada at the end of the Second World War. Be prepared to discuss your ideas with the class.
   a) Britain
   b) the Netherlands
   c) United States
   d) Japanese Canadians
   e) Canadian women

**Document Analysis**

13. Read the quotations on the bombing of Hiroshima on pages 150–151, keeping in mind that quotations must always be understood in context.
   a) What moral question is raised here?
   b) Briefly summarize the arguments presented and rank them by how strong you think they are.
   c) Do you think photos of the bombing victims have influenced the use of nuclear weapons? Explain.
   d) In your opinion, where does the responsibility for the bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki chiefly lie? Explain.
   e) Faced with the same factual information as Truman, would you have decided to use the atomic bomb?

*Having found the bomb we have used it. We have used it against those who attacked us without warning at Pearl Harbor, against those who have starved and beaten and executed American prisoners of war, against those who have abandoned all pretense of obeying international laws of warfare. We have used it in order to shorten the agony of war, in order to save the lives of thousands and thousands of young Americans.*

—Harry S. Truman, 1945

**FIGURE 5–46** A woman and child who survived the atomic bomb dropped on Nagasaki, Japan, on August 9, 1945. Their faces are burned from the heat of the explosion.
UNIT 1
Study Guide

Use this Study Guide to synthesize your learning about Canada’s development as a country. As you work through the following steps, refer back to the Focus Questions for Chapters 1 to 5. Look for evidence in your understanding to answer these questions.

STEP 1  Unpacking Knowledge
Use a chart to record information you learned in Unit 1. Your information may include events, key terms, individuals, or concepts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter 1</th>
<th>Chapter 2</th>
<th>Chapter 3</th>
<th>Chapter 4</th>
<th>Chapter 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Different Canada, 1900–1914</td>
<td>First World War, 1914 to 1919</td>
<td>The Twenties, 1919 to 1929</td>
<td>Great Depression, 1929 to 1939</td>
<td>Second World War, 1939 to 1945</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

STEP 2  Organizing Your Understanding
Using the information you recorded in Step 1, complete a chart, grouping your items into course topics. You do not need to use every item from Step 1. Focus on the key items. Many items can and will fit into multiple categories. Explain this in the Significance column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Topics</th>
<th>Event/Person/Date/Key Term</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What steps did Canada take to become an autonomous nation?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What was Canada’s role in the First World War? How did the war affect developments in Canada?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What were the labour and social impacts of economic cycles and changes between the wars, especially the Great Depression?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is regionalism and in what ways was it expressed in Canada from 1900 to 1945?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
STEP 3  Making Connections
Complete a mind map for one of the main course themes using the items from the chart you created in Step 2. The four main themes are  
- Society & Identity
- Politics & Government
- Economy & Human Geography
- Autonomy & World Presence

STEP 4  Applying Your Skills
Analyzing Evidence
Examine the images in the Unit Opener (pages 2–3) and the following sources and discuss how they connect to the material you have covered in this unit. Identify what each source is about, what is its message, and how it is evidence for one of the course themes. Remember to apply the skills you have learned including looking for bias and assessing reliability.

SOURCE 1: The Battle of Vimy Ridge, Richard Jack, 1918

SOURCE 2: Lord Sankey, Privy Council Judgement, October 18, 1929

[The exclusion of women from all public offices is a relic of days more barbarous than our.... To those who would ask why the word “person” should include females, the obvious answer is, why should it not?]  

SOURCE 3: Mr. MacInnis, Debate in the House of Commons, June 26, 1935

The easiest way to provoke a person into taking action which possibly he should not take is to ignore his rightful claims. I contend that these men in the camps have rightful and just claims which have been ignored by this government.

SOURCE 4: Canadian women worked in munitions factories during the First World War.
Interpreting Political Cartoons

**SOURCE 5:** Hawkins, N. H. “The Same Act Which Excludes Orientals Should Open Wide the Portals of British Columbia to White Immigrations.” *Saturday Sunset*, Vancouver, August 24, 1907


Decoding Photos

**SOURCE 7:** During the Second World War, Ronnie, the Bren Gun Girl represented the war machine on the home front.

**SOURCE 8:** Unemployment during the Depression

**SOURCE 9:** An automobile pulled by horses was called a “Bennett buggy” in the 1930s.
Gathering Information

**SOURCE 10:** Women with jobs in Canada, 1939–1945

![Bar chart showing the number of women employed from 1939 to 1945](chart)

**SOURCE 11:** Alaska boundary dispute

![Map of Alaska showing boundary disputes](map)

**SOURCE 12:** Second World War propaganda poster

![Poster with the word "ATTACK" and "ON ALL FRONTS"](poster)

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**STEP 5** Thinking Critically

Now that you have reviewed Unit 1 content, practised skills, and explored evidence and themes, it is time to synthesize your learning.

In a well-organized, multi-paragraph essay, discuss the accuracy of Laurier's quote from Chapter 1:

> ...the twentieth century shall be the century of Canada and of Canadian development. For the next seventy-five years, nay for the next one hundred years, Canada shall be the star towards which all men who love progress and freedom shall come.

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CHECK the Pearson Web site for additional review activities and questions.