The fire last time: the rise of class struggle and progressive social movements in Aotearoa/New Zealand, 1968 to 1977

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Abstract
A dramatic upsurge in working class struggle, surpassing in magnitude the rise of the Red Feds from 1908 to 1913 and the 1951 Waterfront Front Lockout, took place in New Zealand from the Arbitration Court’s nil general wage order in June 1968 to the union movement’s defeat of the Muldoon Government’s attempted wage freeze in 1976. This article describes and analyses these struggles and their impact on progressive social movements, particularly the anti-war, women’s liberation and Māori protest movements.

The potent combination of protest and television coverage of it sparked what conservative commentators... call a ‘contagion of protest’. For the rest of the [1960s] and on into the 1970s, there seemed to be a super-abundance of causes that would bring people out into the streets: the arrival of Lyndon Baines Johnson, the first visit to New Zealand of an American president in office (1966), visits from American Vice-President Hubert Humphrey and Secretary of State Dean Rusk; students protesting against the level of university bursaries; the Russian invasion of Czechoslovakia; the decision to install an Omega navigation beacon in the South Island; the closure of some parks in Auckland to public use; the proposal to raise Lake Manapouri to generate additional electricity; the continuation of sporting contacts with South Africa; and, through the 1970s, issues of Māori, women’s and homosexual rights.

This statement is from Michael King’s widely read Penguin History of New Zealand. In a similar vein, James Belich observes that there were ‘seven major issues of contestation and...

1 I presented an earlier version of this paper as a keynote address to the Protest, Dissent, and Activism Symposium, Victoria University of Wellington, 16 October 2010. Thanks to Sandra Grey for the invitation and to all of those who provided useful comments, questions and feedback, as well as for the inspirational and insightful contributions of the other presenters at the symposium.


Marxist interventions

protest in the 1967-85 period': the American War in Vietnam; abortion; homosexual law reform; nuclear tests in the South Pacific and US nuclear ship visits; Māori land, culture and language; conservation of the natural environment; and sporting contacts with Apartheid South Africa.3 The problem with accounts of the 1970s by liberal historians such as Belich and King is that they either downplay (Belich) or ignore (King) one of the most important aspects of the history of the decade.4 They are not alone, of course. In December 2004 a major exhibition was staged at New Zealand’s national museum—Te Papa—entitled The 1970s in New Zealand: a decade of change. Although the exhibition contained many photographs of anti-war, women’s liberation and Māori protests, there were no images of the major strikes and associated workers’ protests during the 1970s. At the academic conference held in conjunction with the exhibition, only two of the 39 papers argued that the decade was characterised by an upsurge of working class struggle.5 Perhaps the most extreme example of this neglect is The New Oxford History of New Zealand, published in 2009. It contains no substantive discussion of strike activity between 1968 and 1977, nor much more than passing references to the progressive social movements of this period, and does not even include the words ‘class’, ‘strike’ or ‘protest’ in the index.6 Yet the largest upsurge in working class struggle in New Zealand’s history took place between 1968 and 1991. Statistics NZ has collected data on strike activity for many years which show that strike activity, measured in terms of working days ‘lost’, the total number of workers and proportion of the workforce involved, reached their highest levels in New Zealand history during the 1970s and 1980s (see Figures 1 and 2). During the period from 1968 to 1977 workers won substantial gains through industrial action. The 1979 general strike was the last major successful campaign of the working class offensive. The years from 1980 to 1991 were dominated by an employers offensive and historically high levels of working class resistance. Most of these conflicts ended in retreats or defeats.

As the literature on social movements and political protests in New Zealand from the late 1960s to the early 1980s seldom recognises the central role of the upsurge of working class struggle, the first aim of this article is to offer a descriptive overview of strike and protest activity during this period. The second aim is to show that the growth in working class industrial militancy and struggle, and the rise of progressive social movements, were not only interconnected, but also mutually reinforcing developments. Boraman, Dann and Poata-Smith demonstrate, for example, that many of the leading activists in the anti-war, women’s liberation and Māori protest movements during this time were also involved

and/or had a background in the union movement. Because mainstream liberal historians generally ignore the relationship between working class struggle and progressive social movements altogether, little is to be gained by a detailed review of their writing on the 1970s in New Zealand. The article concludes by drawing the strands of the argument together and providing an assessment of what can be learnt from these past upheavals.

**The emergence of the new left and rise of working class struggle**

The emergence of the New Left in New Zealand paralleled international developments to a remarkable degree. As in North America and Europe, it involved a dramatic upsurge in industrial militancy and class conflict; a large anti-war movement protesting against New Zealand’s involvement in the American War in Vietnam; the growth of student political activism; the revival of movements against racism in New Zealand and Apartheid in South Africa, and for women’s, gay and lesbian liberation, and environmental conservation. There was a sea change in popular and ‘high’ culture. A significant renaissance of radical intellectual traditions occurred, most significantly Marxism, feminism and anti-racism, but also anarchism and environmentalism. A new generation absorbed the belief that people could collectively change the social world for the better.

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Workers on the Offensive

The working class quiescence of the years from 1952 to 1967 ended abruptly with the reaction to the Arbitration Court’s nil General Wage Order issued in 1968. The ensuing waves of militant strike action and protest activity culminated in the nation-wide union campaign against the National (Muldoon) Government’s attempted freeze on wages in 1976-77. The following is a brief overview.  

Although the long post-war boom from 1945 to 1973 involved the largest expansion of the economy in New Zealand’s history, with high growth rates and full employment, the prosperity was not equally distributed. Indeed, from 1957 until 1969 labour productivity growth consistently outstripped the rise in real wages, while the share of national income going to wage and salary earners steadily declined. In terms of Marxist economic categories, there was a large increase in the ratio of surplus value to variable capital as profits soared while real wages only increased gradually.  

Soon after the mass student occupations, general strike, and protests of May 1968 in France, this trigger came in the form of the infamous nil General Wage Order (GWO) of the Arbitration Court issued on the 17 of June 1968. It was justified on the grounds that a wage increase would harm the economy which was just emerging from a recession. Having deferred its 1967 wage order application because of the recession, in 1968 the Federation of Labour (FOL) applied for a 7.6 per cent increase to compensate for consumer price increases.  

Protest resolutions from all parts of the country flooded into the Federation [of Labour] office, demonstrations and stopwork meetings succeeded each other, while in Wellington 300 union delegates decided to call a one-day general strike in the city. A special conference of the


Federation urged all affiliated unions to press for a 5 per cent increase “through all available channels”. The moderate Public Service Association leadership considered that the nil order had given rise to ‘a furore certainly unprecedented in the New Zealand industrial field in the post-war world’ and the PSA President, Ray Hannan, proclaimed that ‘the Court’s decision serves as a further instrument for the partisan and class conscious attitudes of the government’. The PSA supported widespread strike and protest action to overturn the decision and called for an immediate general election on the issue. As Boston observes, ‘the nil-wage order had four immediate effects: it shattered the labour movement’s confidence in the Court as an honest broker in the industrial relations arena; it sparked a wave of protest action; it further encouraged the move towards direct negotiations between employers and employees; and it eventually prompted a new approach to the Court by the FOL and the Employers Federation’.

Rank and file workers and their shop-floor delegates believed that they had not received a ‘fair share’ of the economic prosperity of the 1960s. They were no longer prepared to be shackled by the centralised system of wage bargaining nor misrepresented by conservative trade union officials who appeared to be more concerned with maintaining their own privileged position in that system than with organizing and advancing the struggle for higher real wages and better conditions of employment. The rank and file and, in response to increasing pressure from below, full-time paid union officials became increasingly willing to undertake and coordinate industrial and protest action.

A joint application by the FOL and the New Zealand Employers’ Federation (NZEF) for a 5 per cent GWO led the Arbitration Court, made up of a supposedly independent judge and representatives of the unions and employers to overturn the nil GWO and instead issue a 5 per cent GWO on 5 of August. The trade union bureaucracy, then under the conservative leadership of FOL President Tom Skinner, was being pushed in the direction of bargaining over wages outside the court by an increasingly militant rank and file. Although the system of arbitration and conciliation was not abandoned, it was effectively altered in a manner that was favourable to workers. National occupationally based collective employment contracts, then called ‘awards’, were still negotiated between unions and employers represented by the Employers’ Federation but so-called ‘second-tier’ bargaining became common in those sectors where workers were well organised and militant enough to force employers to negotiate local agreements. These would typically provide additional benefits such as site allowances, bonuses, improved conditions, and so forth.

In the autumn of 1969 the pressure that had been slowly building during the 1960s, exploded in a strike wave of unprecedented proportions. The industrial action started in the


17 Boston, *Incomes policy* p. 91.
Auckland area but soon spread across the country, as 110,096 workers, representing 12 per cent of the total workforce, pressed their claims.\textsuperscript{18} Negotiations passed increasingly into the hands of individual employers, local union officials and shop-floor delegates… [W]age rates escalated in an unprecedented manner and the number of working days lost through industrial stoppages reached their highest level since the 1951 waterfront strike’.\textsuperscript{19}

This upsurge in strike activity is depicted in Figures 1 and 2. Note, however, that the official strike statistics under-report the number of workers involved and working days lost by an average of 47 per cent and 42 per cent respectively.\textsuperscript{20} This is because much of the industrial action during this period took forms such as stopwork meetings, go-slow, and overtime bans, which were not counted. Often strikes were unnecessary because the mere threat of industrial action was sufficient to secure employer acquiescence to union demands. The total numbers of workers involved in some form of industrial action in each of the years from 1968 to 1977 was probably more than 50 per cent higher than Figure 1 indicates.

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure1.png}
\caption{Number of Workers Involved in Strike Action, 1935 to 2010}
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\textsuperscript{18} Pearce, ‘Where is New Zealand going?’ pp. 455-476.
\textsuperscript{19} Boston, \textit{Incomes Policy} p. 93.
As Figure 2 shows, from 1968 to 1977 the working days ‘lost’ due to strike action increased at a slower rate than the number of workers involved because most strikes were relatively short as employers quickly conceded workers’ demands. In contrast, there were more strike days per worker in the 1980s because strikes became longer and more bitter as employers became more intransigent. The major spike in working days lost in 1985 to 1986 was due to the successful campaign by unions for wage increases to offset real wage cuts experienced in the preceding years. Average days lost per worker involved peaked at 13.21 in the 1986 calendar year, compared to a range of 1.89 to 2.87 per worker for the years from 1968 to 1978.  

21 Statistics New Zealand, *Monthly Abstract of Statistics*, January-February 1975, Table 16; March 1980, Table 5.07; *Key Statistics*, December 1990, Table 3.08.
The reaction to the 1968 nil GWO and the 1969 strike wave constitute the beginning of the largest and most extensive upturn in working class struggle in New Zealand’s history. The strike waves from 1968 to 1977 were driven from below. Rank and file militancy, reinforced by the experience of recent successful actions, fuelled these strikes. The strength of the union movement is indicated by the fact that real weekly earnings increased more rapidly each year, from 0.3 per cent in the year to April 1969 to 5.1 per cent during the year to April 1973. The arbitration authorities, the employers and the government, through statutory wage controls, failed to prevent wages rising at the fastest rate ever, over this period. Workers’ newly awakened awareness of their collective strength and confidence in their ability to struggle and win transformed the political environment, contributing, among other things, to the defeat of the National Government of Holyoak’s successor Jack Marshall in the 1972 election, which had ruled the country since 1960. It pushed the incoming Labour Government under Norman Kirk and then Bill Rowling to implement a raft of progressive reforms from 1972 to 1975.

An important example of the scale and nature of the rank-and-file militancy was the spontaneous wildcat mass strike and associated march by 20,000 workers on 2 July 1974. A prominent union official, Bill Anderson who was the secretary of the Drivers’ Union, was put in jail because the Union refused to obey a court order to end industrial action.

22 Boston, *Incomes policy* pp. 91 and 96.
The fire last time in New Zealand, 1968-1977

against an employer who was attempting to introduce a hydrofoil service on Auckland harbour. In response, ‘thousands of workers—drivers, seaman, boilermakers, labourers, carpenters and many others—spontaneously walked off their jobs. The next day … thousands marched down Queen Street to the Supreme Court where Andersen was due to appear, but hurried negotiations averted the threatened clash. Andersen was released, the unions resumed work, and the controversial hydrofoil was taken out of service.’

The degree of confidence, class-consciousness, and militancy of a substantial and influential minority of the working class was very high.

Another important feature of the strike action in the 1970s was the extent to which it spread beyond traditional areas of militancy. While the coal mining, construction, meat and maritime industries in 1978 ‘employ[ed] only about one-tenth of the total labour force [but] traditionally accounted for the bulk of stoppages and lost working days… strikes affected an average of twelve industries annually in the decade to 1960, twenty-nine in 1965-70 and forty-four in 1971-75.’ Service sector, white-collar and public sector workers were increasingly prepared to take industrial action, often for the first time. Although the traditionally militant blue-collar unions, such as the Boilermakers’, Carpenters’, Northern Drivers’, New Zealand Meat Workers’, Seafarers and Waterfront Workers’ unions, played a central and frequently leading role, militant action was also undertaken by air traffic controllers, flight crews, cleaners, bank workers, fire fighters, nurses, psychiatric nurses, dental nurses (all taking industrial action for the first time), primary and secondary school teachers, librarians, public servants, printers, clerical workers, retail workers, meat inspectors, public broadcasting workers, social workers, probation, prison and police officers, post office workers, railway workers, public sector trades and electricity workers. Whereas ‘for many years white-collar occupations had been the weak link in the union chain … the seventies have seen a dramatic change: white collar has become vocal and militant.’ ‘Associations’ representing public sector workers were renamed ‘unions’ and the peak body representing public sector workers, the Combined State Service Organisations (CSSO) was renamed the Combined State Unions (CSU) in 1978. ‘More significant however has been the sudden eagerness to take industrial action of a startling variety: over-time bans, go-slows, picketing, sit-ins, withdrawal of good-will, street marches, boycotts, stopwork meetings, strike threats, and actual strikes.’

Although the immediate focus of most industrial action from 1968 to 1977 was wages, in the context of rapidly rising inflation, and other employment issues such as conditions, hours, rates for over-time and equal pay for women, a growing section of the working class became increasingly radicalised and was prepared to engage in industrial action over political issues. From 1952 to 1961 the annual totals of strike days ranged between 13,579 in 1956, and 22,175 in 1953 and the bulk of these disputes focused on ‘bread and butter’

25 Bert Roth and Janny Hammond, Toil and trouble p. 160.
26 Ibid. p. 41.
27 Bert Roth and Janny Hammond, Toil and trouble p. 164; see also David Smith, White-collar unionism in New Zealand, Industrial Relations Research monograph, No. 1., Wellington 1987.
issues. In a dramatic contrast, there were 41 political strikes in 1972, 24 in 1973, 70 in 1974 with 58,891 strike days lost, 50 in 1975, and 56 in 1976 with 69,154 strike days.\footnote{Bert Roth, ‘The historical framework’ p. 43} In 1974, 24.3 per cent of all so-called ‘working days lost’ due to strike action were in political strikes and the corresponding figure for 1976 was 12.4 per cent.\footnote{Ibid.}

A sample of three disputes illustrates some of the characteristics of workers’ struggles during this period. Slaughtermen organised by the North Island Freezing Workers’ Federation won an 18 per cent increase in their basic rate on 17 March following a bitter dispute in the first few months of 1971. Initially the employers threatened a national lockout. The meat freezing workers’ unions responded with a national go-slow. On 17 February ‘slaughtermen from the Gear Meat Company shed at Petone walked off the job demanding an immediate pay increase. Next day, many of them joined Ngauranga [freezing] workers who were on strike over the sacking of a chamber hand. This rather shocked the Gear manager, who later announced that his company was giving the slaughtermen the full increase that they were demanding.’\footnote{Labour Publishing Co-operative Society, \textit{Into the 1980s}, p.16.} This forced the rest of the employers in the industry to admit defeat. Throughout the industry, ‘workers at many sheds were beginning direct action on their own initiative, even in places like Tomoana near Hastings, which have seen hardly any militancy for many years.’\footnote{Ibid.}

A major pay dispute in the Post Office also unfolded during 1971. On behalf of the Holyoake Government, the Postmaster General, Allan McCready, who was ‘a “Young Turk” in the National Party determined to show the unions who was boss’, responded belligerently to the Post Office Association’s pay claim. Under pressure from the rank-and-file, the union executive called a national go-slow to begin on Monday 7 September. ‘Those affected were postmasters and other supervisors, toll and telephone operators, postmen, mail sorters, savings bank and counter staff, and stores and accounting workers—an estimated 20,000 people, or two-thirds of the total post office staff.’\footnote{Bert Roth, \textit{Along the line}, p. 219.} As it turned out, the go-slow was highly successful.\footnote{Bert Roth, \textit{Along the line}, p. 223.} Eventually the Government was defeated and the postal workers won very large wage rises.\footnote{Ibid.}

Although the Equal Pay Act was passed in 1972, ‘unions had to be continually watchful that implementation into awards matched both the letter and the intent of the legislation.’\footnote{Kevin Hince with Kerry Taylor, Jacqui Peace and Michael Biggs, \textit{Opening Hours}, p.74.} The FOL’s Equal Pay Committee coordinated a campaign of industrial action encompassing by the whole trade union movement. In November of 1974, the first successful strike for equal pay took place involving meat packers at Woolworths.
supermarkets in Wellington, with support in the form of a black ban on restocking deliveries by drivers, railway workers and seafarers. The Shop Employees Union led the struggle for equal pay in the retail sector. Apart from equal pay, hours of work were a major issue for retail workers. 25,000 employees took unprecedented and historic strike action in opposition to the Shop Trading Hours Bill during 1977; 5,500 attended stopwork meetings. ‘This was the first mass strike action by shop assistants in New Zealand.’

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, when the balance of power favoured the trade union movement, the NZEF responded by reemphasising their support for formally centralised wage bargaining and compulsory unionism. Thus in 1974 the NZEF claimed that the centralised system of arbitration and conciliation ‘has served New Zealand industry well’ since ‘the present system helps to maintain order and authority within labour groups’ which is preferable to ‘an unorganised situation with few checks on the ambitions of the militant and politically motivated’. Voluntary unionism was opposed because it would enhance the influence of militants within the labour movement. Although the militant unions would have no trouble establishing closed shops, the ‘moderate’ unions would experience declining membership and influence within the labour movement.

In the late 1960s and the early 1970s the problem for employers was decentralisation rather than centralisation. In other words, rank and file workers were successfully achieving major concessions from individual employers at the level of the workplace or firm through industrial action or the threat of it. Employer solidarity was at an all time low. Working class confidence, unity and strength generated a lack of confidence, disunity and a self-perception of weakness amongst employers. So the NZEF pushed for increased government intervention to restrain militancy and to sought enhance the influence of the ‘moderate’ trade union bureaucracy within the labour movement.

The union movement’s defeat of Muldoon’s wage freeze from 1976 to 1977

The National Party led by Robert Muldoon—a charismatic conservative populist politician—was swept to power at the 1975 election. In the lead up to the election, the Party had ‘engaged in a relentless campaign of what was widely described as “union bashing”’. In July 1974 Muldoon claimed that the next National Government would ‘protect New Zealand against “the gangster union boss who does not believe in our system and wants to see it destroyed”’. Muldoon and his colleagues accused unions of ballot rigging, illegal use of funds, intimidation of members, setting up “kangaroo courts”, illegal

36 Ibid.
37 Ibid.
38 The Employer, November 1974, pp. 4-5. The employers supported the formally centralised system of wage bargaining throughout the Long Boom: ‘National government attempts in 1951 and 1961 to abolish the compulsory unionism requirement of the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act were strongly opposed by both worker and employer organisations’ The Employer, November 1974, p. 4.
39 The Employer, November 1974, pp. 4-5.
40 Bert Roth, ‘The historical framework’ p. 52.
levies, forgery and theft.\textsuperscript{41} The National Party’s platform pledged to reduce the power of the union movement. This was to be achieved through the introduction of secret ballots on the question of voluntary unionism, stiffer penalties for illegal strikes, provision for the Industrial Commission to order a resumption of work in the public interest, the outlawing of political strikes, and granting jurisdiction over industrial relations matters to civil courts.\textsuperscript{42}

In conjunction with these attacks on union power, Muldoon wanted to reduce the level of inflation by cutting real wages. The Government introduced a statutory incomes policy in the form of a twelve month wage freeze from May 1976, which was intended to control nominal wage growth and reduce the rate of inflation. But the union movement responded bitterly to the wage freeze. Stop work meetings were held up and down the country and a special conference of the FOL, the first such emergency conference for five years, was held in Wellington 25 May. At this conference, delegates passed resolutions calling for an immediate end to the wage freeze, a return to free wage bargaining, three-monthly GWO’s, an increase in the forthcoming 7 per cent ($7) wage order, and immediate adjustments to pension payments. Moreover, the conference recommended that affiliated unions organise one-day stoppages in the main centres, and authorised Trades Councils to mount campaigns of direct action.\textsuperscript{43}

As this suggests, the struggle against the wage freeze, which was highly politicised due to the incoming Government’s hostile attitude towards the union movement, involved a wave of strikes and protests that swept the country from 1976 to 1977. In 1976, the total number of workers, 201,085, and the proportion of the workforce, 19.3 percent, involved in strike action peaked at the highest level in New Zealand’s history.\textsuperscript{44} The trade union movement placed the Government under tremendous pressure. Once it became clear that the union movement was united and determined to oppose the wage freeze, the Government decided to beat a tactical retreat in June 1976.

It was forced to make a number of important concessions to the trade union movement, notably an ‘exceptional circumstances’ clause in the regulations governing the wage freeze. In effect, this clause allowed the Industrial Commission to grant wage increases where joint submissions were made by both workers’ and employers’ representatives. At first, the Employers’ Federation refused to budge. The union movement responded with a

\textsuperscript{41} Ibid. pp. 52-53.

\textsuperscript{42} The Labour (Kirk/Rowling) Government’s Industrial Relations Act of 1973 created two arbitration bodies to replace the Arbitration Court—The Industrial Commission and the Industrial Court, see Boston, \textit{Incomes Policy} pp. 108-9.

\textsuperscript{43} Boston, \textit{Incomes Policy} pp. 170-171.

\textsuperscript{44} Pearce, ‘Where is New Zealand going?’ pp. 444-476.
vigoruous campaign of industrial action and by the end of 1977 the employers had capitulated.

The struggles in 1976 and 1977 constituted the highpoint of the working class offensive and lifted the share of wages in national income. Whereas in the three years to October 1977 real average ordinary time weekly earnings fell by 5.9 per cent and real post-tax disposable income had fallen by 8.5 per cent, in the following three years real wages rose. Real average ordinary time weekly earnings, for example, rose by 5.2 per cent in the year to April 1979.45 These increases were achieved through relatively free collective wage bargaining, since the Government had been forced to remove its statutory wage controls in August 1977. From 1978 to 1980 strike activity remained at historically high levels, with the FOL calling a successful one-day nation-wide general strike on 20 September 1979 over the Government’s threat to overturn a pay settlement between drivers and their employers.46 The general strike expressed rank-and-file outrage and was the first in New Zealand’s history that was officially called by the leadership of the FOL. Although successful in defending the original settlement, the strike marked the end of the working class offensive.

The Nature and Political Implications of the Upturn in Working Class Struggle

The strikes wave from 1968 to 1977 in New Zealand occurred in conjunction with, and was influenced by, a similar international upturn in working class struggle. Most obviously, media reports and the visits of international speakers raised workers’ and employers’ awareness of international developments such as May 1968, the Long Hot Autumn in Italy, the union-led defeat of the Conservative Government in Britain in 1974, and industrial unrest in Australia. With several hundred members, the publications and union activists of the socialist left played an important role in drawing out the lessons from workers’ struggles in other countries for New Zealand workers.47 Union publications also

46 At this time the wage bargaining system was, in practice, highly centralised and the settlement reached in a few leading sectors, particularly between the drivers’ and electrical workers’ unions and their employers, would flow on through the system of national awards to all other workers through the maintenance of relativities. The Government intervention may appear to have been directed towards one group of workers, but was actually an attempt to keep the wage rises of all workers lower than the rate of inflation.
47 The estimate of several hundred members is based on numerous conversations with socialists in New Zealand during the past 30 years and is consistent Boraman’s estimate of 300-400 in 1975 and 500 in 1980. Boraman, The new left and anarchism, p. 380, fn 119. In the 1970s, the most important socialist organisations were the Stalinist Socialist Unity Party (SUP), the Maoist Communist Party of New Zealand (CPNZ), and the orthodox Trotskyist Socialist Action League. Of these, the SUP had the greatest influence amongst trade union officials (Ken Douglas and Bill Anderson were then members). In addition to the publications of these groups (respectively New Zealand Tribune, Peoples’ Voice, and Socialist Action), significant independent left publications included Red Papers, New Zealand Monthly Review, and The Republican.
provided coverage of international events. Slogans, chants, pamphlets, and placards also reflected international influences.\textsuperscript{48}

The strikes during the 1970s were different from the generally defensive strikes of the 1980s and 1990s. As workers gained wage increases and better conditions of employment through strike action, the confidence and militancy of rank and file union members grew. The strike waves of the 1970s were driven from below. Many were wildcat strikes initiated by the rank and file without official sanction by trade union officials. The militancy and strength of the union movement was highlighted by the spontaneous and victorious mass wildcat strike in July 1974 to oppose the imprisonment of Anderson.\textsuperscript{49} This kind of industrial and political action, usually on a more modest scale, was common and involved both blue- and white-collar workers. Workers who had previously been industrially quiescent participated in a wide variety of industrial and political actions and in some instances these workers played a leading role. Many were in white-collar jobs, often in the public sector, as exemplified by the strike and sit in of psychiatric nurses at Oakley hospital in June 1971 and the fact that, by 1972, many PSA members ‘were taking action without waiting for PSA approval’.\textsuperscript{50} Significantly, these strike waves marked a watershed in industrial relations, showing clearly that the post-war Keynesian consensus had failed to unite divergent class interests.

By the end of the 1970s, the historically unprecedented levels of class conflict had undermined the myth, which prevailed almost unchallenged in academic circles throughout the 1950s and 1960s, that New Zealand was a classless society. Working class consciousness rose. Although most white-collar workers continued to think of themselves as ‘middle class’, the combination of rising inequality and high levels of class conflict, their actions indicated that many saw value in industrial action and solidarity.

**The rise of the progressive social movements**

The widespread and militant struggles of workers had a major impact on the progressive social movements during the 1970s. Among other things, the confidence of workers that they could take various forms of collective action and achieve their goals contributed positively to a similar mood amongst students and other participants in the anti-war, women’s and Māori protest movements of the 1970s. The positive and mutually reinforcing nature of the relationship between the upturn in working class struggle and the rise of progressive social movements is not commonly recognised. It is frequently assumed that these movements were predominately ‘middle class’ because many of those who participated were students and white-collar workers. Hayes (2002) and Steven (1978) provide the best empirical estimates of the size of the working class during the 1970s. The study by Hayes identifies a clear trend towards increasingly proletarianisation of the


\textsuperscript{49} Roth, ‘The historical framework’ p. 52.

\textsuperscript{50} Roth, *Remedy for present evils* p. 219.
population until 1971, when the working class, including most white-collar workers, including teachers, nurses and public servants and the unemployed, constituted 76.6 per cent of the economically active population plus the unemployed.\textsuperscript{51} Steven also uses census data and estimates that in 1976, 10.4 per cent of the economically active population were members of the bourgeoisie, 11.6 per cent in the middle class, 6.6 per cent in the petty-bourgeoisie, and 71.5 per cent were working class.\textsuperscript{52} These figures are important. As the working class constitutes a majority of the population, and women, Māori and Pacific peoples are disproportionately concentrated in the working class, it is clear that the majority of the participants in the protest movements of the 1970s were working class.\textsuperscript{53}

Although most students came from professional, farming or business family backgrounds, the minority of students who come from white- and blue-collar working class families had increased significantly by the mid-1970s. Whereas universities had been very small elite institutions before WWII, they grew substantially during the post-war long boom, and by the 1970s they were much larger and brought together thousands of students. Students do not constitute a class as such because they are located at a transitional point in their biographies between their class origins (determined by the class location of their parents) and their class destinations in the workforce that are determined to some extent by their choice of subject and academic performance.\textsuperscript{54} So a high level of student participation does not necessarily imply that a progressive social movement is predominantly middle class. Finally, whereas students in New Zealand generally adopted reactionary political stances prior to WWII—helping to suppress the Depression Riots in 1932 for example, the opposite has been the case from the late 1960s onwards, when many students were supportive of major working class struggles such as the campaigns against the Employment Contracts Act in 1991 and to defend the Seafarers Union against a major employer and government attack in 1994.\textsuperscript{55}

For these reasons, the anti-war, Māori and women’s liberation protest movements of the 1970s were not movements outside the working class, even if this was how some participants viewed them. The successful workers’ struggles of the 1970s helped to


\textsuperscript{52} Rob Steven, ‘Towards a class analysis of New Zealand’, \textit{Australian and New Zealand journal of sociology}, 14(2), 1978, pp. 113-29.

\textsuperscript{53} Roper, \textit{Prosperity for all?} pp. 33-54.

\textsuperscript{54} Harman, \textit{The fire last time} pp. 39-43.

generate a fundamental shift in the political and intellectual environment, and prompted a growing number of people to develop a sense that progressive political change was both necessary and possible.

The anti-war movement

In May 1965, the Holyoake Government committed New Zealand troops to the war in Vietnam, in order to support its US and Australian allies. Although, unlike troops of allied countries, members of the New Zealand armed forces were not compelled to fight, 3890 volunteered for combat between 1964 and 1972, and 37 were killed. During the late 1960s and early 1970s a mass movement emerged opposing the war.56

At first large-scale demonstrations were focused upon the opposing the visits to New Zealand of US and Vietnamese VIPs who sought more New Zealand government support for the war. In 1970, especially after the US invaded Cambodia, the movement experienced major growth. Nation-wide “mobilisations” were a crucial factor in popularising the movement. They began in 1970 and continued until 1972. The largest mobilisations were in 1971. The national mobilisation of 30 April 1971 brought out 35,000 people onto the streets. Consequently, by 1970 the anti-war movement had become a genuine mass movement. It had grown from a tiny movement of a few hundred in the mid-1960s to a vibrant movement of tens of thousands by the early 1970s.57

The anti-war movement brought together a broad range of groups and individuals encompassing radicalised youth—mainly high school students, university students; and young workers—partially and loosely organised by the Progressive Youth Movement (PYM); young Māori organised by Ngā Tamatoa, pacifist church groups, which tended to be on the right of the movement; anarchists; feminists who had formed Women Against the War; socialist groups, of which the most influential was the orthodox Trotskyist Socialist Action League; members of the Labour Party, including some MPs; and trade unions.58

Because the role of workers and unions is often overlooked it is worth emphasising here. The police made seven early morning raids on the homes of prominent anti-war activists in August of 1969. Activists responded by distributing leaflets and making public speeches on the University of Auckland campus, speaking to Seafarers at a union meeting, and leafleting factories. As Tim Shabolt, then a leading activist, observed: ‘Sunday, September 14, 1969 was incredible—2,000 people came out in support of civil rights. Two thousand people marching in 1969 was as spiritually uplifting as 15,000 marching today [1971]. We just couldn’t believe that so many people would march over an issue. In total triumph we

56 Toby Boraman, ‘The new left and anarchism’ pp. 238-239.
57 Toby Boraman, ‘The new left and anarchism’ pp. 238-239.
marched on the police station; merchant seamen, workers, students, motorbike boys, hippies.’

59 At the first FOL annual conference to be held following the departure of New Zealand troops to Vietnam, the delegates ‘resolved unanimously to oppose New Zealand’s military involvement’ and the PSA executive ‘also decided to add its voice to the protest’. 60 Although the anti-war stance of the PSA leadership was initially to the left of the bulk of the membership, this started to change as the anti-war movement ‘began to turn from intellectual teach-ins and seminars to large-scale street demonstrations which culminated in the mass mobilisations of 1971 and 1972’. 61

Much the same could be said of New Zealand’s other major unions which provided critical coverage of the war in their publications, organised large contingents of their own members who often marched under their union banners in mobilisations, and gave financial and material support for the organisation of the national anti-war mobilisations such as printing posters and leaflets. Unions ran off 16,000 leaflets for the 30 April 1971 national mobilisation. The Seafarers Union was at the forefront of union opposition to the war, being ‘prominent in all marches.’ 62 During the 30 April mobilisation of 29,000 to 35,000 people, the Seafarers held up ships in nine ports so that the maximum number of its members could participate in the protest marches. 63 It would be an exaggeration to suggest that the unions provided the ‘backbone’ of the anti-war movement, but they were a crucial force within it.

Up from Under: The Women’s Liberation Movement

During the ‘baby boom’ of the 1950s and early 1960s, women’s participation in paid employment was historically low and the level of overall inequality between women and men was historically high. The average New Zealand woman was giving birth to her first child when she was younger than 22. Women performed the bulk of domestic labour and childcare. The incomes of women were much lower than those of men, which meant that most women with children were economically dependent on their male partners who earned a ‘family wage’. 64 This situation started to change during the 1960s as women were drawn into paid employment in increasing numbers because of the high demand for labour, especially in areas such as teaching, nursing and clerical work where there were serious labour shortages. But inequality remained high and pervasive. Women were effectively banned from public bars and almost entirely absent from local and central government and the upper echelons of the managerial hierarchies of private firms and state sector organisations.

59 Tim Shadbolt, Bullshit and Jellybeans, p. 110.
60 Bert Roth, Remedy for present evils pp. 180-181.
61 Ibid. pp. 198.
63 Ibid.
64 See Roper, Prosperity for All? pp. 68-85.
Although socialists and feminists had continued to struggle against women’s oppression throughout the period from the women’s suffrage movement of the late nineteenth century to the late 1960s, most notably forcing the government to grant equal pay to women in the public service in 1960. But the level of struggle was low during the 1950 and 1960s. This changed dramatically from the late 1960s owing to the growing militancy of workers in the main occupations in which women were heavily concentrated. Women in nursing, teaching, retail, clerical, cleaning, and the public service increasingly participated in all levels of the union movement.

A long running campaign by the Council for Equal Pay and Opportunity eventually led the FOL leadership to urge ‘a united effort by the entire trade union movement’ to force the Government to introduce equal pay legislation. The support of the wider union movement for the rising militancy of women workers and the rapid growth and high profile of the women’s liberation movement, led to the passage of the Equal Pay Act in 1972. In 1975, socialist feminists formed a Working Women’s Council with a focus on changing Labour Party and FOL policy. It organised a Working Women’s Convention in 1977 and initiated the campaign for the adoption of a Working Women’s Charter, ‘a thirteen-point “bill of rights” for working women’ which was finally adopted by the Labour Party and the FOL in 1980.

In 1970 the women’s liberation movement (WLM) emerged and soon gave rise to ‘a level of organisation and militancy among women which had not been seen since the suffrage movement of the nineteenth century’. According to Levesque, the four basic aims of the WLM in New Zealand in the early 1970s were: 1) equal pay and equal opportunity; 2) free, adequate child-care centres; 3) women’s control over their own bodies, that is, repeal of abortion laws, free contraceptives, and free, voluntary sterilisation; 4) the end of “sexploitation” which commercially exploits women and socialises children along sex lines. This mirrored similar demands being made by the British women’s movement.

The women’s movement was composed of a large number of often-disparate groups organised at grass roots level. The main divide in the early 1970s was between ‘women’s’ rights organisations’, such as the National Council of Women and the National Organisation for Women, that were liberal feminist and committed to working through official political channels, and women’s liberation groups that brought together radical,

66 Roth, *Remedy for present evils* p177.
68 Dann, *Up from under* pp. 73-74.
69 Ibid. p. 4.
70 Ibid. p. 10.
71 Tony Cliff, *Class struggle and women’s liberation, 1640 to today* Bookmarks, London 1984, p. 171.
lesbian, socialist and anti-racist feminists who were committed to self-organising and radical forms of political protest.72 Broadsheet, a national feminist magazine was established in 1972, and carried articles from feminists writing from these radical perspectives. In the July 1978 issue, which discussed the previous six years of the WLM, the continuing importance of the key aims of the WLM (equal pay, equal education and opportunity, financial and legal independence, 24-hour nurseries, free contraception and abortion on demand) was emphasised, and an article entitled ‘Voices from the early days’ was punctuated with slogans such as: ‘Free our sisters, free ourselves!’ Sisterhood is powerful! No revolution without the liberation of women—no liberation of women without revolution!73 Some indication of popular support for the movement is provided by the size of WLM conferences held during the 1970s. Over 400 attended a National Women’s Liberation Conference held in April 1972; 1500 attended the first United Women’s Convention in 1973; 2000 attended the second UWC in 1975 and a similar number attended the third and fourth UWC’s held in 1977 and 1979.74

The WLM in New Zealand, like the women’s movements in Australia, Britain and Europe, was influenced by and concerned with the labour movement and class politics. Broadsheet covered disputes involving night work for women, access to non-traditional jobs, hours of work, redundancy, sexual harassment, low pay and other issues affecting women in the workforce. Many women’s liberation activists in New Zealand during the 1970s saw working-class struggle—through the trade unions—as a major feature of the fight for women’s liberation and were active in both the union and women’s movements.75 For example, Therese O’Connell who worked as an organiser for the Clerical Workers Union in the 1970s observes that ‘During that time there had been a good deal of change, with more women becoming involved in the unions and building up the women’s movement within the trade union movement.’76 Furthermore, the WLM emerged out of, and became an integral part of, the wider left.

**Resurgence of Māori Struggle**

There was a resurgence of Māori struggle against racism and for tino rangatiratanga (sovereignty) and mana whenua (authority over land) in the context of the political turbulence of the late 1960s and early 1970s. Young Māori activists formed Nga Tamatoa in the early 1970s to establish a political organisation to defend and promote Māori interests. To some extent, the organisation was modelled on the Black Power movement in

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72 Dann, *Up from under* pp. 4-10.
73 *Broadsheet: New Zealand’s feminist magazine* 61, July 1878, pp. 24-31.
74 Christine Dann, *Up from under* pp. 9-23.
75 Ibid. pp. 65-79. In addition to Dann’s superb account, see the highly illuminating reflections on their experiences in the trade union and women’s liberation movements by Viv Porzolt, Therese O’Connell, Reihana McDonald, Viv Walker and Christine Bird in Maud Cahill and Christine Dann (eds), *Changing our lives: women working in the women’s liberation movement* Bridget Williams Books, Wellington 1991.
76 Therese O’Connell, ‘Singing to survive’ in Cahill and Dann (eds), *Changing our lives* p. 74.
the US, and this was reflected in the rhetoric of brown power, Māori liberation, separate government and a separate foreign policy. As Walker points out, ‘the political consciousness forged by newsletters, Tamatoa and endless dialogue on marae around the country over grievances against the Crown, coalesced into a powerful Māori land rights movement, which in 1975 marched the length of the North Island to parliament.’ Setting off from Te Hapua in the Far North on 14 September 1975, the main slogan of the march was ‘Not one more acre of land’ to be alienated from Māori. When it eventually arrived in Wellington, with a petition signed by over 60,000 people, around 5,000 protesters assembled in front of parliament to present the petition to Prime Minister Rowling. The land march radicalised Māori throughout the country and brought together a broad coalition of activists and organisations. The march organisers were aware of the importance of working class involvement:

We see no difference between the aspirations of Māori people and the desire of workers in their struggles. We seek the support of workers and [union] organisations, as the only viable bodies which have sympathy and understanding of the Māori people and their desires. The people who are oppressing the workers are the same who are exploiting Māori today.

The active involvement of socialist and trade union activists in supporting the occupation, from 1977 to 1978, of Bastion Point, land claimed by Ngāti Whātua tribal activists is well documented. Among other things, union activists provided various forms of logistical support; the Auckland Trades Council placed a green ban on the site; and the acting Trades Council President, Dave Clark, ‘told the media from Bastion Point that the unions were “fairly and squarely behind”’ the occupation.

The upsurge in Māori activism, like the emergence of women’s liberation movement, was closely related to the rise in working class struggle. Many Māori workers gained a political education in union campaigns. Further, the role

of the trade union movement in providing an organisational base for Māori protest groups is clearly demonstrated in the emergence of the underground newspaper, Te Hōkioi, out of which emerged the Māori Organisation on Human Rights (MOOHR). Both groups were based in Wellington and both had strong union links. Tama Poata, the secretary of MOOHR, was also an active member of the

77 Walker, Ka whawhai tonu matou p. 210; Poata-Smith, ‘He pōkēkē uenuku i tu ai’; ‘The political economy of Māori protest politics’ pp. 178-182
79 Ibid. p. 193.
80 Ibid. p. 200.
Wellington Drivers Union, and for a short time, the Communist Party of New Zealand. The urbanisation and proletarianisation of Māori during the post-war boom concentrated them in the urban blue-collar working class. A number of key Māori activists during these years were prominent within the union movement and some political currents within the anti-racist movement, such as the Polynesian Panthers, were explicitly anti-capitalist and revolutionary in outlook. In a pamphlet entitled—What we want—the Panthers stated ‘The revolution we openly rap about is one of total change. The revolution is one to liberate us from racism, oppression and capitalism. We see that many of our problems of oppression and racism are tools of this society’s outlook based on capitalism; hence for total change one must change society altogether.’

Conclusion
The upsurge in working class struggle, student political activism, and the rise of progressive social movements generated a significant leftward shift in New Zealand politics. There was a historic change in the balance of power between capital and labour. The struggles of the workers’ movement and the various social movements from the late 1960s to the late 1970s rocked the conservative establishment, composed of company directors, National Cabinet Ministers, and bureaucrats, which had ruled the country without challenge from 1951 to 1967. After 1968 employers and successive governments were forced onto the back foot; they struggled to contain the growing pressure from below and to reconstruct and reassert the hegemony of the right. For example, the Director of the New Zealand Chambers of Commerce in his address to the its 1975 annual conference stated, ‘Private enterprise, as we know it, is in jeopardy under present conditions’. Employers were forced to make major concessions on pay and conditions. The high level of struggle was a key factor in the 1972 election and ensuing progressive reforms of the Labour (Kirk/Rowling) Government, and it placed very real constraints on the National (Muldoon) Government from 1975 to 1984. The union movement’s defeat of the National Government in 1976/77 highlights the power that the union movement can exert when rank and file workers are confident and militant. Furthermore, the union movement’s victories during the 1970s were crucial in preventing the implementation of the neoliberal policy regime before the mid 1980s.

As this suggests, wide layers of people absorbed the belief that the world could be changed for the better. Even conservative politicians were forced to pay lip service to some of the demands of the progressive social movements. It would be an exaggeration to suggest that the left was dominant, but it was confident, militant, active, organised and powerful, and it enjoyed a substantial degree of popular support. Another major upsurge in working class struggle, on the scale that we saw during the 1970s, could rapidly transform New Zealand commerce, August 1975, p. 9; also see p. 15.

81 Ibid. p. 173.
82 Cited by Poata-Smith, ‘The political economy of Māori protest politics’ p. 183.
83 New Zealand commerce, August 1975, p. 9; also see p. 15.
Zealand’s political environment and force whatever government was in power to abandon neoliberalism in order to defend capitalism by making short-term concessions.

The history of the late 1960s and 1970s also indicates the importance of struggles and campaigns outside the realm of parliamentary politics. The progressive political change was occurred because large numbers of predominately working class people pushed for change from below. The period demonstrated the capacity of workers, organised in unions, to take on employers and the government and to win. As the union movement’s victory in 1976-77 shows, the defeat in 1991, when the Employment Contracts Act was introduced, was not inevitable. A sustained general strike could, at the very least, have forced the government to either amend or withdraw the legislation. Learning the lessons of the 1970s when workers won major victories, and the 1990s when they suffered major defeats, can help us prepare to fight and win in the future.

Finally the struggles of the 1970s, demonstrated that there is no fundamental division amongst issues of exploitation and oppression. The prospects for achieving radical, socialist, anti-racist and feminist aspirations were, and continue to be, historically interwoven with each other and the prospects of the left as a whole.

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