

Chapter 1 : Environment & Society Portal

The environmental movement (sometimes referred to as the ecology movement), also including conservation and green politics, is a diverse scientific, social, and political movement for addressing environmental issues.

The green politics or green movement or environmental movement can be defined as a social movement for the conservation of the environment or for the improvement of the state policy especially inclined towards the environment. In other words, it is the movement to protect the environment through changes in public policy. Here, we are giving a brief history of the Environmental Movements in India that will enhance the knowledge of the readers about how the mass movement can save the atrocities against the environment. It is non-violent community of nature worshippers. This movement was started by sage Sombaji around AD against deforestation. After that Amrita Devi forwarded the movement. The people from the Bishnoi community were killed in the protest. When the king of this region came to know the protest and killing then he rushed to the village and apologized, and declared the region as protected area. It is noteworthy that this legislation is still exists today. How has climate change affected the human life? The movement was to prevent illegal cutting of trees in the Himalayan region Uttarakhand. Sunderlal Bahuguna and Chandi Prasad Bhatt were the leaders of this movement. The most notable characteristics of this movement were the involvement of women. Its main objectives were afforestation as well as development, conservation and proper utilization of forests in the best manner. International Organizations and Conventions related to Biodiversity 4. Silent Valley Movement It is an area of tropical evergreen forests in Kerala. It is very rich in biodiversity. The environmentalists and the local people strongly objected to the hydel power project being set up here in Under pressure, the government had to declare it the national reserve forests in The Government wanted to replace the natural soil, forests with the high-priced teak. Narmada Bachao Movement The environmentalists and the local people started protest against the building of Dams on the Narmada for the production of hydro-electricity since which was popularly known as Narmada Bachao Aandolan. Tehri Dam Conflict This movement was started by the local people around s and s because the dam project would constructed in the seismic sensitive region and people think that it causes submergence of forest areas along with Tehri town. Despite of protest, the construction of the dam is being carried out with police protection as Sunderlal Bahuguna is sitting on fast unto death. After assurance from the government to review the project, Bahuguna ended his fast but construction goes on, though at a slower pace. Hence, we can say, numerous grass root environmental movements were started against the developmental activities that have endangered the ecological balance that changes the public policy more inclined towards the environment.

It was one of the most surreal images in American history: A river, so fouled with industrial waste that it caught fire and burned. In June , Cleveland's Cuyahoga River become the poster child.

On the local level some 6, environmental groups are active. Seventy-five percent of Americans in identified themselves as environmentalists -- all the more remarkable given that twenty-five years before there were no "environmentalists" and ecology was an obscure branch of biological science. In there were no more than a half-dozen national conservation organizations with citizen members and some degree of influence, and most were on a shaky financial footing. Although conservationists were beginning to win important victories preserving wilderness and protecting air and water from pollution, no one anticipated the explosion of activism that was about to take place. The roots of the American environmental movement are nourished by New England transcendentalism. When Henry David Thoreau left Concord in to write and study nature for two years at Waldon Pond, he became the harbinger of twentieth century conservationists who would preserve the natural world for its beauty and potential for spiritual enlightenment, not merely for its practical value. Only well after the Civil War, perhaps not until the figurative closing of the frontier in , would any significant number of Americans share a sense that the bounty of the nation is not limitless, that progress threatens the very survival of native forests and wildlife, and that nature and wilderness contain an antidote to the ills of industrial civilization. Two Traditions in American Conservation. The traditional conservation movement took form in the s, marked by the founding of the Sierra Club in California in and the first state Audubon societies in Massachusetts and New York in In its origins more an elite activity than a mass movement, conservation nevertheless drew support from a broad segment of the public who enjoyed hunting, fishing and camping. Two distinct tendencies emerged among the early conservationists: Forest Service; and an idealistic "preservationist" wing, represented by naturalist John Muir Gifford Pinchot, a Connecticut Yankee and Yale graduate from a wealthy family, studied forestry in France and Germany and returned to the United States to preach the gospel of scientific management of natural resources. He defined conservation with the utilitarian outlook of "the greatest good of the greatest number in the long run. He sought to bring forest and mineral resources under rational, long-term management, overseen by professionals employed by government. The utilitarian resource-management advocates retained a predominant influence on public conservation policy through the s. Professional forestry, soil and water conservation, flood control and watershed development, scientific game management, and the development of state departments of natural resources are among their significant and lasting accomplishments. Organizations in this tradition include the Izaak Walton League founded in and the National Wildlife Federation By the end of the New Deal the innovative impulse of this tradition was exhausted. Its most notable institutional achievements -- the Forest Service, the Tennessee Valley Authority, the Bureau of Reclamation -- would become targets of the environmental movement in later decades. In contrast, the preservationist wing of the conservation movement saw the natural world not as a factor of production but as something to be enjoyed and valued in its own right. John Muir, born to a zealous Christian family in Scotland, was transplanted as a boy to a farm in Wisconsin. Inventor, botanist, geologist, wanderer -- Muir arrived in California at age 30 in and began several years of roaming the Sierras. An eloquent spokesman for the redemptive character of nature and value of preserving wilderness, Muir joined the political battles to save the Yosemite, Sequoia, and Kings Canyon areas as national parks. The Sierra Club, which Muir helped organize in , and the National Audubon Society founded in are early reflections of this tradition; the National Parks Association , an ancestor of Defenders of Wildlife , and The Wilderness Society followed. Preservationists drew on a widespread "back to nature" spirit, a romantic reaction to the rapid urbanization and industrialization of the early decades of the Twentieth Century. The evils of city life could be countered, it was believed, by city parks, Boy and Girl Scouting, summer camps, nature study in schools and museums, and suburban green belts. With the introduction of the eight-hour working day and the two-day weekend, more city people had time to enjoy hunting, fishing and the out-of-doors. Early achievements of this tradition include the National Park system, wildlife sanctuaries, and the protection of birds threatened with

extinction. More recently, preservationists have spearheaded the protection of endangered species, vast areas of wilderness, and wild and scenic rivers. By the 1950s, John Muir had displaced Gifford Pinchot as the popular embodiment of the American conservation movement. Increased real income and a higher standard of living, accompanied by the spread of paid vacations to a wide range of occupations, meant many more people had both the financial means and the leisure time to enjoy outdoor recreation. Advancing levels of education also helped produce a shift in social values favoring protection of natural areas. With the widespread ownership of automobiles and the development of freeways, the number of visits to the expanding National Park system jumped from 12 million in 1950 to 1 billion by 1980. Access to natural environments became an essential aspect of the quality of life to millions of Americans. Preservationist victories continued in the midst of new concerns, with such landmarks as the Eastern Wilderness Act of 1963 and the Alaska National Interest Lands Act of 1980. Organizations in the traditional conservation movement share credit for this impressive string of legislative victories. Encouraged cooperative programs by state and local government to prevent and control air pollution; established federal grants for air pollution control agencies. Preserved 9 million acres of wilderness in the western states. Required states to establish and enforce water quality standards. WWSRA designated 8 rivers for immediate inclusion and 27 others to be evaluated. National Environmental Policy Act. Required federal agencies to prepare "environmental impact statements" of projects; established the Council on Environmental Quality. Resource Conservation and Recovery Act. Authorized EPA to promote the recovery and recycling of solid wastes. Federal Environmental Pesticide Control Act. Required manufacturers to register pesticides with the EPA and disclose contents and test results; authorized EPA to ban sales and seize products. Authorized Secretary of the Interior to list endangered or threatened species. Toxic Substances Control Act. Required manufacturers to test products for risk to human health or the environment before marketing them. Set up fund to clean up abandoned hazardous waste dumps and toxic spills; made dumpers and owners responsible for cleanup costs. Preserved million acres of wilderness in Alaska. Reauthorized and strengthened regulation of air pollution by the Environmental Protection Agency. Federal support for environmental protection, in one form or another, had stretched from the Clean Water legislation of the Eisenhower administration to the Alaska Lands Act of the final Carter years. When Ronald Reagan won the Presidential election of 1980, he swept the Western states on the winds of the "Sagebrush Rebellion," a revolt against Federal regulation of land and its use by ranchers, miners, and other businesses. As a political strategy, Watt attempted to divide the "daisy sniffers" from the "hook and bullet boys," the preservationists from the hunting and angling constituency, which he mistakenly imagined did not share substantial portions of the conservation vision. The two traditions of American conservation stood together, united in defense of the legislative victories of the 1960s and 1970s. As Reagan and Watt threatened to undo the gains of the 1960s, membership skyrocketed in the Sierra Club and other activist environmental organizations. Scandals were uncovered at the Environmental Protection Agency. The popular consensus on environmental protection was apparent in the united front of all the major conservation groups. The following year the Group of Ten, leaders of organizations ranging from Friends of the Earth to the National Wildlife Federation, issued a common action agenda for the environment. The defeat of the Sagebrush Rebellion and the rout of James Watt left the counter-environmentalists regrouping as the Wise Use Movement on the populist right. Only the libertarians with their free market environmentalism mounted a serious intellectual challenge to regulatory environmentalism. By Democratic and Republican Presidential candidates alike were hailing themselves as champions of the environment. Ocean dumping off Atlantic beaches and pollution in Boston Harbor became issues in the campaign. Bush proclaimed his intention to become "the environmental President," in the tradition of Teddy Roosevelt. As the twentieth anniversary of Earth Day was celebrated in April 1990, protection of the environment was one of the most popular political priorities in the United States, as it had been throughout the 1970s. Whether the commitment to global ecological protection is deep or shallow remains to be tested by competition in the world economy among advanced nations and pressure for economic growth from developing nations. This tension was apparent during the presidential campaign as the Bush administration debated its stance toward the U.S. Environmental sociologist Riley Dunlap reports that surveys on public support for environmental protection shows a "clear consensus" in favor, but an "ambiguous commitment" when it comes to voting on environmental referenda, paying the cost,

or modifying lifestyles. Clinton was able to block Republican efforts to weaken wetlands protection, sell off Federal forest lands, weaken the Clean Air Act, and loosen regulation of pesticides. Clinton created or expanded 13 national monuments, protecting 4 million acres of land, as well as adding protection to Hawaiian coral reefs and the Florida Everglades. Bush, in contrast, has few environmental accomplishments to his credit. He began his Presidency by rejecting the Kyoto Protocol to mandate reductions in carbon dioxide emissions. He proposed major changes weakening the Clean Air Act. On the credit side, Bush ordered that diesel fuel be reformulated to reduce pollution, and that new diesel trucks meet stricter emissions standards. By the middle of his second term, domestic and international pressure had forced Bush to begin to face climate change as a genuine threat. Despite widespread public support, the environmental movement harbors its own fractures and vocal critics. Tension between the "ecoactivists" at the grassroots and the "envirocrats" at the headquarters of the large conservation organizations centers on the priorities given to local action versus Washington lobbying on national legislation. The "ecophilosophers" of deep ecology, bioregionalism, and Green politics bring new debates and divisions to the preservationist camp. Environmental organizations also are being challenged by the Southwest Organizing Project and others to reach past their overwhelmingly white, professional, college educated membership to form alliances with minorities and labor unions, and institute affirmative action programs to diversify their staff. They urged the merging of the environmental movement into a broader progressive movement with labor and other friendly constituencies. The laundry list of environmental problems facing the planet -- ozone layer depletion, global warming, destruction of tropical rainforests, extinction of species, toxic and radioactive wastes -- can appear overwhelming and insurmountable. Yet reviewing the successes of the last forty years -- millions of acres of wilderness saved; air, water and pesticide pollution reduced; nuclear power development halted; public consciousness raised and powerful organizations built -- should give all environmentalists a second wind. Standing back for perspective, we can see environmentalism as the confluence of the older conservation tradition and more recent efforts to apply ecological perspectives to quality of life and public health concerns -- water and air pollution, toxic wastes, pesticides, and nuclear radiation. By the late s a second wave of environmental legislation responded to the growing public concern with the impact of industrial society on the quality of life: The National Environmental Policy Act of consolidated responsibility for many regulative and enforcement jobs in the new Environmental Protection Agency. In Harry Caudill published *Night Comes to the Cumberlands*, which described the devastation of eastern Kentucky by the coal industry as a human and an environmental catastrophe; the book helped spark not only a concern for regional poverty but also the long struggle leading to the Surface Mining Control and Reclamation Act of Increased attention to personal development, physical fitness, and wellness contributed to a growing concern for the environment as a public health issue. As air and water pollution, pesticides, and toxic wastes came to public attention and debate, the protection of human beings became an important focus of the new environmental issues, much as animals and the natural world had been the center of the earlier conservation movement. The Santa Barbara oil spill of ; the energy crisis in the winter of , precipitated by the oil cartel price hike; the Three Mile Island nuclear plant accident of ; the discovery of the Greenhouse Effect first discussed by the Council on Environmental Quality in but only fastened in the public mind by the summer drought ; the Exxon Valdez Alaska Oil Spill of ; the oil spills and well-head fires of the Persian Gulf War in -- all focused attention on the ways industrial society damages the global environment to the detriment of human beings as well as wildlife. Earth Day highlighted the emergence of a new environmental activism, which drew upon the youthful energy and demographic clout of the baby boom generation and gave rise to such organizations as Friends of the Earth founded in , Environmental Action , Greenpeace and Clean Water Action Over the following decade they were joined by such groups as Earth First! Legal Eagles and PACs. A "third wave" of organizations developed sophisticated legal, technical and lobbying strategies, including Environmental Defense Fund , Natural Resources Defense Council , and Sierra Club Legal Defense Fund , now Earthjustice. The League of Conservation Voters was set up as a single major independent environmental PAC, free to solicit from the general public. In reaction to the success of environmentalists, conservatives formed their own groups to pursue legal strategies and develop market-oriented energy, environmental and land-use approaches; examples include Pacific Legal Foundation

and Mountain States Legal Foundation While the Sierra Club, Friends of the Earth, Greenpeace and others redefined environmental activism during the 60s and 70s, non-controversial programs of land and wildlife conservation also found support growing rapidly. Conservatives naturally prefer private ownership over public control, and liberals are willing to support effective means -- public or private -- to save wildlife habitat.

Chapter 3 : Environmental movement - Wikipedia

environmental activism, but in the past five decades environmental concerns have become more ingrained in the consciousness of the American population.

Dense smog filled with toxic pollutants had already killed and sickened thousands of people in Donora, Pennsylvania in 1946, in London in 1952, and New York City in 1962. By the late 1950s, this type of deadly smog had begun to appear in nearly every metropolitan area in the US. You can thank Hoosier women, who fought for air pollution control measures since the 1800s. A comic that appeared in the Indianapolis Star, April 3, 1902, accessed newspapers. When burned, coal releases a significant amount of smoke and soot. Londoners began burning coal for fuel as early as the 18th century. As industries and factories powered by coal emerged across England during the Industrial Revolution in the 17th and 18th centuries, many British cities developed air pollution problems. By 1800, a chronic cloud of smoke enveloped London. Soot and smoke dusted the streets, ruined clothing, and corroded buildings. Major American cities did not escape the smoky air that plagued the Brits. As the Industrial Revolution began on the East Coast at the end of the 18th century, industries, homes, and businesses began to rely on coal for heat and power. Dirty air followed throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries. Dark smoke palls drifted through many urban areas at noon that reduced visibility to less than a block. The dirty, dark atmosphere caused traffic accidents, injuries, and even death. Doctors increasingly linked the drab, polluted air to depression and tuberculosis. Indianapolis was no exception. Despite these issues, fighting smoke pollution in Indiana would be hard. It was discovered along the Wabash River in 1800. Organized coal production began in the 1800s and after World War I, production exceeded 30 million tons. Furthermore, coal and the smoke it produced became a symbol for economic prosperity nationwide. Often, postcards and promotional imagery for cities featured pictures of smokestacks emitting billowing, black clouds of smoke across the urban landscape. Wherever there is smoke there is fire, and the flames that make coal smoke brighten the world of industry and bring comfort to the untold hundreds of thousands of toilers. The clouds of smoke that ascend to heaven are the pennants of prosperity. Many cities had begun to abate smoke pollution simply by requiring residents and industry to burn anthracite coal, a harder coal that burned cleaner. Since bituminous coal was a major source of wealth for Indiana, many Indianapolis residents and businessmen did not want to take this course of action, even though they did support cleaner air for the city. One method to abate smoke, but still burn Indiana bituminous coal was to install automatic stoking devices in factories and homes. These devices distributed the coal in furnaces more evenly so it produced less smoke. According to the Indianapolis News, this device allowed the company to burn just as much bituminous Indiana coal as it had last year, but produce far less smoke: These women reformers argued they could use their skills as household managers to improve the health of the communities their families lived in and thus began to participate in political discussions surrounding health, pollution, and sanitation, like air pollution. The group offered demonstrations for proper coal firing and issued reports on local residences and factories that issued a lot of smoke. In 1902, the group succeeded in getting a city ordinance passed which banned burning bituminous coal in a downtown district bordered by Maryland Street, East Street, New York Street, and Capitol Avenue. It was hoped this ordinance would create a clean, smoke free section of the city to improve health and help merchants preserve goods otherwise ruined by the sooty air. Black and gray smoke churning out of smokestacks once again became symbolic of progress, this time in support of the war effort. Throughout the 19th century until the 1960s, air pollution remained regulated at the local level; state and federal governments largely remained aloof of the issue. However, a more complex air pollution emerged in the 1960s that became a struggle for locals to solve on their own. In the summer of 1942, a thick eye-stinging, tear-producing, throat-irritating haze never before experienced enveloped Los Angeles. The problem persisted into 1943. Los Angeles Street filled with smog, accessed [http:](http://) During this time, the development of new chemicals, drugs, pesticides, food additives, and plastics also proliferated the consumer market. When manufactured, these products released a number of synthetic chemicals into the atmosphere that decomposed much more slowly than those emitted by older industries and remained hazardous longer. Lastly, the rise in population and expansion of the suburbs increased the use of automobiles.

Cars blew out gasoline vapor that became a major ingredient in smog formation. All these combined emissions created a much more complex air pollution that was much harder to get rid of that would require cooperation from consumers, industry, and government regulation at all levels. It also became tied to increased rates of emphysema, lung cancer, and other serious diseases. Again, Hoosier women stepped up to try to improve the air in their neighborhoods, communities, and the state at large. They became part of a larger movement of women concerned with air pollution across the country and helped make it a national issue during the s. Many women fought air pollution through the League of Women Voters. League members traditionally conducted extensive research on political issues, conducted educational campaigns, and lobbied local, state and federal governments to make sure appropriate regulation was enacted. League of Women Voters members in Indianapolis, Richmond, and Seymour branches attended and testified at local air quality hearings, wrote to representatives urging more stringent air quality regulations, and sponsored programs and produced literature to teach the public about air pollution, current regulations, and what they could do to improve the solution. For example, these methods encouraged people to stop open burning of waste and carpool, bike, or walk to reduce automobile emissions. They lobbied local commissioners and educated the public on air pollution. Other women joined ecology groups, such as the Environmental Coalition of Metropolitan Indianapolis and fought for the passage of many regulations to control harmful gasses emitted by industry, such as Sulphur oxides. Chairwoman Elaine Fisher summarized the important role of the public in abating pollution: The only hope is for the public to give equal pressure on the other side. Most groups encouraged the federal government to get involved with air pollution. Since air pollution spreads across local and state boundaries, it made sense for increased federal oversight to control the issue. The Clean Air Act has produced purer air for all Americans: Thank you, Hoosier women.

Chapter 4 : Environmentalism - Wikipedia

History of the Environmental Movement As concern about the environment grew among scientists in the mids, they began to measure the Earth's carbon dioxide levels at Mauna Loa Observatory in Hawaii in

History of the Environmental Movement in UK! The environmental movements in Britain overlapped for a time with protests against nuclear testing. Similarly, the began to influence naturalists. During the eighteenth century, Britain became a Mecca for naturalists. The invention of lithography in brought the visual beauty of nature to wider public, notably through the work of Thoma Bewick. Natural history became a popular Victorian pastime, fuelled by the feeling that it brought man closer to God. For Lowe, the term balance of nature in the eighteenth century had implied a robust, pre-ordained system of checks and balances which ensured permanency and continuity in nature. The Victorian age was one of great confidence and self-assurance, although the Victorian ideal of civilization almost always depended on the conquest of nature by science and technology. Mastery over the environment was seen as essential for the progress and the survival of the mankind. A bio-centric conscience gradually emerged, supporting a recovery of the sense of kinship between man and nature. It considered a moral duty of every citizen to protect the nature from deterioration. The work of Darwin provided a major stimulus to this view. The evolution suggested that man was one with all other species and he distanced himself from nature at his peril. By the end of the nineteenth century, it conveyed the notion of a delicate and intimate equilibrium, easily disputed and highly sensitive to human interference. Changes that had been considered advantageous in the past now aroused passionate opposition, at least among an influential minority of intellectual and upper-class Victorians. The necessity to improve the environment by demolishing buildings, controlling pests and draining marshes etc. By the end of s, there were several hundred natural history societies and field clubs in the country with an effective membership of about one lakh. The emphasis at this time was on contemplation and study rather than preservation of nature. The desire to preserve nature now became implicit in the study of nature and clubs. Environmentalists became concerned at the damage inflicted both by their own kind and by others. As environmentalists learned more about nature, they recognised its value and the scale of the threats posed by human activities. But the growing popularity of field sports took its toll of wildlife. The indiscriminate killing of sea birds of Flamborough Head in Yorkshire attracted much condemnation. The British environmentalism started the crusade against cruelty to animals. Although the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was founded in and given a Royal Charter in , yet by the end of s it was Investigating pigeon-shooting, stag-hunting and rabbit-hunting. Cruelty to animals was seen as an expression of the most savage and primitive elements in human nature. The threat to human health had already been addressed in the campaign against the alkali industry during Production of sodium carbonate used in the manufacture of soap, glass, textiles produced damaging emission of hydrochloric acid. Revulsion at the squalor of life in the industrial towns, and the yearning for solace in open space and nature led the British environmentalism to the amenity movement. The National Trust enjoyed some early success in acquiring land for preservation. By , it counted 13 sites of natural interest among its acquisitions but it was as much interested in sites of cultural and historic interest. The naturalists expressed concern at the almost random way in which potential natural reserves were acquired with apparently little regard for the national significance of their plants and animals. In , the Society for the Promotion of Natural Reserves was created, not to own natural reserves itself but to simulate the National Trust to give due regard to the creation of reserves. This it did by making a nationwide inventory of sites worth protecting and mobilizing public support for the acquisition of these sites. Even so, the need for protected areas was seen as less urgent than the need to curb the desires of collectors and to tackle cruelty to animals. Natural reserves were regarded by most people as a subsidiary and expensive means of supplementing legislation. Although the first had been created on the Norfolk Boards in , it was not until after the World War II that the idea of habitat protection won wider support in Britain. Instead of protecting wilderness, they preserved the countryside at large in areas where the land remained in diverse ownership. However, the National Trust was condemned by its own success in acquiring properties to expand more and

more of its resources on land agency and management. In the s and s,. Similarly, the began to influence naturalists In October , Margaret Thatcher declared that protecting the balance of nature was one of the greatest challenges of the late 20th century and called for emergency action to safeguard the ozone layer, curb acid pollution, and avoid global climatic warming. The British environment movement has grown from a variety of disparate groups, some of which are well established and some of which are branded new. A number of groups have won the respect of industry and governmental bodies who are now increasingly prepared to consult with them on important issues.

Chapter 5 : Conservation, Preservation and Environmental Activism: A Survey of the Historical Literature

History is marked by movements that challenge the dominant political ideology in ways that cannot go unnoticed. Civil rights, women's rights—such movements are often rooted in small beginnings, the passion of few, which becomes the cause of many.

In various ways, environmentalism claims that living things other than humans, and the natural environment as a whole, are deserving of consideration in reasoning about the morality of political, economic, and social policies. For discussion of environmental statutes and regulations, including international conventions, see also environmental law. Intellectual underpinnings Environmental thought and the various branches of the environmental movement are often classified into two intellectual camps: It is often characterized by a mechanistic approach to nonhuman nature in which individual creatures and species have only an instrumental value for humans. The defining feature of anthropocentrism is that it considers the moral obligations humans have to the environment to derive from obligations that humans have to each other—and, less crucially, to future generations of humans—rather than from any obligation to other living things or to the environment as a whole. Human obligations to the environment are thus indirect. In contrast to anthropocentrism, biocentrism claims that nature has an intrinsic moral worth that does not depend on its usefulness to human beings, and it is this intrinsic worth that gives rise directly to obligations to the environment. Humans are therefore morally bound to protect the environment, as well as individual creatures and species, for their own sake. In this sense, biocentrists view human beings and other elements of the natural environment, both living and often nonliving, as members of a single moral and ecological community. Ganges River; environmentalism Why, in , the Ganges River and its main tributary, the Yamuna River, were granted human rights. As political leaders gradually came to appreciate the seriousness of environmental problems, governments entered into negotiations in the early s that led to the adoption of a growing number of international environmental agreements. The division between anthropocentric and biocentric approaches played a central role in the development of environmental thought in the late 20th century. Whereas some earlier schools, such as apocalyptic survivalist environmentalism and emancipatory environmentalism—as well as its offshoot, human-welfare ecology—were animated primarily by a concern for human well-being, later movements, including social ecology, deep ecology , the animal-rights and animal-liberation movements, and ecofeminism, were centrally concerned with the moral worth of nonhuman nature. Emancipatory environmentalism Beginning in the s, many environmentalists attempted to develop strategies for limiting environmental degradation through recycling , the use of alternative energy technologies , the decentralization and democratization of economic and social planning, and, for some, a reorganization of major industrial sectors, including the agriculture and energy industries. Emancipatory environmentalism also was distinguished for some of its advocates by an emphasis on developing small-scale systems of economic production that would be more closely integrated with the natural processes of surrounding ecosystems. This more environmentally holistic approach to economic planning was promoted in work by the American ecologist Barry Commoner and by the German economist Ernst Friedrich Schumacher. In contrast to earlier thinkers who had downplayed the interconnectedness of natural systems, Commoner and Schumacher emphasized productive processes that worked with nature, not against it, encouraged the use of organic and renewable resources rather than synthetic products e. See also urban planning ; economic planning. Biocentric schools of thought Social ecology and deep ecology An emphasis on small-scale economic structures and the social dimensions of the ecological crisis also is a feature of the school of thought known as social ecology , whose major proponent was the American environmental anarchist Murray Bookchin. Social ecologists trace the causes of environmental degradation to the existence of unjust, hierarchical relationships in human society, which they see as endemic to the large-scale social structures of modern capitalist states. Accordingly, they argue, the most environmentally sympathetic form of political and social organization is one based on decentralized small-scale communities and systems of production. A more radical doctrine, known as deep ecology , builds on preservationist themes from the early environmental movement. By understanding the

interconnectedness of all organisms—including humans—in the ecosphere and empathizing with nonhuman nature, they argue, humans would develop an ecological consciousness and a sense of ecological solidarity. The biocentric principle of interconnectedness was extensively developed by British environmentalist James Lovelock, who postulated in *Gaia: A New Look at Life on Earth* that the planet is a single living, self-regulating entity capable of reestablishing an ecological equilibrium, even without the existence of human life. Despite their emphasis on spirituality, some more extreme forms of deep ecology have been strongly criticized as antihumanist, on the ground that they entail opposition to famine relief and immigration and acceptance of large-scale losses of life caused by AIDS and other pandemics.

Animal rights The emphasis on intrinsic value and the interconnectedness of nature was fundamental to the development of the animal-rights movement, whose activism was influenced by works such as *Animal Liberation*, by the Australian philosopher Peter Singer, and *The Case for Animal Rights*, by the American philosopher Tom Regan. Animal rights approaches go beyond a concern with ill-treatment and cruelty to animals, demanding an end to all forms of animal exploitation, including the use of animals in scientific and medical experiments and as sources of entertainment.

Ecofeminists assert that there is a connection between the destruction of nature by humans and the oppression of women by men that arises from political theories and social practices in which both women and nature are treated as objects to be owned or controlled. Ecofeminists aim to establish a central role for women in the pursuit of an environmentally sound and socially just society.

History of the environmental movement Concern for the impact on human life of problems such as air and water pollution dates to at least Roman times. Pollution was associated with the spread of epidemic disease in Europe between the late 14th century and the mid-15th century, and soil conservation was practiced in China, India, and Peru as early as 2,000 years ago. In general, however, such concerns did not give rise to public activism. The contemporary environmental movement arose primarily from concerns in the late 19th century about the protection of the countryside in Europe and the wilderness in the United States and the health consequences of pollution during the Industrial Revolution. In opposition to the dominant political philosophy of the time, liberalism—which held that all social problems, including environmental ones, could and should be solved through the free market—most early environmentalists believed that government rather than the market should be charged with protecting the environment and ensuring the conservation of resources. An early philosophy of resource conservation was developed by Gifford Pinchot, the first chief of the U.S. Forest Service, for whom conservation represented the wise and efficient use of resources. Leopold introduced the concept of a land ethic, arguing that humans should transform themselves from conquerors of nature into citizens of it; his essays, compiled posthumously in *A Sand County Almanac*, had a significant influence on later biocentric environmentalists. Environmental organizations established from the late 19th to the mid-20th century were primarily middle-class lobbying groups concerned with nature conservation, wildlife protection, and the pollution that arose from industrial development and urbanization. There were also scientific organizations concerned with natural history and with biological aspects of conservation efforts. Although the United States led the world in such efforts during this time, other notable conservation developments were also occurring in Europe and Oceania. Despite the diversity of the environmental movement, four pillars provided a unifying theme to the broad goals of political ecology: However, for a small number of environmental groups and individual activists who engaged in ecoterrorism, violence was viewed as a justified response to what they considered the violent treatment of nature by some interests, particularly the logging and mining industries. The political goals of the contemporary green movement in the industrialized West focused on changing government policy and promoting environmental social values. Examples include the Chipko movement in India, which linked forest protection with the rights of women, and the Assembly of the Poor in Thailand, a coalition of movements fighting for the right to participate in environmental and development policies. The early strategies of the contemporary environmental movement were self-consciously activist and unconventional, involving direct-protest actions designed to obstruct and to draw attention to environmentally harmful policies and projects. Other strategies included public-education and media campaigns, community-directed activities, and conventional lobbying of policy makers and political representatives. The movement also attempted to set public examples in order to increase awareness of and

sensitivity to environmental issues. The electoral strategies of the environmental movement included the nomination of environmental candidates and the registration of green political parties. These parties were conceived of as a new kind of political organization that would bring the influence of the grassroots environmental movement directly to bear on the machinery of government, make the environment a central concern of public policy, and render the institutions of the state more democratic, transparent, and accountable. The first explicitly green member of a national legislature was elected in Switzerland in 1971; later, in 1978, four greens won legislative seats in Belgium. Green parties also have been formed in the former Soviet bloc, where they were instrumental in the collapse of some communist regimes, and in some developing countries in Asia, South America, and Africa, though they have achieved little electoral success there. Although it failed to win representation in federal elections that year, it entered the Bundestag parliament in both 1981 and 1983, winning 5 seats. Throughout the last two decades of the 20th century, green parties won national representation in a number of countries and even claimed the office of mayor in European capital cities such as Dublin and Rome in the mid-1990s. By this time green parties had become broad political vehicles, though they continued to focus on the environment. In developing party policy, they attempted to apply the values of environmental philosophy to all issues facing their countries, including foreign policy, defense, and social and economic policies. Despite the success of some environmental parties, environmentalists remained divided over the ultimate value of electoral politics. Others, however, have argued that the compromises necessary for electoral success invariably undermine the ethos of grassroots democracy and direct action. This tension was perhaps most pronounced in the German Green Party. By contrast, the Fundis fundamentalists maintained that direct action should remain the major form of political action and that no pacts or alliances should be formed with other parties. In particular, earlier strategies such as continuous policy involvement by party members, grassroots control over all party institutions and decisions, and the legislative rotation of elected members to prevent the creation of career politicians were sometimes perceived as unhelpful and disruptive when green parties won representation to local, national, or regional assemblies. By the late 1990s environmentalism had become a global as well as a national political force. Some environmental nongovernmental organizations e. Transnational coalition building was and remains another important strategy for environmental organizations and for grassroots movements in developing countries, primarily because it facilitates the exchange of information and expertise but also because it strengthens lobbying and direct-action campaigns at the international level. Through its international activism, the environmental movement has influenced the agenda of international politics. Although a small number of bilateral and multilateral international environmental agreements were in force before the 1970s, since the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm, the variety of multilateral environmental agreements has increased to cover most aspects of environmental protection as well as many practices with environmental consequences, such as the burning of fossil fuels, the trade in endangered species, the management of hazardous waste, especially nuclear waste, and armed conflict. The changing nature of public debate on the environment was reflected also in the organization of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, which was attended by some countries and various business groups, nongovernmental organizations, and the media. In the 21st century the environmental movement has combined the traditional concerns of conservation, preservation, and pollution with more contemporary concerns with the environmental consequences of economic practices as diverse as tourism, trade, financial investment, and the conduct of war. Environmentalists are likely to intensify the trends of the late 20th century, during which some environmental groups increasingly worked in coalition not just with other emancipatory organizations, such as human rights and indigenous-peoples groups, but also with corporations and other businesses.

Chapter 6 : Environmental Movement timeline | Timetoast timelines

During the 1960s, environmentalism became a mass social movement. Drawing on a culture of political activism inspired in part by the civil rights and antiwar movements, thousands of citizens, particularly young middle-class white men and women, became involved with environmental politics.

Early Environmental Writing and Advocacy Seminal works that serve as milestones in environmentalism come from writers and naturalists from the mid-19th century to the mid-20th century. German foresters like Dietrich Brandis promulgate scientific conservation. Gifford Pinchot is the first head of the U.S. Forest Service. I realized then and have known ever since that there was something new to me in those eyes, something known only to her and to the mountain. But after seeing the green fire die, I sensed that neither the wolf nor the mountain agreed with such a view. Yellowstone, Sequoia and Grand Canyon The movement spreads to Australia and New Zealand and, South Africa Kruger National Park grows out of a game reserve established in 1900, India Kaziranga grows out of a forest reserve from 1951 and Europe Sweden establishes seven national parks in 1909 The First Conservation Groups The first conservation groups are dedicated to saving wildlife and wild lands. Carson is criticized by the chemical industry, but the book is a bestseller and has an immense impact worldwide. Bureau of Reclamation plans to build two dams inside the Grand Canyon. The IRS retaliates by suspending the tax deductibility of contributions to the club. Public opinion rallies strongly to saving the Grand Canyon. Stewart Udall, Secretary of the Interior and conservationist, has a change of heart. Congress first postpones the dams, then prohibits dams in the Grand Canyon and expands the national park. It is a turning point, the biggest victory yet for conservation. The Population Bomb becomes a bestseller, predicting famine in the wake of global overpopulation. The Whole Earth Catalog provides new tools, technology and thought to those looking for alternatives. Its guiding spirit is Buckminster Fuller, who becomes famous for a geodesic dome at Montreal Expo in 1967. Pollution leads to massive fish kills on Lake Erie. Then the Cuyahoga River catches on fire. Pollution enters the national consciousness just as man landing on the Moon makes clear how small and precious is Earth. David Brower is forced to resign as leader of the Sierra Club, and re-emerges as Friends of the Earth. The first test is the Alaska Pipeline; Brower and his allies nearly stop it. A major extension of the Clean Air Act establishes national air quality standards and regulates auto emissions. President Nixon forms the Environmental Protection Agency. He is reacting to a huge surge in public concern about environmental issues. Earth Day, conceived as a teach-in on a few campuses, draws 20 million, not just students but housewives and boy scouts. Oregon enacts the first bottle bill to encourage recycling and stop litter. Greenpeace begins with pacifists and hippies sailing to the Aleutian Islands to prevent a nuclear bomb test. They are intercepted and forced to turn back, but cause quite a stir and end future tests. Nixon vetoes the Clean Water Act, but Congress overrides his veto. Indira Gandhi talks back to the West about population control. Activists protest against use of the toxic defoliant Agent Orange. The Izaak Walton League sues the U.S. Forest Service to halt clear-cutting. The environmental honeymoon comes to an end with the Arab oil boycott. It causes an energy crisis that leads to fuel standards, speed limits, exploration of alternative and renewable energy sources, and more. Construction begins on the last nuclear power plant, Watts Bar in Tennessee, to come on line. And in California, organic farmers form into a group and set the first standards for organic agriculture. Chipko, or the tree hugger movement, in India begins when women in the village of Reni surround trees to prevent contractors from cutting them to make cricket bats. It protects 10,000 acres, recovering forests acquired by the federal government after extensive logging. In Wyhl, West Germany, protestors occupy the site of a proposed nuclear power plant until it is canceled – the first victory for an anti-nuclear movement building in Europe. Greenpeace sets off to hunt the whalers. After two months at sea, off the coast of California, they come upon the Russian whaling fleet. They launch their Zodiacs, get between the whalers and the whales, and film harpoons shooting over their heads. The story explodes and launches Greenpeace on the wildest ride of any group. Greenpeace launches a campaign to save baby harp seals. However, after meeting fierce resistance, Greenpeace leader Bob Hunter agrees not to spray dye on the pelts to render them worthless. Paul Watson is angry. Still, the baby harp seal campaign is a great success and brings Greenpeace many

adherents in Europe. Only one of two reactors planned ultimately comes on line; and the owner is bankrupted by the project. Facing forest loss, soil erosion and desertification, she organizes women to plant seedlings and pays them to make sure they grow into trees — over 50 million so far. Greenpeace returns to the harp seal rookeries. After the second seal campaign, Paul Watson is voted out of Greenpeace. At issue is breaking the ban on violence. But behind it is a power struggle. Within months Paul forms Sea Shepherd Society. However it votes in favor of the snail darter. Congress then exempts the project and the dam is built. But the Endangered Species Act withstands its first test. Amoco Cadiz wrecks off the coast of France, spilling oil over miles of coastline. After a wet spring Love Canal begins bubbling up. Elementary School is built atop it. Lois Gibbs, whose son, Michael, is starting kindergarten and coming home sick, leads a neighborhood protest. They go to Albany to see the governor and get diverted into a press conference where the NY State Health Commissioner declares an emergency evacuation of the nearest houses. But the neighbors around them get nothing. They organize into the Love Canal Homeowners Association. Sea Shepherd goes after pirate whalers in the Atlantic, starting with the notorious Sierra. On July 16 Paul catches and rams it twice. As the Sierra limps back into port, Watson surrenders to the Portuguese Navy. The port captain rules there will be no charges. In November, Watson returns to discover the Sierra being repaired, his Sea Shepherd confiscated and about to be handed over to the owners of the Sierra. Then they sink the Sierra once and for all. Greenpeace begins its next big campaign, against ocean dumping. They discover the GEM dumping radioactive waste and run their Zodiacs under the barrels until one is smashed. Confrontations over dumping at sea go on for years. In , the London Dumping Convention finally calls for a moratorium on dumping waste. The accident is a major setback that brings a de facto end to building new nuclear power plants in the U. EPA bans production of polychlorinated biphenyls, a toxic class of persistent organic pollutants. He lowers federal thermostats, and installs solar panels on the White House roof President Reagan has the panels removed. Love Canal protests enter a second year focused on health studies. In August, they announce their findings at Love Canal. The White House overrules a recommendation to relocate the residents. Two days later he agrees to relocation. Congress passes Superfund in the wake of Love Canal; it identifies hazardous waste sites across the country, determines parties responsible for cleanup, and provides funds for federal remediation where the original polluters are bankrupt or unidentifiable. It is underfunded most of its life. Sea Shepherd clears the Atlantic Ocean of pirate whalers in one year. In September, the South African navy sinks the Susan and the Theresa after seizing them from the owners of the Sierra. All illegal whaling in the Atlantic ceases. A petition calling for his ouster is signed by more than a million people. He resigns in Ann Gorsuch is appointed to head EPA. But after 22 months of downsizing and refusing to enforce regulations, she too is forced out. Her deputy Rita Lavelle is hauled up on Capitol Hill, lies about spying and is convicted of contempt of Congress. A wind boom begins in California. But then bad policy kills the U. Japan and Norway defy the ban and continue whaling. Solar One, built in the Mojave Desert, demonstrates the feasibility of solar thermal energy. For six weeks local citizens and their supporters march and are arrested, igniting environmental justice as a movement.

Chapter 7 : A brief history of the Environmental Movements in India

History of the environmental movement Concern for the impact on human life of problems such as air and water pollution dates to at least Roman times. Pollution was associated with the spread of epidemic disease in Europe between the late 14th century and the mid 17th century, and soil conservation was practiced in China, India, and Peru as.

The contemporary India experiences an almost unrestricted exploitation of resources because of the lure of new consumerist lifestyles. The balance of nature is disrupted. This has led to many conflicts in the society. In this article, we discuss the major environmental movements in India. An environmental movement can be defined as a social or political movement, for the conservation of environment or for the improvement of the state of the environment. The environmental movements favour the sustainable management of natural resources. The movements often stress the protection of the environment via changes in public policy. Many movements are centred on ecology, health and human rights. Environmental movements range from the highly organized and formally institutionalized ones to the radically informal activities. The spatial scope of various environmental movements ranges from being local to the almost global. Major Environmental Movements in India Some of the major environmental movements in India during the period to are the following. Khejarli, Marwar region, Rajasthan state. Amrita Devi along with Bishnoi villagers in Khejarli and surrounding villages. What was it all about: She hugged the trees and encouraged others to do the same. The Bishnoi tree martyrs were influenced by the teachings of Guru Maharaj Jambaji, who founded the Bishnoi faith in and set forth principles forbidding harm to trees and animals. The king who came to know about these events rushed to the village and apologized, ordering the soldiers to cease logging operations. Soon afterwards, the maharajah designated the Bishnoi state as a protected area, forbidding harm to trees and animals. This legislation still exists today in the region. In Chamoli district and later at Tehri-Garhwal district of Uttarakhand. The main objective was to protect the trees on the Himalayan slopes from the axes of contractors of the forest. Bahuguna enlightened the villagers by conveying the importance of trees in the environment which checks the erosion of soil, cause rains and provides pure air. The main demand of the people in these protests was that the benefits of the forests especially the right to fodder should go to local people. The Chipko movement gathered momentum in when the women faced police firings and other tortures. The then state Chief Minister, Hemwati Nandan Bahuguna set up a committee to look into the matter, which eventually ruled in favor of the villagers. This became a turning point in the history of eco-development struggles in the region and around the world. Save Silent Valley Movement Year: Silent Valley, an evergreen tropical forest in the Palakkad district of Kerala, India. In order to protect the Silent Valley, the moist evergreen forest from being destroyed by a hydroelectric project. In February , the Planning Commission approved the project at a cost of about Rs 25 crores. Many feared that the project would submerge 8. Several NGOs strongly opposed the project and urged the government to abandon it. In January , bowing to unrelenting public pressure, Indira Gandhi declared that Silent Valley will be protected. In June the Center re-examined the issue through a commission chaired by Prof.

Chapter 8 : 7 Major Environmental Movements in India - Clear IAS

The green politics or green movement or environmental movement can be defined as a social movement for the conservation of the environment or for the improvement of the state policy especially.

This Note examines the transformation of the American environmental movement into a social movement. First, it provides a history of the American environmental movement. The environmental movement is traced from its origins as an upper-class movement with a wilderness-centered ideology, to its transformation into a richer more diverse membership and an ideology inclusive of the urban environment. Next, the theoretical underpinnings of the environmental movement in social movement theory are highlighted. Finally, the question of whether grassroots environmental groups should protest or litigate, and how the legal system can be strategically used by grassroots environmental groups, is examined.

Introduction The rise of grassroots environmentalism within the environmental movement illustrates the transformation of environmentalism as an ideology into a full-fledged social movement. As a social movement, the environmental movement has reached its apex with the rise of grassroots environmentalism. Part I provides a history of the evolution of the environmental movement. This section conceptually divides environmentalism into four eras: First, the endurance of the environmental movement as a social movement is examined, focusing on the structure of the environmental movement. Finally, Part III discusses the strategies and tactics of grassroots environmentalism, focusing on the complex interplay of direct action protests and the legal system.

The Evolution of the American Environmental Movement The American environmental movement encompasses a variety of environmental organizations, ideologies, and approaches. It is not a pristine sanctuary. Instead, it is a product of that civilization, and could hardly be contaminated by the very stuff of which it is made. Conservation groups emphasized the efficient use and development of physical resources to combat inefficient land management. Forest Service under the Department of Agriculture in bolstered resource development strategies. Both types of organizations were comprised of members harboring anti-urban and class biases. For the first time in the history of the world, every human being is now subjected to contact with dangerous chemicals, from the moment of conception until death. First, whereas the first era emphasized the protection or efficient management of the natural environment, the primary policy of modern environmentalism is based on the cleanup and control of pollution. Most activists linked environmentalism with novel values that could restructure society and form alternative institutions and lifestyles. Moreover, by the late s, activists began to link the destruction of the natural environment to the complex interplay of new technology, industry, political power, and economic power. These events included the power blackout and garbage strikes of New York City, the burning of the Ohio River along the industrial sections of Cleveland, and the Santa Barbara oil spill. Environmentalists responded to these events by demanding government protection from environmental degradation and pollution.

Mainstream Environmentalism Our country is stealing from poorer nations and from generations yet unborn. If we want them to do what is right, we must make them do what is right. Moreover, the energy crisis during the winter of to alarmed the American public. Still, environmental laws do not prohibit pollution. As developed, environmental laws control pollution according to health-based standards.

Grassroots Environmentalism The environmental movement has not been practicing one of the laws of nature: Splinter Groups Splinter groups are formed by individuals who leave mainstream organizations when their personal ideology and organizational vision clashes with establishment views. Environmental Justice Groups Environmental justice groups recognize that neither the costs of pollution nor the benefits of environmental protection are evenly distributed throughout society. In the s, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Antitoxics Groups While historians often trace the origins of environmentalism to wilderness conservation and preservation, a more thorough account of environmentalism must also conceive of nature as the human environment, including cities and industry.

The Environmental Movement as a Social Movement: Surviving Through Diversity A. The Structure of a Social Movement: As media interest wanes, so too does public interest. This approach highlights the emergence of new splinter groups, supports multiple centers of leadership, and utilizes an integrated network to exchange ideas and information. Environmental organizations

run the gamut from multi-million dollar operations led by professionals and staffed by experts, to ad hoc neighborhood associations organized by regular citizens in response to local environmental concerns. Locating the Environmental Movement in Social Movement Theory Every mature academic discipline has paradigms that provide models for further research. Unfortunately, Resource Mobilization theory does not explain the cognitive shift that people undergo when they think of themselves as protestors. With the change of the economic foundation the entire immense superstructure is more or less rapidly transformed. Emerging Alternative Organizations, alternative organizations arise when parties fail to provide their traditional linkages, including participatory and electoral connections between citizens and their government. Most importantly, however, NSM theory promotes transformational goals by seeking to turn political success into long-term societal change. The Strategies and Tactics of Environmental Grassroots Groups Grassroots groups generally protest against environmental harms. Thus, since environmental laws merely control pollution, rather than prohibit it, communities must fight to ensure that they do not bear a disproportionate burden of environmental harms. Direct action, litigation, and utilizing the legal system through collective action framing are three strategies grassroots groups can employ. Direct Action Direct action is the most democratic method for social change. In general, grassroots groups find protest activities that increase issue awareness to be more successful in helping them achieve their goals than lobbying and litigation. So is playing by the rules, because the rules are set by the rulers. Litigation Litigation is a common tactic employed by grassroots movements. The litigation tactics common among large professionalized groups are often considered an ineffective mechanism for social change at the grassroots level. The threat of litigation may enhance the bargaining power of the movement by bringing in an impartial outside party e. For example, the notion of Nature itself is laden with religious and moral overtones. The environmental justice movement, for example, has successfully utilized collective action framing and rights rhetoric. Here, groups can 1 draw on legal discourse to name the challenge i. Furthermore, victories in court by a movement organization imparts legitimacy to both specific formulations within broad legal traditions and general categories of claims.

This lesson will discuss the major environmental movements in the United States since the 19th century, including the events that occurred, the people involved and the legislation which developed.

The modern environmental movement differed from an early form of environmentalism that flourished in the first decades of the twentieth century, usually called conservationism. Led by such figures as Theodore Roosevelt and Gifford Pinchot, the conservationists focused on the wise and efficient use of natural resources. Modern environmentalism arose not out of a productionist concern for managing natural resources for future development, but as a consumer movement that demanded a clean, safe, and beautiful environment as part of a higher standard of living. Since the demand for a cleaner, safer, and more beautiful environment that would enhance the quality of life could not be satisfied by the free market, environmentalists turned toward political action as the means to protect the earth. Still, the preservationist strand of the conservationist movement was an important precursor to the modern environmental movement. As represented by such figures as John Muir of the Sierra Club and Aldo Leopold of the Wilderness Society, the preservationists argued that natural spaces such as forests and rivers were not just raw materials for economic development, but also aesthetic resources. Thus, they stated that the government needed to protect beautiful natural spaces from development through such measures as establishing national parks. Thus, preservationist ideas came to enjoy widespread popularity. No longer simply the province of small groups led by pioneers such as Muir and Leopold, preservationism became part of a mass movement. While preservationism focused on protecting specially designated nonresidential areas, environmentalists shifted attention to the effects of the environment on daily life. In the 1950s and 1960s, the environmental movement focused its attention on pollution and successfully pressured Congress to pass measures to promote cleaner air and water. In the late 1960s, the movement increasingly addressed environmental threats created by the disposal of toxic waste. Toward the end of the century, the environmental agenda also included such worldwide problems as ozone depletion and global warming. Environmentalism was based on the spread of an ecological consciousness that viewed the natural world as a biological and geological system that is an interacting whole. The spread of ecological consciousness from the scientific world to the general public was reflected in popular metaphors of the planet as Spaceship Earth or Mother Earth. An ecological consciousness was evident even in works of popular culture. *Poison is the wind that blows from the north and south and east Radiation underground and in the sky, animals and birds who live near by all die What about this overcrowded land How much more abuse from man can she stand?* *Silent Spring*, which spent thirty-one weeks on the New York Times best-seller list, alerted Americans to the negative environmental effects of DDT, a potent insecticide that had been used in American agriculture starting in World War II. Kennedy to establish a presidential advisory panel on pesticides. Thus, *Silent Spring* conveyed the ecological message that humans were endangering their natural environment, and needed to find some way of protecting themselves from the hazards of industrial society. The movement began with a newfound interest in preservationist issues. In that decade, membership in former conservationist organizations like the Wilderness Society and the Sierra Club skyrocketed from 100,000 in 1960 to 1,000,000 in 1970. President Lyndon Johnson also took an interest in preservationist issues. Among these laws, the most significant was the Wilderness Act of 1964, which permanently set aside certain federal lands from commercial economic development in order to preserve them in their natural state. The federal government also took a new interest in controlling pollution. Congress passed laws that served as significant precedents for future legislative action on pollution issues—for instance, the Clean Air Acts of 1963 and 1970, the Clean Water Act of 1972, and the Water Quality Act of 1972. During the 1970s, environmentalism became a mass social movement. Drawing on a culture of political activism inspired in part by the civil rights and antiwar movements, thousands of citizens, particularly young middle-class white men and women, became involved with environmental politics. The popularity of the environmental agenda was apparent by 1970. In New York City, 200,000 people thronged Fifth Avenue to show their support for protecting the earth. Organizers estimated that fifteen hundred colleges and ten thousand schools took part in Earth Day, and Time magazine estimated that about twenty million Americans participated in the

event in some fashion. Earth Day was organized by Wisconsin senator Gaylord Nelson, who wanted to send "a big message to the politicians" a message to tell them to wake up and do something. Examples include the blowout of an oil well platform off the coast of Santa Barbara, which contaminated scenic California beaches with oil, and in the same year the bursting into flames of the Cuyahoga River near Cleveland, Ohio, because of toxic contamination. In the 1970s, Congress passed important legislation to control pollution. These laws established national environmental quality standards to be enforced by a federally dominated regulatory process known as command and control. The Clean Air Act, for instance, established national air quality standards for major pollutants that were enforced by a federal agency. Other significant environmental legislation passed in the 1970s included the preservationist measures of the Endangered Species Act of 1973 and the Federal Land Policy and Management Act of 1976. Another significant piece of legislation, the Comprehensive Environmental Response Compensation and Liability Act, or Superfund Act, was passed in 1980. Designed to help control toxic hazards, the act established federal "superfund" money for the cleanup of contaminated waste sites and spills. An independent federal agency, the EPA was given consolidated responsibility for regulating and enforcing federal programs on air and water pollution, environmental radiation, pesticides, and solid waste. In response to the flurry of environmental regulation passed by Congress in the 1970s, the EPA expanded its operations: Enforcing environmental regulations proved to be a difficult and complex task, particularly as new legislation overburdened the agency with responsibilities. The enforcement process required the gathering of various types of information—scientific, economic, engineering, and political—and the agency needed to contend with vigorous adversarial efforts from industry and environmental organizations. The flurry of federal environmental regulation resulted in part from the rise of a powerful environmental lobby. Environmental organizations continued to expand their ranks in the 1970s. Membership in the Sierra Club, for instance, rose from 1.5 million in 1970 to 2.5 million in 1980. During the 1970s, mainstream environmental organizations established sophisticated operations in Washington, D.C. Besides advocating new environmental legislation, these groups served a watchdog function, ensuring that environmental regulations were properly enforced by the EPA and other federal agencies. While these organizations focused on their own specific issues and employed their own individual strategies, a Group of Ten organizations met regularly to discuss political strategy. During this decade, mainstream environmental organizations became increasingly professionalized, hiring more full-time staff. They hired lobbyists to advocate for environmental legislation, lawyers to enforce environmental standards through the courts, and scientists to prove the need for environmental regulation and counter the claims of industry scientists.

Environmental Backlash and Radical Environmentalism In the 1980s, environmental goals enjoyed a broad bipartisan consensus in Washington. The election of Ronald Reagan in 1980 changed that. Espousing a conservative, pro-business ideology, Reagan sought to free American corporations from an expanding regulatory apparatus. Reagan capitalized on the late 1970s Sagebrush Rebellion of westerners who sought to have federal land transferred to the states in order to avoid federal environmental regulations. Watt took a strong pro-development stand hostile to the traditional resource preservation orientation of the Interior Department. He used his post to portray all environmentalists as radicals outside the American mainstream. Between 1981 and 1986, the EPA lost one-third of its budget and one-fifth of its staff. Underfunded and understaffed, these cuts had a lasting effect on the agency, leaving it without the resources to fulfill all of its functions. Yet while Reagan was able to stalemate the environmental agenda, his anti-environmentalist posture proved unpopular. The American public still overwhelmingly supported environmental goals. In 1986, Reagan was forced to replace Watt and Buford with more moderate administrators. On Earth Day 1989, President Bush stated that "Every day is Earth Day" and even major industries that were the target of environmental regulation, such as oil and gas, took out advertisements in major newspapers stating, "Every day is Earth Day for us. A number of radical environmentalist groups challenged the mainstream environmental organizations, claiming that they had become centralized bureaucracies out of touch with the grassroots and were too willing to compromise the environmental agenda. One of the groups to make this challenge was Earth First! Two other radical environmentalist organizations were Friends of the Earth and Greenpeace—each was a global organization formed in the 1970s that had significant support in the United States. It pursued activist strategies and argued that protection of the environment required fundamental political and social change. In addition, some radical

environmentalists showed a new interest in deep ecology, which challenged the traditional anthropomorphism of the environmental movement. The s also saw the growth of grassroots organizations that organized to oppose threats to their local environment: Because their concerns were locally oriented and generally consisted of the removal of a specific environmental threat, they were referred to as NIMBY Not in My Backyard organizations. The threat of contaminated waste sites raised concerns throughout the country, particularly after the publicity surrounding the evacuation of Love Canal , New York , in the late s after it was revealed that the town had been built on contaminated soil. Grassroots environmental groups continued to form throughout the s. NIMBYism often limited the impact of these groups, since they frequently disbanded once their particular issue of concern was resolved. Yet participation in these organizations often raised the consciousness of participants to larger environmental issues. The late s saw the growth of the environmental justice movement, which argued that all people have a right to a safe and healthy environment. Those concerned with environmental justice argued that poor and minority Americans are subjected to disproportionate environmental risks. It concentrated on such issues as urban air pollution , lead paint, and transfer stations for municipal garbage and hazardous waste. Environmental justice organizations widened the support base for environmentalism, which had traditionally relied upon the educated white middle class. The Global Environment and the s By the end of the s, the environmental movement had increasingly come to focus its attention on global issues that could only be resolved through international diplomacy. Issues such as global warming , acid rain , ozone depletion, biodiversity, marine mammals, and rain forests could not be dealt with merely on the national level. While the United States was a reluctant participant in international efforts to address environmental concerns compared with other industrial nations, the federal government did take steps to address the global nature of the environmental issue. The protocol pledged the signees to eliminate the production of chlorofluorocarbons, which cause destruction to the ozone layer. In , representatives from nations, including the United States, met in Brazil at the Conference on Environment and Development, where they drafted a document that proclaimed twenty-eight guiding principles to strengthen global environmental governance. While some environmental organizations endorsed that agreement, others claimed that it did not go far enough in countering the negative environmental effects of NAFTA. In , Clinton committed the United States to the Kyoto Protocol , which set forth timetables and emission targets for the reduction of greenhouse gases that cause global warming. Bush, however, rescinded this commitment when he took office in . Environmentalists were an important part of an "antiglobalization" coalition that coalesced at the end of the s. It argued that the expansion of the global economy was occurring without proper environmental and labor standards in place. In , globalization critics gained international attention by taking to the streets of Seattle to protest a meeting of the World Trade Organization. In , environmentalists critical of mainstream politics formed a national Green Party, believing that a challenge to the two-party system was needed to push through needed environmental change. In and , the Green Party ran Ralph Nader as its presidential candidate. In , Nader received 2. The party elected a number of candidates to local office, particularly in the western states. Achievements and Challenges As the twentieth century ended, American environmentalists could point to a number of significant accomplishments. The goal of protecting the planet remained a popular one among the general public. In , Americans celebrated the thirty-first Earth Day. In , the thirty largest environmental organizations had close to twenty million members. Meanwhile, the country had committed significant resources to environmental control. In , the U.