

**MACARTHUR, Elizabeth** (1766–1850), farmer, was born in England and educated locally. In 1788 she married Ensign John Macarthur, who joined the New South Wales Corps as a lieutenant in 1789. With their infant son, Edward, the couple left England with the second fleet on 17 January 1790, arriving in Sydney the following June. In 1793 her husband was granted 100 acres at Parramatta where he established Elizabeth Farm. It was to be her home for the rest of her life. During her husband's absence overseas, from 1801 to 1805 and from 1809 to 1817, she managed his estates, by then extensive, and successfully carried on his experiments in sheep breeding for fine wool. She materially contributed thereby to the development of the Australian pastoral industry. Elizabeth had nine children, seven of whom reached adulthood. Her strong Christian faith sustained her in her grief over the deaths of her children and the tragic illness and death of her husband. She died at Watsons Bay on 9 February 1850.

HAZEL KING

**Further reading** H. King, *Elizabeth Macarthur and her world*, Sydney 1980.

**MACARTHUR, John** (1766–1834), soldier and farmer, was born in England. In 1782 he bought an army commission, but was on half-pay between 1783 and 1788, and lived in the country, educating himself and learning agricultural skills. There he met Elizabeth Veale, and married her in 1788. In 1789 he became a lieutenant in the New South Wales Corps, and he and his family arrived in Sydney in June 1790.

During the 1790s the corps dominated colonial life, and Macarthur was among its most influential officers. He was stationed for some time at Parramatta and in 1793 was granted land there, which he named Elizabeth Farm. From 1793 to 1796 he was inspector of public works, with authority over the settlements around Parramatta and on the Hawkesbury. He was paymaster of the corps from 1792 to 1800, and managed the investment of regimental funds in overseas trading. He thus played a central part in the beginning of free enterprise.

Macarthur quarrelled with Gov Hunter, and in 1801 with Gov King and his own commanding officer. He was sent to England to be disciplined, but while there he resigned from the army, in 1804, and successfully publicised his first sheep breeding experiments in NSW. He returned in 1805 and was granted 5000 acres, called Camden Park, for the growing of fine wool. He took the lead in agitation against Gov Bligh, which ended in the 'Rum Rebellion', and Bligh's deposition on 26 January 1808. He was then secretary to the colony, and virtual ruler, for six months. Historians disagree as to the purpose of the rebellion, but there is evidence that Macarthur aimed at thorough constitutional changes, affecting various aspects of government and convict discipline. His current thinking conformed with the latest penological theories. He went to England in 1809 to promote his plans, but the British government proved unsympathetic. He was forbidden to return until 1817.

During the 1820s Macarthur was once more influential. In 1819–21 Commissioner Bigge inquired into the affairs of the colony on behalf of the British government, and depended very much on Macarthur's advice. His sheep breeding was now successful and profitable, and his son, John, was active in London promoting the family interests. His landed property became immense. In 1825 he was appointed to the new legislative council. He was removed from membership in 1832 on being declared insane, and he died at Camden Park in 1834.

Macarthur played a very significant part in the foundation of the Australian wool industry, though historians disagree as to his exact importance. He was interested in education, founding the Sydney Public Free Grammar School in 1825, and in convict reform and the assimilation of the Aborigines. He was a deist, and in his belief in the perfectibility of human nature he resembled many of the more radical thinkers of his generation.

ALAN ATKINSON

**Further reading** A. Atkinson, 'A new John Macarthur', *Push from the bush* 17, 1984, 43–56; M.H. Ellis, *John Macarthur*, Sydney 1978 (1955).



**MACASSANS** The Macassans are a linguistic and, to some extent, cultural group occupying the extreme southwest corner of the island of Celebes. However, the name is generally applied to any who made the annual journey to Australia to gather trepang (also known as sea-cucumber, or *bêche-de-mer*), prized as a delicacy by the Chinese. The industry was carried out along the northern Australian coast (Marege) and the Kimberley coast in WA (Kajo Jawa), and it is thought to have begun between 1675 and 1700. The journeys to Australia are well documented. On 17 February 1803, Matthew Flinders encountered six Macassan praus (boats) at Cape Wilberforce, the northeastern extremity of Arnhem Land. Northern settlements such as Fort Dundas, Port Essington and Fort Wellington had regular seasonal contact with the Macassans. While their activities were well known to Australian authorities, they were largely disregarded until the annexation of the NT to SA in 1863, when some control of the industry was demanded to prevent the exploitation of the north and its Aborigines. Legislation was introduced in 1872, but it was not enforced until 1882, when the first customs duty was collected and the licensing of trepangers enforced. The industry declined as duties ate into profits and discouraged investors. Eventually it was suspended to encourage and protect the local industry. On 26 July 1906 the SA government approved the proposal of its resident administrator in the NT, C.E. Herbert, to close the coast to the Macassans. The last Macassan prau made the journey in 1907.

The Macassans influenced Aboriginal life without initiating fundamental changes. The Aborigines adopted Macassan words and technology (such as the prau design for canoes), incorporated Macassan motifs into their paintings, songs and stories, traded with the Macassans and helped them catch trepang, some even travelling as far as Macassar with the Macassans.

The Macassans were the first to visit Australia for trade purposes. By placing northern Australia within the southeast Asian world, their story has invited a reassessment of Australian history, one that does not necessarily proceed from a Eurocentric perspective.

**Further reading** C.C. McKnight, *The voyage to Morege: Macassan trepangers in Northern Australia*, Melbourne 1976.

**McAULEY, James** (1917–76), poet, was born at Lakemba, Sydney. He attended Fort Street Boys' High School and the University of Sydney, where he was recognised as a brilliant student and witty writer. As a student, McAuley mixed with libertarians and socialists. His MA thesis on the growth of symbolism in modern European poetry did not win him an academic post and, in 1938, he reluctantly began a career as a schoolteacher. When war broke out McAuley resisted pressures to enlist in the army until he was conscripted in 1943. He first gained notoriety as one of the perpetrators of the Ern Malley poetry hoax in 1944.

In the course of his military duties McAuley was sent to New Guinea in 1944, where he was impressed



*Professor James McAuley faces students at Monash University during an ABC television debate, one of a series recorded between students and prominent personalities in politics, philosophy and the fine arts, c1968.*

FAIRFAX PHOTO LIBRARY

by the difficulties facing tribespeople coming into contact with western civilisation for the first time. His concern with the problems of New Guineans sent him back to an examination of western culture. McAuley felt that Europeans were robbing New Guineans of a rich culture where art and spiritual life were one, and offering only an 'empty materialism' in return. He became interested in Catholicism as a source of spiritual strength in an increasingly materialist world, and eventually became a Catholic in 1951.

*Under Aldebaran*, McAuley's first book of poems, appeared in 1946 and established his reputation as a formidable poetic talent. After the war, McAuley followed his army superior, Alf Conlon, into the newly established School of Pacific Administration as a lecturer in administration. Though known as a poet, critic and literary editor, throughout the 1950s McAuley's principal employment was as a lecturer in colonial administration. Although his 'traditional' poetic views and his scorn for Australian provincialism branded him, with A.D. Hope, as a 'European', McAuley did not, in fact, visit Europe until the late 1960s. The political polarities of the Cold War in Australia were such that Australian 'mateship', the national literary tradition, was seen as the prerogative of writers with leftist political sympathies, in particular the communists. In disagreeing with the writers of the left McAuley was forced into an 'anti-nationalist'



position, though his conservatism was as Australian as the egalitarianism of the left.

One of the results of the Cold War in Australia was the emergence of the Australian Association for Cultural Freedom—a body of businessmen, politicians and academics formed to offer an alternative to the communist sympathies which had attracted many intellectuals in Australia. The association chose McAuley as the editor of its new literary journal, *Quadrant*. McAuley fought against the naive literary ideas of the radical nationalists through the editorial pages of *Quadrant*. He consistently attacked communism as totalitarian and exposed many of the horrors of Stalinism through journal articles. As a Catholic anti-communist he was also prominent in organising the Democratic Labor Party (DLP) among Catholics in Sydney. He was a firm friend of B.A. Santamaria, the leader of the Movement, and, in the interests of the DLP, argued publicly with Cardinal Gilroy, the Catholic Archbishop of Sydney. McAuley lost this argument; most Catholics continued supporting the state Labor government, and the DLP did not become powerful in NSW as it had been in Vic.

McAuley's poetry of the 1950s, principally *A vision of ceremony* (1956), and his first prose book, *The end of modernity* (1959), revealed a growing intolerance as McAuley began to narrow the groups of people he felt he could support and the type of poetry he could approve. An appointment as a professor in the University of Tas in 1961 took him away from the Catholic politics of Sydney, but he continued as editor of *Quadrant*.

McAuley became a public figure again in 1967 when it was revealed that the Association for Cultural Freedom, and hence *Quadrant*, had been funded by the CIA. McAuley was unperturbed by this revelation, as he was confident that his journal had never been influenced by the American intelligence organisation. For McAuley the end—to destroy communism—justified the means of American funding. By the late 1960s he had identified the anti-Vietnam War movement as the focus for communism in Australia, and he earned the contempt of a younger generation of radicals by his pro-conscription stand.

McAuley was the only significant literary figure in Australia to hold steadfastly to a right-wing political position from the time of the Cold War through to the end of the Vietnam War. He died of cancer in 1976.

SUSAN McKERNAN

**Further reading** P. Coleman, *The heart of James McAuley*, Sydney 1980.

**MacCALLUM, Sir Mungo William** (1854–1942), scholar, migrated to Australia (1887) to become professor of modern literature at Sydney University. He later became dean of the faculty of arts (1898), vice-chancellor (1924) and chancellor (1934).

**McCUBBIN, Frederick** (1855–1917), artist, lived and worked in Melbourne throughout most of his life, first as a coach painter, then as a student and later teacher at the National Gallery School. In 1886, along with fellow students Tom Roberts and Louis

Abrahams, McCubbin established the first artists' camp at Box Hill and so began what became known as the Heidelberg School. McCubbin's paintings portray scenes of early settlers in the Australian bush. His works are to be found in all major state galleries and in the Australian National Gallery.

**McCULLOCH, Sir James** (1814–1904), politician and merchant, arrived in Melbourne from Scotland in 1853 to open a branch of a soft goods firm. He served as a member of the legislative council in 1854–56 and was a member of the legislative assembly, representing various constituencies, until his retirement in 1878. He was premier of Vic for four terms: from 1863–68, 1868–69, 1870–71 and 1875–77. His ministries introduced several controversial measures including, in 1870, the abolition of state aid to religion. He was knighted in 1870.

**McDONAGH, Isabel Mercia** (1899–1982), **Phyllis Glory** (1900–1978) and **Paulette de Vere** (1901–1978), film makers, were born and educated in Sydney. They made four feature films (1926–33), including one 'talkie', and several short documentaries on sports, with Paulette directing, Isabel starring and Phyllis producing. Isabel's marriage and a loss in popularity broke up the partnership. Phyllis became a journalist in New Zealand, later returning to Sydney. Paulette could not find financial backing for further films. The sisters had refused offers of work from Hollywood, and their work was almost forgotten, some of it lost, until the 1970s.

**McEWEN, Sir John** (1900–80), farmer and politician, entered federal parliament (1934) and first became a minister in the United Australia Party–Country party coalition government (1937). He was successively minister for commerce and agriculture, trade, and trade and industry (1949–71) in the long-running postwar Liberal party–Country party coalition. He became Country party leader and deputy prime minister (1958), and was briefly prime minister (December 1967–January 1968), serving in an interim capacity between the death of Harold Holt and the succession of John Gorton. As a minister of departments strongly oriented towards foreign trade, he proved an energetic and aggressive negotiator, successfully promoting Australian interests in international trade agreements. Until his retirement in 1971 he stoutly maintained the separate integrity of his party within the governing coalition.

BRUCE MITCHELL

**McGOWEN, James Sinclair Taylor** (1855–1922), politician, entered the NSW Legislative Assembly as member for Redfern in 1891. He was parliamentary Labor leader from 1894 to 1913 and in 1910 he became the state's first Labor premier. He resigned in 1913 in favour of W.A. Holman and was made minister for labour and industry in 1913–14. In 1917 he lost his party nomination over the conscription issue and stood unsuccessfully as an independent Labor candidate. He was then nominated to the legislative council and sat as a member until his death.



**MacGREGOR, Sir William** (1846–1919), medical practitioner and colonial administrator, studied medicine at the universities of Aberdeen and Edinburgh and after serving as a medical officer in the Seychelles and Mauritius, took up an appointment in Fiji. Encouraged by the governor, Sir Arthur Gordon, MacGregor decreased his medical commitments and took on administrative duties, holding various senior positions. In 1887 he was appointed administrator of British New Guinea, and in 1895–98 lieutenant-governor. MacGregor became governor of Lagos in 1898 but left almost in disgrace in 1902 for his public criticism of crown agents. In 1904 he was governor of Newfoundland, and in 1909 he was appointed governor of Qld. In 1911 he became the first chancellor of the University of Qld.

**McILWRAITH, Thomas** (1835–1900), politician and businessman, was born in Scotland and emigrated to Vic in 1854. After briefly working as a surveyor he invested in pastoral runs in Qld, and by the 1870s had moved there and entered the Qld parliament. He was influential in Qld politics for over 25 years, premier several times, and a driving force behind Qld's local government system, railway expansion and fiscal policy, receiving a knighthood in 1882. He is credited with forming Qld's first cohesive parliamentary party, to oppose local interests and promote colony-wide public works.

His business and political careers were not without scandal, though his name was cleared by successive inquiries. In 1897 an investigation of the affairs of the Queensland National Bank revealed massive mismanagement, if not corruption, during his directorship. This ended his political career and ruined his financial reputation. McIlwraith returned to London where he died in 1900.

**McKAY, Heather Pamela** (1941–), squash player, won the British Amateur Squash Championship sixteen times (1962–77) and the Australian Championship fourteen times (1960–73). In 1973 she turned professional and won the Women's World Squash Championship in 1976 and 1979. She then retired from squash with a seventeen-year unbeaten record. McKay settled in the United States in 1975.

**McKAY, Hugh Victor** (1865–1926), inventor of the Sunshine Harvester, conceived the idea of stripping, threshing and cleaning grain in one continuous operation. He produced a prototype by utilising parts from old strippers and winnowers and patented it in 1885. Similar machines had been built earlier but McKay's was the first to be produced on a commercial scale. Awarded money from the Vic government he established a production company in Ballarat. In 1906 the factory was moved to Braybrook, later known as Sunshine. He believed in employee welfare, albeit as dispensed by the employer, and established roads, water and electrical supplies and a technical school for the inhabitants of Sunshine. In the 'Harvester judgment' of 1907, his firm became the test case for the view that an employer enjoying tariff protection must pay fair and reasonable wages.

**MacKELLAR, Isobel Marion Dorothea** (1885–1968), poet, is best known for the poem 'My Country' which first appeared in 1908 in the *Spectator* and was subsequently reprinted in many Australian newspapers. She had several volumes of verse published, including *The closed door* (1911) and *Dreamharbour* (1923).

**McKELL, Sir William John** (1891–1985), politician and governor-general, was born at Pambula, NSW. Leaving school at the age of 13, he became a boiler-maker, then a union official and in 1917 won the state seat of Redfern for the Labor party. McKell held ministries in successive Labor governments and in 1939 defeated Jack Lang for the party leadership. As premier and treasurer from 1941 to 1947 he was an effective wartime leader and a moderate reformer. From 1947 to 1953 he was governor-general. The appointment was controversial but his term was notable for his dignity and efficiency. CHRIS CUNNEEN



Portrait of Hon. W. J. McKell. Oil by Joshua Smith, 1946.

ART GALLERY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

**MACKERRAS, Sir (Alan) Charles** (1925–), orchestra conductor. He became a conductor at the Sadler's Wells opera (1948–54), after studying at the NSW Conservatorium and Prague Academy of Music. His subsequent appointments include terms as conductor of the BBC Concert Orchestra (1954–56), of the Hamburg State Opera (1966–69), musical director of the English National Opera (1969–77), chief guest conductor of the BBC Symphony Orchestra



(1976–79) and chief conductor of the Sydney Symphony Orchestra (1982–85), as well as many periods as guest conductor of symphony orchestras in Europe, the United States and Australia.

**McKILLOP, Mary Helen** (1842–1909), Mother Mary of the Cross, founded the Order of the Sisters of St Joseph of the Sacred Heart in SA and established schools for poor children in remote areas. In 1871 after a diocesan dispute, Bishop L.B. Shiel disbanded the order and excommunicated Mother Mary. She appealed to Rome and was reinstated by Pope Pius IX in 1873.

**MACLEAY, Alexander** (1767–1848), public servant, came to NSW in 1826 as colonial secretary. Although he worked closely with the Tory, Gov Darling, he fell out with Darling's Whig successor, Richard Bourke, who eased him out of office in 1837. In 1843 Macleay was chosen as first speaker of the new legislative council. A distinguished entomologist, his collection was the basis of what later became the Macleay Museum at the University of Sydney.

**MACLEAY, William Sharp** (1792–1865), naturalist and classical scholar, arrived in Sydney in 1839 from Cuba where he had been a judge and had furthered his interest in natural history. A member of the Zoological and Linnean societies, he developed a special interest in the marine fauna around Port Jackson. He also returned to his original interest, entomology, and made a large collection of Australian insects. He was largely responsible for framing and introducing the act which established and endowed the Australian Museum of which he was a trustee 1841–62. Around his home, Elizabeth Bay House, he cultivated exotic shrubs and plants. In 1890 his collection of specimens and his library were deposited in the Macleay Museum, University of Sydney.

**McMAHON, Sir William** (1908– ), lawyer and politician, entered the House of Representatives in 1949 and held the seat until his retirement in 1982. He served as minister for the navy and for the air in 1951–54, minister for social services in 1954–56, minister for primary industry in 1956–58, minister for labour and national service in 1958–66; treasurer in 1966–69. He was prime minister in 1971–72. Ousted by the 1972 Labor victory McMahon was the first non-Labor prime minister to lose office at an election since Bruce in 1929.

**McNAMARA, Dame Jean** (1899–1968), physician and scientist, was educated at the University of Melbourne. In the 1920s she worked as a medical officer in two Melbourne hospitals and in 1931, having been awarded a travelling fellowship by the Rockefeller Foundation, she studied poliomyelitis in the United States, Canada and England. An acknowledged expert in the field she returned to Melbourne where she helped to found the Yooralla Hospital School for Crippled Children and became honorary medical officer to the Physiotherapy Department of the Royal Children's Hospital. She was made a Dame Com-

mander of the British Empire in 1935. In the 1950s she achieved a more controversial success through her efforts to persuade the Australian government to use myxomatosis in the control of rabbits.

**MACONOCHIE, Alexander** (1787–1860), naval officer and penal reformer, was born at Edinburgh and served in the navy in the Napoleonic wars. On half-pay after 1815, he became interested in geography and in 1833 was appointed the first professor of geography at London University. In 1836 he went to Van Diemen's Land as private secretary to Gov Sir John Franklin, though he soon resigned. He became interested in penal reform, and elaborated his 'mark' system, whereby a prisoner's sentence was to be determined by marks awarded for good conduct. In 1840 he was appointed commandant at Norfolk Island where he was to implement his theories. He had some success, but was recalled in 1843, largely because of the expense of his methods. Thereafter he wrote many pamphlets on penal reform and was governor of Birmingham prison from 1849 to 1851.

A.G.L. SHAW

**MACQUARIE, Lachlan** (1761–1824), colonial governor, was born on the Scottish islet of Ulva and grew up on the isle of Mull. He received some education in Edinburgh before volunteering in 1776 for the Royal Highland Emigrants and doing garrison duties in Nova Scotia, New York, Charleston and Jamaica. In 1788 Macquarie sailed as a lieutenant in the 77th Regiment for India, where he eventually rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel and became military secretary to the governor of Bombay. He served in the siege of Cochin, the capture of Colombo and Point de Galle, the fall of Seringapatam and the Egyptian campaign. In 1793 he married Jane Jarvis, who was to die of consumption within three years at the age of twenty-four. On home leave from 1803 to 1805, Macquarie officiated as assistant adjutant-general for the London District, visited his recently acquired estate on Mull and became engaged to Elizabeth Henrietta Campbell of Airds. After further service in India he returned to London in October 1807, having travelled via Persia, Russia and Denmark carrying despatches. On 3 November he married Elizabeth.

Macquarie's military career thus far had included supervising roadbuilding, supplies, transport, and paying the troops. He had gained his own promotions—and commissions for certain relatives—by ingratiating himself with his superiors and by dissimulation. Facets of instability in his nature had exposed themselves: he drank heavily, showed signs of dissipation and may have suffered from a form of venereal disease; he had owned slaves, he opposed democratic principles, he preferred order to freedom.

Late in 1808 Macquarie heard that he was to be sent to Australia in command of the 73rd Regiment; on 27 April 1809 he learned that he was to be appointed governor-in-chief of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. He sailed from Portsmouth on 22 May and his term of office lasted from 1 January 1810 to 30 November 1821. Hard work characterised his



regime: he introduced system and efficiency into the government, and brooked no opposition, whether from judge or clergyman. The feature of his administration that Macquarie regarded as most meritorious was his emancipist policy. Unlike the 'exclusives' among the minority of the population who had come to the settlement as free immigrants, Macquarie insisted that on the expiry or remission of their sentences the convict majority, provided they were well-behaved, should be treated as if they had never transgressed the law and should enjoy the rights of free men. Whether this policy sprang from cardinal Christian principles, or from mundane pragmatism, it led to divisions in society and united Macquarie's opponents in Sydney and Hobart Town as well as in London.

The antipodean outposts progressed materially under Macquarie from 1810 to 1821: the population grew from 11 590 to 38 778; sheep multiplied from 26 000 to 290 000; cattle from 12 500 to 103 000; the land under tillage increased from 3000 to 13 000 hectares; roads, bridges, public buildings and gardens all developed. Macquarie ruled NSW during a time of transition: he found a gaol; he left a burgeoning colony. Macquarie sailed from Australia on 15 February 1822, anchoring in the Thames on 4 July. He then battled to gain a pension and to salvage his reputation in the face of the reports of Commissioner J.T. Bigge. Exhausted and sick at heart, he travelled in Europe between 1822 and 1823 with Elizabeth and his young son, returned to Mull, and died in London from a bowel disease and strangury on 1 July 1824. His body was buried on his estate.



Governor Lachlan Macquarie. Watercolour by convict portrait and miniature painter Richard Read Senior, 11 Feb 1822.

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Lachlan Macquarie's complex character abounded in paradoxes and contradictions. His strength came in spasms: he could be impetuous as well as an equivocator; visionary and realist, he was always money-conscious, though seldom greedy; usually energetic and industrious, he nonetheless took refuge in detail. He lacked robust health and penetrating introspection. If he had inconsistencies, he also had dedication; while loquacious, he listened well; he trusted his intimates, though was rarely able to delegate full responsibility to them. With those he disliked, he preferred enmity to acquaintanceship. Polite and earnest, he found it difficult to unbend in public, though he did show a wearied impatience with flutter. A practising Episcopalian, he was a devoted husband and a doting father. With sandy hair, brown eyes, aquiline nose and weathered skin, in his flowering he stood 178 centimetres and weighed 86 kilograms. He enjoyed romantic landscapes and historic places, liked the theatre and games of whist, and loved horseracing, though he did not himself ride well. He appreciated cameo portraits, thrilled to the pipes, spoke Gaelic and a smattering of French, and treasured the work of Scott and Boswell. His letters and diaries—which reveal a quiet sense of humour—were written in a large, plain hand with frequent capitals, underlinings and exclamation marks. This low-born Scottish exile from the fringes of English Georgian society was given the chance in 1810 to behave largely as he wanted: with self-effacing humanity and a common touch, he chose to use his vast authority to attempt nothing less than the regeneration of the convicts under his sway.

JOHN RITCHIE

**Further reading** M.H. Ellis, *Lachlan Macquarie*, Sydney 1978 (1947); J. Ritchie, *Lachlan Macquarie*, Melbourne 1986.

**MAHOGANY SHIP** In 1836 local whalers examined the hull of a wreck buried in drifting sand dunes between Warrnambool and Port Fairy, Victoria, and suggested its timbers were mahogany. It was sighted periodically until 1880 when it was submerged in sand. From 1890 to 1980, a series of searches uncovered some relics but no trace of the mahogany ship, as it was now called. Hypotheses as to its identity range from a whaling punt to a caravel known to have been lost nearby by Cristovao de Mendonça in 1522.

**MAKARRATA** In April 1979 the National Aboriginal Conference called on the federal government to negotiate a treaty between Aborigines and the commonwealth. The makarrata, a Yolngu (NT) word for 'end of conflict and the resumption of normal relations between communities' sought to compensate Aboriginal people for loss of land and culture.

The government is not prepared to negotiate a treaty because of the precise legal meaning of the word and the connotations of the existence of separate nations within Australia. While the government acknowledges the prior occupation of Australia by the Aborigines, British law has always deemed Australia before European settlement as 'terra nullius', or land belonging to nobody. The government does not



therefore acknowledge the sovereign rights of Aborigines as prior owners, and in consequence does not consider them to be a legal entity with whom a treaty can be concluded.

The Senate Standing Committee on Constitutional and Legal Affairs considered the feasibility of a compact or 'makarrata' between the commonwealth and Aboriginal people in 1983. Its report, *Two hundred years later*, was tabled in the Senate on 13 September 1983. The report concluded that in the present circumstances sovereignty does not inhere in the Aboriginal people; but it recommended that if Aboriginal sovereignty were to be recognised the constitution should be amended to confer a broad power on the commonwealth, enabling it to enter into a compact. The referendum necessary to change the constitution would demonstrate the commitment of the Australian people to reconciliation of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal communities. The report urged that both communities be educated about the compact, its purpose and effect.

**MALARIA** is caused by protozoa, microscopic single-celled parasites transmitted by the anopheles mosquito, two species of which are indigenous to northern Australia. Serious outbreaks occurred periodically in parts of northern Qld and the NT after World War II. It was only with the postwar introduction of new anti-malarials such as chloroquin, together with improvements in water supply and sewerage which eliminated mosquitoes' breeding places, that the incidence of the disease was lowered significantly. In 1983 there were 570 reported cases, in all states and territories.

**MALAYAN EMERGENCY** In 1948 a communist insurgency erupted, mainly among Malay Chinese, which became known as the 'Malayan emergency'. Under a common scheme of defence with Britain and New Zealand, the Labor government provided arms, munitions, food and drugs. When the Liberal party came to power in December 1949 it adopted a more hardline attitude. Under ANZAM, a strategic plan embracing Britain, New Zealand and Australia, a squadron of RAAF Dakota aircraft was sent to Malaya in 1950 for supply dropping and general transport service. In 1955, to satisfy United States interests, under the South East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO), and in response to British demands and growing fears of communist activity in the region, ground troops and fighter and bomber aircraft were sent. Malaya achieved independence in 1957. Although the emergency was declared ended on 31 July 1960, Australian forces remained in the area, under the aegis of the British Commonwealth Far East Strategic Reserve and then during Indonesia's 'confrontation' of Malaysia, until 1965–66.

**Further reading** T.B. Millar, *Australia in peace and war: external relations 1788–1977*, Canberra 1978.

**MALLEY, Ern.** 'Ern Malley' was a fictitious poet created by the poets James McAuley and Harold Stewart in order to ridicule modernist poetry. His *The*

*darkening elliptic* poems were accepted enthusiastically by *Angry Penguins* journal and published in the autumn 1944 issue. Ern was supposed to be a motor mechanic, born at Liverpool, England, in 1918, who had died in Sydney of Graves' disease on 23 July 1943. His sister, Ethel, was supposed to have found the poems among his belongings.

Though McAuley and Stewart declared the poems to be arbitrary nonsense, and the *Angry Penguins'* editors were ridiculed for having published them, others have found merit in them, and defended Malley as a symbol of thwarted cultural experiment.

SUSAN MCKERNAN

**MANIFOLD, Thomas** (1809–75), **John** (1811–77) and **Peter** (1817–85), pastoralists, were born in England and John and Peter migrated to Australia in 1831 with their parents and sisters, to join Thomas. They prospected Port Phillip in 1836, explored westwards from Point Henry where Thomas landed sheep in 1836, discovered Lake Purrumbete, and occupied the surrounding country. In 1844 Thomas acquired Grasmere run, near Warrnambool, with its herd of pedigree shorthorns. His venture ended with the loss of immigrant labour to the goldfields. By 1851 John and Peter were running 9000 cattle at Purrumbete, and by 1862 had purchased and fenced most of the run. The three brothers were pioneers in the Western District of Vic.

**MANNIX, Daniel** (1864–1963), archbishop, was born in Ireland in March 1864. He studied, brilliantly, for the priesthood at St Patrick's College, Maynooth, and was ordained in 1890. Then followed a series of academic appointments at Maynooth, of which he became president in 1903—a position which he filled with distinction but not without controversy. He developed a reputation in Ireland for his concern for educational matters, but his strong-minded, decisive and practical approach to various administrative questions led idealists to mistakenly think that he was opposed to Irish nationalism.

In March 1913, Dr Mannix arrived in Melbourne as coadjutor archbishop to the aged Archbishop Carr. Mannix was then aged 49, of proven administrative ability, with a practical interest in social questions, particularly education. His public stance was aggressive and he was not interested in popularity. All this made him the natural leader of a swing towards beligerence that was developing within Australian Catholicism: an increasing demand for greater recognition and better treatment within its non-Catholic environment. Furthermore, the new archbishop possessed remarkable oratorical gifts. He combined an air of authority with absolute sincerity, but he expressed this, not with a display of passionate emotion, but with restraint: his terse, attacking style was witty, concise, withering in scorn of the things and people he criticised, and devastatingly effective in conveying his point. This technique quickly won him an immense Catholic following which relished the discomfort he inflicted verbally on his church's enemies, and enjoyed the commanding leadership he was able to





*Archbishop Daniel Mannix depicted by cartoonist L. F. Reynolds wearing his distinctive top silk hat and frock coat. Melbourne Punch 12 March 1925.*

BOOROWA PRODUCTIONS

exercise. But it was obviously divisive: Mannix incurred the enmity of those he confronted.

At first, in 1913, Dr Mannix used these talents to proclaim the injustice suffered by Catholics in the failure to recognise their claims to state aid for their schools, efforts which gained him the reputation in the wider community of being belligerent, provocative and socially divisive. Among his clergy, his reputation was one of deep spirituality and firm regard for the first priorities of religion. By the Melbourne laity he was welcomed for his charm, geniality and firm assertive leadership. The new militancy developing within Australian Catholicism from 1911 accorded

with Mannix's own temperament and convictions. He was outspoken in opposition to freemasonry, mixed marriages, birth control, and other alleged social evils. His aggressive onslaughts encouraged other Catholic spokesmen to similar denunciations.

The outbreak of war in August 1914 did not halt this acid critique of Australia's alleged shortcomings: to Mannix the war presented a favourable climate in which to insist on Catholic claims. He used his frequent speeches at openings and foundation-stone layings of Catholic schools and churches in 1915 and 1916 to criticise various aspects of Australian society, and to demand that Catholics be given—or take—a greater share in its politics and wealth. In the tense wartime atmosphere, Mannix's remarks—his insistence that Catholics were a persecuted, underprivileged minority in Australia, and that this must change—created increasing furore: the hero of working-class Catholics became the arch-villain of patriotic establishment Protestants.

This atmosphere of confrontation was exacerbated by Dr Mannix's vigorous support of the Easter 1916 rebellion in Ireland. For the next five years the cause of Irish independence, and repressive British policy in Ireland, became major sources of controversy and bitterness within Australia, with a highly vocal and Irish republican Mannix at the centre of a dispute over Australia's loyalty to the British Empire. Intermingled with this was the spectacular conflict of two conscription campaigns, in 1916 and 1917, when the government sought approval, through referenda, of compulsory military service. Conscription was twice defeated, with Mannix the most prominent spokesman for the anti-conscription forces and the focus of the most violent sectarian storm ever experienced in Australia. His giant meetings (up to 100 000 people) were enormous public attractions; and his democratic inclinations—pro-worker, anti-capitalist—drew the Catholic working classes to him. What he said—that the war was merely over trade, that Australia had done its full share, that Catholics were being robbed, that Ireland was murderously oppressed—occasioned the extremes of acclamation and fury. And he said these things calmly, purposefully, often sarcastically, but always cleverly enough to stay within the law. His targets, from Prime Minister W.M. Hughes down, regarded him as a traitorous, seditious troublemaker, and unsuccessful moves were made to have him ousted by the Vatican, or deported. In May 1920 he left Australia, ostensibly to visit his mother in Ireland. After a triumphal speaking tour of the Irish areas of American cities, his ship was intercepted by British destroyers off the Irish coast and he was landed in England: Mannix had become a symbol of defiance to British rule and he was not allowed to visit Ireland. The incident provoked uproar in Australia, as did demands that he not be readmitted into Australia in August 1921.

The challenges of the 1930s found in Mannix a direct response: his Catholic building program was, in part, an effort to alleviate depression unemployment; he early discerned the nature of emergent



Nazism. Both capitalism and communism came in for his trenchant criticism.

By the late 1930s the archbishop had become a Melbourne institution, often to be seen walking in outdated and almost theatrical clerical garb—top silk hat and frock coat. His concerns, however, were contemporary. In particular, he encouraged the Catholic Social Studies Movement, led by B.A. Santamaria, which sought to combat the growing communist influence within the unions and Labor party. H.V. Evatt, leader of the federal Labor party, denounced the movement in October 1954 as a Catholic plot, led by Santamaria and directed by Dr Mannix, to take control of the party and the unions. The outcome was a destructive split in the Labor party, resulting in the formation of the breakaway anti-communist Democratic Labor Party, and continuing electoral defeats for Labor. Catholic opinion was also split between those who wished to maintain the traditional Catholic alliance with the Australian Labor Party (ALP), and those who took Mannix's view that separate Catholic political action must be taken against a party allegedly soft on communism. The church dispute was referred to the Vatican in 1957, and a decision given against the Mannix position. While Dr Mannix accepted the formal consequences of this ruling, his personal opinion remained firmly in support of Santamaria, and he continued to criticise the ALP until his death in 1963 at the age of ninety-nine.

Even within his own church, Dr Mannix was controversial. He typified an aggressive and uncom-

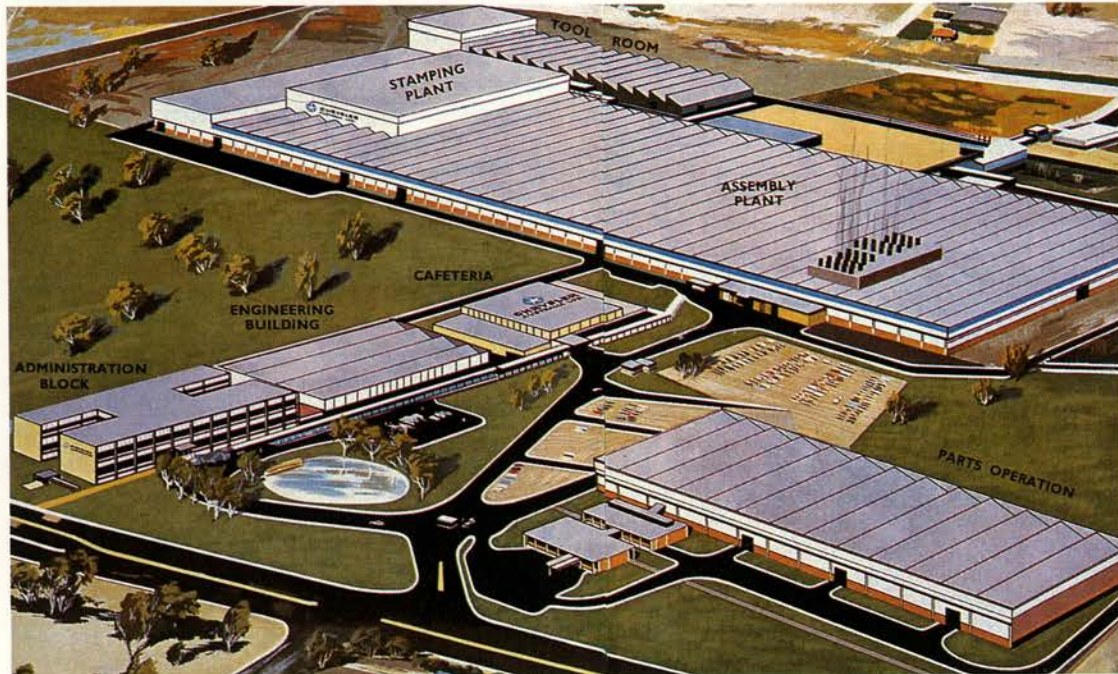
promising strain within Australian Catholicism, but his character was complex. A reserved, prayerful, austere man, he nevertheless confronted the everyday problems of the world as he saw them. He blended wit and cunning with sincerity. Although an autocrat, he encouraged independence in others—if he respected their integrity and intelligence. Dr Mannix suffered fools, opposition, and great age with fortitude, and died in unrepentant command of his faculties, beliefs, convictions and dignity.

PATRICK O'FARRELL

**Further reading** B.A. Santamaria, *Daniel Mannix*, Melbourne 1984.

**MANUFACTURING** Several industrial establishments were set up in Sydney during the early days of European settlement to supply the immediate needs of the isolated community. The government itself undertook flour milling, brewing, and the manufacture of building materials, clothes, cloth and boats. After 1810 the government encouraged private investment and induced people with capital and expertise to emigrate. One of these brought out the first steam engine, which powered a flour mill in Sydney in 1815.

By the early 1830s the colonial administration in NSW was purchasing almost all its requirements from private contractors. The increasing use of steam engines (from six in 1831 to 26 in 1841, including locally made ones from 1836) provided the basis for an engineering industry which was also stimulated by the inauguration of coastal paddle-steamer services



*Artist's impression of the Chrysler automobile assembly plant opened at Clovelly Park in suburban Adelaide in 1964. From the company booklet produced for the official opening.*

SPEARRITT COLLECTION



(1831) and the introduction of gas making (1841), sugar refining (1842), meat canning (1846) and copper smelting (1849).

Although activities like flour milling, tanning and blacksmithing gradually spread beyond the confines of County Cumberland, most of the colony's factory workforce, estimated at 4700 people in 1850, was located in Sydney.

In Tas the major activities by mid-century were flour milling and the construction of wooden sailing ships, while in SA the 1840s saw the emergence of flour milling and copper smelting. In 1851 the number of people engaged in factory activities in these two colonies was about 3000 and 2100 respectively, out of a total of 10 800 in Australia as a whole. Most of the factory jobs were located in the capital cities and a few larger towns like Bathurst, Goulburn, Launceston and Gawler. Manufacturing and processing were largely geared to the separate domestic markets and there was little trade in such goods between the colonies. Some products, such as leather and copper ingots, were exported.

By 1891 the estimated factory workforce in Australia had increased to 149 200 persons. During the 1860s Vic began to challenge the dominance of its northern neighbour and by 1871 had some 19 100 factory workers as against about 17 900 in NSW. This rapid expansion resulted from the provision of residential accommodation and other urban infrastructure, attempts by communities to promote employment for displaced goldminers, government bonuses for the initiation of new kinds of manufacturing, and very large public works contracts. The role played by an increasingly complex tariff structure is far from clear since benefits accruing to some industries may have been offset by penalties imposed on others.

Melbourne remained the focus of manufacturing activity and in 1891 had 41 700 of the 58 600 factory workers in the colony of Vic. Factory activity in country areas expanded during the 1850s and 1860s as settlement spread, the railway system lengthened, and local markets developed. Technological changes (as in brewing and flour milling), the reorganisation of freight rates, trade union activities, and changes to the financing and ownership of companies all advantaged the larger-scale producers in Melbourne and the less competitive, small-scale country firms were weeded out.

Manufacturing in NSW received relatively little stimulus from gold discoveries because most were alluvial deposits which did not require heavy machinery or induce rapid town formation. Moreover, entrepreneurs behaved cautiously with no episodes like the Vic rush to form meat canning and woollen milling companies in the late 1860s and early 1870s occurring. The later spread of activities such as brewing into country areas and the development of new ones like butter and cheese making, copper smelting, and sugar milling, meant that in 1891 metropolitan Sydney had only 32 100 of the 50 250 factory workers in the colony. Even so, apart from Newcastle, most country towns had a limited range of activities.

Qld's industrial progress was marked by alternating periods of rapid and slow growth, but by 1890 it had become clear that the fortunes of the colony's entrepreneurs and their 16 000 employees largely depended on the prosperity of farm-related industries like cattle raising and sugar growing. In SA flour milling, copper smelting and other processing activities were important. To an extent unparalleled in other colonies, country establishments were largely owned and controlled by metropolitan interests. Tas made little progress industrially; its shipbuilding and flour milling industries fell victim to mainland competition which also captured the growing market for mining equipment. Manufacturing in WA remained on a small, domestic scale except for the development of an important hardwood timber industry which supplied railway sleepers to other Australian colonies and to overseas markets.

The depression of the early 1890s led to a decline in Australian factory employment from 149 000 in 1890 to 122 000 in 1893. By 1896 in NSW and by 1899 in Vic manufacturing had regained lost ground, and in Qld and WA it had made substantial gains. However, it was not until 1904 that secondary industry in Australia as a whole entered a new phase of expansion: during the nine years to 1913 factory employment increased at an average annual rate of 5.8 per cent (compared with a population growth rate of 2.3 per cent). This was partly a lagged response to the high levels of investment in the 1880s; partly a result of the considerable expansion of processed mineral and farm exports; and partly a consequence of a new federal structure of tariffs beginning in 1902 and revised in 1908.

Federation hastened the spatial and structural trends already in evidence. For example, it further encouraged companies to establish factories in more than one part of Australia. But while some intercolonial competitive strategies (like border area freight rates) were being dismantled, others in the form of bonus, subsidy and loan schemes were being expanded by state governments.

World War I accelerated the existing trend towards heavy industry and exposed the dangers of relying on imports. Opposition to protection diminished and in 1921 the Tariff Board was established. During the 1920s and 1930s there was a further expansion of the ferrous and non-ferrous metal-producing and associated industries, and an important build-up of activities new to Australia. Among these were the manufacture of cars, domestic appliances, electrical and rubber goods, and chemicals. Of the 565 000 factory workers in 1938-39, 41 per cent were in NSW and 36 per cent in Vic.

World War II saw many factories converted to the manufacture of armaments and military equipment. Postwar shortages and a chronic scarcity of overseas funds led to import restrictions and exchange controls. These sheltered local industry from foreign competition until 1960 when tariffs again became the main instrument of protection. During the 1960s Australia sought alternative export markets for min-



eral and farm products, especially in southeast Asia, but newly industrialising countries put pressure on Australia to lower tariffs thus making it difficult to reconcile domestic and foreign policies. The mineral boom of the 1960s generated a demand for imports and hence exposed local manufacturers to greater pressure. These and other circumstances led to a decline in the number of people employed in factories from a postwar peak of 1 338 000 in 1973–74 to 1 039 000 ten years later.

The decline in manufacturing industry fuelled demands for additional protection but also led to market and government pressure (such as on the motor vehicle industry) for manufacturers to restructure their activities and become more competitive internationally. While the decline in manufacturing employment has affected a few country towns in particular, the main impact has been felt in the inner and far outer suburbs of the main cities. Recent events in Australia are, however, part of a much wider process of adjustment occurring in developed economies throughout the world.

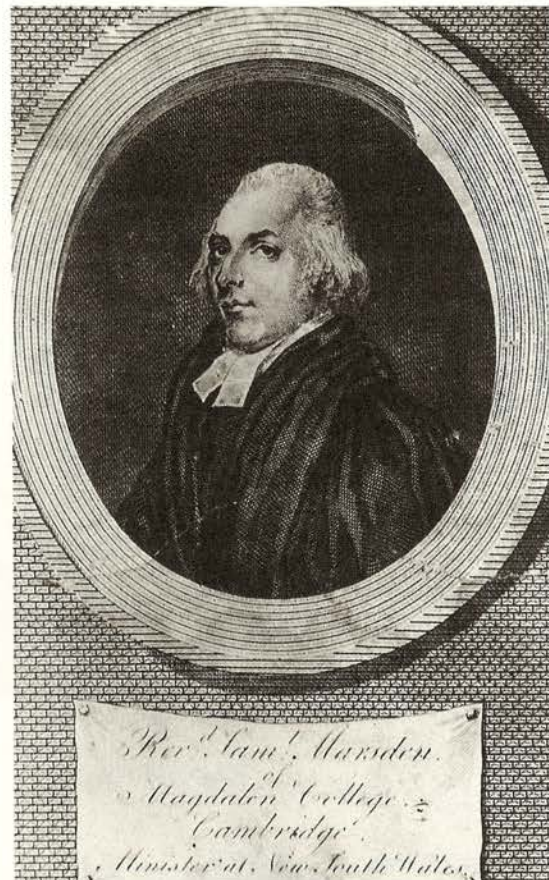
G.J.R. LINGE

**Further reading** N.G. Butlin, *Australian domestic product, investment and foreign borrowing 1861–1938/39*, Cambridge 1962; G.J.R. Linge, *Industrial awakening: a geography of Australian manufacturing 1788 to 1890*, Canberra 1979 and 'Future of Australia's economy: a geographical view', *Current Affairs Bulletin* 62, 7, 1985, 4–13.

**MAORI WARS** British forces fighting to conquer the Maoris of New Zealand between 1845 and 1872 included at different times soldiers from British regiments stationed in Australia and individual volunteers from Australian colonies. In 1863 the New Zealand government recruited in Australian colonies for men who would serve against the Maoris for three years and then take up land. About 2600 men sailed to New Zealand on these terms, with nearly 1000 women and children. Australian volunteers were organised into four regiments of the Waikato Militia and served as scouts and bush fighters. Many later left their land for towns or goldfields.

**MARSDEN, Samuel** (1764–1838), clergyman, was born in England. At age 21, he was recruited by the Reverend Samuel Stones as a trainee of the Elland Society, which financed his education till January 1793, when Wilberforce's influence secured his appointment as assistant chaplain to NSW. Both Marsden and his patron saw his prospects in evangelical terms. Before leaving England he married Elizabeth Fristan and was ordained a priest of the Church of England.

The Marsdens arrived at Sydney on 10 March 1794 to find a colony still threatened by famine, with all efforts directed to survival and little interest in spiritual matters. In October Samuel accepted a grant of 100 acres from Lieut-Gov Grose, and the following year he and the senior chaplain were appointed as magistrates by Gov Hunter. Marsden enjoyed the busy life of a cleric–magistrate–farmer, but the mixture of tasks proved his undoing. His use of torture to



'Revd Samuel Marsden of Magdalen College, Cambridge. Minister of New South Wales.' Ferguson Collection, undated.

NATIONAL LIBRARY

extract a confession from Paddy Galvin in September 1800, and similar efforts against the Irish rebels in March 1804, marked early stages in his loss of the quality of compassion. His opposition to Gov Macquarie was not without merit, but it helped to stamp him, and the church he represented, as hostile to the aspirations of the convict class.

Posterity has remembered Marsden only as the 'flogging parson of Parramatta'. This is unfair. It overlooks his massive contribution to pasture improvement, and his work as a pioneer breeder of merinos and as the first exporter of a commercial quantity of wool. Also forgotten are Marsden's seven voyages to New Zealand for the Church Missionary Society and his efforts to protect the Pacific Islanders from cruelty and exploitation.

He had a sense of destiny and divine purpose which not only sustained him in physical danger and political controversy, but also drove him on to the zealot's great error of believing that ends justified the means.

A.T. YARWOOD

**Further reading** A.T. Yarwood, *Samuel Marsden: the great survivor*, Melbourne 1977.





Parramatta, 1838, watercolour by Conrad Martens. The female factory, centre, was not as isolated from the town as policy makers often wished. A steam ferry to Sydney plies the Parramatta River, left foreground.

DIXSON LIBRARY

**MARSHALL, Alan** (1902–84), was born at Noorat, Vic. From the age of six his legs were crippled from infantile paralysis. While attending business college and working as an accountant in Melbourne he wrote short stories. As a freelance journalist from 1935 he wrote columns in the *Argus* newspaper and *Woman*, and his short stories were published in such magazines as the *Bulletin* and *Meanjin*. His autobiographical novel *I can jump puddles* (1955) has sold more than three million copies in Australia and overseas and was produced as a film in Czechoslovakia in 1970 and as a television series in Australia in 1981. **PATRICIA HOLT**

**MARTENS, Conrad** (1801–78), artist, joined the *Beagle* voyage in about 1832, an experience which sharpened his awareness of factual topography. He sailed to Australia in 1835 and made sketching expeditions to the Illawarra, the Blue Mountains and Broken Bay. In Sydney he taught painting and drawing, produced lithographic views of Sydney and painted pictures of the houses of wealthy landowners. His special subject however was Sydney Harbour, a theme which occupied him for 35 years.

**MARTIN, Sir James** (1820–86), politician and chief justice, came to Sydney from Ireland in 1821. He worked as a journalist and later editor on various local periodicals, becoming involved with constitutional and social issues. In 1845 he was admitted as a solicitor and in 1857 was made a QC. A highly successful lawyer, he was member for Cook & Westmoreland in

the legislative council in 1848–56, when he was active in promoting legislation, constitution making and reform of the city corporation. He entered the legislative assembly in 1856, representing a number of seats until 1872. He served three periods as premier and attorney-general, in 1863–65, 1866–68 and 1870–72. In 1866 he supported Henry Parkes in the introduction of the Public Schools Act. From 1873–86 Martin held the position of chief justice. Sydney's Martin Place is named after him.

'**MARVELLOUS MELBOURNE**' was a phrase first used as the title of an article by journalist George Augustus Sala in the *Argus* of 8 August 1885, which was then adopted by many contemporaries and historians to describe the Melbourne land and building boom of the 1880s. Signs of progress and prosperity, such as the introduction of cable trams in 1885, the completion of the Princes Bridge in 1888, and the erection of many magnificently ornate public buildings, banks and churches, gave immense civic pride to the denizens of Melbourne, which by the 1880s was Australia's largest city and about the 30th largest in the world. Primitive sanitation, however, led the *Bulletin* to dub the city 'Marvellous Smelbourne', while the collapse of the land boom in 1889 and the banking crisis of 1893 slowed growth considerably, until by 1901 it was eclipsed in population by Sydney.

**Further reading** G. Davison, *The rise and fall of Marvellous Melbourne*, Melbourne 1978.



**MAWSON, Sir Douglas** (1882–1958), scientist and explorer, was born in England and in 1884 the family migrated to Sydney. Mawson attended Fort Street Boys' High School and the University of Sydney, taking degrees in engineering and geology. In 1903 he made the first geological survey of the New Hebrides, now Vanuatu, before taking a post at the University of Adelaide as lecturer.

In 1907 Mawson joined Ernest Shackleton's expedition to Antarctica. He was among the first to climb Mt Erebus, and was also in the party which attempted to locate the South Magnetic Pole. Mawson was concerned that British expeditions had ignored that part of Antarctica known as Adelie Land, which lay directly south of Australia and New Zealand, and he organised the Australasian expedition which explored Adelie Land in the summer of 1911–12. It was an ambitious expedition with three separate base camps: at Macquarie Island, Commonwealth Bay, and on the Shackleton Ice Shelf. Mawson led the party which travelled furthest into the interior, over 500 kilometres from base. But the death of Lt Belgrave Ninnis and the loss of the party's supplies forced Mawson and his remaining companion, Xavier Mertz, to turn back. On the way, Mertz died. Mawson's *The home of the blizzard* gives an account of his lonely struggle back to base.

Mawson returned to Australia in February 1914 and married Paquita Delprat soon after. He was knighted by George V in London in June 1914. In the summers of 1929, 1930 and 1931 Mawson led the British Australian New Zealand Antarctic Research Expedition (BANZARE), which mapped the entire Indian-Pacific ocean coastline of Antarctica and claimed territory for the British crown. This expedition laid the basis for Australia's claims in Antarctica.

In later life, Mawson was active in maintaining Australian interest in the continent. He helped set up the Australian National Antarctic Research Expedition which now maintains bases in the Australian Antarctic Territory.

SUSAN McKERNAN

**Further reading** P. Mawson, *Mawson of the Antarctic: the life of Sir Douglas Mawson*, London 1964.

**MAY, Philip William** (1864–1903), a prominent English black and white artist, spent 1886–89 in Australia working for the *Sydney Bulletin*, for which he produced about 800 drawings. His artistic style developed appreciably in Australia, helped by the challenge of poor printing facilities at the *Bulletin*. He later joined London *Punch*, becoming its chief cartoonist. His best Australian works include caricatures of local politicians such as Henry Parkes and a series of social types, 'Things We See When We Go Out without our Gun'. Among his many books of drawings was the posthumous *Phil May in Australia* (1904).

**MAYO, Lilian Daphne** (1895–), sculptor, studied at Sydney Art School under Julian Ashton in 1915 before travelling to Europe to specialise in sculpture at the Royal Academy, London. She returned to Brisbane in 1925 and became a key figure in art development in Qld and the most eminent woman sculptor of her

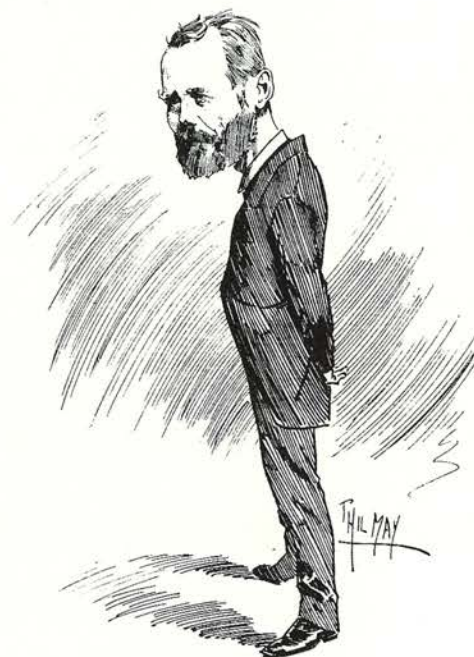
generation in Australia. Among her most notable works are *The Olympian* in the National Gallery of Vic, and the large carved panel above the entrance to Brisbane Town Hall.

**MEANJIN**, for much of its history *Meanjin quarterly*, was founded in 1940 by C.B. Christesen, who remained editor until 1974. Christesen assiduously promoted Australian literature, and generally encouraged a radical nationalist stance in discussing cultural questions, though he also published notable international writers. With modifications, his successors have followed in his footsteps. In 1945 the journal moved from Brisbane to the University of Melbourne, with which it is still associated.

JIM DAVIDSON

**MECHANICS' INSTITUTES**, also called schools of art and literary institutes, were local voluntary, state-aided bodies created from the late 1820s to better the education of workingmen and improve their skills. By the 1880s most Australian suburbs and country towns boasted an institute, usually providing a library and reading room, and sometimes incorporating a museum, art gallery and lecture hall. By the 1890s the movement was in decay, although many institutes became the nuclei of larger technical and adult education enterprises and municipal free libraries, while the bulk of others were adopted for community recreational use.

F.B. SMITH



One of Australia's best caricaturists and black and white artists, Phil May helped establish the *Bulletin's* ascendancy. This cartoon is of David Syme (1827–1908), partner in the family company which established the Melbourne newspaper the *Age* in 1854. *Bulletin*, 9 Feb 1889.



**MEDIBANK and MEDICARE** Medibank was a health insurance scheme implemented by the Whitlam government in 1975 to provide financial support for the basic cost of community health care, and was funded from consolidated revenue. In accordance with Labor social policy, all citizens were fully covered for standard medical and hospital care provided the doctor agreed to send all bills to a government agency—the practice known as direct or bulk billing. Alternatively, a patient charged by a doctor paid 15 per cent or a maximum cost of \$5 for any service charged at the schedule fee. Standard hospital care was free.

Following the election of a coalition government in December 1975, the scheme was restructured to abolish bulk billing for all except pensioners and the 'socially disadvantaged', to reduce medical benefits from 85 to 75 per cent of the schedule fee and to increase the maximum patient contribution for each schedule service from \$5 to \$10. Medibank was terminated in 1978.

Medicare has operated since 1 February 1984 when the Hawke government reintroduced a national health insurance scheme, financed by a levy of 1 per cent on all taxable incomes, with the exception of low income earners, and with a maximum levy of \$13.46 weekly. Payment of medical benefits and standard hospital care followed the Medibank arrangements, with the maximum cost to the patient being \$10 for any service charged at the schedule fee.

**MEDICAL PROFESSION** The profession comprises formally qualified practitioners enabled by imperial legislation—notably the acts of 1858, 1868 and 1886—and colonial and state legislation—for example, the Victorian acts of 1865, 1890, 1915 and 1958—to register to perform surgery, administer drugs, treat sexually transmitted diseases, practise in public hospitals, administer anaesthetics, sign death certificates and act according to their judgment and the judgment of their peers in matters relating to diagnosis and treatment of illness, disability and injury across the life cycle. The profession enjoins fee for service and registered practitioners can sue for payment.

The state has made the profession autarkic by legislative enactment. More than any other privileged group, the faculty holds and jealously defends its powers to control its educational and entry standards and, except in cases of negligence and alcoholism, to discipline members for 'infamous conduct' independently of the courts or other lay interests. The profession's autonomy is reinforced by high incomes and the public esteem its members have enjoyed, particularly since the rise of curative, preventive medicine after 1890. Asepsis, safe anaesthesia, radiology, diagnostic and conservative surgical procedures, vaccines, antibiotics and chemotherapy have fortified practitioners with esoteric technical resources and proven healing regimens. Australian medicine is highly proficient in a society which traditionally has been prepared to pay well for it.

Before 1890 a more inclusive craft accommodated a few notable surgeons and physicians, sanitarians and

epidemiologists, but generally medical men were dubiously educated, poorly equipped and frequently unreliable and querulous. They purveyed erratic palliatives and desperate procedures to an often sceptical public. Their one glorious achievement was to take a main part in securing clean water supplies, effective waste disposal, safe food standards, quarantine and other fundamental provisions for good public health.

The subsequent technical advances have underpinned the evolution since the 1920s of highly differentiated specialisms, although Australia has remained unusual in preserving a strong corps of general practitioners who treat patients in the first instance. Australia was also unusual in retaining a single register and loose demarcations between general practitioners and specialists. The former, in rural areas especially, retain a conventional right to perform specialised surgical and medical procedures in public hospitals. Specialists, particularly since the 1970s when governments enlarged differential subsidies for patients' fees, have required formal postgraduate qualifications to achieve recognition, and may by convention only treat patients referred to them by general practitioners.

The profession's educational pattern and style developed along British lines. Until about 1920 a group of doctors from the United Kingdom were dominant. The tone and curricula of Melbourne University Medical School (1862) and the schools which followed it (Sydney 1883; Adelaide 1885; WA 1957; QLD 1961; NSW 1961; Monash 1961; Tas 1965; Flinders 1975; Newcastle 1978 and the School of Medical Research at the Australian National University 1948) were strongly influenced by British precedents and exchanges. British ways have also been perpetuated by Australian doctors' preference, until very recently, for pursuing their postgraduate studies almost exclusively in Britain. The Britishness of the profession was also protected by the reciprocity rules which made admission difficult for practitioners from nations outside the British commonwealth which did not and often do not recognise Australian registration.

The vigorous tradition of independence and fee for service has kept the profession in tension with governments which underwrite from taxation medical education, doctors' fees, and the provision of drugs, services and hospitals. The Australian Medical Association (1962; before then the British Medical Association) has been effective in defending its members' incomes, status and power to direct the allocation of public medical resources. Since the 1970s, however, the AMA has lost its near universal coverage of the profession. It has been variously challenged by the burgeoning colleges and associations representing increasingly narrow and newly emerging specialisms, by the growth of a publicly employed research, teaching and general practice less concerned with fee for service, and by the development of articulate, informed lay organisations critical of the profession's claims to dominate the management of illness and disability.

F.B. SMITH





True romance flourishes under medical sponsorship as public health campaigners try to compete with smoking advertisements.

NSW CANCER COUNCIL

**MEDICINE AND HEALTH** In terms of western medicine, the first century of Australian history is the story of the adaptation of an evolving society to a new physical environment. A gradual change occurred from a youthful and predominantly male population to the European norms of age and sex distribution by about 1900, a trend reflected in changing patterns of morbidity and mortality, especially from infectious diseases. During the twentieth century Australia's medical history is similar to that of other developed countries, with a few characteristic adaptations conditioned by isolation and distance, such as the flying doctor services. Since World War II medical practice and the provision of health care have been influenced by a series of commonwealth health benefit schemes which have tended to reflect political pragmatism rather than objective appraisal of community health and medical needs and the most cost-effective means of paying for them. In common with other countries, there has also emerged greater emphasis on the promotion of personal health as well as occupational health and safety.

The first settlement at Sydney Cove, as with many subsequent settlements in remote areas, survived initial epidemics of scurvy and dysentery, only to be threatened with starvation. Nonetheless, mortality

remained low, except for deaths attributable to harsh conditions on the second fleet (1790), until 1791–92, when a large number of third fleet arrivals died in an alarming epidemic of uncertain cause. A relatively low infant mortality rate and a reasonably high birth rate, with only a few gastrointestinal infections and trauma as major causes of death, allowed effective population growth over the next decades. This growth was augmented by continuing convict shipments and some free settlers.

The common infectious diseases, such as diphtheria, whooping cough, measles, scarlet fever, chicken pox and perhaps even influenza, did not survive the long voyage to the colonies until about 1830, after which their entry was facilitated by crowded emigrant ships. Thereafter they wrought havoc whenever they were reintroduced or whenever a sufficiency of susceptible subjects allowed them to assume epidemic proportions. As they became endemic towards the turn of the century they caused death less frequently.

Rubella exemplifies the behaviour of the infectious diseases in a remarkable way. Although it may have arrived during the gold rushes, it did not survive locally, so that whenever it was introduced it would affect not only children but also adults, who had not been exposed to infection in childhood. Some of the adults would be female and pregnant, and so it became evident by about 1920 that congenital deaf-mutism tended to occur in unexplained 'epidemics'. The direct association between maternal rubella infection in early pregnancy and a variety of congenital disorders was first recognised in Australia in the 1940s and 1950s, an association difficult to identify in any country in which the disease was constantly present.

Tuberculosis followed a course determined by demographic factors. The high birth rate of the goldfields era meant that by the 1870s a large proportion of the population was in an age group particularly susceptible to the disease. Mortality and morbidity peaked accordingly, but declined as the age structure of the population matured, and continued to do so until effective chemotherapy was introduced around 1950. 'Miners' phthisis' was recognised by 1900 and led to significant Australian research on occupational lung diseases over the next few decades.

Typhoid fever, dysentery and gastroenteritis caused much sickness, especially in crowded communities with primitive sanitation and water supplies, both on the goldfields and in the towns as the urban drift of the population developed. The decline of these gastrointestinal diseases, which began about the turn of the century, was due not only to improved sanitation and better supplies of water, milk and fresh food, but also to public education in personal and domestic hygiene and the teaching of hygiene in schools. Emphasis on breastfeeding and improvements in artificial infant foods were associated with a fall in infant mortality, especially from gastroenteritis or 'infantile diarrhoea'. By this time medical and scientific societies and journals were established, so that local medical problems were identified and discussed.



From the mid-nineteenth century medicine and science influenced, but rarely determined, many public health measures (for example, quarantine, notification of infectious diseases, sewage disposal, replacement of lead piping for domestic water, purity of foods, control of noxious trades and, to a lesser extent, working conditions for women and children and living conditions in slums), but it cannot be said that either had a direct or specific effect on morbidity or mortality, despite major advances in knowledge in these areas. Vaccination against smallpox, compulsory in some states only, exerted little influence in Australia on the limited outbreaks of this serious disease. Diphtheria antitoxin, in use by 1900, was invaluable in individual cases but did not demonstrably accelerate the already declining death rate. Later, mass immunisation against this and other diseases, such as poliomyelitis and whooping cough, was clearly beneficial. Antiseptic or aseptic surgery improved the outlook in accidental injuries, such as compound fractures, and anaesthesia allowed extension of the scope of surgery. Although these advances saved many individual lives, their benefit was probably more manifest in an improved quality of life for those with surgically remediable disorders than in any overall improvement in life expectancy.

Neither can the changing pattern of morbidity and mortality be related to changes in the availability of effective medical care, although local hospitals proliferated widely in the latter half of the nineteenth century. Medical fees remained remarkably constant for a century, and friendly societies increasingly offered medical and pharmaceutical benefits to the working classes at minimal cost. The Australian general practitioner became self-reliant and independent, with a pride in his general competence. This trend was encouraged by the education offered at the first medical schools (Melbourne University in 1862 and Sydney University two decades later). Partly as a result, the development of specialisation was slow, beginning with obstetrics, gynaecology and paediatrics. Although colleges began to emerge before 1939, a fully established system of postgraduate education and specialty recognition was essentially a postwar development, beginning with a transient phase in which basic specialist training was undertaken overseas.

Contemporary problems of health and disease are essentially those of most developed countries with an ageing population, diminished employment opportunities for youth and a hedonistic tendency. The old are plagued by incurable degenerative diseases, the young by motor accidents, psychological disturbances and sporting injuries, and the whole community by the inability to cope with its increasing leisure time. On the benefit side, the infectious diseases, including tuberculosis, are largely controlled by case detection, effective antibiotic therapy and mass immunisation, although public complacency could easily undermine this control. Other infective disorders, serious although numerically less significant, are emerging, especially in people whose immune

defence mechanisms are impaired, such as those suffering from AIDS, or requiring chemotherapy for cancer and other disorders. Addiction to drugs, including tobacco and alcohol, pose problems as to how effectively legislation or health promotion programs may influence individual lifestyles. Occupational health and safety is belatedly receiving federal and state sponsorship, although more in response to sociopolitical influences than medical and scientific advances; paradoxically, a commonwealth unit doing excellent work in this area in the 1920s was a casualty of the Depression years.

In the medical and surgical specialties progress in Australia has been abreast of that in other developed countries, occasionally ahead or lagging in individual fields. Hospital resources, in terms of personnel and equipment, achieved a high standard, even in peripheral regions, in a rapid postwar evolution extending into the 1970s, but the full impact of the recession, of changing governmental approaches to funding, and of growing professional dissatisfaction with conditions of hospital practice has yet to be felt. Similar concerns apply to the medical schools, now numbering ten, after their rapid growth from the 1960s.

Medical research, in any continuing organised form, was negligible until the National Health and Medical Research Council received improved funding in the 1950s, by which time university and hospital departments had acquired appropriate expertise and facilities. There were exceptions, perhaps most notably at the Walter & Eliza Hall Institute, Melbourne, and work in neurophysiology and immunology rapidly gained international acceptance. In clinical medicine there were many outstanding individual contributions, for example in relation to mucoviscidosis, retrolental fibroplasia, poliomyelitis and congenital deformities. The surgeon-naturalists of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries also extended knowledge in a variety of fields by their spare-time studies. World War II was not only a stimulus to research in selected areas such as malariology and blood transfusion, but also led many young doctors to include research in their concept of a future career. Again, growth in governmental support up to the mid-1970s has not continued, and current expenditure on medical research per head of population is less than in almost all of the other developed countries.

A uniquely Australian problem is provided by the unsatisfactory morbidity and mortality data for Aborigines scattered throughout the continent. The indigenous population suffered severely from the invasion of the Europeans with their new diseases and their lack of appreciation of the culture of the Aborigines and its significance to Aboriginal survival. The solutions are primarily related to social issues, but there are some encouraging efforts to integrate the differing cultural concepts of therapy and prevention, and to help Aborigines to develop and conduct their own health programs, an approach more likely to succeed than any paternalistic or authoritarian efforts.

BRYAN GANDEVIA



**Further reading** B. Gandevia, 'The role of medical history in young and developing countries, illustrated by Australian experience', in E. Clarke (ed), *Modern methods in the history of medicine*, London 1971; D. Gordon, *Health, sickness and society*, St Lucia 1976.

**MELBA**, Dame Nellie (1861–1931), singer, was born Helen Porter Mitchell at Richmond, Vic. Educated at Presbyterian Ladies' College, Melbourne, she took singing lessons from Pietro Cecchi.

In 1886 Melba went to London, but it was in Paris that she became a pupil of the celebrated Mathilde Marchesi, and in Brussels that she made her stage debut in 1887. London remained indifferent to her until she conquered Covent Garden with *Roméo et Juliette* in 1889. Thereafter it remained her focal point, even though some of her greatest triumphs were at the Metropolitan Opera, New York. She sang at Covent Garden every year till 1909, and was given her own locked dressing room. A woman of great bearing, application, business acumen and spirit, made more legendary by an affair with the Duke of Orléans, Melba came to personify the apogee of opera. She bade Covent Garden farewell in 1926, but continued to sing intermittently up to her death in 1931.

Melba returned to Australia in 1902, and again in 1909: building Coombe Cottage, near Lilydale, she

thereafter spent more time here dispensing charity, teaching at the Melbourne Conservatorium, and encouraging protégées—while at the same time stating that hers was the kind of voice that came along only once a century. In fact critics were divided on its exceptional quality: all acknowledged its crystal purity and strength, but some found refinement lacking, and her acting unremarkable. Her repertoire was undeniably small. Nevertheless she was held in awe: in Australia as one who had taken the name of her city and made it famous, while in Britain she was awarded a DBE (1918) and a GBE (1927). JIM DAVIDSON

**Further reading** J. Hetherington, *Melba*, Melbourne 1967.

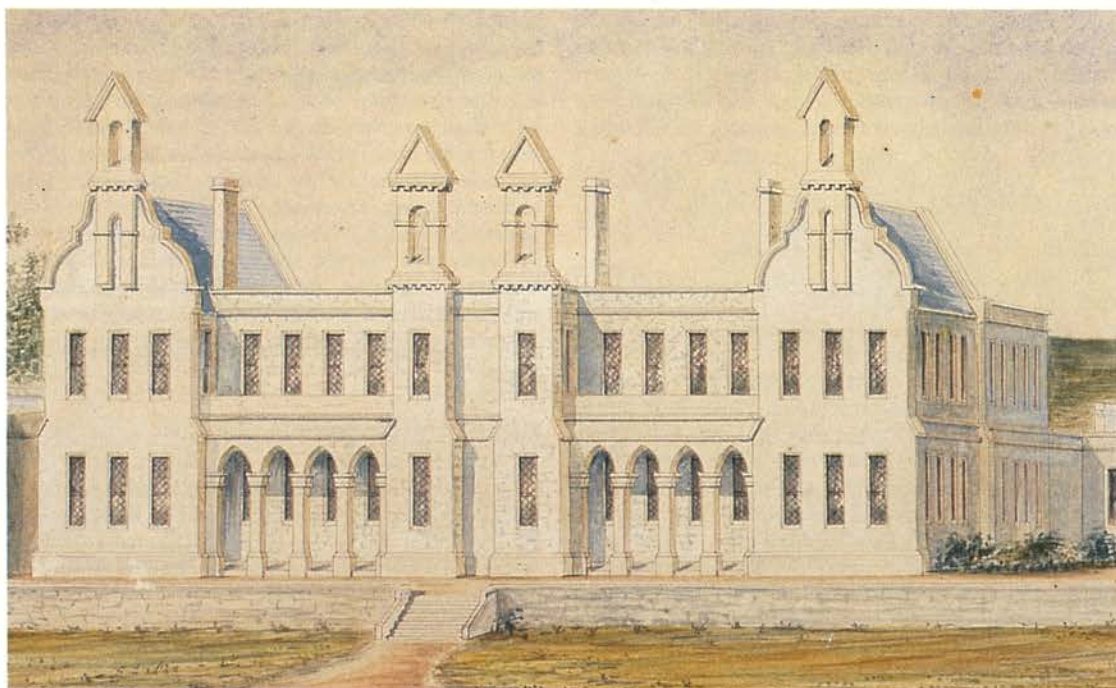
**MELBOURNE CUP** First run in 1861 and won for the first two years by a Sydney horse, Archer, the Melbourne Cup created intense intercolonial rivalry and quickly overshadowed Sydney's leading races. By the 1880s the two-mile race attracted crowds of 100 000 to Flemington racecourse, having established itself as Australia's and one of the world's leading handicap races. Other great winners have included Carbine (1890), carrying 67 kilograms, Phar Lap (1930), Peter Pan (1932 and 1934), Rain Lover (1968 and 1969) and Think Big (1974 and 1975).



Postcard c1900, printed by English art publishers Raphael Tuck and Sons. The card describes the Melbourne Cup as 'the most popular racing event in Australia, held at Flemington, near Melbourne. It is attended by people from the Colonies and from all parts of the world. The event depicted is a large sweepstake, whilst other stakes make the event of great importance. The race takes place in the early part of November, which is the summer season in Australia.'

NATIONAL MUSEUM OF AUSTRALIA





The new lunatic asylum, and invalid depot, Fremantle, West. Australia, 1866. *Reproduction of pen and ink watercolour by Thomas Henry Johnson Browne, watercolourist, architect and surveyor.*

MITCHELL LIBRARY

**MENTAL ILLNESS** is a term encompassing a range of psychological disorders varying in severity and affecting people's ability to think, relate, feel and desire. Australia's mentally ill were at first confined in convict prisons. The earliest separate institution, or 'asylum', opened in a makeshift building at Castle Hill, near Parramatta, in 1811. It was moved into a former courthouse at Liverpool in 1825, and then, in 1838, into specially built accommodation at Tarban Creek, where it later developed into the Gladesville hospital. The Lachlan Park hospital at New Norfolk, near Hobart, founded in 1829, was the first mental institution outside Sydney. It survives as Australia's oldest hospital for the mentally ill. Further asylums opened as population grew.

The term 'asylum' suggested more humane treatment of the mentally ill, but mental illness continued bringing stigma upon both the mentally ill and their families. 'Asylum' itself implied that the mentally ill should be locked away for both their own and society's protection. Legislative terminology reinforced popular stereotypes: between the late 1890s and early 1930s the states passed various 'lunacy' and 'mental defectives' acts, which became the basis for dealing with the mentally ill. As psychiatric science developed, however, community awareness of mental illness increased and public attitudes changed. Semantics in relation to such institutions became important, reflecting the changes: asylums were renamed 'mental hospitals', then 'psychiatric hospitals' and finally simply 'hospitals'.

Therapies, too, changed, particularly after World War II. The introduction of powerful, long-acting antidepressant and tranquilising drugs, together with refinements in electro-convulsive ('shock') therapy and psycho-surgery, enabled psychiatrists to treat various psychoses. The development of behavioural therapies, for example teaching patients to relax and objectify their problems, and new techniques in psychotherapy, talking with patients individually and in groups, were complemented by an increasing emphasis on social treatment, through bodies such as self-help groups for the mentally ill and their relatives. An important result of changing therapies was a swing away from custodial care in huge mental hospitals, many holding 1500 or more patients, towards 'outwards'-oriented rehabilitation centres, sheltered workshops, half-way houses, and hostels to help patients re-enter the community.

**MENZIES, Sir Robert Gordon** (1894–1978), politician and barrister, was born at Jeparit, in western Vic, third son of James Menzies and his wife Kate, nee Sampson. His father, a storekeeper in the town, was member for Lowan, in the Victorian Legislative Assembly, between 1911 and 1920. One uncle also served in the same house and another in the federal House of Representatives. R.G. Menzies thus grew up well accustomed to political talk. Educated first at Jeparit and Ballarat, he went as a scholarship boy to Wesley College when the family moved to East Melbourne in 1909. At the Senior Public Examination in



1912 Menzies topped the state in English language and literature, won a Government Exhibition and moved on to the study of law at the University of Melbourne. In 1916 he graduated LLB with first class honours. While at the university he was prominent in student politics and edited the *Melbourne University magazine*.

Menzies was admitted to the Vic Bar in 1918 and became the first pupil of Sir Owen Dixon. Brilliant success in 1920 as counsel before the high court in the engineers' case put him almost at once in the front rank of Australian constitutional lawyers. He quickly built up a substantial junior practice, and was also in demand as a public speaker on political topics and as occasional lay preacher. In 1920 he married Pattie Leckie, daughter of J.W. Leckie, a businessman who subsequently became a federal senator.

In 1928 Menzies entered the Vic Legislative Council as a member of the Nationalist party and one of a group of younger men who were critical of the party's lacklustre leadership and anxious to see it formulate clear conservative doctrines. Within a few months, at the age of 33, he was made honorary minister in the McPherson government. But he shortly resigned in disagreement with a cabinet decision to subsidise co-operative country freezing works. Taking silk in February 1929 he became the youngest KC in the country. When the Hogan Labor government fell in 1932 and the United Australia Party (UAP, ex-Nationalist) and the Country party formed a coalition cabinet under Sir Stanley Argyle, Menzies became minister for railways, attorney-general and solicitor-general. It was a meteoric rise and few disputed the judgment of Frederic Eggleston, that 'Menzies is by far the ablest man who has come into politics for the last twenty years'.

In 1934 the prime minister, Joseph Lyons, invited Menzies to move to the federal parliament by standing for the safe UAP seat of Kooyong, vacated when Sir John Latham retired to become chief justice. Menzies joined the cabinet as attorney-general, became deputy leader and Lyons's choice as successor. Tensions with the UAP, however, clouded that issue and when Lyons died suddenly in April 1939 the party was leaderless, Menzies having earlier resigned his portfolio and the deputy leadership over a cabinet decision to defer implementation of a National Insurance Act. In a vicious personal attack, Earle Page, leader of the Country party, declared Menzies unacceptable as prime minister because he lacked leadership qualities needed to rally a nation facing the possibility of war. Elected UAP leader nevertheless, Menzies was prime minister when war broke out. Labor rejected overtures from him for a national government; internal animosities within the coalition parties continued, and elections in 1940 brought Labor gains which left the government's majority at the mercy of two Independents. Intrigue against Menzies became intense in 1941 while he was away in London discussing policy with the British government, and in August he resigned as the prime minister. Arthur Fadden of the Country party succeeded him briefly but the Independents combined with

Labor to defeat the government when it brought down a budget, and John Curtin was commissioned to form a Labor government. Menzies stood down as UAP leader and the erstwhile government parties, now in opposition, reflected their demoralisation by jointly choosing as leader the 77-year-old W.M. Hughes.

Menzies' recovery in opposition in the eight years that followed is one of the remarkable success stories of Australian political history. In 1943 he regained UAP leadership and in 1944-45 was chief architect of a new party constructed on the ruins of the old. This was the Liberal party which, unlike its predecessor, had a genuine party machine, a mass membership, a regular income to cushion it from sectional pressures, and a coherent anti-socialist doctrine. Championing what Menzies called 'the forgotten people' (meaning the middle class) and urging 'the fullest development of individual capacity' the Liberals, after modest gains in the general election of 1946, decisively won that of 1949. A House of Representatives enlarged by the Labor government (from 75 to 120 members) had offered new marginal seats to be won, and in an atmosphere heated by Chifley's attempt to nationalise the banks and stirred by widespread resentment of controls and shortages the Liberals campaigned with notable effect against 'socialism' and bureaucracy. Menzies formed, with the Country party, a coalition government and began a record sixteen years as prime minister.

The period between 1950 and 1966—sometimes called the Menzies era—was for Australia a time of economic expansion, when prosperity seemed to give Menzies comfortable power: as Donald Horne observed him, 'his great talent is to preside over events and look as if he knows what they are all about'. In fact ascendancy was at times precarious: Labor came close to winning the election of 1954 and the government emerged from that of 1961 with a majority of only one. Other setbacks included defeat, in the high court and a referendum, of attempts in the early 1950s to dissolve the Communist party, though in the Cold War atmosphere Menzies ruthlessly used anti-communism as an electoral weapon and in the elections of 1955 and 1958 the Labor schism over communism proved an extra bonus.

By common consent Menzies' most enduring achievements in these years were the development of Canberra as a handsome national capital and the use of federal power and resources to improve the educational system, first in the universities and then in the secondary schools. Though often extravagant in his reverence for Britain and his protestations of loyalty to the monarchy, Menzies cultivated the United States as the 'powerful friend' most likely to provide protection for Australia in the Asian region, to the extent, finally, of assisting actively in the Vietnam War. In commonwealth affairs he became the elder statesman, though increasingly out of sympathy with the new nationalisms created by postwar decolonisation. Ancient imperial honours delighted him: the Queen's award of the Knighthood of the Order of the



Thistle (1963) was capped when he was made successor to Churchill as Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports (1965).

Menzies was large-framed and handsome, with a ready wit and a superb command of language. Though in his earlier career abrasive and impatient of intellectually lesser mortals, he mellowed greatly in time and could be as much an avuncular as an imperious figure. He had a great capacity to listen and to grasp the crux of an issue quickly. 'Like a cricketer who has done hours of hard preparatory work at the nets', writes Sir Paul Hasluck, 'he could make the single flashing stroke in an instant'. Hasluck, who knew Menzies closely, has also written:

I think the sort of tribute he would have appreciated most would not have been praise of his great talents or a recital of what he had accomplished but rather a statement that he was a man of character, honourable in conduct and decent in behaviour. He was that and I offer the tribute.

Menzies retired from politics in 1966, at the peak of his power. He died in Melbourne in 1978.

A.W. MARTIN



Prime Minister Menzies derived significant electoral support from royal visits. He is photographed here with Queen Elizabeth II on her first royal tour of Australia in 1954. The royal tour of Australia and New Zealand 1953-54, Sydney 1954.

**MERCURY (HOBART)** In 1845 John Davies acquired the *Guardian* newspaper which he remodelled and published as the *Hobarton Mercury*. The paper began as a bi-weekly, became a tri-weekly in 1858 and a daily in 1860. Over the years it absorbed a number of newspapers and 'Hobarton' was dropped from the title. The *Mercury* remains under the control of the Davies family, although the Herald and Weekly Times group owns a substantial number of ordinary shares in the company, Davies Brothers Ltd.

The *Mercury*, a broadsheet published every morning except Sunday, is Hobart's only daily newspaper. Its September 1985 circulation was 54 789.

**MEREDITH, Louisa Anne** (1812-95), writer, left Birmingham and travelled to Sydney in 1839 with her husband Charles Meredith who later became a politician. Her first book had been published in 1832 and she continued to work and draw throughout her life. *Notes and sketches of New South Wales* (1844), written after the Merediths' move to Tas, showed her to be a shrewd observer of both domestic and natural environments. She produced further books of a similar kind, seven volumes of poetry and some fiction. She illustrated some of her own books and her wildflower drawings won medals in local and overseas exhibitions. She also studied the plants, insects, seaweeds and fish of Tas's east coast. In 1884 the Tas government granted Meredith a pension of £100 for literary and artistic services to the colony.

**METHODIST CHURCH** Methodism began in 1729 as an evangelistic preaching movement under the guidance of its founders John and Charles Wesley. In Australia the Wesleyan Methodist Church, the dominant form of nineteenth-century Methodism, was the first to become established. Lay meetings were held in Sydney and Windsor in 1812 and in 1815 the Reverend Samuel Leigh arrived in Sydney under the sponsorship of the British Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society. The first chapel was built in 1817 at Castlereagh.

Until 1855 the Australian Methodists came under the administration of the Wesleyan Missionary Society. A lack of direction and leadership in the early nineteenth century was compensated in part by an enthusiastic lay contribution. The church advanced quickly with the influx of settlers in the 1830s and 1840s. In NSW circuits were established at Sydney, Parramatta, Windsor, Bathurst, Maitland, Camden, Goulburn and the south coast.

Beginning with the gold rushes of the 1850s, the church achieved much success in the mining fields, where the flexible circuit system together with strong lay involvement gave it the mobility that the other major denominations lacked. The church's adherents grew substantially in the latter half of the nineteenth century, from 5.6 per cent of the population in 1851 to a peak of 13.4 per cent in 1901.

In 1855 the first Australian conference was held, marking the transition to independence.

A number of minor Methodist churches also became established in Australia. The Primitive



Methodist Church conducted its first service in SA in 1840. It had spread throughout the eastern states by the 1860s. The Bible Christians, established in Adelaide in 1850, were particularly strong in mining centres, among the Cornish miners of Burra, and at Kapunda and Moonta. The Methodist New Connexion and United Methodists Free Churches made only a minor impact in Australia. By 1902 the union of all branches of Methodism in all states had been achieved.

The church's emphasis on social ethics, its opposition to gambling and drinking, and its strong sabbatarianism, have often led to charges of wowsersism. More positively, this emphasis has led to a strong involvement in social work. Central missions have been established in major cities which oversee a wide range of social services.

In 1977 the Uniting Church of Australia was formed, bringing together Methodist, Congregational and Presbyterian congregations. Almost 85 per cent of Methodists voted in favour of union. There are a small number of Continuing Methodist churches.

**METRICATION** Australia's first federal parliament (1901–03) resolved that the metric system of measurement be adopted throughout the British Empire, but the idea lapsed when it was not supported by Britain. The issue was raised from time to time over the years but nothing happened until Britain decided to go metric in 1965, a decision never fully implemented. A Senate select committee established as a result, concluded in 1968 that Australia should adopt the International System of Units (ISU) refinement of the metric system as soon as possible to enable Australian industry and consumers to benefit from the resultant standardisation with most of the world, especially Europe and Japan. The Metric Conversion Act was passed in May 1970 and the Metric Conversion Board was established in July 1970. All major aspects of the conversion program had been initiated by 1976. The board was disbanded in 1981, its job virtually completed.

**MIGRATION WITHIN AUSTRALIA** Internal migration—movement between communities such as cities and towns—is often thought to be a modern phenomenon, but even in colonial times people in Australia displayed a marked tendency to rove. Gold discoveries, the establishment of new towns, the opening of agricultural lands, together with economic changes in the cities and the countryside, all contributed to large-scale population shifts within a continent whose potential for development was being explored.

During the second half of the nineteenth century gold discoveries sparked off a succession of migrations within Australia, the largest of which were to central Vic in the 1850s and to Kalgoorlie in the 1890s. Where gold production endured, economic development and urbanisation transformed initial influxes of gold-hungry men into family migrations, and occupations rapidly diversified away from a specialisation in mining.

As early as the 1880s it was clear that internal migration was typically a two-way process, with often similar numbers moving in opposite directions. Indeed the long lamented 'rural exodus' in Australia has been, and remains, a small net shift compared with the volume of people moving in both directions between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. Episodes of heightened net migration have principally resulted from the exploitation of new resources, such as during the gold rushes and the 1960s minerals boom.

Each year in contemporary Australia between 15 and 17 per cent of the total population change their usual place of residence by moving within or between communities. This level of mobility is comparable with that for western Europe and north America. Characteristics of industrialised societies foster population mobility, but not endlessly: population mobility in Australia has remained at a high and reasonably stable level from the time when official statistics on internal migration were first collected in 1970.

D.T. ROWLAND

**Further reading** D.T. Rowland, *Internal migration in Australia*, Canberra 1979; D.T. Rowland and L.B.B. Mikkelsen, 'Australian internal migration: source materials and trends', in C.A. Price (ed), *Australian immigration: a bibliography and digest*, 4, 1979, A106–A144.

**MINERS' RIGHT** is the basic instrument for the regulation of prospecting and mining in Australia. First introduced in Vic in June 1855, after long-standing hostility to the licence system had culminated in the Eureka rebellion in December 1854, it gave the digger, for annual payment of £1, a legal right to his claim and enabled him to vote. Later it was introduced throughout Australia, where it still entitles the holder, subject to certain restrictions, to search for and mine minerals on crown lands.

**MINING** Australia is well endowed with mineral resources. Since the discovery of coal in 1796 near Newcastle, copper in 1842 at Kapunda, and gold in 1851 near Bathurst, the history of Australian mining has been continuous and varied, with important effects on the economy, labour relations, immigration and race relations, education and technology. In the nineteenth century men searched for signs of gold, silver and copper, but in the twentieth century company geologists are just as concerned with base metals—lead, zinc and iron—and the 'modern' metals of bauxite (the source of aluminium), uranium, nickel and rutile (the source of titanium). Discoveries have tended to come in clusters, and have often rescued the economy from depression.

Gold transformed the colony of Vic in the 1850s. It increased the colony's population by a staggering 600 per cent during the decade, infused the society with new energy, skills and optimism, and acted as a powerful engine of growth. Gold also attracted thousands of young men to NSW and Qld in the 1870s and 1880s, and stimulated the development of railways, shipping, ports and manufacturing industry. At a





Iron-ore mine, Mount Newman, WA. The company railway in the foreground connects the mine with Port Hedland, over 400 km to the north. Photograph by Mike Brown, 1982.

AUSTRALIAN INFORMATION SERVICE

time when Australia was becoming a big man's economy, small claim mining fostered individualism and a levelling democracy. According to Geoffrey Blainey:

This was one of the rare instances in the history of any land when a rich natural resource was made available to everybody—old colonist or new chum, labourer or gentleman, scholar or illiterate. (*The Blainey view*, Melbourne 1982, 139.)

Less attractive attitudes also flourished in the frenzy of the rushes. Sluicing, sinking shafts and cutting down nearby trees caused much environmental damage. The first 'yellow peril' scare occurred in the 1850s as the number of Chinese men increased from a few hundred to many thousands. Alarmed by the economic competition and racial threat posed by this rapid influx, European diggers protested vehemently to the government. Measures were taken to reduce Chinese numbers, but until the colonial and federal governments applied a policy of exclusion later in the century, conflict persisted on many fields.

Copper mining and smelting became a dominant industry in SA after rich discoveries in 1845 at Burra and in 1861 at Wallaroo and Moonta. Cornish 'captains' and miners introduced the system of tribute mining (a form of profit-sharing based on the value of the ore mined) to these towns, and also brought their traditions of chapel-going, choir-singing and brass bands. The migration of the folkways, mores and institutions of the Cornish mining village to SA and then, in more attenuated form, to Broken Hill and other Australian mining centres is an important theme in the social history of mining.

Promising finds were made at Broken Hill, the Kimberleys and the Pilbara in the 1880s, Coolgardie, Kalgoorlie and Iron Knob (the Middleback Ranges) in the 1890s, and Mount Isa in the 1920s. Isolated and remote from the great cities of the southern coastal rim, the new mining fields continued to influence the economy and society of Australia, if in less obvious ways than in the past. The discovery and development of the silver-lead deposits at Silverton and Broken Hill, for example, lifted SA out of agricultural

depression by attracting the railway, boosting trade, and transforming the wheat port of Port Pirie into a smelting centre. For Aboriginal societies living in the vicinity of such mineral discoveries, however, the effects were immediate and often tragic. A mining rush imposed a heavy strain on their limited food resources, as diggers showed scant regard for sacred sites, game supplies and watering holes. On the Palmer River and around Cloncurry in north Qld Aborigines had little option but to resist the intruders, and waged a guerilla war against them in the 1870s and 1880s.

Mining and pastoralism often went hand in hand. Enterprising sheep and cattle men developed SA's copper mines at Kapunda, Moonta and Wallaroo, while for decades Australia's biggest and most famous mining corporation, the Broken Hill Proprietary Company Limited (BHP), was directed from Melbourne by a board of squatters. Perhaps the tradition of industrial militancy that made Broken Hill such a staunch union town owes something to the common cause of pastoral workers and miners against absentee capitalism. W.G. Spence mobilised the shearers and miners in the 1880s, and the epic strikes of the 1890s linked them in struggle and misfortune. The defeat of the unions by employers assisted by governments marked the demise of the individualist digger and his transformation into a wage labourer for a company. The growing incidence of miners' diseases—plumbism (lead poisoning), phthisis, and tuberculosis—also contributed to the development of strong and militant unions.

Miners' unions came into their own later, when men ceased to be independent prospectors and tribute miners with hopes of a bonanza or lucky strike, and became wage earners subject to an impersonal discipline of shifts and shift-bosses. Even the chance to gamble in mining shares passed them by, as metropolitan and foreign capital took over the role of the



Asbestos mining at Wittenoom, Western Australia, approximately 320 kilometres southeast of Roebourne. The mine was closed at the end of 1966 and in 1978 it was decided to move the town because of the high incidence of asbestos-related diseases. Photograph, August 1947.

MAGAZINE PROMOTIONS



local investor and stock exchange. The gougers' stand in 1923 at Mount Isa was the last forlorn attempt to develop the mine as a small man's field, but—to the regret of Nationalist and Labor politicians—problems of low-grade ores, isolation from treatment facilities, and distance from the coast defeated that experiment. Soon large capitalists took over the leases, and formed one company to mine the ore at depth, using the latest machinery. After nearly two decades, a depression, and much heavy British and American investment, the mine paid its first dividend in 1947.

In the late 1950s and early 1960s there was a dramatic revival of Australia's mining industry, stimulated by a sharp increase in Japan's demand for raw materials. The new mines of the Pilbara and tropical northern Australia were vast in scale, and required huge amounts of capital and complex technology. A number of major foreign mining companies increasingly looked to Australia as a sound investment, and entered into 'joint ventures' with Australia's large mining corporations, BHP, Conzinc Riotinto of Australia Limited (CRA), Western Mining Corporation Limited (WMC), and Mount Isa Mines Limited (MIM). Most recent developments have occurred in the resource-rich regions of WA (nickel at Kambalda, iron ore in the Pilbara, diamonds in the Kimberleys, and bauxite near Perth), the NT (uranium in the Alligator Rivers region, manganese at Groote Eylandt and bauxite at Gove) and Qld (coal in the Bowen basin, mineral sands along the coast, and bauxite at Weipa). Today mining is a major export industry and earner of foreign exchange, yet its future is more clouded than ever. International competition and recession abroad, and criticism and suspicion at home challenge an industry whose continued existence raises a host of contentious issues—the role of foreign investment, new technology, Aboriginal land rights, conservation of the environment, the morality of nuclear power, and the global energy crisis.

BRIAN KENNEDY

**Further reading** G. Blainey, *The rush that never ended: a history of Australian mining*, Melbourne 1963; R. Gollan, *The coalminers of New South Wales: a history of the union, 1860–1960*, Melbourne 1963; B.E. Kennedy, *Silver, sin and sixpenny ale: a social history of Broken Hill, 1883–1921*, Melbourne 1978; O. Pryor, *Australia's Little Cornwall*, Adelaide 1962.

**MISS AUSTRALIA** A major source of funds for the care and treatment of spastic children, the Miss Australia Quest has been organised by the Spastic Centre since 1954. Contestants are judged on beauty and personality, but must also raise a set amount of funds to be eligible. The first Miss Australia contest was organised by the *Daily Guardian* and *Smith's Weekly* newspapers in 1926 and was won by Miss Beryl Mills. The contest has been regularly criticised by women's groups since 1975.

**MITCHELL, David Scott** (1836–1907), book collector and benefactor, graduated from the University of Sydney where he had won prizes in physics and chemistry. He was admitted to the Bar in 1858 but

never practised law. He devoted his life to buying and collecting books. Initially he acquired English literary works (about 10 000 in 1900), but from 1886 attempted to gather a copy of every document which related to Australia, the Pacific, the East Indies and the Antarctic. In 1898 he offered his collection to the Public Library of NSW. The Mitchell wing was opened in 1910 and contained 60 000 volumes.



David Scott Mitchell. Oil by Norman Carter, c1864.  
MITCHELL LIBRARY

**MITCHELL, Sir Thomas Livingstone** (1792–1855), surveyor, was born in Scotland. After service in the Peninsular War between 1811 and 1815, in 1827 he was sent to NSW as deputy surveyor-general. After John Oxley's death in 1828, Mitchell took charge of the survey department, holding the position until his death.

Mitchell was a talented cartographer and draftsman. After lengthy prompting from the Colonial Office he produced his celebrated three-sheet map of NSW in 1834. However, this map relied heavily on the laborious work of his subordinates, which he did not acknowledge, and the scale of the map made it impractical for both settlers and general administration. Mitchell began a scheme for major roads radiating from Sydney, and with a large convict labour force carried out a program of road-building which encouraged dispersion of settlers beyond the areas of existing settlement.

During his 28 years in the NSW survey department he was absent from the office for almost ten years: seven years at various times on leave in Britain, and



more than thirty months on exploratory journeys. His name is best known for his exploration, but he solved no geographical problems, and was reprimanded for his treatment of Aborigines during his 1836 expedition. The published accounts of his four journeys gave him the fame he desired, and encouraged wider settlement. He pestered the Colonial Office for official recognition, and in 1839 a knighthood was conferred on him. He hoped that later, when the new colony of Vic was established, he would be appointed as its governor, and was disappointed when passed over.

Mitchell was a poor administrator and manager of men. His energy was often directed to his personal interests, to the detriment of his public duties. Much of his time and energy were spent designing and building his houses, Craigend and Carthona in Sydney, and Parkhall on his land grant near Camden. He had a vicious temper and a jealous personality. Himself insubordinate to his superiors, he would not tolerate such behaviour in others. Throughout his career he antagonised successively every governor, and his unpredictable behaviour made his subordinates fearful of his actions.

Thomas Mitchell's reputation as an explorer came from his well-written and carefully illustrated accounts of his travels. These include *Three expeditions into the interior of eastern Australia* (2 vols, London 1838) and *Journal of an expedition into the interior of tropical Australia in search of a route from Sydney to the Gulf of Carpentaria* (London 1848). JILLIAN OPPENHEIMER

**MITCHELL LIBRARY** Opened in 1910, the Mitchell Library was named after David Scott Mitchell, who in 1907 bequeathed his massive personal collection, together with an endowment to maintain it, to the Public Library of NSW. Mitchell's benefaction remains one of the grandest in Australian cultural history. With the aid of gifts and purchases, the Mitchell's collection has since grown to comprise 365 500 printed books, 35 000 volumes of manuscripts and pictures and some 28 000 single documents. The collections cover Australia and adjacent regions, from Sumatra in the west to the Philippines and Hawaii in the north, as far east as Easter Island and south to the Antarctic continent. The Mitchell Library became the leading research centre for Australian studies, joined since the 1960s by the National Library of Australia.

**MONASH, Sir John** (1865–1931), soldier, engineer and administrator, was born at West Melbourne, and educated at St Stephen's, Richmond, the public school at Jerilderie, NSW, and Scotch College, Melbourne.

He failed the first year of his arts and engineering course at the University of Melbourne, being engrossed in private reading, attending the theatre and losing his religious faith. He then passed the first two years of his course, though preoccupied with editing *Melbourne University Review*, piano performances and chess. However, he was deeply distressed when his mother died and abandoned his studies in 1885. He obtained employment helping to build Princes



This 1965 first-day cover depicts Sir John Monash as engineer and soldier.

BOOROWA PRODUCTIONS

Bridge, then from 1888 to 1891 was in control of the construction of the Outer Circle suburban railway, followed by employment with the Harbor Trust. He resumed his university work part-time, completing his BE degree in 1891 with second-class honours and the *Argus* prize, his BA in 1893, and LLB in 1893 (probably without attending a single lecture in law).

In 1884 he joined the University company of the 4th Battalion, Victorian Rifles, where he quickly rose to the rank of sergeant. Then, in 1887 he moved to the North Melbourne Battery, Metropolitan Brigade, Garrison Artillery, which he was to command from 1896 to 1908, as major from 1897.

Monash formed a civil engineering partnership in 1894 with J.T.N. Anderson. They made only a precarious living until, from 1897, Monash made use of his law degree by appearing in the courts as an advocate on engineering matters. He was then employed as an adviser and negotiator by large contractors; he spent twelve months in WA in 1898–99. On his return the firm carried out several bridge-building contracts. They lost all their capital, however, after an eccentric legal judgment in favour of a defaulting client, and Anderson left the partnership. Until about 1905 Monash remained deeply in debt. He was eventually saved by developing his local rights to the Monier patent for reinforced concrete construction. The companies he formed and managed in Vic and SA for major building construction became highly profitable. By 1912 Monash was a well-to-do Melbourne businessman, at the head of his profession, a radical president of the Victorian Institute of Engineers, a University councillor and part-time lecturer, and had moved to Toorak.

From 1908 Monash was Victorian commandant of the Australian Intelligence Corps (militia), became closely involved in staff work, and with renewed zest educated himself further on all matters military. From July 1913 as colonel he commanded the 13th Infantry Brigade. On the outbreak of war, after a few weeks as chief censor, he was appointed to command the 4th Infantry Brigade of the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). He learned much during the Gallipoli campaign and, while his record there was not especially distinguished, very few senior officers did better. He was promoted to major-general in command of the 3rd Division, trained it in late 1916, and led it ably in



1917 at Messines and in the battles leading up to Passchendaele, and in 1918 in combating the German offensive. From May, as lieutenant-general, he was corps commander during the battle of Hamel and the succession of great victories from 8 August, including Mont St Quentin, until the breaking of the Hindenburg line.

Monash's reputation remains as the greatest Australian soldier, remarkably unexposed to adverse criticism despite his background as a Jew of Prussian origin. He was fortunate in taking over the superb Australian corps at the decisive turning point of the war, but his task could hardly have been better done. His particular qualities were his capacity to work harmoniously with staff and juniors, to forcefully assert requirements to superiors, to fight for recognition for the AIF and to convey to the troops, as happened so rarely in that war, the justified belief that all was right behind them. He was supremely articulate in explaining battle plans, with extraordinary attention to detail and provisions for avoiding unnecessary risks. His military achievement remains astounding. He has sometimes been spoken of as the outstanding allied general, although he was never tested at the highest levels of command. In 1919 he wrote *The Australian victories in France in 1918*; some of his war letters were published in 1934. He was promoted to general in 1929.

After the war and until his death, Monash was chairman of the State Electricity Commission of Vic, with the task of harnessing Gippsland's brown coal for the use of Victorian industry, then one of the most important national tasks. Despite technical difficulties and political obstruction, he succeeded triumphantly, building an institution which for many years was an outstandingly successful state instrumentality. He was unchallenged spokesman for returned soldiers, leader of Melbourne's Anzac Day march, and chief inspiration of the building of the Shrine of Remembrance; in charge of the Special Constabulary Force during the police strike of 1923 and chairman of the subsequent royal commission; part-time university vice-chancellor from 1923; Jewish spokesman and active Zionist. He brusquely dismissed requests in about 1930 for him to lead a right-wing coup.

Monash died of heart failure in 1931 and after a state funeral, with the largest attendance Australia had known, was buried in Brighton cemetery. A memorial statue by W.L. Bowles is in the Domain, Melbourne, and numerous portraits are held in public institutions and elsewhere.

In the 1920s Monash was unquestionably regarded as the greatest living Australian—a tall poppy who was never cut down. Essentially he was a most gifted administrator; a man of extraordinarily wide knowledge, experience and scientific and cultural interests; devoted to public service; and eventually, nearly all ambitions achieved, a man who wore his distinction modestly.

GEOFFREY SERLE

**Further reading** G. Serle, *John Monash*, Melbourne 1982.

**MONCRIEFF, Gladys** (1892–1976), singer, made her professional debut at the Olympic Theatre, Townsville. She chose to perform light opera and musical comedy, and won many leading roles, notably as Teresa in *Maid of the mountains* (1921–23). Known in Australia as 'Our Glad', she appeared in London in 1926 and later in New Zealand and South Africa. She also entertained the troops in New Guinea in World War II and in Korea in 1951. She appeared in 58 musicals, received an OBE, and published an autobiography in 1971.

**MONTEZ, Lola** (1818–61), dancer and courtesan, was born in Limerick, Ireland. She eloped with her first husband in 1837 but was separated from him on the grounds of her adultery. She trained as a dancer in Spain and made her debut in London in 1843 when she was hissed off the stage because of her notoriety. She fled to Europe and there, in turn, became the mistress of Franz Liszt, Alexandre Dumas and Alexandre Dujanier. After 1845, as mistress of King Ludwig I of Bavaria, she wielded great political influence until riots against her led to the King's abdication. In 1849 Montez toured Europe and America and in 1855 travelled to Australia with her own company. She played to packed houses in Adelaide and Sydney and toured the Vic goldfields. Her notoriety and a series of scandals led her to be attacked in the press.

**MOORHOUSE, Frank** (1938–), writer, worked for various country newspapers and ran *City voices*, a Sydney arts paper before working as a journalist for the ABC from 1967 to 1969. After this he became a full-time writer. His work includes *The Americans, baby* (1972) and *Days of wine and rage* (1980). Moorhouse was active in *Tharunka's* challenge to censorship laws in 1970. He contributes regularly to a variety of magazines and writes for television.

**MORALITY** Several moralities have competed for public attention in the history of Australia, but no single set of values has dominated society.

Political morality is a clear example of this diversity. To Aborigines, white people were invaders and the original inhabitants wanted no part of the new society being created here. Aborigines remained within their own political societies, which were being eroded by the invaders. For the first century of white settlement the prevailing morality accepted the fact that Australia was an integral part of the British Empire. From the time of the gold rushes, however, republican and nationalist ideas received wide circulation. Checked by the resurgence of imperial patriotism during the Boer War and World War I, nationalism emerged as the predominant political morality from World War II.

By and large, these divergent political moralities were identified with the two major religious traditions, the Protestant community being imperialist in sentiment and the Catholics nationalist. Secular humanism, when it appeared, was nationalist.

From the beginning, the traditional religious moralities also contradicted each other on questions of



personal responsibility. Australian Protestantism derives from English evangelicalism and Calvinism. It has therefore stressed personal probity, respectability and a rigid attitude towards personal lapses or weaknesses. From earliest times Sunday observance has been a main plank of Protestant moral programs. The term 'wowsers' was coined by 1900 to disparage the Protestant set of moral values. Until recently Sunday observance held public support, despite the fact that in Australian history religion was regarded increasingly as a matter solely of private concern. Similarly, despite this attitude, the availability of alcoholic drink has been limited until recently because of Protestant lobby groups. Protestants have also given strong support to the state school system, which, ironically, Catholics have condemned as being amoral.

Because of its convict and working class social base, as well as its theology, Catholicism has been generally more accommodating than Protestantism to individual weaknesses. Tolerant of Sunday sport and alcohol, it has, however, been adamant on questions of sexual morality. Currently, Catholics and Protestants have found common ground in public campaigns against pornography and legalised abortion.

Public acceptance of traditional religious moralities has declined in recent years. No coherent body of

morality has emerged to replace them, and the prevailing moral mood is secularist. There is concern for single issues, such as the relaxing of immigration laws, Aboriginal rights, environmental protection, uranium, the Third World and sexual (and other) discrimination. Secular humanism, consumerism and hedonism have combined to promote a search for personal fulfilment, leading to pressures for the relaxing of laws on homosexuality and drug-taking. At the same time support has grown for legal controls over moneymaking and the advertising of tobacco.

E. CAMPION

**MORAN, Patrick Francis** (1830–1911), Catholic cardinal, was born in Ireland. After studying and teaching in Rome, he returned to Ireland (1866), and was made bishop of Ossory (1872), before being appointed to the see of Sydney (1884), where he became Australia's first cardinal (1885). Moran's princely bearing impressed Australians and he stamped the Catholic Church with an authority and presence hitherto lacking. He presided over considerable growth in the archdiocese of Sydney and participated forcefully in debate on national issues. He sought election as a member of the 1897 federal convention but failed to win election amidst sectarian controversy. Moran saw himself as an Australian and, with the establishment of Australia's first Catholic seminary at Manly, he ensured the increasing Australian composition of the Catholic priesthood.

**MORANT, Harry Harbord ('Breaker')** (1865–1902), balladist and soldier, was born in England, migrated to Qld and was working as a drover in NSW (1891) when he began to submit verses to the *Bulletin*, using the pseudonym 'The Breaker'. He joined up when the Boer War broke out and in South Africa joined the Bush Veldt Carbineers, raised to counter Boer commandos. After a close friend, Hunt, had been killed and mutilated by the Boers, Morant and others summarily executed a Boer prisoner and engaged in reprisals against others. Morant and three others were court-martialled. He and P.J. Handcock were found guilty and executed on 27 February 1902. Australian protest was extremely strong, so much so that during World War I, despite British representations, Australians could not be executed for infringements of military law.

**MORATORIUM** Little public comment was aroused in Australia when its first army advisers embarked for Vietnam in 1962. However, as Australia's involvement in Vietnam continued during the 1960s, opposition to the war grew substantially. The commitment of national servicemen to the conflict in 1966, and the selection of the conscripts by 'lottery', led to great unrest in Australia similar to that surrounding the conscription referenda of 1916–17. By 1969 Australians from a wide cross-section of society had come to believe that the struggle between the two Vietnams was a conflict in which neither American nor Australian forces had a rightful place. In 1970 and 1971 three 'moratorium' demonstrations attracted mass support. Inspired by the peace movement in



J.J. Lefebvre's painting of the romantic nude 'Chloe' became the subject of heated controversy when it went on public display in the National Gallery, Melbourne, in 1882. The Sabbatarians, who had lobbied strongly in favour of closing the Gallery on Sundays, now redoubled their efforts on the moral grounds that 'Chloe' was indecent. The painting became the centre of attention of the Sunday crowds and the Sabbatarians lost the battle over Sunday closure. The painting was later moved to Young and Jackson's Hotel.

NATIONAL LIBRARY



America, the moratorium movement set out to show the government the extent of opposition to the war through a series of nationally co-ordinated street marches.

**MORRISON, George Ernest** (1862–1920), journalist, doctor, traveller, known as ‘Chinese Morrison’, travelled to Port Moresby in 1883 as a journalist for the *Melbourne Age*. Wounded by a spear, he went to Edinburgh for treatment and remained there to study medicine. After graduating in 1887 he continued travelling, and practised medicine in Ballarat before leaving for China in 1893. As special correspondent for the *London Times* he travelled extensively in China and Siam, becoming an expert in Asian affairs. He resigned from the *Times* in 1912 and became political adviser to the new Chinese government. He was adviser to the Chinese delegation at the Versailles peace conference.

**MORSHEAD, Sir Leslie James** (1889–1959), soldier and businessman, was born at Ballarat, Vic. He was educated at state schools and the Melbourne Teachers’ College, and became a schoolmaster. Commissioned into the 2nd Battalion, AIF, in August 1914, he distinguished himself at Gallipoli, where he was wounded. In 1916 he was promoted lieutenant-colonel to command the 33rd Battalion which he led on the Western Front with outstanding success. He was made CMG, awarded a DSO, was mentioned in despatches six times, and received the Légion d’Honneur.

Morshead joined the Orient Line in 1924, becoming Sydney manager in 1938. He continued to serve in the army, and in October 1939 was appointed to command the 18th Brigade, AIF.

As commander of the 9th Division (1941–42) Morshead made a major contribution to the defence of Egypt and the Middle East. His successful defence of Tobruk (April–October 1941) not only tied down large Axis forces, but also denied a valuable port to the enemy. In 1942 at El Alamein he played a notable part in the July battles, and shone again in October–November when his attacks unbalanced Panzer Armee Afrika and prepared the way for the breakout. Morshead was made KBE for Tobruk and KCB for Alamein.

In the Pacific (1943–45) he commanded 2nd Corps, then New Guinea Force, and finally 1st Corps, in widespread and successful offensive operations in New Guinea and Borneo. He was Australia’s most successful field commander in World War II.

After the war Morshead returned to the Orient Line, becoming Australian manager in 1947. He retired in 1954, but continued as president or director of several major companies. In 1957–58, at the request of the government, he examined and reported on the organisation of the defence departments. Morshead refused offers of the Moscow embassy and the governorship of Qld.

A.J. HILL

**MORT, Thomas Sutcliffe** (1816–78), business entrepreneur, was born in England and came to Sydney in 1838, already with some commercial experience. After some years with Aspinall Browne &



*Thomas Mort. Pen and ink sketch by W. Macleod for a supplement to the Sydney Mail, undated, in Australian newspaper illustrations, c1870–1907.*

DIXSON LIBRARY

Company, Mort set up his own firm in 1843, a specialised auctioneering business which initiated a pattern for later woolbroking firms. In the 1850s he became rich through shrewd speculation in pastoral properties. A confident industrialist, he invested £80 000 in the dry dock at Balmain which became the centre of an engineering works, with brass and iron foundries and tin smelting. It produced the first Australian locomotive in 1870. His employees held a half-share in the dock. Mort is perhaps best remembered for his pioneering refrigeration experiments. Though unsuccessful with overseas shipments, he operated refrigerated railway transport of country meat and milk to Sydney.

Good-looking, gregarious and able, he had little difficulty in developing, through partnerships, schemes remarkable for their range, scale and novelty, embracing copper, gold and coalmining, and cotton, sugar and maize growing. He improved the rural settlement of Bodalla into a tenanted dairy estate and cheese production centre.

His leadership was popular and he enjoyed and shared his wealth. His Gothic mansion included an art gallery, and its prize gardens were open to the public. After his death a statue of him was erected in Macquarie Place, Sydney, by public subscription.

MARGARET STEVEN

**Further reading** A. Barnard, *Thomas Sutcliffe Mort*, Melbourne 1962.

**MOSES, Sir Charles Joseph Alfred** (1900–), broadcasting administrator, was born in England and was a professional soldier 1918–22 before migrating to Vic in 1922. He became an announcer in 1930 with the



Australian Broadcasting Company, and after the commission replaced the company in 1932, he rose through sport and talks to be general manager in 1935, dominating the ABC until he retired in 1965. He was knighted in 1961. In World War II he joined the AIF, escaped from Singapore and commanded a battalion in New Guinea. From 1965–76 he was secretary-general of the Asian Broadcasting Union.

**MOTOR RACING** began in Australia on 12 March 1904 at Sandown, Melbourne, although reliability trials and competitive events involving motorised De Dion tricycles had been held since 1898. In 1928 the Light Car Club of Melbourne staged the first annual Australian Grand Prix on a dirt road circuit at Cowes, Phillip Island. Notable winners have included Sir Jack Brabham, Graham Hill, Jackie Stewart and Alan Jones; Lex Davison was the most successful Australian driver, winning the event four times. The first Redex 'Round Australia' trial took place in 1953 over a route of 10 458 kilometres. Australia's most popular race is the annual James Hardie 1000-kilometre event for touring cars held since 1963 at the Mount Panorama circuit at Bathurst, NSW. Motorcycle racing also has a strong following. Competition, controlled by the Auto Cycle Council of Australia, covers dirt track racing, motor cross, scrambles, speedway racing which began at Maitland, NSW, in 1923, and road racing, especially events held at Bathurst each Easter.

**MOTOR VEHICLES** account for more than 90 per cent of all travel in Australia and over one-third of all freight. The motor vehicle census in 1982 recorded 8 218 000 vehicles, including 6 233 000 cars and station wagons, 1 003 000 utilities and panel vans, 568 000 trucks, 46 000 buses and 367 000 motorcycles. At that date there were 538 vehicles for every thousand people. In rural Australia over 90 per cent of all households had cars, while in urban Australia over 85 per cent of all households had cars.

The first cars in Australia appeared in the 1890s. They were locally made and powered by petrol, steam or kerosene. By 1902 a customs duty was levied on imported motor bodies to encourage local manufacture and by 1913 about 2000 bodies were locally produced and 5000 imported, mainly from the United States. Higher tariffs in the 1920s enabled local production of bodies to reach 90 000 by 1926–27, over one-third of these being produced by Holden's Motor Body Builders in Adelaide. Car ownership increased rapidly, peaking in 1929 when there were almost half a million cars, plus 50 000 motorcycles and 100 000 other vehicles.

Car ownership and car registration declined in the Depression, but soon recovered. The American firms Ford and General Motors (GM) established local assembly plants in 1925 to surmount the tariff barrier. GM, which acquired Holden's in 1931, established new plants in Melbourne and Sydney, as did Ford.



*Photograph taken at Narrabeen, Sydney, Boxing Day, 1938.*

MAGAZINE PROMOTIONS



Most motor bodies were locally built but most chassis were imported. British firms undertook less local assembly, relying more on imports. By June 1939 there were 900 000 motor vehicles in Australia, including 562 000 cars, but only one in four families had a car. The age of mass car ownership, often wrongly dated by historians to the interwar years, did not come to Australia until well after World War II. Restrictions on car production, and petrol rationing during and immediately after the war, caused a decrease in car registrations which did not recover until 1946–47, when, for the first time, there were more than a million vehicles registered in Australia. The number of vehicles doubled in the next two decades as more and more households acquired cars. In 1945 the federal Labor government gave preference to General Motors-Holden (GMH) over Ford and various British companies in the production of an entirely Australian-made car. The first Holden, unveiled in 1948, cost £675 plus registration and insurance, £760 in all. At this price, almost twice the male wage, few households could afford one, but the price relative to wages fell rapidly in the next two decades. By 1958 GMH held over half the Australian vehicle market, the maximum share ever achieved by any company. Between 1948 and 1981 GMH produced more than four million Holdens.

By the late 1960s GMH's share of the market had been reduced to one-third, Ford held one-fifth, Chrysler (which took over the British firm Rootes) 13 per cent and British Motor Corporation 10 per cent. In the following decade Japanese imports rose sharply forcing Chrysler and BMC to forgo local production, while Ford and GMH closed a number of plants, concentrating most production in Adelaide and Melbourne. Throughout this period, government policy on tariff protection from imports, and on the encouragement of local production and local content, as distinct from local assembly, was continually being altered. Nissan (with its Datsun range) and Toyota set up joint manufacturing facilities, and in 1980 Mitsubishi purchased Chrysler Australia. The oil crisis of the late 1970s led GMH and Ford to enter into agreements with other Japanese firms to provide smaller, more fuel-efficient vehicles for the Australian market.

The rapid growth of car ownership, the extension of sealed roads, the enormous investment in urban arterial roads and freeways, the role of motor vehicle production in Australian manufacturing and the widespread economic impact of the car—from dealership networks to petrol sales and repair—have made the car an index of the state of the economy.

PETER SPEARRITT

**Further reading** P. Stubbs, *The Australian motor industry*, Melbourne 1972.

**MOUNTFORD, Charles Percy** (1890–1976), anthropologist, made frequent journeys to inland and northern Australia before leading the American–Australian scientific expedition to Arnhem Land in 1948. An authority on Aborigines, Mountford wrote and lectured about their way of life. He had no formal

training until, in his late sixties, he went to Cambridge. In 1959 Mountford gained a diploma of anthropology and five years later graduated MA from Adelaide University.

**MUELLER, Baron Sir Ferdinand Jakob Heinrich von** (1825–1896), botanist, was born in Schleswig-Holstein and emigrated to Australia in 1847 after receiving his doctorate in botany from the University of Kiel, and in 1852 became Vic's first government botanist. Mueller frequently advised colonial governments throughout Australia on agriculture, exploration, forestry, conservation, reclamation and acclimatisation. He was made a Fellow and Royal Medallist of the Royal Society, a German baron and a British knight, and completed approximately 1000 scientific publications. His directorship of Melbourne's Botanic Gardens was terminated in 1873 to effect dramatic new landscaping. There followed an unstable collaboration with Kew Gardens' George Benthams, resulting in the latter's compilation of the celebrated *Flora Australiensis* (1836–78). Mueller's own books include *Eucalyptographia* (1879–84), *Key to the system of Victorian plants* (1885–88) and *The native plants of Victoria* (1879). J.M. POWELL

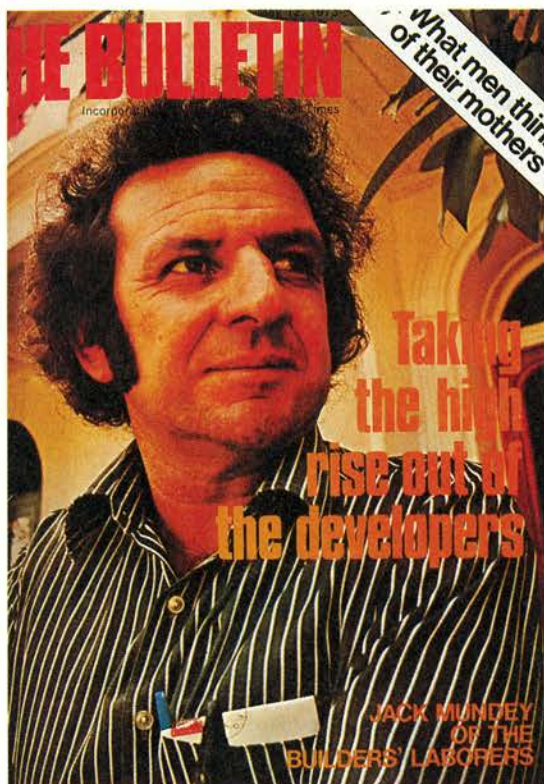
**Further reading** J.M. Powell, *Environmental management in Australia, 1788–1914*, Melbourne 1976; M. Willis, *By their fruits: a life of Ferdinand von Mueller, botanist and explorer*, Sydney 1949.

**MULLAGH, Johnny** (c1841–91), Aboriginal cricketer, was born at Mullagh station, Vic, and spent most of his life working as a stockman and station hand on Mullagh property and Pine Hills station. He was the outstanding member of the Aboriginal cricket team which toured England in 1868 when he averaged 23.7 runs from 71 innings. He represented Vic in 1879 against the All England Eleven, scoring 36; and played regularly with the Harrow Club, Vic, until 1890. He was widely respected for his prowess and skill as an all-rounder. After his death the *Hamilton Spectator* sponsored a district subscription to erect an obelisk in his memory at the 'Mullagh oval' in Harrow.

**MUNDEY, John Bernard (Jack)** (1932– ), trade unionist and environmentalist, came to prominence in the early 1970s as leader of the NSW Builders' Labourers' Federation and its campaign of 'green bans' designed to preserve parks, bushland and historic buildings threatened by developers. Expelled from his union in 1974 when opponents came to power, Munday has since lectured in Australia and overseas, and in 1983 became a Sydney City councillor for the Rocks, a historic area which he had helped to save.

**MUNRO, Grace Emily** (1879–1964), foundation president of the Country Women's Association of NSW, presided over an open conference of country women in 1922 which tried to improve the conditions of women on the land. The CWA of NSW was formed and subsequently Munro began an association





The instigator of anti-development 'green bans', Jack Munday, became a folk hero in Australia during the 1970s. *Bulletin*, 12 May 1973.

in Qld. She established the first restrooms in Bingara in 1924, worked to found the first Baby Health Centre at Moree in 1925. She was appointed MBE in 1935.

**MURDOCH, Sir Keith Arthur** (1885–1952), media proprietor, was born at West Melbourne, and educated at Camberwell Grammar School, before joining the Melbourne *Age* as a reporter. In 1908 he travelled to London where he studied at the London School of Economics and worked in Fleet Street. On returning home in 1910, he became Melbourne representative for the Sydney *Sun*. In September 1914 Murdoch narrowly missed selection as Australia's official war correspondent. A year later, however, he visited Gallipoli while en route to England to manage the United Cable Service. His subsequent report to the Australian and British governments criticising the campaign established his reputation in London. For the remainder of the war, he acted as Prime Minister Hughes's unofficial London agent, and frequently visited the Western Front.

In 1921 he returned to Melbourne as editor of the flagging *Herald*. He transformed it into Australia's foremost afternoon newspaper. In 1929 he became managing director of the *Herald* and *Weekly Times*, and masterminded its acquisition of radio stations and newspapers across Australia. He was also instrumental in establishing a newsprint industry in Tas. Murdoch was knighted in 1933, and served as director-

general of information during 1940. In 1928 he married Elisabeth Greene. They had four children, including the media magnate, Keith Rupert. Murdoch served as president of the National Gallery of Victoria Trustees and the Australian-American Association. He died on 5 October 1952.

KEVIN FEWSTER

**Further reading** D. Zwar, *In search of Keith Murdoch*, Melbourne 1980.

**MURDOCH, Keith Rupert** (1931– ), media proprietor, was born in Melbourne and was educated at Geelong Grammar School and Worcester College, Oxford. In his early years he was attracted to socialist ideas.

When his father died in 1952 his inheritance was the Adelaide afternoon paper, the *News*. In a six-year apprenticeship as chief proprietor there, he fought his first newspaper war and made his first big takeover bid (unsuccessful), moved into television and radio, branched out from Adelaide by buying a Perth weekly, the *Sunday Times*; and learned to manoeuvre politically. With the dismissal of his powerful and popular Adelaide editor, Rohan Rivett, Murdoch was the apprentice no more. He was 29 years old.

By then he had moved to Sydney, having bought the afternoon *Daily Mirror* and its associates from the Fairfax group. Murdoch never looked back. Four years later, in 1964, he was ready against all conventional wisdom to establish the national daily, the *Australian*. It was to lose money heavily for many years.

In 1969 he became the first Australian newspaper proprietor to invade Fleet Street, capturing the *News of the World*, a titillating Sunday paper boasting the largest circulation in the country. He then picked up cheaply the struggling *Sun*, owned by the Daily Mirror group. Under his control, it would topple the *Mirror* itself as the biggest circulation British daily, and provide a great cash flow for future expansion. Back in Australia, he bought Sir Frank Packer's *Daily Telegraph* and *Sunday Telegraph* for \$15 million in 1972 and merged the unsuccessful *Sunday Australian*. He was now a formidable rival to Fairfax in Sydney.

In 1973 he gained a toehold in the United States by buying three small papers in San Antonio, Texas. He founded a successful downmarket national weekly, the *Star*, and in 1976 acquired his American flagship, the afternoon *New York Post*.

The expansion continued with barely a check to reach another climax in 1981 with his purchase of the ailing London *Times* and its stablemate, the *Sunday Times*. A year later, amid considerable acrimony, he forced out Harold Evans, the *Times* editor whom he had himself appointed. Then it was on to found a new daily in Brisbane and buy newspapers in Boston and Chicago.

So far Murdoch's interests had been heavily bent towards newspapers, with his most significant television acquisitions the Ten channels in Sydney and Melbourne. In 1985, however, he swung strongly towards television with the purchase of six American stations for \$US1.5 billion. These he combined with



the previously acquired 20th Century Fox Film Corporation into a new group, Fox Inc, an operation expected to occupy him substantially for a long time. By now, however, he had triggered media ownership laws in both the US and Australia, and the future ownership of his New York and Chicago newspapers and of his Australian television stations came under challenge.

Still in his mid-fifties, Murdoch was one of the most dynamic businessmen Australia had produced, in his own field a phenomenon. In television, his interests in the US, Europe and Australia raised the possibility of a global network. At a time when newspapers were often troubled, he founded new publications and bought old ones, resurrecting some at the graveside. He remoulded his acquisitions personally, often uprooting editors, cutting staff and costs, and wrestling with unions, then pursuing circulation downmarket. Like the press barons of the past, he stamped his papers with his personal attitudes and his by now conservative political and social views. Inevitably he became a controversial figure. His critics saw him as much too powerful and accused his popular papers of the worst tabloid pandering, of false reporting and of influencing society for the worse.



Judge Lionel Murphy, July 1986. Photograph by R. Pearce.

FAIRFAX PHOTO LIBRARY

With television and newspapers and other massive interests including films, magazines, books, records, printing, paper, computer services, air transport and pastoral activities, in Britain, Europe, the US and Australasia, the Murdoch empire was remarkable for its spread of operations, for its rapid expansion, and for the bold driving force behind it.

In the 1984 Australia Day honours Murdoch was made a companion of the Order of Australia. The next year, to satisfy US media ownership laws, he surrendered his Australian citizenship in favour of US citizenship. Murdoch has now made New York his headquarters.

D.N. BOWMAN

**Further reading** G. Munster, *Paper prince*, Melbourne 1985.

**MURDOCH, Sir Walter Logie Forbes (1874–1970)**, was a schoolteacher before becoming a lecturer at Melbourne University (1903). He lectured, produced textbooks on history and English, and wrote for the Melbourne *Herald* and *Argus* before moving to Perth (1912), as professor of English at the University of WA, where he established a national reputation as an essayist and broadcaster. Perth's second university was named after him.

**MURPHY, Lionel Keith (1922–86)**, NSW barrister and Labor senator, was attorney-general of the Whitlam government 1972–75 in which position he introduced significant legal reforms. He aroused controversy in 1973 by sending federal police officers to the Australian Security Intelligence Organisation headquarters to search for files on terrorism. Appointed as a high court judge in 1975, his judgments over the next decade confirmed his reputation as an innovative and liberal reformer. In 1984 he became enmeshed in a legal and political controversy over his dealings with a Sydney solicitor, Morgan Ryan. He took unprecedented action in stepping aside from the high court 1985–86 while, successively, a Senate inquiry, his trial and retrial in the Supreme Court of NSW and a parliamentary inquiry conducted by three judges investigated allegations of impropriety made against him as a result of illegal police phone-tapping operations. The inquiry was suspended following the revelation that he was suffering from a terminal cancer. He died shortly afterwards.

**MUSEUMS** in Australia can claim a history as long as—if not longer than—most other cultural institutions. The Australian Museum in Sydney dates from 1827 and by 1871 museums had been established in all colonial capitals. In NSW and Vic separate museums of natural history and science and technology were created, while north–south rivalry in Tas was reflected in Launceston following Hobart's example and establishing a major regional museum in 1891.

Natural history, technology and anthropology remained the stock-in-trade of Australian museums, and a few, particularly Vic's National Museum and the Australian Museum won well-deserved international reputations for their collections and research in anthropology and natural history.



The rapid pace of development evident in the nineteenth century was not maintained and by the 1930s museums were struggling to maintain previous levels of research and exhibition. Indicative of this malaise was the failure of the National Museum of Australian Zoology. Established through the commonwealth's acquisition of a major zoological collection and augmented by important Australian and Oceanic ethnographic material, this museum was effectively disbanded in 1931, with some of its functions being merged into the government-funded Institute of Anatomy.

The report of the Pigott Inquiry into Museums, released in 1975, has proved a watershed for Australian museums. In addition to the establishment of a National Museum in Canberra, recent years have been marked by major redevelopment in most states and reinvigorated exhibition and acquisition programs. Australian history and the interpretation of non-Aboriginal societies in Australia have become major themes of museum research and exhibition, and the establishment of a department of history in the Western Australian Museum in 1970 and a history trust in SA reflect this new commitment.

In addition to national and regional museums, Australia is served by a vast network of local museums, whose emphasis upon local history reflects the community interest in history that has become increasingly general during the past two decades.

Postgraduate training in material culture studies is offered at James Cook University, while museum studies courses have been established in both Melbourne and Sydney.

**MUSIC** An Australian composer, George Tibbits, has written a string quartet (his third) in which he quotes and holds up for inspection scraps of string quartet music from the repertory of central European chamber music, at the same time placing them in a musical context in which they seem alien, inconsequential or irrelevant. His string quartet is, in a sense, about the impossibility of writing string quartet music, traditionally produced in eighteenth- and nineteenth-century central Europe, in a country with a different topography and a divergent society. This view, paralleled in some other arts, cannot be proved or disproved but is an interesting creative notion rather than a diagnosis of fact.

While all music and music-making responds to and changes the preferences of any society in which it occurs, those preferences and their longevity cannot be determined by purely rational deduction. It is possible that in a remote future, Australian society will prefer forms and styles of music as distinctive as those of the Australian Aborigines.

In the meantime it may be helpful to think of chamber music, symphonic music and opera, with their highly developed textures and their uncommonly sustained durations, not as branches of music to which all others can be considered lesser or antagonistic but simply as three categories among the many categories of traditional music which have been brought to Australia and which survive in a condition

of repetitive (and, to a lesser extent, creative) vigour.

Traditional music is sometimes defined as music transmitted primarily by oral means or without the agency of a consistent kind of performance, but this definition is too limited. All music, including concert-hall music, is traditional in that its performance and comprehension, for both players and listeners, depend on a shared familiarity with conventions of sequence, texture and reception. All major genres of western music, including concert-hall music, opera, rock, jazz, country and western music, folk song and dance, military, brass band and theatre music, are present in Australia in approximately the same proportion as they are present in other comparable Western or Westernised countries. The number of traditions has increased rapidly with post-World War II migration wherever specific migrant groups have reached sufficient numbers or cohesion to support their remembered heritage and to maintain or adapt it within a new environment.

The transplantation of musical traditions in white colonial Australia first occurred in a sequence determined by the social conditions of the earliest settlements. Military and naval regiments brought with them the music of military bands; and these were requisitioned for every other kind of formal music-making, including those kinds required for church services, theatrical performances and, above all, formal dances. Country and city songs, gaol songs and political songs travelled in the memories of convicts, soldiers, sailors and at least some free settlers in what is now NSW, Tas, Vic, Qld and WA. The words of some of these songs were adapted to include new words or at least local references. When music was



*Gordon Day conducts a rehearsal of the Sydney Youth Orchestra in 1968.*

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composed or adapted by bandmasters and others within the early settlements it was for the parade-ground or ballroom or, occasionally, for performance at patriotic dinners. One of the best historical indices of the speed with which incoming and native-born white residents developed a quasi-national pride and identity is the advertisement in a Sydney newspaper of 1826 of a song written by a regimental bandmaster and entitled *The trumpet sounds Australia's fame*.

Choral societies of the British type were the principal agency for the development of larger concerts from the later 1830s and 1840s, usually through the performance of standard oratorios. Theatre performances, whether in theatres or in makeshift touring conditions, were an important vehicle for the establishment of professional musical entertainment from the early 1830s. Music, like sport, proved to be an occupation in which young Australians could make a mark nationally and internationally, particularly in those departments of performance (including some kinds of operatic singing) in which measurable feats of velocity, agility or range were comparable to the achievement of athletes. Early musicians of distinction who spent some years in Australia or settled here included William Vincent Wallace, Isaac Nathan (ancestor of the prominent Maclaurin and Mackerras families) and John Phillip Deane. Leading Australians in music have included Nellie Melba, Peter Dawson, Joan Sutherland, Nellie Stewart and Gladys Moncrieff (singers), William Murdoch, Noel Mewton-Wood and Roger Woodward (pianists), Percy Grainger, Peter Sculthorpe and Richard Meale (composers), Charles Mackerras (conductor), Graeme Bell and Don Burrows (jazz musicians), Tex Morton and Slim Dusty (country and western entertainers) and several rock soloists and groups. Sir Bernard Heinze, active as a conductor and musical politician, was influential in advising the Australian Broadcasting Commission from the early 1930s in its rationalisation and improvement of existing orchestral resources.

The formation of Musica Viva (Australia) after World War II brought into being an organisation capable of making extensive concert circuits for imported and resident chamber music groups. Determined attempts in Melbourne (from the 1930s) and Sydney (in the 1950s) to go beyond the enthusiastic reception of visiting opera companies (well-attended since the middle of the nineteenth century) by setting up a continuing resident company resulted in the establishment in 1956 of the Elizabethan Trust Opera, later renamed the Australian Opera. The high cost of opera supported the notion of a single major touring company; but the high cost of touring and the refusal of each state to give up some initiative in this art (together with the need to fill the splendid new arts centres built since the early 1970s) meant that regional or state-centre opera began to assert itself more strongly.

Australians have created virtually all types of contemporary concert-hall music, most types of rock and several varieties of jazz. Yet it is a measure of the limited returns available to musicians in Australia and

of some lingering insecurity in Australians' assessment of themselves that it continues to be necessary for many soloists to demonstrate their prowess abroad in order for them to be fully accepted in their own country. One area of music-making that seems to be exempted from this concern with reputations won elsewhere is country music. ROGER COVELL

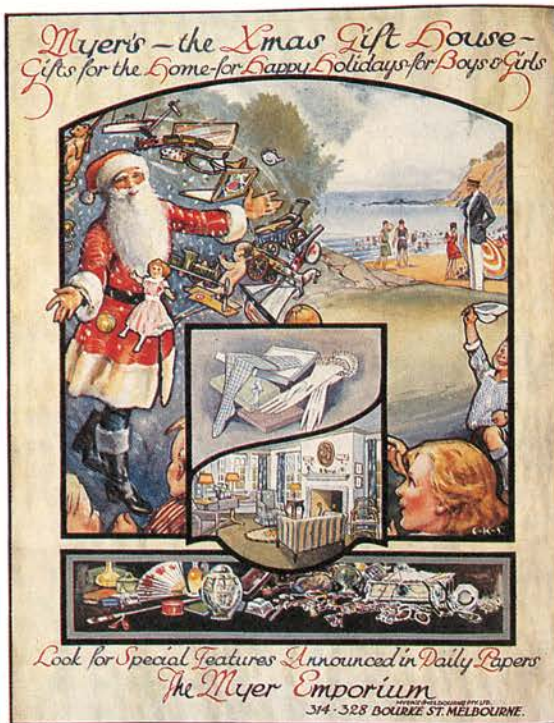
**Further reading** R. Covell, *Australian Music*, Melbourne 1967.

**MYALL CREEK MASSACRE** On 9 June 1838 approximately 28 Aboriginal men, women and children were murdered at Myall Creek, NSW, on Henry Dangar's station, halfway between the present-day towns of Bingara and Delungra. The Aborigines were killed by a party of assigned convicts led by a squatter's son seeking revenge for alleged cattle-spearing. It was not an isolated incident, for other killings had occurred in what had become a pattern of sustained violence between the races in that area. Seven men were later hanged for the murders, which became known as the Myall Creek massacre. They were the first white people to be convicted and executed for murdering Aborigines.

The massacre began a few hours before sundown. The whites rushed the Aborigines, who begged for help from Dangar's stockmen, with whom they were camped and on friendly terms. They were nevertheless handcuffed and taken to newly constructed stockyards about a kilometre away, accompanied by one of Dangar's stockmen, Charles Kilmeister. There they were shot dead or hacked to pieces. Two women were spared; a child was saved by another of Dangar's stockmen, George Anderson; and two others survived, having hidden in the creek at the party's approach. Ten Aboriginal men, absent cutting bark on one of the neighbouring stations, also survived, returning only hours after the massacre. The murderers had already left to find them. When unsuccessful they returned to Myall Creek and burned the bodies of those they had killed.

The authorities were eventually informed of the incident, and Gov Gipps appointed Magistrate E.D. Day to investigate. Although the evidence, the bodies at Myall Creek, had disappeared, twelve men were charged with murder. They were Charles Kilmeister, John Johnston, Charles Toulouse, William Hawkins, James Parry, James Oates, John Russell, Edward Foley, George Palliser, John Blake, Charles Lamb and John Fleming. All except John Fleming, who escaped, were tried on 15 November before Sir James Dowling with attorney-general J.H. Plunkett and Roger Therry as counsel for the prosecution, and the colony's best known lawyers, William A'Beckett, William Foster and Richard Windeyer, as counsel for the defence. Although all the accused were acquitted on the grounds that the charred remains of the bodies could not be identified, seven were tried again before Judge Sir William Burton on 28 November. They were found guilty on five counts of murder, and sentenced to hang on 18 December. The four others, Blake, Toulouse, Lamb and Palliser, were later





Advertisement for the Myer Emporium, Christmas 1924. The home, Dec 1924.

released for insufficient evidence. The trials and executions raised a great public outcry. The twelve men received wide public support. The Hunter River Black Association was formed to raise money for the men's defence, and raised sufficient to provide them with the colony's leading defence lawyers.

There was never any question of the guilt of the men hanged—they freely admitted killing the Aborigines—but, like most of their fellow colonists, they did not see their action as criminal. Aborigines were regarded as less than human, and as treacherous murderers themselves.

The trials made no difference to white-black relations: Aborigines met the same violence as before although it was more covert. Poisoning became widespread, and evidence of the murder of Aborigines was carefully concealed. The trials and aftermath made clear the need for firmer government policy regarding the Aborigines, and ushered in the era of protectors and protectorates.

TRACY BELL

**Further reading** D. Denholm, 'The Myall Creek massacre', *Push from the bush* 9, 1981; B. Harrison, 'The Myall Creek massacre', in I. McBryde, *Records of times past: ethnohistorical essays on the culture and ecology of New England tribes*, Canberra 1978; R.H.W. Reece, *Aborigines and colonists: Aboriginal and colonial society in New South Wales in the 1830's and 1840's*, Sydney 1974.

**MYER, Sidney Baeviski** (1878–1934), retailer, was born in Poland and migrated to Australia in 1897. He opened a store at Bendigo, Vic with his brother and in 1911 started a drapery business in Melbourne's Bourke Street. The business expanded, purchasing woollen mills at Ballarat in 1918 and further stores were established in Melbourne and Adelaide. Myer gave generously to unemployment relief during the Depression and left bequests to the Melbourne Symphony Orchestra and the University of Melbourne.

**MYXOMATOSIS** is a viral disease of the pox group which was deliberately introduced into Australia on an extensive scale in the 1950s to reduce the rabbit population. The first suggestion of its potential came from Brazilian research, but health authorities in Australia were cautious, and serious research was not initiated until 1936. The CSIRO conducted a long series of experiments on infected rabbit populations in SA, but it was only in 1950–51 that the disease was successfully introduced and spread over a wide area. Rabbit numbers were spectacularly reduced. The disease was originally mosquito-borne, but the rabbit flea was introduced in 1969 to increase the efficiency of spread. The effectiveness of this method of control has declined as the disease has become less virulent and rabbits more resistant.