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Poster: 'Change over to a victory job', 1943. The poster encouraged women to actively contribute to the war effort during World War II.



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CONTENTS

PEARSON HISTORY (for teachers) viii
HOW TO USE THIS BOOK (for teachers) x
HISTORY SKILLS TOOLBOX (for students) xii

OVERVIEW

CHAPTER 1 THE MODERN WORLD AND AUSTRALIA 2

UNIT 1 Between the wars 4
UNIT 2 The Cold War 10
UNIT 3 Source study: The changing nature of sources 17
UNIT 4 Movements for decolonisation 21
UNIT 5 Post–Cold War conflicts 24
UNIT 6 Efforts to achieve lasting peace 30
UNIT 7 Movements for rights and freedoms 33
UNIT 8 Change in life as we know it 38

DEPTH STUDY 1: WORLD WAR II

CHAPTER 2 WORLD WAR II 44

UNIT 1 Snapshot 1939–45 46
UNIT 2 The world on the brink of war 48
UNIT 3 War in Europe 56
UNIT 4 Source study: The Holocaust 64
UNIT 5 War in the Asia–Pacific 72
UNIT 6 Impact of the war on Australian society 80
UNIT 7 Prisoners of war 87
UNIT 8 Using the atomic bomb 90
UNIT 9 World War II and Australia's international relations 94
INQUIRY TASKS 99



CONTENTS

DEPTH STUDY 2: RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

CHAPTER 3 RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS 102

UNIT 1 Snapshot 1902–the present 104
UNIT 2 Universal Declaration of Human Rights 107
UNIT 3 African Americans prior to 1945 110
UNIT 4 US Civil Rights movement 115
UNIT 5 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples prior to 1945 120
UNIT 6 New struggles 127
UNIT 7 Source study: The 1967 referendum 133
UNIT 8 Self-determination and land rights 139
UNIT 9 Moves to reconciliation 144
UNIT 10 Two recent challenges 150
UNIT 11 Rights of all indigenous peoples 154
INQUIRY TASKS 158

DEPTH STUDY 3: THE GLOBALISING WORLD

CHAPTER 4 POPULAR CULTURE 160

UNIT 1 Snapshot 1945–the present 162
UNIT 2 Life in Australia after World War II 164
UNIT 3 From radio and 'the flicks' to rock 'n' roll and television 170
UNIT 4 The 'swinging sixties' and living in the seventies 174
UNIT 5 The X-factor of the eighties and nineties 179
UNIT 6 Source study: Australia's national pastime 187
UNIT 7 Gen Y and twenty-first century cyberspace 192
UNIT 8 Australian influences on global popular culture 195
INQUIRY TASKS 199



CHAPTER 5 THE ENVIRONMENT MOVEMENT 202
UNIT 1 Snapshot 1960s–the present 204
UNIT 2 Background to environmental awareness 206
UNIT 3 Environmental awareness grows 211
UNIT 4 The environment movement: 1960s and 1970s 215
UNIT 5 The environment movement expands: 1980s and 1990s 221
UNIT 6 The environment movement in Australia 226
UNIT 7 Source study: The Franklin River struggle 232
UNIT 8 The environment movement in the twenty-first century 237
INQUIRY TASKS 242
CHAPTER 6: MIGRATION EXPERIENCES 244
UNIT 1 Snapshot 1901–the present 246
UNIT 2 Keeping Australia 'white' 248
UNIT 3 Populate or perish 254
UNIT 4 Building a nation 259
UNIT 5 Shifting patterns 264
UNIT 6 Source study: Vietnamese 'boat people' 270
UNIT 7 New debates surface 275
UNIT 8 Australia's national identity in the twenty-first century 281
INQUIRY TASKS 284
GLOSSARY 286
INDEX 293



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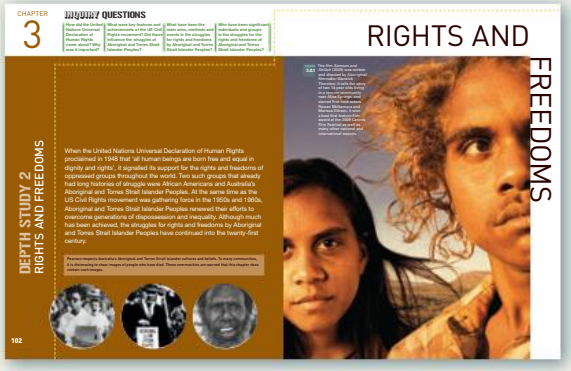
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PEARSON history 10 has been created for the Australian Curriculum: History course. It provides a fully integrated approach to teaching the two strands of Historical Knowledge and Understanding and Historical Skills.

This student book consists of six chapters, each built around key inquiry questions that can be examined as they are or amended to suit the needs of students. Students can also use these questions as a springboard for developing their own, more specific, inquiry questions.

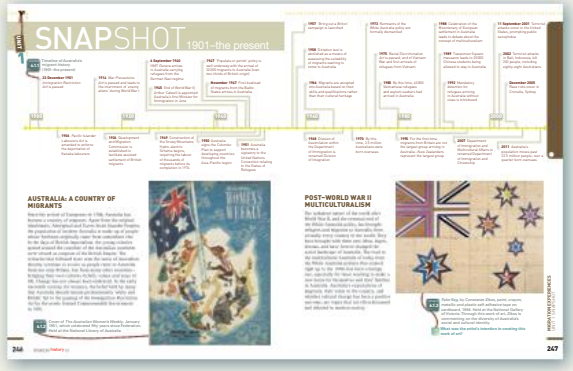
CHAPTER OPENER

Each chapter opens with student-focused inquiry-based questions on the chapter topic. A text-based introduction provides students with an understanding of the content to be studied. A dynamic image can be used as a springboard for pre-topic discussion and to develop students' skills in using source material.



SNAPSHOT UNIT

Chapters 2 to 6 begin with a 'Snapshot' unit, which includes a timeline of significant events and a brief contextual presentation of the topic.



UNIT CONTENT

Unit content is based on the requirements of the ACARA curriculum. The content is supported by written and visual primary and secondary source material, as well as illustrations, maps, timelines and tables to enable and reinforce student learning.



SOURCE QUESTIONS

Throughout each chapter, many sources are accompanied by questions designed to promote students' understanding. Suggested answers are provided in the Teacher Companion.



LEARNING ACTIVITIES



The learning activities have been written using Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. Answers require a range of responses that incorporate the requirements of the ACARA curriculum. The learning activities can be answered using the student book as a stimulus and also through further independent research. Answers are provided in the Teacher Companion.

SOURCE STUDY UNIT

The source study unit is designed to actively engage students in exploring a range of written and visual primary and secondary sources. Students are prompted to develop the important historical skills of examining evidence and considering issues such as cause and consequence, historical perspectives, historical empathy and the contestability of history.



INQUIRY TASKS

At the end of chapters 2 to 6 are sets of inquiry tasks that incorporate content from the whole chapter and appeal to a variety of learning styles. They can be set for further exploration and assignment work, for individuals, pairs or small groups. The tasks provide opportunities for further research and skills development as well as interdisciplinary and general capabilities learning.



CHAPTER CLOSER

Each chapter concludes with a dynamic image. This image can be used as a springboard for post-topic discussion and in developing skills related to using sources.



GLOSSARY

Pearson History 10 includes a glossary at the end of the book to assist students as they learn and understand new concepts.

HISTORY SKILLS TOOLBOX

THE HISTORICAL INQUIRY PROCESS

The historical inquiry process is used to question and investigate the past. The purpose of inquiry in Years 9 and 10 is to improve and extend upon the skills you developed in junior years. The ability to locate, understand and interpret source material created from different perspectives; to use research to further knowledge; and to analyse and contest evidence are integral elements in the development of an informed opinion about the past.

Equally important are the skills required to present an informed argument incorporating appropriate evidence to support your interpretation of the past.

The inquiry process consists of a number of steps. You begin by exploring an inquiry question or questions and developing a plan to guide you through the research and writing process. Once you have obtained your sources you will be required to analyse them for usefulness in light of the inquiry question before writing or presenting your conclusions.

1 PREPARE AND EXAMINE THE RESEARCH QUESTION

- If you have been given a topic, formulate an open-ended inquiry question to provide a focus for your investigation. Don't use 'closed' questions, which require only a short, factual answer.
- Underline the key words in the inquiry question, define them if necessary, and note what you already know in point form.
- Research, brainstorm and list ideas for possible answers or arguments in point form, noting all known information about the topic.
- Mark your best arguments, and note any evidence (primary or secondary sources) you are aware of to support each of these arguments.
- List further questions you will need to answer about your topic in order to complete a thorough inquiry, including specific details of evidence required.
- Be prepared to amend your inquiry question where necessary, or change your question completely if it is unsuitable.
- If you wish to, you could use the inquiry questions at the start of each chapter in this book as they are, or with your own amendments.

2 DEVELOP A RESEARCH PLAN

A research plan is essential for breaking down the task into manageable pieces, and for scheduling and organising your findings so that the inquiry is completed by the due date.

Include in your plan:

- your list of questions on the topic, accompanied by useful 'search terms' for identifying relevant information more quickly
- an estimate of the time required to complete each task (for example 'research and locate relevant sources—1 week', 'analysis and evaluation of sources and preparation of report—1 week'). Diarise these dates
- a list of places in which you will locate your research material, both in person and by accessing online collections or archives; such as at the school library, local library, State library, National Library of Australia, local and state museums and the National Museum of Australia
- a list of people to contact or interview regarding the topic.

3 LOCATE AND SORT PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES

Begin to action your research plan by identifying and locating appropriate resources to answer your inquiry question, and take notes on relevant information. Collate your information into separate ideas or arguments, and allocate appropriate source material to support each point being made. Attempt to vary the sources selected. For instance, for your primary sources, it may be more interesting to consider a historical event through a painting of it from the period, a news article written at the time and a journal extract from a person involved in the actual event.

Here are some hints for researching and taking notes.

- Refer back frequently to your research plan for direction. Narrow or refine your inquiry question(s) if necessary.
- Know what you are looking for before you begin—have a list of key words and key questions as well as ideas of possible sources to get you started.
- Utilise your people skills—ask for help at the library or museum to save time.
- Skim-read indexes and contents pages of sources for key words related to your topic.
- Use sticky notes with headings to mark important pages in resources.
- Take duplicate copies of useful source material, one to keep with your bibliographical data, and one to annotate, highlight and make notes upon.
- Keep a record of all the sources you have studied for use in your bibliography.
- Organise points in your own words under suitable headings.
- Allow yourself plenty of space under each heading to add information from multiple sources, and note important sources and page numbers next to your summaries in case you need to revise any of your points.
- Link the headings you use to organise your notes back to the inquiry question(s) and check frequently for relevance to ensure you do not get sidetracked.

4 ANALYSE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES

At Year 10 you will be required to examine a variety of sources critically in order to support your historical findings, and you should also be evaluating the reliability and relevance of sources in more detail. Be selective and question sources in terms of:

AUTHOR	Do we know anything about who created the source, such as their occupation or their relationship to the event?
DATE	When was the source produced? How does its context help make sense of it?
AUDIENCE	For whom was the source originally created?
MESSAGE	What did the author wish to communicate to the audience? How would the audience be likely to respond?
AGENDA	What was the author's reason for producing the source? Do they have a particular point of view?
NATURE	What type of source is it? How does this affect its content (e.g. A diary is meant to be for private purposes.)
TECHNIQUES	How does the author show their point of view in the language or imagery they use?

Explore the historical event in more detail by considering different perspectives on the topic. If researching a particular event or person, look for sources that present different views and consider the reason for these differences. Think about the motives for people's actions, the social rules and conventional beliefs of the time and how these may have affected the person or the event you are studying.

5 COMMUNICATING YOUR FINDINGS

There are various ways in which you may communicate the results of your historical inquiry. You may already have had experience writing factual reports or giving speeches on particular topics, but by Year 10, you require additional skills to enhance the delivery of your material.

You can communicate your findings by:

- oral presentation
- debate
- report
- essay.

ORAL PRESENTATION

Prepare your plan for the oral presentation as you would an essay. A speech must still have a beginning, a middle and an end, just like an essay. Write a full draft of your speech, using formal language and separate paragraphs for all new ideas. Remember that for each point or argument you make, you should provide at least one source as evidence.

In an oral presentation it is important to use a variety of types of source material, but visual material can capture your audience's attention more effectively. Consider using a multimedia presentation program to showcase your evidence. Extracts from journals, letters or newspapers, photographs or works of art can all be viewed by your audience while you argue your thesis. Ensure that each visual is accompanied by a caption and an acknowledgement of the source's origin.

Tips for successful oral presentations

- Be organised. Prepare notes on palm cards, use dynamic and interesting words, ensure that any visual evidence is in order and rehearse your presentation a number of times before the day—knowing your material well will keep the nerves at bay!
- If your presentation has a set length, time your rehearsals to ensure you are not under or too far over the time limit.
- Get a friend or family member to record your rehearsal. Watching the presentation can help you to recognise areas in need of improvement.
- Speak slowly and clearly. It is natural when nervous to sometimes speed up the pace of your presentation—avoid this by staying focused upon one point at a time, pausing between arguments and trying to relax.
- Remember to talk to your audience rather than just read your notes. You don't have to look them in the eyes all the time, but you do have to include them by talking 'to', not 'at', them. Your palm cards should be used just to keep you on track and ensure that you don't miss any crucial points.
- Remind yourself that you can do it—you have done the research and prepared thoroughly for the task. Thinking positively can improve your confidence and have a flow-on effect on your audience.

DEBATE

To adapt your response to the debate format is a fairly easy process. Once two teams (or sides) of the debate have been allocated, your collated research can be divided among the speakers. The division of roles is similar to the division already made in your plan—a first speaker introduces, a second and/or third speaker explains and proves, and a final speaker concludes.

The roles of each speaker are set out as follows:

- First Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):

  Introduces the topic by defining and clarifying the issue involved. Explains the team's thesis statement and briefly outlines the main arguments of the remaining speakers
- Second Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):
  - Begins by defending any attacks by the opposing team (called a rebuttal)
  - Explains one new argument to prove the team's case, accompanied by source evidence
  - Attacks the last point proposed by the opposing team
- Third Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):

  Follows the same directive as the Second Speaker
- Final Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):
  - Rebuts any important points made by the opposing team in the course of the debate
  - Provides an overview of all of their team's arguments and evidence
  - Ends with a strong message outlining the merits of the team's case.

Follow the tips provided for oral presentations to ensure that each speaker has prepared thoroughly for the debate. Rehearse as a team and give each other constructive feedback to improve your team's chances of success. Remember that debates can be lively affairs, so present your arguments in an interesting and effective way in order to persuade your audience.

REPORT

A written report should present the results of your inquiry in a logical and comprehensive manner. The report should include, in the following order:

- a cover page—include your name and class and the inquiry question. You can also add an illustration or a picture
- a table of contents
- an introduction—start your report with a general introduction explaining the topic, the inquiry question, the questions you've asked yourself throughout the investigation and the plan of your report
- the core—present your findings, ideas and arguments in separate paragraphs. Support them with evidence (information gleaned from sources), examples, illustrations and graphs. Order your paragraphs and link them with logical, flowing sentences
- a conclusion—provide a summary of your report along with your conclusions on the matter
- appendices—attach a bibliography of your sources, a copy of the texts and photographs of artefacts you have used, and all the necessary supporting material, such as maps and graphs, that you refer to in your paragraphs (if they don't already appear there).

ESSAY

Your essay will address a historical question or topic, and will do so with a logical argument supported by your historical knowledge (evidence), skills and understanding. Before you begin, make sure you have thoroughly analysed the question or topic and that you understand what is being asked of you. Confirm your understanding by discussing it with your teacher and/or classmates.

Your next step should always be a plan, which is essential for good essay writing. In a good plan you will:

- set out a clear structure for the essay
- list the key points of the essay's introduction (an assessment of the topic, the line of argument you intend to pursue, and a 'bridge' to the first paragraph in the body of the essay)
- set out the key points and supporting evidence for each following body paragraph. Each paragraph should deal with a separate idea or focus of evidence
- set out the key points in the conclusion, showing how you have persuasively argued your case.

Some useful tips

- Draft your work, getting feedback from your teacher and others.
- Include only your strongest, most relevant arguments and evidence. Don't be tempted to include everything you know. Keep your work sharp and lively.
- Read your draft aloud. Does your argument flow from one paragraph to the next? Does it sound interesting? Does it make sense?
- Check your spelling, grammar and expression.
- Write clearly and simply. Avoid long and complex sentences.
- Practise. As with all skills, the more you do it the better you will become.

Below is how a plan might look in its simplest form. Note that the number of body paragraphs you use will be determined by the complexity of the topic and your response. Your essay plan may look something like this. Remember that the plan is intended to be an outline only—a 'road map' for you to follow.

MY ESSAY PLAN

Question	Set out the question or topic at the top of the page.
Main contention	Set out my main contention or argument in response to the question.
Introduction	Show that I understand the question. State what my argument will be. Link to the following paragraph.
Paragraph 1	Use a topic sentence to state my strongest point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence.
Paragraph 2	Use a topic sentence to state my next most important point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence, varying the kind of evidence I am using throughout the essay if I can.
Paragraph 3	Use a topic sentence to state my next strongest point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence.
Paragraph 4	Use a topic sentence to state my next strongest point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence.
Paragraph 5	Use a topic sentence to state my next strongest point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence.
Conclusion	Restate my argument and sum up. Raise any issues arising out of my argument. Concisely state any broader implications or significance of my findings.
Bibliography	Reference all sources of information I have used in my essay.

6 EXAMINING EVIDENCE

Historical sources provide the evidence which helps us to understand the past. As you know, sources may be primary or secondary, and written or non-written. There are three main stages that historians follow in trying to develop an understanding and interpretation of the past.

Firstly, historians have to examine as much of the available evidence as is realistically possible.

Secondly, they must then ask questions of each source, such as:

- What type of source is it? Is it a primary or secondary source? Is it a newspaper article, a letter, a painting, a film, a web page or ...?
- Where was the source created?
- When was it created?
- Who created it and what was their position in society?
- Why was the source created? What was its purpose?
- What else was happening at the time the source was created?
- Is the source a complete, reliable and useful source of evidence?
- What other questions might be asked of this source?

Study the source opposite and try to answer the questions above in relation to this source. How many of the questions could you answer? Which questions couldn't you answer and why? What would you need to do to be able to answer those remaining questions?

Lastly, the historian has to construct a view of the past based on what the evidence is telling them.

Of course there is rarely one 'correct' view or interpretation of an event or issue that occurred in the past. This is because constructing an interpretation of the past is influenced by a number of factors, including the following.

- Evidence may be incomplete, contradictory, unavailable or missing.
- The skills of individual historians—the knowledge they have of a past event or period; their ability to interpret, accept or reject appropriate evidence; and their ability to empathise with people and analyse societies in the past—may vary markedly.
- Historians are influenced by their own views about the world and its people; their own preferences in regard to social, cultural, military, political or economic history; the expectations placed on them; and their reasons for examining the past.



Poster produced by the Beaufort Division of the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) during World War II (1939–45). Held at the State Library of Victoria

7 ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCES

A bibliography is a detailed list in alphabetical order (by author) of the written and audiovisual sources you have used in the conduct of your research: books, encyclopedias, websites, CD-ROMs, videos and so on. You should always acknowledge the work of others, and anyone who reads your report should be able to find your sources. The bibliography should be placed at the end of your work, whatever form that work takes.

Bibliographical references should be included in two places:

1 where a source is referred to in the assignment
2 in a complete bibliography at the end of your work, arranged alphabetically by author then by date.

Printed book and electronic sources

Each entry should include, in order and separated by commas:

- author's surname
- author's first name initial
- year of publication
- 'Title of Article', if applicable
- Complete Title of the Book or Publication, in italics
- type of publication in brackets, if applicable– for example '(video)' or '(CD-ROM)'
- publisher
- place of publication
- pages used, if applicable.

Note: If a title has more than one author, list them the same way as for a single author. If a title has more than three authors, list the name of the first author, followed by 'et al.', which means 'and others'.

Note: if a source does not have an author, list it in alphabetical order by its title, excluding the words 'A', 'An' and 'The'.

For example, for a multi-author book your bibliography entry would be presented like this:

Baker, S., et al., 2013, *Pearson History 10*, Pearson, Melbourne.

Web-based sources

For a source accessed on the internet, include the following elements, separated by full stops.

- author's name, if known, and year of publication, if applicable
- 'Title of Article', if applicable
- Title of site
- [Online]
- Available: the URL, or internet address, of the source [accessed: the date you accessed the source]

For example:

National Museum of Australia. [Online]. Available: http://www.nma.gov.au/index.html [accessed: 25/09/2012]

> *... I am father of a soldier who gave his life for his King on the battlefield and thousands of coloured men enlisted in the A.I.F. They will doubtless do so again though on their return last time, that is those who survived, they were pushed back to the bush to resume the status of aboriginals ... the aboriginal now has no status, no rights, no land and ... nothing to fight for but the privilege of defending the land which was taken from him by the white race without compensation or even kindness.*

From a letter by Aboriginal activist William Cooper to the federal Minister of the Interior just before the outbreak of World War II. From *Forgotten Heroes: Aborigines at War from the Somme to Vietnam*, by Alick Jacomos and Derek Fowell, 1993

Q How would you reference this source in a bibliography?



This photograph of Nicky Winmar, Indigenous Australian and former Australian Rules football player, was taken at the conclusion of a match between St Kilda and Collingwood in 1993. Winmar made this gesture in response to racial abuse from spectators at the game.

CHAPTER

1

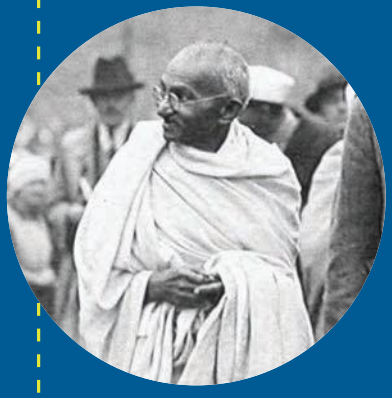
THE MODERN WORLD AND AUSTRALIA

OVERVIEW

When World War I (1914–18) ended, there was hope that the world would embark on a path towards peace, progress and prosperity. The reality proved to be very different. There were profits for some, as the nineteenth-century Industrial Revolution paved the way for lucrative mass production. For much of the world, however, the period between the wars led to more misery. In Western countries, the working class suffered immensely from a massive economic depression, and many countries around the world were still living under the restraints of colonisation.

The world was plunged back into war in 1939 when Adolf Hitler led a German invasion of Poland. This warfare was the culmination of rising political tensions in Europe and Asia, and ended in 1945 with the detonation of atomic bombs in Japan by the United States of America.

The post–World War II world was characterised by decolonisation, a Cold War and the knowledge that for the first time in history, the world was capable of deliberately destroying itself. Technology brought people closer together, but religion and ideology threatened to rip communities apart. In this climate of instability, the world progressed into a new century.







THE MODERN WORLD AND AUSTRALIA



SOURCE 1.0.1 In order to define modern Australia, historians analyse global movements, such as communication technologies, and their influence on Australia along with Australia's influence on the world.



BETWEEN THE WARS

THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

To formally end the conflict of World War I, peace treaties between the victorious Allies and the defeated nations were drawn up at the Paris Peace Conference, beginning in January 1919. The most far-reaching of these was the Treaty of Versailles with Germany. The main Allied powers that framed the Treaty of Versailles were the United States, Britain, France, Italy and Japan (although Italy and Japan had less influence than the other three). The Soviet Union had already made a separate peace agreement with Germany, Austria–Hungary and Turkey (the 1918 Brest-Litovsk treaty). Over the next five years, other treaties were finalised between the Allies and Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey.

Germany itself was not included in the Treaty of Versailles negotiations. Its delegation was summoned to Paris in April to view the settlement document. Though objecting strongly to it, they had little choice but to sign the Treaty of Versailles by June 1919.

Many historians argue that the terms of this treaty laid the seeds of World War II (1939–45).

- The victorious Allies were determined to weaken Germany. Forced to accept 'war guilt', Germany lost most of its territories in Europe and had strict limits imposed on its industrial and military growth. It was also required to make huge reparations payments to the Allies for the costs of the war. The German people resented these humiliating terms and the new German Government could not meet its ongoing war debt.
- Although it had sided with the Allies during World War I, Japan was denied equal status with Britain, France and the United States in the treaty negotiations and its hope for gaining more territory, particularly in China, was not met. Japan was also offended by the failure to include a 'racial equality' clause in the Covenant of the League of Nations.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

As part of the Treaty of Versailles, the League of Nations was established to maintain peace. It was a forum for countries to act together to restrict the build-up of **armaments**, settle disputes and, if necessary, enforce sanctions on countries that refused to cooperate. However, it lacked the levels of resources and support needed to effectively achieve its aims. Recovering from the war, Britain and France could only give it limited financial backing. The United States chose not to join the League of Nations and the Soviet Union did not do so until 1934. Germany was only allowed to join in 1926. Although it did have some successes over the years in achieving its aims, the League of Nations could not prevent major acts of aggression by Germany, Japan and Italy during the 1930s that set the scene for the outbreak of World War II.

THE INTER-WAR PERIOD

The twenty years between the end of World War I and the outbreak of Word War II are generally referred to as the **inter-war period**. In many countries it was characterised by optimism following war's end, economic boom and cultural flourishing in the 1920s, and the economic and social crises of the Great Depression in the 1930s. This period also saw the rise of fascism, a group of political ideas that gained decisive influence in some countries. The period concluded with much of the world facing the horror of another, even more destructive conflict.

THE INTERNATIONAL PICTURE

During the inter-war period, there were both changes and continuities in world affairs.

- As a result of World War I, the Habsburg and Ottoman empires had been dissolved.
- In Russia, the pressures of the war saw the overthrow of the Tsar followed by the Bolshevik (Communist) Revolution. Russia was now the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), led from 1917 to early 1924 by Vladimir Lenin and then by Joseph Stalin for almost three more decades.
- Britain remained the dominant world power. The British Empire included territories in India, Burma (Myanmar), Ceylon (now Sri Lanka), Malaya, Africa and the West Indies. In addition, as a post-war settlement, Britain had the mandated territory of Palestine.
- France remained another major world power with territories in Africa, Indochina and the West Indies.
- Other important empires were those of the Netherlands, Belgium, Portugal, Spain, Italy and Japan.
- After the war, the United States returned to its isolationist policy, meaning that it would no longer be involved in wars outside its own territory. However, due to its rapid industrial expansion and rich supply of raw materials, the US economy was now the most prosperous in the world.

THE 'ROARING TWENTIES'

For many people in Western societies, the 1920s was the decade of optimism, relative affluence and new directions after the terrors of World War I. These were made possible by strong economic conditions for much of the decade.

MASS PRODUCTION

Despite a **recession** at the start of the decade and as it adjusted to peacetime conditions, the US economy boomed. Between 1922 and 1928, US industrial production increased by 70 per cent and, by 1929, half of the United States' industry was powered by electricity. In this decade, the United States experienced rapid developments in areas such as transport (aeroplanes and cars), labour-saving household appliances (stoves, refrigerators, washing machines) and entertainment ('talkie' films, home and car radios).

Industrial production now took place in large-scale factories using assembly line organisation, which meant that workers handled different components of the eventual product as it moved along a conveyor belt.

This process, which became known as **mass production**, was developed by US car manufacturer Henry Ford, and was soon adopted across a range of industries. It was used to save time and cut production costs, and it reduced the skill set required by many workers. Because mass production could provide goods more quickly and cheaply, it was a key factor that gave rise to the modern consumer society and expansion in advertising.

Mass production was increasingly adopted in other countries. For instance, it allowed for the take-off of Australian car manufacturing, as US companies such as Ford and General Motors started to make cars in Australia. In 1920–21, there was one car for every fifty-five Australians. By 1929–30, the figure was one for every eleven Australians. As traffic increased in cities, another 1920s invention was required: traffic lights. The growth of car usage and improved rail travel gave rise to expanding suburbia in Australian and many other cities in the Western world.

SOURCE 1.1.1 Henry Ford's production line—the beginning of mass production



THE JAZZ AGE

The Jazz Age is a term often used to describe the 1920s. It not only refers to an influential new style of music that emerged at the time, but it also captures the lively spirit of other cultural developments and the sense of social liberation felt among a new generation. The Jazz Age had its beginnings in, and is most associated with, the United States. However, it did affect other parts of the Western world. It is important to keep in mind that it was mostly the better-off sections of society that were able to participate in the new era of creativity and relative freedom.

The United States was the birthplace of jazz music. It was essentially an African-American cultural form that was quite radical compared with existing popular music of the time. Like rock 'n' roll much later, it quickly grew in popularity and was soon commercialised by the 'white' middle class and enjoyed as a form of social rebellion. Jazz gained widespread appeal through the new medium of radio. The rapid development of recording and broadcasting technology meant people could now listen to live concerts or records in their own homes.

Another feature of the Jazz Age was the rise of the **'flapper'** generation. Following the nineteenth amendment to the US Constitution in 1920, women were entitled to vote in elections and during the decade more women moved into paid work. These were milestones in the status of women at the time. However, many young women also took opportunities to explore new ways of presenting themselves and enjoying their lives. These women were known as 'flappers'. Partly inspired by the image of Hollywood silent film stars such as Clara Bow, 'flappers' broke free from the strict fashions of the past, wearing shorter, loose dresses and cutting their hair shorter; they wore make-up, smoked in public, drank in illegal 'speakeasy' clubs, explored sexual freedom and even drove motor cars! Along with young men, they revelled in new dance crazes such as the Charleston.

The Jazz Age found strong expressions in other countries, especially France. US writers Ernest Hemingway, F. Scott Fitzgerald and Gertrude Stein and the daring African-American entertainer Josephine Baker lived and worked in Paris at that time. Following a major exhibition in Paris in 1927, France became the centre of the art deco styles that reshaped Western tastes in architecture and interior design. In Australia, the US Jazz Age influences in music, fashion and dance were strong. US films were also very popular in the 1920s; unfortunately, however, this contributed to the decline in Australia's previously thriving film industry.



SOURCE 1.1.3 Two 'flappers' dancing on a Chicago building rooftop ledge in 1926

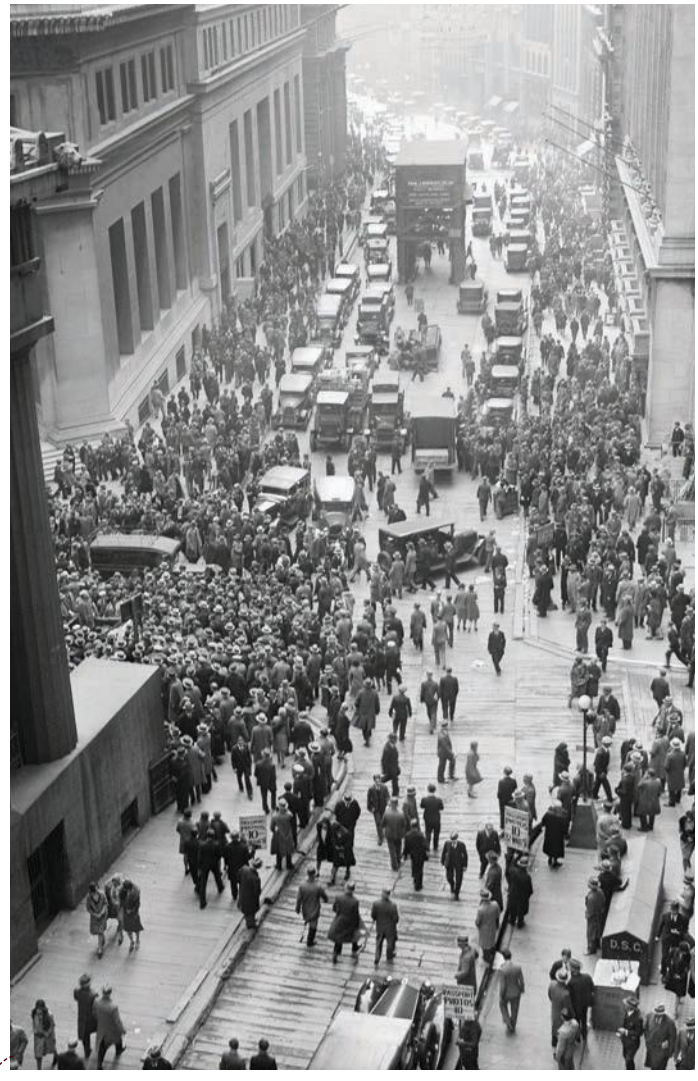


SOURCE 1.1.2 Louis Armstrong (kneeling in front) playing in King Oliver's Creole jazz band in 1922

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

THE WALL STREET CRASH

Wall Street in New York City is the home of the US stock market. In the 1920s economic boom, it was a source of quick wealth for many investors. Companies issued stocks to raise capital and, while their value was climbing, investors could sell them and make a profit. In late 1929, however, many investors realised that they had paid too much for many stocks and started selling to avoid losing money. Panic set in among investors. By 29 October, the stock market had lost 47 per cent of its value. This date in history is known as the day of the **Wall Street Crash**. Many investors lost all their money. Even though only about 1 per cent of Americans owned shares in 1929, the impact of the Wall Street Crash was severe because most of those who did also owned companies. As their companies failed, workers lost their jobs and that meant consumption of goods fell rapidly, closing more businesses and leading to more unemployment. The US economy was in the grip of a **depression**.



SOURCE 1.1.4 Crowds of Americans rush to Wall Street in 1929 to try to recover their savings.

A WORLDWIDE DEPRESSION

Much of the boom of the 1920s in many countries had been funded on borrowed money, particularly from the United States, which now stopped lending and demanded that loans it had made be repaid immediately. As countries faced falling incomes, they turned to **tariffs**; that is, taxes imposed on imports to protect their industries, which caused international trade to virtually collapse. This had a great impact on Australia because its primary and secondary industries relied upon loans mainly from Britain and the United States, and its chief source of income was export of primary products. In addition, governments no longer had the level of income from taxation revenue as well as loans to support major projects such as public building. In Australia, by 1932, the unemployment rate had reached 30 per cent of Australian men.

The Great Depression did not affect societies equally; the middle classes often had more secure employment and material resources that cushioned them from hardships, and the wealthy noticed little difference in their lifestyles. The working classes suffered most. With societies geared towards a male 'breadwinner', unemployed men lost their sense of worth when they were unable to provide for their families. Suicide rates increased and many men drifted to different areas, desperately trying to find work.

In Australia, as elsewhere, queues of desperate men hoping for even short-term employment were commonplace. Unemployment often meant the loss of everything. Families that could not pay their rent or mortgages were evicted. Makeshift shanty housing made from discarded materials sprung up on the outskirts of many towns and cities. The harsh living conditions experienced by these now impoverished people created other disadvantages in areas such as health and education.



SOURCE 1.1.5 Depression era slum living in Sydney, New South Wales, around 1934

GOVERNMENT RESPONSES TO THE GREAT DEPRESSION

As unemployment rose dramatically in Western countries, governments had to meet the challenge of ensuring the livelihood and security of their poorest citizens. But they had little available finance. Governments were reluctant to introduce welfare systems because there were concerns that people would have no incentive to work if welfare was readily available. At the same time, traditional charities had even fewer resources to deal with this crisis. Governments were eventually forced to take action.

- In the United States, Republican President Herbert Hoover (1929–33) cut government spending. After his election defeat, Democrat President Franklin Roosevelt (1933–45) took a different, more forward-looking approach. He promised a 'New Deal' for those suffering. His policies included federal government investment in major projects such as the Tennessee Valley Authority, which encompassed several struggling Southern states. Its public works included building dams for hydro-electricity generation and it provided employment for many thousands. One legacy of the New Deal was stronger federal government involvement in the United States' economy and society.
- Britain, France, Canada and Australia adopted similar approaches, though less ambitious, to that of the United States. This meant that the central government accepted some responsibility for the management of the economy and the welfare of all citizens through programs, such as public works, or a form of relief, such as rations or a dole. In Australia, state governments also provided some relief work that was paid less than the basic wage. This was not often available to single women because it was assumed that their families would support them. Significant public works in Australia, such as the Sydney Harbour Bridge, Victoria's Great Ocean Road and Brisbane's City Hall, which had commenced in the 1920s, were completed during the Great Depression as governments struggled to keep people in employment.
- The government of the Soviet Union already had a program of rapid industrialisation and reorganisation of agriculture before the Great Depression began. Unemployment was not a problem. As a result of government policies, millions of its citizens died during the early 1930s, but this was not directly due to the Great Depression.
- In Germany, the Weimar Republic Government, faced with the withdrawal of US loans, could not meet this new set of challenges. Adolf Hitler's Nazi Party rose to power in 1933, promising relief from the harsh living conditions and his boost to military spending decreased unemployment.
- In Japan, the people's suffering during the Great Depression weakened the authority of the only partly democratic government, resulting in the increased power of its military leaders. They put Japan on a path to war through acts of aggression to expand Japanese territory in its region.



Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- armaments
- depression
- 'flapper'
- inter-war period
- the Jazz Age
- mass production
- recession
- tariffs
- Wall Street Crash

2 Explain the role of the League of Nations. Ultimately, was it effective in its aims?

3 What is mass production? How did it contribute to economic boom in the 1920s?

4 How did life in the 1920s change in Western countries?

5 **a** What were the basic causes of the Great Depression?

b How did different governments respond to the Great Depression?

Analysing and applying

6 Using the internet and other sources, research and prepare a report on life in Australia during the Great Depression that includes:

- the experiences of the unemployed and one other group in society
- a brief explanation of the Premiers' Plan
- a brief account of the roles of the Australian Labor Party, the United Australia Party and the Communist Party of Australia
- the contributions of two or three famous Australians such as Nancy Bird-Walton, Sir Donald Bradman, Sir Isaac Isaacs, Margaret Preston and Roy Rene.

Build into your report some visual, graphic and written primary sources, giving them appropriate captions.



SOURCE 1.1.6 *The Bridge In-Curve*, by Grace Cossington Smith, tempera on cardboard, 1930. Held at the National Gallery of Victoria. Here the artist depicts the building of the Sydney Harbour Bridge as a significant leap forward in the building of a modern Australia.

Analysing, evaluating and creating

7 Choose one or more of the topics below to research individually, in pairs or in a small group. Use the internet and other sources for your research and present your findings to the class as a multimedia presentation.

- **a** Investigate women's and men's fashions in the 1920s and 1930s, showing how they were different from fashions before World War I. Then compare them with women's and men's fashions of today.
- **b** Investigate which books US authors Ernest Hemingway and F. Scott Fitzgerald wrote in the 1920s and 1930s, what they were about and which ones have since been made into films.
- **c** Investigate the different dance crazes that took off in the 1920s, how they were different from dancing at social occasions in the past and which ones are still popular today.
- **d** Investigate some of the African-American jazz groups of the 1920s, finding out who some of the musicians were, where they came from, what was new and appealing about their music, and the influence of 1920s jazz on the popular music of today.

Pearson recommends that, at the end of Unit 1 in this chapter, students move on to Chapter 2, the World War II depth study. Pearson's view is that the remaining units in this Overview chapter are best handled once students have a good understanding of the nature and significance of World War II.



THE COLD WAR

The Cold War dominated world politics between 1945 and 1991. It was a clash between two superpowers with competing ideologies, or sets of ideas. The Soviet Union had been a communist country since 1917. The United States was the dominant example of democratic capitalism in the Western world. Although they had been allies against the common enemies of Germany and Japan during World War II, both sides distrusted the other. Immediately after the war the distrust soon turned into long-term hostility. This was called the 'Cold War' because the two competing powers never clashed directly in a traditional 'hot' war, where the two powers were in armed conflict with each other. Rather it was fought through propaganda, by proxy (when the actual battle was fought by two less powerful countries), and threats that forewarned of possible major confrontations.

DEMOCRATIC CAPITALISM

Today, a democracy is a political system in which adult citizens have the right to vote and to stand for election, and the political party or coalition of parties with the most votes forms the government. **Capitalism** is a centuries-old economic system in which private people, or private companies, own the factories, farms, transport systems, banks, shops and so on that produce the country's goods and services. In modern democratic capitalist systems, such as that of Australia, the elected government takes responsibility for some ownership or regulation of the economy.

COMMUNISM

Communism is both a political system and an economic system that was developed from the nineteenth-century theories of Karl Marx and first put into practice in the Soviet Union following its 1917 Revolution. The political system, and hence the government, is based on only one political party; only some of the people are accepted as members of that party. The economy is based on government ownership and regulation of the different means of producing the country's goods and services. This political/economic system is based on the theory that it is the best way to ensure equality for the people.

POST–WORLD WAR II TENSIONS

With the war in Europe turning in favour of the Allies, a conference between the major leaders—Roosevelt (the United States), Churchill (Britain) and Stalin (Soviet Union)—was held at Yalta in February 1945 to discuss the shape of a post-war world. Stalin made it clear that he planned to control countries that had been incorporated into the Soviet Union towards the end of the war. In addition, because the Soviet Union had been invaded by Germany twice in a generation, he demanded a 'buffer', comprising these now communist countries, between the Soviet Union and Germany. However, by the time the leaders of the same countries met at Potsdam in July 1945, certain things had changed. The West had two new leaders, Truman (the United States) and Attlee (Britain), and the knowledge that the United States had developed an atomic weapon. The new leaders were now prepared to resist Stalin's demands.

At the Potsdam Conference, newly defeated Germany was divided into four zones, each to be controlled by one of Britain, France, the United States and the Soviet Union. This was intended as a temporary arrangement to assist Germany to recover from the war and return to democratic government. Berlin was in the Soviet zone, but was meant to be divided into sectors like the country as a whole. However, relations between the Soviet Union and the other Allies were strained. In the following month, the United States chose to use its atomic bomb technology on Japan's cities Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Stalin now believed that the biggest threat to the Soviet Union's power in its region was the United States. At the same time, the United States was fearful of communist expansion in Europe, and was prepared to take a leading role in order to stop what it saw as the advance of communism in the world.

AN 'IRON CURTAIN'

By 1946, there had been an acceptance of the reality of Soviet control of the 'buffer countries' of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania and Poland. Germany remained between East and West, with the Soviet Union still controlling the eastern part. Former British Prime Minister Winston Churchill famously referred to an '**Iron Curtain**' existing between democratic Western and communist Eastern Europe. Consistent with its

new position in world affairs, the United States used its influence and huge military and financial resources to ensure that post-war Greece would not also take on a communist government. This was an early example of the US policy to 'contain' the spread of communism.

Post-war tensions came to a crisis point when the Soviet Union closed off access to the other Allies' sectors of Berlin, forcing them to airlift supplies into western Berlin for nearly a year. What might have become a military conflict was not resolved until Stalin lifted the blockade in May 1949. In another part of the world, the Communist Party led by Mao Zedong came into power in China in September of that year. It was clear that new political divisions and alliances had taken hold in the post-war world and the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union was becoming entrenched.



SOURCE 1.2.1 Map of countries and territories under communist rule in Eastern Europe by 1949

THE BERLIN WALL

By the late 1950s, hundreds of thousands of East Germans were leaving for West Germany, looking for freedom from communist rule and a better standard of living. The East German Government knew that if highly trained people left in such numbers the East German economy and living standards could not be improved. In 1961, it had a high concrete-block wall built right across the city of Berlin and eventually extended the barrier along the frontier between East and West Germany. Most of the wall had barbed wire at the top; the land on the eastern side was sown with mines; observation towers with floodlights were installed; and border guards with machine guns patrolled it. East Germans attempting to get over the wall were shot. The Berlin Wall became a powerful symbol of the deep divisions of the Cold War.

THE SUPERPOWERS

By 1950, there were two world 'superpowers', the United States and the Soviet Union. Both held atomic bombs, and both were funnelling huge amounts of money into maintaining military hardware and troops in their spheres of influence. For the United States, the emergence of a communist China in 1949 was seen as a major threat to the development of democracy in the Asia–Pacific region.

THE KOREAN WAR

The first major Cold War conflict between the superpowers took place on the Korean Peninsula, which had been occupied by Japan. Following Japan's defeat in 1945, in what was intended as a short-term measure, the Korean Peninsula was artificially divided at 38° north latitude into the Soviet- and now Chinese-supported North Korea and the US-supported South Korea. By 1947, there were effectively two Koreas, and the United Nations' (UN) attempts to organise a reunification election were stopped by the Soviet Union. Following border clashes as each claimed the whole country, North Korea invaded South Korea in June 1950.

Fear of communist expansion in Asia prompted the United States to use its influence in the UN Security Council, which decided to send a UN force to drive back the North Koreans. This UN force, commanded by US General Douglas MacArthur, was made up of troops from fifteen countries (including Australia), but most were American. After prolonged fighting, great loss of life (including nearly 4 million Korean civilians) and devastation of the country due to shelling and bombing, a negotiated ceasefire ended the war in July 1953. The country was left divided just as it had been before. The Korean War was a power struggle between the two superpowers, yet it remained only a limited war and, despite both sides having the capability by then, nuclear weapons were not used.

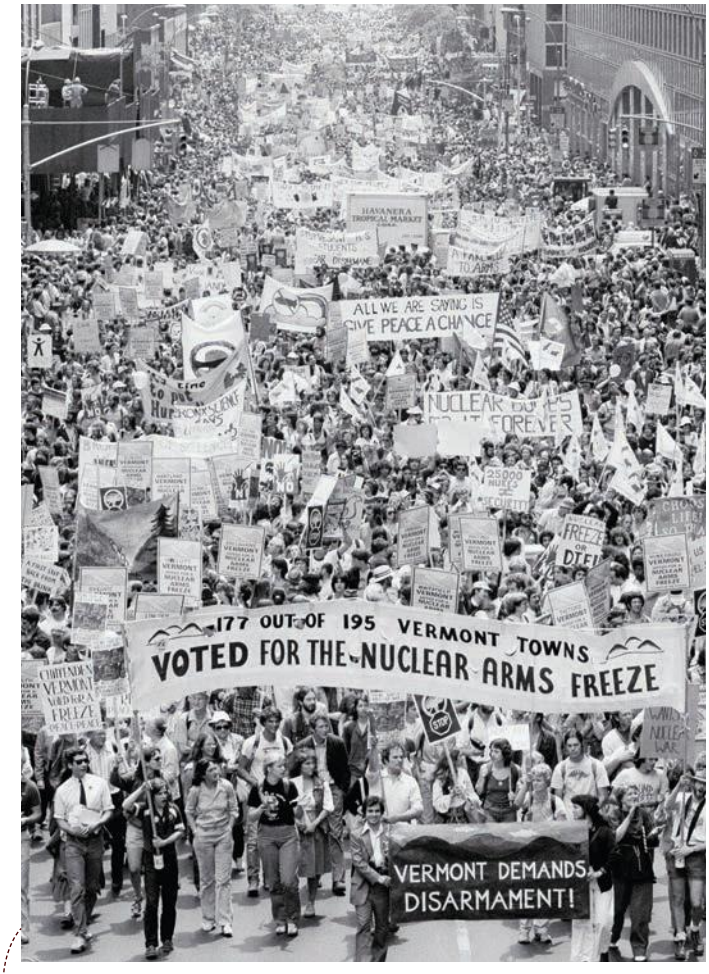
THE ARMS RACE

The **arms race** is the term used to describe the competition between the two superpowers to develop and stockpile increasingly sophisticated weapons. Initially, the United States believed it had a monopoly on nuclear weapons that would last well into the 1950s. However, that complacency was shattered when the Soviet Union successfully tested an atomic bomb in August 1949. This was the event that really launched the nuclear arms race.

The Americans then developed a hydrogen bomb in 1952 that was much more powerful than the atomic bombs dropped on Japan. Within three years the Soviets had built their own equivalent. The capacity for nuclear weapons expanded greatly when the British successfully tested nuclear weapons in Australia, and France did the same in Algeria and later the South Pacific. In 1964, China became the fifth power to develop nuclear weapons.

The Soviet Union took a major step forward in 1957 when it launched the world's first satellite, Sputnik I. The implication was that nuclear weapons could now be launched into space, greatly increasing their range. Already missiles had replaced bomber aircraft as the preferred means of delivery. But the start of the 'space race' raised the stakes even higher.

By the 1950s, both superpowers had the capacity to not only destroy the other, but launch a retaliatory strike after they had been attacked. This resulted in what was called **Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD)**, an almost certain guarantee that if one side launched a nuclear attack, the destruction of both superpowers and most of the planet would follow.



SOURCE 1.2.2 Crowds of people march in a New York street for a rally against nuclear arms, June 1982.

THE CUBAN MISSILE CRISIS

In 1959, the communist government led by Fidel Castro took power on the island of Cuba, in the Caribbean Sea, and the Soviet Union gave the new government economic aid. Cuba is south of the US state of Florida. Upon taking office in 1961, US President John F. Kennedy became aware of the plan of the US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) to use anti-communist Cubans trained and equipped by the United States to overthrow Castro. Kennedy reluctantly agreed to the operation, which was to be an invasion at the Bay of Pigs. But the attempted invasion failed. The so-called 'Bay of Pigs' affair convinced Castro that the United States was determined to get rid of the communist government in Cuba. He turned to the Soviet Union for military support. Keen to have an ally so geographically close to the United States, Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev poured military aid and equipment into Cuba. By October of 1962, this included the building of a launch site for ballistic missiles capable of attacking the United States.

US Air Force spy flights confirmed the existence of the launch pad, and a tense stand-off developed. With Congressional elections looming, Kennedy could not afford to be seen by the public as soft on communism. He made it clear to Khrushchev and Castro that any missiles launched at the United States or its allies from Cuba would result in a US nuclear attack on the Soviet Union. He demanded that the missiles be removed. Some of his military advisers argued for a US air strike to destroy the missiles, despite the risk of war with the Soviet Union, but Kennedy decided on a naval 'quarantine' of Cuba. US ships blockaded Cuba to prevent any Soviet ships (therefore including those carrying missiles) from arriving. Khrushchev was also keen to avoid war, and ordered his ships to turn around at the blockade. In behind-the-scenes negotiations, the United States agreed not to invade Cuba, while the Soviet Union agreed to dismantle the missile base there.

The **Cuban Missile Crisis** of October 1962 is generally regarded as the closest the world has come to a nuclear war. Despite the fact that nuclear war was seriously considered and the worldwide fears of it happening, the Cuban Missile Crisis ultimately reduced the risk of future nuclear confrontation and resulted in a number of outcomes.

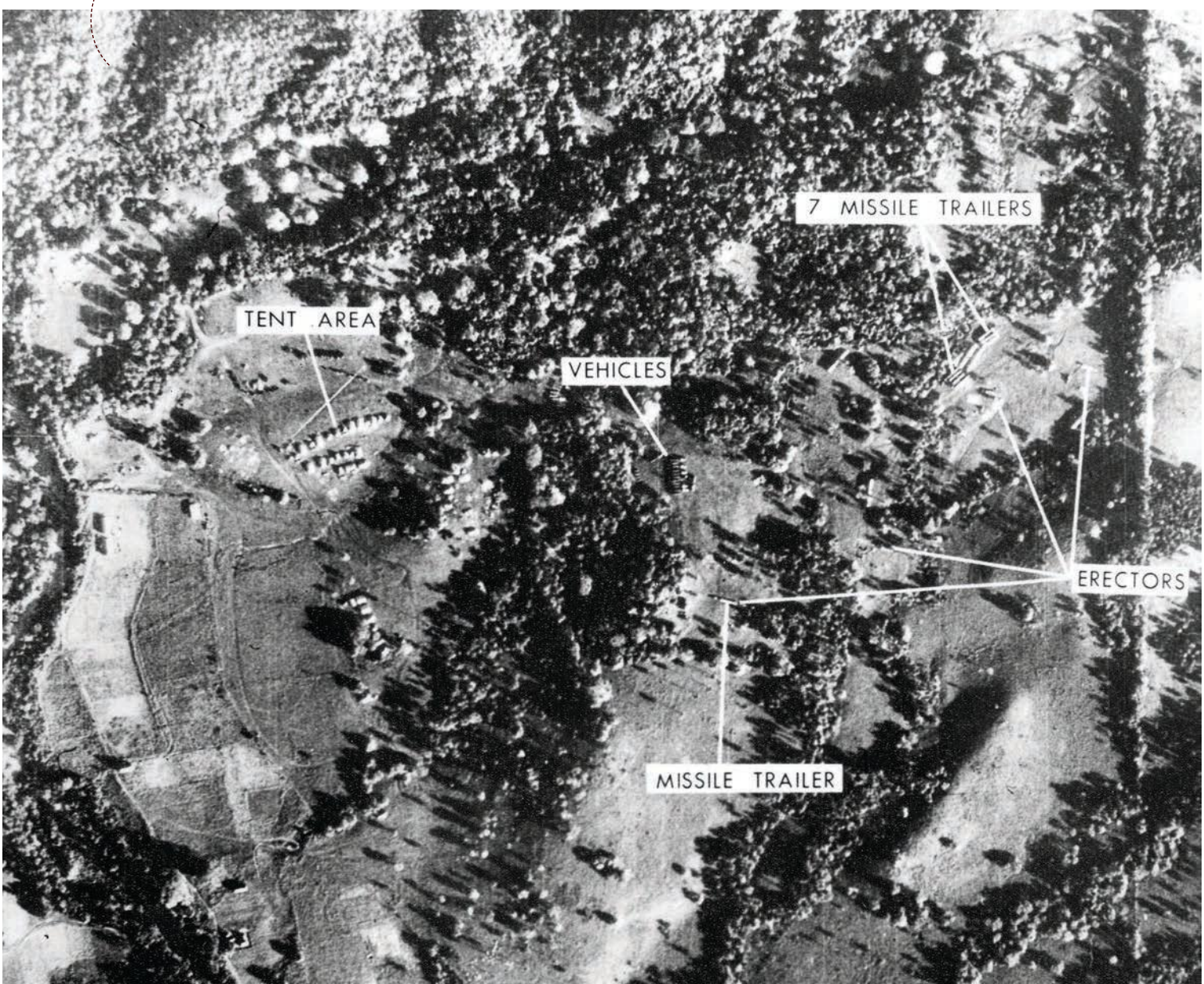
- A 'hotline' between the US and Soviet leaders was installed to allow rapid, direct communication in any future crisis. (Previously, it had taken nearly 12 hours for Kennedy to receive and decode a crucial message from Khrushchev.)
- Three months after the crisis, the United States secretly removed its missiles from Turkey and Italy.
- A ban on atmospheric nuclear testing was introduced in 1963.
- Cuba exchanged its Bay of Pigs US prisoners for medical supplies, food and cash.

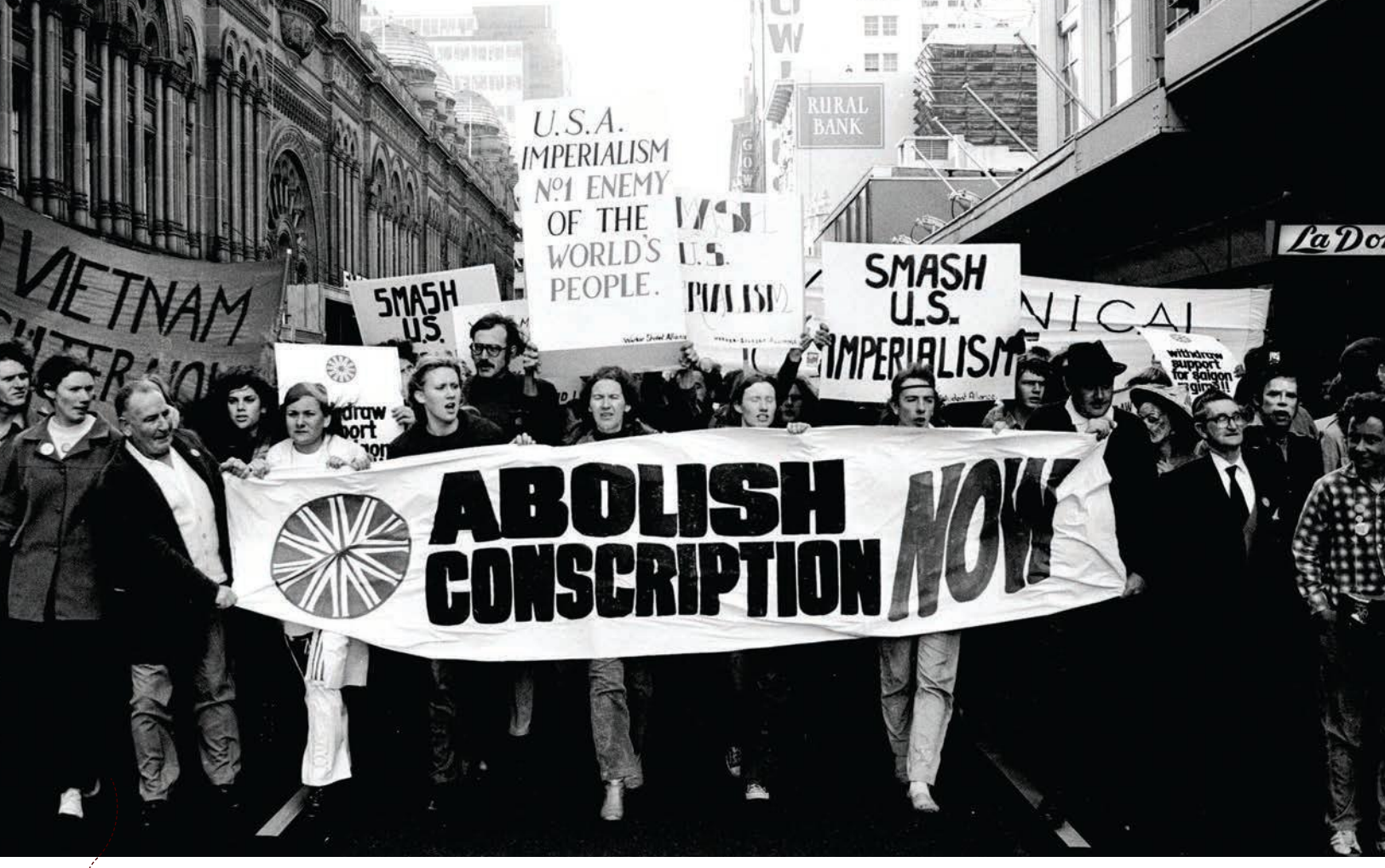
The crisis enabled Kennedy to appear as a tough leader prepared to stand up to the Soviet Union. It also convinced US leaders that the Soviet Union was reluctant to commit full-scale troops to support communist governments. This belief helped pave the way for greater US involvement in areas such as Vietnam. Although both leaders survived the immediate crisis, Kennedy was assassinated in 1963, and the following year Khrushchev was forced to retire.

THE VIETNAM WAR

Vietnam, along with Cambodia and Laos, made up Indochina in South-East Asia. Before World War II, the region was under French colonial control. The wartime French Vichy Government allowed Japanese troops to be stationed there. As the war progressed, Indochinese nationalists worked with US forces to defeat the Japanese in Indochina. However, the Indochinese desire for independence was thwarted when the United States sided with the post-war French Government as it resumed control of Indochina. Led by Ho Chi Minh, who had formed the Vietnamese Communist Partly, the Vietnamese defeated the French in 1954. The Geneva Accords settlement saw Vietnam partitioned into the communist North and the US-backed, non-communist South. Ho Chi Minh's North Vietnamese guerrilla units then fought the South with the aim of reunifying Vietnam as an independent, communist nation. The Soviet Union and communist China provided aid to the North Vietnamese forces but did not become directly involved in the conflict.

SOURCE 1.2.3 Cuban missile base uncovered and photographed during US intelligence flights, 1962





SOURCE 1.2.4 Anti-war and anti-conscription protesters in Sydney, 1970

Vietnam became a major Cold War battleground because the United States wanted to 'contain' the spread of communism in South-East Asia. The US position was based on a simplistic '**domino theory**' which assumed that if Vietnam was allowed to 'fall' to communist rule, the rest of South-East Asia would follow. The United States committed massive defence spending on the most technologically advanced weaponry and hundreds of thousands of troops to the fight against communist North Vietnam. As a US ally, Australia contributed troops and equipment to this war effort, but it ended in defeat. By the time North Vietnamese tanks rolled into the presidential palace in South Vietnam's capital, Saigon, on 30 April 1975, Vietnam was successfully unified under communist rule. Communist governments later gained power throughout Indochina. Millions of lives were lost and large tracts of land destroyed in this episode of the Cold War.

DID YOU KNOW?

What the West refers to as the 'Vietnam War' is called the 'American War' in Vietnam. This is because Vietnam has fought other wars against China, France and Japan when they challenged Vietnam's right to exist.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE VIETNAM WAR

- The Vietnam War was the first comprehensive defeat the United States had suffered in a war. Combined with a major 1970s political scandal at home known as 'Watergate' and the dramatic rise in oil prices in 1973, the defeat dented the United States' confidence as a nation.
- Among the people of both the United States and Australia, debate grew over the appropriateness of their countries' involvement in the war. This led to political divisions and, in Australia, controversy over the introduction of conscription for service in Vietnam.
- The Vietnam War became known as the 'television war'. Through televised news footage, the gruesome realities of the war were brought into people's homes. This made it difficult for politicians to say how well the war was going; it also fuelled the debate about the war effort and the growth of an anti-war movement in the West.

- A moral obligation to the South Vietnamese who had supported the United States and its allies also changed migration patterns. Thousands fled Vietnam rather than enter 're-education camps', and the United States and Australia found themselves confronted by refugees who escaped in makeshift craft to find safety. In Australia, this helped change the basic conditions of migration, bringing a formal end to the White Australia policy as Asian immigration rapidly increased after the fall of Saigon. By 2006, Vietnamese people formed the fifth largest group of overseas-born Australians, a statistic that was inconceivable before the war in Vietnam.

END OF THE COLD WAR

From the mid-1970s, there was a period of more or less peaceful co-existence between the Soviet Union and the United States, known as **détente**. But in 1979, the Soviet Union became involved in the internal politics of its ally Afghanistan. The United States saw the invasion as Soviet expansionism. By December, US troops were sent to restore order there and the United States became involved in a conflict that would last over a decade. The period of détente was over. One indication of this was a US boycott of the 1980 Moscow Olympics and a Soviet boycott of the Los Angeles Olympics four years later.



SOURCE 1.2.5 Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev and US President Ronald Reagan, December 1987. During the landmark summit meeting, both world leaders signed a treaty to reduce the size of their nuclear arsenals, effectively halting the arms race.

GLASNOST

At the time of the war in Afghanistan, the Soviet Union was experiencing leadership instability as each of its leaders in Brezhnev, Andropov and Chernenko died between 1982 and 1985. The Soviet leadership was passed on to Mikhail Gorbachev in 1985; at 54, he was the youngest Soviet leader since Stalin came to power in 1925. He was determined to end Soviet involvement in the costly war in Afghanistan, and he pledged that the Soviet Union would not interfere in the political reforms starting up in Eastern Europe. He launched a policy called '**glasnost**', which means 'openness'. He was determined to bring a new transparency to the Soviet Government, and to open up discussion with the United States in an effort to improve relations between the two superpowers.

CONSEQUENCES OF GLASNOST

Gorbachev's glasnost policy had a range of consequences, and historians debate how many were intended.

- Nationalist sentiment grew rapidly in areas that had been under Soviet control since 1940. The Soviet Union's iron grip on the Eastern European countries that had been controlled since the end of World War II also loosened. At the same time as the Soviet Union left Afghanistan in 1989, the former Soviet allies of Eastern Europe such as Hungary, Poland and East Germany became independent. When the East German Government opened up the Berlin Wall to allow travel between East and West Berlin, and the wall itself was then gradually torn down by East Berliners, this event was seen throughout the world as the symbolic end of the Cold War.
- As censorship in the Soviet Union was lifted, people became aware of the repression they had lived under since Stalin's time. Political prisoners were freed, and social and political policies were questioned. The wave of democratisation that swept Eastern Europe in 1989, continued throughout the Soviet Union. After a coup against Gorbachev's policies failed in 1991, the Soviet Union officially disbanded, resulting in fifteen separate countries, one of them being Russia.
- Communist rule ended in many countries during this period. For the former Yugoslavia, this meant that the Balkan region broke into competing ethnicities that would claim national recognition in a series of bitter conflicts throughout the 1990s.



SOURCE 1.2.6 Berliners climbing the Berlin Wall in front of the Brandenburg Gate after communist East Berlin opened all border crossings, 10 November 1989

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- arms race
- capitalism
- communism
- Cuban Missile Crisis
- détente
- domino theory
- glasnost
- Iron Curtain
- Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD)

2 Based on the text in this unit, place the following events on a timeline in chronological order:

- The Soviet Union invades Afghanistan.
- The Soviet Union is dissolved.
- The Cuban Missile Crisis takes place.
- Sputnik I is launched.
- China becomes a communist country.
- The Korean War starts when North Korea invades South Korea.

3 On an outline map of Indochina, make notes showing the main factual information about the Vietnam War.

Analysing and evaluating

4 As a class, answer the following questions based on the information provided in this unit.

a What were the causes of the Cold War?

b What did the Cold War demonstrate about humans' ability to destroy the planet?

c Is it fair to say that the United States won the Cold War? Explain your answer.

5 If you were a teenager in Australia in 1962, how would you have responded to the daily news on television and in newspapers about the Cuban Missile Crisis?

Applying and evaluating

6 Many events have become regarded as significant occurrences of the Cold War. Select one of the following events to research and write a report that explains what happened and the impact the event had on relations between the United States and the Soviet Union.

- The Berlin blockade
- The Hungarian uprising of 1956
- The Vietnam War
- The Prague uprising of 1968
- The 1980 and 1984 Olympic Games
- The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan
- The fall of the Berlin Wall
- The Tiananmen Square incident of 1989

Evaluating and creating

7 Examine Source 1.2.6. Using the internet and other sources, research the living conditions of East and West Germans before the fall of the Berlin Wall and how their circumstances changed after 1989. Write a short memoir from the perspective of a former East or West German who is looking back on events that occurred in Germany between 1945 and 1989.

8 In small groups, select one of the incidents mentioned in this unit that had an impact on the Cold War and write two different newspaper articles about it. One should be from the perspective of a newspaper published in Moscow, and the other from the point of view of a newspaper published in Washington, D.C. Be sure to consider how these different viewpoints will affect your reporting of the event.

DID YOU KNOW?

Since the end of the Cold War, the stockpiles of nuclear arms have decreased, but India, Pakistan, North Korea, and possibly Israel and Iran have also developed nuclear capabilities. Some of the money that had previously gone into developing nuclear weapons has since been used to try and clean up nuclear sites that have dangerous pollution consequences.

UNIT 3

SOURCE STUDY: THE CHANGING NATURE OF SOURCES

SOURCES IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Twentieth century inventions have produced a range of sources for historians to study. These include feature-length films, television programs and advertising, recorded music, daily newspapers (whether print or online) and email.

The advent of digital storage of information has led to a myriad of different kinds of internet websites that historians can access for source material. The digital age supports demands for instant information, but historical inquiry requires reflection and often lengthy examination of sources to reach reasoned, well-supported interpretations. For example, the reliability of websites such as Wikipedia® is a matter of debate. Wikipedia has 'democratised' knowledge by giving people access to vast amounts of information. However, some critics question its accuracy, balance and authenticity, especially given that the authors of content are not specifically named. Material in Wikipedia, like all sources, needs to be checked and confirmed.

INTERPRETING SOURCES

Think about the role of historians in interpreting sources to provide an understanding of events, times and movements. When interpreting written and other historical sources, it is important to find answers to the following questions. Some of these may be evident in the source itself, while others may require additional research for historians. Use the acronym ADAMANT to help you remember these.



Use the ADAMANT technique to examine the sources related to the Vietnam War and to respond to the source study questions that follow.

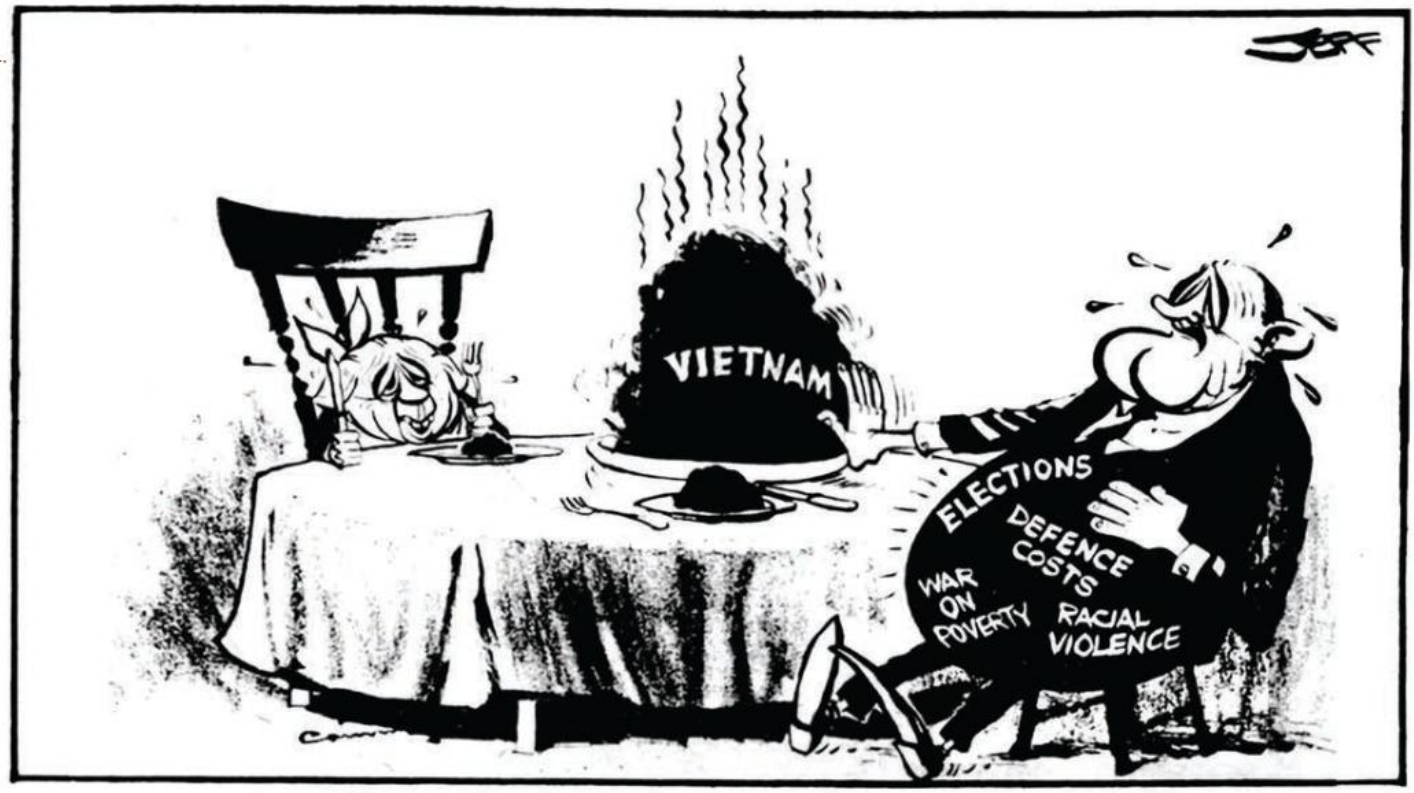
AUTHOR	Do we know anything about who created the source, such as their occupation or their relationship to the event?
DATE	When was the source produced? How does its context help make sense of it?
AUDIENCE	For whom was the source originally created?
MESSAGE	What did the author wish to communicate to the audience? How would that audience be likely to respond?
AGENDA	What was the author's reason for producing the source? Do they have a particular point of view?
NATURE	What type of source is it? How does this affect its content (e.g. A diary is meant to be for private purposes.)
TECHNIQUES	How does the author show their point of view in the language or imagery they use?

SOURCE 1.3.1 US President Lyndon B. Johnson speaks at a White House press conference about his decision to increase conscripts for the Vietnam War, 29 July 1965.

> *... Why are we in South Viet-Nam?*
>
> *We are there because we have a promise to keep. Since 1954 every American President has offered support to the people of South Viet-Nam. We have helped to build, and we have helped to defend. Thus, over many years, we have made a national pledge to help South Viet-Nam defend its independence...*

SOURCE 1.3.2 US President Lyndon B. Johnson speaking at Johns Hopkins University, 7 April 1965

SOURCE 1.3.3 A political cartoon commenting on the Vietnam War by Geoff (Jeff) Hook, published in *The Australian*, 18 July 1967



"Have a bigger slice . . . I've got internal trouble!"

Well, come on all of you, big strong men,
Uncle Sam needs your help again.
He's got himself in a terrible jam
Way down yonder in Vietnam
So put down your books and pick up a gun,
We're gonna have a whole lotta fun.

And it's one, two, three,
What are we fighting for?
Don't ask me, I don't give a damn,
Next stop is Vietnam;
And it's five, six, seven,
Open up the pearly gates,
Well there ain't no time to wonder why,
Whoopee! we're all gonna die.

SOURCE 1.3.4 From 'I-Feel-Like-I'm-Fixin'-To-Die Rag', lyrics and music by 'Country' Joe McDonald, released in 1967

Sir.—I am a science student at Melbourne University, and I wish to refute the implications of the Attorney-General (Mr Bowen) that all protesters are communist-inspired. I realise that some of the organisers are communists, but many protesters, including myself, are strongly anti-communist.

My reason for joining demonstrations is that I feel very strongly that no human has the right, or should want to kill, or cause harm to another human.

Under this philosophy, based on my Christian beliefs, I would refuse to register for national service were I a young man. I feel no Government has the right to force anyone to join the army—not even those who believe war is a plausible means of settling idealistic [sic] and national differences...

SOURCE 1.3.5 Part of a letter from Ann Sherwin to the editor of *The Age* newspaper, 20 May 1968, under the heading 'Candid view of a girl student'

She was seventeen in August 1966, when asked by the Australian government to entertain troops with Col Joye. At that time, the Vietnam War was still a popular one with the Australian public… Pattie did not want to sanction Australia's involvement by going, but did hope to brighten up the tour of duty by Australian soldiers… Assurances were given that the group would be quite safe. Instead they found themselves in Nui Dat the day the Battle of Long Tanh erupted. In her own words, 'we were right in the thick of it. Several times we were in real danger'. Having had plenty of time to reflect on the experience since then, Pattie now wonders whether or not they were used to provide approval for the war.

SOURCE 1.3.6

From *Rock Through History: Understanding the Modern World Through Rock and Roll*, by Bernie Howitt, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne, 1989. Australian singer Little Pattie performed for Australian troops in Vietnam in 1966.



SOURCE 1.3.7

Moratoriums (large street demonstrations) were held in Australia in protest against the Vietnam War. This poster was used to advertise a moratorium held in Sydney in 1970. Held at the Australian War Memorial

SOURCE 1.3.8

This famous photo was taken on 8 June 1972 after US planes mistakenly napalm bombed a Vietnamese village. One of the children from the village, Kim, had torn off her burning clothes as she ran.



SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSING

1 Re-read Source 1.3.2.

- **a** What groups of people do you think President Johnson would have intended as the audience for this speech? What feelings among his intended audience is he appealing to?
- **b** This source can be regarded as a primary source because it is from a speech given by the president of the United States. What other types of primary and secondary sources would you try to find to investigate why the United States was in Vietnam in 1965?

ANALYSING AND EVALUATING

2 Re-read Source 1.3.4. Although the song was written in 1965, the record company refused to release it until 1967. It became famous when McDonald performed an impromptu version at the Woodstock music festival in 1969. Since then, it has appeared in several popular culture sources, including the film *More American Graffiti* (1979) and the television series *The Wonder Years* (1988–93).

- **a** Would the message of the song vary depending on when, where and by whom it was heard or read? Give reasons for your answers.
- **b** How useful are song lyrics as a historical source? Give reasons for your answer.

3 Examine Source 1.3.3. Political cartoons use images, irony and humour to encourage people to think about a situation or event. This cartoon features Australian Prime Minister Holt and US President Johnson. In July 1967, the United States had further increased its troop numbers in Vietnam and US B-52 bombers were pounding targets in South and North Vietnam. Later that year, the Australian Government decided to send more troops and equipment to Vietnam.

- **a** How is the war in Vietnam portrayed?
- **b** How is Australian Prime Minister Holt portrayed?
- **c** How is US President Johnson portrayed?
- **d** What does Johnson mean when he says 'Have a bigger slice … I've got internal trouble'?
- **e** What effects would this cartoon have had on readers at the time? Would this depend on the readers' backgrounds and perspectives? Give reasons for your answer.

4 Re-read Source 1.3.5.

- **a** How could historians use this letter as evidence that opinions on the conduct of the Vietnam War were divided in Australia? What other evidence would they require to come to a definite conclusion?
- **b** How valuable are personal opinions such as those in letters to newspapers for historians?

5 Re-read Source 1.3.6.

- **a** Would you regard this as a primary or secondary source? Explain your answer.
- **b** Pattie recalls, 'several times we were in real danger'. What impact would this experience have had on her memory and perception of her time in Vietnam?
- **c** How could historians use this extract when constructing a history of Australia's involvement in Vietnam?

6 Examine Source 1.3.7. The puppet on strings is meant to represent Nguyen Cao Ky, a South Vietnamese military leader who held anti-communist beliefs and was highly favoured by the United States. Who or what is meant to represent the hand pulling the puppet's strings? How is this illustration used to promote an anti-US and anti-war message?

7 Examine Source 1.3.8. This photo was published in newspapers throughout much of the world.

- **a** What impact to you think this photo would have had on newspaper readers?
- **b** How may this photo have contributed to debates about the war in the United States and Australia?
- **c** Look closely at the people behind the children. What they are doing? What questions about the role of journalists in war situations does this photo raise?
- **d** What difficulties might the use of photos pose for historians in the digital age?

MOVEMENTS FOR DECOLONISATION



Decolonisation means the process of establishing independence in areas that were previously controlled by a stronger power. Although the move to decolonisation sometimes comes from the controlling power itself, in most cases, it comes from within the colonised population. For the colonised people, the move to decolonise often involves armed struggle. It relies on a sense of national identity that draws people together in a shared political and, to varying degrees, cultural community with agreed rights and freedoms. That is why the process of decolonisation is often referred to as a struggle for national independence or national liberation, particularly by the colonised people.

The upheavals of World War II placed the major European powers with colonies in other parts of the world in a different position and strengthened existing nationalist aspirations among the colonised populations. For example, French power in Indochina was weakened during the war and, despite US efforts to support the return of the French after the war, Vietnamese nationalists were sufficiently organised to be able to mount a successful campaign for Vietnamese independence. The establishment of the United Nations not long after the war's end increased the push for decolonisation, particularly in the wake of its Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, which confirmed people's right to **self-determination**. This post-war world was also marked by the Cold War. During that era, the superpowers—the United States and Soviet Union—used some anti-colonial struggles as proxy battlegrounds for their own ideological conflicts.

This unit examines three examples of decolonisation that occurred in the second half of the twentieth century.

INDIA

India was regarded as the 'jewel in the crown' of the British Empire, but was largely administered by the British East India Company (a private trading company) for much of its time as a colony. The company maintained political control over most of the subcontinent until the Indian Mutiny of 1857, which resulted in the end of formal Company rule in 1858. Indian national sentiment increased further in the late nineteenth century.

Divisions between Hindu and Muslim Indians threatened to destabilise any progress towards independence, and nationalists often did not agree on whether to use direct action or negotiation. Hindus and Muslims first joined effectively in 1916 after the lawyer Mohandas Karamchand (Mahatma) Gandhi returned to India from South Africa. By the 1930s, Gandhi had become a very influential leader of the movement for Indian independence.

When Britain failed to guarantee India's independence at the end of World War II, Gandhi led a campaign called 'Quit India'. Using strategies of non-violence and non-cooperation with authorities (sometimes called '**civil disobedience**'), Gandhi mobilised mass support against British rule. Key individuals, such as the Hindu Gandhi and the Muslim independence leader Muhammad Ali Jinnah, made a powerful case to the people of the sub-continent for a unified, independent India, regardless of their religious beliefs. The right to self-determination for an area that had such a proud history of civilisation became a potent force for change in the region.

SOURCE 1.4.1

Mahatma Gandhi on a tour of Lancashire cotton mills, 1931. Gandhi travelled to the United Kingdom to attend a conference with the British Government to discuss Indian independence. The meeting did not result in a transfer of power to the Indian people, but Gandhi's presence made a lasting impression on the British public.



However, the fragile religious unity broke down in a civil war between Hindus and Muslims in 1946. A partition proposed by Britain resulted in the division of the sub-continent into Hindu India and Muslim Pakistan. Thus, religious and cultural differences within the region resulted in the establishment of two independent countries in August 1947.

A consequence of decolonisation is often political instability. In 1948, Gandhi was assassinated by a Hindu extremist. Tensions between India and Pakistan have continued since 1947, and border skirmishes and territorial disputes still occur. In 1971, East Pakistan revolted against dominant West Pakistan. With Indian help, a third independent country was formed in the region, what is present-day Bangladesh.

INDONESIA

Prior to World War II, present-day Indonesia was called the Dutch (of the Netherlands) East Indies. During the war, the Japanese occupying forces were prepared to encourage Indonesian nationalism for their own purposes. After Japan's defeat in 1945, the nationalist leader Sukarno declared the Independent Republic of Indonesia. However, Dutch administrators and troops returned, aiming to regain control of the territory. A war of independence followed and the United Nations was involved in finding a solution. An unlikely alliance of Australia, India, the Soviet Union and the United States helped the United Nations secure a ceasefire in 1947; this led to Indonesia claiming independence in 1949. Despite this, Indonesian republicans still faced unrest across the islands, and it was not until 17 August 1950 that Sukarno was able to proclaim a unitary Indonesian republic. In 1963, Sukarno persuaded the Netherlands to hand over West Irian (western New Guinea) to Indonesia.



SOURCE 1.4.2 Indonesian President Sukarno addressing a meeting during the move to independence in 1946

Subsequent events in Indonesia provide an example of the influence of one or both superpowers aiming to control developments outside their own regions. In the context of the Cold War, Sukarno's rule was brought to an end in 1965 by a military coup led by General Suharto. The United States via the CIA (its intelligence agency) supported the coup because it believed that Sukarno was influenced by communist China and the Indonesian Communist Party. General Suharto's brutal dictatorship drew few protests from the West because it was seen to be anti-communist.

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

Rich in minerals and agriculture, the Congo region in Central Africa was governed as a privately owned territory by King Leopold of Belgium from 1884. He exploited both the land and its people using immense cruelty. By 1908, reports of the enslavement of much of the population forced European governments to act. The area was made a colony of Belgium, known as the Belgian Congo.

For the next fifty years, Belgium did little to prepare the region for independence, despite the move towards decolonisation in other parts of Africa. Like many European colonial powers, Belgium did educate its colonised populations, and educated Congolese began agitating for independence in the 1950s. Riots in 1959 convinced the Belgians that, despite the potential mineral wealth in the colony, it would stretch Belgian resources too thinly to retain control. The newly named Democratic Republic of the Congo gained independence in 1960.

Because Belgium had not established the conditions for a smooth transition to independence, the result was chaos. The nationalist leader, Patrice Lumumba, was elected prime minister. He faced attempts to establish breakaway states and leadership challenges. At stake was control of the region's minerals. With the United States clearly aligned with Belgium and supporting its mining companies, Lumumba turned to the Soviet Union for support. This was a direct threat to the United States, and the CIA became involved in efforts to destabilise the regime. Lumumba was captured in 1961 and handed over to the troops of the US-supported Colonel Joseph Mobutu, who had him murdered. Mobutu became president of the Democratic Republic of the Congo in a CIA-supported coup. He remained in power continuously between 1965 and 1997 and renamed the country Zaire.

Mobutu himself represents many of the problems of decolonised Africa. He came to power in a military coup backed by an outside power during the Cold War era. Charismatic leaders such as Lumumba and Mobutu were often manipulated by stronger outside powers for their own political or economic purposes. Mobutu used his position to install a one-party system of government, ruled with brutal suppression, and amassed a huge personal fortune. When he was exiled in 1997, he left behind a country that in many ways was no better off than it had been when Lumumba was assassinated. Zaire was subsequently renamed the Democratic Republic of the Congo. It was only in 2006 that free, nation-wide elections were held.



SOURCE 1.4.3 Young workers mining copper in the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 2005

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- civil disobedience
- decolonisation
- self-determination

Understanding and analysing

2 Re-read the accounts of the decolonisation of India, Indonesia and the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

a List the features that were common to the three movements for decolonisation.

b Identify which of the three movements had outcomes shaped by Cold War pressures. What forms did they take?

c What factors can result in newly decolonised countries experiencing further turmoil?

Applying and evaluating

3 Select one former colony from the list below and, using the internet and other sources, research its move to decolonisation. Make notes in response to these questions.

a Which foreign power had controlled it?

b What methods were used to achieve independence?

c What role did individuals and groups play?

d How successful has it been as an independent country?

Choose from:

- Angola
- Fiji
- Lithuania
- Nigeria
- Panama (Canal Zone)
- Ukraine

Present your findings in a format approved by your teacher.



UNIT 5

POST-COLD WAR CONFLICTS

After the Cold War, there was a general belief in the West that a 'new world order' of relative peace and international cooperation would ensue. Yet since the Cold War there have been major conflicts throughout the world. Most had their roots in older historical conditions and tensions, some were brought on by the end of the Cold War, and others were in part a reaction against the world dominance of the United States.

ARAB–ISRAELI WARS

The conflict between Palestinians, Israelis and the surrounding Arab nations is one of the longest-running and most troublesome dilemmas of global politics. The area that is present-day Israel has changed ownership many times over the last three millennia and, at its heart, the dispute concerns two peoples who both make claim to the same land.

The presence of the ancient Israelites was first recorded around 1000 BC and this sets the basis for the spiritual and national connection felt by the Jewish people towards the region. However, following a series of Jewish revolts against Roman occupation starting in 66 AD, the imperial authorities dealt harshly with the rebellious populations. The Jewish temple in Jerusalem was destroyed in 70 AD and, in 135 AD, many Jews were expelled from the province and scattered across the Mediterranean region and beyond.

The expansion of the Islamic empires in the seventh century AD saw the Arabs take control of Palestine, and some sites within the region are also considered sacred to Muslims. The Ottoman Empire then controlled Palestine between 1517 and 1917. Following the defeat of the Ottomans in World War I, Britain was given a **mandate** over Palestine in 1920.

CONFLICT BETWEEN 1948 AND 1993

Between the World Wars there was increasing tension in Palestine as a growing number of Jews began to return to the region, some of them fleeing the escalating persecution they faced in Europe. There were clashes between the immigrants and the existing Arab residents, as well as with the British forces. After the events of World War II and the Holocaust, the pressure to establish an independent Jewish homeland increased. In 1947, the United Nations partitioned the area into two states—one Arab and one Jewish. The Jewish zone became the country of Israel in 1948.



SOURCE 1.5.1 A Palestinian youth waves his national flag as he takes cover during clashes with Israeli police on the outskirts of Jerusalem, 15 May 2011.

The Arab nations around Israel did not accept this plan and almost immediately invaded in an attempt to destroy the new state. Despite fighting five armies simultaneously, Israel managed to survive. The independent Arab zones allocated by the United Nations were absorbed by Israel and the neighbouring countries, with the old city of Jerusalem falling under the control of Jordan. Around 700 000 Palestinians were forced from their homes by the conflict. They were relocated to refugee camps in Syria, Jordan and Lebanon and they and their descendants have still not been able to return. During this time, a similar number of Jews were expelled or fled from Arab countries and resettled in Israel.

After 1948, there was a series of clashes between Israel and its neighbours. The most significant was the Six-Day War of 1967, where Israel managed to capture parts of Syria, Egypt and Jordan, including Jerusalem—the first time the city had been back in Jewish possession since the Roman occupation. The refusal of the Arab states to recognise or negotiate with Israel kept hostilities simmering, with another war starting in 1973. Eventually Egypt signed a peace treaty with Israel in 1978, which was an important step towards easing tensions.

In addition to the disputes between Israel and its neighbours, the rights of the Palestinian residents of the region have also been a factor contributing to continued hostility. The desire to establish an independent Palestinian state, the borders it should have and the right of displaced Palestinians to reclaim land now occupied by Israel are the key disagreements. The use of terrorist tactics by Palestinian groups from the 1960s onwards also hampered peace, and Israel become involved in a lengthy conflict in Lebanon as it sought to destroy militant groups like the Palestine Liberation Organisation (PLO). However, in 1993, Israel and the PLO signed the **Oslo Accords**, an agreement that saw both parties formally recognise each other and which established the path for the formation of a Palestinian National Authority that would govern two autonomous zones in Gaza and the West Bank area.

LATER DEVELOPMENTS

This arrangement has not been successful in bringing about lasting peace because of splits within the Palestinian leadership, the repeated use of violence by both sides and the building of Israeli settlements in the West Bank. Fighting also occurred in 2006, when Israel attacked Lebanon in response to cross-border raiding and rocket attacks from the guerrilla group Hezbollah, which was based in the south of the country. Support for Hezbollah and the militant Palestinian groups has long been provided by Iran, Syria, Libya and other Arab states as a means of maintaining pressure on Israel. The changes in leadership brought about by the 'Arab Spring' will have an impact on the direction this conflict takes over the coming decades.

BALKAN WARS

Throughout much of the twentieth century, there were disputes and tensions in the Balkan area of Europe due to its competing nationalities and ethnicities. Following World War I, parts of the west Balkan states were made into one country, called Yugoslavia, which was invaded by Axis forces during World War II. By 1946, it had formed into the communist Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia, modelled on the Soviet Union. In 1963, it was renamed the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, and its six individual republics were held together by the strong leadership of Marshal Josip Broz Tito. The republics were Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro, Slovenia and Serbia; there were also two provinces, Vojvodina and Kosovo, associated with Serbia. Each republic had ethnic minorities. Tito's death in 1980 triggered a process of political disintegration, which continued after the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe in 1989.

- Between 1991 and 1995, under the leadership of Slobodan Milosevic, Serbia fought a vicious war against other former members of Yugoslavia.
- In 1995, the Dayton Accords led to a redistribution of territory that ended the main wars in the region after the deaths of over 100 000 people, and a further 2.5 million displaced as a result of the Bosnian conflict.
- The United Nations took over administration of Kosovo in 1999 after bitter conflict between Serbians and Albanians living in the area. It declared independence in 2008, but this is not recognised by all countries.
- If Kosovo is recognised as an independent country, seven new nations will have formed from what was formerly Yugoslavia.

SOURCE 1.5.2 Ethnic Albanians return to the ruins of their homes in north-western Kosovo, after Serb forces destroyed the area in 1999.





SOURCE 1.5.3 Skulls at a church in Kigali serve as a grim reminder of the extent of the genocide in Rwanda. The woman pictured was pregnant when her five children were slaughtered during the atrocities.

Q How reliable would this source be for historians investigating the genocide in Rwanda?

AFRICAN WARS

There have been over twenty wars in Africa since 1990. These ongoing conflicts are a legacy of colonisation, where borders often cut across traditional tribal lands and lack of development has left much of the continent in dire poverty. Each conflict had specific causes and outcomes. Keeping this in mind, just one of these conflicts is outlined below.

RWANDA

The former German colony of Rwanda was given to Belgium following World War I. The Belgians used the bureaucratic skills of the minority Tutsi tribe to help administer the colony, placing it in a position of superiority over the majority Hutu population. The situation was reversed after Belgium granted independence in 1962. The Hutus took control, and many Tutsis fled to neighbouring Uganda. Tutsis were then blamed for Rwanda's poor economic performance. Exiled Tutsis formed a rebel army (Rwandan Patriotic Front) and moved into Rwanda in January 1991. Tensions between the two groups continued and, in 1992, a ceasefire was reached. However, any possible chances of peace were destroyed in April 1994, when long-serving Hutu President of Rwanda Juvénal Habyarimana died when his plane was shot down. Who was actually responsible for the assassination is still unclear, but the consequences were swift.

This act unleashed a huge wave of violence. It has been described as **genocide** because a single ethnic group, the Tutsi, were systematically exterminated. Approximately 800 000 Rwandans were slaughtered in 100 days. Hutu militias armed with machetes roamed the streets looking for Tutsi victims. Hutus were encouraged to murder Tutsi neighbours and to take their land and food.

As the situation deteriorated, Western powers were reluctant to become too involved. The French Government supported the Hutus, while the United Nations mission (assisted by Australia) was critically restricted in its power to act. Tutsi forces in neighbouring Tanzania and Uganda invaded Rwanda, and seized power late in 1994.

This sparked a mass departure by Hutus who fled into Zaire to live in refugee camps. Many of those living in the camps had been involved in the genocide, and used their location to destabilise the new Rwandan Government that was trying to include representatives of the different ethnicities living in the country.

The war in Rwanda officially ended in 2003, with the Tutsi in command. However, the destabilising presence of Hutus in border camps indicates that lasting peace may still be a generation away.

GULF WARS

FIRST GULF WAR: 1990–91

When Iraq invaded Kuwait in 1990, it was attempting to reclaim oil-rich territory Iraq believed Kuwait had 'taken' during Britain's post–World War I organisation of the Middle East. Britain had influence over Kuwait prior to World War I in the form of a protection agreement signed in 1899. Iraq had also complained of Kuwaiti slant drilling, so that Kuwait was able to access Iraq's rich oil fields. The invasion by Iraqi forces caught Kuwait off guard, and within a week Iraqi President Saddam Hussein had installed his cousin as governor of Kuwait.

Prompted by US President George H. W. Bush and Britain's Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher, the United Nations imposed an economic blockade on Iraq. The United States and Britain wanted to curb Saddam's power because he controlled much of the oil that the West depended on; neighbouring Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Syria were wary of Saddam's intentions and so supported the United Nations action. In November 1990, the United Nations gave Iraq a deadline of 15 January 1991 to withdraw from Kuwait. When this did not occur, a US-led multinational operation was launched against Iraq. Targets across Iraq were attacked with a focus on destroying Iraq's military capability, but also included some socio-economic infrastructure as well. Iraq launched missile attacks on Israel to try and drag it into the war and break up the US-led coalition. On 24 February 1991, coalition ground troops moved into Kuwait and, on 28 February, a ceasefire was reached. Uprisings by Iraqi Kurds and Shi'i began soon after the war, but Saddam was ultimately able to repress them. Some have argued that Saddam was able to do this because the international community did not step in to support the uprisings.

‘WAR ON TERROR’

Some groups in the distant and more recent past have used terrorist tactics to draw attention to their grievances. For example, in the 1970s–1990s, the Irish Republican Army (IRA), which campaigned to end British rule in Northern Ireland, planted bombs in busy parts of London. Some of the main terrorist groups of the late twentieth century were based in countries within the Middle East and were driven by conflicting political and religious aims. But one theme that emerged from the hostility was opposition to US interests and interventions in the region. Terrorist acts were conducted against US facilities both within and beyond the Middle East. By the end of the twentieth century, many terrorist acts focused on international targets and were ‘anti-American’ in sentiment. This was exemplified in an event that shook the world in the early twenty-first century.

On 11 September 2001, in a well-planned operation, terrorists used four hijacked aeroplanes loaded with passengers in successful suicide attacks on the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon, the headquarters of the US Department of Defense near Washington, D.C. The fourth plane crashed after passengers tried to overpower the hijackers. Although most of the 3000 people killed were Americans, the death toll included people from thirty-nine other countries. Television cameras captured the second plane crashing into the second of the World Trade Center towers as well as the horrific aftermath in Manhattan’s streets. The graphic images were broadcast around the world.

The terrorist group al-Qaeda headed by Osama bin Laden was identified as responsible for the attacks. Al-Qaeda was formed in 1988 by key Arab veterans who fought against the Soviets in Afghanistan. Osama bin Laden himself was from Saudi Arabia. By the early twenty-first century, al-Qaeda had cells in many countries. In the wake of the attacks, US President George W. Bush declared a ‘War on Terror’. This shaped US foreign policy in the coming decade. It therefore also influenced Australia’s foreign policy decisions.

SOURCE 1.5.4

The second hijacked aeroplane about to hit the second tower of the World Trade Center, New York City, USA, 11 September 2001



SECOND GULF WAR: 2003–11

Without the agreement of the United Nations and despite some international opposition, on 19 March 2003, a US-led coalition (US forces with support from British and Australian forces) invaded Iraq. US President George W. Bush argued that this was necessary because it was believed that Iraq, still led by Saddam Hussein, had **weapons of mass destruction** and that Iraq supported terrorist groups including al-Qaeda. By 9 April, Baghdad had fallen to the coalition, and on 1 May, President Bush stood on the deck of the USS *Abraham Lincoln* proclaiming 'mission accomplished'. Hussein was captured in December 2003 and executed in 2006 by orders of an Iraqi court.

US, British and Australian troops remained in Iraq in combat, support and other roles until 2010. Stability is yet to be established in Iraq, weapons of mass destruction were never found, and the link to al-Qaeda was disproven. It is estimated that the cost of this war to the US economy was US$3 trillion. The number of casualties is still disputed, but a figure of around 100 000 Iraqi civilian deaths has been estimated.



SOURCE 1.5.5 An anti-war protester wearing a mask in the likeness of US President George W. Bush, Washington, D.C., May 2007

Q **What is the intended meaning of the term 'mission accomplished' in this source?**

AFGHANISTAN

During the last years of the Cold War, the Soviet Union had been involved in a drawn-out war in Afghanistan. Afghanistan is a predominantly Muslim country. Following Russia's withdrawal, in 1996, an extremist Muslim group, the Taliban, became the dominant political force. The group never controlled the whole country but it had financial support from al-Qaeda, which allowed it to run terrorist training camps there. After al-Qaeda's links to the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States had been established, Afghanistan became a clear target in the 'War on Terror'. President George W. Bush launched an attack to overthrow the Taliban, known as Operation Enduring Freedom, on 7 October 2001, with most support coming from Britain, and Australia again contributing. In December 2001, the United Nations created an international force to uphold security and help the Afghan Government establish order in the wake of the takeover. By 2004, a democratically elected government was in place.

Foreign troops have remained in Afghanistan, and incidents such as car bombings and roadside ambushes continue to be a part of daily life.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- genocide
- Oslo Accords
- mandate
- weapons of mass destruction

Understanding, applying and analysing

2 **a** Draw a timeline to summarise the post–Cold War conflicts mentioned in this unit for the period 1990 to 2011.

b Label the conflicts where Australia committed troops or other aid in a special way.

c Outline the reasons Australia chose to become involved in these conflicts. As a class, discuss the reasons why Australia may have chosen not to be involved in the others.

3 What impact have the conflicts mentioned in this unit had on the movement of peoples?



SOURCE 1.5.6 An Australian Special Forces soldier observes a valley in Uruzgan, Afghanistan, February 2011.

Analysing

4 This unit only covers a fraction of the conflicts that have taken place in the post–Cold War period. Select a place from the list below where conflict has occurred in this time frame and, using the internet and other sources, research the nature of the conflict. Make notes in response to these questions.

- **a** Why did the conflict occur?
- **b** Who were the groups involved?
- **c** How widespread was the conflict?
- **d** What did the conflict achieve?
- **e** What happened to the losing side?
- **f** How did the rest of the world react?

Choose from:

- Egypt
- Libya
- Somalia
- Sri Lanka
- Tibet
- Timor-Leste (East Timor)

Present your findings in a format approved by your teacher.

Analysing and evaluating

5 What role has the United Nations played in resolving the conflicts mentioned in this unit? Would you say it has been successful in avoiding conflicts in the post–Cold War world?

6 In 1990, during the First Gulf War, the Kuwaiti Government funded a public relations campaign to win US support. A young Kuwaiti girl, Nayirah, in a testimony to the US Congress, spoke about Iraqi soldiers removing babies from incubators and leaving them to die. The story played a major role in gathering public support for President George H. W. Bush's coalition of countries to provide troops to liberate Kuwait. Only after the war did investigations uncover that Nayirah was the daughter of the Kuwaiti ambassador to the United States, and that her story could not be substantiated.

- **a** Research the Nayirah testimony on the internet to find out more about this case.
- **b** What questions does this case raise about the accuracy and credibility of historical sources?



UNIT 6

EFFORTS TO ACHIEVE LASTING PEACE

The United Nations (UN) was established at the end of World War II with the main aim of working to avoid another world war. In its preamble, the **UN Charter** states: 'We the peoples of the United Nations [are] determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind ...'. Historians, politicians and others have debated the role of the UN and how effective it has actually been in preserving peace. Yet, despite numerous major conflicts and the imminent threat of nuclear destruction, a third world war has not occurred.

COUNTRY	DATE	FORCE
Indonesia	1947–51	Consular Commission UN Committee of Good Offices UN Commission for Indonesia
Kashmir	1950–85	UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan UN India–Pakistan Observation Mission
Israel and its neighbours	1956–present	UN Truce Supervision Organisation
Cyprus	1964–present	UN Force in Cyprus
Sinai	1976–79 1982–86 1993–present	UN Emergency Force II Multinational Force and Observers Multinational Force and Observers
Zimbabwe	1979–80	Commonwealth Monitoring Force
Namibia	1989–90	UN Transition Assistance Group
Iraq	1990–present	Maritime Interception Force Operation Habitat UN Special Commission
Western Sahara	1991–94	UN Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara
Cambodia	1989–93	UN Border Relief Operation UN Advanced Mission in Cambodia UN Transitional Authority in Cambodia
Somalia	1992–95	UN Operation in Somalia Unified Task Force
Rwanda	1994–95	UN Assistance Mission in Rwanda
Bougainville	1994 1997–present	South Pacific Peace-Keeping Force Truce Monitoring Group Peace Monitoring Group
Timor-Leste (East Timor)	1999–2012	UN Assistance Mission in East Timor International Force East Timor UN Transitional Administration in East Timor UN Integrated Mission in Timor-Leste

SOURCE 1.6.1 Australia's contributions to UN peacekeeping operations, 1947–2012. From the Australian War Memorial

UNITED NATIONS PEACEKEEPING

In countries torn by conflict, the UN can work to create conditions for lasting peace. It delivers appropriate civilian, police and military personnel, provided by 115 member countries. In 2012, the UN was involved in fifteen peacekeeping operations on four continents, involving a total 120 000 personnel. Wherever UN peacekeeping is deployed, it operates under three basic principles:

- Consent of both sides in the conflict
- Impartiality, that is not taking sides
- Non-use of force except in self-defence.

The first application of these principles was in 1948 when the UN sent troops to monitor the armistice between the newly formed Israel and its Arab neighbours. Since then, there have been sixty-four UN peacekeeping operations in Africa, the Americas, Asia–Pacific region, Europe and the Middle East. As a member of the UN, Australia has contributed to a number of UN peacekeeping operations.

TIMOR-LESTE (EAST TIMOR)

In 1974, Timor-Leste was East Timor, a part of the decaying Portuguese Empire. As Portugal withdrew, a civil war broke out in East Timor between those who wanted it to become an independent country and those who wanted to become part of Indonesia. Indonesia sent in troops to occupy East Timor and, in 1976, East Timor became Indonesia's 27th province. The UN did not recognise this takeover. Meanwhile, conflict continued throughout the 1980s and 1990s between East Timorese who wanted independence (the Fretilin movement) and those who supported Indonesia. In 1993, the Fretilin leader, Xanana Gusmão, was jailed.

By 1998, Indonesia had moved to offer East Timor limited independence if the populations voted for it at a referendum. The following year, the unarmed UN Mission in East Timor was responsible for conducting the referendum. When the vote was overwhelmingly in favour of independence, Indonesian troops started a campaign of violence and destruction. Many East Timorese were killed and thousands fled across the border into West Timor. A UN military force made up of Australian troops was sent in to restore order. Its responsibilities included providing protection for the humanitarian work of the UN and assisting with the process of free elections in 2001. Following the elections, on 20 May 2002, the independent nation of East Timor (known as the Democratic Republic of Timor-Leste) came into being with Xanana Gusmão as its first president. It became a member of the UN in September 2002.



SOURCE 1.6.2 An Australian soldier on guard in Dili, East Timor, during civil unrest in 2006



SOURCE 1.6.3 Former US President Jimmy Carter (centre) at a Palestinian-Israeli Peace NGO Forum in 2008. By securing access to important political figures, NGOs such as this are generating awareness of their cause and giving a voice to ordinary citizens.

On the day East Timor became independent, the UN role changed to supporting the emergence of the new country and its democratic institutions. It remained active in the area until 2005. However, due to unrest between competing political groups and outbreaks of violence, the UN again sent in forces to restore order. They were scheduled to withdraw in 2012 after the presidential election.

NON-GOVERNMENT ORGANISATIONS

Non-government organisations (NGOs) have formed to allow everyday citizens the outlets to respond to government policies by acting as pressure groups with their particular agendas for improving society, including reducing the threat of war. Advances in communication technology have allowed NGOs to spread information globally, and they can present a powerful case for change. Some examples of well-established NGOs include Amnesty International, which concentrates on human rights; the Red Cross, which provides relief in times of crisis; and Oxfam, which is dedicated to fighting poverty and injustice.

In March 2012, the NGO Invisible Children showed the power of social media to harness public opinion. Their short film, *KONY 2012*, went viral on the internet and put the international spotlight on a Ugandan warlord and his Lord's Resistance Army who, over a period of almost thirty years, abducted children and turned boys into child soldiers and girls into sex slaves. Governments faced public pressure to act as a result of celebrity endorsement and public support of the 'Get Kony' campaign. Critics decried Invisible Children's oversimplification of a complex and long-standing issue, but its popularity showed the potential of NGOs to influence public opinion and create agendas to pressure governments.

The Palestinian-Israeli Peace NGO Forum is an example of an NGO tackling peace in the Middle East. The Forum, established in 2005 after six years of negotiations, has brought together groups from both sides of the divide to educate people about the need for peace in the region. It is also an important forum for discussion.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- non-government organisations (NGOs)
- United Nations (UN) Charter

2 Re-write the preamble to the UN Charter in your own words.

Understanding and applying

3 Draw a timeline to summarise the Timor-Leste (East Timor) struggles for independence between 1974 to 2002 and the role of the United Nations in the country during this time.

Applying and evaluating

4 **a** Examine the list of Australia's contributions to United Nations peacekeeping operations in Source 1.6.1. Select one operation and use the internet to find out:
- **i** where the operation was conducted
- **ii** what Australia's commitment was
- **iii** how effective their action has been.

b Using the internet and other sources, conduct some research on an operational non-government organisation (NGO) to find out:
- **i** where the NGO operates and the issues it deals with
- **ii** the nature of its operations
- **iii** its successes and failures.

c Taking into consideration the information you have gathered, do you think the United Nations is more effective than NGOs in bringing peace to the world? Explain your answer.



MOVEMENTS FOR RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

At the end of World War I, people's expectations of having basic rights and freedoms were still determined by the country they lived in and, within that, their gender, race, social class, and access to money and power. Prior to World War I, in different parts of the world, there had certainly been struggles by many groups to achieve recognition of their rights and gain associated freedoms. During the inter-war years, such struggles continued. However, the aftermath of World War II proved to be a turning point in many people's struggles for rights and freedoms.

Firstly, at the end of World War II, the grip that major European powers had on their colonies in different parts of the world was weakening. This enabled the eventual success of existing struggles among the colonised populations for national independence. This in turn has stimulated demands for other rights and freedoms now expected with national citizenship.

Secondly, the establishment of the United Nations (UN) after World War II resulted in an international push not only to avoid another horrific world war but also to recognise and protect people's basic human rights and freedoms. This urgent concern for rights and freedoms was prompted by post-war revelations of the atrocities committed by Nazi Germany in their organised persecution of Jews, Slavs, Sinti/Roma people and other minorities during World War II. Representing the world community, the UN was moved to recognise and define the rights and freedoms of all people. An initial step was establishing the United Nations Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide on 9 December 1948, which was followed by the crucial adoption of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

In Chapter 3, two important movements for rights and freedoms concerned with racial equality are examined: the Civil Rights movement in the United States and the struggles of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. This unit briefly explores another movement for rights and freedoms concerned with racial equality: the Anti-Apartheid movement in South Africa. It also outlines some recent struggles for the political rights and freedoms associated with democracy. But to begin with, attention is given to struggles for rights and freedoms linked to gender.



SOURCE 1.7.1 Suffragists picketing the British Parliament's House of Commons in 1924, as it was debating a bill to give women the right to vote

THE WOMEN'S MOVEMENT

The women's movement of the twentieth century took place mainly in the Western world. Looking back, historians have identified two main 'waves' of the movement: the first occurred in the last decade or so before the turn of the century and continued into the decade after World War I. The second took hold in the late 1960s and the 1970s, but many of its themes and achievements drove further change in the 1980s and 1990s. The second wave of the women's movement has also been called the women's liberation movement and the feminist movement.

The main aim of the first wave of the women's movement was **women's suffrage**; that is, the right of women to vote. Its activists challenged the traditional view that women's place was only in the home as wives and mothers and argued that women should have a role in the public realm of politics. New Zealand led the way when women gained the right to vote in 1893. Prior to Federation in Australia in 1901, women in South Australia and Western Australia were granted the right to vote; following Federation, women in all states (except for Aboriginal women) gained the vote at the federal level. Women's suffrage was finally fully achieved in the United States in 1920 and in Britain in 1928. Women's suffrage took decades longer to achieve in many other countries. In most countries, there were some years between women getting the right to vote and women being allowed to run for parliament.



SOURCE 1.7.2 A women's rights demonstration in Melbourne to mark International Women's Day, 8 March 1975. Held at the National Archives of Australia

Q Carefully examine Sources 1.7.1.and 1.7.2. Identify as many similarities and differences you can see between these representations of the first and second waves of the women's movement.

However, there were still many more important areas where women did not have equal status with men. During World War II, Australian women were recruited to take on jobs traditionally performed by men as part of the war effort; however, they were paid less than men and when the war was over they returned to their previous roles of wives and mothers. During the economic boom of the 1950s and 1960s, a greater proportion of women were in paid work, although mostly in traditionally female occupations such as office work, nursing and teaching, or unskilled factory work. By the late 1960s, most young women were better educated than their mothers had been at their age. By this time also, the introduction of the contraceptive pill enabled women to manage their reproductive lives and more easily plan their families.

The stage was set for the second wave of the women's movement. It was partly inspired by the writings of women such as Betty Friedan in the United States and Germaine Greer in Australia who drew attention to the ways women were oppressed by the limited roles society allowed them and urged women to demand what were now regarded as vital rights and freedoms for all. The main concerns of the second wave of the women's movement were: achieving equality in pay rates; the ability to stay in employment after marriage; granting maternity leave; access to child care; and equal opportunity in education, employment and career advancement. These were gradually achieved through government legislation by the end of the twentieth century, although in most cases the gains were only partial.

In the twenty-first century, new generations of women and men in Western countries have tended to take for granted the partial gains of the second wave of the women's movement. In the meantime, the efforts of some women in both Western and non-Western societies have focused on the plight of women in countries whose repressive governments deny them the basic rights and freedoms they have come to expect and enjoy.

ANTI-APARTHEID MOVEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The Union of South Africa was formed in 1910 from the ashes of the Boer War (1899–1902). Although the British Empire had prevailed, the descendants of British settlers were outnumbered by Afrikaners, the descendants of the original Dutch settlers in South Africa. However, 70 per cent of the population was made up of 'non-white' Africans, known as Bantus: they were the descendants of tribes, particularly Zulu and Xhosa, who had lived in the region for a thousand years. The European 'white' minority regarded non-white South Africans as racially inferior and saw them only as a workforce for their mines, factories and homes. Non-white South Africans were treated as slaves, were forced to live in very poor conditions well apart from European areas and had no political rights.



SOURCE 1.7.3 The segregation of Apartheid—one area for non-whites, another for whites



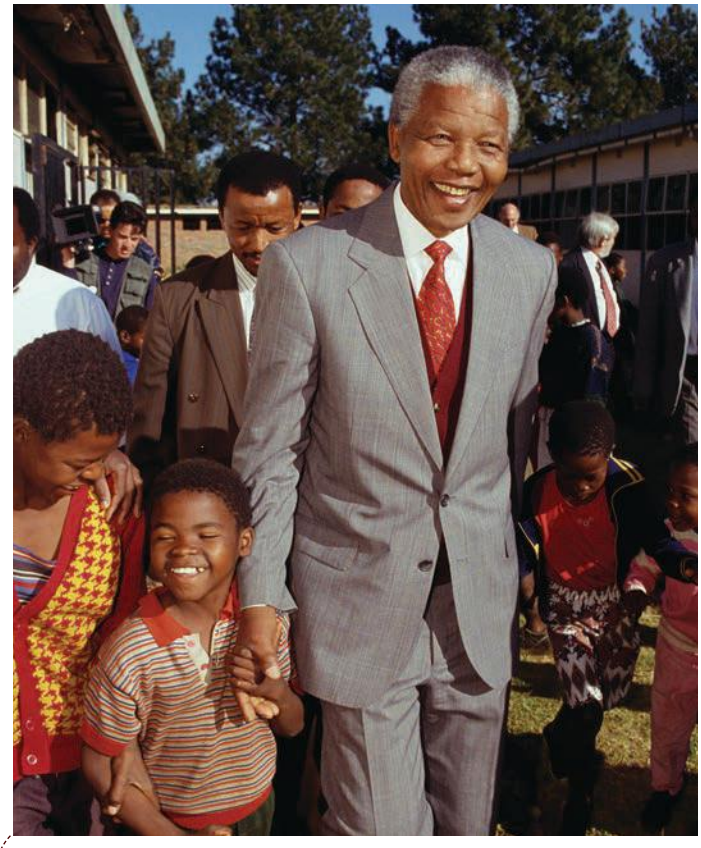
SOURCE 1.7.4 A non-white South African is beaten by a white policeman near witnesses on a residential street, 1985.

When the Afrikaner-based National Party won the 1948 elections, it took the existing discrimination against and segregation of non-white South Africans to further extremes. It instituted a legal system known as **Apartheid**, which means apartness. Over the next four decades, Apartheid laws were further developed. Apartheid meant an almost complete separation of the races with separate schools, hospitals, transport systems, public toilets, beaches, sports areas, and even churches. In all of these, the facilities for non-whites were inferior to those enjoyed by whites. The only contact whites had with non-whites was in supervising their non-white workers. Every person was given a racial classification and identity card. Non-whites had to stay on their reserves or in their townships unless they were travelling to work in a white area. Resistance to Apartheid laws was violently repressed.

The African National Congress (ANC) formed in the 1920s and began to challenge Apartheid from the 1940s onwards. It demanded that non-white South Africans have equality before the law, the right to vote, freedom of assembly and better working hours and wages. The ANC was banned by the South African Government from 1960 to 1990, forcing it to go underground. After the Sharpeville massacre of 1960, when armed police killed over sixty demonstrators, the ANC commenced an armed struggle. In 1964, the leader of the ANC's armed wing, Nelson Mandela, was sentenced to life imprisonment on Robben Island, a harsh prison in Cape Town harbour. While in prison, Mandela became a revered symbol of anti-Apartheid activity. Many church leaders, both non-white and white, spoke out against Apartheid.

In 1976, it was announced that Afrikaans, the language spoken by whites of Dutch descent, would be used in non-white schools. In response, a mass demonstration took place in the non-white township of Soweto. Police opened fire, killing more than 200 people. Many victims were children.

International pressure mounted on the South African Government to abolish Apartheid. In 1961, South Africa was forced to withdraw its membership of the British Commonwealth. The UN tried to enforce an economic boycott of South Africa but this was not successful because some of its powerful member nations, such as the United States, France and Britain, continued to trade with South Africa.



SOURCE 1.7.5 In 1993, President Nelson Mandela visits the school in Soweto where the student demonstrations started in 1976.

However, sporting boycotts became a powerful tool. As South Africa became isolated from international sport, cricket was one of the first sports to suffer. Eventually, even the Afrikaner sport of rugby union was cut off from international competition. In a sports-loving country such as South Africa, this was an effective means of international protest. Further pressure came with a massive concert held in London in 1988, where musicians and the general public called for Nelson Mandela to be freed.

In the 1980s, South Africa's prime minister tried to modify Apartheid by dropping some of the harshest laws while still maintaining white control. Further protests and violence on both sides followed. But in 1989, new Prime Minister F. W. de Klerk quickly moved to start repealing Apartheid laws, and on 11 February 1990, Nelson Mandela was released from prison. Mandela went on to lead the ANC negotiations with de Klerk that brought an end to Apartheid and gave non-white South Africans full citizenship. In 1994, the previously outlawed ANC won national elections, and Nelson Mandela became the first president of non-Apartheid South Africa. A Truth and Reconciliation Commission was set up after the abolition of Apartheid to work through issues that relate to the entrenched institutional prejudice that exists in South Africa, and to incorporate all South Africans into what is now termed a 'rainbow nation'.

SOURCE 1.7.6 Burmese democracy leader Aung San Suu Kyi stands in a car as she greets her supporters in northern Burma, February 2012.

CONTINUING STRUGGLES FOR DEMOCRACY

Democracy has emerged as a powerful force for change in the early years of the twenty-first century. Since the demise of the Soviet Union in 1991, communism has ceased to be a major world ideology. By 2012, only five communist countries remained in the world: China, Cuba, Laos, North Korea and Vietnam. Of these, only North Korea maintained a strong doctrinaire stance. Most pressure for democratic change has come from within countries. The US-led invasion of Iraq in 2003 is an exception where democracy was imposed by an outside military force. In other places such as Burma, and the Arab countries of North Africa and the Middle East, internal groups have created pressure for democratic change.

BURMA

Formerly a part of the British Empire, Burma became independent in 1948. In 1962, the Burmese military seized power in a coup, and have retained power ever since. When elections were held in 1990, the opposition pro-democracy party led by Aung San Suu Kyi won the election. The military refused to give up power, and since then Suu Kyi has become a focus of international attention. She has campaigned for the return of democracy to her country, and suffered many years of detention for her beliefs. In 1991, her work for peace and democracy was recognised when she was awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace.



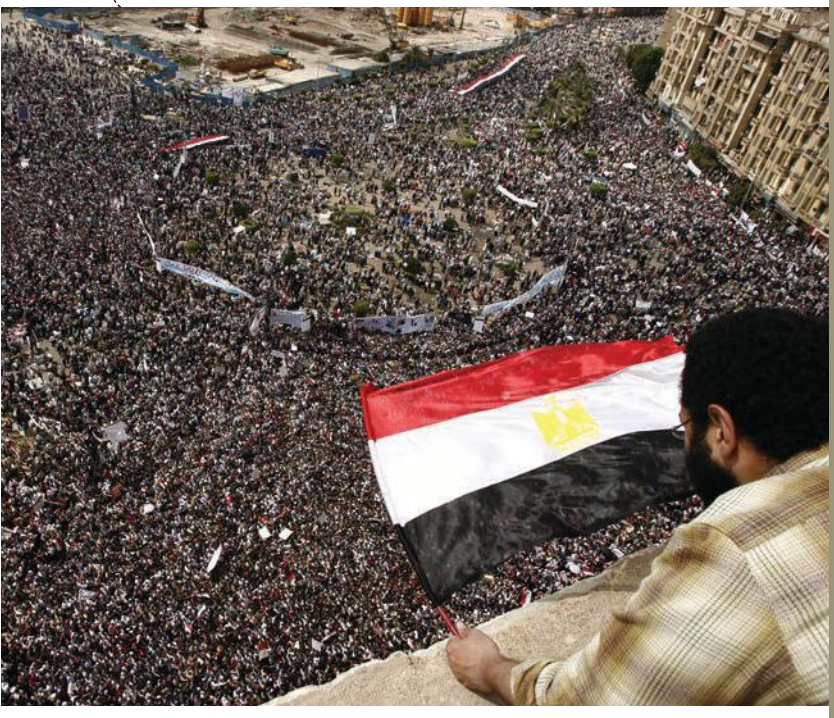
Burmese Buddhist monks inspired more widespread resistance to the ruling military **junta** in 2007. They led protests against the impact of rising petrol prices on the poor. Although unsuccessful at the time, the vicious treatment of peaceful monks helped turn international opinion against the Burmese regime and increase pressure for gradual social and political change. In 2010, Aung San Suu Kyi was freed from house arrest. In 2012, she announced plans to run for election again and her party was elected in a landslide victory.

THE 'ARAB SPRING'

Although Egypt's political system had the hallmarks of democracy with elections and a parliament, for three decades from the 1980s it was under the tight control of President Hosnī Mubārak and an elite group of supporters. As a result of increasing frustrations against poverty, corruption and political repression, street protests erupted in Egypt in January 2011. After almost three weeks of demonstrations, Mubārak was forced to step down from office, and the process of political change in Egypt commenced.

Political uprisings have triggered similar demands for increased rights and freedoms across the Middle East in a region where military strongmen and powerful royal families have been the political norm. Tunisia experienced a revolutionary change of government shortly before Egypt. In Libya, the dictator Muammar al-Qaddafi was overthrown from power in a popular revolt in August 2011, and Syria was rocked by mass protests in 2012. Whether this **'Arab Spring'** has introduced lasting change is still to be determined.

SOURCE 1.7.7 People power: Egyptian protesters gather in Cairo's Tahrir Square demanding the trial of ousted President Hosnī Mubārak, April 2011.



LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- Apartheid
- 'Arab Spring'
- junta
- women's suffrage

2 What is women's suffrage? When did women attain suffrage in New Zealand, Australia, the United States and Britain?

3 What have been some of the main twentieth-century achievements that have come as a result of women's struggle for rights and freedoms?

4 What is Apartheid? What methods were used to oppose it?

5 Which country had democracy imposed on it by armed forces in the early years of the twenty-first century?

6 Who led the 2007 revolt in Burma? What was the result of the uprising?

7 Define the 'Arab Spring'. Account for why the 'success' of political uprisings in one country influenced others to follow suit.

Applying, analysing and evaluating

8 Research the life of Aung San Suu Kyi. Why have Burmese military rulers regarded her as such a threat?

9 Steve Biko was an anti-Apartheid activist who encouraged South Africans to be proud of their non-white heritage. He was beaten to death in police custody in 1977. Conduct an internet search to find and listen to the song 'Biko' by Peter Gabriel, released in 1980.
- **a** What viewpoint about Steve Biko does Peter Gabriel convey in the lyrics?
- **b** How would these lyrics have been received in South Africa in 1980?

10 The civil unrest that prompted a change of government in Tunisia, Egypt and Libya in 2010–11 were essentially about the struggle for human rights and freedoms.
- **a** Select one of these protest campaigns to research and, using the internet and other sources, develop a media archive of how the uprising was reported.
- **b** Analyse your archive and explain the impact of the protesters' actions.
- **c** Is it believed that their efforts will have a lasting influence on the country?
- **d** Present your findings as a report with specific examples of the tactics the protesters used, the results of these actions and your assessment of their lasting impact.



UNIT 8

CHANGE IN LIFE AS WE KNOW IT

If you could go back to 1918, it would be impossible to explain the internet, MP3 players, mobile phones and video games to your peers in Australia of that time. Back then, aeroplanes were a recent invention that had rapidly developed because of the war. Although motor cars existed, like aeroplanes they were too costly for the general population to own in great numbers. Local mass transport was by train and international transport was by coal-fuelled steam ships. Medical technology was powerless to stop the global spread of an influenza epidemic in 1918–19 that some researchers believe killed as many as 50 million people. People communicated over distance by letter, telegraph and telephone and they accessed information through books and newspapers. From the perspective of the twenty-first century, technological developments have dramatically changed how most people live.

DEVELOPMENTS IN TECHNOLOGY: AT HOME

From the 1920s, the expansion of mass production and the increasing availability of electricity for domestic use led to technological innovations to create new consumer goods for the home. Progress in the development of goods for the home was limited by the Great Depression and World War II. However, the 1950s was a period of resurgence in developments in technology that have influenced how people live at home.

HOUSEHOLD APPLIANCES

In the 1920s and 1930s, affluent households were acquiring electric toasters, food processors, vacuum cleaners, stoves and refrigerators. These appliances became more sophisticated and were more readily purchased in the second half of the twentieth century. They had a big impact on how women allocated time to their traditional role as homemakers and on their ability to be part of the paid workforce. A multitude of other appliances for various purposes in the home soon became commonplace.

HOME ENTERTAINMENT

From the 1920s to the 1950s, the main form of home entertainment was listening to the radio, also called the 'wireless'. Entertainment included live or recorded music, drama serials, and quiz and comedy programs. The radio was also an important source of news made available in the home. With improved technology, radios became smaller and cheaper, enabling the existence of more than one in the home; they also became portable in 1954.

SOURCE 1.8.1 Typical products found in Australian households in the 1950s and 2000s

Q **1 a Brainstorm household products not listed that are typically used today.**

b How have these products affected modern life at home?

TYPICAL HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTS 1950s	TYPICAL HOUSEHOLD PRODUCTS 2000s
Gas-heated copper vessel for washing clothes	Automatic washing machine
Hand wringer for wringing out clothes	Clothes dryer
Gas match-ignited heater over sink and bath tub for instant hot water	Dishwasher
Gas stove	Self-lighting gas or electric stove and microwave oven
Hand push lawn-mower and hand clippers for garden edges	Petrol-driven lawn-mower and edge cutter
'Wireless' radio for home entertainment	Television/VCR/DVD/home entertainment system
Electric gramophone for 78 rpm short-play records	CD stereo and MP3 player
Ice chest for keeping food cool	Refrigerator and freezer
Mechanical typewriter	Computer with internet
Circular dial telephone	Mobile phone



SOURCE 1.8.2 A 1950s US family watching television. Television brought about other changes at home, such as when, where and what people ate.

Although the technology for television had been gradually developed and used in limited ways before World War II, it did not become a major source of home entertainment until the mid-1950s. By 1954, 55.7 per cent of US households had a television set and by 1962 the number rose to 90 per cent. A similar pattern of home television ownership occurred in Australia after programming began in 1956 to coincide with the Melbourne Olympic Games. As well as developing into the main source of entertainment in the home, television became a major avenue that advertisers used to reach consumers. Developments in technology have seen the shift from black and white to colour televisions and innovations such as cable and digital television. The availability and popularity of television in the home also led to the creation of technologies for video and digital recording.



SOURCE 1.8.3 The Booth family from Victoria about to hit the road in their station wagon on a family camping holiday to New South Wales, 1967. Held at Museum Victoria

DEVELOPMENTS IN TECHNOLOGY: TRAVEL AND TRADE

MOTOR CAR

Mass production of the motor car began in the 1920s. After World War II, the car industry gathered force in the United States and parts of Europe as part of a booming economy helped by low oil prices. In Australia, mass-produced cars were first manufactured by the US company General Motors in 1948. Other US companies such as Ford were soon producing cars for the Australian market, and by the 1960s and 1970s, Asian companies such as Toyota had become just as important. The greater affordability of cars enabled people to live further from their workplaces and so hastened the spread of suburbs, which in turn influenced how people lived and socialised. It also led to a marked decline in use of public transport, growing problems of traffic congestion and air pollution and an unprecedented reliance on oil.

FLIGHT

Advances in aircraft technology had been a feature of World War II and after the war there was an increase in passenger aviation. In 1940s Australia for instance, the existing airline Qantas was joined in the sky by carriers Australian National Airways and Trans-Australia Airlines. The introduction of jet-powered planes after 1959 meant faster and longer flights and because the larger jets carried more passengers the cost of domestic and international air travel became much more affordable. This, along with increased leisure time and disposable incomes, gave rise to a tourist industry. Domestic and international travel has led to Australians possessing a greater awareness of other cultures and lifestyles.

FREIGHT

Large-scale aircraft also meant that more products could be moved quickly by air, revolutionising trade and patterns of consumption. Passenger ships were being used for tourist cruises as flying took over their previous function as a form of mass transport. The system of containerisation developed after World War II, where goods are loaded into standard-sized metal containers, has meant the development of massive container ships capable of moving large cargoes around the world. Once in port, the freight containers are transported to customers by large motorised road trains.

DEVELOPMENTS IN TECHNOLOGY: COMMUNICATIONS

DIGITAL REVOLUTION

The term '**digital revolution**' is used to describe a point in history from around 1980 that has been dominated by digital technology, made possible by the invention of the microchip. The ability to integrate electronic circuits on smaller circuit boards was the key development that enabled the invention and perfection of the computer. Computer technology has changed the way information is stored and communicated. Communication technology has changed rapidly in this period: recorded music has shifted from vinyl and cassette to CD and MP3 formats; visual images previously on video tape and film are stored on DVD and memory cards; typewriters have given way to computers; books are stored and read in ebook format; and landlines are used in conjunction with mobile phone telephony. All of these digital formats have become part of many people's daily lives in the Western world. By 2010, 67 per cent of the world's population subscribed to mobile phone services, and 26.6 per cent used the internet.

SOCIAL NETWORKING

Digital technology has not only transformed the way information is stored and accessed. It has deeply impacted on the way people relate to each other globally, for business or pleasure. Communication has become direct and immediate, with email and instant messaging programs. A recent development of the twenty-first century, **social networking** refers to communication between people utilising **social media**, which are networks that allow people to distribute information at any time or place through internet access.

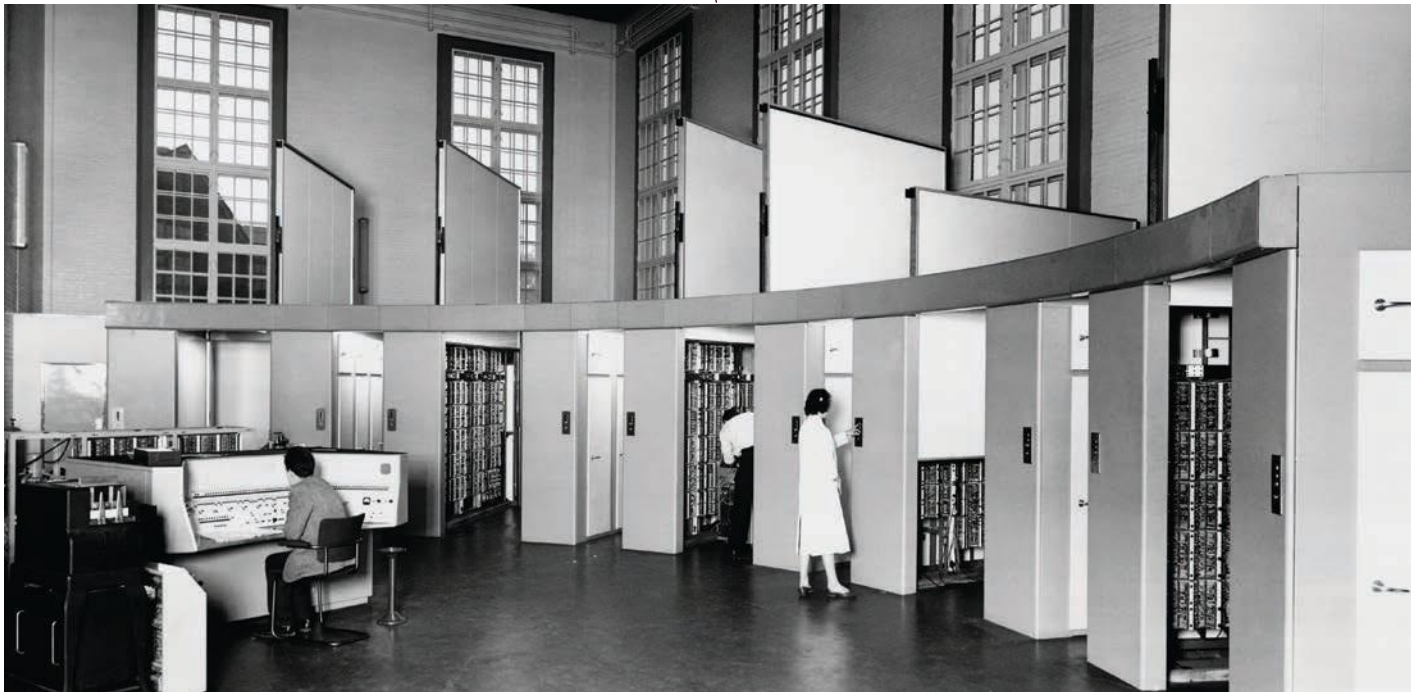
Social media has become a significant social activist tool. In June 2009, Iran faced large street protests after presidential elections were embroiled in alleged electoral fraud. Despite government attempts to suppress communication, protesters used the online social networking and microblogging website Twitter as a key method to communicate news of protests. An important dimension of social media's use for political purposes has been its ability to avoid strict government controls. This has meant that in areas of protest such as Burma, Iran and Egypt activists have been able to communicate effectively despite government attempts to suppress their opinions.

DID YOU KNOW?

The 2010 WikiLeaks controversy demonstrated the inability of governments to control information publicised by social media. By making classified US government documents public, WikiLeaks gave worldwide internet users access to confidential information normally reserved for politicians and diplomats.

SOURCE 1.8.4

Designed by Alan Turing in 1946, The ACE (Automatic Computing Engine) computer was the first electronic computer.





SOURCE 1.8.5 Study in the digital era with a tablet computer, 2012.

DEVELOPMENTS IN TECHNOLOGY: PUBLIC HEALTH

In 1948, just after it was established, the United Nations set up the World Health Organisation (WHO). Its focus is public health: that is, preventing and treating diseases and taking other measures that promote the physical and mental health of people throughout the world. This initiative of the mid-twentieth century was an indication of the attention given to improving public health. Because of greater scientific knowledge of diseases and germs contagion, most countries in the twentieth century saw improvements in public health simply due to better household sanitation: the regular use of soap and disinfectants and the presence of indoor flushing toilets. At the same time, technical improvements in agriculture, combined with higher levels of affluence, meant better nutrition. However, in the present day and as was the case in the twentieth-century world, not all countries have experienced the same basic improvements to conditions of public health.

Despite varying degrees of public health around the world, the twentieth century brought about major advances in the eradication or control of once devastating diseases through the development of vaccines. Examples include tuberculosis, polio and measles. Major advances have also been made in the treatment of viruses through the development of antibiotics. Developments in medical technology included the widespread use of X-rays and scans, blood banks and microsurgery. In the late twentieth century, a new challenge for public health appeared in the form of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), a deadly disease of which approximately 90 per cent of cases occur in developing countries. Another serious challenge that has developed for public health, particularly in affluent countries, is obesity and the subsequent stress on resources dealing with obesity-related illnesses such as diabetes and heart disease.

POPULATION AND LIFE EXPECTANCY

The twentieth century stands out in history as an unprecedented period of 'population explosion.' In 1900, the world's population was about 1.6 billion; in 1930, it was about 2 billion. In 1980, the figure rose to about 4 billion; and by 2000, it had reached 6 billion. Although not the only factor, a major reason for this rapid growth in population is a marked increase in life expectancy due to the advances in public health outlined previously. Life expectancy improved significantly throughout the twentieth century. In 1900 in Australia for example, non-Aboriginal men could expect to live to 53 years of age and non-Aboriginal women to nearly 57. By 1990, this had risen to 73.5 and nearly 80 respectively. But there were and continue to be significant disparities in life expectancy depending on living conditions. In 2012, average life expectancy of the total population ranged from nearly 90 years of age in the tiny European principality of Monaco, to just below 50 years of age in the African country of Chad.



SOURCE 1.8.6 Nurse Agnes administers polio and measles vaccinations to babies in the Batwa tribe settlement in Mpungu district, Uganda, June 2011.

PRESSURES ON THE EARTH'S RESOURCES

One of the consequences of the population explosion is that it has become increasingly difficult to feed the world's population. While this has put some pressure on the Earth's resources, another kind of pressure only partly related to the population explosion is the impact of energy consumption. The second half of the twentieth century saw increasing consumption of fossil fuels in the Western world. Oil fuelled the transport revolution, while coal was the major source for electricity generation. Nuclear power has been used since 1954, despite doubts about its safety, with one major nuclear reactor accident occurring as recently as 2011. As politicians continue to debate the nature of the problem and its solutions, more and more evidence emerges to suggest that current rates of consumption mean unacceptable levels of greenhouse gas emissions, leading to long-term global warming.

Environmentalists have argued the need for further development of renewable energy sources. Scientists believe that renewable sources such as solar, wind, tidal and geothermal energy could potentially account for almost 80 per cent of the world's energy by approximately 2040. As highly populated countries such as India and China have industrialised and increased the world's energy consumption, the need for renewable energy sources has become even greater.



SOURCE 1.8.7

Ratcliffe-on-Soar coal-fired power station near Nottingham, England produces electricity for approximately 2 million homes. The power station came under fire by protesters in 2009 who were calling for it to be replaced by a more energy efficient option.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- digital revolution
- social media
- social networking

Understanding and analysing

2 Examine Source 1.8.7. What issues does this use of technology raise in terms of long-term environmental impact?

3 Look closely at Source 1.8.4. In what ways would life today be different if the microchip had not allowed for miniaturisation?

Evaluating

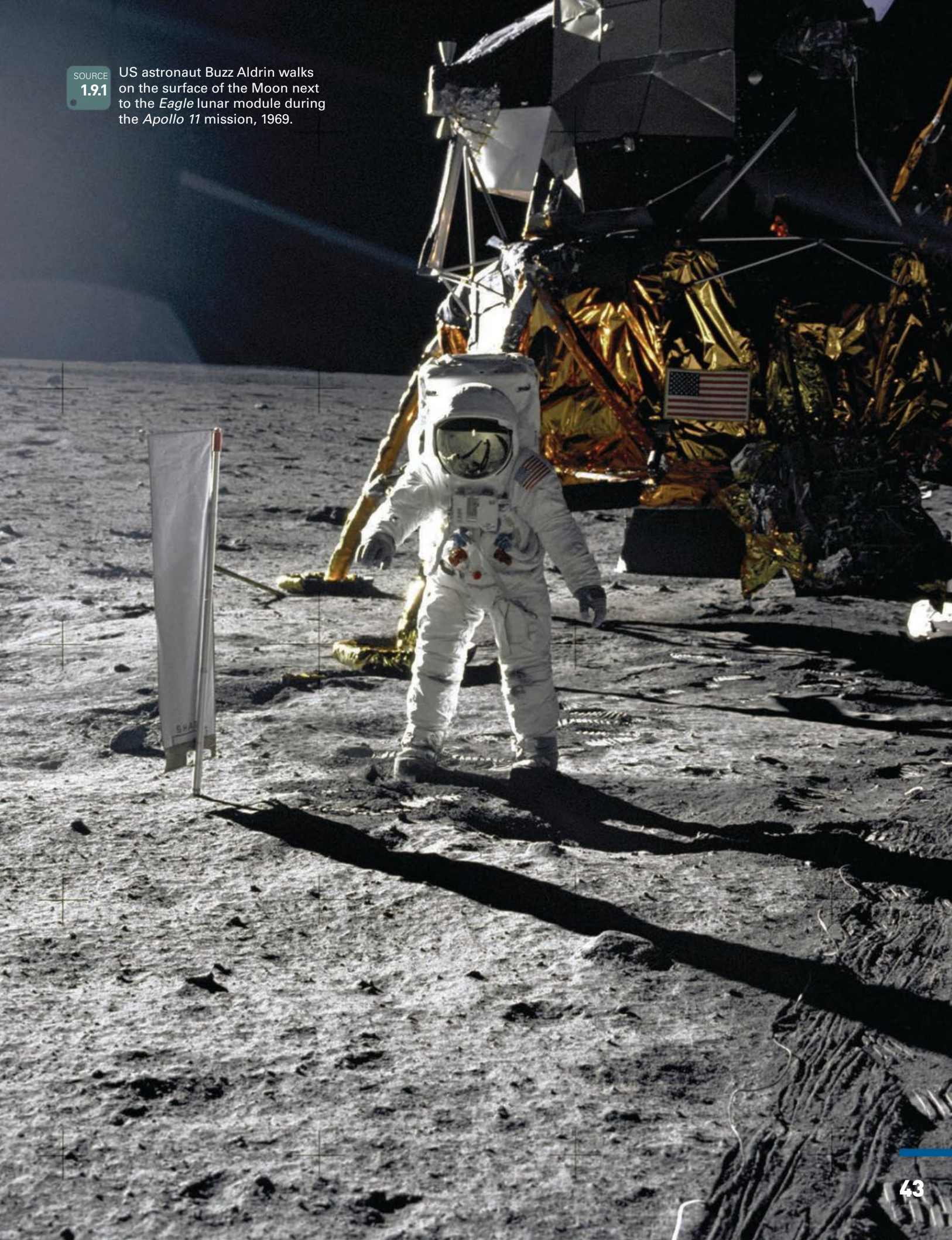
4 Should technological developments continue to be about size and speed? What should be the priority? What evidence can you use to support your arguments?

5 Look at Source 1.9.1. What evidence would you provide to argue for or against the suggestion that this represented the greatest modern achievement of the human race?

Creating

6 Select one technological development from the categories of household appliances, transport, communications, public health or energy to research in greater detail. Create an advertisement for the earliest model, and an advertisement for the way the development is used today. Explain the significance of the changes over time.

7 Create a dialogue between two teenagers where one explains modern twenty-first century life to the other who is from 1918.



SOURCE **1.9.1** US astronaut Buzz Aldrin walks on the surface of the Moon next to the *Eagle* lunar module during the *Apollo 11* mission, 1969.

CHAPTER 2

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- What were the causes, features and outcomes of the conflict in Europe?
- What were the causes, features and outcomes of the conflict in Asia–Pacific?
- How did the war affect life in Australia at the time?
- What were the major consequences of the war for the twentieth-century world?

DEPTH STUDY 1
WORLD WAR II

Twenty years after the Treaty of Versailles, the world was at war once more. Again, nationalism and imperialism were at the heart of its causes. World War II, which lasted from 1939 to 1945, took place in Europe, North Africa and the Asia–Pacific. It unleashed terrors that could not have been previously imagined. This was the period of fascism, the Holocaust and the nightmare of nuclear destruction. More technologically advanced weaponry destroyed whole civilian populations as well as military targets, resulting in casualties on an unprecedented scale.

Caught up in the war in Europe and North Africa, and then under direct threat in the Asia–Pacific, Australia faced new challenges both overseas and on the home front.







WORLD WAR II



SOURCE 2.0.1 A 25-pounder gun being pulled by Australian troops through dense jungle near Uberi on the Kokoda Track, September 1942. Held at the Australian War Memorial

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1939–45

Brown Australian events
Red Global events

SOURCE 2.1.1 Timeline of some significant events of World War II (1939–45)

1939

26 April Robert Menzies (Liberal) becomes prime minister of Australia

23 August German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact is signed

1 September Germany invades Poland

3 September Britain, France and Australia declare war on Germany

9 September *National Security Act* comes into force

1940

11 June Australia declares war on Italy

26 May Allied soldiers are evacuated from Dunkirk, France

June Italians in Australia begin to be interned

July–October Battle of Britain takes place, including Australian pilots

1941

April–August Australian forces part of the Siege of Tobruk

February Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force is formed

22 June Germany attacks Russia: Operation Barbarossa

13 August Australian Women's Army Service is formed

7 October John Curtin (Labor) becomes prime minister of Australia

24 December US troops begin to arrive in Australia

1942

January Australian federal government takes control of all state budgets; Manpower Directorate is formed

February 15 000 Australian troops become prisoners of the Japanese at Singapore

19 February Australia is bombed for the first time at Darwin

7 December Japan attacks Pearl Harbor, USA

8 December Britain, the United States and Australia declare war on Japan

May Battle of the Coral Sea takes place

June Battle of Midway occurs

August Battle of Stalingrad begins

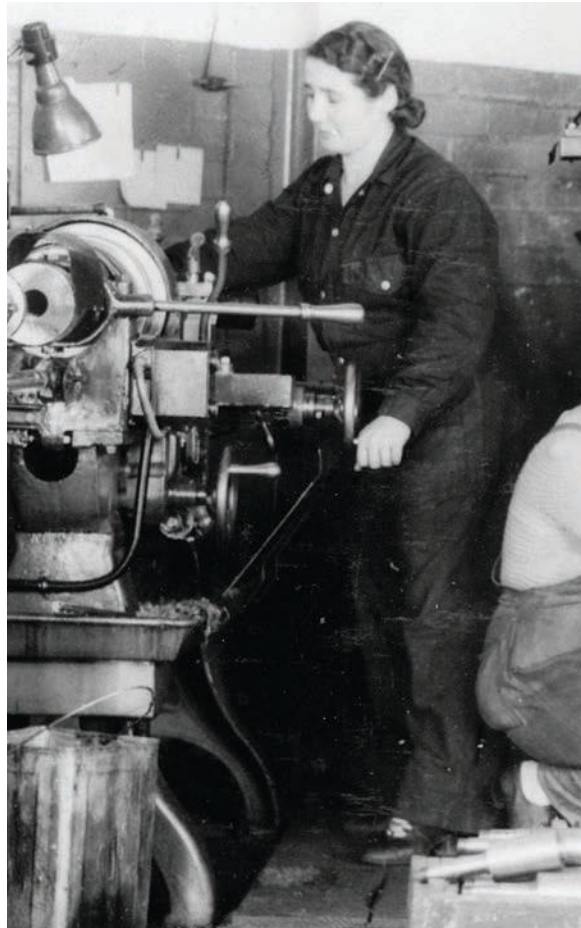
THE WORLD AT WAR, AGAIN

The end of World War I (1914–18) did not provide solid foundations for future peace. The peace treaties punished countries that lost the war, particularly Germany. Resentment over its harsh treatment, plus episodes of severe economic problems, caused Germany to turn to extreme political parties, such as the Nazi Party, because they offered solutions to the country's problems.

Italy and Japan both fought with the Allies in World War I but did not receive the rewards to which they believed they were entitled. These two countries, plus Germany, pursued aggressive foreign policies to develop their empires during the 1930s, and other great powers did little to stop them.

Germany's invasion of Poland in 1939 marked the beginning of World War II in Europe, and the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941 resulted in the beginning of the Pacific war. There was now a fear that even Australia could be invaded. Australia's military relations with the United States of America grew stronger as those with Britain weakened, and Australian women took on men's roles in military, agriculture and manufacturing activities.

Following Allied victory in World War II, Australia played an important role in establishing the United Nations (UN) Organisation and strengthened its alliance with the United States. Australia's national identity now encompassed such heroic battles as those of Tobruk and Kokoda, which were fought during World War II.





SOURCE 2.1.2 Crowd queuing for ration cards, 1947. Held at the State Library of Queensland

1943

31 May Midget submarines in Sydney Harbour

June Basic consumer items, petrol, tobacco and beer are rationed by this time

July–November Battle of Kokoda takes place

27 July Australian Women's Land Army is formed

October Women's Royal Australian Naval Service is formed

26 November Battle of Brisbane begins

27 September Curtin announces that the danger of invasion has passed

February Conscripted Citizen Military Forces are allowed to serve beyond Australian territory

12 May Axis powers surrender North Africa

July Allies invade Sicily, Italy

23 October Second Battle of El Alamein begins

1944

3 September Italy is invaded by the Allies

June Rome is captured by the Allies

6 June D-Day: the allied invasion of Fortress Europe

5 August Cowra breakout occurs

1945

April Dr H.V. Evatt heads a delegation to discuss formation of the United Nations

13 July Ben Chifley (Labor) becomes prime minister of Australia

5 July Death of John Curtin

December Battle of the Bulge begins

October US General Douglas MacArthur returns to the Philippines

25 August Paris is liberated

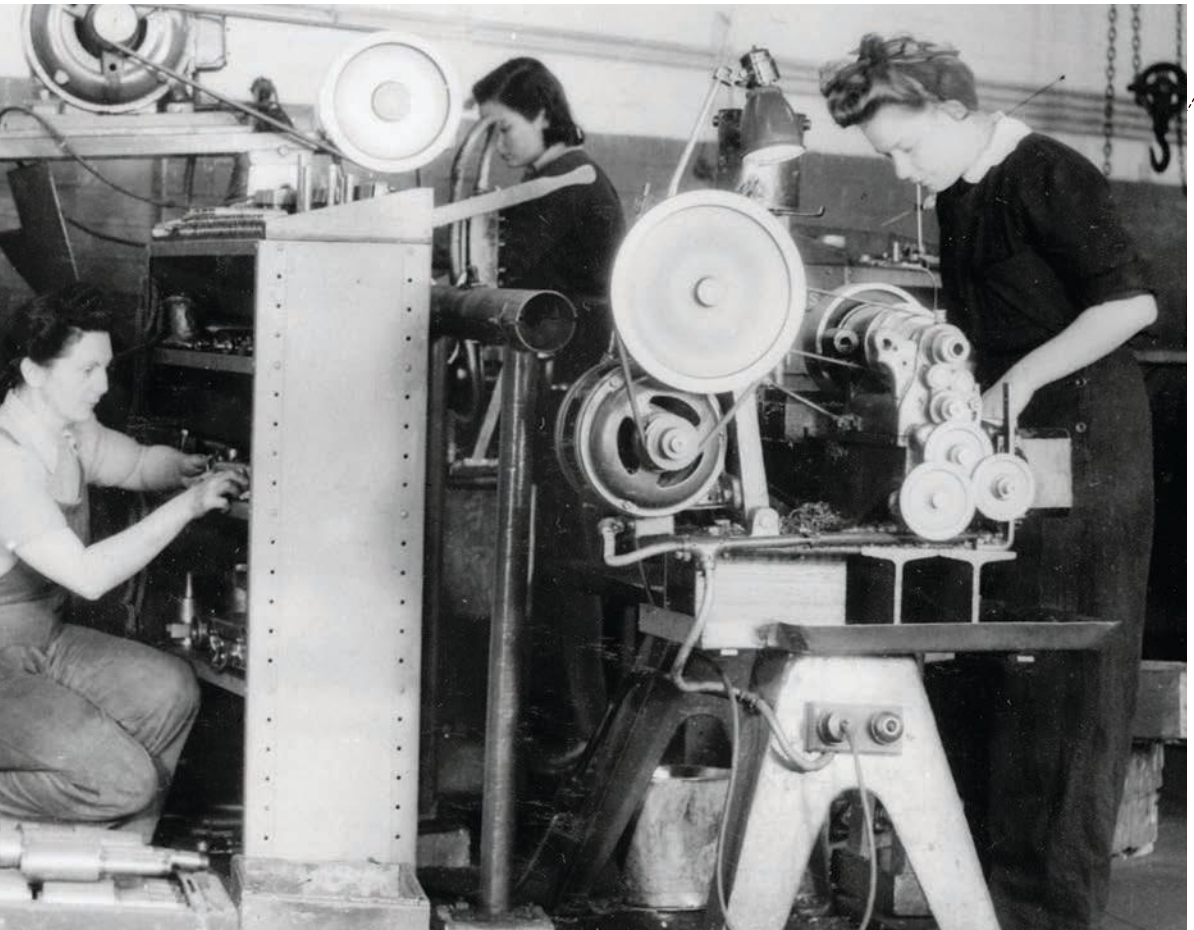
April Russian forces reach Berlin, Germany

24 October United Nations (UN) comes into existence

2 September US General Douglas MacArthur accepts Japan's surrender

August Atomic bombs are dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in Japan

8 May VE (Victory in Europe) Day



SOURCE 2.1.3 An example of women's changing roles in Australia during the war years: these women operated machines in a Melbourne factory in 1944. The factory produced parts for munitions (weapons and ammunition) and fruit canning machinery, both of which were vital for the war effort. Held at the Australian War Memorial



UNIT 2

THE WORLD ON THE BRINK OF WAR

THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

At the end of World War I, the **Treaty of Versailles** was signed in 1919 between the victorious Allies and the defeated Germany. The treaty negotiations were dominated by the leaders of Britain, France and the United States, with those from Italy and Japan having less influence. Germany was not included in these negotiations. As well as imposing harsh conditions on Germany, the Treaty of Versailles included the move to establish the **League of Nations**, an international organisation with the goal of maintaining peace. Historians have argued that the Treaty of Versailles did not achieve conciliation in Europe. As a consequence, some of the problems that led to World War II were due to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.

Although they had been on opposing sides during World War I, two powerful nations—Germany and Japan—felt unfairly treated by, and bitter about, the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. Italy also felt it had lost out. We look later at the significance of the treaty for Italy and Japan, and now focus on what it meant for Germany.

IMPACT ON GERMANY

Germany lost most of its territories in Europe after World War I, and large numbers of German-speaking people were now located in such new countries as Poland, Romania and Czechoslovakia. Germany's colonies were given as League of Nations mandates to other countries to administer. Strict limits were put on its army, naval and air force power. Germany had to accept the blame for World War I. Therefore, it was required to pay huge amounts to the victorious countries as reparations for the loss of life, damage and debts incurred during the war. Germany was not allowed to unite with Austria. In addition, it was not initially allowed to join the League of Nations.

As a result of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany had not only lost 15 per cent of its territory, it also lost 10 per cent of its coal reserves, 15 per cent of its agricultural land, 48 per cent of its iron reserves and 10 per cent of its industry. So it faced great difficulties recovering economically from the war and trying to pay the war reparations. Most Germans strongly resented these harsh conditions. Even before the Treaty of Versailles had been drawn up, a new

SOURCE 2.2.1 Map of Europe in 1919



democratic system of government, known as the **Weimar Republic**, had been established in Germany. The new Republic felt it was being punished for decisions made by the previous German leadership.

FALL OF THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC

The German Weimar Republic, established in 1919, met with enormous challenges. The German population was deeply divided, as evidenced by the many different political parties of the time, some of which actively opposed democratic ideals. Over the years, no single party was able to form government in its own right, so the Weimar Republic was often politically unstable. This made it even harder for Germany to deal with its social and economic problems. In addition, many Germans actually blamed the Republic for agreeing to the humiliating Treaty of Versailles.

Struggling with the conditions just outlined, the Weimar Republic survived many crises between 1919 and 1923. Then, from 1924 to 1929, it enjoyed a period of partial economic recovery, helped by large foreign loans mainly from the United States. Germany was allowed to join the League of Nations in 1926. But political instability continued and the Republic could not count on the support of influential groups in German society. Then, from late 1929, the Great Depression brought more challenges to the Weimar Republic.

From 1930, pressured by industrial and army leaders as well as the large landowners, President Hindenburg used his power in such a way as to weaken democratic rule through his choice of chancellors. By 1932, with over 6 million people unemployed in Germany, the Republic had lost much working-class support. In the elections of that year, the National Socialist German Workers' Party (the **Nazi Party**) led by Adolf Hitler, became the largest single party in the government. It opposed a democratic form of government and hence the existence of the Weimar Republic itself. Based on deals then made between Hindenburg and other anti-republic politicians, Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany in January 1933. He quickly moved to strengthen his position of power and impose Nazi rule.

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

The **Great Depression** was a worldwide economic crisis that began in the United States in 1929 and lasted well into the mid-1930s. In most Western countries, its features included a collapse in the construction, agricultural and manufacturing industries, dramatic rises in unemployment, and a decline in exports. Germany was severely hit by the Great Depression. Foreign loans, that had enabled the Weimar Republic to make war reparations and propped up German industry, were withdrawn. The now grave economic problems in Germany strengthened the position of those who rejected a democratic form of government. This led to growth in support for the Nazi Party, which promised economic recovery and to make Germany great again.

Other Depression-related developments contributed to the likelihood of war. Due to financial pressures, Britain and France limited their production of armaments; this reduced their ability to take stands against aggression by other countries during the 1930s. Meanwhile, from the mid-1930s, both Germany under Hitler and Japan under its military leaders increased expenditure on weapons and their armed forces. This strategy helped improve their countries' economies as it reduced unemployment. But its main aim was to increase their military power as they each sought to conquer new territories that would provide them with land and raw materials for economic growth.

RISE OF FASCISM IN EUROPE

Fascism is a broad term that refers to a group of political ideas that emerged in Europe following World War I. Fascism grew as a particular response to the social and economic crises in Europe after the war, and its appeal to influential groups in society was strengthened by the effects of the Great Depression. The main countries that took up fascist ideas were: Italy, led by Benito Mussolini; Germany, led by Hitler; and Spain, led by General Franco. Fascism took different forms in each country but there were certain common elements.

- Fascist thinking was based on **extreme nationalism**. That is, it emphasised rebuilding the nation and restoring it to greatness as a world power; it included belief in the superiority of one's own country over others.
- Fascism needed a **one-party state**. It rejected the idea of competing political parties for which people voted; hence, it rejected democracy.
- The state needed to be headed by a very strong leader able to attract and then demand the people's loyalty.
- A fascist government organised and controlled most aspects of people's lives, and it closely regulated the country's economy to avoid dependence on other countries.
- A fascist government maintained its grip on power through military strength and calculated violence, including against its own people.

The three fascist governments were strongly opposed to socialism and communism. So they suppressed groups within their own countries that stood for these economic and political ideas, and they were therefore openly hostile towards the newly formed Soviet Union.

ITALY

Although it had sided with the Allies during World War I, Italy was dissatisfied with the Treaty of Versailles, which did not give it the number of territories it had expected. Then, following the war, Italy experienced major economic problems and social unrest that the existing government could not adequately deal with. Under these conditions, for many Italians, fascism seemed to be the solution. Led by Mussolini, the National Fascist Party (later the Republican

Fascist Party) gained increasing support. In 1922, Mussolini was invited by the king to form a government. By 1924, Mussolini had established Italy as Europe's first fascist state with himself as dictator.

For several years, Mussolini was successful in addressing some of Italy's problems and had the people's support. However, problems that were not resolved became worse during the Great Depression years. Then, with Italy ill-equipped to do so, Mussolini sided with Nazi Germany and entered World War II in 1940. Mussolini's own government officials turned against him after Italian troops were defeated by the Allies in 1943. He was dismissed by the king and fascism soon declined in Italy.

NAZI GERMANY

By mid-1933, Hitler was both Chancellor and President of Germany and had abolished democratic elections. He was now the all-powerful dictator of a one-party state and used the title ***Führer***. Hitler then set out to put Nazi Party policies into practice. For example:

- Based on pseudoscientific theories of race, Hitler believed that Germany would only become a great power again if it was racially pure, populated only by the **'master race'**. This was the 'Aryans'—typically tall, blond and blue-eyed like many Germans—who, it was argued, were the only breed of people capable of providing Germany with the best in culture, art and technology. People of other 'races' found in Germany and beyond were thought of as inferior and new laws discriminated against them. Jewish people were a major target of Nazi racial policy: Hitler made it clear that he wanted to brutally get rid of them.
- Hitler's determination to get back territories that Germany had lost through the Treaty of Versailles was linked to the racial policy just outlined. Using the term ***Lebensraum*** (meaning 'living space'), he argued that the German 'master race' was entitled to a much wider area of land. This meant that, using force as needed, Germany began to take over whole or parts of nearby countries.
- Hitler set out to secure the unquestioning obedience and service to the nation of the younger generation. The Nazi Party controlled the employment of teachers in schools and universities and made sure that textbooks and courses followed Nazi content. As well as their formal education, all young people had to take part in highly-disciplined **Nazi youth groups**. The most important of these were: Hitler Youth (for boys from 14 to 18 years of age), which focused on physical fitness and military skills to prepare them to be future soldiers; and the League of German Maidens (for girls from 14 to 18 years of age), which focused on physical fitness and homemaking skills to prepare them for a future as wives and mothers.

DID YOU KNOW?

From December 1936, it became compulsory for all German youth classified as Aryan to take part in Nazi youth groups.

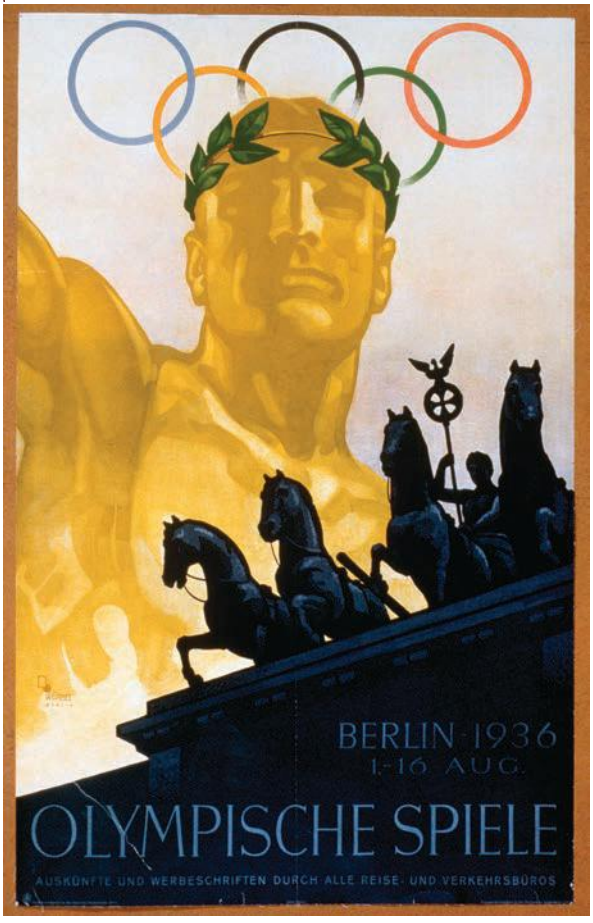
SOURCE 2.2.2 A Hitler Youth rally conducted in 1933 at Nuremberg Stadium, Germany



- Different media—radio, cinema, newspapers, painting and sculpture—as well as sporting events and mass rallies were controlled and cleverly used to popularise and reinforce Nazi messages. This sort of activity is called **propaganda**. It was directed by one of Hitler's most trusted associates, Josef Goebbels.
- The Nazis developed a system of repression and terror to deal with opponents and spy on the population. This included an increasingly powerful paramilitary organisation known as the *Schutzstaffel* (SS); the Nazi private army, known as SA or Storm Troopers; and a new secret police force, known as the Gestapo.
- **Concentration camps** were established to hold people deemed racially impure such as Jews, political 'enemies' such as communists, and other groups that did not fit into the Nazi view of society. A division of the SS ran the camps and subjected inmates to forced labour, torture and, increasingly, murder. The first of these concentration camps was Dachau, opened in 1933.

SOURCE 2.2.3 A poster advertising the Berlin Olympic Games in 1936

Q
1 Describe the image within the top half of the poster. Who or what do you think this image is meant to represent?
2 What do you think the eagle-shaped image, within the middle of the poster, may represent?
3 Do you think this poster is an example of Nazi propaganda? Give reasons for your answer.





SOURCE 2.2.4 Part of Dachau concentration camp, 1949. It also had guard towers and an administration building. There were two rows of electric fences with a moat between them. An inmate who stepped on the grass area was automatically shot.

DID YOU KNOW?

Hitler did not even want the Olympic Games in Berlin at first; he had inherited them from the previous government. Hitler had condemned the whole Olympic movement as controlled by Jews and freemasons. He wanted to cancel the games until he realised it was a chance to show the world how he had made Germany a great nation again.

SPAIN

After years of economic difficulties and political turmoil, in 1936, civil war broke out in Spain. It was fought between the socialist government of the recently formed Spanish Republic and the rebel Spanish Nationalist forces led by General Franco. The war ended in 1939 and resulted in another fascist government gaining power in Europe.

The Spanish Civil War is relevant to the study of World War II for three reasons. First, Germany and Italy saw the civil war as a common fascist cause and an opportunity to test their new weapons: both countries provided Franco's forces with arms, men and supplies. A major event of the civil war was the bombing by German planes of the Spanish town of Guernica, deliberately killing hundreds of defenceless civilians. This new 'terror bombing' became a tactic used by both sides in World War II. Second, consistent with their foreign policies at the time, Britain, France and the United States did not intervene. Third, the Soviet Union supported the republican war effort by providing aircraft, arms and equipment. This was one example of the Soviet Union's opposition to the aims of Germany in particular.

MILITANT NATIONALISM IN JAPAN

By the early twentieth century, Japan had rapidly become a modern industrialised country with growing military and naval power. Its empire included Formosa (now Taiwan) and Korea, and it controlled large parts of resource-rich Manchuria in northern China. Its position in the world was comparable with that of major European powers such as Britain, France and Germany, as well as the United States.

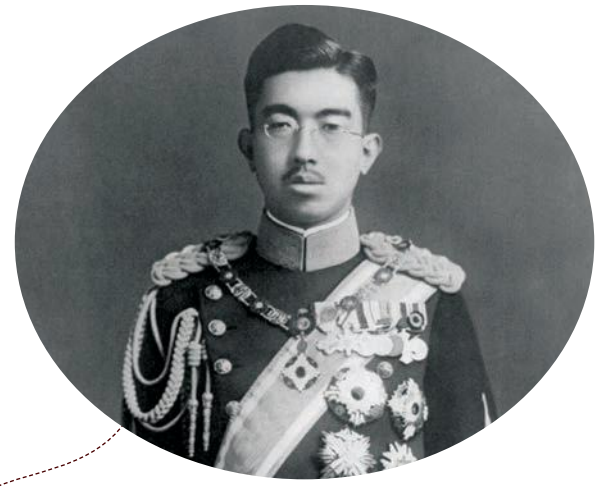
Japan had a limited form of democratic government through its parliament, but its army and navy remained under the control of the emperor. Japan lacked important natural resources such as coal and oil, and its islands made up only a limited landmass. So its potential economic growth was restricted. It wanted greater access to raw materials and land.

Japan had sided with the Allies in World War I and its economy had grown through increased trade. However, in the Treaty of Versailles negotiations, it believed it had been denied equal status with Britain, France and the United States. It was then disappointed at not gaining as much territory as the Allies had; Japan particularly wanted to expand into China. It was also deeply offended by the treaty's failure to include a 'racial equality' clause in the Covenant of the League of Nations, largely due to pressure from Australia's Prime Minister William 'Billy' Hughes who was determined to protect his country's White Australia policy.

The Washington Naval Conference in 1921–22 attempted to restrict Japan's growth by limiting the size of its navy. Yet in the 1920s, Japan's military leaders remained a powerful influence within the country and in government. This was heightened by the Great Depression, which brought a major decline in Japanese trade, with resultant problems of widespread poverty and unemployment.

The Japanese people increasingly blamed their parliament for these problems. Different groups, including the military, exploited the people's fears, stirring up extreme nationalist ideas that included prejudice against other races. This weakened Japan's already fragile commitment to democratic government. The military, particularly the army, was seen now as the organisation that could restore Japan's national pride and economic prosperity.

By the mid-1930s, those in power in Japan regarded Nazi Germany as the model for success, thus setting Japan on a similar path of extreme nationalism closely linked to military might. Japan's rulers believed that their country had the right to its own expanded empire to strengthen its economy and began to prepare for war to achieve this.



SOURCE 2.2.5

Emperor Hirohito photographed in 1935. As Japan's emperor from 1926, he controlled the military right through to Japan's surrender at the end of World War II in 1945. Held at the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C., USA

IMPERIALIST AGGRESSION

In this chapter, **imperialism** refers to the policy adopted by countries to extend their control or authority over foreign territory, for economic and other reasons, particularly through the creation of an empire. We already know that imperialism was a major cause of World War I. In the 1930s, the imperialist actions of Germany, Italy and Japan pushed the world closer to war again, in Europe and in the Pacific.

GERMANY

Hitler withdrew Germany from the League of Nations in 1933. By 1935, he had reintroduced conscription and rearmed Germany. Defying the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, he pursued a policy of returning all German-speaking peoples to the ***Reich***, or German empire. The coal-rich Saar territory was returned in 1935; the Rhineland (the border region between German and France) was reoccupied in 1936. Again defying the Treaty of Versailles, in an agreement between the two countries known as ***Anschluss***, Germany annexed Austria in 1938. Then, in 1938–39, Germany managed through legal and illegal means to take over Czechoslovakia. Hitler now looked eastward towards Poland and the Soviet Union for more German 'living space'.

ITALY

Italian dictator Mussolini spoke increasingly of his imperial ambitions in the 1930s: a new 'Roman Empire' and control of the Mediterranean Sea. To add to its existing colonies in North and East Africa, Italy invaded Abyssinia (now Ethiopia) in October 1935, claiming victory in May 1936. Economic sanctions imposed by the League of Nations proved ineffective. Mussolini intervened in the Spanish Civil War with the hope of making Spain dependent on Italy in the future. Although Italy already had a close alliance with Albania, in 1939, Italian forces invaded the territory to bring it under direct Italian control.

JAPAN

In its quest for raw materials as well as new markets, Japan invaded Manchuria in northern China in 1931. It renamed the area Manchukuo in 1932 and set up a government there controlled by Japan. Criticised by the League of Nations for this, Japan withdrew from the organisation in 1933. Japan invaded parts of eastern China in 1937, beginning a long period of savage conflict marked by mass killing, rape, violence and destruction, known as the Second Sino-Japanese War. In the late 1930s, Japanese forces engaged in border conflicts in Manchukuo with the Soviet Union, seeking to extend its empire in that region; however, it suffered military defeats. From that point, Japan's rulers saw its major goals to be the war against China and an expansion of its empire towards the south.

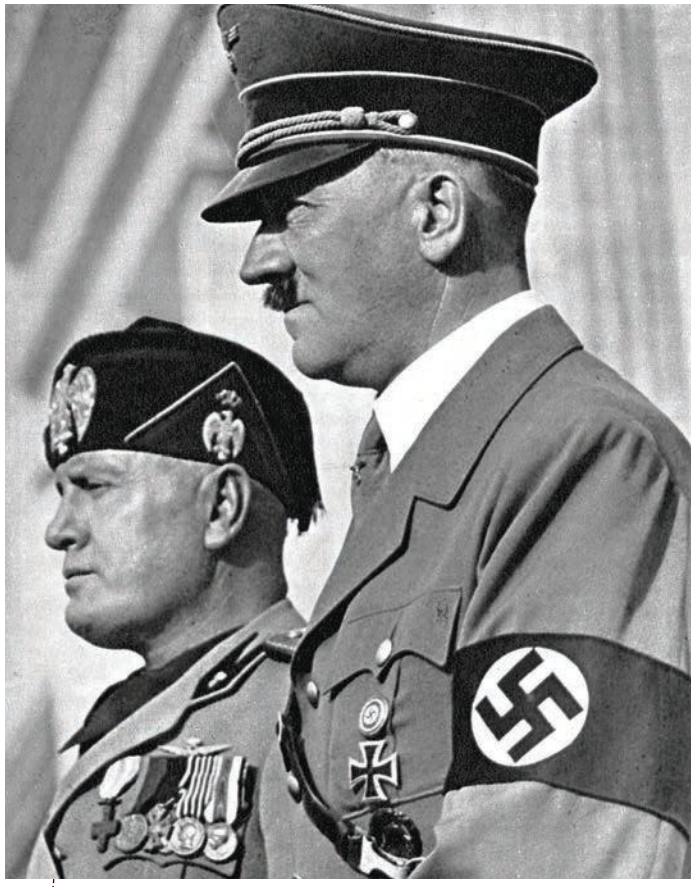


SOURCE 2.2.6 Chinese prisoners waiting to be executed by their Japanese captors in 1938

THE AXIS POWERS

In the late 1930s, a number of agreements instigated by Hitler brought Germany, Italy and Japan together in common purpose.

- In 1936, in an agreement known as the Rome–Berlin Axis, Hitler established a political understanding with Mussolini. This was strengthened in August 1939 with the Pact of Steel, when Germany and Italy agreed on a military alliance.
- In 1936, Germany made the Anti-Comintern Pact with Japan whereby both countries agreed to support each other in the event of an attack by the Soviet Union and consented not to enter into treaties with the Soviet Union. Italy joined the pact in 1937, thus creating what was then known as the **Axis alliance** between Germany, Italy and Japan.



SOURCE 2.2.7 Benito Mussolini and Adolf Hitler, leaders of two countries of the Fascist Axis alliance

Q
1. **Describe the appearance of each of the two leaders who have been photographed in profile. Consider their clothing, insignia on their clothing, and facial expressions.**
2. **What image is presented of each of the leaders?**
3. **Do you think this photograph would have been used for propaganda purposes? If so, at what audiences do you think it would have been aimed?**

RESPONSES TO HITLER'S EXPANSION

BRITAIN AND FRANCE

Appeasement occurs when one power offers concessions to an aggressive power in order to avoid conflict. This was the position taken by Britain and France during the late 1930s: they were prepared to allow Germany to acquire European territory, in particular the Rhineland, Austria and Czechoslovakia, in order to prevent a return to the horrors of World War I. Some British leaders also believed that Germany had been unfairly disadvantaged by the terms of the Treaty of Versailles and its actions were justified. In addition, had Britain and France wanted to confront Germany, their own economic decisions during the 1930s had weakened their military capability, which would have put them in a losing position to begin with. However, by August 1939, Britain and France agreed to defend Polish territory if it was invaded by Germany.

THE SOVIET UNION

The Soviet Union was concerned about Germany's clear intentions to expand eastward, anticipating an attack on its territory. The Soviet leader, Joseph Stalin, lacked confidence in the ability of Britain and France to stand up to Hitler and so did not see them as strong allies. Against this background and with little trust between them, in August 1939, Stalin and Hitler signed the **German–Soviet Non–Aggression Pact**. It stipulated that the two countries would not attack each other and that when Germany invaded Poland, the Soviet Union would remain neutral. The pact included a secret agreement: Germany left the Baltic States (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania) and the eastern part of Poland to Soviet control. This gave the Soviet Union a buffer zone against any attack from its west.

THE UNITED STATES

After its active role in World War I, the United States decided not to join the League of Nations. This reflected a return to its traditional **isolationist policy** of not becoming involved in the affairs of European countries. Although it had strong economic ties with European countries, the United States stayed out of European politics for most of the inter-war period and so did not take any action regarding Hitler's rise to power and Germany's expansionist moves. Of more immediate concern to the United States at the time was Japan's invasion of Manchuria and its attack on China.



SOURCE 2.2.8 Britain's Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain and Germany's Chancellor Adolf Hitler meet in Munich, Germany, October 1938 to discuss Hitler's plans for expansion within Europe.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms below.
   - *Anschluss*
   - appeasement
   - Axis alliance
   - concentration camps
   - extreme nationalism
   - fascism
   - *Führer*
   - German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact
   - Great Depression
   - imperialism
   - (US) isolationist policy
   - League of Nations
   - *Lebensraum*
   - 'master race'
   - Nazi Party
   - Nazi youth groups
   - one-party state
   - propaganda
   - *Reich*
   - Treaty of Versailles
   - Weimar Republic
2. Begin a 'Who was who in the context of World War II' table in your workbook or, preferably, in Microsoft® Word or a similar program. Divide your table into five columns headed: 'Person's name', 'Nationality', 'Position', 'Role in the context of World War II' and 'Other details'. Begin your chart with the people named in this unit. As you work through other units in this chapter, you may need to add more information about these people, and you will find many more people to include in your table.
3. List five conditions imposed on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles.
4. Describe two or more difficulties faced by Germany's Weimar Republic between 1919 and 1932.

5 Construct a detailed mind map entitled 'Rise of fascism in Europe' that shows: the five common elements of fascism, the main countries that had fascist governments and their leaders, and any other relevant information.

6 **a** Summarise Hitler's belief in the superiority of the 'Aryans'.

b Explain how Hitler linked his racial policy to *Lebensraum*.

c List four or more ways the Nazis gained control and maintained power within Germany.

7 **a** Explain why Japan was unhappy with the Treaty of Versailles.

b Explain why Japan would have been unhappy with the Washington Naval Conference of 1921–22.

c Outline two or more reasons why the Japanese military became increasingly powerful in the 1930s.

Understanding and applying

8 **a** Create a timeline of events of the 1930s, combining information about Germany, Italy and Japan in chronological order.

b On an outline map of Europe and North Africa, mark the location of Germany and Italy. Draw arrows on this map from Germany and Italy to places where they acquired territory during the 1930s.

c On an outline map of north-east Asia, complete the same exercise for Japan.

9 **a** In graphic form, using arrows linking the countries, represent the agreements made between the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan) from 1936 to 1939. Make sure you include the name of each agreement, the countries that made it, its date and its purpose for each country.

b Suggest two reasons why Hitler instigated these agreements.

10 Using subheadings and dot points, summarise the responses of the following countries to Hitler's expansion in the 1930s:

a Britain and France

b the Soviet Union

c the United States.

Analysing and evaluating

11 In point form, list the evidence presented throughout this unit that supports the argument that some of the problems that led to another world war were due to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. Compare your list with a classmate's.

12 In point form, list the evidence presented throughout this unit that shows how the effects of the Great Depression in different countries contributed to the likelihood of war. Compare your list with a classmate's.

Analysing and creating

13 **a** Research the 1936 Berlin Olympic Games using the internet and other sources.

b Imagine you are an Australian athlete at the Olympics writing a letter to your family at home. Include your observations of the following:

- Nazi propaganda
- the persecution of Jewish athletes from Germany
- the success of African-American athletes
- the conflicting opinions about whether a boycott of the Olympics should have occurred
- other details you have found interesting.

Evaluating and creating

14 **a** Using the internet and other sources, research what it was like to be a member of a Nazi youth group in the late 1930s.

b In pairs or groups of three, step into the shoes of teenagers living in Nazi Germany in 1937. You are aged between 14 and 18 and are walking home together following a meeting of your Nazi youth groups—boys would have been in one type of group and girls in another. Write the dialogue of a conversation your characters have, being sure to include the following:

- the type of Nazi youth groups you attend
- the activities your youth groups run
- your attitudes towards Hitler and the Nazi regime
- your hopes for your future and that of Germany.

You could also include details about teenagers you may know who were not allowed to join the Nazi youth groups.

c Perform your conversation for the class.



UNIT 3

WAR IN EUROPE

DECLARATIONS OF WAR

Germany invaded Poland on 1 September 1939 and achieved victory in five weeks largely through ***Blitzkrieg*** or 'lightning war'. This was a combination of air power, artillery, armour and infantry. The main agents of *Blitzkrieg* were the Panzer divisions, led by tanks but also containing artillery and infantry. The German air force terrorised Polish civilians by bombing their cities, something that they had practised in the Spanish Civil War. For the invasion of Poland, Hitler set up mobile killing squads, the ***Einsatzgruppen***, to follow the advancing army. Their aim was to kill people regarded as racially or politically unacceptable to the Nazi regime, to pave the way for German colonisation. The death squads were usually made up of members of the *Schutzstaffel* (SS) and members of the German and local police forces.

Britain and France declared war on Germany on 3 September 1939. In support of Britain, Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies declared war on the same day. However, the period from October 1939 to March 1940 was known as the **Phoney War**. Despite having committed to assisting Poland, Britain and France were still preparing for war and did not take major, effective military action, even when German forces invaded and occupied Norway and Denmark, and when the Soviet Union took control of the eastern part of Poland and attacked Finland.

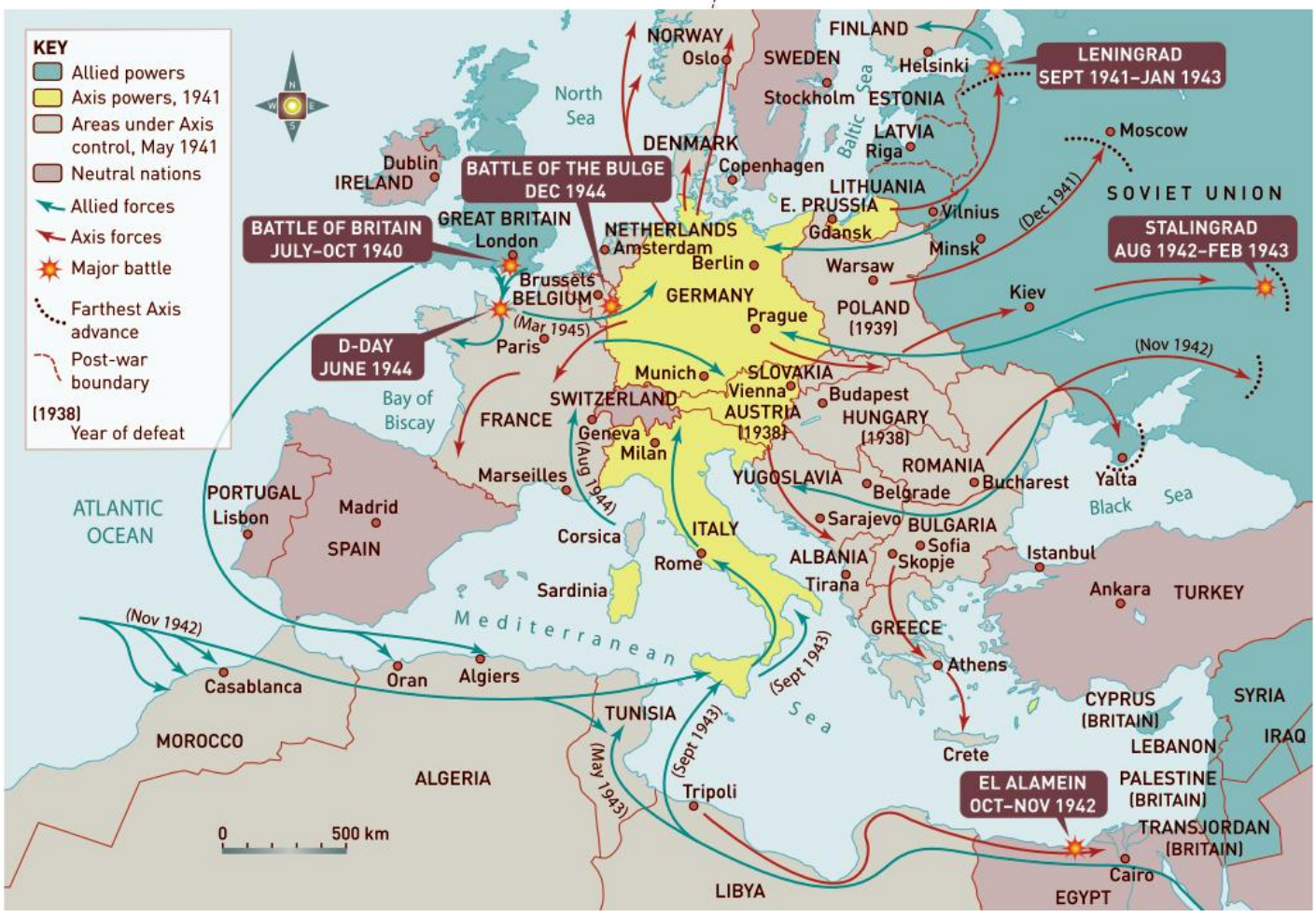
SOURCE 2.3.1

Map of the European theatre, World War II. The countries that made up the Allied powers changed during the war. Great Britain and France were the main Allies at the beginning of the war; they were joined by the Soviet Union and the United States in 1941.

Q

1 **Outline the locations of the major advances of both Allied and Axis forces.**

2 **Where and when were the major battles fought?**



INVASION AND OCCUPATION OF WESTERN EUROPE

FRANCE

In the 1930s, the French had built the **Maginot Line**, a series of concrete fortifications along its eastern border with Germany that stretched some 240 kilometres, and counted this as the key defence against German invasion. However, on 10 May 1940, German tanks smashed through the French and British defences further north of the strongest part of the Maginot Line in the Ardennes Forest and through neutral Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. The French army had not developed tactics to counter *Blitzkrieg*. The Panzers raced through France. Nearly 2 million French soldiers were taken prisoner, and it looked like the remnants of the French army, as well as the British forces in France, would be destroyed. However, while the German forces halted to consolidate captured French territory, the British command organised for 338 226 British and French troops to be evacuated from Dunkirk, on France's northern coast, to England. France surrendered and an **armistice** was signed on 22 June between Germany and France.

From 1940 to late 1942, only the northern part of France was occupied by German forces. The southern part was run by a French Government, based at Vichy, which collaborated (worked in cooperation) with the German occupying forces. The Vichy Government was headed by Marshal Philippe Pétain, the French hero of the Battle of Verdun in 1916. It now made laws for all of France, including the German-occupied area, unless those laws contradicted ones made by the German occupation force. However, towards the end of 1942, after the Allies invaded North Africa, German troops occupied the whole of France. The Vichy Government remained in place until the invasion of France by the Allies in 1944.

During the period of occupation, many French people either collaborated with the Germans or went about their lives as best they could while being neutral to the German presence. French Jews, however, were rounded up for deportation. As in most occupied territories, a resistance movement grew in France. The small groups of men and women that made up the French Resistance risked their lives to maintain escape networks for captured Allied servicemen, to secretly collect Nazi military information and transmit it to the Allies, and to sabotage in various ways the Nazi advance in local areas.

DID YOU KNOW?

A fearless Australian, Nancy Wake, played important roles in the French Resistance. She was so effective that she was on top of the German Secret Police's 'most wanted' list in 1943.



SOURCE 2.3.2

German troops parade near the Arc de Triomphe after the fall of Paris, 1940

Q

1. **Find out about the importance of the Arc de Triomphe for the French people. Why do you think the German command in Paris would have ordered troop parades there?**
2. **How do you think Parisians would have felt when they observed these parades?**

BELGIUM AND THE NETHERLANDS

Both Belgium and the Netherlands (Holland) had remained neutral at the outbreak of war. But for Hitler they were in a strategic position (see Source 2.3.1). Both bordered Germany, and Belgium also bordered France. Once occupied, they could also be used as bases for Hitler's planned invasion of Britain and could act as a barrier between Germany and Britain. On 10 May 1940, the same day as the Nazi invasion of France, German forces—spearheaded by the ***Luftwaffe***, the German air force—invaded both Belgium and the Netherlands. Both countries were forced to surrender to Nazi occupation by the end of the month.

AXIS POWERS CONSOLIDATE

Following Hitler's successful invasions of Poland and countries in Western Europe, Mussolini declared war on Britain and France on 10 June 1940, despite the fact that the majority of Italians opposed his decision. He hoped to gain French territory and was also planning Italian invasions of Egypt and Greece. On 27 September 1940, a **Tripartite Pact** was signed between Germany, Italy and Japan to reaffirm their previous agreements in support of each other. In later months, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia and Croatia also signed this pact.

BATTLE OF BRITAIN

In his plan to invade Britain, Hitler wanted first to gain air supremacy because the British navy was far more powerful than the German navy. From July to early August 1940, the German Luftwaffe and the British **Royal Air Force (RAF)** fought over the English Channel and English southern coast. From early August to early September, the Germans attempted to destroy the RAF Fighter Command on the ground and in the air in South-East England. Then, from early September to early October, the Germans bombed major English cities, including London. This last phase was known as **the Blitz**. Thousands of civilians were killed and large parts of cities were devastated. Hitler hoped to destroy British morale and force Britain to surrender.

By the end of October, the Battle of Britain was over. Night-time bombings continued, but German losses were increasing and the poor visibility due to the autumn weather made bombing raids more difficult. Britain had won the battle due to the heroism shown by the pilots and the RAF's use of new radar technology, which could locate approaching German planes early enough for the British planes to intercept them. In Britain, it was seen as a moral as well as a strategic victory: its population had stood firm, supported by the determination of Winston Churchill not to surrender (their new prime minister from May 1940). Hitler in the meantime turned his focus to expanding the German empire in the East.

DID YOU KNOW?

In the Battle of Britain, the Royal Air Force (RAF) was supported by squadrons drawn from other countries including Poland, New Zealand, Canada, Czechoslovakia and Australia. Thirty-five Australian pilots served in the Battle of Britain and ten were killed in action out of a total of 537 RAF losses.



SOURCE 2.3.3

Life goes on: in the 1940s, households regularly had milk delivered in bottles to their homes. This photograph shows a milkman on the job during the Blitz in London.

Q **Carefully examine the photograph. Describe what you see in the street, including in the background.**

INVASION OF THE SOVIET UNION

Being an important source of oil and grain for Germany, in Hitler's eyes the Soviet Union was seen as valuable 'living space' to be occupied by Germans. Having control of the Soviet Union was also seen as important for strategic reasons in Germany's conduct of the war. The German invasion of the Soviet Union, called Operation Barbarossa, was launched on 22 June 1941. It negated the 1939 German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact. For the Soviet Union, Germany was now a feared enemy. Operation Barbarossa therefore brought the Soviet Union into the war on the side of the Allies.

The invading army of Germany and its allies, totalling more than 4 million men, attacked on a front of nearly 2000 kilometres. From September 1941, German forces had Leningrad surrounded and the city was not relieved by Soviet troops until October 1944. The invading army reached the suburbs of Moscow, but was stopped by a combination of the harsh winter and the newly arrived Soviet reinforcements from Siberia.

> *...on Friday 5 December [1941]... the snow was a metre deep [near Moscow]... [German] tanks were abandoned as engines failed to run in temperatures that had now dropped to [46 degrees Celsius] below zero. Light and heavy guns, their recoil mechanisms frozen solid, would not fire. Fingers that touched cold metal [stuck] to it...*
>
> *On 10 December [German Senior General Heinz] Guderian recorded a temperature of [–53] degrees [Celsius]. Soldiers lucky enough to find a soup kitchen discovered that boiling hot soup froze solid before they could finish it, while those who dropped their trousers to excrete in the open, died as their bowels froze solid.*

SOURCE 2.3.4 From *Blood, Tears and Folly: An Objective Look at World War II*, by Len Deighton, Pimlico, London, 1995

Q **List the major problems the German troops experienced due to the extremely harsh weather conditions in the Soviet Union.**

BATTLE OF STALINGRAD

The German army resumed its invasion with the onset of warmer weather in 1942 but did not attempt to take Moscow. Instead, the main German thrust was towards the city of Stalingrad, which occupied a strategic position on the Volga River. The result was one of the most savage battles of the whole war, most of it fought within the city itself from August 1942 to February 1943. Following massive bombing raids, German troops attempted to occupy the largely ruined city. But Stalin, the Soviet leader, ordered the Soviet Red Army troops there to fight to the death. Then, in a counterattack from different angles, the Red Army surrounded the German troops and relief for the Germans could not get through. It was a crushing defeat for the German army. The brutal Battle of Stalingrad is considered to be the turning point of the war in Europe. From early 1943, the German army was in retreat, pursued by the Red Army.

ATROCITIES

As happened with the invasion of Poland, the *Einsatzgruppen* death squads terrorised the civilian populations. Approximately 1.3 million Jews were murdered by these squads with millions more rounded up for deportation to concentration, slave labour and death camps. The Nazis regarded the Soviets themselves as racially inferior. Of the 3.2 million Soviet soldiers taken prisoner between June 1941 and April 1942, 2.8 million died due to ill-treatment and starvation or execution. The Battle of Stalingrad itself occurred at huge human cost for both sides. The total Axis and Soviet military death toll is estimated to be approximately 2 million; this figure does not include the thousands of Soviet civilians killed there.

MUSSOLINI'S GRAB FOR EMPIRE

GREECE

From its stronghold of Albania, Italy invaded Greece on 28 October 1940 but experienced strong resistance from Greece's military forces and its people. This led to Germany providing military support for Italy in April 1940. By May 1941, all of Greece was under Axis control; it was divided into three zones managed by Germany, Italy and Bulgaria. However, as the Soviet Red Army was advancing from the Ukraine in late 1944, the German forces began to withdraw and Bulgaria switched sides from the Axis powers to the Soviet Union. So Italy's hold on Greece was now shaky and further weakened by the successes of the communist Greek resistance movement that had gradually liberated parts of the country.

NORTH AFRICA

With his desire for Egypt to be part of Italy's empire, in September 1940, Mussolini positioned Italian naval power in the Mediterranean Sea and Italian troops in its colony of Libya in preparation for an invasion of Egypt. This threatened Britain's control of Egypt and of the Suez Canal and hence British oil supplies from the Middle East (that were vital for its European war effort), as well as Britain's trade links with India, South-East Asia and the Pacific region. Therefore, when Italian forces invaded Egypt, the ensuing battle became part of the war in Europe between the Allies and the Axis powers. British forces reinforced by Australian, Indian and later US troops fought Italian forces reinforced by German troops.

In the early stages, the British forces managed to push the Italians back into Libya. But the arrival in February 1941 of German troops, commanded by General Erwin Rommel, sent the British into retreat as Rommel's forces moved deep into Egypt by July 1941. Over the following year, in the combat between the Allies, led by Britain's General Bernard Montgomery, and the Axis army, led by Rommel, each side faced partial successes and defeats. Rommel's army was finally defeated at the second Battle of El Alamein in October–November 1942. The Axis army retreated to Tunisia where most of the troops escaped back to Europe. However, it left behind some 275 000 prisoners, caught between the British forces from the east and US and British forces from the west (see Source 2.3.1).

'RATS OF TOBRUK'

One of the sites of combat in North Africa where Australians played a key role was the strategic port of Tobruk, on the coast of Libya. On 11 April 1941, the British forces there were hemmed in by attacking Axis forces led by Rommel. Between April and August, 14 000 Australian troops, plus 12 000 Indian troops and British artillery, held out against ground attacks plus constant shelling and air attacks. From August, Australian troops were gradually replaced by other Allied divisions. These Australian and



SOURCE 2.3.5 Australian soldiers guarding one of the headquarters at Tobruk in May 1941, photographed by war photographer Frank Hurley. Held at the Australian War Memorial

other servicemen defending the port named themselves the 'Rats of Tobruk' because the Germans said they were caught like rats in a trap. However, by 27 November fresh British reinforcements forced Rommel to call off the siege. Apart from their important role in the defence of Tobruk, Australian soldiers played a major part in the defeat of Rommel's forces at El Alamein in October 1942.

THE UNITED STATES ENTERS THE WAR IN EUROPE

With the Japanese air strike on the US naval base at Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941, the United States declared war on Japan. On 11 December, Italy and then Germany declared war on the United States, supporting their Axis partner. That same day, the United States became part of the European war: it declared war on both Germany and Italy. Although the United States had to deal with the immediate threat of Japanese aggression closer to home, it made an agreement with its European allies to defeat Germany first. It sent a large air force to bomb Germany from Britain, as well as thousands of troops in preparation for an Allied invasion of Europe.

ALLIED VICTORY IN EUROPE

ITALY AND GREECE

With North Africa secured, an Allied invasion of Italy could now begin. US and British troops landed on the Italian island of Sicily in July 1943 and Sicily was in Allied hands in a little over a month. The Italian mainland was invaded in early September 1943. German forces in Italy defended strongly and Rome was not captured by the Allies until June 1944. The Allied armies did not achieve final victory in Italy until the spring of 1945. Meanwhile, British, Australian and New Zealand forces landed in Greece in October 1944 and eventually liberated the remaining parts of the devastated country from Italian control.

Mussolini's poor handling of the Italian invasions of Greece and Egypt, plus the Allied invasion of Sicily, saw him stripped of his power. Against a background of war-imposed economic hardships and growing social unrest, Mussolini's own government officials turned against him and he was dismissed by the king in July 1943. A new Italian Government signed an armistice with the Allies in early September. However, it still controlled the media which, for propaganda purposes, continued to portray Mussolini as a hero.

TEHRAN CONFERENCE

Partly due to the urging of US President Franklin Roosevelt, who wanted the Soviet Union to act in closer cooperation with Britain and the United States to defeat Germany, a conference of the Allied leaders was held in late 1943. The Red Army had begun to drive the Germans out of the Soviet Union and to advance slowly towards Germany from the east. At the **Tehran Conference** it was agreed that Britain and the United States would spearhead a second front; they would advance on German-occupied Western Europe, beginning in northern France.

D-DAY AND THE LIBERATION OF FRANCE

After months of secret planning, the Allies were finally ready to invade north-east France by air and sea from bases in Britain. **D-Day** was 6 June 1944. British, US and Canadian troops landed on vast stretches of beach in the province of Normandy: 5000 craft brought over 160 000 soldiers; they were supported by Allied bombers. As the Allied forces landed and drove south into Normandy and beyond, German resistance was fierce. Huge numbers on both sides were killed. So were thousands of French civilians, mainly as a result of Allied bombing.

Meanwhile in Paris, by August 1944, the population rose up against their German occupiers through a series of civilian strikes and battles fought by the Free French forces. This paved the way for entry into the city from the north by US troops and more Free French forces from the south. On 25 August, the Germans surrendered Paris. In the following months, the Allies pushed north-east into occupied Belgium and the Netherlands and forged east towards Germany.



SOURCE 2.3.6 The first meeting of the three major Allied leaders held in Tehran, Iran, 28 November to 1 December 1943. Left to right: Joseph Stalin (Soviet Union), Franklin Roosevelt (USA) and Winston Churchill (Great Britain)

DID YOU KNOW?

The French Resistance played key roles in the Normandy invasion, the liberation of Paris and the battles to remove German forces from the rest of France. These roles included providing information about the location and movements of German forces, destroying transport and services important to the Germans, and fighting alongside Allied troops, particularly in the cities.

GERMANY

From mid-1944, the Red Army recaptured Soviet territory that had been occupied by Germans and moved through the Axis satellite countries of Romania, Bulgaria, Slovakia, Yugoslavia and Hungary. By early 1945, it had advanced into Poland and East Prussia and then fought its way through Germany itself. On 21 April, the Red Army finally entered Berlin where it had to overcome the fierce resistance of local troops. This period of the Red Army's advance on Germany from the east was marked by great atrocities. Following ferocious battles, many thousands of captured prisoners were killed by both sides. In addition, bent on revenge for the savage treatment the Germans had exacted on the Soviets during the invasion of the Soviet Union, the Red Army allegedly raped approximately 2 million women and killed tens of thousands of civilians.

From the west, the Allies had advanced slowly, confronted by resistance from retreating German forces. By March 1945, the Allies had crossed the Rhine River in eastern Germany, then pushed closer to Berlin. But the Allied command decided that the British–American allies would not be the first to enter Berlin itself, leaving the capture of the city to their Soviet ally. In his Berlin bunker, Hitler, together with some of his followers including Goebbels, committed suicide on 30 April. The Berlin troops gave up the city on 2 May. Then, on 7 May, Germany unconditionally surrendered to the Allies. The following day, 8 May, was declared VE (Victory in Europe) Day. The war in Europe had come to an end. Germany was a devastated country, its cities heavily bombed and its population desperately short of food.

Following the **Potsdam Conference** between the leaders of Britain, the United States and the Soviet Union in July 1945, Germany was divided into four zones to be controlled by Britain, France, the United States and the Soviet Union. Berlin, although within the Soviet zone, was similarly divided.



Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- armistice
- the Blitz
- *Blitzkrieg*
- D-Day
- *Einsatzgruppen*
- Luftwaffe
- Maginot Line
- Phoney War
- Potsdam Conference
- Royal Air Force (RAF)
- Tehran Conference
- Tripartite Pact

2 Continue to develop your 'Who was who in the context of World War II' table. Include new people and also add to your information about those mentioned in the last unit.

3 List three or more strategies used by Germany to overcome Poland in 1939.

4 **a** Outline the powers of the Vichy Government in France from 1940 until 1944.

b Did the Vichy Government really control France at that time? Give reasons for your answer.

5 **a** Explain the purpose of the Tripartite Pact and list the countries that signed it.

b On an outline map of the world:

i mark the location of the countries that signed the Tripartite Pact

ii in a different colour, mark the location of the Allied countries mentioned in this unit.

6 **a** Explain why Hitler shifted his focus from destroying the Royal Air Force (RAF) to bombing English cities from early September 1940.

b Describe the role that radar technology played in the battle.

c Discuss the importance of victory for the British in the Battle of Britain.

Understanding, applying and analysing

7 **a** Create a detailed timeline of events relating to Hitler's invasion of the Soviet Union in the early 1940s.

b Referring to a dictionary, write a definition for the term 'turning point'.

c Explain why the Battle of Stalingrad is described as the turning point of the war in Europe, giving evidence to support your answer.

8 **a** List two or more examples of the support Germany gave to its Axis partner as Italy invaded Greece and Egypt.

b How would you define the relationship between Italy and Germany?

9 In point form, summarise the sequence of events leading to US involvement in the war in Europe.

10 Create a detailed timeline of events relating to Allied victories in Italy, Greece, France and Germany from 1943 to 1945.



SOURCE 2.3.7 Omaha Beach, two weeks after the D-Day landings in 1944

Q
1 List the features of war you can see in the photograph.
2 What is happening in the photograph?
3 What evidence in this photograph indicates that the Allied invasion would succeed?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Analysing and creating

11 Using the internet and other sources, conduct research on French Resistance heroine, Nancy Wake. Present your findings as a talk with a multimedia presentation for the class, or as a short written biography with photos. Be sure to include information about:

- important features of her life before 1939
- the roles she played during World War II
- what happened to her after the war
- how France honoured her.

Analysing and evaluating

12 a Complete this activity with a partner. Using the information provided in this unit, as well as the internet and other sources, one student researches the Battle of Stalingrad and the other student researches the D-Day landings in Normandy.

b Organise your own findings in a table under the following headings: 'Name of battle', 'Location', 'Date begun', 'Date ended', 'Axis country/ies involved', 'Allied country/ies involved', 'Strategies used', 'Casualties (including civilian)', 'Which forces won?', 'Impact of battle on the overall war in Europe' and 'Other details'.

c Share your findings with your partner and compare the battles. Now, as a pair, try to decide whether one battle was more important than the other in determining the result of the war. Using as much evidence as you can, summarise your discussion in dot points.

13 a Use the internet and other sources to research the 1941 Siege of Tobruk. Find out information about:

- the location of Tobruk
- the length of the siege
- the Axis country/ies involved
- the numbers and strategies of the besieging forces
- the Allied country/ies involved
- the numbers and strategies of the Allied troops
- the fighting conditions
- the impact of the Allied victory on the war in North Africa
- any other relevant details.

b Using evidence from your research, write two paragraphs in response to the question: 'How important were Australian troops to the defence of Tobruk?'

UNIT 4

SOURCE STUDY: THE HOLOCAUST

The Holocaust refers to the systematic persecution and extermination of Jewish people by the Nazi regime. It started when the Nazis came to power in Germany in 1933 and culminated in the 'Final Solution' that was put into effect from 1941 to 1945. It included the mass murder of an estimated 6 million Jews during the period of World War II. The Holocaust was an unprecedented crime against humanity that came to be labelled as 'genocide'. It was partly in response to the Holocaust that, in 1948, the newly formed United Nations defined genocide as 'acts committed with the intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group'.

ANTISEMITISM IN GERMANY

Antisemitism, or hostility toward Jews, existed in German society and other European countries long before the Nazi Party came to power in 1933. In fact, antisemitism can be traced back as far as the ancient world. Despite this recurring history of persecution, in the twentieth century, Jewish communities played a vital role in European society, including in Germany.

Greatly influenced by Hitler's ideas, the Nazi regime stirred up old antisemitic prejudices and merged them with pseudoscientific beliefs about race that have since been discredited. The Nazis wanted Germany to be peopled by a pure 'Aryan' race, a 'master race' that would make Germany great again after its defeat in World War I. Their ultimate goal was to create a new 'Greater German Empire' in which there was no place for individuals or groups defined as racial, political or social enemies. These groups included Jews, Slavs and Sinti/Roma people (Gypsies), as well as non-racial groups such as communists, the disabled and homosexuals.

While Nazi persecution of all these groups was widespread, Jews in particular were made a scapegoat for most of Germany's post-war problems. For instance, Jewish socialist politicians were held responsible for the harsh conditions imposed upon Germany by the Allies through the Treaty of Versailles. Most German people believed this propaganda, even though over 100 000 Jews had served in the German army during World War I, and approximately 12 000 were killed.



SOURCE 2.4.1 An early Nazi propaganda poster from 1924. It shows the Jewish businessman as *Der Drahtzieher*, or a 'manipulator'. The text below the picture instructs both professionals/intellectuals and labourers (Head and Handworkers) as to how they should vote.

> *Economically [the Jew] brings about the destruction of the State by a systematic method of sabotaging social enterprises until these become so costly that they are taken out of the hands of the State and then submitted to the control of Jewish finance. Politically he works to withdraw from the State its means of subsistence, inasmuch as he undermines the foundations of national resistance and defence, destroys the confidence which the people have in their Government, reviles the past and its history and drags everything national down into the gutter...*

SOURCE 2.4.2 From *Mein Kampf (My Struggle)*, a two-volume publication by Adolf Hitler (1925–27). Combining his autobiography and political ideas, in *Mein Kampf*, Hitler claimed that there was a Jewish conspiracy to dominate the world.

REMOVAL OF JEWS' RIGHTS: 1933–38

From 1933, when Hitler gained power in Germany, discrimination against Jews became government policy and, supported by a strong propaganda campaign, persecution followed. Between 1933 and 1938, German Jews were isolated and excluded from German society through the following measures: Jews were banned from working in professions and for the government; shops and businesses owned by Jews were boycotted; basic civil rights of Jews were withdrawn, including the right to vote; Jews' German citizenship was revoked; Jews were banned from the German armed forces; marriages between Jewish and non-Jewish Germans were banned; Nazis took over Jewish-owned businesses; and Jewish children were expelled from German schools. Similar discriminatory laws and practices were enforced in Austria after it was annexed by Germany in 1938.

During this period, Jews were pressured by the Nazis to emigrate. However, the number who could emigrate was limited because most countries imposed rigid quotas on refugees. By September 1939, approximately 282 000 Jews had left Germany and another 117 000 had left Austria. Of these, some 95 000 found refuge in the United States and about 7500 were taken in by Australia. By 1939, approximately 200 000 Jews (from a previous population estimated at 500 000) remained in Germany.

PERSECUTION INTENSIFIES: 1938–41

Encouraged by Nazi authorities, violent mobs attacked Jewish homes, businesses and synagogues throughout Germany between 9 to 11 November 1938. This government-supported mob violence, known as a pogrom, was called ***Kristallnacht***, the night of broken glass. At least 7000 Jewish-owned shops were vandalised and 1668 synagogues were ransacked, with 267 torched. Over 100 Jews were killed and another 30 000 arrested and sent to concentration camps, where some 2000 died.

The numbers of Jews sent to concentration camps greatly increased after 1938. From 1939, Jews could only live in certain areas of cities, were forced to surrender driver's licences, were not allowed to own radios (a major source of news in those days), and were not allowed outside their homes after 8.00 p.m.

From September 1941, all Jews over the age of 6 had to wear a Star of David on their clothing so that they could be easily identified. The six-pointed Star of David is a dominant symbol associated with the Jewish tradition. To humiliate the Jews, the Nazis made them wear a yellow Star of David. This completed their social exclusion and isolation and signalled the beginning of mass deportations from Germany.



SOURCE 2.4.3

Two members of the SA, or Nazi Storm Troopers, block the entrance to a Jewish-owned shop in 1933. The banner reads: 'Germans beware! The owners of this shop are parasites and gravediggers of German trade. They pay their German workers starvation wages. The owner is the Jew Nathan Schmidt.'



The New York Times.

NEW YORK, FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 11, 1938.

NAZIS SMASH, LOOT AND BURN JEWISH SHOPS AND TEMPLES UNTIL GOEBBELS CALLS HALT

All Vienna's Synagogues Attacked; Fires and Bombs Wreck 18 of 21

Jews Are Beaten. Furniture and Goods Flung From Homes and Shops — 15,000 Are Jailed During Day—20 Are Suicides

VIENNA, Nov. 10.—In a surge of revenge for the murder of a German diplomat in Paris by a young Polish Jew, all Vienna's twenty-one synagogues were attacked today and eighteen were wholly or partly destroyed by fires and bomb explosions.

Anti-Jewish activities under the direction of Storm Troopers and Nazi party members in uniform began early this morning. In the earlier stages Jews were attacked and beaten. Many Jews awaiting admittance to the British Consulate-

reported to have attempted suicide; about twenty succeeded.

Scores of bombs were placed in synagogues, blowing out windows and in many cases damaging walls. Floors that had been soaked with kerosene readily caught fire.

Fire brigades were summoned to fight fires in eighteen synagogues, and the fire engines remained in their neighborhood all day. Two of the synagogues were not being used for religious purposes.

Those wholly or partly destroyed were the synagogues in Schiffamtsgasse, Steingasse, Muellnergasse,

BANDS ROVE CITIES

Thousands Arrested for 'Protection' as Gangs Avenge Paris Death

EXPULSIONS ARE IN VIEW

Plunderers Trail Wreckers In Berlin—Police Stand Idle —Two Deaths Reported

By OTTO D. TOLISCHUS

BERLIN, Nov. 10.—A wave of destruction, looting and incendiarism unparalleled in Germany since the Thirty Years War and in Europe

SOURCE 2.4.4 Part of the front page of *The New York Times*, 11 November 1938. Note that Vienna is the capital of Austria.

INVASION OF POLAND

As soon as German forces invaded Poland in September 1939, the *Einsatzgruppen*, Nazi paramilitary death squads, terrorised the Jewish population there, killing many and causing many others to flee to the Soviet-occupied eastern Poland. Other surviving Jews faced expulsion from Germany's Polish territory.

GHETTOS

From 1939, hundreds of **ghettos**, old slum areas designated for Jews only, were created within large towns and cities in German-occupied Europe. Jews were moved to these ghettos where they had to live in dreadfully cramped, unsanitary conditions and were subjected to forced labour, for instance in factories to support the German war effort. Many thousands died in these ghettos from malnutrition or disease. Most of those who lived were eventually deported to concentration camps or **extermination camps**.

SOURCE 2.4.5 A photograph taken in May 1943, towards the end of the Jewish ghetto uprising in Warsaw, by a German for inclusion in a report to Adolf Hitler. It shows a group of Polish Jewish women and children waiting to be led off by the *Schutzstaffel* (SS) for deportation to Treblinka extermination camp. Held at the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum



DID YOU KNOW?

Large and densely populated, the Warsaw ghetto was created in late 1940. It housed the Jewish population of the Polish city of Warsaw and those from surrounding Jewish communities. The ghetto was the scene of a courageous uprising by its occupants in 1943. Despite having lived under appalling conditions and strict security for over two years, ghetto residents had managed to smuggle in small arms and, for twenty-eight days, resisted German attempts to clear the ghetto. Ultimately, Nazi forces crushed the rebellion.

THE 'FINAL SOLUTION': 1941–45

The German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941 did not result in the victory anticipated by the Nazis. However, by August of 1941, German forces controlled eastern Poland, the Baltic States and Byelorussia, areas where the total Jewish population was approximately 4.3 million. Behind the German front came the *Einsatzgruppen*, police battalions and units of the Waffen-SS. Under the guise of eliminating the 'Jewish-communist' enemy, these units murdered Jewish men, women and children.

Mass shootings took place between 1941 and early 1943 in the now German-occupied lands of Eastern Europe, resulting in the deaths of 1.3 million Jews. The victims were usually forced to hand over their valuables and clothing before being shot one by one. Their bodies were thrown into a ravine or an already prepared ditch. Later, a more efficient 'sardine' method of killing was employed, in which victims were forced to lie face down in ditches before being shot.

> *During the first try, my hand trembled a bit as I shot, but one gets used to it. By the tenth try I aimed calmly and shot surely at the many women, children, and infants. I kept in mind that I have two infants at home, whom these hordes would treat just the same, if not ten times worse...*

SOURCE 2.4.6

From a letter from a German (Austrian) policeman to his wife in October 1941. The policeman was writing of his feelings and experiences while shooting Soviet Byelorussian Jews. From *Bloodlands: Europe between Hitler and Stalin*, by Timothy Snyder, Basic Books, New York, 2010

WANNSEE CONFERENCE

The focus of the Wannsee Conference, held in Berlin in January 1942, was the 'Final Solution to the Jewish problem': the deportation and extermination of all Jews in German-occupied territory. Many historians have regarded this conference as marking the beginning of the 'Final Solution'. However, by the time of the conference, mass shootings in the east had already occurred and construction of the first extermination camps had begun. Given that Hitler himself did not attend the conference, it is more likely that the proceedings were a 'rubber stamp' to formalise and further develop a plan that was already largely underway.

EXTERMINATION CAMPS

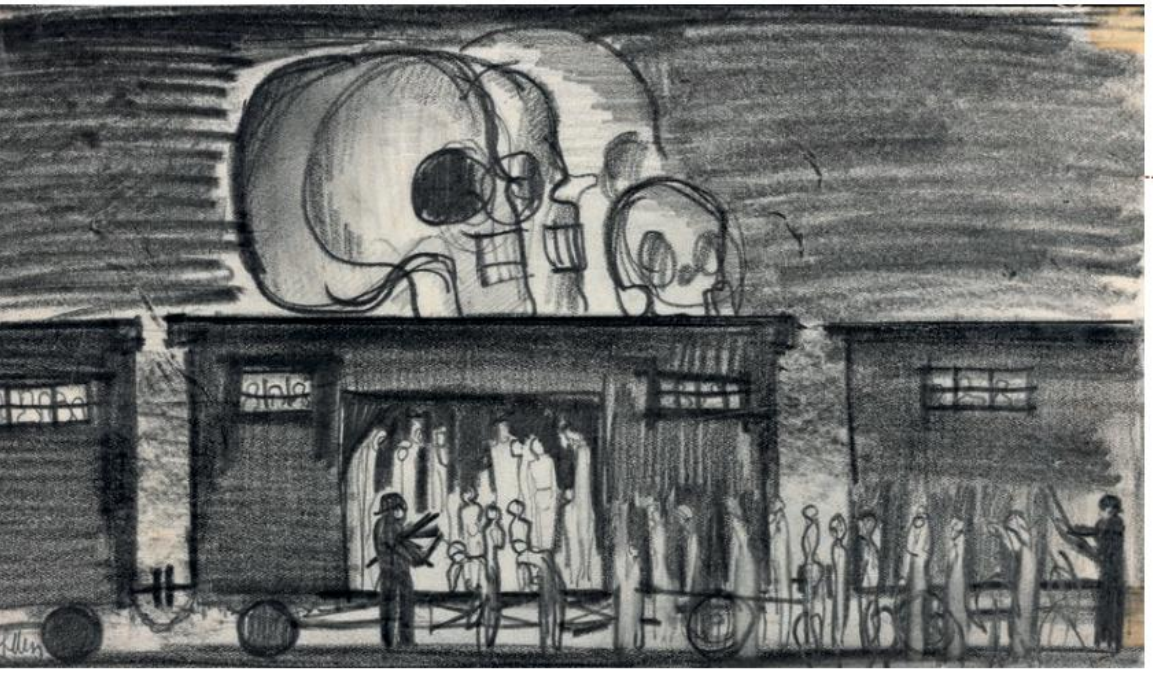
The 'deportation' of Jews in 1942 and 1943 was now code for the mass murder by gassing in the extermination camps of occupied Poland. Jews in Eastern Europe were transported from ghettos for immediate gassing, and Jews from Western Europe (for example, those from France, the Netherlands and Greece) were also transported to extermination camps in 1942.

Six extermination camps were established to put into effect the 'Final Solution': Auschwitz-Birkenau, Treblinka, Chelmno, Sobibór, Belzec and Majdanek. Auschwitz, originally established as a concentration camp for political prisoners and slave labour, became the main extermination camp with the construction of Auschwitz II (Birkenau) in 1941. Murder by gassing with Zyklon B began at Birkenau in February 1942.

The murder of Jews in extermination camps was intended to be as humiliating and dehumanising as possible. They were transported to the camps in overcrowded railway freight cars with little sanitation, food or water. Upon arrival, women, men and children were separated into groups. They were then forced to undress in public and all their body hair was removed. Finally, they were forced to run to the gas chambers and their deaths. To avoid scenes of resistance, Nazi guards often told groups that they were being taken to 'showers' for 'delousing'.

SOURCE 2.4.7

A photograph of the selection process at Auschwitz-Birkenau extermination camp, May 1944. A train has just arrived, bringing Hungarian Jews who are being sorted into groups as those suitable for labour and those going directly to the gas chamber. Held at Yad Vashem The Holocaust History Museum



SOURCE 2.4.8

A drawing by Bernard Slawik, about 1943. Slawik, a Polish architect, was imprisoned at Janowska concentration camp. Janowska was also a transit camp where Jews would be sorted as fit or unfit for work. The fit would be kept at Janowska as forced labour; the others were loaded onto cattle cars and taken to the Belzec extermination camp or shot in a nearby ravine. Held at the Australian War Memorial

THOSE NOT 'SELECTED'

Large numbers of Jewish prisoners who managed to survive the 'selection' died in the concentration camps and ghettos due to back-breaking work, disease and hunger. Many more Jews died in forced 'death marches' held between March and May 1945 as the Allied armies approached.

As Allied forces invaded Germany from both east and west, they 'liberated' prisoners, many of whom were dying, from several concentration camps. These camps also contained thousands of dead.

> *I stood up, feeling weak. I stared at the beds around me. Motionless people, wax masks, totally unaware that finally they were free. I wanted to scream, to share with them the moment of joy, but I couldn't. There was no joy in my heart but an aching emptiness. I was afraid to walk out to face the new alien world...*

SOURCE 2.4.9

Benjamin Bender was sixteen years old when Buchenwald concentration camp in Germany was liberated by US forces in April 1945. Later in life, he recalls how he felt then. From *Glimpses: Through Holocaust and Liberation*, by Benjamin Bender, North Atlantic Books, Berkeley, California, 1995

AFTERMATH

The Nazi regime murdered two-thirds of the Jews who had lived in Europe prior to World War II: the total 6 million deaths included 1.5 million children. In addition, as part of their campaign to create a 'racially pure' society, the Nazis murdered about 5 million others including Sinti/Roma people, Polish and Slavic civilians, Soviet prisoners of war, Germans with psychiatric and physical disabilities, and numerous other groups deemed 'unworthy of life'.

NUREMBERG TRIALS

In August 1945, the governments of the United States, France, Britain and the Soviet Union formed an International Military Tribunal 'for the just and prompt trial and punishment of major war criminals of the European Axis'. The Nuremberg Trials of 1945/46 prosecuted those accused of 'crimes against humanity', which included the mass murder of Jews. Sixteen defendants were convicted of crimes against humanity.

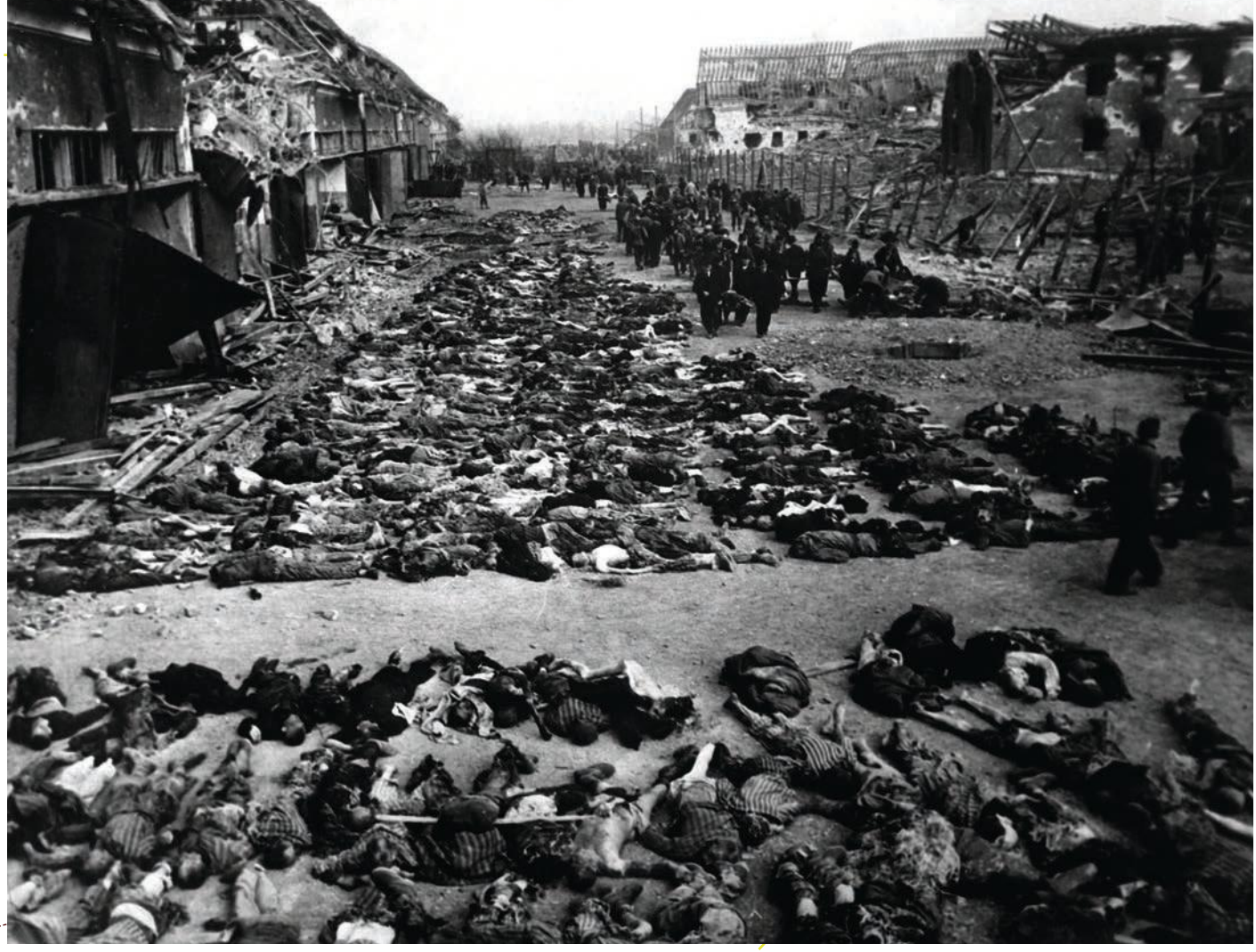
DISPLACED PERSONS

There were more than 250 000 Jewish 'displaced persons' in Europe after the German surrender, most of whom were the survivors of the concentration and extermination camps that had been 'liberated'. Traumatised, needing health care and shelter, and desperate for information about their loved ones, most had nowhere to go. Their homes had either been destroyed or commandeered by the Nazis or Nazi sympathisers and their old communities eradicated. Many also had good reason to fear continued antisemitic violence in the outside world.

Allied authorities made hasty arrangements to accommodate many in military barracks, hospitals and private homes, but most survivors had to remain in the concentration camps. They were later moved to the 'displaced persons camps' that were set up in Germany, Austria and Italy, which also took in the millions of other refugees from war-ravaged countries in Eastern Europe. Despite the efforts of the new United Nations body that administered most of these camps, of international charitable organisations and of the inmates themselves, conditions in these camps were generally poor.

The aim of the Allies and the United Nations was to **repatriate** all displaced persons; that is, to enable them to return to their own countries. This posed a problem for Holocaust survivors for the reasons mentioned above. From the late 1940s, Jewish displaced persons were included in the refugee intake quotas of several countries. The United States accepted the majority; among the other receiving countries were Canada, South Africa and Australia.

The preferred destination for most Jewish displaced persons was Palestine. With support, in particular from the United States, Jews successfully argued that for humanitarian reasons large numbers of Jewish displaced persons should be allowed to immigrate to Palestine. This was one of the factors that led to the decision by the United Nations in 1947 to partition Palestine into two countries: Palestine, an independent Arab state, and the new nation-state of Israel was established in 1948.



SOURCE 2.4.10 Rows of dead inmates fill the yard of the Mittelbau-Dora concentration camp. The camp was liberated by US troops on 12 April 1945. Several hundred inmates died of starvation or were shot shortly before the US troops arrived. Held at the US National Archives

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING, ANALYSING AND EVALUATING

1 Define the terms below.

- antisemitism
- extermination camps
- ghettos
- the Holocaust
- *Kristallnacht*
- repatriate

2 Examine Source 2.4.1, a propaganda poster.

a The poster portrays a fictional Jewish factory owner in Germany. Describe his appearance. What is this appearance meant to say about him? How do you know that he is meant to be a Jew?

b What message does the illustration on the poster convey about how the fictitious factory owner treats his workers?

c Do you think this poster depicts one factory owner or is it intended to portray Jews in general? Give reasons for your answer.

3 Re-read Source 2.4.2.

a How would you describe the language used by Hitler to describe Germany's Jewish citizens?

b What, in your opinion, are the political purposes of Hitler's demonisation of German Jewry in this extract?

4 Examine Source 2.4.3.

a In what ways does the Nazi Party attempt to stop Germans from using this Jewish-owned shop?

b How do you think Jewish Germans standing outside the shop would have felt?

c How do you think other Germans standing outside the shop would have felt?

5 Now re-examine Sources 2.4.1, 2.4.2 and 2.4.3.
   - **a** Identify the similarities and differences between the messages conveyed in these three sources.
   - **b** Based on what you have learnt in this unit, explain why the Nazi Party would have wanted German citizens to believe these messages.

6 Examine Source 2.4.4, part of the front page of a newspaper.
   - **a** In your own words, describe what has been reported as happening to Jewish shops and synagogues in Vienna.
   - **b** From what you have learnt in this unit, do you believe that this reported information is correct? Give reasons for your answer.
   - **c** Who is 'Goebbels'? Do you believe that, even though Goebbels called a halt to the violence, he may have also helped start it? Give reasons for your answer.
   - **d** Do you think this incident reported in *The New York Times* would have been reported in a German or Austrian newspaper? If so, how? If not, why not?

7 Examine Source 2.4.5, especially the caption.
   - **a** Describe the expressions on the faces of the Polish women and children. What feelings would they have been experiencing?
   - **b** Describe the expressions on the faces of the German soldiers. What feelings might they have been experiencing? Give reasons for your answer.

8 Re-read Source 2.4.6.
   - **a** What are the racist ideas and stereotypes that are revealed in the policeman's letter?
   - **b** How do the views expressed by the policeman 'marry' murder and morality? Can brainwashing of the kind evidenced in this letter ever justify the acts of murder undertaken? Give reasons for your answer.
   - **c** How do you think the policeman's wife would have reacted when she read the letter? Give reasons for your answer.

9 Examine Source 2.4.7.
   - **a** Working in pairs, make a detailed list of all the different elements in the photograph. Group your elements under the following headings: 'Buildings', 'Transport' and 'Groups of people'. (To make it easier, divide the photograph, in your mind, into quarters and look at one quarter at a time.)
   - **b** Describe the appearance of the group, in the left foreground of the photograph, which is assisting the SS members to sort the prisoners. Who do you think they are?
   - **c** Who do you think may have taken the photograph? Why do you think they may have taken it?

10 Examine Source 2.4.8.
   - **a** Describe what is happening in Slawik's drawing.
   - **b** Describe what you think the guards are doing. What might they be holding?
   - **c** What do you think the large skulls drawn on top of the cattle cars are meant to symbolise?
   - **d** Slawik escaped from the Janowska camp and years later migrated to Australia. Do you think that this and other drawings by Slawik from the war time can provide historians of the Holocaust with accurate information? Give reasons for your answer.

ANALYSING AND EVALUATING

11 Re-read Source 2.4.9.
   - **a** In your own words, explain Benjamin Bender's mixed feelings when Buchenwald concentration camp was liberated.
   - **b** Do you think camp inmates older than Bender would have had similar feelings to him? Give reasons for your answer.

12 Examine Source 2.4.10.
   - **a** Describe the scene in the photograph of the concentration camp, including both people and buildings.
   - **b** What conclusions can you draw from the source about what concentration camps were like at the end of the war?
   - **c** What are likely to be the range of feelings experienced by the soldiers who 'liberated' the camp?



UNIT 5

WAR IN THE ASIA–PACIFIC

REACTIONS TO JAPAN'S AGGRESSION

While still at war with China, in late 1938, Japan declared a 'New Order in East Asia' claiming Japan, China and Manchukuo to be an economic and political **bloc** controlled by Japan. This heightened the United States' concerns about Japan's imperialist aims, particularly as they affected US commercial dealings with China. But President Roosevelt's ability to respond was limited by his country's isolationist policy.

Britain was also concerned about the possible impact on its interests in South-East Asia. However, already faced with Nazi Germany's aggression in Europe, Britain took a similar appeasing attitude towards Japan's actions in order to avoid war.

Both the United States and Britain sold vital raw materials such as oil, nickel and iron to Japan; in fact, 80 per cent of Japan's fuel supplies came from the United States. However, neither country imposed economic sanctions against Japan until 1940. During that year: Germany invaded France and France's now Nazi-backed Vichy Government allowed Japan to station troops in the French colonies in Indochina; Japan put pressure on the Netherlands (Dutch) East Indies for greater access to raw materials; Japan's top-ranking military officers became war minister and foreign minister; and Japan signed the Tripartite Pact with Germany and Italy.

In 1940, the United States increasingly withdrew supply of key raw materials to Japan, except for oil. It also moved its Pacific Fleet from its mainland to Pearl Harbor on the island of Oahu, Hawaii, because of the increasing tensions with Japan. By early 1941, Britain, the United States and the Dutch government-in-exile cooperated in imposing further economic sanctions on Japan and would not let Japan use their tankers to transport oil. Then, in July 1941, with the agreement of the British and the Dutch, the United States banned oil exports to Japan and froze Japanese assets in the United States.

THE MOVE TO WAR

By mid-1941, with European powers such as France and the Netherlands now occupied by Germany and, mindful that Britain was focused on the war in Europe, Japan wanted to take possession of the Allied countries' colonies in South-East Asia. However, Japan's military leaders knew that the United States and Britain would oppose this, making war with them very likely. To be able to successfully wage war, Japan needed to move quickly to take over the oil fields in the Dutch East Indies. It would also need to neutralise the United States' naval power in the Asia–Pacific and, by September, planning had begun for this. In October, Japan's former war minister, General Hideki Tojo, became prime minister, giving the military even greater control of the Japanese Government.

Negotiations between Japan and the United States to reach a settlement to avoid war took place in the latter months of 1941, but they could not agree on conditions for this. Even as those negotiations continued, a Japanese strike force set off for Pearl Harbor on 26 November 1941.

ATTACK ON PEARL HARBOR

Without declaring war, Japan made its surprise attack on early Sunday morning, 7 December 1941 (see Source 2.5.1). The air strike destroyed or badly damaged seventeen vessels, eight of which were battleships, and nearly 180 planes, causing more than 2300 US deaths. It was fortunate for the United States that its aircraft carriers were not in port. The Japanese lost just twenty-nine aircraft and fifty-five men.

DECLARATIONS OF WAR

Japan's leaders hoped that this major blow to US naval power would make the United States reluctant to fight a long war and agree on a settlement favourable to Japan. However, the attack on Pearl Harbor created a unity of purpose within the US people, which enabled President Roosevelt to revoke the country's isolationist policy.

Japan declared war on the United States and the British Empire on 7 December 1941. The United States in turn declared war on Japan on 8 December, as did Britain and Australia. Three days later, in line with the Tripartite Pact, Italy and Germany declared war on the United States. This brought the United States into the European war, as the United States then declared war on Germany and Italy.



SOURCE 2.5.1 US battleship USS *Arizona* sinks shortly after being blown up on 7 December 1941. Approximately 1000 men were killed on this one vessel during the air attack. Held at the US National Archives

SOURCE 2.5.2 Map of the Asia–Pacific theatre, World War II

Q
1 **What is the approximate distance from Tokyo to Pearl Harbor?**
2 **What was the maximum extent, north to south and east to west, of the area under Japanese control in World War II?**

JAPAN DRIVES SOUTH

At the same time as, or not long after, the attack on Pearl Harbor, Japanese troops, supported by airpower, launched attacks on colonies held by Western powers in South-East Asia. At first, the Japanese invasions were welcomed by much of the local populations: they were pleased to see an Asian power 'liberate' them from their colonial masters.

MALAYA AND SINGAPORE

On 8 December, Japanese troops landed in Malaya, a British colony. Britain regarded the Japanese as racially inferior and underestimated their military skills. In tough jungle battles, the Japanese forces defeated British, Australian and Indian troops stationed there, moving south down the peninsula. By 31 January 1942, all remaining Commonwealth troops were forced to retreat to the island of Singapore.

Singapore was the key to British defence strategy in the Asia–Pacific. It had a large naval dockyard but, following the outbreak of war in Europe, Britain kept most of its fleet in home waters. The **Singapore Strategy** involved Britain sending warships to Singapore in the event of a crisis. At the time of the Japanese invasion, there were only two old warships in dock. Both were sunk by Japanese aircraft on 9 December 1941 as they set out to defend Malaya. When the Japanese forces invaded Singapore in February 1942, the British command had to surrender its garrison of 130 000 troops to a Japanese force of only 30 000 soldiers, short of ammunition and food. It was a humiliating, unexpected defeat of British power in what it called the 'Far East'. Among the prisoners taken were 15 000 Australian troops.

THE PHILIPPINES

The Philippines had been a US colony since 1898 but the United States had agreed in 1916 to grant it independence by 1946. The new commander of the US and Filipino forces there was US General Douglas MacArthur. Japan attacked the Philippines ten hours after the attack on Pearl Harbor. It took until 6 May 1942 for the US and local forces to admit defeat. Before this, in February 1942, President Roosevelt ordered US General MacArthur to escape to Australia, to become Supreme Commander of the South-West Pacific.

NETHERLANDS (DUTCH) EAST INDIES

As mentioned previously, gaining control of the oil-rich Dutch East Indies (present-day Indonesia) was vital for Japan's war efforts. Japanese forces invaded the island of Sumatra in February 1942. Australian forces supported those of Britain, the United States and the Netherlands against the invading forces. However, the Allies were forced to surrender and, on 12 March 1942, the Dutch East Indies became Japanese-occupied territory.

BURMA (MYANMAR)

In January 1942, Japanese forces invaded the British colony of Burma from Thailand (which had signed a military alliance with Japan) and occupied the capital, Rangoon, by March. By May, British and Chinese forces were defeated and had to retreat into India. Capture of Burma was important for Japan because of its strategic position near recently occupied Malaya and Singapore and British-controlled India.



SOURCE 2.5.3 Cartoon 'Long-Distance Thinking', by Will Mahoney, published in Sydney's *The Daily Telegraph*, 12 February 1942

Q

1. **Identify the two central men in the cartoon.**
2. **Explain the significance of the date of the cartoon.**
3. **How does the cartoon portray the different perspectives of the two men?**
4. **Why do you think the cartoon is titled 'Long-Distance Thinking'?**
5. **Who is the audience for the cartoon? How do you think the audience would respond to its message? Give reasons for your answer.**

AUSTRALIA'S PREDICAMENTS

The Australian Government had been concerned from the late 1930s that the Singapore Strategy would not enable Britain to protect Australia in the event of Japanese aggression. Prime Minister Menzies delayed sending the Second Australian Imperial Force (Second AIF) to the Middle East until November 1939 because it was believed that the AIF may be needed closer to home. In February 1941, Menzies committed troops to the protection of Singapore and Malaya. He travelled to Britain where he did not succeed in getting better assurance from Prime Minister Churchill that Britain would strengthen Singapore's defence capabilities. Throughout 1941, because of concerns about Japanese aggression, the Menzies Government sought the release of Australian troops from North Africa—Churchill would not allow this.

By late 1941, with alarm growing in Australia about likely Japanese expansion into British territories, Menzies lost the support of his United Australia Party and was forced to resign. Early in October 1941, the Australian Labor Party's John Curtin became prime minister. Within two months, Australia was at war with Japan.

AFTER THE FALL OF SINGAPORE

With the fall of Singapore, Prime Minister Curtin made it clear that Australia's security in its own region now took priority over its commitment to the Allied war effort in Europe. At first, Churchill agreed to Curtin's instruction to send the AIF 6th and 7th divisions back to Australia. But then, with the full support of Roosevelt, Churchill wanted to divert the Australian troop ships to help defend Rangoon in Burma, which was at one end of the supply link to the Chinese army fighting their war against Japan. However, Curtin successfully insisted that the troops be returned to defend Australia.

ALLIED COMMAND

At a meeting in December 1941 between Churchill and Roosevelt, it was decided that Australia would be an important Pacific base for the Allied war effort against Japan. In late December, US troops, aircraft and warships began arriving in Australia.

- In February 1942, US General MacArthur was made Supreme Commander, South-West Pacific Area, with headquarters in Melbourne and later Brisbane. In this role, he worked closely with Prime Minister Curtin and his War Cabinet.
- The Commander in Chief, Pacific Ocean Areas for Allied air, land and sea forces was US Admiral Chester Nimitz. Nimitz was mainly responsible for naval strategy in the Pacific.
- Australia's General Sir Thomas Blamey was the Commander of the Second Australian Imperial Force (AIF) and later the Commander in Chief of the Australian Military Forces. He was also Commander of Allied Land Forces under MacArthur's overall command.

CRUCIAL NAVAL BATTLES OF 1942

The Battle of Midway (see Source 2.5.2) was a major defeat for Japan. In April 1942, US bombers had made limited raids on Tokyo. This attack on the Japanese mainland prompted its navy to try to take Midway Island, which it would use as a base from which to attack the US base in Hawaii. But Admiral Nimitz had forewarning of the Japanese approach in June 1942. The US navy was able to sink four Japanese aircraft carriers, killing 3500 servicemen including many experienced pilots. The US navy lost only one of its aircraft carriers.

The Battle of the Coral Sea (see Source 2.5.2) in early May 1942 caused the Japanese invasion fleet bound for Port Moresby to turn back to Rabaul on the occupied island of New Britain. Japan wanted to occupy Port Moresby as a base from which it could strengthen its hold on South-East Asia. Having cracked the Japanese naval code, the US naval force, which included two Australian cruisers, intercepted the Japanese. It was the first naval battle in which the aircraft-carrier ships involved never saw each other: all attacks were carried out by carrier-based planes.



SOURCE 2.5.4 A US navy pilot talks with a nurse at a Honolulu Naval Hospital while recovering from injuries suffered during the Battle of Midway, 8 June 1942.

PAPUA CAMPAIGN

The western half of the island of New Guinea was part of the Dutch East Indies. Following the Treaty of Versailles, the northern coast of the eastern half became Australian territory, called New Guinea. On behalf of Britain, Australia already administered the south-eastern part, called Papua. The administrative centre of Papua was Port Moresby. After the Battle of the Coral Sea, the Allied command assumed that Japan would try again to capture Port Moresby by going overland.

An Allied base was built on the eastern tip of Papua at Milne Bay from which a Japanese advance towards Port Moresby could be headed off. By August 1942, there were 9000 Australian army, navy and air force personnel stationed there. Japanese forces attempted to destroy the base. The hard-fought Battle of Milne Bay of August and September saw the Japanese forces eventually retreat to Rabaul.



SOURCE 2.5.5 Map of Papua and New Guinea in 1941–45

BATTLE OF KOKODA

While the Allies were establishing the air base at Milne Bay, US General MacArthur ordered another be established on the north Papuan coast near Buna. The 39th Battalion of the newly formed Australian Military Forces, stationed in Port Moresby since January 1942, was selected to cross the rugged Owen Stanley Ranges along the narrow ridges that formed the Kokoda Track. Inadequately trained and poorly dressed for jungle warfare, they had to transport heavy equipment over the steep terrain while often battling malaria, dysentery and tropical ulcers. On reaching the village of Kokoda, part of the battalion was kept to protect the airfield there while the rest was sent on towards Buna.

Japanese forces landed on the north coast of Papua near Gona on 21–22 July 1942. To reach Port Moresby, they set out along the Kokoda Track. On 24 July, the small Australian company pushing towards Buna encountered the much more numerous advancing Japanese forces and had to retreat back to Kokoda. On 29 July, the Japanese took Kokoda and the 39th Battalion was eventually pushed back by the Japanese to Imita Ridge, less than 50 kilometres from Port Moresby. The Australian troops, now supported by reinforcements from the 7th Division Australian Imperial Force (AIF), were ordered to hold Imita Ridge at all costs.

But the Japanese troops could not sustain their advance in the face of Australian resistance, their own casualties and a growing shortage of supplies. Supplies were limited because they were diverted to Guadalcanal where US forces had launched an offensive. The Japanese troops began to retreat back along the track, having been ordered to strengthen their bases near Gona. Fighting during the Japanese advance south and now their retreat north was



SOURCE 2.5.6 A party of Australian soldiers at Gorari, close to the village of Kokoda, in November 1942. Gorari was an area of savage hand-to-hand fighting. The Australian troops have just completed the burial of a number of Japanese soldiers in a mass grave. Japanese helmets show the location of the grave. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q
1 What are the main features of the physical environment that you can see in this photograph?
2 Why do you think Australian troops have posed for such a photo?

savage and desperate; attacking forces were always likely to be ambushed by those retreating and atrocities were committed on both sides. The Australian troops retook Kokoda on 2 November 1942. During the four-month long campaign, more than 600 Australians were killed or died along the Kokoda Track and over 1600 were wounded.

ALLIED VICTORY

From November 1942 to the start of January 1943, Australian and US forces fought a series of bloody battles to clear the Japanese troops from the beachhead between the villages of Buna, Gona and Sanananda. More Australians died in the Papua campaign as a whole (about 2000 in total from July 1942 to January 1943) than in any other Australian campaign in World War II. Yet these figures could have been higher: Australian solders were indebted to the local Papuan men who carried the wounded and supplies. Of the US division, 90 per cent were killed, wounded or became very ill. Japanese losses were great, estimated at 6000 dead.

ALLIED ADVANCES

After the United States entered the war in Europe in December 1941, an agreement was made between the Allied leaders that defeat of Germany (not Japan) was the first priority in strategies to win the war. This agreement was altered at a conference in May 1943, which decided that the United States should now pursue an offensive strategy in the Asia–Pacific war, rather than a defensive one. Now considered the world's major power, the United States became the main voice in policy making for the European war as well.

PHILIPPINES CAMPAIGN

From the second half of 1943, US General MacArthur used mostly Australian troops to attack Japanese military bases at places such as Wau and Lae on the northern coast of New Guinea, and in the Dutch East Indies at Tarakan and Balikpapan on Borneo. Then US army, navy and air force contingents, with some support from Australian ships and aircraft, were used for the US landing on the Philippines island of Leyte on 20 October 1944. In the fighting that continued to May 1945, almost 60 000 Japanese were killed as were about 3500 Americans. From 23 to 26 October, US and Japanese warships fought the Battle of Leyte Gulf (see Source 2.5.2) in which the Japanese navy was badly defeated. In January 1945, US forces invaded key parts of the Philippines, eventually capturing Manila from the Japanese on 3 March. In the battle for Manila, over 100 000 civilians were killed.

DID YOU KNOW?

The Battle of Leyte Gulf saw the first organised attacks by Kamikaze pilots. These Japanese pilots intentionally flew their planes into ships. Their suicide flights from homeland bases were the last attempts to halt the Allied advance.

CAPTURE OF ISLANDS

Relying on both US navy and army forces, Admiral Chester Nimitz led the US advance on Japan from the east and south-east, which involved defeating Japanese forces on selected islands across the Pacific Ocean. The aim was to use the captured islands to provide airfields from which to support the capture of more islands and, ultimately, to attack cities with war-related industries on the Japanese mainland.

The taking of each island—such as Peleliu, Saipan, Iwo Jima and Okinawa—involved an **amphibious landing** (using sea craft to land troops and supplies); this was a hazardous operation for the US forces as they faced Japanese aerial bombing and then the entrenched Japanese land forces that almost always refused to surrender. This meant that each island had to be won in ruthless battles that resulted in very high casualties on both sides. On Okinawa, about 160 000 civilians were also killed.

BOMBING THE JAPANESE MAINLAND

The last months of the war saw US bombing raids on Japanese cities, killing approximately 200 000 people who were mostly civilians. Japan still did not surrender despite the huge loss of life and damage caused.

SOURCE 2.5.7 Dead US soldiers lay on a Tarawa beach assaulted during November 1943. Held at the US National Archives

Q
1 Find the location of Tarawa in Source 2.5.2. How far is Tarawa from Japan?
2 Why would so many US soldiers have been killed on the beaches of Tarawa and other islands?





SOURCE 2.5.8 The Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs signing the surrender of Japan in front of US General Douglas MacArthur (standing near the microphone) aboard the USS *Missouri* on 2 September 1945

Q
1 **Describe the scene on the USS *Missouri*.**
2 **Do you think there was an attempt to humiliate the Japanese? Give reasons for your answer.**

JAPANESE SURRENDER

Following the Potsdam Conference, on 26 July 1945, the US, British and Soviet leaders demanded that the Japanese Government make its armed forces surrender, with the threat that 'the alternative for Japan is prompt and utter destruction'. By then, US President Harry Truman knew that the United States could use its newly developed atomic bomb. Japan's leaders delayed responding, hoping that the Soviet Union would intervene on its behalf. Then, in what was a world-changing event, the United States dropped atomic bombs on the cities of Hiroshima (6 August) and Nagasaki (9 August), causing horrific loss of life and devastation, both immediate and in the long term.

Even after the attacks on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan's leaders did not immediately surrender. At that time, the Soviet Union moved to fulfil an earlier agreement made with Britain and the United States to declare war on Japan three months after Germany's defeat. On 9 August 1945, Soviet forces invaded Japanese-occupied Manchukuo (Manchuria). On 14 August, US planes bombed a number of Japanese cities. The next day, Emperor Hirohito broadcast a surrender speech on Japanese radio. The formal Japanese surrender to the Allies took place in Tokyo Bay on 2 September 1945.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- amphibious landing
- bloc
- Kamikaze
- Singapore Strategy

2 Continue to develop your 'Who was who in the context of World War II' table. Include new people and add to your information about those mentioned in previous units.

3 **a** Describe the reasons why Japan's declaration of a 'New Order in East Asia' in 1938 was of concern to:
   i the United States
   ii Britain.
   b Explain why the United States and Britain were slow to respond to Japan's aggression in the late 1930s.
   c Outline four reasons why the United States and Britain finally imposed economic sanctions on Japan in 1940.

4 **a** Describe Japan's strategy for avoiding a long war with the United States.
   b Explain how Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941 led to the United States becoming involved in war in the Asia–Pacific and Europe.

Understanding, applying and analysing

5 Construct a timeline of events relating to Japan's aggression between 8 December 1941 and May 1942.

6 **a** On an outline map of Asia, locate and label Japan. Using a different colour for each month, draw arrows on this map from Japan to places where the Japanese attacked between 8 December 1941 and May 1942.

b Annotate your map including country names, relevant dates and important details relating to attacks, surrenders and alliances.

7 **a** Outline the measures taken by the Menzies and Curtin governments between 1939 and 1942 to:

i support Britain's war effort

ii protect Australia.

b List Churchill's responses to these measures.

8 Explain how the battles of Coral Sea and Midway were crucial to the Allied war effort in 1942.

9 Construct an illustrated mind map that represents the challenges faced by Australian servicemen in Papua, especially those on the Kokoda Track, during World War II. Include a summary of key facts about the Battle of Kokoda between 24 July and 2 November 1942.

10 Suggest two or more reasons why US General MacArthur was determined to achieve victory in the Philippines.

11 Construct a detailed timeline of events relating to Japan's surrender between 26 July and 2 September 1945.

12 Think of two or three possible reasons why Japan was reluctant to surrender. Share your ideas with a classmate.

Understanding and creating

13 **a** Use the internet and other sources to find out more about one of the following landings made by US forces:

- Guadalcanal
- Iwo Jima
- Okinawa
- Saipan
- Tarawa.

b Imagine you are a member of the US invasion forces. You have been keeping a diary to record your experiences. Write two or more diary entries that include information about:

- key attacks and battles
- the hardships you experience
- your feelings about the Japanese soldiers you are fighting
- your thoughts about the war.

Aim for 100 to 150 words per diary entry. Use Source 2.5.7 to help you with this task.

c Imagine you are a member of the Japanese armed forces defending against the landings by the US forces. Using your research in part a, plus additional research if necessary, write two or more diary entries for the following aspects of the campaign:

- the hardships you experience
- your feelings about the US soldiers you are fighting
- your thoughts about home
- your thoughts about the war.

Aim for 150 to 200 words per diary entry.

Analysing and evaluating

14 In point form, list the evidence presented throughout this unit that supports the argument that Australia and Australian forces were vital to Allied victory in the Asia–Pacific.

15 **a** Complete this activity in groups of three. Using the information provided in this unit, as well as the internet and other sources, each student researches one of these naval battles:

i Coral Sea

ii Midway

iii Leyte Gulf.

b Organise your own findings in a table under the following headings: 'Name of battle', 'Location', 'Date begun', 'Date ended', 'Axis country/ies involved', 'Allied country/ies involved', 'Strategies used', 'Casualties on both sides', 'Outcome', 'Impact of battle on the war in the Asia–Pacific' and 'Other details'.

c Share your findings with your group and compare the battles.

d Independently, write 200–300 words in which you argue whether or not one battle was more important than the others in determining the result of the war in the Asia–Pacific. Use as much evidence as you can to support your answer.

e Compare your argument with others in the class through small or large group discussions.

16 **a** Use the internet and other sources to research the Battle of Kokoda. Find out information about the:

- key locations
- key dates
- numbers and strategies of the Japanese forces
- make-up of the Australian troops
- numbers and strategies of the Australian troops
- problems faced by troops on both sides
- roles of local Papuans
- fighting conditions
- outcomes of the battle
- impact of victory at Kokoda on the war in the Asia–Pacific.

b Using evidence from your research, write two or three paragraphs in response to the question: 'How important were Australian militia troops to the Battle of Kokoda?'



IMPACT OF THE WAR ON AUSTRALIAN SOCIETY

When war was declared in 1939, Prime Minister Robert Menzies from the United Australia Party was in power. He resigned in August 1941 and Arthur Fadden then briefly held the position. In October 1941, the Australian Labor Party's John Curtin became prime minister. Curtin took office just two months before Japan's defeat of British and Australian troops on the Malay Peninsula. He is generally regarded as 'Australia's wartime prime minister', who successfully led the country during the times of crisis to come. After he died in office in July 1945, Labor's Ben Chifley became prime minister. Despite the change in leadership and differences in some policy areas, the political parties cooperated effectively during the war years as a matter of national interest.

GREATER GOVERNMENT POWERS

In September 1939, the Menzies Government introduced the *National Security Act*. It enabled the federal government to make laws without reference to the Constitution or parliament. It could make these laws by regulation: that is, at a meeting comprising the Governor-General and at least three government ministers. The Act gave the government very wide powers, allowing it over the years to control a range of areas that affected many aspects of people's lives. Although these controls brought hardships and some tensions within society, the Australian people were united in the war effort, believing the wartime regulations were aimed at equality of sacrifice.

TWO ARMIES

In September 1939, the Menzies Government created a **Second Australian Imperial Force (AIF)**. Made up of volunteers, the AIF could serve overseas and was deployed in North Africa, the Middle East, Greece and Palestine, then later in New Guinea and the Pacific Islands. Australia's other army was the part-time **militia** or **Citizen Military Forces (CMF)** which, in the early years of the war, could only serve in Australia and its territories. In October 1939, the government conscripted many in the CMF to do a period of further training. In June 1940, this requirement extended to all single men who had turned 21. By 1942, all single men and childless married men between the ages of 18 and 35 were conscripted into the militia, unless they worked in a protected or essential industry that served the war effort.

THE CONSCRIPTION ISSUE

Conscription had been a divisive issue in Australia during World War I, but there was general agreement about its introduction in 1939 for service within Australia and its territories. The Labor Party opposed conscription for overseas service. Yet by early 1943, with Australia increasingly facing the need to be part of the offensive against Japan, Prime Minister Curtin managed to persuade most of his Labor colleagues to pass the Militia Bill, which enabled conscripts to be sent to any area in the South-West Pacific Zone. The **Australian Military Forces (AMF)** was made up of units of permanent soldiers and conscripted CMF. The AMF and the AIF fought together to clear the Japanese from New Guinea (an Australian territory). The Militia Bill enabled them to continue to fight together in non-Australian territories.

SERVICE	MALES ('000)	FEMALES ('000)	PERSONS ('000)
Royal Australian Navy	45.8	3.1	48.9
Australian Military Forces (AIF and CMF)	691.4	35.8	727.2
Royal Australian Air Force	189.7	27.2	216.9
Total	926.9	66.1	993.0

SOURCE 2.6.1 Total enlistments of Australian services personnel during World War II. Figures from Year Book Australia, (Cat. No. 1301.0), Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1946–47

Q
1 What was the total number of Australians who were part of the military forces in World War II?
2 What proportion of the total was made up by females in each of the branches of the armed services?

WARTIME CONTROLS

RATIONING

Rationing, that is, laws setting fixed allowances of essential goods, was increasingly imposed by the federal government during the war years. It enabled the government to control what was produced, how much of this would be directed to the war effort overseas and how much would be available to the general public. In this way, it ensured that people at home would then get a fair share regardless of income. In 1940, petrol, tobacco and newsprint were rationed; in 1941, beer production was cut by one-third. Rationing of more



SOURCE 2.6.2 A customer is served by a butcher in Melbourne, 17 January 1944. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q **What evidence does the photograph provide to show that it was taken during the war years?**

basic consumer items began in 1942. Tea, butter, sugar and meat, and later clothing were rationed. Eggs and milk were rationed occasionally and vegetables and fruit were often in short supply.

All community members were allocated coupons, usually inside a ration book, that they had to present to shopkeepers when buying. Once the coupons were used, people could not buy more goods until their next coupons were allocated. Although rationing meant some hardships, including waiting in long queues to be served, it was generally accepted as a wartime necessity. However, one unintended outcome of rationing was the creation of a **black market**: the illegal sale of rationed goods, usually at inflated prices by shops and companies. The government tried to stop this but with only limited success.

CENSORSHIP

In 1939 and 1940, the federal government used existing powers to reintroduce **censorship** of mail and newspapers both to protect national security and maintain public morale. The government established the Department of Information to decide what information the public should be given about the war. The full truth about disasters overseas and attacks on the mainland was usually held back. The Department of Information not only controlled what was contained in letters and went into newspapers, it also restricted what people could hear on the radio and watch in newsreels at the cinema.

DID YOU KNOW?

All mail from service personnel at the frontline was censored. This meant that a letter from someone's brother, daughter, son or husband might arrive with some holes in it where words had been cut out—these words would have included names, dates or places that might be useful for the enemy.



SOURCE 2.6.3 The Australian Department of Information provided propaganda material, such as this poster produced in 1942, to demonise the enemy and unify the public in the war effort. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q
1 **What is the message of the poster?**
2 **Who was the intended audience for the poster?**
3 **What impact was this poster likely to have had on its audience?**

MANPOWER REGULATIONS

Australia's wartime isolation helped the growth of new manufacturing industries, including those directly related to the war effort. Total factory employment increased between 1939 and 1944, but there were still labour shortages. These became worse with the need to provide US troops with supplies and to build aerodromes, larger docks, and strategic roads and railways. At first, government regulations prevented workers from leaving those industries important for the war effort, such as munitions and aeroplane manufacture.

In 1942, the Curtin Government set up the Manpower Directorate, which controlled and restructured the workforce. A national register of male and female workers was created and the Directorate determined who would work where, whether in wartime industry or not. These regulations had a great impact on the liberties of Australian workers, but they were generally accepted.

OTHER WARTIME MEASURES

The Curtin Government regulated wages and rents, and used price-fixing powers to prevent profiteering. It improved wages and welfare payments for soldiers and pensioners. Federal arbitration powers were extended to stop strike action deemed harmful for the war effort, and Labor was able to use its close connection with the trade union movement to limit industrial disputes. Responsibility for income tax collection, which previously had been shared by the states, was fully transferred to the Commonwealth Government. To gain greater taxation revenue for the war effort, tax on high income earners was increased.

'ENEMY ALIENS'

During the war, 52 000 civilians in Australia of non-British origin were registered as 'aliens'. Of these, 22 000 were treated as **'enemy aliens'** because they came from countries now at war with Australia. Enemy aliens were not allowed to change their names, were placed under close surveillance and were subject to restrictions. For example: they could not own ammunition, a car, boat, camera or radio; their mail was intercepted; and they needed police permission to travel outside the area where they lived. Many enemy aliens, particularly people of Italian background, experienced discrimination, violence and abuse from some sections of the Australian public.

Those enemy aliens regarded by the authorities as a clear risk to Australia's security were interned in detention camps, as happened in World War I. The rate of internment varied across the country. For example, in Victoria, only 2.9 per cent were interned; in Tasmania, 34.3 per cent; and in Queensland, 43.1 per cent. The overall number of internees peaked in September 1942: 3651 Italians, 1029 Germans and 1036 Japanese. German internees included Jews of German or Austrian origin even though they were fleeing Nazi persecution in Europe.

PRISONERS OF WAR

Large numbers of Axis forces prisoners of war were sent to Australia for imprisonment for the duration of the war. About 17 000 Italian prisoners of war were eventually used in the Civil Alien Corps, building public works and filling gaps in the farm labouring workforce.

THE COWRA BREAKOUT

One of the main prisoner of war camps was established at Cowra in New South Wales. On 5 August 1944, over 500 Japanese prisoners managed to escape. In the efforts to recapture them, four Australian guards were killed and approximately 230 Japanese died. All the prisoners who managed to escape were later captured without harm to the local community.



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WAR PRISONERS ESCAPE FROM CAMP

Wide search by troops, police

From Our Special Representative

Armed soldiers and civilian police are scouring the Cowra district for prisoners of war who escaped yesterday morning.

The men broke away from the prisoner-of-war camp near Cowra at 2 a.m.

Residents in homesteads and isolated districts have been warned to keep their children and womenfolk indoors at night.

Some prisoners have been recaptured by police and soldiers.

ALLIED ARMIES PUSH ON

Allies move swiftly on French ports

SUNDAY TELEGRAPH SERVICE AND AAP

LONDON, Sat.—American forces thrusting south in France are expected to reach St. Nazaire and cut off the whole Brittany Peninsula by tomorrow.

U.S. spearheads today advanced 18 miles in five

SOURCE 2.6.4 The *Sunday Telegraph* newspaper report of the Cowra breakout, 6 August 1944. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q

1 **Do you think that this article would provide a reliable report on the Cowra breakout? Explain your answer.**

2 **Do you think that it would be unusual to find such an article in a newspaper in 1944? Explain your answer.**

WOMEN'S CHANGING ROLES

World War II brought major changes to the lives of most Australian women. With over 900 000 men in the armed services and out of the regular workforce, the serious labour shortage meant that women were recruited into a range of occupations traditionally performed by men. Most women were glad of the new employment opportunities: they could be more directly involved in the war effort, learn new skills, get a regular wage and become more independent. Women became involved in voluntary organisations that provided services to the armed forces and trained women to take on roles normally reserved for men.

URBAN EMPLOYMENT

The greatest proportion of women now in paid work were employed in manufacturing industries approved by the federal government, particularly in munitions factories and factories that built ships and aeroplanes. Other women took on jobs in government and business offices, banks and transport.

> *The girls were obviously attracted by the higher wages offering in munitions work and the vast majority were prepared to do overtime for the extra pay. They were expected to work six days a week and, eventually, to go on to two shifts. When asked why they were taking up the work, some said that they wanted to do something to help the war effort: but, if questioned directly, the majority admitted that the relatively high wages had also affected their decision. It is unlikely, however, that girls would deliberately give up so much of their leisure and work such inconvenient hours, if they had not felt in return that they were doing a worthwhile job. Munitions work is made more attractive by its aura of respectability and patriotism. Many girls who had not liked to enter factories before, felt no compunction in becoming cogs in Australia's war machine.*

SOURCE 2.6.5 From Helen Crisp, 'Women in Munitions', *Australian Quarterly*, September 1941

Q
1. **What do you think would have been the previous employment of the women working in the munitions industry?**
2. **According to the article, for what reasons were these women now prepared to work in munitions factories?**

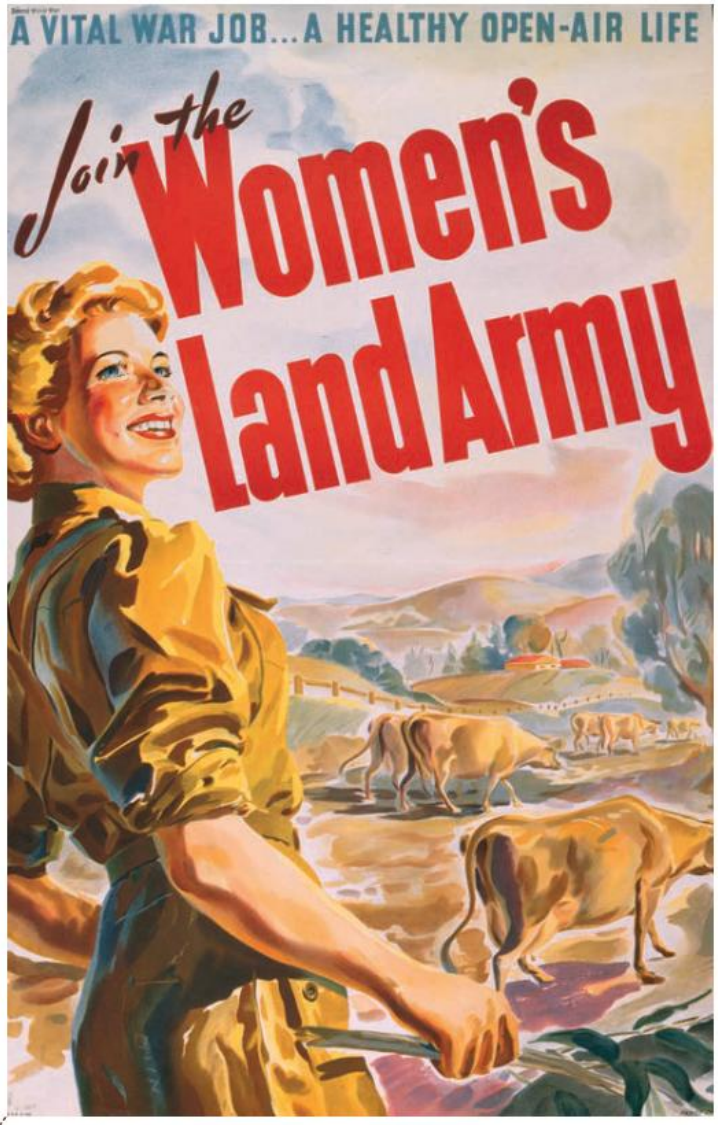
IN THE SERVICES

Despite some strong opposition to women joining the armed forces, by 1941 the federal government enabled women to enlist. The government saw this as a further way to deal with the great challenges of the war. Three women's service divisions were created so that women could take on roles previously occupied by men who would then be released for overseas combat: these were the Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force, the Australian Women's Army Service and the Women's Royal Australian Naval Service. Across the services, women were employed in jobs such as electricians, fitters, aircraft mechanics, clerical assistants, caterers, signallers, drivers, interpreters and enemy code breakers.

Approximately 13 000 women served in the two main branches of the nursing service: the Australian Army Medical Women's Service and the Australian Army Nursing Service. They served in Australia and in countries where the Australian army fought, mainly in army hospitals. The Australian air force and navy had smaller nursing services.

WOMEN'S LAND ARMY

Because Australia was a major producer of food for the British Empire, and later, US troops overseas, the labour shortage in rural areas was a big problem. In 1942, the Australian Women's Land Army was formed under government control. Over 2000 women joined this service. They were paid by the farmer, not the government, and they often had to live and work in isolated areas. They drove tractors and operated farm machinery, and their work included vegetable and fruit growing, milking cows, raising pigs and poultry, and harvesting crops.



SOURCE 2.6.6 A Women's Land Army recruitment poster, 1943–45. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q
1. **Who would have made up the target audience for this poster?**
2. **In words and images, what messages are conveyed to the audience?**
3. **How do you think the audience would have responded to these messages? Why?**

PLACE OF TRADITIONAL ROLES

Whether or not they were in paid employment, most women were still expected to be responsible for the domestic tasks at home. This now included coping with the scarcity of goods and greater management of the family finances if their menfolk were away. In addition, even though the government actively encouraged more women to join the workforce, they had to overcome hurdles:

- Some newspapers initially ridiculed women who took on factory work.
- Some trade unions protested against women taking on other traditionally male jobs.
- Many men feared that the employment of women would lead to a reduction in men's wages.
- Sections within the Catholic Church warned against the consequences of women's new opportunities.
- Women were often admitted reluctantly to the armed services and denied the more interesting jobs.

In traditionally female industries, women were paid 54 per cent of the basic male rate. But in 1942, the new Women's Employment Board set wages for women going into traditionally male jobs, where there was no existing female pay rate, at 70–90 per cent of the male rate.

AUSTRALIA UNDER ATTACK

BOMBING OF DARWIN

On 19 February 1942, just four days after the fall of Singapore, Japanese aircraft attacked Darwin. In the two raids, the airfield was almost wiped out, twenty-three Australian and US aircraft were destroyed and both Australian and US ships were sunk. Approximately 250 military and civilian personnel were killed (although the government initially understated this number). Japan wanted to prevent Darwin being used as a base for attacks on Japanese-held territory to Darwin's north. Another sixty-two air raids were made on Darwin, the last one being in November 1943. There were also raids on some other locations in Australia's north.

SUBMARINE ATTACKS ON SYDNEY

On the night of 31 May 1942, Japanese midget submarines entered Sydney Harbour with the intention of sinking Australian and US warships. These were not hit, but the naval depot ship HMAS *Kuttabul* was sunk with the loss of twenty-one lives. On 8 June, the larger submarines that had launched the midget submarines returned, surfaced and fired shells over Sydney's eastern suburbs and Newcastle. This resulted in little damage and no casualties.

OTHER SUBMARINE ATTACKS

Japanese submarines attacked shipping off the east coast of Australia in 1942 and 1943 to disrupt the supply route from Sydney to New Guinea (see Source 2.6.7). In May 1943, the hospital ship AHS *Centaur*, was attacked and was one of twenty ships sunk along the eastern Australian coast by Japanese submarines. The attack resulted in the loss of 268 lives and the event fuelled racial hatred against the Japanese.

REACTIONS

Most Australians believed that the Japanese bombing raids and submarine attacks were in preparation for an invasion of Australia. This led to periods of panic and fear. It has come to light that in late 1941 Japan did have plans to invade Australia, but that by April 1942 those plans had been abandoned. Evidence indicates that Prime Minister Curtin became aware of the change in Japanese thinking. Yet he did not publicly dismiss the general belief that invasion was possible, so as to ensure the continued hard work and commitment needed from everybody for final victory. The government's Department of Home Security was preparing the people for a possible invasion. Cities were subject to blackout restrictions and air-raid precautions included practising evacuation drills, digging shelters and protecting buildings with sandbags. Barbed wire was placed on beaches to obstruct Japanese landing forces.



SOURCE 2.6.7 Map of attacks on Australia and reconnaissance by the Japanese, 1942–43

'INVADED' BY AMERICANS

From late December 1941 through to the end of the war, almost 1 million US servicemen were stationed for short periods in Australia. They used Australia as an official base before they moved on to fight the Japanese forces in the South-West Pacific; they also returned from this theatre of war for brief recreation leave breaks.

US servicemen showed Australians a different way of life and brought about change in aspects of Australian society and culture. They were well-paid, their uniforms were more stylish, they were generally easygoing and self-confident, and they expected to have American-style food, forms of entertainment and consumer goods. They made US music such as jazz and 'swing' popular and they introduced new dance crazes, such as the jitterbug. They greatly appealed to many Australian young women whom they impressed with wartime luxuries such as silk stockings, chocolates and black market beer and cigarettes. It is estimated that between 12 000 and 15 000 Australian women became '**war brides**'; that is, they married US servicemen and went to live in the United States after the war.

THE BATTLE OF BRISBANE

For some of the reasons just outlined, visiting US servicemen were resented by Australian servicemen and parts of the civilian population who complained about them being 'over-paid, over-sexed and over here'! Simmering tensions developed between Australian and US servicemen, which occasionally led to serious violence. On 26 and 27 November 1942, a major riot erupted in Brisbane where by now most Americans were stationed. The Battle of Brisbane left one Australian soldier dead and hundreds on both sides injured, some seriously. Other riots occurred in Melbourne and Perth.

END OF THE WAR

The end of the war in Europe was of course important for Australians. However, the end of the Asia–Pacific war was greeted even more enthusiastically: many more Australian service personnel were now safe from further action and men and women would hopefully return to their previous lives back home. Returning enlisted men and women to Australia was a huge operation, as it was at the end of World War I. Over 450 000 service personnel had been discharged from the armed forces, or **demobilised**, by June 1946. The repatriation of prisoners of war in Australia to Japan, Germany and Italy could now also occur.

At war's end, whether or not they wanted to or could afford it, most civilian and servicewomen had little choice but to return to traditional forms of women's work. This was in line with the government's strategy of settling ex-servicemen back into their former jobs and its new 'populate or perish' policy, which aimed to greatly increase Australia's population. Women had reverted to simply being seen as wives and mothers.



BRISBANE DISTURBANCE

BRISBANE, November 26.—Six servicemen were shot, one fatally, a civilian wounded by bullet fire, and two other soldiers injured when servicemen rioted at the corner of Creek and Adelaide-street, City, to-night.

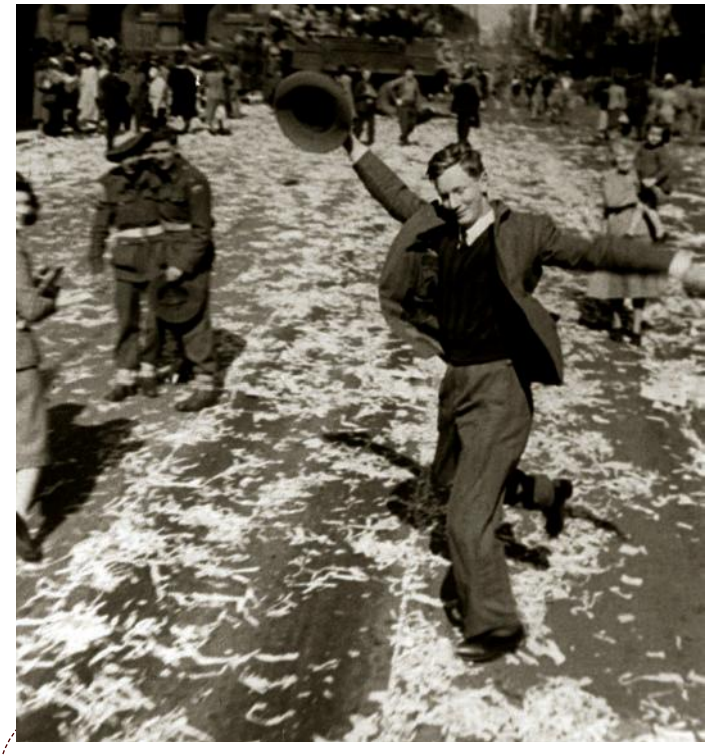
The disturbance began when military police attempted to take a soldier in charge. Other soldiers are alleged to have interfered, and they claimed that one of their number was struck with a baton. The soldiers tried to force an entry into a canteen. Police were called from all stations and off leave, and the Commissioner of Police took charge.

The shooting occurred when soldiers rushed military police, carrying riot guns and rifles, while they were on duty outside a canteen.

The casualties were, in addition to

SOURCE 2.6.8 From the front page of the *Townsville Daily Bulletin*, 27 November 1942. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q
1 What information is provided about the roles of Australian and US soldiers in the riot?
2 Do you think this article would have provided an accurate account of the riot? Give reasons for your answer.



SOURCE 2.6.9 This image came to represent the joy felt by Australians at the end of World War II and the hope for a new future. Footage was taken of the 'dancing man' on 15 August 1945 after he was asked to dance for a newsreel story. His identity is still debated.

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- Australian Military Forces (AMF)
- black market
- censorship
- demobilised
- 'enemy aliens'
- militia or Citizen Military Forces (CMF)
- rationing
- Second Australian Imperial Force (AIF)
- war brides

2 Explain the wartime powers that the *National Security Act* of 1939 gave the federal government.

3 **a** Outline the main differences between the AIF, the CMF and the AMF.

b Construct a timeline showing the changes to the CMF between 1939 and 1943.

4 Explain how the Militia Bill of 1943 was significant to Australia's war against Japan.

5 **a** List three or more reasons why the Australian Government introduced rationing during the war years.

b List two reasons why wartime censorship was reintroduced in 1939 and 1940.

c Explain the purpose of the Manpower Directorate.

d Use dot points to list the government's other wartime measures. Can you see a common theme?

6 In your own words:

a Explain why some civilians in Australia were registered as enemy aliens during the war.

b Describe what happened to Axis forces prisoners of war who were sent to Australia.

c Summarise key facts about the Cowra breakout of 1944.

Understanding and applying

7 **a** List four reasons why most women welcomed the new employment opportunities available to them during World War II.

b Outline the ways the Australian Women's Land Army helped overcome the labour shortage in rural areas.

c List the names of the three military service divisions that were created for women and the two main branches of the nursing service, and the types of jobs women occupied in the services.

d Construct an illustrated and annotated mind map that summarises the challenges facing women in paid work, especially those in non-traditional roles, during World War II.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

8 **a** What events made people believe that an invasion of the Australian mainland by Japan was likely?

b In what ways did the government reinforce this belief?

9 Construct an illustrated and annotated mind map that summarises the following:

a the various influences visiting US servicemen had on Australian society and culture during the war years

b how Australian men and women responded to the US presence at that time.

Analysing and evaluating

10 In point form, list the evidence presented throughout this unit that supports the argument that there was 'equality of sacrifice' for Australians on the home front during World War II. Can you find any evidence that contradicts this argument?

Analysing and creating

11 Imagine it is 1944 and you are a woman employed in a munitions factory. You are writing a letter to a male friend or family member who is overseas in the armed services. Using information found in this unit, as well as further research from the internet and other sources, include in your letter your thoughts about at least two of the following:

- The reasons why women have been encouraged to join the workforce
- The kinds of jobs women are undertaking
- The attitudes in society about whether women should be stepping into traditional male jobs
- What it is like juggling duties at home with paid employment
- Your thoughts about what will happen when the war ends and men return to civilian workplaces
- Other details you have found interesting.

Perhaps you are considering moving into a different occupation. You could also write about the new challenges you expect to face in that role.

12 In pairs or groups of three, use the internet and other sources to find out more about either the bombing of Darwin or the submarine attacks on Sydney. Ensure your research areas include information about:

- what the Japanese were targeting
- how prepared the military and civilians were
- what damage was done and how many casualties resulted
- what the experience of being under attack was like, for the military and for civilians
- the responses of the military, government and media to the attacks
- what life was like for civilians in those places after the attacks.

Present your research in a format approved by your teacher.



PRISONERS OF WAR

The Third Geneva Convention of 1929 aimed to protect prisoners of war (POWs) by ensuring: humane treatment, provision of appropriate medical care, a reasonable standard of food and accommodation, and exclusion from work if they were in poor health or if the worksite was dangerous. The Soviet Union and Japan were the only major participants in World War II that failed to ratify (or formally accept) this convention.

PRISONERS OF WAR: EUROPE

ALLIED PRISONERS OF WAR IN THE WEST

Allied servicemen captured by German and Italian forces were usually treated in accordance with the Geneva Convention. Approximately 100 000 US and 135 000 British servicemen became POWs in Europe during World War II. In addition, 8000 Australian servicemen were interned, most of them captured in North Africa and Greece, or when their planes had been shot down during bombing raids over German-occupied territory. Most prisoner-of-war camps were in Germany. Allied POWs did experience hardships, such as lack of healthy food and inadequate protection from cold climates, but only a small percentage died in captivity.

SOVIET AND GERMAN PRISONERS OF WAR IN THE EAST

It was common for Germans to shoot Soviet prisoners because, like all Slavic peoples, they were considered to be 'Bolshevik *Untermenschen*', or communist sub-humans. Of the nearly 6 million who were captured, more than 3 million Soviet soldiers died in German captivity, many of them left to starve to death. The mass death of Soviet POWs, particularly in an eight-month period in 1941–42, is considered to be second only to the Holocaust in terms of German war crimes. Germany claimed that it did not follow the Geneva Convention because the Soviet Union had not ratified it.

The German defeat at Stalingrad saw Soviet soldiers bent on revenge. The end of the battle was the end of the German Sixth Army: 91 000 prisoners were taken, but only 6000 returned to Germany after the war. In total, the Soviet armies captured approximately 3 million German soldiers. One estimate of the number of those captured who were killed outright or died in Soviet captivity is 35 per cent.

TAKING NO PRISONERS IN THE WEST

During the battles in Western Europe after D-Day (6 June 1944), both German and Allied troops were known to kill rather than imprison soldiers who showed they wanted to surrender, unless large numbers surrendered at the one time. The *Waffen*-SS, the combat units of the *Schutzstaffel*, or SS, had a reputation for not taking prisoners. There was some similar behaviour on the other side. In fact, before the Allied invasion of Sicily, US General George Patton told the 45th (US) Infantry Division to 'show no mercy' to enemy soldiers who tried to shoot at them and then wanted to surrender.

PRISONERS OF WAR: ASIA–PACIFIC

ALLIED PRISONERS OF WAR

Japanese forces captured approximately 130 000 Allied servicemen and army nurses, mainly during the Japanese advances in 1941 and 1942. The prisoners were mostly American, British, Australian, New Zealander, Canadian, Indian and Dutch. Over one-third of these prisoners died in captivity. More than 22 000 Australian servicemen were captured by the Japanese forces. Seventy-one women from the Australian Army Nursing Service were also captured. As many Australian servicemen died in Japanese prisoner-of-war camps as were killed in combat against the Japanese forces. They died in camps in Borneo, Singapore, Japan, Burma, Timor, Java, Thailand, the Philippines and Korea. Over 100 000 male and female civilians of different nationalities were also interned by the Japanese in the early years of the war. Although not treated as cruelly as service personnel, their death rate was similar.

DID YOU KNOW?

The largest Japanese prisoner-of-war camp was Changi in Singapore. It held over 100 000 prisoners who were sent in batches to work in other camps or to Japan to work as slaves in factories and mines for the Japanese war effort.

Japan's cruelty to Allied POWs had different causes.

- Japanese military training was based on strong discipline and brutality. Surrender was a punishable crime: it was better to die with honour than be imprisoned by the enemy. Those captured by the Japanese were seen as worth little more than for short-term use by the Japanese empire.



SOURCE 2.7.1 Heinrich Himmler, leader of the *Schutzstaffel* (SS), inspects a POW camp on the Eastern Front, around 1940–41.

Q **Examine the faces of both the Germans and their prisoners. What emotions do you think are portrayed on each of their faces?**

- Race was another factor in the way prisoners were treated. The extreme nationalism that took hold in Japan in the 1930s included a strong prejudice against other races. From this perspective, the Japanese forces had achieved great victories over the despised 'white' races. The Japanese usually also treated other races as inferior in the territories they occupied.
- Recent historians have argued that Japan had not adequately planned for handling large numbers of prisoners in its occupied territories. This problem was made worse by Allied successes in disrupting Japanese lines of communication. It meant, for example, that access to supplies such as medicine was often limited.

The overall result was that Allied POWs were subject to murder, forced labour, minimal food supply, poor medical treatment and often brutal punishments.

JAPANESE PRISONERS OF WAR

The numbers of Japanese servicemen taken prisoner by Allied forces increased as the war neared its end. Allied forces had become aware of atrocities and maltreatment committed by Japanese forces. This reinforced racist attitudes already held by many Allied service personnel. For example, Australian General Sir Thomas Blamey told his troops in New Guinea that their opponents were 'vermin' who had to be 'exterminated'. It is not surprising then that sometimes Allied troops, including Australians, killed Japanese soldiers who wanted to surrender rather than take them prisoner. At first, Japanese POWs were put to work repairing damage in areas that they had occupied. However, after being interrogated, the majority were sent to camps in Australia while the rest were sent to camps in New Zealand or the United States.

Japanese POWs in Australia were treated according to the Geneva Convention. Nevertheless, there were attempted breakouts at some of these camps, mainly fuelled by the Japanese inmates' sense of shame arising from their guilt at becoming POWs. Hundreds of Japanese POWs attempted to escape in August 1944 from the camp at Cowra in New South Wales.

> *You cannot explain to anybody what it is to be hungry and there is nothing to eat and no way of getting any... some of the Indonesian women showed us what plants you could eat... There was never enough of anything. You were always hungry... In some camps they would bring you in food and put it outside the barbed wire. Now, if you went out, there were guards there all the time, and you were shot...*

SOURCE 2.7.2 From an interview with Sylvia McGregor, a former member of the Australian Army Nursing Service, who became a POW when Singapore surrendered in February 1942. Quoted in *Unity & Diversity: Australia Since 1850*, by Robert Darlington et al., Heinemann, Port Melbourne, 2001

BURMA–THAILAND RAILWAY

When invading Burma from Thailand in early 1942, the Japanese prized its strategic position near recently occupied Malaya and Singapore and British-controlled India. They also knew that China brought crucial materials from India through Burma for its ongoing fight against the Japanese. For the Japanese then, strong control of Burma was vital. However, they needed a more secure means of transporting troops and supplies from both Japan and their bases in Indochina: sea routes would be attacked by Allied bombers and submarines.

Therefore, a new railway of approximately 400 kilometres linking Burma and Thailand was planned, and work began in June 1942. Tens of thousands of labourers from Malaya, the Dutch East Indies, Thailand and Burma were made to work on its construction. Allied POWs were also brought in and forced to work under horrific conditions. Using mainly hand tools, they had to work twelve-hour shifts in steep terrain, making embankments, cuttings and bridges. They were usually very weak due to malnutrition, disease and lack of medical care. As well as being brutally treated by guards, labourers were also subject to Allied air strikes that unknowingly attacked nearby camps when attempting to destroy the railway. Over 16 000 Allied POWs (including 2700 Australians) as well as 70 000 Asian labourers died during construction of the railway.

DEATH MARCHES

For about two months after Japanese troops invaded the Philippines in December 1941, US forces and Filipino soldiers garrisoned there fought unsuccessfully on the Bataan Peninsula to repel the Japanese advance. When the US forces surrendered to Japan in May 1942, the Japanese were faced with about 70 000 captives (including 10 000 Americans). Like the Japanese themselves, the US and Filipino POWs were weak from prolonged fighting and illness. They were forced to walk more than 100 kilometres as part of the journey to a prisoner-of-war camp. Japanese guards often denied them water and clubbed or bayoneted those who could not keep up. The death toll is not certain; it is estimated at between 6000 and 18 000 men.

In the final months of the war, Japanese forces in North Borneo decided to relocate from Sandakan to Ranau, 260 kilometres away. In a series of three forced marches, Australian and British POWs, many of them already very weak, were forced to assist in the relocation. Suffering great hardship and cruelty, large numbers died along the way or were killed at the Ranau camp. Of approximately 1000 Australian prisoners who marched to Ranau, only six survived because they escaped into the jungle. Those prisoners too weak to participate in the marches either died at Sandakan or were killed there. Total British and Australian deaths, due to the relocation to Ranau, numbered approximately 2400.



SOURCE 2.7.3 Three supposedly 'fit' Australian POWs about to go to work on the Burma–Thailand Railway, around 1943. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q
1 What features of the camp can be seen in the photo?
2 Describe and account for the appearance of the Australian prisoners.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 a Give two reasons why German forces treated Allied POWs in the West differently from Soviet POWs in the East.

b List the participants in the war in Europe that were known to kill some captives rather than take them prisoner.

2 a Calculate the percentage of the overall number of Allied servicemen and army nurses captured by the Japanese that were Australian.

b Using just a few words for each, name the three conditions thought to have caused Japan's cruel treatment of Allied POWs.

c Explain what happened to the majority of Japanese soldiers captured by the Allies.

Analysing and creating

3 Using the internet and other sources, research the incredible experiences of one of the following POWs:

- Lieutenant Colonel Edward 'Weary' Dunlop, an Australian army surgeon who often risked his life to help fellow POWs on the Burma–Thailand Railway
- Captain Vivian Bullwinkel, an Australian army nurse who was the only survivor after the SS *Vyner Brooke*, escaping from Singapore, was sunk and other passengers executed.

Present your findings about their background, time as a POW, and life after the war in a format approved by your teacher.



UNIT 8

USING THE ATOMIC BOMB

The opposing forces in World War II used more powerful weaponry than could have been imagined in World War I: bigger tanks, ships and submarines; more efficient artillery and machine guns; and, critically, greatly improved aircraft. But of greater long-term significance, World War II saw the invention and use of the atomic bomb that devastated two Japanese cities and took the world into the horrifying prospects of the nuclear age. To understand how this came about, it is necessary to look at previous developments in the war years.

STRATEGIC AND AREA BOMBING

Developments in aircraft technology by 1939 enabled **strategic bombing**; that is, planned large-scale bombing raids on military targets and war-related industrial sites. The German bombing of Guernica in Spain in 1937 already had shown this to be possible. However, with the aircraft technology of the 1940s, it was impossible to hit specific targets without spreading destruction more broadly. This meant that civilian populations in towns and cities, as well as the surrounding countryside, were also hit, and resulted in the destruction of people's lives, homes and livelihoods and also of important infrastructure such as water supply and transport systems.

Strategic bombing attacks did not succeed often enough in hitting their intended targets, especially during night raids. However, incendiary bombs could be used to generate multiple fires in the area first, to make it easier for the aircraft carrying high explosive bombs to find their targets.

This use of incendiary bombs to make strategic bombing more effective was known as **area bombing**. Area bombing was used by the German air force as part of its attacks on British cities during the Battle of Britain in 1940. This had dire consequences for civilians in those cities. For example, approximately 60 000 people died in the London Blitz and 2 million were left homeless.

By mid-1941, in its effort to improve the success of its bombing raids on German targets, the British Bomber Command began to use area bombing. From January 1943 through to May 1945, Britain and the United States coordinated their air strikes on German targets, with Britain using area bombing by night and the United States using strategic bombing in the daytime.

CIVILIAN POPULATIONS

The use of area bombing to aid strategic bombing blurred the distinction between military targets and civilian targets. Because area bombing was so devastating for civilian populations, it came to be regarded as a way to destroy the enemy population's morale, to get them to pressure their politicians to surrender. This theory proved ineffective for the Germans in the Battle of Britain. Yet from February 1942, British Bomber Command deliberately used area bombing of German cities with this aim. For example in May 1942, the Royal Air Force (RAF) bombing raid on the city of Cologne destroyed nearly half of the city.





SOURCE 2.8.1 Two important US bombers of World War II

A The B-17 Flying Fortress was mainly used in daylight precision strategic bombing of German targets.

B The B-29 Superfortress was designed for high-level daytime bombing. However, it was particularly used for the low-level night-time dropping of incendiary bombs on Japan.

But the most devastating example of this policy was **Operation Thunderclap**. The German city of Dresden was targeted on the night of 13 February 1945. RAF planes dropped 750 000 incendiary bombs, plus high explosives, on the city, creating a firestorm with winds up to 160 kilometres per hour. The flames destroyed everything that could burn and sources estimate there were between 35 000 and 100 000 deaths.

At the time, there was unease among some influential people in Britain who contended that the RAF raid on Dresden was a form of 'terror bombing' and that, at this point in the war, such bombing raids on German cities should cease. The official view of the US forces was that the bombing of Dresden was militarily justified and necessary. Historians have since debated whether area bombing helped to bring an end to the Allies' war against Germany. As part of the discussion, there is general agreement that it helped to speed up the end of the Allies' war against Japan.

From late 1944, the US Air Force bombed the Japanese mainland. At first they used only strategic bombing. This was not very successful in destroying its military and industrial targets and it had little effect on the morale of the Japanese people. In March 1945, the United States changed tactics: it now used night-time area bombing, firstly on Tokyo. The results were horrific: 89 000 people were killed and 264 000 buildings were destroyed by the firestorm that even caused the water in the city's canals to boil. In the following months, many other Japanese cities suffered a similar fate. In each city, at the same time as war-related industries and vital infrastructure were destroyed, tens of thousands of civilians were also killed.

> *Flames were licking all around us and somehow we found ourselves by the River Elbe. I could see phosphorus dancing on the water, so for people throwing themselves into the river to get away from the fire, there was no escape. There were bodies everywhere and the gasmasks that people were wearing were melting into their faces... We started looking for a cellar to hide in, but in every cellar we looked into, we saw people sitting dead because the fires had sucked the oxygen out and suffocated them.*

SOURCE 2.8.2

Thoughts of a schoolgirl named Karin Busch who wandered the streets of Dresden on 13 February 1945 with her twin brother in the midst of the firestorm, after an unexploded bomb had forced them to flee their family shelter. Quoted in *The War of the World: Twentieth Century Conflict and the Descent of the West*, by Niall Ferguson, Penguin, New York, 2006

RACE FOR AN ATOMIC BOMB

In the years before World War II, scientists in different countries were researching how to use new knowledge about the splitting of the atom to produce energy. However, the start of the war turned the attention of political leaders to how that research could be applied to create a new type of even more powerful bomb.

SOURCE 2.8.3

The city of Dresden after Operation Thunderclap

Q **Describe, in as much detail as you can, the results of the bombing that are visible in this source.**



Many Jewish scientists fled Germany after 1933. One of these was Albert Einstein who went to the United States. A group of these scientists warned the United States in 1939 that Germany was working to build an atomic bomb. As a result, in 1940, US President Roosevelt set up a secret 'Uranium Advisory Committee', which confirmed that it was possible to build a nuclear fission weapon. Meanwhile, in Germany, progress was halted in 1943 due to the loss of their heavy water supply and the belief that developing a bomb would take some years. Both Japan and the Soviet Union were conducting research but with only limited achievements.

THE MANHATTAN PROJECT

The **Manhattan Project**, set up in 1942, was a top secret joint operation between the United States, Britain and Canada to build the first atomic bomb. US General Leslie Groves was in charge and US physicist J. Robert Oppenheimer was the technical director. The main centre for the project was near Los Alamos in the US state of New Mexico where approximately thirty scientists, including Einstein and Australia's Mark Oliphant, worked long shifts for two years to produce bomb designs. A test device was successfully fired in the New Mexico desert on 16 July 1945. It was the first ever nuclear explosion and showed itself to be the most powerful weapon ever seen.

DECISION TO USE THE ATOMIC BOMB ON JAPAN

US President Roosevelt died in April 1945. At the Potsdam Conference in July, new US President Harry Truman, Stalin and Churchill, plus the newly elected British Prime Minister Clement Attlee, issued a demand to Japan that it unconditionally surrender or face 'prompt and utter destruction'. Japan's leaders rejected this demand.

Historians have put forward a number of interpretations as to why the United States decided to go ahead and use atomic bombs on Japan.

- One interpretation is the reasoning given by the US government at the time: to end the war quickly and save the thousands of US lives that would have been lost during an invasion of Japan.
- An additional interpretation stresses economic considerations, as only one plane (carrying just one bomb) was needed to destroy a vast expanse. There was less chance, then, of having many of their very expensive B-29 bombers (and their crews) shot down. In addition, actually using the bomb would justify the huge expenditure on the Manhattan Project.
- Other interpretations direct attention to the Allies' concern about the growing power of the Soviet Union. Some historians have seen the decision as a 'warning shot' to intimidate the Soviet Union, particularly as it had kept control over former German territories in Eastern Europe it had invaded.
- Another perspective is that the United States and Britain felt the war must be ended before Soviet troops invaded Japan and gained control over territory in Asia. This was a real possibility after the Soviet Union had agreed to enter the Asia–Pacific War three months after Germany's defeat.

HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI

The US B-29 aircraft *Enola Gay* took off from the island of Tinian in the early morning of 6 August 1945. At seventeen seconds after 8.15 a.m., it dropped a single bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The uranium bomb was nicknamed 'Little Boy' and it exploded at a predetermined height of 550 metres. Heat, light and nuclear radiation was released, as well as the impact on the ground of the blast itself. Three days later, a plutonium bomb, nicknamed 'Fat Man', exploded in the air over Nagasaki.

Figures vary as to how many people died due to the dropping of the two atomic bombs. One source estimates the number killed at Hiroshima as 80 000 on the day of the bombing, followed by another 100 000 over the next five years. At Nagasaki, the number of deaths by 1950 was estimated to be 140 000.

> *The temperature at the centre reached [2980 degrees Celsius]. Many people were burnt to a cinder…*
>
> *People had their hair burnt off. Many were blackened and severely blistered by the burn of the flash. Their skin was torn loose by the blast…*
>
> *The scenes of pain and horror were unending. There were people with their bowels and brains coming out, and many children with dead mothers…*
>
> *This was only the beginning. These were the victims of light, blast and heat. Radiation sickness was to follow: nausea, vomiting, extreme thirst, loss of appetite, diarrhoea, fever, convulsions, delirium, purple spots on the body, loss of hair from the roots, and bleeding… Death was preceded by the decay of internal organs…*
>
> *This too was only the beginning. The survivors among those exposed had a greatly increased risk of contracting leukaemia, and showed high rates of other physical illnesses, and of psychiatric disorders…*

SOURCE 2.8.4

From *Humanity: A Moral History of the Twentieth Century*, by Jonathan Glover, Pimlico, London, 2001. Jonathan Glover is a philosopher with an interest in why people and governments can commit barbaric acts. He is writing here about the dropping of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima.

INTO THE NUCLEAR AGE

The post-war conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union that became known as the Cold War was directly influenced by the reality that atomic bombs had been used—with such devastating consequences—at the end of World War II. The result was a 'nuclear arms race' as the two 'superpowers' stockpiled nuclear weapons. By the time the Cold War had ended more than forty years later, some other countries had also developed nuclear weapons. The use of the atomic bomb at the end of World War II has had global consequences that are still being dealt with today, as humanity is faced with the possibility of the catastrophic outcomes that nuclear warfare could bring.



SOURCE 2.8.5 On the sixty-sixth anniversary of Hiroshima's bombing, paper lanterns with candles inside float on the Motoyasu River in front of the Atomic Bomb Dome in Hiroshima, 6 August 2011.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- area bombing
- Manhattan Project
- Operation Thunderclap
- strategic bombing

2 Explain the difference between strategic bombing and area bombing.

3 **a** What were the results of Operation Thunderclap?

b Why did the area bombing of Japanese cities produce such devastating results?

4 **a** Why did US President Roosevelt set up a 'Uranium Advisory Committee'?

b What was the result of the Manhattan Project?

Analysing and evaluating

5 Based on what you know about the course of the war in Europe and the war in the Asia–Pacific, what evidence suggests that the use of area bombing by both Germany and the Allies did not achieve its aims? Express your response to this question in two or three sentences.

6 Re-examine Sources 2.8.2, 2.8.3 and 2.8.4.

a List the kinds of destruction and suffering that both area bombing and atomic bombing caused.

b List the additional consequences of atomic bombing.

7 Form a group of six students. Each person in the group takes the role of one of the following people in late 1950: a teenager in Tokyo who had relatives in Hiroshima, an Australian former prisoner of war, a scientist on the Manhattan Project, a Soviet military officer, the mother of a member of the US Marine Corps, and US President Truman.

a Each character has to prepare their views on the appropriateness of dropping the atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Your character could consider the political, military and economic views as relevant, but must also include their personal and emotional feelings.

b Once you have prepared your roles, conduct a role play as a group in which you have a conversation where, in turn, each character expresses and justifies their views.

c At the end of the role play, as a group, make a list of the points of view of each of the characters. Share the areas of agreement and the issues where you disagree. Try and achieve some common thoughts in your conversation about the correctness or otherwise of the dropping of the bombs.

d Individually, write about 200 words that summarise the areas of agreement and disagreement between characters in your group on the decision to bomb the two cities.



UNIT 9

WORLD WAR II AND AUSTRALIA'S INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

WARTIME RELATIONSHIPS WITH BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES

In late 1939, Australia was an independent country with ties to the British Empire. Australians still had strong economic, cultural, political and emotional relations with Britain. So, mindful of the gravity of the situation, it made sense when Prime Minister Menzies announced in a radio broadcast to the nation:

> *Fellow Australians, it is my melancholy duty to inform you officially that, in consequence of the persistence of Germany in her invasion of Poland, Great Britain has declared war upon her, and that, as a result, Australia is also at war…*

SOURCE 2.9.1 From a speech delivered by Prime Minister Robert Menzies, 3 September 1939

Australian Imperial Force and Australian Military Forces troops were then committed to the Allied war effort in Europe and later North Africa, fighting there for more than two years.

At the same time, Australians saw Britain as their protector within Asia and counted on Britain's strong military presence closer to home. However, the Japanese rapid invasion of the Malay Peninsula, and the subsequent surrender by the commander of Britain's key naval base in Singapore in February 1942, revealed that Britain could not protect its colonial territories in Asia against the Japanese onslaught. It was also not able, therefore, to defend Australia against likely Japanese attack.

By then, following the bombing of Pearl Harbor in December 1941, the United States had declared war on Japan, and Australia's newly elected Prime Minister John Curtin, also declared war on Japan without waiting for Britain to do so. Curtin saw that Australia needed to turn elsewhere to help in its defence, and that the United States would be an agreeable partner. The United States knew that defeating the Japanese would be harder if New Guinea and Australia fell. In a newspaper article, Curtin stated:

> *The Australian Government therefore regards the Pacific struggle as primarily one in which the United States and Australia must have fullest say in the direction of the democracies' fighting plan.*
>
> *Without any inhibitions of any kind, I make it quite clear that Australia looks to America, free of any pangs as to our traditional links or kinship with the United Kingdom.*
>
> *We know the problems that the United Kingdom faces. We know the constant threat of invasion. We know the dangers of dispersal of strength, but we know too, that Australia can go and Britain can still hold on…*
>
> *We are therefore determined that…we shall exert all our energies towards the shaping of a plan, with the United States as a keystone, which will give to our country some confidence of being able to hold out until the tide of battle turns against the enemy.*

SOURCE 2.9.2 From an article written by Prime Minister John Curtin, 27 December 1941

Q
1. **In what ways does Curtin recognise Australia's long-held connections with Britain?**
2. **Give two reasons why Curtin says Australia should work mainly with the United States in a plan to defend Australia against Japanese attack.**

NEW DIRECTION IN FOREIGN POLICY?

Prime Minister Curtin's turning to the United States was opposed by some conservative politicians. For example, according to Robert Menzies:

> *Mr Curtin has made a great blunder if he thinks that the ties between this country and Great Britain are merely traditional. They are real and indissoluble. Australian sentiment will not, in my opinion, tolerate any other view.*

SOURCE 2.9.3 Views expressed by the immediate past prime minister, Robert Menzies, to John Curtin published in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 30 December 1941



SOURCE 2.9.4 General MacArthur, US commander of the Allied Forces in the South-West Pacific (on left), confers with Prime Minister Curtin (on right) at the Advisory War Council meeting at Canberra on 26 March 1942. Held at the Australian War Memorial

DID YOU KNOW?

Although Prime Minister Curtin and General MacArthur respected each other and generally worked well together, the Curtin Government was critical of MacArthur's decisions after 1943, which prevented Australian troops from playing key roles in Japan's eventual defeat. This enabled the United States (and MacArthur) to claim victory on the world stage and Australia's contribution was overshadowed.

DID YOU KNOW?

In the 1950s, even though most Australians felt grateful to the United States, believing that it 'saved' Australia from Japanese invasion, their emotional loyalty was still largely with Britain. Thus, when the newly crowned Queen Elizabeth II visited Australia for two months from February 1954, more than two-thirds of the population turned out to welcome her as she toured more than seventy cities and towns across the country.

Yet in the following months, Australians felt increasingly threatened at home by the bombings of Darwin and the Japanese submarines in Sydney Harbour. They were fearful of the Japanese advance in Rabaul, Timor and New Guinea, so the great majority supported Curtin's position. They welcomed the arrival of General MacArthur as he established the US command base in Australia, first in Melbourne and then in Brisbane.

Historians have debated whether Curtin's statement of December 1941, plus his insistence especially after the fall of Singapore that Australian troops in North Africa be returned to help defend Australia, meant a major redirection in Australian foreign policy. Did Curtin consider that Australia's and Britain's wartime priorities were in conflict? Was Curtin undoing Australia's traditional links with Britain in making a close wartime alliance with the United States? Or was Curtin maintaining Australia's commitment to the British Empire while at the same time making decisions independently of Britain for the sake of Australia's security?

POST-WAR FOREIGN POLICY

After the war, Britain, like other European powers, was unable to regain colonial territory in Asia–Pacific. Australia now stood as an outpost of the British Empire in this region. But the war had taught Australia that its priority in foreign policy had to be its own national interests in the Asia–Pacific region and that this may mean acting separately from Britain. Meanwhile, the United States had emerged from the war as the dominant world power. Australia had become directly allied with it, but as a junior partner with only limited influence.

In the immediate post-war years, the Chifley Labor Government wanted an independent foreign policy that was not closely tied to either Britain or the United States. For example, it supported the national independence movement in the Dutch East Indies, which, by 1949, became Indonesia. However, with the election of the new Menzies Liberal Government in 1949, Australia's foreign policy went back to being closely linked to its 'great and powerful friends': Britain and now the United States. By then, Australia shared with both Britain and the United States a concern about growing communist influence in the Asia–Pacific region, especially now that China had a communist government.

AUSTRALIA AND THE UNITED NATIONS

The outbreak and continuance of World War II had dramatically demonstrated the inability of the League of Nations to maintain peace. During the war years, US President Roosevelt had proposed that a new, more effective international body be established. Work towards this began in April 1945 and at the end of the war, in October 1945, the United Nations (UN) was established. Through its Charter, its main aims were and continue to be:

- to preserve peace and eliminate war
- to remove the causes of conflict by encouraging economic, social, educational, scientific and cultural progress throughout the world, especially in under-developed countries
- to safeguard the rights of all individual human beings, and the rights of peoples and nations.

The Chifley Labor Government gave full support to the new organisation. Former High Court Judge and then Minister for External Affairs, Dr H. V. Evatt, led the Australian delegation at the conference when the UN was set up. Evatt earned international respect as he stood up for the role of small countries (such as Australia), resulting in valuable amendments to the UN Charter. Evatt became the first president of the UN General Assembly in 1948–49. Representing Australia, he was also prominent in negotiations that led to the creation of Israel and in framing the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.



SOURCE 2.9.5 Jessie Street representing Australia at the United Nations, 1945. Held at the National Library of Australia

DID YOU KNOW?

The only woman in the Australian delegation, Jessie Street, also made important contributions to the establishment of the UN. For example, she was co-founder of the UN Commission on the Status of Women and represented Australia on the UN Economic and Social Council.

POST-WAR RELATIONSHIP WITH JAPAN

OCCUPATION AND PEACE TREATY

Following Japan's surrender, it was occupied by Allied forces under the command of US General MacArthur. Britain had hoped that it would share equally with the United States the terms and control of this occupation, but the United States would not agree to this. Allied occupation forces first arrived in Japan in August 1945, made up of almost 1 million US servicemen. These were supported from early 1946 by about 40 000 service personnel comprising the British Commonwealth Occupation Force (BCOF), about one-third of whom were Australians.

The BCOF was commanded by an Australian officer and assigned to the military control of the Hiroshima prefecture. Australian occupation forces remained in Japan until 1952.

During the period of occupation, peace talks eventually resulted in a treaty with Japan, known as the San Francisco Peace Treaty. Though mainly worked out by the United States, it was co-signed in September 1951 by forty-eight countries, among them Australia, and came into force in April 1952. The terms of the treaty, which drew upon the UN Charter and Universal Declaration of Human Rights, included the requirement that Japan pay compensation to Allied prisoners of war through the Red Cross.

DIPLOMATIC AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS

After the war, both the Chifley and Menzies governments viewed it as vital that Australia have closer relationships with what were now called 'our Asian neighbours'. Although many Australians still harboured negative feelings towards Japan because of the war, both governments sought new diplomatic and economic links with Japan. In 1947, Australia established an embassy in Tokyo and in 1953 a Japanese embassy was established in Canberra. During 1957, Menzies became the first Australian prime minister to visit Japan and Japan's prime minister was officially welcomed to Australia.



SOURCE 2.9.6 Two Australian nursing sisters with a Japanese child during the Allied occupation of post-war Japan. Held at the Australian War Memorial

By the late 1950s, Japan had become one of Australia's major trading partners, with Australia keen to export wool and wheat to Japan and to import Japanese-manufactured goods. This trade relationship was formalised in the 1957 Australia–Japan Commerce Agreement.

AUSTRALIA AND THE KOREAN WAR

At the end of World War II, Korea, which had been taken over by Japan, was occupied by Soviet and US troops. Then, in what was intended as a short-term measure, the Korean Peninsula was artificially divided at 38° north latitude into North Korea (supported by the Soviet Union and China) and South Korea (supported by the United States). Following border clashes as each side claimed ownership of the whole country, North Korea invaded South Korea in June 1950. Fear of communist expansion in Asia prompted the United States to use its influence in the UN Security Council, which decided to send a UN force to drive back the North Koreans. This UN force, commanded by US General MacArthur, was made up of troops from fifteen countries, but most were American. Australia too was concerned about communist expansion in Asia, but it was also motivated by its desire to achieve a defence pact with the United States for the Pacific area. Therefore Australia opted to support its ally. It was one of the first countries to contribute to the UN force in Korea.

After prolonged fighting, great loss of life (including nearly 4 million Korean civilians) and devastation of the country due to shelling and bombing, a negotiated ceasefire ended the war in July 1953. The country was left divided just as it had been before. Australia lost 340 troops during the war.

SOURCE 2.9.7 The 3rd Battalion of the Royal Australian Regiment (3RAR), accompanied by South Korean troops, sets off to patrol an area of Korea in October 1950. Held at the Australian War Memorial

ANZUS AND SEATO

In 1951, during the time of the Korean War, a military alliance of Australia, New Zealand and the United States was formed, known as the ANZUS Pact. For Australia at the time, the signing of the ANZUS Pact eased its fears about potential further Japanese aggression in the Pacific area; for the United States, it helped secure Australia's commitment to the US-developed peace treaty with Japan. The pact required each country to 'coordinate their efforts for collective defence for the preservation of peace and security' in the Pacific area. In the context of the Korean War, it directly linked Australia to the United States' aim to 'contain' the spread of communism in the Pacific area. The ANZUS Pact is still central to Australia's current foreign policy.

In 1954, Australia joined with the United States, Britain, New Zealand, France, Pakistan, Thailand and the Philippines to form the South-East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO). Like ANZUS, the basic aim of SEATO was to prevent communist expansion. In South-East Asia, several former European colonies that had been occupied by Japan were now fighting for national independence and communist groups were involved in these nationalist struggles. Under Menzies, Australia viewed SEATO as reaffirming its traditional foreign policy relationship with Britain. Australia would support Britain's concerns in the region and hoped to still count on Britain, as well as the United States, to come to its defence if needed.

In this context, in 1955, Australia sent troops to the former British colony of Malaya to help Britain quell a communist uprising there. Australian troops stayed on until 1962, thereby contributing to the establishment by 1963 of the independent country of Malaysia.



LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Round off your 'Who was who in the context of World War II' table. Include new people and also add to your information about those mentioned in previous units.

2 **a** Identify the circumstances, between late 1939 and early 1942, that made the Australian Government doubt Britain's ability to defend Australia in the Asia–Pacific region.

b List three or more reasons why most Australians supported Australia's alliance with the United States in the months following Prime Minister Curtin's December 1941 statement.

c Explain why the Curtin Government become critical of US General MacArthur's decisions after 1943.

3 **a** List the outcomes of World War II that influenced Australia's foreign policy regarding the Asia–Pacific region.

b Explain how and why Australia's foreign policy regarding the Asia–Pacific region changed when the Menzies Government came to power.

4 **a** In your own words, outline the main aims of the United Nations (UN).

b In point form, list the contributions made to the early years of the UN by Australians Dr H. V. Evatt and Jessie Street.

Understanding and applying

5 **a** Outline Australia's role in the British Commonwealth Occupation Force between 1946 and 1952.

b Explain the significance of the 1951 San Francisco Peace Treaty for former Allied prisoners of war.

c Construct a timeline showing the diplomatic and economic links between Australia and Japan from 1947 to 1957.

d Compare the relationship between Australia and Japan in 1947 and 1957.

6 With a map of the Korean Peninsula at its centre, make a mind map that summarises the Korean War. Include:

- the circumstances that led to the war
- the main countries involved
- the reasons for Australia's part in it
- the outcomes of the war.

7 **a** Explain how signing the ANZUS Pact benefited Australia.

b Define the central aim of the ANZUS Pact.

c Explain how the ANZUS Pact influenced Australian participation in the Korean War.

d List the member nations of SEATO in 1954.

e Define the central aim of SEATO.

f Describe two reasons why joining SEATO was important to Australia.

Analysing and creating

8 Imagine you are Prime Minister Curtin, leading Australia through a difficult period during World War II. You have been keeping a diary to record your experiences as prime minister. You have just read the *Sydney Morning Herald* on 30 December 1941. Write a diary entry in response to Menzies' view that you have made a serious mistake. Include your thoughts on:

- your current challenges and responsibilities as prime minister
- Australia's relationships with Britain and the United States in the past, the present and the near future.

Analysing and evaluating

9 **a** In point form, list the evidence presented throughout this unit that supports the argument that, after 1941, Australia's relationship with the United States became more significant than that with Britain.

b In point form, list the evidence presented throughout this unit that supports the argument that, in the immediate post-war years, Australia maintained a strong relationship with Britain.

c When you have finished, compare your lists with a classmate's.



SOURCE 2.9.8 Prime Minister Menzies with Queen Elizabeth II during the Royal Tour of Australia in 1954. They are arriving at the State Ball in Canberra; the Duke of Edinburgh (Prince Philip) follows with Dame Pattie Menzies. Prime Minister Menzies was proud to be a great supporter of Britain and the British monarchy.

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 Life profile

Look back at your 'Who was who in the context of World War II' table. Choose one person whose life you would like to find out more about. Using the internet and library resources, research:

- the person's family background and early life
- their teenage and young adult years
- their education and occupation(s)
- their personality and interests
- how and why they became involved in the war
- what their life was like during the war
- if they lived on, what their life was like after the war.

In your research, gather and examine as much primary source evidence as you can. Then construct a well-organised, carefully written profile of that person that includes primary sources with helpful captions. Present your profile in a format approved by your teacher.

#2 Teenager's letters

In Australia during the World War II years, not many people had telephones at home and modern forms of communication such as text messaging and social networking were not yet invented. People kept in touch with family and friends who lived somewhere else by writing letters.

Imagine you are a teenager in Australia who was 13 years old when war broke out in September 1939, and 19 years old when the war finally ended in August 1945. You have a pen-pal who lives in another part of Australia. Write extracts from some of the letters you sent to your pen-pal over that period of time. In these extracts, you talk about what people you know—members of your family, friends and neighbours—are experiencing and what your thoughts are about this.

Before you get started, work out a personal profile that will give you lots of things to write about. For example:

- What changes are occurring in each of your parents' occupations?
- How do different wartime controls affect everyday life?
- Do you have a brother fighting in North Africa?
- Does that brother then go to fight in the Asia–Pacific?
- Do you have an uncle or aunt who has become a prisoner of war?
- Do you have a sister who is going out with a US soldier?
- Do you have a neighbour who has been interned?
- Do you keep track of the course of the war at home and overseas (Europe and the Asia–Pacific) by listening to the radio or reading the newspapers?

If you can, enclose photos or drawings with the extracts of the letters.

INQUIRY TASKS

#3 TV feature

Do this activity in a group of five or six students. It is 1957 and although television is still in its infancy in Australia it already has some good special feature programs. One of these is titled 'Consequences of World War II for the Twentieth-century World'.

In the program, a number of invited guests are interviewed by the panel host about the long-term consequences of the war from their perspectives. The invited guests are:

- a former member of the Australian Women's Land Army
- a Holocaust survivor who has immigrated to Australia
- an Australian member of the British Commonwealth Occupation Force in Hiroshima Prefecture from 1946 to 1952
- a member of the Australian delegation to the United Nations in 1946
- another appropriate guest chosen by your teacher or your group.

One student takes the part of the panel host who interviews the guests. The panel host has to prepare two questions to ask per invited guest.

Each other student takes the role of one of the invited guests. Each invited guest needs to prepare a list of their relevant experiences, with thoughts about how those experiences influence their views about the long-term consequences of the war.

When the panel discussion program takes place, as well as responding to the host's questions, the invited guests can give their perspectives on what other guests may say.

#4 Design a war memorial

As part of the seventieth anniversary of the end of World War II, the major combatants have each decided to erect a new memorial to mark the end of the war in a central place in their country's capital city. Australia has also been invited to prepare a memorial on this occasion.

Memorials are to be erected in the capital cities of the following countries:

- Great Britain
- Russia (the major part of the former Soviet Union)
- France
- Germany
- Italy
- United States of America
- Japan
- Australia.

Each country will be allocated to a group in the class, which has won the tender for the design of the memorial in that particular country.

Prepare a multimedia presentation to present to the government of your group's allocated country. This presentation will show aspects of the final design of your memorial, including the reasons for the design. Your memorial must address at least two of the following:

a your country's part in causing the war, or in some part of the war's expansion

b some major features of the war that affected your country, or in which your country was involved

c your country's part in the end of the war, or the way it has been influenced by the outcome of the war

d a reference to the major wartime leader of your country.



SOURCE **2.10.1**

United Nations meeting in progress, January 1946. Andrei Gromyko, Soviet Ambassador to the United States and leading Soviet delegate to the United Nations, addresses the General Assembly from the rostrum.

CHAPTER 3

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- How did the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights come about? Why was it important?
- What were key features and achievements of the US Civil Rights movement? Did these influence the struggles of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples?
- What have been the main aims, methods and events in the struggles for rights and freedoms by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples?
- Who have been significant individuals and groups in the struggles for the rights and freedoms of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples?

DEPTH STUDY 2
RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

When the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights proclaimed in 1948 that 'all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights', it signalled its support for the rights and freedoms of oppressed groups throughout the world. Two such groups that already had long histories of struggle were African Americans and Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. At the same time as the US Civil Rights movement was gathering force in the 1950s and 1960s, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples renewed their efforts to overcome generations of dispossession and inequality. Although much has been achieved, the struggles for rights and freedoms by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples have continued into the twenty-first century.

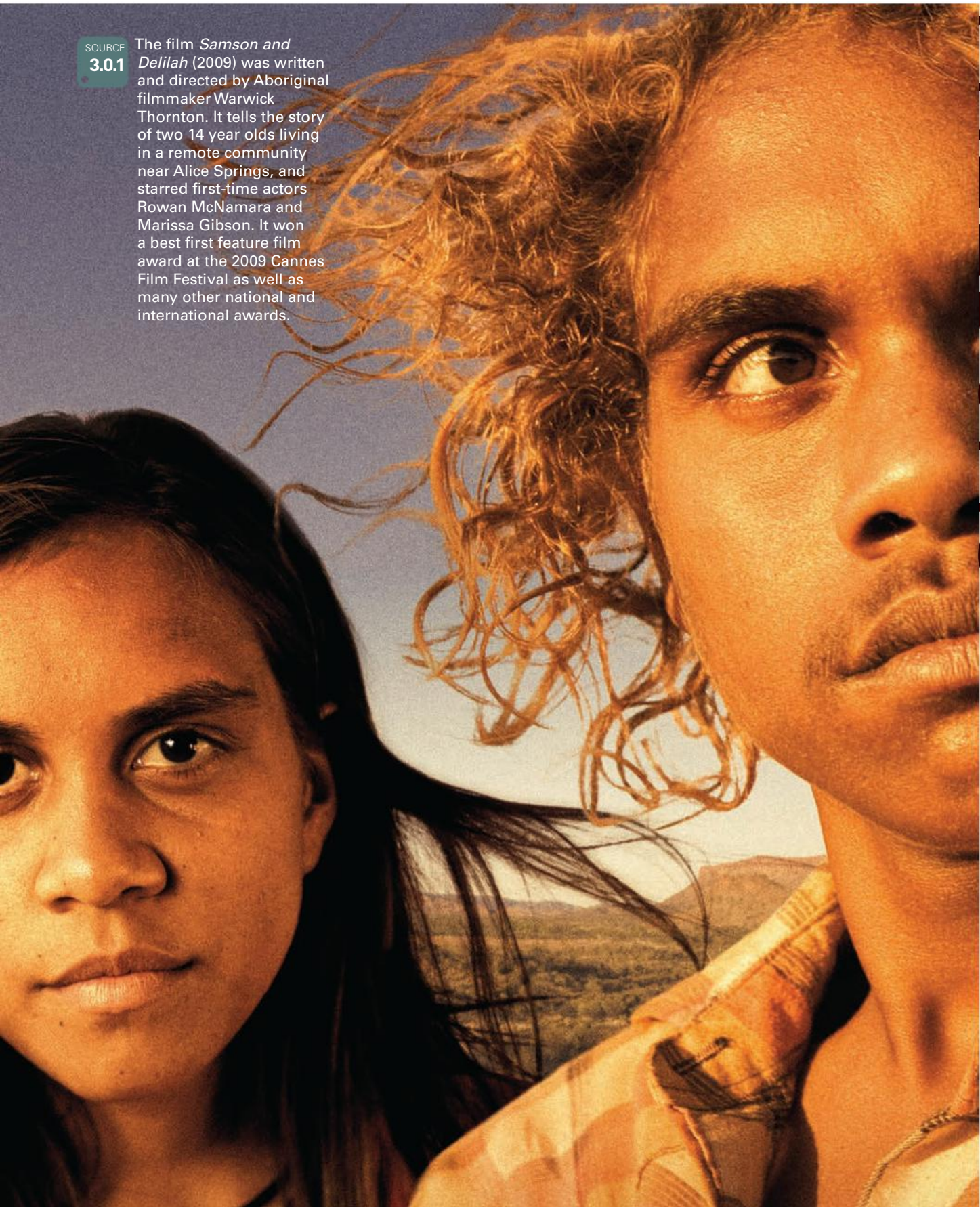
Pearson respects Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures and beliefs. To many communities, it is distressing to show images of people who have died. These communities are warned that this chapter does contain such images.







RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS



SOURCE **3.0.1**

The film *Samson and Delilah* (2009) was written and directed by Aboriginal filmmaker Warwick Thornton. It tells the story of two 14 year olds living in a remote community near Alice Springs, and starred first-time actors Rowan McNamara and Marissa Gibson. It won a best first feature film award at the 2009 Cannes Film Festival as well as many other national and international awards.

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1902–the present

SOURCE 3.1.1 Timeline of significant rights and freedoms events for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, African Americans and indigenous populations

Brown Australian events
Blue US events
Red Global events

1902 *Commonwealth Franchise Act* denies Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples the right to vote in federal elections

1909 National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) is founded, initially in response to lynchings across USA

1925 Australian Aboriginal Progress Association (AAPA) is established

1932 Australian Aborigines League (AAL) is formed

1937 Aborigines Progressive Association (APA) is formed; state governments follow policies of assimilation

1938 Australia Day: first 'Day of Mourning' is held

1939 Cummeragunja Walk-off takes place

1942 Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) is formed

1948 UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights is adopted

1949 Commonwealth *Nationality and Citizenship Act* establishes the category of 'Australian' citizenship for all Australians, including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples

1954 US Supreme Court ruling makes segregated schools illegal

1955 British nuclear tests begin at Maralinga in South Australia

1955 Citywide bus boycott in Montgomery, Alabama, is led by Martin Luther King, Jr

1957 Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI) is established

1957 Federal troops are called in to protect African-American students enrolled at Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas

1900 1920 1940

WHAT RIGHTS? WHAT FREEDOMS?

The idea that groups of people had certain kinds of rights and freedoms dates back to ancient times. However, with the coming of the modern age, the idea of universal human rights and freedoms began to evolve. During the late eighteenth century, Enlightenment thinkers argued that, as human beings, all people had the same basic rights to equality and freedom, no matter what their place in society.

It was also during this period that the idea of the nation-state gained prominence as the way for a whole society to be organised: as a community of citizens. So the idea of human rights and the idea of the nation-state became linked together. Both the American Revolution of 1776 and the French Revolution of 1789 were based on the linking of these two ideas. The new nation-states that were achieved by these revolutions—the United States of America and the republic of France—entitled their citizens to certain basic rights and freedoms.



1960 Sit-in protests against segregation begin

1961 'Freedom rides' begin, testing segregation on interstate buses

1962 *Commonwealth Electoral Act* is amended to allow Aboriginal adults the vote at federal elections

1963 Civil rights demonstration in Birmingham, Alabama, receives national publicity; March on Washington political demonstration takes place

1963 Yirrkala Aboriginal petition against mining on traditional land is sent to the House of Representatives

1964 Freedom Summer: civil rights activists encourage African Americans to register to vote; US Congress passes Civil Rights Act

1965 'Freedom ride' takes place in northern New South Wales; federal government replaces assimilation policy with integration policy

1965 US Congress passes Voting Rights Act

1966 Wave Hill strike begins

1966 Black Panther Party for Self-Defence is established

1967 Federal referendum enables the Commonwealth Government to make laws for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples

1968 Martin Luther King, Jr is assassinated; US Congress Civil Rights Act bans segregation in housing

1972 Aboriginal 'Tent Embassy' is erected outside Parliament House, Canberra; Whitlam Labor Government announces policy of self-determination

1974 Woodward Royal Commission on Aboriginal land rights is released

1975 Federal government passes *Racial Discrimination Act*

1976 Fraser Liberal Government passes the *Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act*

1985 Uluru is handed back to its traditional owners

1987 Royal Commission is appointed to investigate Aboriginal deaths in custody

1991 Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation is established; report of the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody is released

1992 Federal High Court hands down the Mabo judgment

1994 Keating Labor Government introduces the *Native Title Act*

1995 Keating Labor Government establishes the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families

1996 High Court hands down the Wik judgment

1997 *Bringing them home* report on the Stolen Generations is released; Howard Liberal-National Party Government's 'Ten-Point Plan' is proposed

2000 Corroboree walk across the Sydney Harbour Bridge is held

2007 UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples is adopted

2008 Labor Prime Minister Kevin Rudd formally apologises to the Stolen Generations

1960 1980 2000

SOURCE 3.1.2

Martin Luther King, Jr waves from the Lincoln Memorial to participants of the March on Washington, 28 August 1963. It was from this position that he gave his famous 'I Have a Dream' speech.



When the leaders of the new nation, the United States of America, declared its independence, they stated that:

> *We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.*

SOURCE 3.1.3 From the US Declaration of Independence, 4 July 1776

To better explain these rights, the new nation soon provided its citizens with a Bill of Rights. For example, its first statement read:

> *Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.*

SOURCE 3.1.4 From the US Bill of Rights, Amendment I, 25 September 1789

The leaders of the new French nation put forward a Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. Its first two articles read:

> 1 *Men are born and remain free and equal in rights. Social distinctions may be based only on considerations of the common good.*
>
> 2 *The aim of every political association is the preservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man. These rights are Liberty, Property, Safety and Resistance to Oppression.*

SOURCE 3.1.5 From the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, 26 August 1789

In the context of their times, these statements of rights and freedoms took for granted certain limits. For example, women were regarded as having an inferior place in society compared with men, and in the United States slaves imported from Africa had no rights or freedoms at all. Nevertheless, the basic rights and freedoms defined by these two new nations in the late eighteenth century set the standard for thinking about human rights and freedoms through the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries. One feature of these two centuries was the struggles by oppressed groups for human rights and freedoms. Such struggles have continued into the twenty-first century.



SOURCE 3.1.6 *Declaration of Independence*, by John Trumbull, oil on canvas, 1819. In this painting, Thomas Jefferson is presenting the document to John Hancock, president of the Congress, at Independence Hall, Philadelphia, 4 July 1776. John Adams, Roger Sherman, Robert Livingston and Benjamin Franklin are standing with Jefferson. The original artwork hangs in the US Capitol.

UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS



During World War II (1939–45), US President Franklin Roosevelt proposed the establishment of a new international body to replace the League of Nations. At war's end, this new body—the United Nations (UN) Organisation—was established in October 1945. Its Charter obligations were and continue to be:

- to preserve peace and eliminate war
- to remove the causes of conflict by encouraging economic, social, educational, scientific and cultural progress throughout the world, especially in under-developed countries
- to safeguard the rights of all individual human beings, and the rights of peoples and nations.

The unprecedented terror and destruction of life brought by the war itself had prompted the third aim to recognise and protect the rights of individual human beings, peoples and nations. An estimated 50 to 70 million people, most of whom were civilians, had been killed during World War II. This number includes about 6 million Jews who perished in the Holocaust. The post-war revelations of the Nazis' systematic persecution and murder of European Jewry gave rise to the UN Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide in 1948. These revelations gave particular force to the UN's concern to define and protect an agreed set of **universal human rights**.

DRAFTING AND ADOPTING THE DECLARATION

In 1946, the first session of the UN General Assembly considered a draft 'Declaration on Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms'. The General Assembly referred this to a Commission on Human Rights for review and refinement. The commission consisted of eighteen members representing the United States, Britain, France, the Soviet Union and China as well as other countries, including Australia. The members came from a range of religious, cultural and political backgrounds. Eight members of this commission formed a drafting committee that wrote the wording for the declaration. The US Government appointed Eleanor Roosevelt, the widow of President Franklin Roosevelt who had died in 1945, to head of the drafting committee.

Between 1947 and 1948, the committee drafted and re-drafted the '**Articles**' of the declaration. These articles were statements outlining the civil, political, social and economic rights to which every person was entitled, meaning they were universal in nature. By the time the final draft was submitted to the UN General Assembly on 10 December 1948, it had been amended more than 160 times during at least eighty-one meetings. There were only two days left before the General Assembly finished for the year and no more amendments were proposed that would have further delayed the passing of this important document. Six communist countries—the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, Byelorussia, Poland, the Ukraine and Yugoslavia—abstained from voting for the declaration along with South Africa and Saudi Arabia. The other forty-eight nations of the Assembly voted in favour of it.



SOURCE 3.2.1 It is said that Eleanor Roosevelt regarded her involvement in establishing the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights as one of her greatest accomplishments. Held at the US National Archives

DID YOU KNOW?

Prior to her role with the United Nations, Eleanor Roosevelt was active in other organisations that worked to improve the economic and social rights of disadvantaged people in the United States. She was an early member of the New York Junior League, which assisted poor people in the slums of New York. She was also a member of the Women's Trade Union League in the 1920s, and supported the rights of African Americans during the 1930s and early 1940s. She received a standing ovation from the General Assembly when the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted.

ARTICLES OF THE DECLARATION

The first ten articles of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights indicate the key rights it seeks to protect.

1 *All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.*

2 *Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.*

3 *Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.*

4 *No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.*

5 *No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.*

6 *Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.*

7 *All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.*

8 *Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.*

9 *No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.*

10 *Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair, and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.*

SOURCE 3.2.3 From the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

On 10 December 1948, the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the General Assembly. December 10 is celebrated as Human Rights Day around the world. The declaration is written in more than 360 languages and is used by various UN organisations to help people and countries understand what the international community has determined as the human rights all people are entitled to. It also became a point of reference for later international agreements, such as the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.



SOURCE 3.2.2 Australia's Minister for External Affairs, Dr H. V. Evatt, signs the United Nations Charter, 1948.

Q
1. List the types of rights that are emphasised in the first ten articles of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
2. Look at the order in which these rights are listed. Give reasons why you think they are in this order.
3. Do you think some of the rights listed are more important than others? Explain your reasoning.
4. Write some quotes or words that show this document is 'universal'; that is, it applies to everyone in its application.
5. Are there places in this document where the wording does not seem 'universal'? Why do you think this is the case? (Think about the era in which this document was written.)

AUSTRALIA'S ROLE

Australia's Minister for External Affairs Dr H. V. Evatt played a significant role as a delegate in the formation of the UN and later as president of the General Assembly. From the beginning, Evatt stressed the importance of including human rights in the UN Charter and even proposed an international human rights treaty to which all member nations would be legally bound. This was rejected at first, but when the UN was actually established, the relevance of a human rights declaration became more apparent. The appointment of an experienced Australian diplomat, William Hodgson, to the drafting committee was largely due to Evatt's enthusiasm for a human rights treaty. Evatt was president of the General Assembly when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was presented and adopted.

INITIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DECLARATION

The UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights came at an important time in the historical development of new countries. In the post–World War II years, a number of countries that were controlled by European powers were asserting their right to national self-determination. With its emphasis on equal rights, democracy, and freedom from servitude and discrimination, the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights added moral authority to nationalists' demands for decolonisation. As an international organisation, the UN acted as a sort of 'umpire' that in several cases recognised the rightness of the nationalists' claims and helped such colonies to become independent countries.

Another example of the significance of the declaration in the post-war years can be found in the Anti-Apartheid movement in South Africa. In 1955, the African National Congress (ANC) brought together a number of organisations opposed to Apartheid and lobbied for a multiracial Congress of the People. Its purpose was to write a political charter outlining the rights and aspirations of all South Africans. The final version of what became known as the Freedom Charter contained statements about human rights and democracy similar to those in the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The South African Government declared the Congress to be treason, banned the ANC and arrested its key activists, including Nelson Mandela. However, over the next three decades the Charter was secretly circulated, helping keep alive the Anti-Apartheid movement.

Mandela was finally freed in 1990 and, following the 1994 democratic elections, the ANC led by Mandela came to power in the South African Government. The new Constitution of South Africa included in its text many of the statements listed in the 1955 Freedom Charter, which was strongly influenced by the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights.



SOURCE 3.2.4 Nelson Mandela and his wife at the time, Winnie, salute the crowd upon Mandela's release from prison, 11 February 1990.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- Articles (of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights)
- universal human rights

2 Give two reasons why the United Nations saw the need for an agreed statement of human rights.

3 What roles did Eleanor Roosevelt and Dr H. V. Evatt play in the establishment of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

4 In your own words, explain two ways in which the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights influenced international developments in the post-war years.

Analysing and evaluating

5 a Why do you think countries from a range of religious, cultural and political backgrounds were chosen to be involved in writing the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

b Suggest some examples of other countries not listed in the text that could have made up the eighteen member commission.

6 a Why do you think South Africa, Saudi Arabia and some communist countries abstained from voting in favour of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948?

b Find out if they are signatories today and, if they are, when they became signatories.

Evaluating and creating

7 a Use the internet and other sources to find 3–5 recent examples, either within Australia or in other countries, where the rights listed in the first ten articles of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights have been violated.

b Choose one example that you are interested in to research further and write a feature newspaper article that explains the human rights violation, what (if anything) is being done about it, and what ordinary citizens can do to help.



AFRICAN AMERICANS PRIOR TO 1945

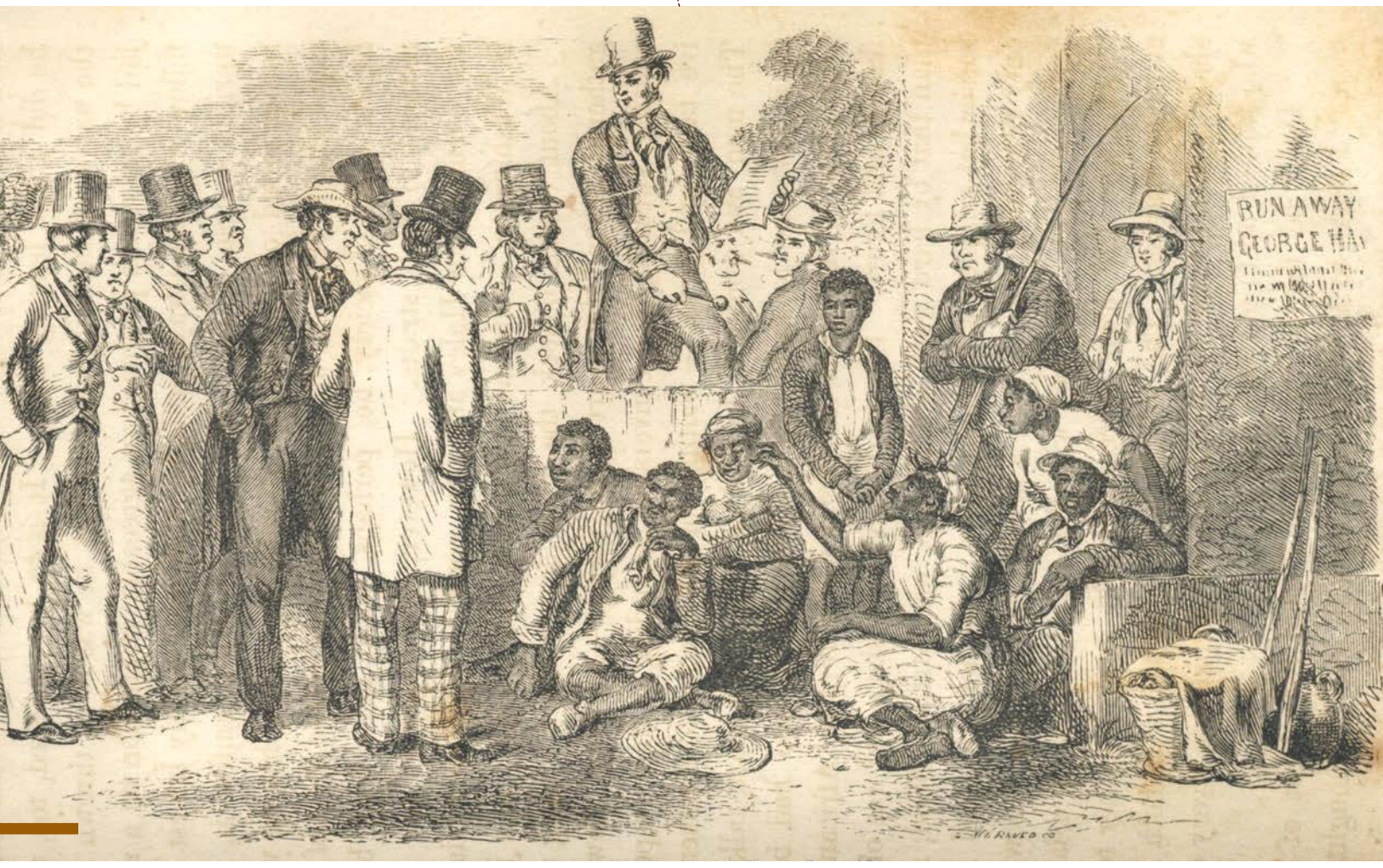
The modern movement for the rights and freedoms of African Americans—the **US Civil Rights movement**—emerged in the decade after the end of World War II and gathered force during the 1960s. To understand this movement, it is important to look back at earlier times.

LEGACY OF SLAVERY

African Americans were transported as slaves to US colonies from around 1619 to fill a widening labour shortage. Agriculture, particularly for export, dominated the Southern colonies of Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina and Georgia. In this region, cotton, tobacco, rice and indigo (a blue dye) grew very well but were labour intensive crops to plant, maintain and harvest. African slaves were cheaper labour over time than indentured or paid workers from Europe.

In the Northern colonies, a colder climate meant that grain crops such as wheat, oats, rye and barley were more commonly grown. These were less labour intensive and could be planted on smaller farms. A manufacturing industry also developed with the greater need for fishing, shipping and the export of timber or surplus agriculture products that could not be sold domestically. Thus from the beginning a division developed between the Northern and Southern regions of the United States. The North became more industrialised and diversified in its trade with Europe, while the South continued along the track of agriculture and became more dependent on a slave population to produce high yields of cheap crops for export.

SOURCE 3.3.1 A slave market, from an illustration in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, by Harriet Beecher Stowe, first published in 1852



After the American colonies declared their independence from Britain and successfully fought the War of Independence (1775–83), they had no intention of abandoning slavery. The economy of the new nation, the United States of America, depended on it. So although the Declaration of Independence stated that 'all men are created equal', this was not meant to include slaves, and slaves were not counted as citizens with entitlements specified in the new US Bill of Rights.

CONDITIONS UNDER SLAVERY

Slaves would be sold to the highest bidder at a slave auction in which potential owners would inspect their teeth, limbs and genitals to determine their health and fitness. They worked in a range of situations, but the majority laboured on large farms or plantations. Slaves usually worked 11 hours a day, 6 days a week in the fields for no pay. Their housing consisted of log cabins with dirt floors and minimal furniture or bedding. On average, six to twelve slaves lived in each one-room cabin. Some were lucky and worked in the 'Great Houses' of the wealthy plantation owners doing domestic work or trades for their master. To learn a skill was seen as an advantage, but this was restricted to only a few slaves; the majority worked in the fields picking cotton or tobacco or growing crops.

Slaves were not allowed to own property or give evidence against 'white' people (descended from European colonists) in court cases. They could marry but these marriages were not legally recognised, meaning that husbands and wives could be sold off or separated. The children from slave marriages could be sold as well and when this happened most children never saw their parents again. Slaves were not allowed to go to school or learn to read. They could not leave the plantation or farm without permission and if they ran away would be hunted down and punished. There were no laws that governed how slaves could be treated by their owners because slaves were regarded as their property. Whippings, amputations of an ear or hand, burying alive or hanging, were all punishments slaves could receive.

OPPOSITION TO SLAVERY

Anti-slavery movements developed first in Britain and later in the United States, bringing attention to the inhumane treatment many slaves received. In 1807, slavery was abolished in Britain but it took a further sixty years to intercept illegal ships and eradicate the slave trade. By the 1820s and 1830s, Americans such as Benjamin Lundy and William Lloyd Garrison were willing to speak and write publicly about the appalling treatment of slaves. The New England Anti-Slavery Society (1831) and American Anti-Slavery Society (1833) were both created through the initiative of Garrison, and both organisations began in the North to abolish slavery across the United States. People and organisations that agitated to abolish slavery were called **abolitionists**.

DID YOU KNOW?

The actions of professional slave catchers to hunt down and return fugitive slaves led to the formation of the **Underground Railroad**. Abolitionists would provide a safe house for slaves that planned to flee their masters and act as 'conductors', passing them from one house to another until they reached the Northern states or Canada where slavery did not exist.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE CIVIL WAR

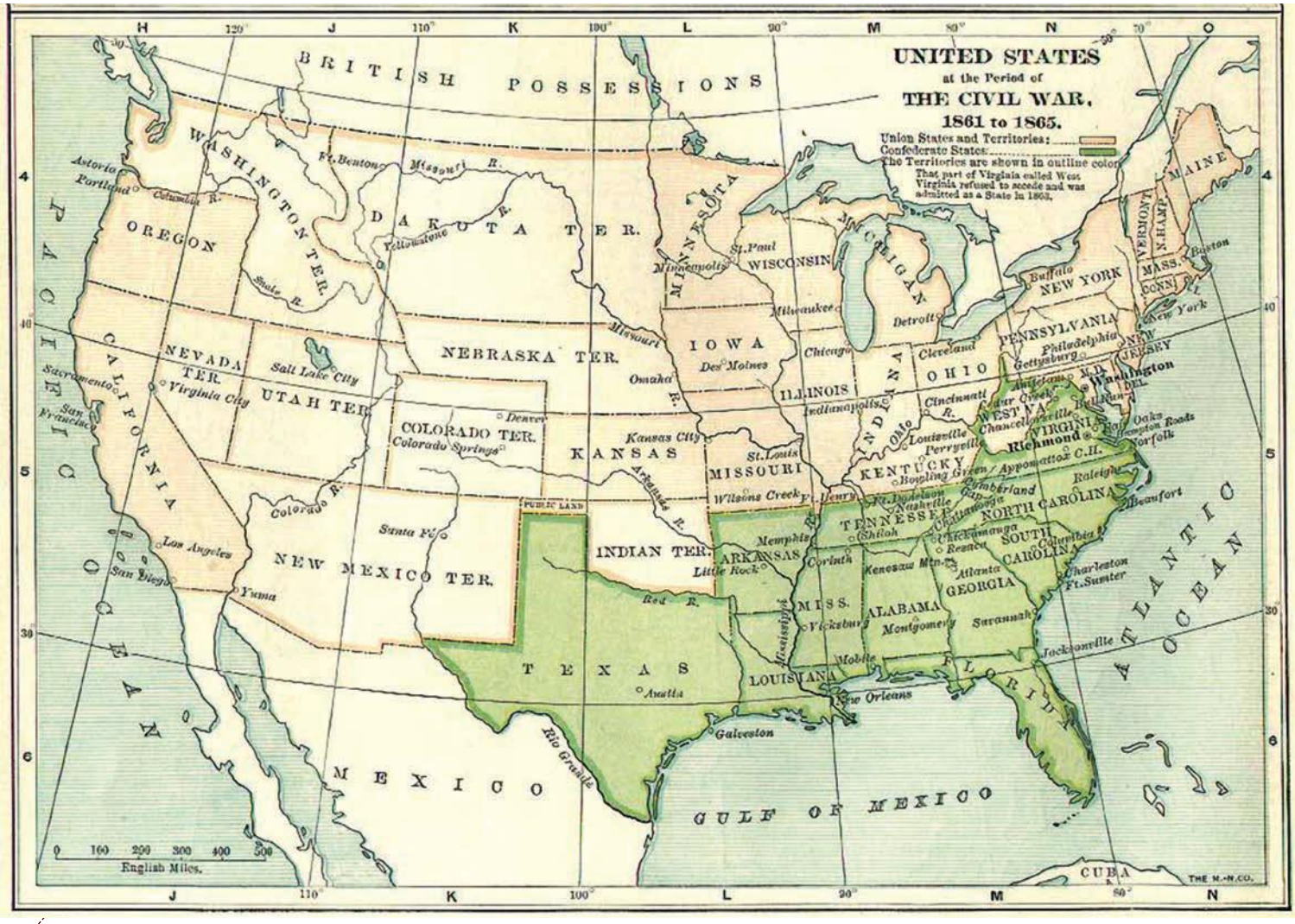
In 1861, a civil war between the Northern (Union) and Southern (Confederate) states broke out partly because of their different attitudes to the idea of slavery. Northern states that were more industrialised and relied less on slave labour supported the abolitionist cause. Southern states opposed abolition because slavery was the mainstay of their agriculture-based economies. President Abraham Lincoln fought a political and military battle for four years to keep the states united over the issue. By 1865, the eleven Southern states that supported slavery were defeated.

Laws were passed by the federal government that abolished slavery and gave some rights to African Americans. These were amendments to the **Constitution** (a document that sets out the rules of how a government should function in society). The Thirteenth Amendment (1865) abolished slavery across all of the United States. The Fourteenth Amendment (1868) gave all African Americans the right to citizenship and the Fifteenth Amendment (1870) gave all adult African-American men the right to vote. Yet these changes did not mean that African Americans were now free and equal. The quest for equality was just beginning.

SEGREGATION AND THE 'JIM CROW' LAWS

The term **segregate** means to separate one group from another. Southern states segregated African Americans from the white population through a series of laws passed by their own state governments between 1870 and 1900. Gradually, African Americans found that they were not able to go to the same hospitals, schools or churches, or use the same drinking taps, toilets, train carriages or bus seats as white people. They could not even be buried in the same cemeteries.

In 1896, Supreme Court judges ruled that segregation was acceptable if facilities were equally provided for both races. The 'separate but equal ruling' effectively made segregation legal. This decision led to an increase in segregation laws, which became known as the **'Jim Crow' laws**. 'Jim Crow' laws became common throughout the country. It was very difficult for African Americans to oppose these laws. As well as being legally punished if they did, they were subject to persecution by sections of the white society.



SOURCE 3.3.2 Map showing the division between the Confederate and Union states of the US Civil War (1861–65). From *The Century Atlas of the World*, The Century Co., New York, 1900

Q **Using the map, identify which states were in favour of slavery and which opposed it.**

THE KU KLUX KLAN

The **Ku Klux Klan** was a white supremacist group; that is, they believed that the white race was superior to all others. Formed in Pulaski, Tennessee in 1866, the group was behind many of the vicious attacks on African Americans that occurred over the next eighty years. The act of **lynching** African Americans grew significantly in the South. Lynching involved a combination of whipping, hanging, mutilating and burning an African-American person said to have done something wrong. Because most members of the white community supported the views of the Ku Klux Klan or feared them, the perpetrators were rarely arrested. Other activities by the Ku Klux Klan included the burning of houses, churches and shops owned by African Americans.

THE GREAT MIGRATION

From around 1910, increasing numbers of African Americans moved North to work in factories. Slowing European migration around the 1920s and the need for cheap labour meant that job prospects were better in the Northern states. A level of prejudice remained though. African Americans still found that they were restricted to poorly paid jobs, housing in run-down neighbourhoods and that their children were still segregated in schools. As in the South, barriers to advancement and racial tensions existed. Ghettos developed where African Americans lived and socialised together. In these communities, an African-American culture developed in which jazz music was born.

This migration of African Americans from the Southern to the Northern states was accelerated during the World War II years when their labour in factories was crucial to the war effort. This was also a time, however, of increased racial prejudice and violence in some Northern cities.



SOURCE 3.3.3 Man drinking at a water cooler reserved for 'Colored' people in Oklahoma, 1939. Held at the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C., USA

Q What does this source reveal about the degree to which African Americans were segregated?

WORLD WARS I AND II

African-American men served in both World War I and World War II. However, they were not a part of integrated military units. During World War II, some African Americans were trained in specialist areas, such as aviation, as the demands on manpower grew; thus creating a greater sense of recognition and purpose. Others received medals for distinguished service in the army or air force. Yet most of the African Americans who served in World War II experienced racism, were often denied promotions and were allocated the most menial of tasks. Just after the war, in 1948, President Harry Truman signed an Executive Order to gradually disband segregated units.

THE NAACP

One of the earliest organised attempts to achieve equality for African Americans was the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). William E. B. Du Bois (a Harvard University scholar) was dismayed by the lack of educational opportunities for young African Americans and the obstacles they faced in utilising the right to vote. He was also disturbed by the continued racial violence against African Americans. The NAACP was formed at a meeting in New York in 1909 attended by Du Bois, Mary White Ovington, Oswald Garrison Villard (the grandson of abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison), John Dewey (a philosopher) and several others.

Between 1909 and 1945, the NAACP established its own magazine *The Crisis*, conducted a thirty-year campaign against lynching, and became a legal advocate in court cases regarding the right to vote, employment, and segregation under the 'Jim Crow' laws. NAACP leaders also met with Eleanor Roosevelt during the 1930s and 1940s to enlist her support for the removal of discrimination in the armed forces, defence industries and government employment. The NAACP went on to be a vital force in the US Civil Rights movement in the decades after World War II.



SOURCE 3.3.4 National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) Youth Council members pose on a building stairway in the 1930s.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- abolitionists
- Constitution
- 'Jim Crow' laws
- Ku Klux Klan
- lynching
- segregate
- Underground Railroad
- US Civil Rights movement

2 List and explain the laws that were passed after the US Civil War. Did these changes give African Americans equal rights?

3 In your own words, explain the 'separate but equal ruling' of 1896.

Understanding and evaluating

4 **a** Why was there a difference in the use of slaves in the Northern and Southern states of the United States?

b How might this have affected their attitudes towards slavery?

5 **a** What was the outcome of the US Civil War for African-American people and for the Southern states?

b How do you think this would have affected relations between:

i the North and the South

ii white Americans and African Americans living in the South.

6 How did migration to the Northern states and World War II change the identity of African-American people?

Applying and creating

7 Use the internet and other sources to find out more about the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and its main founder, William E. B. Du Bois. Working in a group of three or four, create a multimedia presentation to show to the class that outlines:

a the events that led to the formation of this organisation

b the founders of the NAACP and their backgrounds

c the campaigns the organisation initiated between 1909 and 1945 to advance the cause of equality

d the obstacles faced as an organisation

e the effectiveness of this organisation in improving human rights at the time.



US CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT

By the 1950s and 1960s, African-American activist groups set out to overturn the 'Jim Crow' laws that enforced the segregation of races in most aspects of US life. While different 'Jim Crow' laws existed across the US states, they were most prevalent and most rigidly enforced in the Southern states. Despite the 1896 Supreme Court 'separate but equal' ruling, the 'Jim Crow' laws resulted in inferior conditions for African Americans in a number of key areas, such as education. They therefore compounded the economic and social disadvantages experienced by the great majority of African Americans.

Attempts to abolish the 'Jim Crow' laws sparked the modern US Civil Rights movement. The courageous efforts of a few inspired greater numbers of people from both races to stand up for African Americans and their right to participate equally in all areas of society. This unit focuses on the methods used by US Civil Rights activists to achieve their aims and the effectiveness of these methods in the period from the early 1950s through to 1968.



SOURCE 3.4.1 Elizabeth Eckford entering Little Rock Central High School, September 1957

Q
1. **Closely examine the faces of the different people in the photo. What emotions do you believe each person is feeling?**
2. **What beliefs about the situation do you think made each person feel this way?**
3. **What would life at school have been like for Elizabeth Eckford? Explain your answer.**

ATTEMPTS TO DESEGREGATE EDUCATION

Thurgood Marshall, who was the legal director for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), saw an opportunity to challenge segregated schooling when, in 1950, Reverend Oliver Brown was not allowed on the basis of race to enrol his daughter in an 'all-white' primary school in Topeka, Kansas. Brown and seven other families sued the Topeka Board of Education; when they lost, they appealed to the US Supreme Court. Persuaded by Marshall's arguments, the Supreme Court unanimously ruled on 17 May 1954 that segregation of schooling come to an end. The court ordered school districts to **desegregate** and, by the end of 1955, over 500 schools were integrated; that is, no longer segregated.

However, many Southern states saw the Supreme Court ruling as the end of the 'Jim Crow' laws and they refused to comply. In these states there was also an increase in racial violence and intimidation. In 1955, the Supreme Court ruled that states did not have to desegregate schools immediately. So progress towards desegregated schooling in the South was slow.

In one case, in 1957, nine African-American students enrolled at the 'whites-only' Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas. On the day of their arrival, the governor of Arkansas ordered the Arkansas National Guard to block the students' entry. An angry mob supported the governor's action and, over the coming weeks, the offices of the city school board were bombed and teachers who refused to agree with segregation were dismissed. President Dwight Eisenhower eventually intervened. Federal troops were sent in to escort the students to school and to their classes for a whole year before the local community accepted the results of the Supreme Court ruling. Other high schools in Little Rock were not integrated until 1962.

BUS BOYCOTTS

The NAACP targeted public transport as another area of desegregation. On 1 December 1955, Rosa Parks, an African-American seamstress and a member of the local NAACP, followed segregation rules and sat towards the rear of a bus in Montgomery, Alabama. As more white passengers boarded the bus she was asked to move further back. She quietly refused and was arrested. The NAACP paid her bail until the hearing date and then organised a boycott of all the buses in Montgomery—African-American people refused to ride the buses until they were desegregated. Since 75 per cent of bus passengers were African-American and, despite hardship and intimidation, their boycott lasted more than a year.

The Montgomery **bus boycott** attracted national and international attention and the bus companies were dealt a serious economic blow, especially when bus boycotts began in other cities. After negotiations between the bus companies, Montgomery city councillors and the boycott organisers faltered, the Supreme Court once more intervened and ruled on 13 November 1956 that the segregation of buses was unconstitutional and ordered Montgomery to desegregate its buses. This did not end racial violence or segregation in other areas of Montgomery life. Yet the success of the Montgomery bus boycott led to increased membership of the NAACP and encouraged further actions across the country.

MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR

One of the instigators of the Montgomery bus boycott was Martin Luther King, Jr. At the time, he was 26 years old and had recently become the pastor of a major Baptist church in Montgomery. At university, King had studied theories of spiritual values related to social justice issues; however, the most important influence on King was Mohandas Karamchand (Mahatma) Gandhi, who had led India's movement to national independence. King saw Gandhi's non-violent protests as a model for effective strategies African Americans could use to overcome the systematic injustices and racism they experienced. In 1957, King helped found a group of activist church leaders, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). In the closely contested 1960 presidential election, his public support for John F. Kennedy revealed the importance of the African-American vote in Kennedy's victory.

> *...But I have felt, and I still feel, that non-violence is the most potent weapon available to the Negro in his struggle for freedom. I will still raise my voice against riots and violence because I don't think that it solves the problem. I think that it only tends to intensify the fears of the white community while relieving the guilt. I think it is impractical because an old eye-for-an-eye philosophy can end up leaving everybody blind, and I think, in the final analysis, it is impractical because violence begets violence, hatred begets hatred. It's all a descending spiral ending ultimately in destruction for all too many...*

SOURCE 3.4.2 From Martin Luther King, Jr's speech at Ohio Northern University, 11 January 1968

Q **In your own words, list at least two reasons why Martin Luther King, Jr advocated non-violent forms of protest in African Americans' struggles for civil rights.**

SIT-INS AND 'FREEDOM RIDES'

From 1960, encouraged by the success of the bus boycotts and inspired by King's non-violent message, groups of students of all races devised other ways of peacefully protesting against segregation. A small group began by staging a '**sit-in**' when they were refused service at a lunch counter for 'whites only'. Across the South, others carried out 'wade-ins' at segregated pools, 'read-ins' at segregated libraries, 'stand-ins' at segregated cinemas and 'kneel-ins' at segregated churches. In the North, others boycotted companies that had segregated facilities in the South. By the end of 1963, 930 protests had occurred and more than 20 000 people had been arrested. Many of these protests had been organised by the newly formed Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), which had been set up by King as a youth arm of the SCLC.

In 1961, another civil rights organisation, the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), began **'freedom rides'** to test the 1956 Supreme Court ruling against segregation on buses. A group of African-American and white supporters boarded interstate buses from Washington, D.C. to the two most segregated US states, Mississippi and Alabama. They sat in 'whites-only' seats in the buses and at bus terminals. Once they reached the Southern states, they encountered mob violence and one bus was fire-bombed. Despite this, more civil rights activists did the same and were also attacked by angry mobs. Throughout the summer of 1961 about 1000 African-American and white people took these freedom rides together, risking their own safety to desegregate interstate bus journeys. As a result, the federal government ordered federal marshals to protect the freedom riders and banned segregation on interstate buses.



SOURCE 3.4.3 Sit-in protesters against segregation remain at a lunch counter in Jackson, Mississippi, while condiments are being poured on them, 28 May 1963.

PROTEST MARCHES

Marches were another form of protest employed by civil rights activists. Protest marches particularly had an impact within the new television age. By the 1960s, television had become a vital means of conveying graphic images of the injustices experienced by African Americans. Throughout the United States, television news broadcasts of the violent reactions to bus boycotts, sit-ins, 'freedom rides' and the attempts to desegregate schools appalled large sections of the white community, including many politicians, especially in the North. The same television broadcasts went global, harming the United States' claims of a country of equality and freedom. In this context, because protest marches involved thousands of people in public places, prime-time television coverage could be expected.

In April–May 1963 in Birmingham, Alabama, King and the SNCC led sit-ins and marches protesting against the widespread segregation that was still in force in this city even though in 1960 the Supreme Court had banned segregation in most public places. Alabama's governor, who publicly opposed desegregation, had many demonstrators, including King, arrested. The authorities used fire hoses and police dogs against other demonstrators, among whom were well over a thousand children. Television viewers were horrified by the level of violence shown by authorities towards people in non-violent protests. As a consequence, President Kennedy decided to take a strong stand on civil rights and started planning a Civil Rights Bill to go before the US Congress.

MARCH ON WASHINGTON

Civil rights organisations were concerned that President Kennedy's Civil Rights Bill would get bogged down in lengthy debates in Congress. They planned a large march in the nation's capital, Washington, D.C., which would show white as well as African-American support for the Bill. In August 1963, over 200 000 people, about a third white, marched to the Lincoln Memorial to hear a range of speakers explain why a Civil Rights Act was necessary. The final speaker, Martin Luther King, Jr delivered his now famous 'I Have a Dream' speech.

...even though we face the difficulties of today and tomorrow, I still have a dream. It is a dream deeply rooted in the American dream.

I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: 'We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal.'

I have a dream that one day on the red hills of Georgia the sons of former slaves and the sons of former slave owners will be able to sit down together at the table of brotherhood...

I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character.

I have a dream today...

SOURCE 3.4.4 From Martin Luther King, Jr's speech delivered at Lincoln Memorial, Washington, D.C., 28 August 1963

Q

1 **Based on what you know about US rights and freedoms, what audiences would King have been targeting with this speech?**

2 **Discuss where the words quoted by King, 'We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal', come from. What reasons do you think King had for using this quote?**

3 **How would you explain to a friend what King meant when he talked about his dream for his children?**

CIVIL RIGHTS ACT, 1964

The March on Washington helped President Kennedy persuade influential groups within and outside of Congress to support the Civil Rights Bill, despite an increase in pro-segregation violence in the South following the march. But Kennedy himself was assassinated in Dallas, Texas, in November 1963. His successor, President Lyndon Johnson, skilfully managed to gather enough support for the Bill for it to be passed by Congress early the next year. For the US Civil Rights movement, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was a major achievement. Its conditions included the following:

- Discrimination on the basis of race in all public places was banned (including petrol stations, restaurants, hotels, cinemas and airports) with the exception of places that served less than five people.
- It was illegal for a business employing more than twenty-five people to discriminate on the basis of race, national origin, religion or gender.
- The Attorney-General could file law suits to ensure that desegregation, integrated education and equal voting rights occurred quickly in all states.

VOTING RIGHTS ACT, 1965

Yet civil rights organisations were not confident that the state authorities in the South would comply with the new laws. Of particular importance was the ability of African Americans to vote in order to help enforce change. In the United States, voting in elections is not compulsory and people have to register to vote. In the South, state legislation and often violence had long been used to stop African Americans from registering. A campaign by civil rights activists who travelled to Southern states to help African Americans register to vote resulted in weeks of violent backlash, including murders. Together with the SCLC, in early 1965, King organised a voting rights march in Alabama from Selma to Montgomery. It was halted twice as marchers were attacked by police and hundreds were arrested for taking part in an 'illegal parade'.

Partly influenced by the horrific television reports of the treatment of the marchers and a brief meeting with King, President Johnson ordered the National Guard to protect the marchers in the third stage. The original 300 marchers were joined by 25 000 more. Confident now that public opinion throughout most of the United States would support it, Johnson was able to get Congress to pass the Voting Rights Act, which made measures to stop African Americans from registering to vote illegal. This was another vital achievement for the Civil Rights movement, and a key step towards securing legal and political equality for African Americans. Between 1965 and 1975, the number of African Americans registered to vote more than doubled in the South.

BLACK POWER?

Despite the gains of the Civil Rights Act and the Voting Rights Act, by the mid-1960s, there were growing divisions within organisations of the Civil Rights movement over the aims of further change and what were the best strategies for achieving it. For some, the non-violent approaches advocated by King and his supporters, together with their efforts to work within the 'white-dominated' court system and US Congress, meant that the pace of change was too slow. In the meantime, violent intimidation of African Americans continued in the South, often supported by the authorities; and African Americans endured poverty and discrimination in run-down neighbourhoods in large cities, particularly in the North.

It was recognised that the legal and political rights now achieved, at least in principle, were only of limited value for African Americans unless they also had economic and social equality. Younger African-American leaders were urging more radical ways of going forward.

- Led by Stokely Carmichael, the SNCC broke from King and expelled its white supporters. Using the term 'black power', Carmichael argued that African Americans had to fight back against white resistance to civil rights and take control of their own local communities.

- Bobby Seale and Huey Newton formed the **Black Panthers**, an organisation that grew across the United States. Describing themselves as revolutionaries, they often wore military-like outfits and clashed with police. They ran community-based projects such as free health care clinics, breakfast programs for ghetto children and voter registration drives.
- The Nation of Islam, also known as Black Muslims, rejected the integration of African Americans with white society and believed that African Americans had the right to defend themselves with violence against attacks. Its best-known leader was Malcolm X who rejected white involvement in African-American affairs. After he modified his views in 1965, he was assassinated by three of his former followers.

King realised that the Civil Rights movement had raised expectations, among younger people especially, that were still far from fulfilled and that it needed to turn towards dealing with the problems of poverty, unemployment and racism in the North. His concern was heightened by riots in 1965 by African Americans in Los Angeles and other cities in the North. In 1966, he moved to a poor African-American area in Chicago where he and some colleagues began a campaign against segregated housing in the city that was met with great violence. In late 1967, he planned a Poor People's Campaign march from Marks, Mississippi to Washington, D.C. on behalf of all races, but it was postponed until mid-1968. The constructive relationship between King and his colleagues with President Johnson and his administration was damaged when, in 1967, King publicly criticised Johnson's massive escalation of the US war in Vietnam.



SOURCE 3.4.5 A Black Panther breakfast program in Kansas City

The US Civil Rights movement was dealt a severe blow on 4 April 1968. King had been visiting Memphis, Tennessee, to lead a protest march in support of African-American garbage workers who were on strike for equal pay with their white co-workers. On the balcony of the motel where he was staying, King was assassinated by a white gunman. Whether or not the gunman was acting alone is still a matter of dispute. King's belief in non-violent protest was ignored when across the United States riots broke out, leaving approximately forty-six people dead and over 3000 injured. Two months later, the Poor People's Campaign march went ahead, but it was poorly organised and without King's commanding presence it made little impact.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- Black Panthers
- bus boycott
- desegregate
- 'freedom rides'
- sit-in

2 **a** In one or two sentences, explain what prompted the US Supreme Court to rule that all schools should be integrated.

b Briefly explain why many schools in the South were slow to do this.

3 Give two reasons why bus boycotts were used as a form of protest against segregation.

4 List two or more common features of sit-ins, 'freedom rides' and protest marches.

5 **a** Briefly summarise why the March on Washington was a major achievement for the US Civil Rights movement.

b Briefly summarise why the voting rights march from Selma to Montgomery was a major achievement for the US Civil Rights movement.

Understanding and applying

6 **a** What were the main conditions by the mid-1960s that led younger activists to adopt other attitudes about how best to achieve civil rights for African Americans?

b In a Venn diagram, identify the ways in which their attitudes were the same as, and differed from, those of Martin Luther King, Jr and his supporters.

Analysing and evaluating

7 In small groups, discuss and make brief notes in response to the following questions:

a What evidence in this unit supports the argument that the advent of television influenced the choice of tactics used by activists of the US Civil Rights movement in the 1950s and 1960s?

b Can you think of examples in Australia or other parts of the world where television news reports have played a role in people's struggles for rights?



ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLES PRIOR TO 1945

TRADITIONAL LAWS AND CULTURE

For at least 50 000 years, Australian Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples lived in communities guided by complex social and spiritual laws handed down to them by their Creation Ancestors. These laws, which varied in different regions, guided every aspect of life, including where people could live, what they could eat and who they could marry. Most importantly, the laws laid out the obligations people had to each other and to the land that gave them life. Through adherence to these laws, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples developed rich, diverse cultures and a way of life that enabled them to survive in often harsh environments.

Traditional Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities or tribes were based on well-ordered kinship systems and language groups. At the time of European occupation in 1788, it is estimated that there were more than 500 tribes and 250 language groups. These communities were deeply attached to the land for their identity as well as for their livelihood. They did not see themselves as 'owning' the land; it was passed down by their ancestors and they had a duty to look after it, including the sacred sites in the land of their ancestral spirits.

IMPACT OF EUROPEAN OCCUPATION

In the late eighteenth century, the British Government declared the continent now called 'Australia' as ***terra nullius***. This term meant that the land belonged to no one and could therefore be rightfully settled by the British colonisers. To this day, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples regard the British occupation or 'settlement' of the Australian continent as an 'invasion' of the land.

In keeping with Western thinking of that period, the British colonisers regarded themselves as racially superior to the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. However, the official policy of the British Government was that, like the colonisers, the 'natives' were British subjects and were therefore entitled to the protection of British law.

As the colonisers increasingly took possession of the land, they cut off the existing inhabitants' access to food supplies and water and disregarded their sacred sites.

Bloody conflicts often followed, as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples fought to preserve the conditions of their way of life. When clashes occurred, especially in frontier areas, settlers took the law into their own hands, using their superior weapons and often with the assistance of soldiers and police. Massacres of large groups of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples took place and the offenders were rarely prosecuted.

PROTECTION POLICY

A growing concern about the treatment of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples led the British Government to appoint 'Protectors' in the colonies who were supposed to clamp down on the violence and ensure that those living on the outskirts of towns were provided with basic rations. This measure had little effect. By the late nineteenth century, when the ideas of social Darwinism had become influential, it was believed that the 'inferior' race would gradually die out. Added to this thinking was the general view that, in order to survive, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples should be separated from their 'uncivilised' culture and be 'Christianised'. Therefore, from the late nineteenth into the early twentieth centuries, legislation in the different colonies (later states) established Protection Boards to strictly govern their lives. The Chief Protector in each colony/state was made legal guardian of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population.

Under these **protection policies**, the majority were forcibly moved onto land set aside as reserves run by either the government or church missionaries. Here they had no rights: traditional names and customs were not allowed; they were punished if they spoke in their own languages; they could not leave or marry without permission; the protection officials were the legal owners of any wages earned; and children had to attend special schools where the boys were prepared to become farm labourers or station hands and the girls to be domestic servants.

DID YOU KNOW?

Victoria's *Aboriginal Protection Act 1869* was the first act of its kind. Following this act, other states and the Northern Territory created their own acts: Queensland—*Aboriginals Protection and Restriction of the Sale of Opium Act 1897*; Western Australia—*Aborigines Act 1905*; New South Wales—*Aborigines Protection Act 1909*; South Australia—*Aborigines Act 1911*; Northern Territory—*Northern Territory Aboriginals Ordinance 1911*.



SOURCE 3.5.1 Students and a teacher from Hermannsburg Mission, Northern Territory, around 1920. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q What conclusions/predictions can you make about life in this institution based on the look of the children?

As a result of the protection policies, some children, particularly so-called 'half-castes'—those whose mother, father or a grandparent was of European descent—were forcibly taken from their families and placed often far away in institutions or with settler foster families. These children were often emotionally traumatised by the removal from their families and culture. They were usually given only limited education, endured poor living conditions and were made to work long hours. Some also experienced physical or sexual abuse.

WHAT FEDERATION MEANT

On 1 January 1901 when the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed, its new Constitution made it clear that, except for the Northern Territory, responsibility for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples was left to the states. It also indicated that they would not be included in the national census (count of the country's population); this meant that they were not entitled to Commonwealth Government regulations and benefits, such as basic wage rulings and pensions. In 1902, the *Commonwealth Franchise Act* excluded 'aboriginal native[s] of Australia, Asia, Africa or the Islands of the Pacific except New Zealand' from voting in federal elections.

'WHITE' AUSTRALIA

The first piece of legislation passed by the new Commonwealth Government was the *Immigration Restriction Act* of 1901, which became known as the White Australia policy. While partly concerned at first with protecting workers' wage standards from competition from Chinese immigrants, its main aim was to ensure that only people of European descent could migrate to Australia. This was based on a generally held belief in the superiority of the 'white' races and in the importance of racial purity for Australia's population. Although the White Australia policy was not directly to do with Australia's indigenous peoples, it indirectly reinforced the general view that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were an undesirable, undeserving race that was not really part of Australian society.

EFFECTS OF THE GREAT DEPRESSION

During the 1930s Great Depression when times were tough for most of the population, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples experienced additional hardships. For example, in New South Wales many families lost the family endowment payments they had been receiving for a few years. The great many unemployed were denied access to relief work, and the Protection Board forced people back into the reserves so that they could not receive government welfare. The reserves and mission stations became more overcrowded. The practice of removing children from their families became more frequent.

DID YOU KNOW?

When war was declared in August 1914, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men were barred from enlisting. Yet around 400 served in World War I. Little is known of their war records, even though some were killed in action.

ASSIMILATION POLICY

By the mid-1930s, the Australian states and some voluntary bodies were demanding federal involvement in Aboriginal affairs. In 1937, the federal government reached an agreement with the state governments that each would adopt an **assimilation policy**. During the late 1930s and the 1940s, this meant that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples in settled areas, particularly those of 'mixed blood', were expected to abandon their own culture and languages and adopt the way of life of white Australians (even though they did not have the same citizenship rights). Existing 'protection' measures such as reserves for the 'full-blooded' were maintained.

CONTINUED REMOVAL OF CHILDREN

The policy of assimilation continued the protectionist practice of removing many 'half-caste' children, based on the argument that it would be in the children's best interests to live in institutions or with European families where they would adopt the ways of the settler population. These children were not usually allowed contact with their parents; many were told their mother had willingly given them up or was dead; many were never told their birth names or knew whether they had brothers or sisters. Some were placed with families or in institutions with people who cared for them and gave them certain opportunities, but this did not compensate for the fundamental loss of birth family, culture and identity.

Many thousands of children were forcibly removed under these government policies, which continued until the early 1970s. These children have become known as the **Stolen Generations**.

EMERGING PROTEST MOVEMENTS

AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINAL PROGRESS ASSOCIATION

The first Aboriginal protest organisation, the Australian Aboriginal Progress Association (AAPA), was established in Sydney in 1925 by Fred Maynard and it soon had eleven branches across New South Wales. In 1927, Maynard wrote to the New South Wales premier:

> *... we accept no conditions of inferiority as compared with European people... the European people by the arts of war destroyed our more ancient civilisation... [and] by their vices and diseases our people have been decimated... But neither of these facts are evidence of superiority. Quite contrary is the case...*

SOURCE 3.5.2 From Fred Maynard's letter to New South Wales Premier Jack Lang in 1927. Published in 'Fred Maynard and the Australian Aboriginal Progress Association (AAPA): One God, One Aim, One Destiny', by John Maynard, *Aboriginal History*, vol. 21, 1997

By 1928, the AAPA had to abandon its work due largely, it is believed, to harassment of its members by New South Wales police. It was reformed in 1938 by Jack Patten.

CUMMERAGUNJA WALK-OFF

At Cummeragunja Station, a large reserve on the New South Wales side of the Murray River, the Aboriginal residents had developed a productive communal farm. In 1915, the New South Wales Protection Board tightened its control, keeping the money raised by the farm and providing inadequate rations for the Aboriginal workers. By the late 1930s, an abusive manager was appointed to the reserve. The residents, who were not allowed to leave, had to live under appalling conditions that bred grave illnesses. Their petition to the Protection Board did not improve conditions significantly. In 1939, about 200 of Cummeragunja's 300-strong community walked off the reserve and the farm they had built up. Most never returned and settled mainly on the outskirts of some northern Victorian country towns. This was the first mass strike by Aboriginal Peoples in Australia.

AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINES LEAGUE

Together with some other Aboriginal Peoples who had already left Cummeragunja Station, William Cooper formed the Australian Aborigines League (AAL) in Melbourne in 1932. Other key members of the AAL included Doug Nicholls and Margaret Tucker, and it gained active support from some non-Aboriginal individuals. In 1937, Cooper sent the federal government a petition with 2000 signatures to be forwarded to King George VI. The petition stated that Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander inhabitants had had their land taken from them, that they had no legal status and that previous petitions to state governments had failed. It asked the king to intervene to prevent the extinction of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander race and it requested that there be a member of federal parliament to represent Aboriginal interests. The federal government did not pass the petition on to the king.



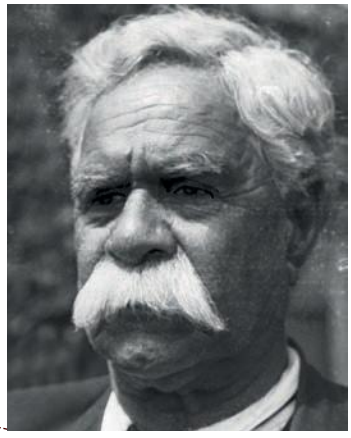
SOURCE 3.5.3 Murray River encampment at Cummeragunja Station, 1884. Held at the National Library of Australia

ABORIGINES PROGRESSIVE ASSOCIATION

In 1937 at Dubbo in New South Wales, the Aborigines Progressive Association (APA) was formed by an Aboriginal shearer and shed organiser in the Australian Workers' Union, William Ferguson, together with Pearl Gibbs and Jack Patten. The APA successfully campaigned to get the New South Wales Government to inquire into the policies and administration of its Aborigines Protection Board.

DAY OF MOURNING, 1938

Australia Day in 1938 marked the 150th anniversary of British settlement and grand events, including a procession of historical floats and a re-enactment of Governor Arthur Phillip's arrival, took place in Sydney. In this celebration of nationhood, the place of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples was ignored, except for the use of about twenty men brought in from outback reserves to play the part of the 'natives' encountered by the First Fleet. However, William Cooper had already proposed that 26 January 1938 be marked as a protest **'Day of Mourning'** by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples because, as he put it:



SOURCE 3.5.4 William Cooper (around 1861–1941)

> For us it is a Day of Mourning. This is the day we lost our land, lost our spirit culture, lost our language. Today we have no land. No rights.

A committee including Cooper (AAL), Ferguson (APA) and Patten (APA, later AAPA) organised a lead-up campaign of public speeches, meetings and press interviews. On the day itself, about 1000 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples representing organisations from different areas met in the Australian Hall in Sydney. They produced a statement called 'Aborigines Claim Citizenship Rights'. In it they demanded that:

- the federal government take control of Aboriginal affairs to implement a national policy
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples be granted full citizenship rights, including equal rights to education, equality with European workers in pay and conditions, access to pensions, and equal rights to own land, have bank accounts and receive cash wages.

The statement was presented to Prime Minister Joseph Lyons but, partly due to the federal government's concern about impending war in Europe, no action was taken. However, this first Day of Mourning led to an annual event that continues today, reminding all Australians of the injustices Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples have endured from the time of European settlement.



SOURCE 3.5.5 A large blackboard displayed by the Aborigines Progressive Association (APA) outside the Australian Hall in Sydney on the first Day of Mourning, 26 January 1938

WORLD WAR II EXPERIENCES

In 1939, when Prime Minister Robert Menzies announced Australia was at war, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men were divided over whether to enlist. Some Aboriginal organisations believed that war service would help their claims for full citizenship rights. Others argued that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples should not fight for a country governed only in the interests of white Australians. The federal government's Military Board had different perspectives on the same question.

While the war remained centred in Europe, the Military Board maintained its inconsistent views regarding Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander recruitment. However, the threat posed to northern Australia by the Japanese in late 1941 led to the Military Board fully accepting the enlistment of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men.

Over 3000 Aboriginal men served in World War II. They experienced the same hardships as their European counterparts; many were killed in battle and some became prisoners of war, yet they were not recognised as Australian citizens. In the Australian Imperial Force, segregated units of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers were formed and there were also some mixed units. Soldiers in segregated units were paid only about one-third of what those in mixed units earned.

'Enlistment of Aborigines'

...On the 6th May, 1940 in an instruction issued [by]... the War Cabinet it was stipulated that 'the enlistment of aliens or British subjects of non European origin or descent is neither necessary nor desirable.'

It is, however, understood that some aborigines have been enlisted in the A.I.F.... attention of Command Headquarters was drawn to the existing prohibition but no steps have been taken to require the discharge of persons already enlisted...

It is not considered advisable that full blooded aborigines should be accepted for service in the Forces. On the other hand it does not appear necessary to exclude half caste aborigines when they are otherwise entirely suitable...

SOURCE 3.5.6 Minutes of the meeting of the Military Board, 30 July 1940, reflecting the discussion of those present

Q
1 In your own words, summarise the three different views of the Military Board regarding the enlistment of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men in 1940.
2 Based on what you have read in this unit, suggest reasons why each view was held.



SOURCE 3.5.7 Reginald Saunders (centre standing) was the first Aboriginal soldier to be commissioned as an officer in the Australian army. He served in North Africa, Greece and New Guinea. In 1971, he was awarded the MBE (Member of the Order of the British Empire) for his services in Aboriginal communities. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q **1a Look closely at the photograph. From this piece of evidence, what conclusions could be made about relationships between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal servicemen during World War II?**

b What other types of evidence would you look for to test your conclusions?

In December 1943, after two segregated companies refused to continue with their duties, the government raised the pay rates of segregated units but not to the level of the mixed units. It was feared that there would be problems after the war when Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers returned to their civilian lives and would be required to work again for reduced wages.

At war's end, little recognition of the valuable contribution by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander servicemen was made. The Soldier Settlement Scheme that provided blocks of land to returned servicemen was not available to them. They were turned away from the Returned and Services League and other public organisations honouring the country's war efforts. They no longer had the comparative freedom they had experienced as members of the armed services.

LIMITED CITIZENSHIP GAINS

In 1941–42, the Commonwealth benefits of child endowment and aged and invalid pension payments were gradually extended to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. From the 1940s, they could apply to state governments for citizenship certificates, which gave them exemption from state protection laws and some basic rights including the right to attend school and to vote in state elections. However, these certificates required them to abandon their communities and kinship groups and give up their traditional culture. Applicants had to demonstrate that they were sober, law-abiding and kept their homes clean. The certificates could be revoked at any time. Some people applied for them in order to achieve the benefits, despite the sacrifices they had to make. Others felt that the injustices outweighed the benefits and so did not apply.

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- assimilation policy
- 'Day of Mourning'
- protection policies
- Stolen Generations
- *terra nullius*

2 In one or two sentences, explain why traditional lands have always been extremely important to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

3 List at least two actions taken by the British that support the view that they invaded an already occupied land.

Understanding and applying

4 **a** In point form, list the reasons why the Australian colonies adopted the protection policies.

b Construct a mind map that illustrates the impact of the protection policies on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

5 Imagine you are an Aboriginal adult living in Australia in 1902. Explain how federal government legislation passed in 1901–02 has affected your hopes for equality in Australian society.

6 In a Venn diagram, identify the similarities and differences between the protection and assimilation policies.

Understanding and analysing

7 **a** Construct a timeline of the major events outlined in this unit that relate to the emerging Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander protest movements.

b Summarise the contribution of William Cooper to the protest movements.

8 List the forms of discrimination experienced by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander servicemen both during and after World War II.

9 Explain the injustices that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples might feel about applying for citizenship certificates that could be revoked for the reasons given in this unit.

10 Construct a chart that shows what citizenship rights Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples did and did not have from 1901 to 1945.

Analysing and creating

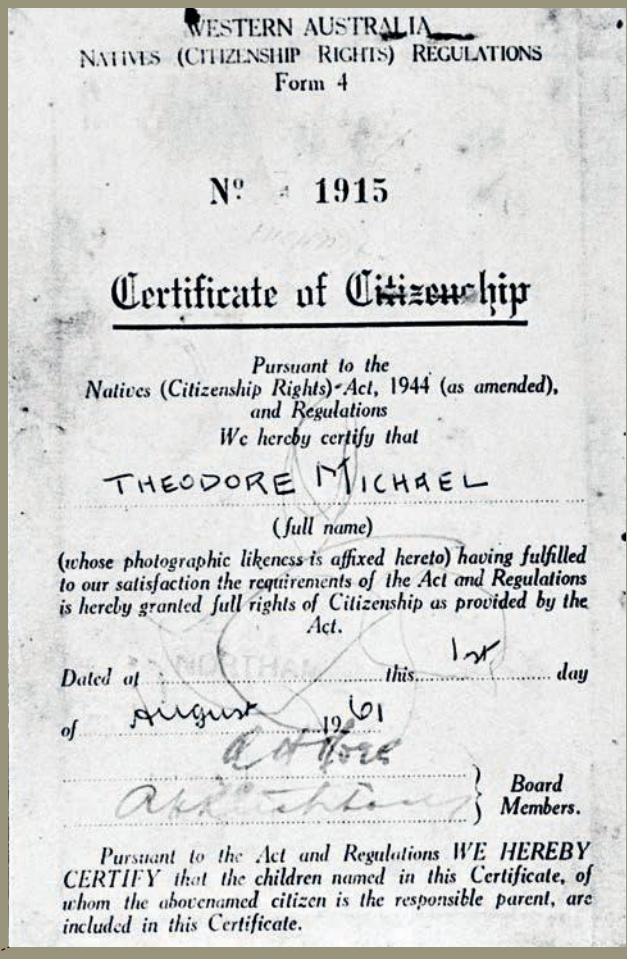
11 The first organised 'Day of Mourning' was held 26 January 1938. Using the internet and other sources, research how Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples responded to the Australia Day bicentenary of 1988 and Australia Day 2012. In a table with the headings '1938', '1988' and '2012', outline what issues have recurred and what situations/attitudes may have changed over the years.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

12 Using the internet and other sources, research an Aboriginal reserve established in the nineteenth or twentieth centuries. Some examples include: Aurukun (Qld), Bomaderry (NSW), Coranderrk (Vic.) and Yirrkala (NT). Present a report on your findings that includes:

- when the reserve was established and how long it existed
- what organisation was in charge of it
- a map of its position in the state or territory
- its facilities
- the work done by the residents
- other interesting information.

13 Imagine you are living in Australia in 1940. Write a letter to the editor of a newspaper explaining why you think Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men should or should not be allowed to join the Australian armed forces. Begin with a statement about your gender, race, age and situation in society. When you are finished, compare your letter with one by a classmate who has taken a different point of view. Discuss the differences of opinion.



WESTERN AUSTRALIA
NATIVES (CITIZENSHIP RIGHTS) REGULATIONS
Form 4

No. 1915

Certificate of Citizenship

Pursuant to the Natives (Citizenship Rights) Act, 1944 (as amended), and Regulations We hereby certify that

THEODORE MICHAEL

(full name)

(whose photographic likeness is affixed hereto) having fulfilled to our satisfaction the requirements of the Act and Regulations is hereby granted full rights of Citizenship as provided by the Act.

Dated at [illegible] *this* 1st *day of* August 19 61

Board Members.

Pursuant to the Act and Regulations WE HEREBY CERTIFY that the children named in this Certificate, of whom the abovenamed citizen is the responsible parent, are included in this Certificate.

SOURCE 3.5.8 An example of a citizenship certificate, issued on 1 August 1961 to a member of the Badjaling community in Western Australia. Held at the State Library of Western Australia



NEW STRUGGLES

THE POST-WAR DECADES

The *Nationality and Citizenship Act* adopted in 1949 established the concept of 'Australian' citizenship for all people born in Australia and former British subjects. This meant that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were 'Australian' citizens by law, but this distinction did little to change their circumstances.

The twenty-year period following World War II was one of great change in most countries, including Australia. In Western societies, it was a time of economic growth, high employment and a lifestyle based on enjoying consumer products. However, Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were largely shut out of these 'good times'. Many still lived under the control of state and territory governments and missionaries on reserves. Others were exploited in rural industries, such as the cattle industry, and were paid only meagre rations or low wages. Those living in country towns experienced segregation where they were kept separate from the white population. The practice of forced removal of some children continued.

Over these two decades, Australia's population changed markedly in size and composition. For economic and national security purposes, the federal government embarked on strategies to greatly increase immigration while retaining 'White Australia' restrictions on it. Although the population of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples had steadily grown, they still made up only a small minority of the overall population. In order to manage the changing social composition, the assimilation policy that had required Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples to shed their traditional cultures and adopt the British culture now also applied to non-British migrants. In 1961, at the Native Welfare Conference of federal and state ministers, it was agreed:

> *The policy of assimilation ... means that all aborigines and part-aborigines are expected eventually to attain the same manner of living as other Australians and to live as members of a single Australian community enjoying the same rights and privileges, accepting the same responsibilities, observing the same customs and influenced by the same beliefs, hopes and loyalties as other Australians ...*

SOURCE 3.6.1 From a statement by the Minister for Territories, Paul Hasluck, Commonwealth of Australia, Parliamentary Debates (Hansard), House of Representatives, 20 April 1961

In 1949, the federal government granted the right to vote in federal elections to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples who had completed military service or who already had the right to vote in their home state. However, Western Australia, Queensland and the Northern Territory did not allow them to vote. In 1962, the *Commonwealth Electoral Act* specified that all Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples could register to vote in federal elections. In contrast with the law for other Australians, it was not compulsory.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1957, the greatly respected Aboriginal artist Albert Namatjira was granted Australian citizenship. In 1959, he was sentenced to six months imprisonment because he gave alcohol to a relative, something any other citizen could do. He died soon after his release.



SOURCE 3.6.2 Aboriginal artist, Albert Namatjira, photographed in the Northern Territory, during his trip around Australia in 1954

Q

1. **Based on what you know, list the conditions that prevented Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples from attaining 'the same manner of living as other Australians'.**
2. **From the perspective of an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander Person, explain what it would mean to adopt the same customs, beliefs, hopes and loyalties as 'other Australians'.**

MARALINGA NUCLEAR TESTING

The 1950s and 1960s period was marked by Cold War tensions and the nuclear arms race. For ten years from 1953, the Menzies Government allowed the British to test atomic bombs in remote regions of Australia. One site used for nuclear testing was Maralinga, a desert area on the Nullarbor Plain in South Australia, which was the home of Pitjantjatjara Aboriginal communities. The devastating effects of the atomic tests on the land and the people who lived there were made public much later. Both Pitjantjatjara people and non-Aboriginal Australian servicemen in the area at the time claimed the radioactive fallout caused loss of sight, skin rashes, radiation sickness and cancers. For the Pitjantjatjara people, a large area of their traditional land was no longer habitable.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1967, the British 'cleaned up' the Maralinga site they used to test atomic bombs. An Australian Royal Commission into these nuclear tests in 1984 found that attempts to warn the Aboriginal population in the region about the testing had been unsatisfactory and that the cleaning of the site was inadequate. Between 1995 and 2000, the site was properly decontaminated, but signs had to be erected to warn people that dangers still existed.

STRIKES AND PETITIONS

In 1950–51, 250 Aboriginal workers employed in government departments in Darwin went on strike for better pay and conditions with support from the North Australian Workers' Union. The strike was not successful and its two leaders were imprisoned. In the Cold War climate of the time, the strikers were branded as troublemaking 'communists'. But setbacks such as this did not halt further struggles.

In 1957, the Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI), made up of Indigenous civil rights and welfare organisations, was established. Its leaders included Faith Bandler, Chicka Dixon and Oodgeroo Noonuccal, the poet, who was then known as Kath Walker. It drew up petitions in 1958 and 1962, calling for constitutional changes to end the discrimination represented in the state and territory Aboriginal Acts.

YOLNGU BARK PETITION

In 1963, the federal government allowed bauxite mining to commence at Yirrkala in the Northern Territory. Yolngu leaders objected to the lack of consultation and secrecy surrounding the mining activities, and were concerned about the impact of mining on their traditional lands. They sent a petition mounted on bark to federal parliament; although the petition gained national and international attention, the government did not change its stance. The Yolngu leaders then took their case to the federal court in 1971. Bound by the principle of *terra nullius*, the judges had to dismiss it; however, they recognised that for centuries the Yolngu people had been connected with Yirrkala land.



SOURCE 3.6.3 Yolngu (Yirrkala) Bark Petition, 1963. Yirrkala artists, Dhuwa moiety. Held in the Parliament House Art Collection. The Yolngu bark petition is on display at Parliament House, Canberra, as a symbol of the birth of the Land Rights movement.

WAVE HILL STRIKE

Following pressure by trade unions, in March 1966, the federal Arbitration Commission ruled that Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Peoples must be paid equally when doing the same jobs (although this did not apply to women). Pastoralists wanted this change delayed and were supported by the Menzies Liberal Government.

In May 1966, Northern Territory Aboriginal stockmen on the Newcastle Waters and Wave Hill cattle stations—which had been established on traditional Aboriginal lands—went on strike over the delay in gaining equal pay and their poor working conditions. This campaign was supported by the North Australian Workers' Union and several Aboriginal rights organisations, including the Council for Aboriginal Rights (Northern Territory) and FCAATSI. It continued to gain momentum until 200 Aboriginal families of the Gurindji language group, led by Vincent Lingiari, walked off the Wave Hill station where they had lived and worked since the 1880s. They made a camp and established a community at Wattie Creek, later called Daguragu.

The British pastoral company that owned the cattle station, Vesteys, soon offered more food and better (though not equal) wages. But Lingiari, speaking for the Gurindji people, rejected this offer; they now wanted their land back. By October 1966, the Gurindji people were claiming the right to 1300 square kilometres for their own cattle station on what was their traditional land.

The appeal to the United Nations was unsuccessful. Lingiari and the Gurindji people continued their struggle until 1974 when the Woodward Royal Commission recommended that Aboriginal Land Councils be established to represent the land claims of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities. In 1975, the Gurindji people won the first land rights claim. In a symbolic gesture, Labor Prime Minister Gough Whitlam handed back their land.

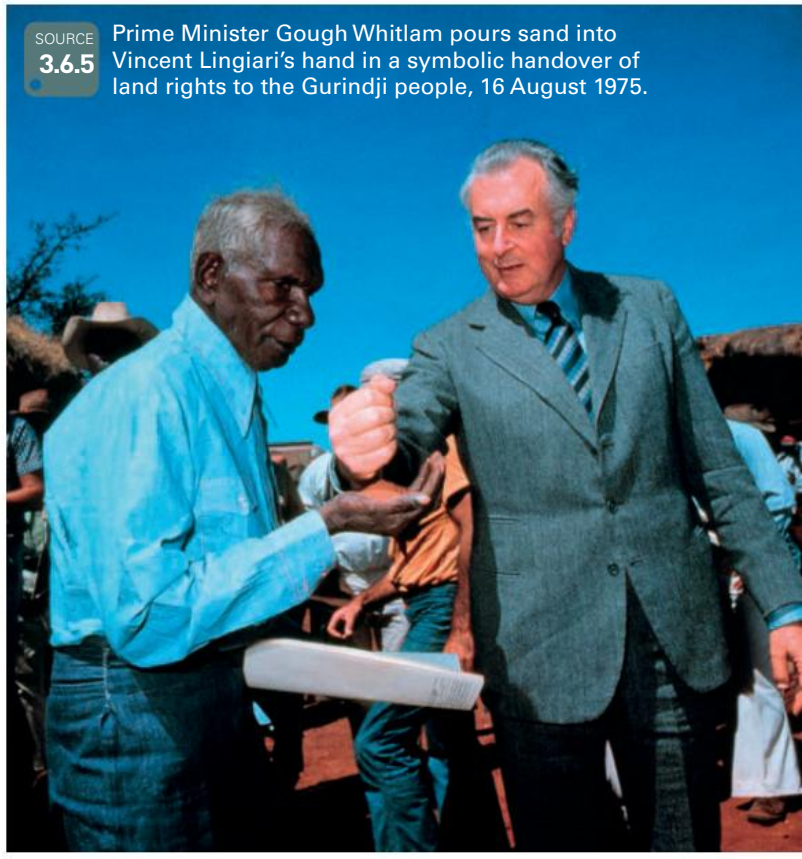
> *Our tribal lands have been taken from us and handed over to the big pastoral companies... [We are not after compensation], our people want to have a say in controlling and working the land...*
>
> *On the big cattle stations of the Territory our people work long hours doing skilled, hard and often dangerous work mustering, branding and injecting cattle for a miserable pittance of six dollars sixty-six cents a week... This is happening in a country which is really ours and where even the poorest white man receives nearly 40 dollars a week...*
>
> *Most of our people live in humpies without even minimum hygiene facilities. Their diet consists of the poorest parts of the meat, tea, flour and sugar... we are fighting for our very existence as a people.*

SOURCE 3.6.4

From a letter by Vincent Lingiari to the United Nations. Cited in *The rebel chorus: dissenting voices in Australian history*, by Geoff Hocking, published in 2007 by Five Mile Press

Q

1. **Based on what you have learnt about the United Nations in this chapter, suggest reasons why Vincent Lingiari wrote to this body on behalf of the Gurindji people.**
2. **In this letter, Lingiari presents evidence to support his concerns. Which items of evidence do you think would have been most relevant to the United Nations? Explain your reasoning.**



SOURCE 3.6.5 Prime Minister Gough Whitlam pours sand into Vincent Lingiari's hand in a symbolic handover of land rights to the Gurindji people, 16 August 1975.

'FREEDOM RIDE'

In Western countries by the mid-1960s, new movements for social and cultural change were gathering force. One of these was the Civil Rights movement which, as explored earlier in this chapter, emerged firstly in the United States where it was concerned with achieving equality and full citizenship rights for African Americans. Through regular television and newspaper reports, Australians witnessed the events and gradual successes of the US Civil Rights movement. They also saw the strategies used by both the civil rights activists and their opponents.

In 1965, a group of students at the University of Sydney, who had been active in expressing their support of the US Civil Rights movement, formed Student Action for Aborigines (SAFA) with Aboriginal student Charles Perkins as its chairman.



SOURCE 3.6.6 Students from the University of Sydney about to begin their 'freedom ride', 1965

SAFA aimed to draw public attention to the problems in health, education and housing faced by Aboriginal communities. Through student action, the group hoped to break down the discrimination Aboriginal communities experienced and encourage Aboriginal Peoples to resist discrimination themselves. To achieve these aims, SAFA adopted the principles of peaceful demonstrations and passive resistance as used by US civil rights leader Martin Luther King, Jr. The group also decided to follow the US example of a 'freedom ride', though their aims were different to those of the US 'freedom rides' in 1961. The Australian 'freedom riders' wanted to gather information about and to make better known the conditions in which Aboriginal Peoples were living in northern and north-western New South Wales.

Led by Charles Perkins, on 12 February 1965, thirty-three female and male students—only a few of whom were Aboriginal—set off on their two-week bus journey. Among them was Darce Cassidy who was a part-time reporter for the Australian Broadcasting Commission (ABC) and regularly provided material for radio and television broadcasts. This gave the 'freedom ride' national and international press coverage. The students spent time in seven country towns where their activities included conducting surveys, picketing a Returned and Services League (RSL) club that did not allow membership for Aboriginal ex-servicemen, and protesting in a town where the local swimming pool segregated Aboriginal children. They experienced support as well as hostility and violence from different sections of the townspeople.

OUTCOMES OF THE 'FREEDOM RIDE'

- The 'freedom ride' showed Australia and the rest of the world the discrimination and disadvantages that Aboriginal Peoples in rural areas were experiencing. This was a shock to many city-dwellers who were ignorant of these realities. The increased awareness led to growing public support for attempts to abolish this inequality and mistreatment.
- In some towns though, counter-protests were held by those who opposed the 'freedom riders' aims. These counter-protests succeeded in bringing even more publicity; however, some Aboriginal Peoples at the time claimed that the movement created further suffering as they were left to deal with the community tensions and divisions after the bus left.
- Yet among many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples the 'freedom ride' provided motivation and the momentum for change. Seeing the actions of the 'freedom riders' and the media attention that resulted provided a sense that some people cared about their circumstances and that perhaps change could be achieved.

The Freedom Ride was probably the greatest and most exciting event that I have ever been involved in with Aboriginal affairs. It was a new idea and a new way of promoting a rapid change in racial attitudes in Australia. It brought, I think, to a lot of people, a confrontation with race relations in a very uncomfortable kind of way.

SOURCE 3.6.7 Charles Perkins describing his thoughts about the 'freedom ride'. From *Charles Perkins: A Bastard Like Me*, an autobiography published by Ure Smith, Sydney, 1975

Q
1. **Why did Perkins think the 'freedom ride' was a way to promote 'rapid change in racial attitudes in Australia'?**
2. **Explain the 'confrontation' that Charles Perkins is referring to.**



SOURCE 3.6.8 Charles Perkins steps out of the SAFA bus to greet a supporter of the Aboriginal 'freedom ride', New South Wales, February, 1965.

ABOUT CHARLES PERKINS

Charles Perkins was the son of an Arrernte mother and Kalkadoon father. He was born in 1936 on the Alice Springs Telegraph Station Aboriginal Reserve in the Northern Territory. Perkins began his formal education on the reserve; when he was ten his mother arranged for him to go to St Francis House in Adelaide. He left St Francis at the age of fifteen and became a fitter and turner.

Perkins was a professional soccer player as a young man and in 1957 he played in England with the Everton club. He returned to Australia in 1959 and in the early 1960s moved to Sydney to play with the Pan-Hellenic soccer club. He was soon appointed captain-coach.

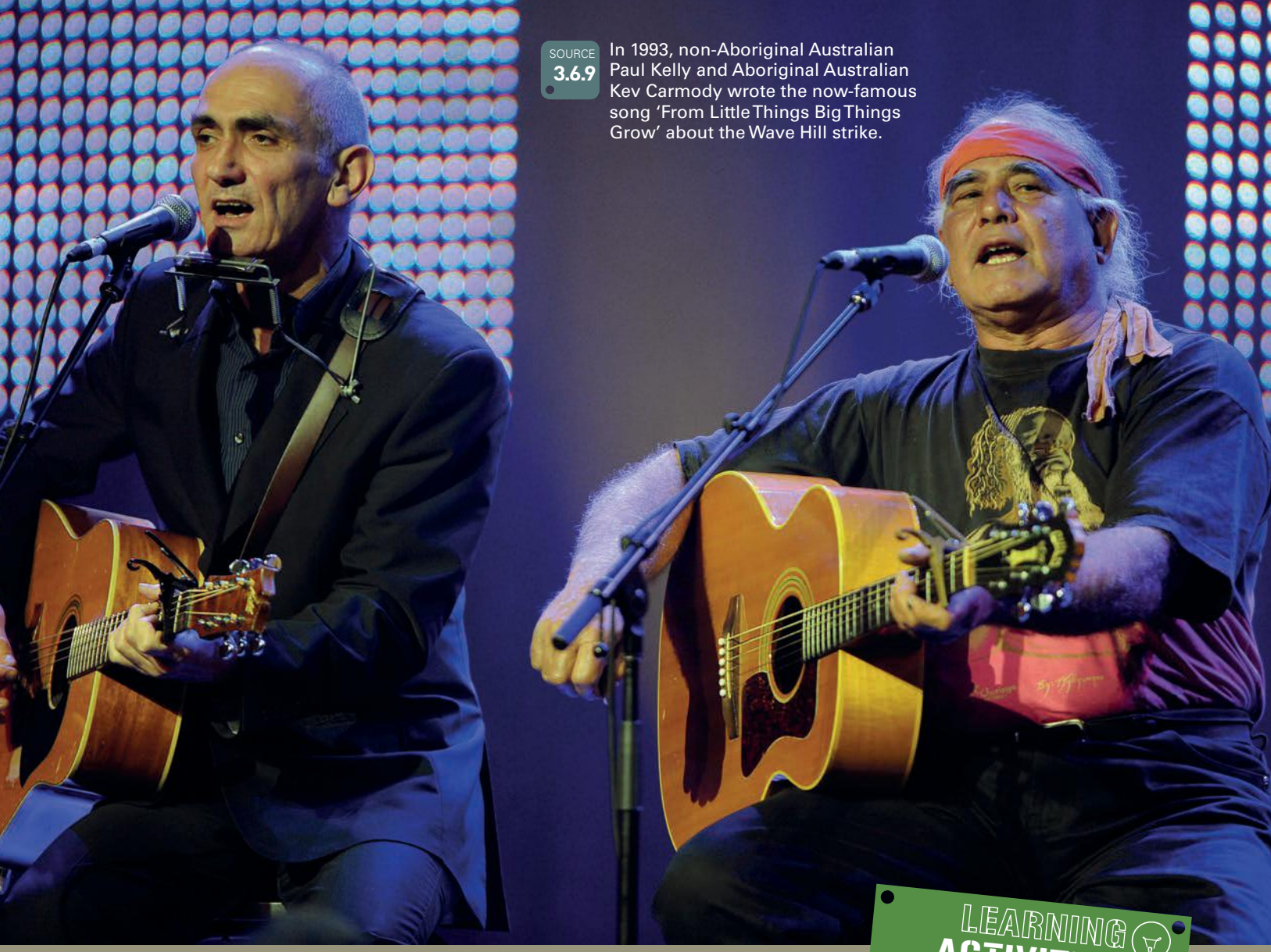
Perkins enrolled at the University of Sydney in 1963. At that time he was one of only two Aboriginal students enrolled and later became the first Aboriginal Australian to graduate from the university. Perkins then took a job with the Commonwealth Public Service. He was the first Aboriginal Australian to be made head of a government department when he became Secretary of the Department of Aboriginal Affairs in 1981. In 1988, he was dismissed over a dispute with the then Minister for Aboriginal Affairs.

In 1987, Perkins was awarded the Order of Australia and in 1993 he was named Aborigine of the Year. Charles Perkins died in 2000. His daughter, Rachel Perkins, is a prominent television and film director who draws attention to the culture and history of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples in her productions.

INTEGRATION REPLACES ASSIMILATION

By the mid-1960s, the federal government could see that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, like Australia's new non-British migrants, were firmly attached to their own cultures. In 1965, integration became the government's policy for allowing Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples (as well as non-British migrants) to fit into mainstream Australian society. This policy took the view that their cultures could be part of the broader 'Australian' culture. It also recognised that government programs were needed to deal with the discrimination and inequality that kept these groups on the edges of society. For Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, there was new funding for programs in areas such as health, education and employment.

In 1972, a federal Department of Aboriginal Affairs was established. In 1973, the Woodward Royal Commission was appointed to investigate how land rights for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples could be implemented. However, this could only have happened following the successful 1967 referendum.



SOURCE 3.6.9 In 1993, non-Aboriginal Australian Paul Kelly and Aboriginal Australian Kev Carmody wrote the now-famous song 'From Little Things Big Things Grow' about the Wave Hill strike.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Explain the action that the Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI) petitioned as necessary between 1958 and 1962 to improve the lives of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

2 a How long had the people of the Gurindji language group lived and worked on Wave Hill station before they walked off in protest against wages and conditions in 1966?

b Summarise, using between 50 and 100 words, the views and actions of the Aboriginal stockmen and the Aboriginal rights campaigners in the lead-up to and following the Wave Hill strike.

c What was symbolic about the way Prime Minister Gough Whitlam gave the Gurindji people their land rights?

3 List examples of problems and discrimination experienced by Aboriginal communities that the 'freedom ride' highlighted in 1965.

Applying and analysing

4 Conduct an internet search to find and listen to Paul Kelly and Kev Carmody's song 'From Little Things Big Things Grow'. Write an analysis of the lyrics, focusing on how they tell the story of the strike at Wave Hill.

5 a Use the internet and other sources to research the activities of the 1965 'freedom riders' and the towns they visited in northern New South Wales.

b Draw a map recording the bus route, including the kilometres travelled between towns. From your research, annotate your map with the key activities that took place in each town.

Analysing and creating

6 Make up four slogans that the 'freedom ride' protesters could have used during their two-week journey. Choose one slogan and create an eye-catching banner that they could have used to draw attention to their efforts.

7 Using the internet and other sources, prepare an illustrated report on the life and work of the famous Aboriginal artist, Albert Namatjira.

UNIT 7

SOURCE STUDY: THE 1967 REFERENDUM

LIMITS OF AUSTRALIA'S CONSTITUTION

In 1901, Australia's Constitution gave the federal government no power to deal with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. As a result, their rights varied according to which state they lived in, and the federal government could not interfere with this. For example, in 1962, when Aboriginal adults were given voting rights in federal elections, it was up to the states whether they allowed them to vote in state elections. Another limitation of the Constitution was that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples could not be counted in the national census. This meant that even if the federal government wanted to introduce other laws to improve their conditions it did not have reliable population figures to work with. In one state a person could be defined as of Aboriginal origin, but in another state their degree of Aboriginal heritage might mean that they were not considered of Aboriginal descent.

Change to the Australian Constitution is achieved through a set process; both Houses of Parliament need to support the change and a referendum is held. This requires all Australian citizens to vote 'Yes' or 'No' to the amendment. A successful referendum requires a majority of electors nationwide and a majority of states to vote 'Yes'.

	NSW	VIC.	QLD	SA	WA	NT
Voting rights (state)	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Marry freely	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
Raise own children	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
Move freely	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
Own property	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No
Receive award wages	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
Alcohol allowed	No	No	No	No	No	No

SOURCE 3.7.1 'Rights enjoyed by Aborigines on settlements and reserves in five states and in the Northern Territory', referendum petition leaflet, Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI), 1962

TOWARDS CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGE

A growing number of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Australians believed that the best way forward was for the federal government to make national laws to improve the rights and conditions of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

In 1958, Jessie Street together with Doug Nicholls, Faith Bandler and others put forward a petition to the Menzies Liberal Government for a referendum to amend the Constitution. The petition was not acted on, but they were not deterred. With other like-minded people including Oodgeroo Noonuccal (the poet also known as Kath Walker), they formed the Federal Council for Aboriginal Advancement, later renamed the Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI). They presented another petition in 1962. Although it was also unsuccessful, it did result in greater public awareness of the need for constitutional change to achieve reforms.

Public awareness of the plight of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples was heightened by the media attention given to the New South Wales 'freedom ride' in 1965 and the Wave Hill strike in 1966. At the same time, there were international pressures at work. The US Civil Rights movement had made headlines throughout the world and there was widespread criticism of the Apartheid system in South Africa. In 1966, the United Nations published its International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and its International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

Following Menzies' retirement, Liberal Prime Minister Harold Holt signed the United Nations International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. Given all these circumstances, he had little choice but to agree to the referendum. The date was set for 27 May 1967.

1966 POPULATION FIGURES	NSW	VIC.	QLD	SA	WA	TAS.	NT	ACT	TOTAL
Aboriginal Australians	13 613	1 790	19 003	5 505	18 439	55	21 119	96	**79 620**
Non-Aboriginal people	4 267 452	3 249 843	1 687 062	1 103 740	864 093	373 309	59 352	99 992	**11 704 843**

SOURCE 3.7.2 Australia's population by state in 1966. Non-Aboriginal figures from Australian Historical Population Statistics, 2008, (Cat. No. 3105.0.65.001), Australian Bureau of Statistics. Aboriginal population figures are official estimates.

CAMPAIGN FOR THE 'YES' VOTE

The campaign was led by FCAATSI but it also received strong support from the trade union movement, the churches and the media. Because the technical elements of the required constitutional changes were quite straightforward, the campaign focused on moral and emotional appeals to the public. Campaign methods included public meetings and rallies, street parades, posters and music.

SOURCE 3.7.3 Aboriginal children in a protest rally campaigning for a 'Yes' vote, with support from the Queensland branch of the Builders Labourers' Federation. Held at the University of Queensland, Fryer Library Grahame Garner Collection



DID YOU KNOW?

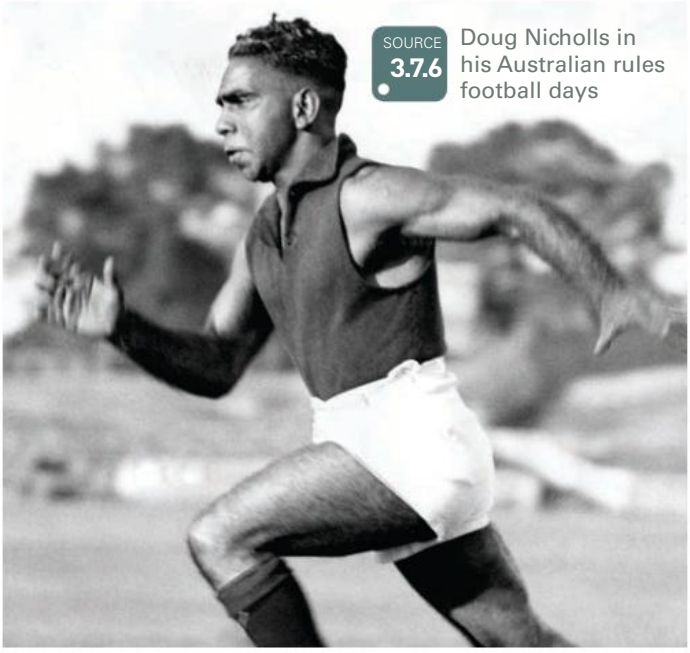
Faith Bandler was a leader of the New South Wales campaign for the 'Yes' vote in the 1967 referendum. Her father, Wacvie Mussingkon, had been kidnapped from present-day Vanuatu in 1883 and brought to Queensland to work as a slave labourer on a sugarcane plantation. In 1951, Bandler had visited communist Eastern Europe and as a result the federal government confiscated her Australian passport for ten years and tapped her telephone.



SOURCE 3.7.4 Faith Bandler (on right) at the Sydney Town Hall where people are casting their referendum vote, 27 May 1967

DID YOU KNOW?

Pastor Doug Nicholls was born in 1906 on the Cumeroogunja mission in New South Wales. When he was eight, Nicholls saw his 16-year-old sister Hilda forcibly taken from his family by the police. Nicholls was a talented Australian Rules football player. During the 1930s, he played with Northcote and Fitzroy. In 1968, Nicholls received the MBE (Member of the Order of the British Empire) and in the same year became a member of the new Ministry of Aboriginal Affairs in Victoria. In 1972, Nicholls became the first Aboriginal Australian to be knighted and, in 1976, he became the Governor of South Australia. Sir Doug Nicholls died in 1988.



SOURCE 3.7.6 Doug Nicholls in his Australian rules football days

...in the past, Commonwealth Parliamentarians have, unfortunately, interpreted the exclusion of the Aborigines from [their] power to mean that they must exclude Aborigines from special benefits of Commonwealth law.

Until 1961, for instance, Aborigines were excluded specifically from the benefits of the Social Services Act although they paid taxes and fulfilled responsibilities similar to other Australians.

The amendment of Section 51, paragraph XXVI will simply clear the way to enable the Commonwealth Parliament to provide special assistance, beyond the resources of some States, to help Aborigines bridge the tremendous economic and social gulf which exists.

As the Constitution stands, the Commonwealth cannot give direct assistance. In 1957 when the WA Government appealed to the Commonwealth for pound for pound assistance to meet a tragic situation in central WA, where Aborigines were dying of malnutrition and starvation, the existence of this paragraph was used as one reason why direct aid was refused.

It is to be hoped that as far as laws discriminating against persons on the basis of colour or race are concerned that the Commonwealth will pass an act similar to South Australia making any discrimination against people because of colour or race an offence against the law of the land.

A Yes vote for Aborigines on May 27 will not only let us be included in the numbers of people in Australia, but enable the Commonwealth to share with the States in the responsibilities towards a minor section of the population.

SOURCE 3.7.5 From a letter by Doug Nicholls (Field Officer of the Victorian Aborigines Advancement League), published in *The Age*, 16 May 1967



SOURCE 3.7.7 A referendum vote 'Yes' document produced by the Australian Council of Salaried and Professional Associations, a FCAATSI affiliate. Held at the National Library of Australia

STATE	YES		NO	
	VOTES	%	VOTES	%
NSW	1 949 036	91.46%	182 010	8.45%
VIC.	1 525 026	94.68%	85 611	5.32%
QLD	748 612	89.21%	90 587	10.79%
SA	473 440	86.26%	75 383	13.74%
WA	319 823	80.95%	75 282	19.05%
TAS.	167 176	90.21%	18 134	9.79%
TOTAL	5 183 113	90.77%	527 007	9.23%

SOURCE 3.7.8 1967 referendum results by states. Figures from Department of the Parliamentary Library, 'Parliamentary Handbook of the Commonwealth of Australia', 29th ed., 2002

CAMPAIGN SUCCESS

Voters from all states voted 'Yes' to amending Section 51 (paragraph XXVI) of the Constitution to allow the federal government to make laws for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and to delete Section 127 so that they could be counted in the census. Nationwide, the 'Yes' vote was just over 90 per cent.

> *...A glance at the referendum figures suggests that not all Australians had been carried away by the excitement of the occasion, and there were some who were still not prepared to grant Aborigines a place among legitimate Australian interests. This reluctance appears to have been most widespread in those areas that had most direct contact with Aborigines. Even in the statewide figures the differences between the States seems to have been significant, for the three States with the highest proportions of Aborigines in their populations [Western Australia, South Australia, Queensland] were also the States that recorded the biggest 'No' votes...*
>
> *This 'proximity' argument gains credence when divisional and subdivisional figures are studied. Most Aborigines were living in rural areas, and there was a marked difference between rural and urban returns, with 48 rural divisions returning a 13.15 percent 'No' vote, compared with a 7.4 percent figure in 74 urban divisions... Within divisions, the subdivisions with the highest and/or most obvious populations of Aborigines recorded the highest proportion of 'No' votes. The most spectacular was the subdivision of Georgetown in the northern Queensland division of Leichhardt, where there was actually a 62.92 percent 'No' majority. Elsewhere, particular towns such as Ceduna (SA), Moree (NSW) and Kalgoorlie (WA) returned 'No' votes well above their State figures... Many Australians were prepared to accept the Aboriginal case, but the greatest proportion of these came from urban areas on the eastern seaboard. Residents of rural areas or of the outlying States were less prepared to do so...*

SOURCE 3.7.9 From *Aborigines and Political Power*, by Scott Cecil Bennett, published by Allen & Unwin, Sydney, 1989

REFERENDUM OUTCOMES

The referendum did not remove the states' powers to legislate with regard to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. However, as Commonwealth laws take precedence over state laws, the federal government now had the power to override any state laws that were seen as discriminatory or contrary to the laws in other states. For Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples then, the overwhelming success of the referendum was a vital and symbolic victory, recognising their worth and place in Australian society and boosting activists' efforts to achieve justice in areas such as health and land rights.

> *The referendum was not designed merely to remove discrimination against Aboriginals; its purpose was to give the National Parliament and the National Government authority to grant especially favourable treatment to them to overcome the handicaps we have inflicted on them. Ninety-one per cent of the formal votes cast favoured the proposal. This was more than a mandate: It was a virtual command by 5 700 000 Australians that the National Government should take a lead to promote the health, training, employment opportunities and land rights of Aboriginals...*

SOURCE 3.7.10 From a speech delivered in the House of Representatives by Labor opposition leader Gough Whitlam, 13 August 1968

However, the federal government's new power was interpreted differently by the major political parties. In the years immediately after the 1967 referendum, the Liberal–Country Party Government opted for limited measures. It established an advisory Office of Aboriginal Affairs and appointed the first Minister for Aboriginal Affairs who was not given a Public Service department to work for change. Some disillusioned activists turned to more radical approaches, one of which was erecting the Aboriginal Tent Embassy outside Parliament House in Canberra in 1972.

The Whitlam Labor Government, however, took the view that the referendum result required the federal government to take far-reaching initiatives. After the Labor Government gained power in 1972, a number of major developments in relation to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples' rights began.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSING

1 Examine Source 3.7.1, the table of 'rights' from a 1962 referendum petition leaflet.
   - **a** In which states or territories are the greatest inequalities evident?
   - **b** What was the only restriction in place for all states and territories?

2 Examine Source 3.7.2.
   - **a** In each state or territory, what was the percentage of Aboriginal population compared to non-Aboriginal Australians?
   - **b** In one state the figure for Aboriginal population is extremely low. Which state is that? Why do you think this was the case?
   - **c** What comparisons and connections can you make between the figures in Source 3.7.1 and Source 3.7.2?

3 Examine Source 3.7.3.
   - **a** Describe what you see in this photo.
   - **b** What indications are there in the photo of non-Aboriginal support for the vote 'Yes' campaign?
   - **c** With reference to the sign on the side of the truck, what other rights are these protesters seeking?

4 Examine Sources 3.7.1, 3.7.2 and 3.7.8 and list the connections between these sources.

UNDERSTANDING AND EVALUATING

5 Examine Source 3.7.5, an extract from a letter to a newspaper written by Doug Nicholls.
   - **a** Describe, in your own words, what Doug Nicholls is saying about what has happened 'in the past'. What example does he give to support his argument?
   - **b** Doug Nicholls included two pieces of anecdotal evidence to promote the 'Yes' vote. What were these and which do you think is the most compelling? Explain your answer.
   - **c** From what you have learnt in this unit, do you believe that the information in this source is correct? Give reasons for your answer.
   - **d** Do you think this letter would have been published in the 1930s? If so, where? If not, why not?

6 Examine Source 3.7.7.
   - **a** Who was the audience for this poster? Provide evidence to support your answer.
   - **b** What group created this poster? What does this tell you about the level of support across Australian society for the 'yes' vote?
   - **c** Analyse the use of images and text in this poster as a means of persuading Australians to vote 'yes' in the 1967 referendum.

ANALYSING AND EVALUATING

7 Examine Source 3.7.9.
   - **a** Write a comparison of the figures in Source 3.7.8 with those in Source 3.7.9.
   - **b** How do you think the people of Georgetown in northern Queensland who voted 'No' would explain their decision?
   - **c** What does the 'proximity argument', as stated in this source, imply about urban dwellers?

8 Examine Source 3.7.10.
   - **a** What does Source 3.7.10 suggest has happened between May 1967 and August 1968?
   - **b** Consider Source 3.7.9 in relation to Source 3.7.10. What issue does Gough Whitlam not address in his speech?

9 Evaluate the usefulness of all the sources in this unit. Select three that you feel would be the most useful to a historian who wants to interpret and draw conclusions about the significance of the referendum. Explain why you have selected these three sources.



SELF-DETERMINATION AND LAND RIGHTS

ABORIGINAL TENT EMBASSY

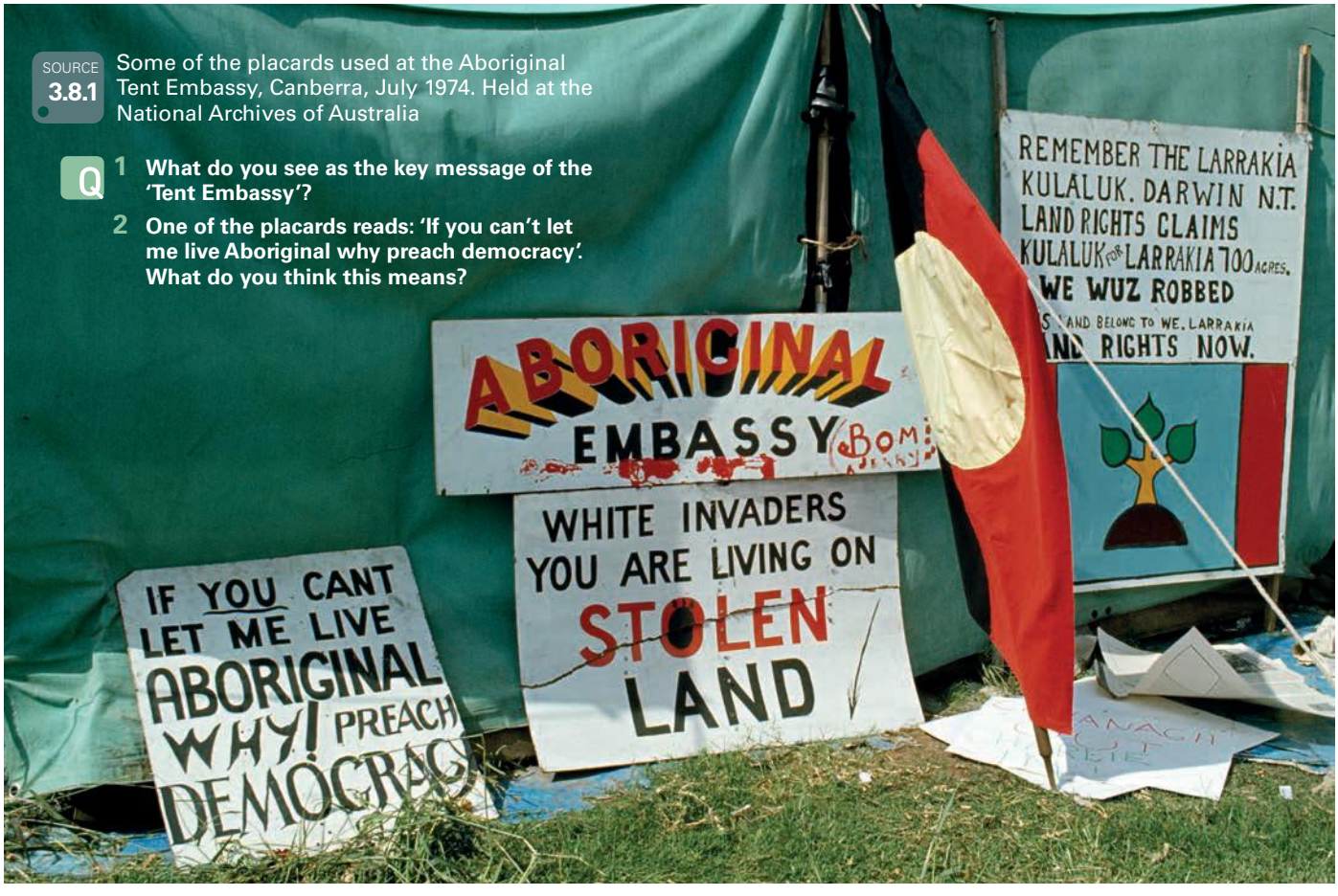
By the early 1970s, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were becoming frustrated that changes that had seemed imminent after the success of the 1967 referendum had not eventuated. On 26 January 1972, Liberal Prime Minister William McMahon announced his government's new **land rights policies** that included a limited general purpose lease for Aboriginal Peoples, excluded all rights to minerals and forests and allowed companies to mine on Aboriginal reserves. By that afternoon, Redfern-based Aboriginal activists established a protest camp on the lawns of Parliament House in Canberra in the form of tents that they proclaimed the 'Aboriginal Embassy', commonly known today as the **'Tent Embassy'**. These activists included Gary Foley, Chicka Dixon, Pearl Gibbs and Paul Coe. By February 1972, the activists presented their five-point plan demanding $6 billion in compensation for lands not returnable, full land rights (especially in the Northern Territory), self-determination and sovereignty.

DID YOU KNOW?

The 'Tent Embassy' existed intermittently on the lawns of the old Parliament House in Canberra for twenty years after it was first established in 1972. Since 1992 it has been there permanently.

Throughout 1972, political reaction to this form of protest on the front lawn of the country's most significant government building was mixed. It was an embarrassment to the government, especially when slogans such as 'The Mission has come to town' appeared in front of the tents. Several politicians visited it, including thirty federal Labor politicians who pledged support. More than once police removed the tents and arrested people. Each time the 'Tent Embassy' was re-erected. In December 1972, the Labor Government under Gough Whitlam came to power and, a month later on the first anniversary of the erection of the original 'Tent Embassy', all charges against protesters arrested during the year were dropped.

SOURCE 3.8.1 Some of the placards used at the Aboriginal Tent Embassy, Canberra, July 1974. Held at the National Archives of Australia



Q
1 What do you see as the key message of the 'Tent Embassy'?
2 One of the placards reads: 'If you can't let me live Aboriginal why preach democracy'. What do you think this means?

POLICY OF SELF-DETERMINATION

When the Whitlam Labor Government came to power in December 1972, it was swift in introducing significant changes, including an upgrade of the Commonwealth Office of Aboriginal Affairs to ministerial level: the Department of Aboriginal Affairs. It also announced its policy of self-determination, describing it as 'Aboriginal communities deciding the pace and nature of their future development as significant components within a diverse Australia'. This policy of self-determination was consistent with the 1966 United Nations (UN) International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, both of which Australia had signed. Self-determination was received positively by Aboriginal advancement organisations that saw it as a means for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples to have more say in their affairs and more input into the laws and policies that affected their communities. In September 1973, the Whitlam Government made further attempts to promote self-determination with the National Aboriginal Consultative Committee (NACC), which was to give Australia's first inhabitants a voice to assist and inform the government of their needs.

Over the following decades different federal governments continued to support self-determination, but often interpreted it differently. Malcolm Fraser's Liberal Government tended more towards self-management. After coming to power in 1975, they disbanded the NACC and established the National Aboriginal Conference (NAC) in 1977, appointing Lowitja (Lois) O'Donoghue as chairperson. After Fraser, governments continued to support various interpretations of self-determination.

> *In the past there has been a misunderstanding of what Aboriginal and Islander people have meant when talking of self-determination. What has always existed is a willingness and a desire by Aboriginal and Islander people to be involved in the decision-making process of government...*
>
> *We must ensure that Aboriginal and Islander people are properly involved at all levels of the decision-making process in order that the right decisions are taken about their lives.*
>
> *Aboriginal people need to decide for themselves what should be done—not just take whatever governments think or say is best for them.*

SOURCE 3.8.2 From a statement to the House of Representatives by Gerry Hand, Labor Minister for Aboriginal Affairs, proposing the establishment of an Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, December 1987

Q **What possible interpretations of self-determination does Gerry Hand not include in this explanation of the policy?**

LAND RIGHTS

The conflicts between Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and the country's colonial and European settlers have been numerous. Disputes about land have been among the most complex. Indigenous and European perceptions of land ownership have differed greatly.

> *Whilst the particular priorities with respect to land differ between Aboriginal people, they are united in their view that land, whether under the banner of land rights or not, is the key to their cultural and economic survival as a people.*

SOURCE 3.8.3 From the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody, 1991

Soon after coming into government, Whitlam appointed Justice Edward Woodward to conduct a Royal Commission into how land rights could be introduced in a way that would meet the needs of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities and state and territory governments.

Woodward recognised that the aims of land rights were:

- to provide justice to those who had lost their lands
- to promote harmony and stability in the Australian community
- to provide land holdings to those he recognised as having no real opportunity of achieving an Australian standard of living
- to preserve the spiritual link with the land for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples
- to promote Australia to the world as a country that demonstrates fair treatment of an ethnic minority.

Woodward recommended these aims be accomplished by:

- preserving and strengthening existing Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander interests in rights over land, particularly those with spiritual importance
- providing basic compensation in the form of land for those who have been deprived of the rights and interests that they would otherwise have inherited from their ancestors
- further provision of land, to the limits the wider community can afford, in places where it will do most good to the largest number of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

The Whitlam Government adopted the Woodward findings as the basis for the proposed legislation on land rights; a Bill was before parliament when the government was dismissed in 1975. Initially, the Liberal-Country Party coalition promised that the Bill would be passed without amendment. However, as a result of pressure from mining and pastoral groups, Fraser's Liberal Government amended the Bill and passed it in parliament as the *Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act 1976*.

CLAIMING LAND RIGHTS

The *Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act 1976* passed by the Fraser Liberal Government recognised and protected the interests of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples by giving them legal ownership of land. Successful land rights claims resulted in grants of **freehold title** or **perpetual lease** to a community or organisation, not individuals. There are usually restrictions that ensure that it is passed down to future generations as part of the community's ongoing connection to the land. In some parts of Australia, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples have successfully claimed compensation where land rights have not been deemed possible.

Efforts to take up rights under the Act did not always go smoothly. In 1980, the Pitjantjatjara people travelled to Adelaide in buses and camped on the city racecourse in an effort to push the South Australian Government into settling a land dispute. Eventually, their council and the South Australian Government reached an agreement about how mining could be carried out and proceeds could be shared. Subject to certain conditions the Pitjantjatjara people were given freehold title in 1981.

In the Northern Territory there were disputes over land rights, including the land that incorporates Uluru. These were resolved in 1985 when Uluru (formerly called Ayers Rock) was handed back to its traditional owners and the national park land was granted to the Mutitjulu people. They in turn granted a lease to federal authorities to allow tourist access to continue.

LAND RIGHTS AND MINING

When Labor returned to power under Prime Minister Bob Hawke in 1983, it was hoped that there would be a return to the spirit of reform begun under Whitlam. In 1982, before the election, the Australian Labor Party said that if elected it would introduce national land rights legislation. Once in power, Hawke was greatly pressured by powerful mining companies, especially in Western Australia, and some state governments until eventually the proposed legislation was dropped. The subsequent legislation introduced by the Hawke Government meant that **Crown land** would not automatically be claimable as Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander land if the claim was 'detrimental to persons or communities'. It also avoided national legislation, often leaving decisions to state governments.

In 1981, there was a major clash in Noonkanbah in the Kimberley region, Western Australia, between the state's pro-mining Liberal government and protesters supporting the traditional owners of the land, the Yungngora people. A US mining company, Amax, wanted to explore for oil on land that contained sacred sites. The government sent hundreds of police to support Amax's activities and this resulted in violent confrontations between the police and the protesters. Amax succeeded in its aim. (It was not until 2007 that the Yungngora people gained native title over their land.)



SOURCE 3.8.4 Noonkanbah demonstration, Western Australia, 1981

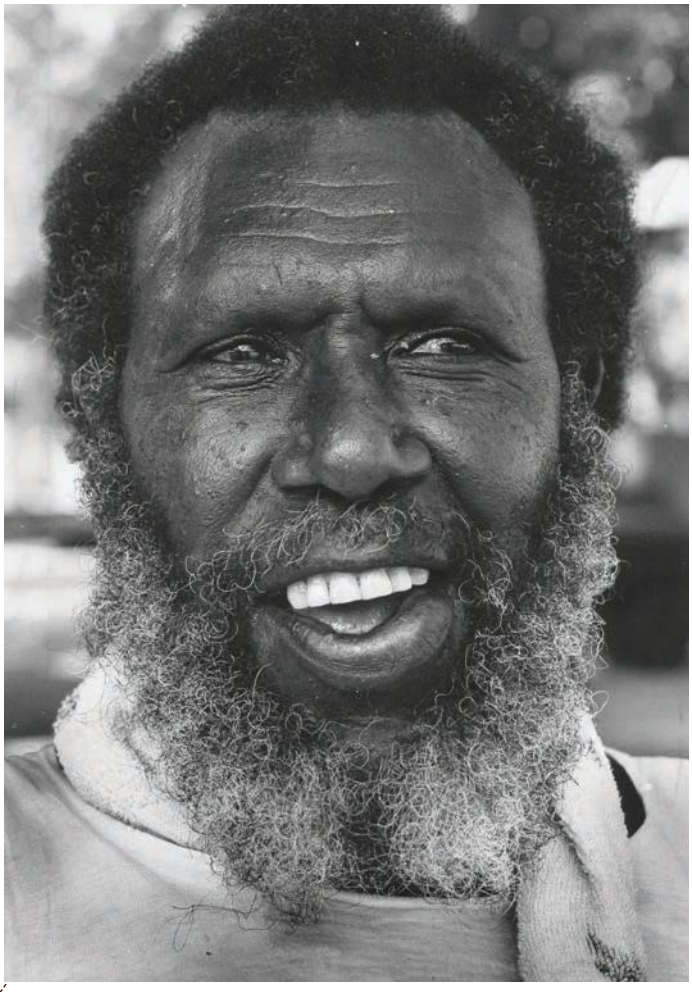
THE HISTORIC MABO CASE

Eddie Mabo was born in 1937 on Mer Island (also known as Murray Island) in the Torres Strait. He was raised by his uncle Benny Mabo. As a young man, Mabo worked on pearling boats and cut sugar cane. Around 1960, Mabo was employed as a gardener at James Cook University in Townsville. He was never enrolled as a student but took part in university life by sitting in on classes and reading books from the library. In a conversation with two academics, Mabo spoke of Mer Island as if it belonged to his people. When they explained that Mer Island was Crown land, Mabo remained adamant that it was his people's inheritance and had belonged to their ancestors for generations. The realisation prompted Mabo to research the law and challenge the notion of *terra nullius*.

In 1981, Mabo attended a Lands Rights Conference and spoke against the idea of Crown ownership. A lawyer who heard Mabo speak suggested he take his claim against *terra nullius* to the High Court. Mabo's arguments were dismissed at a High Court ruling in 1982 on the basis that he was not the son of Benny Mabo and could not claim inheritance. However, the case continued in the years to follow in the Queensland Supreme Court. Others argued that because unbroken generations of Mabo's people had lived on Mer Island the land was rightfully theirs and they held traditional **native title**.

> *[Our land]... it was handed down from generation to generation, they knew by the boundary lines and markers. There was a certain tree, or stones, heaps of rocks, different trees. They knew exactly where the place was.*

SOURCE 3.8.5 Eddie Mabo speaking of his family's land on Mer Island



SOURCE 3.8.6 Eddie Mabo

1992 HIGH COURT REVERSAL

Eddie Mabo died in January 1992. Five months later the High Court reversed its original decision and the claim of *terra nullius* made by the British in the eighteenth century. The 1992 High Court ruling was a landmark decision that overthrew the legal notion of *terra nullius*. It recognised the existence of native title for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples who continue to live on the land in accordance with Aboriginal traditions, laws and customs.

NATIVE TITLE ACT

On 1 January 1994, the *Native Title Act*, an initiative of the Labor Government led by Prime Minister Paul Keating, came into force in an attempt to clarify the Mabo decision. It stated that ownership could only be claimed over vacant lands. Private property was never threatened by the *Native Title Act*. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were able to apply for formal recognition of their land interests. Native title representative bodies were created to research claims and represent claimants at the National Native Title Tribunal.



SOURCE 3.8.7 Labor Prime Minister Paul Keating was known for prioritising Reconciliation and Aboriginal affairs. Six months after the Mabo decision, on 10 December 1992, Keating gave the 'Redfern Speech', which addressed the challenges faced by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

Q Why would 10 December be an important day to give the 'Redfern Speech'?

After the Mabo decision and the introduction of the *Native Title Act* there were still many questions. How was native title to be treated if governments saw the need to proceed with public works or give permission for private development? How should native title holders be compensated for loss or restriction of their rights? The *Native Title Act* also did not clearly define the situation for land under pastoral lease, which led to the Wik case.

WIK DECISION

The question of whether pastoral leases could be acquired by the descendants of traditional owners was tested in the Wik and Thayore peoples of Cape York in North Queensland case. They wanted more say over their lands, which had been granted pastoral leases from the Queensland Government.

In the Federal Court on 29 January 1996, Justice Drummond announced that the Wik people could not succeed because he believed that the grant of pastoral lease under Queensland law extinguished native title rights. The Wik people appealed to the High Court with a range of questions including: Does the pastoral lease confer right to exclusive possession by the pastoralist?

The High Court decision handed down in December 1996 found that a pastoral lease did not give pastoralists exclusive rights to the land. Pastoralists' rights include the right to farm livestock, construct fences, bore for water, establish mills and build accommodation. The High Court therefore decided that the Wik people and the farmers who leased the land could co-exist.

We don't want to keep people off our land. We want to share. We don't want to drive the pastoralists away. They are not our enemies. We helped to build that industry and we need it to be strong for our future too. We just asked the Court to find that we can live alongside pastoral leases on Cape York.

We want the government to recognise that we are the traditional owners of those lands. Our law is the first law…

SOURCE 3.8.8 From 'What the Wik Decision Means to Us', by Denny Bowenda in *Native Title*, edited by Kaye Healey, vol. 93, The Spinney Press, 1998

Q
1 **What does Denny Bowenda mean when he says, 'We helped to build that industry'?**
2 **What is the main argument he uses?**

Negative reaction to the Wik decision was strong and widespread, especially from pastoralists and some politicians. In the decade following the passing of the *Native Title Act* and the Wik decision, those who opposed co-existence used scare tactics to rouse doubt in the Australian public, including the claim that private homes and gardens would be affected.

TEN-POINT PLAN

Because of pressure from pastoralists and mining companies, John Howard's Liberal-National Party Government introduced its 'Ten-Point Plan' in May 1997, which was followed by an amendment to the *Native Title Act* in 1998. The Howard Government sought to clarify what types of grants extinguish native title, and to tighten aspects of rights to negotiate. It reduced the amount of native title land that could be claimed by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and put limitations on their ability to negotiate with industries, mining companies and others. These changes were introduced without consultation or discussion with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander representatives, and some native title supporters immediately saw this as a backward step in land rights.

…our [National Farmers' Federation] primary concern has always been certainty for the people who use the land for economic benefit—our farmers—and that means that they simply must have exclusive occupancy of their land. We've demanded that the Government legislate to overturn the Wik decision, because the concept of coexisting title is simply unworkable…

since the Wik decision, many farmers around the country can't [plan for and invest in the future of their farms] because their future ability to manage their [farms] is clouded…

50 per cent of Victoria is now under native title claim…

Australia's farmers understand that they are deeply involved in a crucial chapter in our country's history, and they feel a strong obligation to make sure that their decisions are in the best interests of all Australians, wherever they live.

SOURCE 3.8.9 From 'To conserve or farm?', by Donald McGauchie, published in *The Age*, 22 July 1997. Donald McGauchie was president of the National Farmers' Federation.

Q **Compare Sources 3.8.8 and 3.8.9. Write a brief explanation of the differences between the two sources.**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- Crown land
- freehold title
- land rights policies
- native title
- perpetual lease
- 'Tent Embassy'

2 What were activists seeking for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples when they established the 'Tent Embassy' in 1972?

3 How does the term 'self-determination' relate to indigenous peoples?

4 What protest action did the Pitjantjatjara people of South Australia use to advance their push for land rights and what was the outcome?

5 According to Eddie Mabo, how did the people of Mer Island distinguish between their land and the land of neighbouring communities?

6 Explain the positives and perceived difficulties of the Wik decision.

Applying and analysing

7 a Working in pairs, research a person's involvement in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander land rights issues. Possible people include: Chicka Dixon, Gary Foley, Malcolm Fraser, Pearl Gibbs, Bob Hawke, John Howard, Paul Keating, Eddie Mabo, Lowitja (Lois) O'Donoghue, Gough Whitlam and Edward Woodward.

b Present your findings in the form of an interview, where one student asks the questions and the other answers from the point of view of the chosen person. Your questions and answers should focus on how this individual contributed to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander land rights.

c Perform your interview for the class.



MOVES TO RECONCILIATION

During the Commonwealth Games in Brisbane in 1982 and the 1988 Australia Day Bicentenary celebrations in Sydney, thousands of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, together with non-Aboriginal supporters, held street marches and sit-ins to demand land rights and protest against the restrictions on the lives of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. As expected, both mass protests attracted national and international media coverage that highlighted Australia's limited progress on the civil rights of its indigenous peoples. This put further pressure on state and federal politicians to find solutions that would be acceptable to all Australians.

Prompted by Aboriginal leaders, in 1988, Labor Prime Minister Bob Hawke considered the idea of a 'treaty' between the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and the federal government. The treaty would legally recognise Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples' claim to their traditional lands, their right to self-determination and the need for compensation so that they could overcome their disadvantages in areas such as health and education. However, it was clear that large sections of the Australian population would not support this idea.

COUNCIL FOR ABORIGINAL RECONCILIATION

Prime Minister Hawke was already turning to a different initiative: an organisation to promote **Reconciliation**; that is, improving the relationships between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and the broader Australian community. In 1991, an Act of Parliament established the Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation, a body of twenty-five prominent Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Australians. Its first chairperson was Patrick Dodson. It was given a ten-year period in which to consult widely with individuals and organisations before making its recommendations.

New Labor Prime Minister Paul Keating supported this initiative. He also contributed to it indirectly by asking non-Aboriginal Australians to think hard about the legacies of the past and what this meant for all Australians.

> *Isn't it reasonable to say that if we can build a prosperous and remarkably harmonious multicultural society in Australia, surely we can find just solutions to the problems which beset the first Australians—the people to whom the most injustice has been done...*
>
> *...the starting point might be to recognise that the problem starts with us non-Aboriginal Australians.*
>
> *It begins, I think, with that act of recognition.*
>
> *Recognition that it was we who did the dispossessing.*
>
> *We took the traditional lands and smashed the traditional way of life.*
>
> *We brought the diseases. The alcohol.*
>
> *We committed the murders.*
>
> *We took the children from their mothers.*
>
> *We practised discrimination and exclusion.*
>
> *It was our ignorance and prejudice.*
>
> *And our failure to imagine these things being done to us...*
>
> *We failed to ask—how would I feel if this were done to me?*
>
> *As a consequence, we failed to see that what we were doing degraded all of us...*

SOURCE 3.9.1 From Prime Minister Paul Keating's speech at Redfern Park, New South Wales, 10 December 1992, delivered at the Australian launch of the International Year for the World's Indigenous People

Q
1. **Much of what Keating refers to happened in the past, but he deliberately uses the word 'we' to connect this to non-Aboriginal Australians of the present. What do you think is intended by this?**
2. **What do you think Keating meant when he said 'we failed to see that what we were doing degraded all of us'?**

When the Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation was at work, other developments made Reconciliation an even more complex matter. The Mabo and Wik decisions were being debated and a major inquiry into the Stolen Generations was taking place. There had also been a change in federal government. In 1997, many of the 1800 delegates at the Australian Reconciliation Convention were dismayed when Liberal-National Party Prime Minister John Howard took a different position from Keating's.

> *In facing the realities of the past, however, we must not join those who would portray Australia's history since 1788 as little more than a disgraceful record of imperialism, exploitation and racism… such an approach will be repudiated by the overwhelming majority of Australians who are proud of what this country has achieved although inevitably acknowledging the blemishes in its past history.*

SOURCE 3.9.2 From Prime Minister John Howard's opening address to the Australian Reconciliation Convention, 1997

Q
1 **Based on what you know about past treatment of Australia's first inhabitants, list some of the 'blemishes' that John Howard is referring to.**
2 **Do you think that the word 'blemishes' is an appropriate way to refer to these events? Why or why not? Suggest other words that might have been used.**

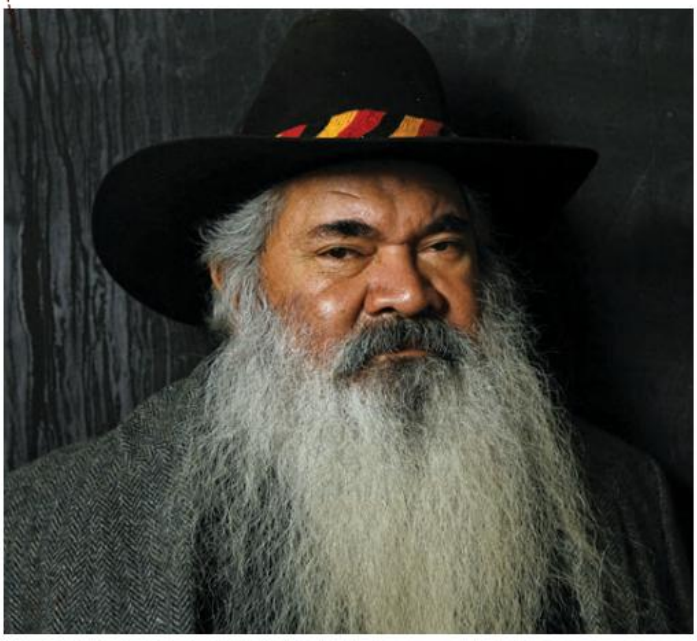
ABOUT PATRICK DODSON

Patrick Dodson of the Yawuru tribe was born in 1948 in Broome, Western Australia. Like his equally well-known brother Mick Dodson, he was sent to a Catholic boarding school in country Victoria. Patrick Dodson became Australia's first Aboriginal Catholic priest.

After leaving the priesthood in 1981, Dodson took on key roles seeking justice for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. In 1989, he worked as a commissioner on the inquiry into Aboriginal deaths in custody and, in 2001, he established the Lingiari Foundation. In 2009, he became director of the Indigenous Policy and Dialogue Research Unit at the University of New South Wales.

Dodson has won several awards including the 2008 Sydney Peace Prize for his 'courageous advocacy of the human rights of Indigenous people and his significant contribution to peace and reconciliation'.

SOURCE 3.9.3 Patrick Dodson is sometimes called the 'Father of Reconciliation'.



SOURCE 3.9.4 The 'Sea of Hands' on the lawns of Parliament House, Canberra, 12 October 1997, was a protest in response to the Howard Government's proposed amendments to the *Native Title Act*. More than 120 000 plastic hands were signed by individuals to represent their strong desire for Reconciliation.



OUTCOMES OF THE COUNCIL'S REPORT

The Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation released its final report at the end of 2000. Its recommendations included a formal recognition of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples as Australia's first peoples in a new preamble to Australia's Constitution, and a process to unite Australians by way of a formal agreement or treaty through which issues of Reconciliation could be resolved. The Howard Government took almost two years to officially respond to the Council's final report and rejected most of its recommendations. In January 2001, the Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation was replaced with a body called Reconciliation Australia. Federal government funding for it and the Reconciliation process was greatly reduced.

In its work over the next decade, Reconciliation Australia advocated constitutional change to recognise the history, cultures and contribution of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and gained increasing public support for this idea. In February 2012, Labor Prime Minister Julia Gillard announced that Reconciliation Australia would lead a national movement for a referendum to enable the Constitution to include such a preamble.

NATIONAL INQUIRY INTO THE STOLEN GENERATIONS

Under government policies of assimilation, many thousands of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children were forcibly removed from their families. It is estimated that between 1910 and 1970 when this practice was at its peak, between 10 and 30 per cent of children were taken. It was not unusual for the children of a parent who themselves had been removed to then also be forcibly taken away.

Until the 1990s, most non-Aboriginal Australians knew little about this practice or about its devastating effects both on the children and the family members and communities left behind. This began to change as Aboriginal community leaders lobbied the federal government to take action. As a result, in 1995, the Keating Labor Government established the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families through the Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission. It took evidence and reviewed submissions from 535 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and groups as well as 56 church and government organisations.

BRINGING THEM HOME REPORT

In 1997, the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families released its findings in its ***Bringing them home* report**. Its findings revealed that many officials and organisations believed that they were doing the right thing by forcibly removing children, that some institutions provided caring situations for the children in their custody, and that many of the removed children had happy lives with their adopted parents. However, it also recognised that most children were severely traumatised by their forced removal; many suffered cruelty, neglect and abuse, and their experiences have affected their adult lives, including their ability to parent their own children and to trust institutions such as schools, police and welfare departments. The report found that these conditions have had a lasting impact on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

> *... the consistent theme for post-removal memories is the lack of love, the strict, often cruel, treatment by adults, the constantly disparaging remarks about Aboriginality—and the fact that the child should be showing more gratitude for having been taken from all that—and of course, the terrible loneliness and longing to return to family and community...*

SOURCE 3.9.5 Melbourne law firm Phillips Fox summarises the experiences reported by their clients in the *Bringing them home* report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families, 1997.

Q From this submission, suggest some effects that the treatment of most children would have had on their sense of worth and identity.

> *Indigenous families and communities have endured gross violations of their human rights. These violations continue to affect Indigenous peoples' daily lives. They were an act of genocide, aimed at wiping out Indigenous families, communities and cultures, vital to the precious and inalienable heritage of Australia.*

SOURCE 3.9.6 From the conclusion of the *Bringing them home* report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families, 1997

Q In what ways could this conclusion have been influenced by the work of the United Nations about fifty years earlier?

The *Bringing them home* report recommended:

- acknowledgement of their responsibility and formal apologies from Australian parliaments, non-government organisations, police forces and churches for their roles in the forcible removal of children
- government funding to enable Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples affected by the forced removal policies to record their histories
- establishment of a National Compensation Fund to provide reparations to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples who were victims of forced removal from families.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT RESPONSES

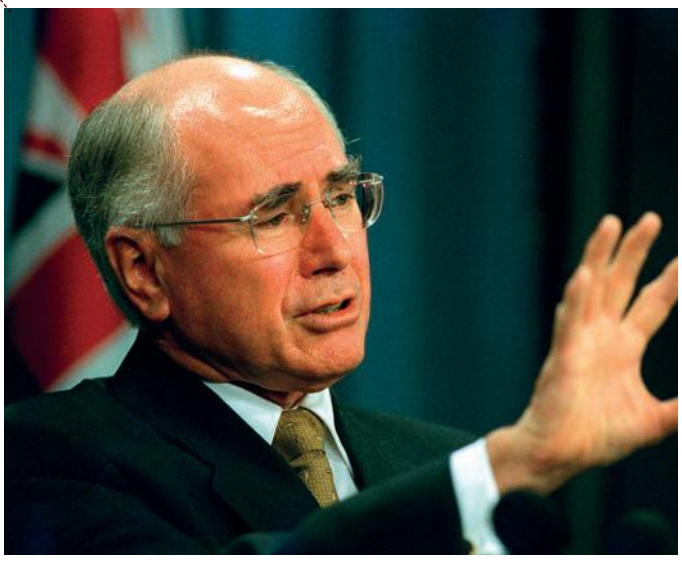
When the *Bringing them home* report was released, a Liberal-National Party federal government was in power. Responding to some of its recommendations, the government provided funding for measures such as family tracing, counselling services and an oral history project. However, it rejected recommendations for monetary compensation to survivors and their families. While he expressed his personal regret about the forcible removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children, Prime Minister Howard consistently refused to issue a formal apology to them and their families on behalf of the federal government. He stated that Australians of today should not 'accept guilt or blame' for actions of the past 'over which they had no control'.

On 26 August 1999, Liberal-National Party Prime Minister John Howard presented in federal parliament his 'Motion of Reconciliation' that he had written in consultation with Australian Democrats Senator Aden Ridgeway, an Aboriginal Australian. It referred to the maltreatment and injustices experienced by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples as 'the most blemished chapter in our national history'. However, it used the word 'regret' rather than 'sorry' as the government's response to the generations of Indigenous peoples whose lives and culture were damaged by the maltreatment and injustices.

STATE GOVERNMENT RESPONSES

State governments acted to fulfil certain recommendations of the *Bringing them home* report. For example, state health departments provided the means to support Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and their families with physical and mental health problems due to the forced-removal policies. In addition, each state premier gave a formal apology in their state parliaments for their government's involvement in the forcible removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children.

SOURCE 3.9.7 Liberal-National Party Prime Minister John Howard's refusal to issue a formal apology to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples regarding the Stolen Generations which included the word 'sorry' has been a matter of public debate in discussions about Aboriginal Reconciliation.



ABOUT LOWITJA (LOIS) O'DONOGHUE

One of the members of the Stolen Generations who was present in parliament for the national apology was Lowitja (Lois) O'Donoghue. She was born in the remote north-west of South Australia, and was taken from her mother in 1934 at the age of two. O'Donoghue grew up in children's homes in South Australia where she was given the name Lois and trained to work in domestic service. While in secondary school, she decided she wanted to be a nurse; however, after initial training, the Royal Adelaide Hospital refused to accept her because she was of Aboriginal descent. O'Donoghue persevered and, in 1954, became the first Aboriginal trainee nurse at the hospital.

She left nursing to work in the Department of Aboriginal Affairs in 1967. In 1975, she was appointed its regional director in South Australia. She served as founding chair of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission from 1990 to 1996. O'Donoghue has received several important awards for her advocacy of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander rights, including being named Australian of the Year in 1984. In 1993, she was a leading member of the group that negotiated with the federal government on an agreement that provided the basis for the *Native Title Act 1994*. During that year, she was the first Aboriginal Australian to address the UN General Assembly.

From the time of her forced removal from her family, O'Donoghue did not see her mother again for thirty-three years. When she found her mother, she was living in a corrugated iron humpy in Oodnadatta, South Australia. O'Donoghue was removed when she was still learning to speak and never had the opportunity to properly learn her tribal language. Her mother had never learnt to speak English, so the two could only express their emotions, and try to fill in all those lost years, through an interpreter.



SOURCE 3.9.8 Lowitja (Lois) O'Donoghue speaks at a forum to mark the tenth anniversary of the *Bringing them home* report, 24 May 2007.

SAYING SORRY

A formal apology with the use of the word 'sorry' was of great importance to the Stolen Generations and their families and communities. The *Bringing them home* report had a strong effect on most non-Aboriginal Australians. In response to one of the report's recommendations, a National Sorry Day Committee was formed at the grassroots level. In May 1998, a year after the delivery of the *Bringing them home* report, the first National Sorry Day was held. Over 1.5 million people participated in marches throughout Australia to honour the Stolen Generations and say 'sorry'.

In the following years, public support for an apology by the federal government on behalf of the country grew steadily. By 2008, the newly elected Labor Prime Minister Kevin Rudd, delivered the much awaited **'Sorry Speech'**. On 13 February 2008, in a sitting of both Houses of the Commonwealth Parliament and with seventeen representatives of the Stolen Generations, he made a formal apology on behalf of the nation.

Although this apology was not supported by all members of the Liberal-National Party Opposition, it was welcomed and acclaimed by the great majority of Australians, many of whom watched it live on television. Some Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were disappointed that the apology was not accompanied by a promise of compensation to the victims of forced removal and their families. Despite this, across the country they rejoiced in an expression of their belief that the long process of personal and community healing could begin.

> *I move:*
>
> *That today we honour the Indigenous peoples of this land, the oldest continuing cultures in human history.*
>
> *We reflect on their past mistreatment.*
>
> *We reflect in particular on the mistreatment of those who were Stolen Generations—this blemished chapter in our nation's history…*
>
> *We apologise for the laws and policies of successive parliaments and governments that have inflicted profound grief, suffering and loss on these our fellow Australians…*
>
> *And for the indignity and degradation thus inflicted on a proud people and a proud culture, we say sorry…*
>
> *to remove a great stain from the nation's soul and, in a true spirit of reconciliation, to open a new chapter in this history of this great land, Australia…*
>
> *There are thousands, tens of thousands of them: stories of forced separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children from their mums and dads over the better part of a century…*
>
> *we are the bearers of many blessings from our ancestors; therefore we must also be the bearer of their burdens as well…*
>
> *We offer this apology to the mothers, the fathers, the brothers, the sisters, the families and the communities whose lives were ripped apart by the actions of successive governments under successive parliaments…*

SOURCE 3.9.9 From Prime Minister Rudd's 'Sorry Speech', 13 February 2008

Q

1a Consider Prime Minister Rudd's words, '… we are the bearers of many blessings from our ancestors; therefore we must also be the bearer of their burdens as well'. How would you express this statement in your own words?

b Do you agree with this statement? Give reasons for your response.

SOURCE 3.9.10 Hundreds of thousands of people take part in a walk for Reconciliation across Sydney Harbour Bridge, 28 May 2000.





SOURCE 3.9.11 Members of the band Midnight Oil performing at the 2000 Sydney Olympics Closing Ceremony with the word 'sorry' printed on their clothing. The gesture was in response to Prime Minister John Howard's refusal to say sorry to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities regarding the Stolen Generations.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms below.
   - *Bringing them home* report
   - Reconciliation
   - 'Sorry Speech'
2. Construct a table with the headings 'Findings' and 'Recommendations' to summarise the main points of the *Bringing them home* report.
3. What was Prime Minister John Howard's perspective on the Stolen Generations and the *Bringing them home* report recommendations in terms of a formal government apology?

Understanding and analysing

4. Re-read Source 3.9.9. What words does Prime Minister Kevin Rudd use to pay homage to Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples?

Analysing and creating

5. Use the internet to source the following items:
   - Paul Keating's 'Redfern Speech', 10 December 1992
   - John Howard's 'Motion of Reconciliation', 26 August 1999
   - Kevin Rudd's 'Sorry Speech', 13 February 2008

   For each source, complete the following activities:
   - **a** Identify how the speech or motion is related to Aboriginal Reconciliation.
   - **b** Locate at least three other primary or secondary sources that show the attitudes of the Australian public at the time the speech was delivered or the motion was presented to parliament.
   - **c** Create a multimedia presentation that shows the relationship between government policy, public opinion and Aboriginal Reconciliation from the 1990s to the present.



TWO RECENT CHALLENGES

ROYAL COMMISSION INTO ABORIGINAL DEATHS IN CUSTODY

During the 1980s, at least ninety-nine Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People died while held in custody; eighty-eight were males and eleven were females. Sixty-three of these deaths occurred in police cells, three in youth detention centres and thirty-three in prisons. In August 1987, Labor Prime Minister Bob Hawke announced the establishment of a Royal Commission to investigate the high rate of Aboriginal deaths within the justice system. By the time the Royal Commission had completed its final report there had been more Aboriginal deaths in custody.

In 1991, the Royal Commission's final report found that the deaths were mainly due to inadequate care and supervision by police or prison officers. A large number of prisoners committed suicide; some deaths were the result of injuries received before the persons were taken into custody; and a number of deaths were identified as a result of natural causes.

The Royal Commission found that while Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples made up only 2.3 per cent of the population, they were 17.3 per cent more likely to be arrested and 14.7 per cent more likely to be imprisoned than non-Aboriginal people. Also, the racism experienced by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples was a major contributing factor to the high rate of detainees held within the justice system and the related deaths in custody. The report uncovered many similarities in the lives of those who died. Almost half had been taken from their families when they were children by state authorities and most were unemployed. The majority had histories of juvenile crime, mostly property related.

The Royal Commission's recommendations included the need to find alternatives to custody for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, to implement strategies to address alcohol and substance abuse, to encourage involvement of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities in the justice system, and to make improvements in the operation of the criminal justice system and relations with police.

TWO DECADES LATER

According to the Australian Institute of Criminology, between 1990 and 2004 over eighty Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People died in police custody, indicating the Royal Commission's recommendations had not had a serious impact on the situation. This was supported by a number of tragic cases that attracted national media attention, including the death from serious injuries of a Palm Island resident that occurred while he was in custody in 2004. Following outrage by the local community, the officer in charge was put on trial in 2007 and again in 2009. Although the officer eventually admitted to causing the injuries, he was not convicted.

THE NORTHERN TERRITORY INTERVENTION

From the 1990s, there were growing concerns among welfare agencies and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander leaders about social issues such as youth suicide, substance abuse, domestic violence, child abuse and relationship breakdowns in Aboriginal communities in the Northern Territory. How these issues impacted children was highlighted by the media and eventually prompted the Northern Territory Government's Inquiry into the Protection of Aboriginal Children from Sexual Abuse.

The Board of Inquiry was established in 2006 to research and report on accusations of sexual abuse of Aboriginal children. Its activities involved visiting communities, holding meetings and receiving sixty-five written submissions from individuals and organisations. The findings published in the *Little Children are Sacred* report revealed:

- Child sexual abuse was widespread and often went unreported.
- Aboriginal Peoples were neither solely victims nor perpetrators of the crime.
- Much of the violence and sexual abuse was a reflection of past, current and continuing social problems in Northern Territory communities.
- Poor health, alcohol and drug abuse, unemployment, pornography, poor education and inadequate housing contributed to the violence and sexual abuse.
- Government programs to help Aboriginal Peoples overcome the problems associated with poverty and violence needed to work better and be better funded.

In 2007, the *Little Children are Sacred* report was released and presented ninety-seven recommendations to the Northern Territory Parliament.

However, the federal government led by Liberal-National Party Prime Minister John Howard announced that it was treating the situation in the Northern Territory as a 'national emergency' and would intervene immediately. It hastily passed the Northern Territory Emergency Response legislation, which became known as the Intervention.

CONDITIONS OF THE INTERVENTION

The federal government's **Northern Territory Intervention** program involved the deployment of soldiers, senior public servants, teachers, doctors and other health professionals to remote Northern Territory Aboriginal communities. The government was to ensure improved medical checks for children in the Northern Territory. Where medical problems were encountered there were to be follow-up services. Where it was found that child abuse had occurred the government promised that child protection would be improved and welfare payments to Aboriginal parents would be 'quarantined'. Suspension of native title claims in certain regions was another action initiated by the terms of the initial intervention program.

PERSPECTIVES ON THE INTERVENTION

Reactions by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities, the media and other sectors of the Australian public towards the federal government's intervention strategies were strong. Aboriginal Peoples perceived the Intervention as a way of non-Aboriginal people telling their communities what was best for them rather than asking, 'How can we help?' It was seen as a move away from the right to self-determination.

Aboriginal rights advocate and leader Patrick Dodson pointed out that Northern Territory Intervention was not based on any consultation or partnership with Aboriginal Peoples in the remote communities. He argued that the program was like previous Howard Government policies that did not respect the rights and efforts of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples living on their traditional lands who were attempting to recover from generations of dispossession and rebuild their culture. Dodson believed that the Northern Territory Intervention was a response to the crisis of child abuse in remote communities that intentionally undermined Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples' right to self-determination and was a new form of assimilation.

SOURCE 3.10.1 Prime Minister John Howard talks with Kerry O'Brien on *The 7.30 Report*, broadcast on ABC television, 7 August 2007

Q
1 **Consider Kerry O'Brien's opening comment that draws attention to the number of pages in the legislation. What point is he making here?**
2 **Explain the meaning of the words 'precedent' and 'aggregate'. What do you think John Howard means when he uses these word in each context?**

Kerry O'Brien: *...Prime Minister, if we can talk about the legislation related to the Northern Territory Intervention... can you think of any previous legislation of this importance or complexity, nearly 500 pages, that's been given less time for debate in the House of Representatives...?*

John Howard: *...The important thing is that the principles of the legislation and what it enacts has been out there in the public domain for quite a long time.*

Kerry O'Brien: *Six weeks.*

John Howard: *Yeah, 21st June... It is something of an emergency. Action is already well under way, for example, there have been about 400 medical checks carried out already on children in the Northern Territory...*

Kerry O'Brien: *...In the six weeks since that original announcement, the cost of your program has ballooned from the tens of millions of dollars that you estimated originally to more than $500 million in this year alone...*

John Howard: *The original figure you quoted of tens of millions. That was not a scientific estimate... it was impossible to know right at the beginning how much it was going to cost, Kerry. If you're saying that this is without precedent, you're right, and when you act without precedent it's very difficult to estimate the cost of acting without precedent. I would have thought the fact that we're putting $500 million this year into this Intervention shows how genuine we are, how we're in it for the long term... So I don't apologise for that. I think it says to the Australian people we are very serious about this and we want to do the job properly.*

Kerry O'Brien: *Under your laws parents who are regarded as irresponsible in the basic care of their children will have their welfare payments suspended without the same rights of appeal available to non-Indigenous Australians who might have welfare revoked in a similar circumstance. How do you justify one rule for Aboriginal parents in that regard and another rule for the rest without being racially discriminatory?*

John Howard: *Well, the question of whether all of these measures are racially discriminatory has to be looked at in aggregate. In aggregate we believe these measures are overwhelmingly for the benefit of Aboriginal people... In relation to the quarantining of the welfare payments, we believe that the neglected children is so widespread in these communities, the only way that you can get a grip on the wasteful expenditure of money on alcohol in particular is to have a blanket approach...*



SOURCE 3.10.2 Cartoon by Bruce Petty commenting on the Howard Government's Northern Territory Intervention program, 25 June 2007

> *The current battle ground of the assimilation agenda is located on that vast new region of northern and central Australia where Indigenous people maintain their languages, own their traditional lands under Western legal title [native title], and practise their customs whilst seeking to survive on public sector programs whose poor design has resulted in entrenched dependency.*
>
> *This is where the Howard Government is implementing its radical agenda of deconstructing and denying the abilities of Indigenous people to live in their settlements on traditional country.*

SOURCE 3.10.3 From 'Whatever happened to Reconciliation?', by Patrick Dodson, in *Coercive Reconciliation*, Jon Altman and Melinda Hinkson (eds), Arena Publications Association, 2007

LATER GOVERNMENT POSITIONS

In May 2009, Labor Prime Minister Kevin Rudd reaffirmed the federal government's commitment to the Northern Territory Intervention. He promoted it as a set of policies that improved life expectancy, infant mortality and safety for Aboriginal communities, as well as enhancing the educational and health outcomes for Aboriginal Peoples.

Following extensive consultations with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities and organisations, and based on a partnership with the Northern Territory Government, in June 2012, Prime Minister Julia Gillard's Labor Government passed legislation for a new phase of the Northern Territory Intervention, calling it 'Stronger Futures'. This legislation included alcohol restrictions and a controversial program to cut the welfare payments of both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal parents in certain places whose children do not attend school, known as the Student Enrolment and Attendance Measure (SEAM).



SOURCE 3.10.4 Protesters march to the Sydney Town Hall, lobbying for the Rudd Labor Government to scrap the Northern Territory intervention program, 21 June 2008.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'Northern Territory Intervention'.
2. List two or more reasons given for the high number of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander deaths in custody?
3. Re-read Source 3.10.1. How does Prime Minister John Howard defend the suspension of welfare payments as part of the Northern Territory Intervention?
4. **a** Explain one of the concerns raised about the Howard Government's Northern Territory Intervention program in 2007.
   b How could aspects of the scheme be seen as being a reversal of self-determination?
   c What do you think might be the benefits of the program? Give reasons for your response.

Applying, analysing and evaluating

5. In 2011, a federal parliamentary committee looked into the circumstances of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples in the justice system. Its findings did not report favourably on the rate of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander youths in detention. It recommended improving the training of police, encouraging incentives to increase school attendance rates and the introduction of mentoring programs. Which of these do you think would be most beneficial to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander youths? Explain your answer.
6. **a** Using the internet and other sources, find out more about the 'Stronger Futures' program for the Northern Territory Intervention that began in 2012 and, in point form, list the main features.
   b Now find out what you can about how successful this program has been in achieving its aims.



RIGHTS OF ALL INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

Today, there are more than 370 million indigenous peoples in some ninety countries worldwide. They share common problems related to their rights as the original inhabitants of their lands and experience disadvantages and discrimination as minority groups within their own countries. In the late twentieth century, many indigenous groups became more active in their efforts for recognition of the uniqueness of their cultures, their rights to their lands and in their battles for equality.

UN DECLARATION ON THE RIGHTS OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

In 1982, the Working Group on Indigenous Populations was established by the United Nations Economic and Social Council. More than 100 indigenous organisations participated in the Working Group. In 1985, the Working Group began drafting a declaration of rights for indigenous peoples. More than twenty years later, on 13 September 2007, the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples was adopted by the General Assembly. It represented international agreement on the need to recognise, protect and support the rights of indigenous peoples throughout the world.

The declaration elaborated upon existing international human rights with a focus on indigenous peoples and their particular concerns. It aimed to promote full recognition of indigenous peoples and their unique contributions to the diversity and vibrancy of civilisations and cultures throughout the world. In its efforts to combat discrimination, the declaration promotes equality for all and encourages harmonious and cooperative relations between indigenous peoples, governments and the rest of a country's population.

The declaration sets standards on a range of issues common to indigenous peoples in many countries, some of which include:

- Indigenous peoples are recognised as having the right to own, control and develop the land they have traditionally occupied. To support this, governments are encouraged to develop systems for the legal recognition of indigenous ownership of land and, where this is no longer possible, indigenous peoples should be compensated.



SOURCE 3.11.1 David Choquehuanca Céspedes (left), Bolivia's Foreign Minister, speaks to journalists after the adoption of the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples by the General Assembly at the UN headquarters in New York, 13 December 2007

- Indigenous peoples have the right to maintain and strengthen their spiritual connection to the land. Both knowledge of traditions and artefacts should be protected and supported as part of their cultural heritage, which can be passed on to future generations.
- Indigenous peoples should have access to the same standard of health care and education as the rest of the population; they have the right to practise traditional medicine and receive culturally appropriate education in their own language.
- Indigenous peoples have a right to self-determination. Indigenous communities should be able to decide how they will develop politically, economically and socially, and it is the responsibility of governments to ensure that representatives of the indigenous population participate in decisions that will affect their community.

Being a signatory country of the declaration does not make its principles law in that country. However, as a show of their support and commitment, the governments of ratifying countries should work with their indigenous populations to achieve the standards set out in the declaration. It is hoped that governments will use the declaration as a framework to develop and implement government policies in line with the rights and needs of both their indigenous peoples and the broader community.

RESPONSES

Most countries became immediate signatories to the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples at the time of its adoption in 2007. However, Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, each of which has significant indigenous populations, withheld their support. Their governments were concerned about how the wording of the declaration could be interpreted. They argued that: the principles of the declaration could override laws within their own countries; and that indigenous peoples' claims to traditional lands, and to resources within those lands, could override existing ownership by non-indigenous people. Another area of concern for these countries was how the right to self-determination, as it applied to indigenous peoples, was now to be understood. Again, these countries wanted to maintain their own national approaches to handling their indigenous peoples' self-determination.

By 2010 though, all four countries had agreed to endorse the declaration. In doing so, their leaders made it clear that supporting the principles of the declaration would not mean compromising their own countries' existing laws, and that the principles of the declaration were simply goals for their countries to 'aspire' to in their ongoing policy-making. This position was reflected in Australia's statement.

SOURCE 3.11.2 From the Statement on the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, delivered by Jenny Macklin, Minister for Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs, 3 April 2009

Today, Australia takes another important step in re-setting the relationship between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians and moving forward towards a new future…

On 17 September 2007, 143 nations voted in support of the [United Nations] Declaration [on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples]. Australia was one of four countries that voted against the Declaration.

Today, Australia changes its position…

And with solemn reflection on our history and the failed policies of the past, we acknowledge Articles 8 and 10— I quote:

Indigenous peoples and individuals have the right not to be subjected to forced assimilation or destruction of their culture.

And I quote again:

Indigenous peoples shall not be forcibly removed from their lands or territories…

The Declaration is historic and aspirational.

While it is non-binding and does not affect existing Australian law, it sets important international principles for nations to aspire to…

We support Indigenous peoples' aspiration to develop a level of economic independence so they can manage their own affairs and maintain their strong culture and identity…

We also respect the desire, both past and present, of Indigenous peoples to maintain and strengthen their distinctive spiritual relationship with land and waters.

The Indigenous land rights movement has a proud place in Australia's history with a range of State and Territory and Federal laws recognising traditional ownership…

Australia's laws concerning land rights and native title are not altered by our support of the Declaration…

Today we celebrate the great privilege all Australians have to live alongside the custodians of the oldest continuing cultures in human history…

We celebrate the vital positive contribution of Indigenous culture to Australia…

In supporting the Declaration, Australia today takes another important step towards re-setting relations between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians.

Working together to close the gap.

Overcoming the legacy of the past and shaping the future together.

PRACTICAL APPLICATION

It is too early to be able to assess the long-term impact of the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples on subsequent decisions made by the countries that agreed to it. National governments have to juggle many competing considerations and pressures. With regard to Australia, according to the Australian Human Rights Commission, progress by 2011 in implementing the declaration's principles had been limited.

> *...More recent statements made by the government on [the] one hand assert that their laws, policies, and programs are consistent with the Declaration, while on the other hand, they assert that the Declaration is not legally binding, and as such the Government has no legal obligation to implement it. The Social Justice Commissioner is concerned that the Australian Government is using the [ambiguous] status of the Declaration to avoid their responsibility to implement human rights as they apply to Indigenous peoples...*
>
> *The Declaration contains a number of rights and principles that Australian governments are finding it difficult to understand and implement in practice, particularly the right to self-determination and the principle of free, prior and informed consent. There is a need for detailed practical guidance at the international level to inform States on the content of these rights and principles.*

SOURCE 3.11.3 From the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Justice Commissioner's Submission for the Expert Mechanism on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, 4th session, Australian Human Rights Commission, 11 July 2011

CANADA'S ABORIGINAL PEOPLES

Indigenous peoples in Canada comprise of groups known as North American Indians, the Inuits and the Métis. North American Indians are commonly referred to as First Nations peoples; they migrated north from the United States and settled in Canada between 500 BC and 1000 AD. The Métis are of mixed First Nations and early European ancestry, particularly French. The Inuits, once referred to as Eskimos, migrated from Alaska around 1000 AD. Collectively they are known as Canada's Aboriginal Peoples. In the 2006 census, Aboriginal Peoples in Canada totalled 1 172 790 people, or 3.8 per cent of the national population.

From the late eighteenth century, European Canadians encouraged Aboriginal Peoples to assimilate in accordance with European culture, which they referred to as 'Canadian culture'. By the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the policy was forced integration. As part of enforcing this policy, a residential school system was created that removed Aboriginal children from their homes and placed them in Christian-run schools.

During the late twentieth and twenty-first centuries however, Canada's federal government made attempts to achieve equality between Canada's Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal population. For example, in 1995, it announced the Inherent Right of Self-Government Policy allowing Aboriginal Peoples to shape their own forms of government to suit their particular historical, cultural, political and economic circumstances. In 2008, Prime Minister Stephen Harper issued an apology on behalf of the Canadian government and its citizens for any mistreatment of Aboriginal children in the residential school system.

NUNAVUT

In 1999, the Canadian northwest territory of Nunavut, meaning 'Our Land' in Inuktitut, was created to be governed by the Inuit people. It occupies an area of 2 million square kilometres and has a population of over 32 000, making it one of the most remote and sparsely populated regions in the world. Nunavut has a very harsh climate with an average temperature of –35 degrees Celsius in winter and 10 degrees Celsius in summer.



SOURCE 3.11.4 Nunavut is slowly opening up to international tourism.



SOURCE 3.11.5 Inuit settlement of Pangnirtung on Baffin Island, Nunavut, Canada



SOURCE 3.11.6 The Nunavut territory occupies a land mass greater than that of Queensland.

The territory was created in response to the Land Claims Agreement of 1993. The government was also formed under this agreement in which the Inuit received proportionate representation in the public service and in territorial management boards, ensuring that Inuit interests would be represented in the social, economic and environmental aspects of the territory. Nunavut is unique in that it is primarily governed by Inuit people.

Nunavut's economy is dominated by traditional subsistence activities that include the hunting of caribou, seals and whales for food and clothing. The government, mining and construction sectors make up the bulk of the employment and income for the territory. Tourism is also a growing industry, contributing almost $30 million to the economy in 2010.

Despite advances in government policy, Nunavut's population is still disadvantaged. In comparison to the rest of Canada, Nunavut's population has a lower life expectancy for men and women, lower levels of literacy and numeracy, higher rates of alcoholism and drug abuse, and infant mortality rates approaching those of developing countries.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 What is the purpose of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples?

2 Is the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples a binding agreement by law? How is the declaration intended to be used by governments of countries that have become signatories?

Understanding and evaluating

3 a Identify the language used in Minister Macklin's statement (Source 3.11.2) that acknowledges the importance of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and their place in Australian society.

b Does the statement appeal to people's emotions concerning Australia's past treatment of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples? Explain your answer.

c What is the main message of the statement?

4 a What do you think prompted Australia's change of position and its ratification of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples in 2009?

b What part do you think other events (e.g. Prime Minister Kevin Rudd's 'Sorry Speech' in 2008) played in this decision?

5 a In your own words, explain why the Australian Human Rights Commission (Source 3.11.3) thinks that Australian governments have been able to avoid properly implementing the principles of the declaration.

b What does it see to be a problem?

c What does it recommend to address this problem?

d Do you think the Northern Territory intervention policies of the Howard, Rudd and Gillard federal governments may have influenced the views taken by the Australian Human Rights Commission? Give reasons for your answer.

Applying and analysing

6 a Use the internet and other sources to find out more about the remote communities of the Nunavut in Canada and the Northern Territory in Australia.

b Compare and contrast the lifestyles and histories of these indigenous peoples.

c Present your findings in an appropriately labelled table or diagram.

Applying and evaluating

7 a Visit the United Nations website to view the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.

b Carefully read the articles and identify two that you think are most relevant to Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples today. Be prepared to explain your choices.

c As a class, discuss each student's selections, considering the reasons behind similarities and differences of opinion.

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 Films as historical sources

Feature films can be categorised as both primary and secondary sources. They are products of their times (primary source) and they often recreate—and thus interpret—events of earlier times (secondary source). For example, the film *Samson and Delilah*, made in 2009, depicts life for two Aboriginal teenagers in Central Australia at that time: it can be mainly understood as a primary source. On the other hand, the film *Rabbit-proof Fence*, made in 2002, depicts the real experiences of 'stolen children' in 1930s Western Australia who set out to return home: it can be mainly understood as a secondary source.

- How would you categorise the film *To Kill a Mockingbird*, made in 1962, which tells how two white children in the US state of Alabama saw their lawyer father defend an African-American man wrongly accused of rape in the 1930s?
- How would you categorise the film *The Sapphires*, made in 2012, which recounts the experiences of four Aboriginal pop singers from a mission in Victoria whose group entertained troops in Vietnam during the war there in the 1960s?

a Using the internet, find out more about each film mentioned above.

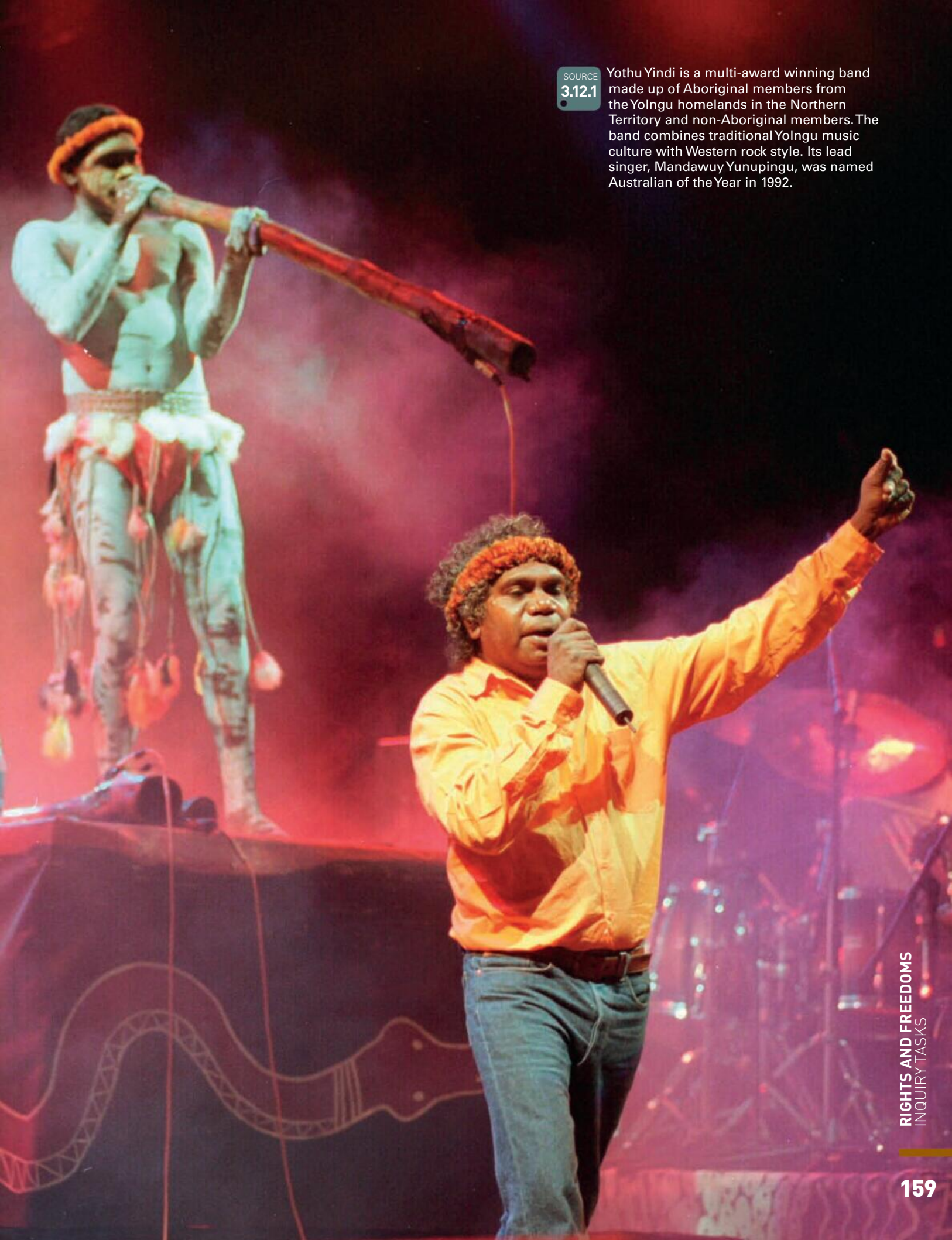
b Now, perhaps with the help of your teacher, choose one to watch on DVD. Then, in point form, compare chosen scenes in the film with what you have learnt in the relevant parts of this chapter.

#2 Songs as historical sources

Song lyrics can also be historical sources, both primary (as products of their times) and secondary (if they depict situations or events from earlier times). For example, the song 'From Little Things Big Things Grow' was written and recorded by Paul Kelly and Kev Carmody in the early 1990s, a time when the spirit of Reconciliation was growing in Australian society (primary source). It is about the Wave Hill strike of 1966–75 (so it is also a secondary source).

a Using the internet and other sources, find the lyrics of and listen to a recording by Yothu Yindi, best known for their song 'Treaty'. Find out who wrote the song, when, and why, keeping in mind also what you have learnt about Aboriginal rights and freedoms in this chapter. Now decide how you would categorise the song as a historical source.

b Aboriginal musician Archie Roach has written and recorded many greatly admired songs, including 'Took the Children Away', which tells of the experiences of Australia's Stolen Generations. He has also written and performed with his equally respected Aboriginal wife, Ruby Hunter. Using the internet and other sources, find out as much as you can about the lives of Archie Roach and Ruby Hunter. Then get the lyrics for and, where possible, listen to some of their songs. Now, construct a detailed timeline that shows what you have learnt about their lives, the names and content of their songs, and how this fits in with the relevant parts of this chapter.



SOURCE 3.12.1

Yothu Yindi is a multi-award winning band made up of Aboriginal members from the Yolngu homelands in the Northern Territory and non-Aboriginal members. The band combines traditional Yolngu music culture with Western rock style. Its lead singer, Mandawuy Yunupingu, was named Australian of the Year in 1992.

CHAPTER

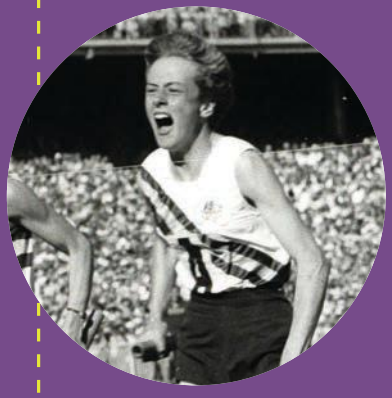
4

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- What was the nature of popular culture in Australia at the end of World War II?
- What were the influences on and developments in popular culture in post-war Australia, and how did this impact on society?
- How and why has the nature of the Australian music, film and television industry changed during the post-war period?
- How has Australia contributed to international popular culture?
- How have changing beliefs and values influenced the Australian way of life?

DEPTH STUDY 3
THE GLOBALISING WORLD

The period immediately following World War II (1939–45) set the stage for the development of Australian cultural identity for the next sixty years. The values, attitudes and way of life that developed during the late 1940s and early 1950s would go on to form the basis of people's understanding of what it means to be Australian. The relatively wealthy generation of youth that became known as the 'baby boomers' defined this period, and the term teenager became used widely to describe people who were somewhere between being children and adults. Consumerism emerged from the desire to follow trends in music and fashion from around the world. Clever advertisers took the opportunity to gain from targeting a somewhat naive audience. Popular culture was evolving at a rapid pace.







POPULAR CULTURE



SOURCE **4.0.1**

The film *Grease* (1978), set in the United States of America in the late 1950s to early 1960s, provides one representation of post–World War II popular culture.

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1945–the present

2 September 1945 Japanese surrender leads to end of World War II in the Asia–Pacific

1945 *Commonwealth and State Housing Agreement Act* is passed

29 November 1948 First General Motors Holden® FX motor car is produced, signalling the beginning of mass-produced cars

1950s Post-war population growth leads to a housing boom and people living 'the Australian dream'

February 1954 Queen Elizabeth II begins a Royal Tour of Australia

1955 Ninety-seven per cent of Australian households have at least one radio; rock 'n' roll is introduced to Australian audiences

1957 US rock 'n' roll group Bill Haley and His Comets tour Australia

1958 Qantas begins its 'around the world' service

1964 'Beatlemania' sweeps the country when the Beatles tour Australia

1969 The musical 'Hair' premieres in Sydney, popularising hippie culture in Australia

1970 'Pilgrimage for Pop' music festival takes place at Ourimbah on NSW Central Coast

1975 Colour television is introduced to Australia

1976 Euro disco group ABBA visits Australia

1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980

September 1956 Television becomes available in Australia

November 1956 Melbourne hosts the summer Olympic Games

1960 Chubby Checker introduces 'The Twist' to the world

1970s 'New wave' of Australian film production takes place

16 August 1977 Elvis Presley, 'King of Rock', dies

1979 Release of the Walkman® starts the trend of portable listening devices

SOURCE 4.1.1 Timeline of key cultural events of post–World War II

DEFINING 'POPULAR CULTURE'

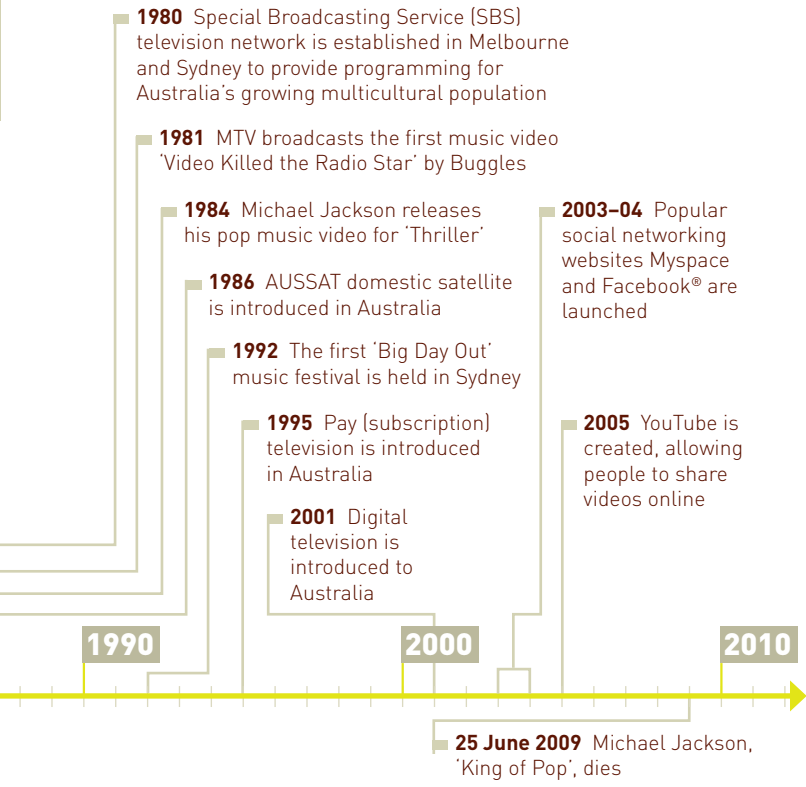
The term 'popular culture', sometimes called 'mass culture', was used in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries as a way of distinguishing the social habits of ordinary people of the lower classes from the 'high culture' pursuits of the more privileged, educated classes. Yet by the mid-twentieth century, this distinction was already becoming meaningless. In the Western world, the impact of consumerism, the mass media and technological change in the second half of the twentieth century was felt by society as a whole. This resulted in many shared interests and activities across all classes.

'POPULAR CULTURE' TODAY?

Popular culture can be seen as a set of behaviours and values shared by a large group or groups within society at a particular period of time. These behaviours and values are displayed in a range of forms, including music, sport, film and television, fashion, and anything else in the public sphere. Popular culture can therefore be seen as largely to do with people's leisure time. However, because popular culture is both produced and consumed, it is directly tied to the economy and the world of work.



SOURCE 4.1.2 Engaging with modern popular culture involves taking advantage of all available communications mediums. The Australian version of the talent television program *The Voice* (2012–) encourages viewers to buy contestants' songs online via Apple iTunes and vote for them by phone, SMS and through social networking websites Facebook and Twitter.





SOURCE 4.1.3 When Bill Haley and His Comets toured in 1957 they introduced Australia to live rock 'n' roll from the United States.

Popular culture is continually evolving; that is, it changes over time. Its dynamic nature can be because of generational change, as one generation challenges the practices and beliefs of previous generations. For that reason, popular culture is often associated with 'youth culture'. Popular culture can also be influenced by changes in the ways people relate to each other. For instance, the arrival of television and later the internet has had profound effects on modes of popular communication. Major world events have also had their part to play in shaping popular culture. For example, the Vietnam War (1955–75) led many people to question some long-held beliefs about the place of war in society and this partly surfaced in popular culture.

Popular culture develops at local, national and international levels, with each level feeding into and affecting the others. For example, rock music emerged in the United States in the late 1950s. By the mid-1960s, the English rock group the Beatles were a national and international success. Their popularity and influence around the world inspired the establishment of similar music groups in other countries, including Australia.

POPULAR CULTURE IN AUSTRALIA

The focus of this chapter is the post–World War II history of popular culture in Australia and how this relates to the evolution of popular culture in an increasingly globalised world. This is different from a focus on what might be called Australia's 'national culture' or 'national identity', or the Australian 'way of life'. However, popular culture in Australia has been influenced by and has influenced the national culture, identity and way of life. Similarly, various aspects of popular culture have been important in redefining, or have been used to redefine, what it means to be 'Australian'.



LIFE IN AUSTRALIA AFTER WORLD WAR II

RECONSTRUCTION

The period after World War II was one of **reconstruction** in Australia. Soldiers needed to be repatriated, found jobs, and sent on a path to rebuilding their lives after their experiences of war. Those who had changed their lives to contribute to the war effort in other ways, and families that had lost loved ones, also embarked on the journey towards their future happiness and success. Having endured two world wars and the Great Depression in the space of thirty years, Australia looked towards its leaders to point the way forward. Out of the policies of the Chifley Labor Government to 1949 and the Liberal governments under Menzies, Holt, Gorton and McMahon until 1972, an Australian 'way of life' would emerge with the belief that Australia was the **'lucky country'**.

Priorities for the Australian people leading into the 1950s, and the governments that led them, included:

- national security against perceived external threats and Australia's place in the Cold War (1945–91)
- economic growth and stability to provide employment and opportunities
- supporting and providing for population growth due to a baby boom and the arrival of migrants from across Europe through affordable housing and social services.

LIVING 'THE AUSTRALIAN DREAM'

A HOUSE IN THE SUBURBS

The key component to living **the Australian dream** in the 1950s was raising a family in your own home. To most Australians this meant a brick house on a quarter-acre suburban block. Many returning servicemen were keen to pursue this dream. Returned servicemen were offered cheap war-service home loans to help them begin their new lives and to kick-start the building industry, which had virtually stood still during the war. The *Commonwealth and State*

SOURCE 4.2.1 Metropolitan population growth, 1947–66. Figures from Commonwealth of Australia Year Books, Australian Bureau of Statistics

Q
1 Which capital city was most heavily affected by migrants from overseas?
2 Explain how statistics such as these can be useful to historians studying housing in the 1950s.
3 What are the limitations of using statistics in historical studies?

METROPOLITAN DIVISION	NATURAL INCREASE	NET MIGRATION OF AUSTRALIAN-BORN	NET MIGRATION OF OVERSEAS-BORN	TOTAL POPULATION INCREASE	TOTAL ANNUAL POPULATION INCREASE (%)
Numbers					
Sydney	378 784	266	463 413	842 463	–
Melbourne	365 649	1 438	522 111	889 198	–
Brisbane	132 672	87 720	108 820	320 212	–
Adelaide	104 372	52 579	203 887	360 868	–
Perth	103 910	37 455	114 488	255 853	–
Hobart	28 746	9 946	18 286	56 978	–
Percentage (%)					
Sydney	45.0	0.0	55.0	100.0	2.3
Melbourne	41.1	0.2	58.7	100.0	2.4
Brisbane	38.6	27.4	34.0	100.0	2.9
Adelaide	28.9	14.6	56.5	100.0	2.5
Perth	40.6	14.6	44.8	100.0	3.1
Hobart	50.4	17.5	32.1	100.0	1.3

Housing Agreement Act was passed in 1945 with the goal of ensuring the production of adequate housing. State governments set up Housing Commissions to support this on a local level. However, the rapid post-war population growth experienced with the arrival of nearly 200 000 migrants by 1950 and many more still to come, plus the emerging baby boom, meant that Australia faced a housing shortage.

The growing population was not the only cause of the housing shortage. Many migrants tended to settle in urban areas rather than in rural settlements as initially expected, creating a strain on city resources. The change of government in 1949 led to housing construction costs doubling within twelve months because of a removal of price controls on materials. To cope with the cost of building a traditional brick and timber home, cheaper and more functional designs were developed that required fewer resources or could be built using other materials and methods. These included brick veneer, fibrous cement and hardboard. Many people resorted to building their own homes by purchasing and piecing together prefabricated sections, or by following designs and step-by-step instructions published in magazines. Some people joined **cooperative organisations** where skills and resources were shared as homes were built collaboratively.

As the demand for land increased, new suburbs began to spread beyond the existing limits of capital cities in every state. Many suburbs had limited transport and infrastructure to cope with the thousands of people living there. This left many feeling isolated, particularly women and migrants.

DID YOU KNOW?

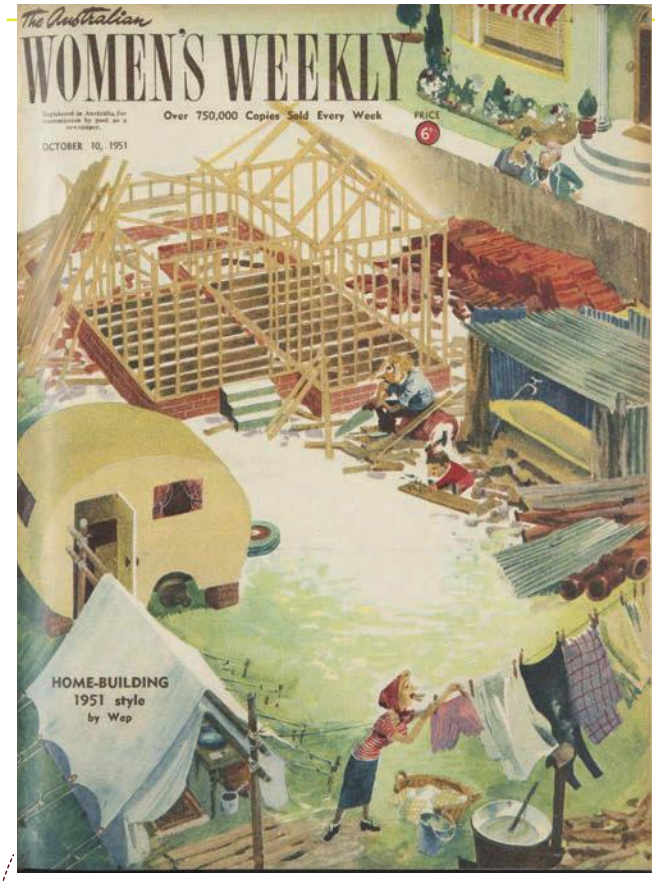
In 1951, 44 per cent of the houses being built in Australia were constructed by owner-builders.

HIGH-RISE HOUSING

High-rise housing, called 'flats', catered for people who did not want to leave the established suburbs or could not afford the cost of a self-contained house. However, many people with families still longed for life in the suburbs of backyard cricket, a few chickens, a vegetable patch, and sitting around the kitchen table for a Sunday roast. This image was reinforced in magazines, radio and television programs of the time (after 1956), leaving those struggling and who had to resort to living in the barracks and tents of World War II army camps feeling left out of the Australian dream.

CREATURE COMFORTS

The growing prosperity of Australia in the 1950s was not only evident in the housing boom and almost full employment. It was also apparent in the use of modern electrical appliances such as washing machines, refrigerators, toasters and ovens, vacuum cleaners, sewing machines and irons, pressure cookers and food processors



SOURCE 4.2.2 The William Edwin Pidgeon (known as Wep) cartoon 'Home-building 1951 style' was published on the cover of *The Australian Women's Weekly*, 10 October 1951. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q According to the cartoonist, what are some of the difficulties associated with building your own home?

in many households. Modern appliances and inventions were not restricted to indoors, with iconic items such as the Victa® lawn-mower and Hills® Hoist clothes line becoming features of most homes. The manufacture of these products had become more refined in the post-war period and they in turn became more affordable. For those short on funds, there was also the possibility of buying products on **hire purchase**, allowing people to pay off the cost of a product over time.

Modern kitchens were being made of more durable and easy-to-clean products such as laminated bench-tops and stainless steel sinks. In 1943, only 2 per cent of households surveyed in inner-city Melbourne had a hot-water service. By the early 1960s, this had changed with most urban homes utilising hot water on tap and new bathrooms were being built with separate shower recesses.

The local corner store was being replaced by large supermarkets offering a broader variety of foods that could now be stored more efficiently in the home. Modern conveniences led to improved hygiene and health, changed eating habits, and generally made life easier. Families, and in particular women, had much more time for leisure activities. Not only had the look of Australian homes changed, but a key aspect of the Australian way of life included the expectation of having more time for fun.

A NATION ON THE MOVE

ON FOUR WHEELS

Improvements in transportation options during the 1950s and 1960s had a profound impact upon the Australian way of life. Arguably, the most important development was the revival of the automobile industry as part of the Chifley Labor Government's plan for post-war reconstruction. The first wholly Australian-made mass produced car, the General Motors Holden FX, rolled off the production line on 29 November 1948; production continued at a rate of ten cars per day. By 1951, over 100 cars were being produced a day by General Motors Holden, with the new FJ model released in 1953. By 1962, 1 million Holdens were on the road.

By the end of the 1950s, one-quarter of Australian families owned a car (compared to over 90 per cent today). Although about one-third of vehicles produced were used commercially, many people could still find their milk and bread being delivered every morning by horse and cart.

Motor vehicles contributed to the spread of suburbs as families were able to move away from the rail and tram lines that had been used to get to and from work. People now had more options in regards to where they lived, where they worked, and even where they shopped. As a result, many Australian cities began to discontinue the use of trams to the point where only Melbourne and Adelaide had tram services running by the end of the 1960s.

Big business also moved beyond the confines of rail lines as trucks became a more flexible option for the transportation of goods. Not only had changing habits begun to alter the way Australian cities and suburbs looked, but the design of Australian homes changed with garages and carports becoming more commonplace. During this period, motor vehicles were mostly the domain of men with very few women gaining driving licences.

DID YOU KNOW?

General Motors Holden, based at Fisherman's Bend in Victoria, was a merger of the Australian company 'Holden' and the US company 'General Motors'. The first Holden cost the buyer about £760 to put on the road, which was cheaper than most overseas-made cars.

ROAD TRIP!

The prevalence of the car also contributed to the way Australians spent their leisure time. Family trips to the beach, sporting events, and brief holiday getaways were now much easier. People from the city could enjoy camping trips and journeys into rural Australia. Those from country areas could maintain contact with the city centres to see the latest show or simply visit relatives and friends. Interstate journeys were now more of a possibility with caravans giving people even more holiday options, as did the many motels that began to spring up along the major highways. Water skiing was a relatively new recreational activity that could be enjoyed by a range of ages. The ability to attach a boat to the back of a car and find a quiet stretch of river, lake or harbour became very popular with groups of families.

Surfing also became a much more viable activity during this period, as now not only those that lived close to the ocean could enjoy the beach. The ease of throwing a surfboard on the roof racks of the car and heading off to the closest beach, or cruising for days up and down the coast to find the perfect wave, led to surfing becoming a key aspect of the Australian way of life. The arrival and

SOURCE 4.2.3 A restored 1955 FJ Holden and 1950s wooden caravan

Q What might be some of the limitations of this image of a restored FJ Holden and caravan for a historian studying life in Australia in the 1950s?



tour of surfing legend Duke Kahanamoku and the Hawaiian surfing team for an international surfing carnival during 1956 also inspired many to take to the waves. Surfing and recreational beach use was reinforced through popular culture from the United States, such as the music of the Beach Boys and films such as *Gidget* (1959) that promoted the beach and surfing lifestyle. The iconic image of the bronzed Australian surfer and women in bikinis has a lot to do with the popularity and ease of car use.

The availability of motor cars to young people either by purchasing or borrowing them, gave this generation much greater freedom and independence. Youth culture involved cruising in cars and exploring the world with friends, going out in unchaperoned groups to the local milk bar or dance, and evenings out at the new drive-in cinemas. Cars and motorbikes also became symbols of prestige to young people. However, youthful recklessness and the non-compulsory use of seatbelts contributed to the mounting road toll—there were over 3000 fatalities each year in the late 1960s.



SOURCE 4.2.4 A 1950s tourism advertisement promoting holidays in Queensland. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q **Identify the techniques being used in this advertisement to convince people to holiday at Coolangatta.**

UP, UP AND AWAY

Air travel also had a significant impact upon Australian culture in the 1950s and 1960s. Australians were able to explore more of their own country through the services of companies such as Trans-Australia Airlines and Australian National Airways (acquired by Ansett in 1957). Domestic flights were expensive, but becoming cheaper, not only for holidays but also for business travel. Improved air transportation would make Australia a much smaller place and contribute to the growth of a more cohesive Australian community and identity. In 1958, Qantas started its 'around the world' air service that extended the boundaries of possibility beyond Australia's shores for many artists, businesses and sportspeople. Many not only took Australian behaviours and values to the rest of the world, but furthered the development of Australian culture locally as they brought back new ideas, products, experiences and knowledge.



SOURCE 4.2.5 Onboard the Qantas Lockheed Super Electra 'around the world' air service, 1959

A SPORTING NATION

The prosperity of the 1950s not only resulted in more leisure time for people to enjoy sport, but also created the resources needed to develop sporting facilities. Working class people were now able to enjoy sports such as tennis, golf and lawn bowls, which had previously only been available to the wealthy. A common piece of advice given to young men of the time was that regardless of what football code they played, a 'well-rounded young man should learn to play tennis and golf, and learn how to dance'. The influence of the United States had yet to make an impact on this aspect of Australian culture, as radio and television brought little news of US sports. Because of this, sports were still mostly British or distinctly Australian in origin; however, European migrants did bring their love of soccer, gymnastics and volleyball onto the landscape.

GOLDEN ERA

The 1950s and 1960s were part of a golden era for Australian sport. Australians such as Ken Rosewall, Rod Laver, Roy Emerson, Lew Hoad and Frank Sedgman dominated international tennis. Australians won the Wimbledon gentlemen's singles titles from 1956 to 1958, along with eight of the singles championships in the 1960s, and claimed the gentlemen's doubles crowns from 1950 to 1956. Australia also defeated the United States on eight occasions to win the Davis Cup.

Tennis was not the only sport where Australians experienced success. Jimmy Carruthers was the world bantamweight boxing champion from 1952 to 1954, with Johnny Famechon and Lionel Rose winning world titles in the 1960s. Jack Brabham won the world Formula One driving championships in 1959, 1960 and 1966. Surfers 'Midget' Farrelly and 'Nat' Young enjoyed international success throughout the 1960s.

Despite Sir Donald Bradman's retirement in 1948, the Australian cricket team won more series than they lost. Stars of the period were the likes of Richie Benaud, Neil Harvey, Bob Simpson and Bill Lawry. Improved transport was having an impact on all sports of the period as sportspeople could travel further to compete in international competitions. Australia started playing cricket against countries such as India, Pakistan and the West Indies, rather than just mostly England and South Africa.

Huge numbers of people attended sporting fixtures, but also listened to radio broadcasts of sporting events in their car or while sitting on the beach using portable radios. Sport had become Australia's **national pastime**.

MELBOURNE OLYMPICS

The 1956 summer Olympics in Melbourne were the first to be staged in the southern hemisphere. Australia's quick recovery from World War II was partly responsible for its successful bid for the event. Hosting the Olympics triggered the introduction of television into Australia so that the event could be watched across the country and the globe. Channel Nine won the rights to televise the games. Images of Australia filled the lounge rooms of people in Europe and the United States. Australians that did not have a television crowded into the homes of friends or outside shop windows to keep up with the latest news. Australia's sporting heroes became household names with success on the track by athletes such as Shirley Strickland and Betty Cuthbert, as well as in the pool by Dawn Fraser, Lorraine Crapp, Murray Rose and Jon Hendricks.



SOURCE 4.2.6 US Vice President Richard Nixon (on right) congratulating Australia's Davis Cup tennis winners, 28 August 1955. Australia defeated the United States 5–0 in the challenge round—the worst defeat suffered by the United States in twenty years of Davis Cup competition.

Q How would the absence of the caption for the photograph alter the usefulness of this source to a historian?

DID YOU KNOW?

The 1956 Olympic Games held in Melbourne was one of the most successful Olympic campaigns for Australia's athletes. Three hundred and twenty-five athletes competed under the Australian flag, and Australia placed third on the medal tally (thirteen gold, eight silver and fourteen bronze medals) behind the Soviet Union and the United States.



SOURCE 4.2.7 Betty Cuthbert (second from left) running across the finish line at the 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games to claim the gold medal for the Women's 4 × 100 metres relay team

Q What evidence is there in this photograph of the differences between sports technology and conditions for athletes in 1956 compared to today?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- the Australian dream
- cooperative organisations
- hire purchase
- 'lucky country'
- national pastime
- (post-war) reconstruction

2 What were the priorities of Australian governments after World War II?

3 Construct a mind map with the central heading 'Living the Australian dream'. Allow a full page in your workbook and add the sub-headings 'Housing', 'Creature comforts', 'Automobiles' and 'Air travel'. Complete the mind map by adding details relevant to each of these headings.

4 Apart from motor cars, what else contributed to the development of surfing in Australia?

5 List the sports that Australians achieved success in during the 1950s and 1960s.

6 Explain why sport was more accessible to Australians in the post–World War II period.

Understanding and analysing

7 Design a table with the heading 'Impacts of post–World War II developments on Australian society', with two columns entitled 'Cause' and 'Effect'. Note how each of the following 'causes' had an 'effect' on Australian society after World War II: cheap housing loans, baby boom, increased migration, modern electrical appliances, supermarkets, mass produced motor vehicles, cheaper air travel.

8 What conclusions about Australian society in the 1950s and early 1960s can be drawn from the knowledge that many people still had their milk delivered by horse and cart?

Evaluating

9 Why do you think that many Australians associated 'the Australian dream' with owning their own house? Is this still the case today and, if so, is it for the same reason?

10 Do you think that the portrayal of the Australian dream in this unit could be considered a stereotype? Use evidence from the text to support your assessment.

11 Look at the list of 'causes' in your table from Activity 7.

a Which do you think had the most significant impact on Australian society? Explain your answer. Is this cause still relevant today?

b Identify three significant developments in technology or types of products that have an influence on Australian society. Explain their impact on modern Australia.

Creating

12 Using the information in this unit as a starting point, research the achievements of Australian athletes at the Melbourne Olympics in 1956 and write a front-page newspaper article reporting on their success.



UNIT 3

FROM RADIO AND 'THE FLICKS' TO ROCK 'N' ROLL AND TELEVISION

GOLDEN AGE OF RADIO

The late 1940s and early 1950s were part of the golden age of radio in Australia. Television had not yet been introduced, so radio was the main form of home entertainment that became an important outlet for popular culture. In 1955, 97 per cent of households had at least one radio that families would gather around in the evenings to listen to the daily news, music, popular game shows, drama serials, comedies or children's shows. There were approximately 130 government-funded radio stations and a similar number of locally based commercial stations; by 1948, the regulatory authority decided that there was no room for extra stations. With no competition from television, the radio industry flourished financially. Household brands sponsored shows as a way of advertising their products.



SOURCE 4.3.1 A group of young friends relaxing at Bondi Beach in Sydney, 1948

Q How does this source indicate the influence of radio on popular culture in the late 1940s and early 1950s?

Most radio shows were made in Australia. They were often performed live with audiences and in conjunction with other activities, such as dances at venues like the Trocadero in Sydney. Popular shows included *ABC Hit Parade*, *When a Girl Marries*, *Bob Dyer's Dude Ranch*, *The Wilfrid Thomas Show*, *Dad and Dave* and *The Village Glee Club*. Arguably, the most famous radio presenter during this period was Jack Davey whose catchcry opening 'Hi ho, everybody' for variety and quiz-style shows became very popular. Some early Australian television stars such as Bert Newton and Graham Kennedy began their careers in radio.

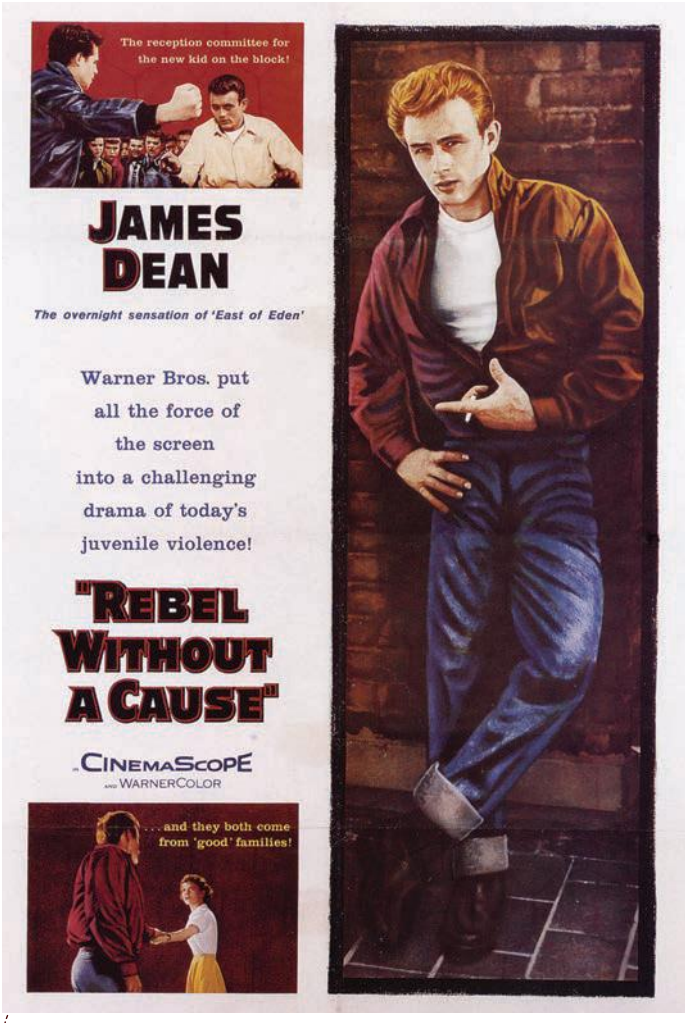
Although most content was uniquely Australian, when US rock 'n' roll music began to dominate the music charts, some presenters started using American accents to seem more modern. Some argue that this was the beginning of Australia's '**cultural cringe**'. The term 'cultural cringe' referred to the way many Australians began to reject distinctly Australian culture in favour of cultural influences from other countries, such as Britain or the United States.

GOING TO 'THE FLICKS'

In the period after World War II, the Australian film industry became swamped by Hollywood, where high-quality films were being made using new technology such as technicolor. Their big budgets for advertising and promotional campaigns meant that other film companies could not compete in the industry. As early as 1952, 74 per cent of films imported into Australia came from the United States and another 18 per cent originated from Britain. Such overseas influence on the Australian public during their leisure time was a sign of the impact of foreign television in the years to come. Although there was some drop-off in cinema attendance rates after the introduction of television in 1956, young people in particular still went to the movies in large numbers. The trends, fashions, products and attitudes portrayed to Australian youth were literally larger than life on the big screen.

Some of the more popular films of the 1950s, such as *The Wild One* (1953) starring Marlon Brando, and *Rebel Without a Cause* (1955) with James Dean, portrayed rebellious youth questioning their place in society and challenging the conservative rules and values of the time. Many adults were worried about the influence these films might have on young people. Other films, however, such as *Gentlemen Prefer Blondes* (1953) with Marilyn Monroe, or *Pillow Talk* (1959) starring Doris Day and Rock Hudson, were romantic comedies that adults felt more comfortable with teenagers viewing.

In whichever style of film, actors and actresses were the stars that young people attempted to imitate in their clothing, hairstyles and behaviours, with businesses and advertisers ever ready to take advantage of their influence.



SOURCE 4.3.2 Poster advertising the film *Rebel Without a Cause* (1955)

Q
1 What aspects of the images on this poster might be a concern to parents of teenagers in the 1950s? Explain your answer.
2 What aspects of this poster might be appealing to teenagers in the 1950s? Explain your answer.

'THIS IS TELEVISION'

Black and white television became available in Australia in 1956. The first program, a news broadcast, went to air on 16 September out of Sydney, less than two months before the Olympics began in Melbourne. It was introduced by Bruce Gyngell and read by an American, Chuck Faulkner. The US presence on Australian television from the outset was an indication of the impact that programs made in the United States would have on this growing industry and in turn on Australian popular culture.

The average wage in 1956 was £15 a week, so televisions were quite expensive at £300 each. Families who purchased one would often find their neighbours visiting in the evening to watch the latest programs. It was also compulsory to purchase a licence for £5 to own a television in this early period. Despite the cost, by 1960, there were over 1 million licences sold across Australia; over 50 per cent of homes in Sydney had a television, and every capital city apart from Hobart had a television service. Radio was quickly surpassed as people's favourite form of home entertainment and adjusted its programming to mostly music. In 1959, 15 year olds were watching 9–12 hours of television a week, which was more than any other recreational activity.



SOURCE 4.3.3 Publicity photograph of the Cleavers, the starring family of the *Leave It to Beaver* (1957–63) television series, around 1957

Although Australian programs were produced such as *In Melbourne Tonight* (1957–70), *Pick a Box* (1957–71), *Bandstand* (1958–72), *Six O'Clock Rock* (1959–62) and *World of Sport* (1959–87), imported US programs such as *I Love Lucy* (1951–57), *Perry Mason* (1957–66) and *77 Sunset Strip* (1958–64) proved to be very popular and started to dominate viewing. Teenagers began to prefer US products, food, clothing, hairstyles and music, and adopted the interests and slang of the television stars. The attitudes and values of young people also began to be influenced by television programs such as *Leave It to Beaver* (1957–63), which portrayed an idyllic US family lifestyle that bore little resemblance to the reality of most young Australians' lives. Advertisers seized upon the popularity of television with young people and targeted this relatively affluent audience with new products and fashions. The **youth culture** of the baby boomer generation, although frowned upon by elders, rapidly took hold and became part of the Australian way of life.

ROCK 'N' ROLL

Rock 'n' roll music burst onto the cultural landscape in Australia in 1955 with the release of the film *Blackboard Jungle* (1955), which featured the hit song 'Rock Around the Clock' by Bill Haley and His Comets. Although not the first song that could be called **rock 'n' roll**—a fusion of country and western music with African-American rhythm and blues—it signalled a significant shift in the type of music and performers the young baby boomer generation was interested in. With simple, repetitive and often rebellious lyrics, sung by performers with unconventional clothing, hairstyles and dance moves, rock 'n' roll was criticised by many of the older generation as offensive and sexually suggestive. Nevertheless, it defined popular culture during the 1950s and early 1960s. Bill Haley and His Comets performed to huge crowds in their 1957 tour of Australia and the film *Rock Around the Clock* (1956) introduced Australian teenagers to other rock 'n' roll performers.

The combination of radio, film and television ensured that the influence of rock 'n' roll culture spread rapidly. The arrival on the music scene of the young Elvis Presley in 1956 ensured its popularity, with young girls becoming infatuated with him and young men wanting to be like him. So controversial was Elvis that when appearing on *The Ed Sullivan Show* (1948–71) in 1957 he was filmed from the waist up so that the audience could not see his gyrating hip movements, popularising his nickname 'Elvis the Pelvis'. Apart from television appearances and his many hit songs including 'Heartbreak Hotel', 'Love Me Tender' and 'Jailhouse Rock', Elvis also appeared in thirty-three films, taking full advantage of the **mass media** of the period. Young people adopted the new dance styles seen in Hollywood films and television that were mostly based on versions of swing, jive and a style from the 1940s called '**bopping**'. Fad dances such as the 'Hand Jive', 'The Stroll' and eventually, in 1960, Chubby Checker's 'The Twist' were also enjoyed by teenagers.

Australian performers embraced rock 'n' roll with many local stars emerging. The most well known was Johnny O'Keefe who shot to stardom as a support act for the 1957 tour of Bill Haley and His Comets. O'Keefe's nickname, 'The Wild One', was taken from the title of his first hit album and was reinforced through his energetic performances. He eventually hosted the television program *Six O'Clock Rock*, and along with other Australian programs such as Brian Henderson's *Bandstand*, promoted Australian performers. Entertainers Col Joye and the Joy Boys and Johnny Rebb were portrayed as being more gentlemanly than US stars such as Jerry Lee Lewis and Little Richard. A popular tour by US evangelist Billy Graham in 1959 that preached traditional family values signalled that perhaps not all Australians were hooked on the rock 'n' roll lifestyle.



SOURCE 4.3.4 Johnny O'Keefe performing at the Brisbane Boxing Stadium, Queensland in 1963. Held at the National Library of Australia

BODGIES AND WIDGIES

Youth 'gangs' have existed in Australian cities since the 1800s. Loud and offensive gangs that challenged, harassed and threatened the general public were referred to collectively as larrikins. In the 1950s, groups of young men who adopted the 'sharp' trends and fashions of the era became known as **bodgies**, and their female counterparts were referred to as **widgies**.

The first bodgies were ex–World War II Australian sailors who impersonated Americans in the late 1940s while running a black market. The 'Woolloomooloo Yanks' regularly visited milk bars in Kings Cross, Sydney, and gained the admiration of others. As the 1950s progressed, the United States influenced Australian popular culture more and more. Groups of young people adopted the rock 'n' roll image after 1956, particularly in inner city areas. Newspapers such as the *Sydney Morning Herald* asserted that by copying US styles, bodgies and widgies achieved an instant status that may have otherwise been unattainable.

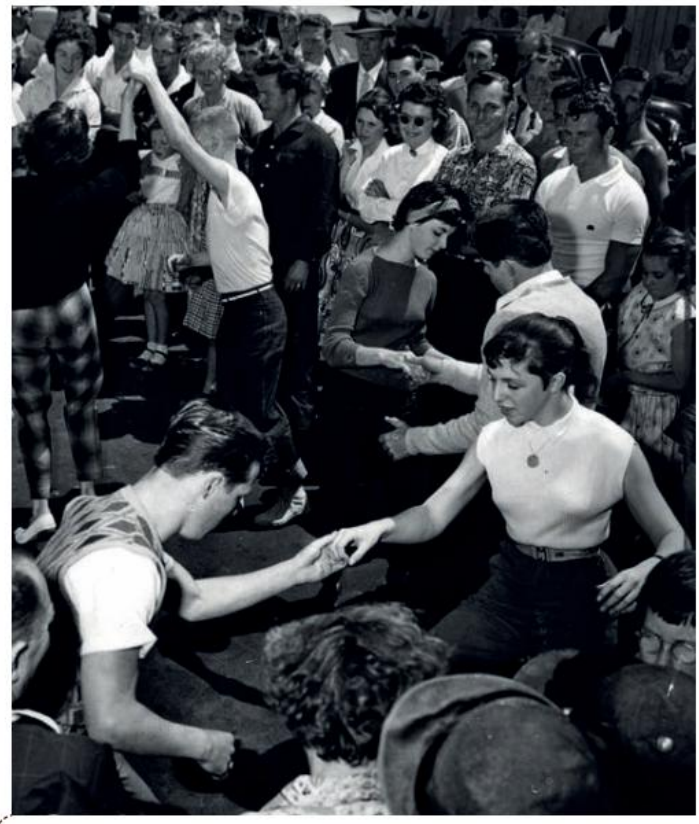
There were significant variances in bodgie dress, from leather jackets, denim jeans, studded belts and boots, to drape suits with pegged trousers and moccasins or pointed-toe winklepicker shoes. Hair was styled to look like a duck tail with hair grease. Widgies cut their hair short and wore a range of fashions from tight black skirts with a slit at the back and loose three-quarter sleeve shirts, to tight black pants or jeans rolled up at the bottom.

Bodgies and widgies became associated with youth violence and lawlessness. Brawls at dance halls between bodgies and rival groups of young men were commonly reported in the media, as was harassing and bashing of young migrant men, and stories of razor attacks and sexual harassment of young women. Some were involved in general nuisance behaviour, such as dancing in the streets, disrupting traffic and challenging police officers, or playing 'chicken' on railways, roads and harbours. They became unpopular with a generally conservative Australian public who expected young people to be at school, work, home, playing sport, or participating in church-run dances. Although there certainly was some misbehaviour, today it is generally accepted that a lot of the hysteria surrounding the violence associated with bodgies and widgies was due to sensationalist newspaper headlines, and that many teenagers did little but wear the fashions of the time.

Bodgie delinquency began featuring in the Australian press in the early 1950s with the Melbourne Herald *reporting upon a St Kilda Police 'declaration of war' against a local bodgie gang in December 1951… and in November 1952, the Melbourne* Sun *relating that about 200 bodgies and widgies had clashed with police in a Swanston Street milk bar… Reports of the bodgies' criminal behaviour continued. In [NSW] in September 1954, a court convicted a bodgie of housebreaking… in Brisbane in February 1955, bodgie gangs fought in the city's streets… and in South Australia in April 1955, police and magistrates declared their intention to stamp out bodgie gangs… In the same month, Melbourne police prematurely declared that the bodgie 'cult' was 'dead'… only to have a Melbourne police officer estimate in June 1956 that more than 1000 youths were members of the city's bodgie gangs, with additional gangs operating in Geelong, Ballarat and Bendigo…*

SOURCE 4.3.5 From Dr K. Moore, 'Bodgies, widgies and moral panic in Australia 1955–59', Centre for Social Change Research, Queensland University of Technology, 29 October 2004

Q
1 **What does Source 4.3.5 indicate about how widespread bodgie gangs were in the 1950s?**
2 **How useful is this type of source to a historian studying youth culture in the 1950s?**



SOURCE 4.3.6 Australian teenagers dancing to rock 'n' roll music in Sydney, 1957

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- bodgies
- bopping
- cultural cringe
- mass media
- rock 'n' roll
- youth culture
- widgies

2 Why was radio able to flourish in Australia before 1956? Where was most of the content on Australian radio produced during this period?

3 Construct a mind map with the central heading 'Influences on popular culture in Australia'. Allow a full page in your workbook and add the sub-headings of 'Radio', 'Television', 'Film' and 'US influences'. Complete the mind map by adding details relevant to each of these headings.

4 What other explanation, apart from simply following trends, is given for the emergence of bodgies and widgies in the 1950s?

Analysing and evaluating

5 Explain why bodgies and widgies became the stereotype for large groups of teenagers during the 1950s. Is this an accurate representation of all teenagers of the time?

6 What forms of mass media do you think have the largest influence on youth culture today? Explain your answer.

7 Explain whether it is fair to say that modern-day Australia is influenced by 'cultural cringe'.

Creating

8 Using the information in this unit, draw a cartoon that illustrates the impact of rock 'n' roll on popular culture during the 1950s and early 1960s.

9 **a** In pairs or small groups, conduct an internet search to find out about the slang and language of teenagers in the 1950s.

b Together, write a script for an interview with a teenager of the 1950s about their interests and role models, with a view to obtaining a snapshot of popular culture at this time. You should include questions that cover a broad range of aspects of popular culture, and detailed answers from the teenager in language they would have typically used.

c Perform your interview for the class.



UNIT 4

THE 'SWINGING SIXTIES' AND LIVING IN THE SEVENTIES

The 1960s and 1970s were still very much the domain of the baby boomer generation, as the prosperous post–World War II period continued to generate the conditions for youth culture to thrive. Popular culture of the early 1960s was not significantly different to the late 1950s, although the increase of surf culture and influence of jazz music was having some impact. Apart from the influence of new music, films and television programs, the young people of this era were starting to grow up and develop their own views about the world. Cold War tensions and the threat of atomic weapons, the growing awareness of social inequity for women and minority groups, the prevalence of young people going on to tertiary education before entering the workforce, and increased leisure time, all contributed to the development of a generation that began to question authority and the world created for them by their parents.



SOURCE 4.4.1 The Beatles wave to a crowd of around 20 000 fans from a hotel balcony during their Australian tour, Melbourne, June 1964.

MUSIC IN THE SIXTIES

MERSEY BEAT

Rock music had become **sanitised** for a mass audience by the early 1960s, with musicians carefully chosen and groomed to perform songs written for them on television programs such as *Bandstand*. US influence was still very strong but, in 1963, an English 'skiffle' group called the Beatles had their first hit in the United States, 'From Me to You', signalling the beginning of British bands having an influence on popular culture during this period. It was not long before 'Beatlemania' swept Australia as well with their songs dominating the music charts. A subsequent tour in 1964 led to wild scenes of screaming and fainting girls desperate to get a glimpse of the performers. The cheeky English boys dressed in matching suits and sported floppy mop-top hairstyles. The sexually suggestive 'bad boys' of the Rolling Stones were the next big group to come out of Britain. Australian groups such as The Easybeats and Billy Thorpe and the Aztecs created music in a similar style to these British bands and enjoyed considerable success.

FROM SURFING TO HIPPIES

Surf culture had its own brand of music, of which Californian group the Beach Boys are the most famous example. It is not surprising that with an existing surf culture in Australia, home-grown surf artists such as the Atlantics topped the charts in 1963 with their instrumental song 'Bombora'. Fifteen-year-old schoolgirl Patricia 'Little Pattie' Amphlett made it to number two in the music charts in 1964 with her song 'He's My Blond Headed Stompie Wompie Real Gone Surfer Boy'. The music sounded innocent enough, but the panel vans decked out with mattresses that many 'surfer boys' drove worried many parents of young girls.

Folk music became very popular during the 1960s, with performers such as Bob Dylan, Joan Baez, and the group Peter, Paul and Mary writing songs that seemed to reject mainstream popular culture and attempted to deliver a message to their audience. The Seekers were an Australian band of this genre that became very popular worldwide.

Such music gave rise to the **hippie movement**, which originated during the 1960s and 1970s on college campuses in the United States and became particularly prominent in the US city of San Francisco. Hippies sought an alternative lifestyle that became associated with experimental drugs, freedom of sexual expression, exploration of eastern religions such as Buddhism, and protest against, among other things, nuclear weapons and the Vietnam War. The premiere of the musical 'Hair' in Sydney in 1969, a theatre production that was set within the hippie movement, shocked audiences (particularly because of its nude scene) and signalled the arrival of the hippie movement in Australia.

Come gather 'round people
Wherever you roam
And admit that the waters
Around you have grown
And accept it that soon
You'll be drenched to the bone
If your time to you is worth savin'
Then you better start swimmin' or you'll sink like a stone
For the times they are a-changin'...
Come mothers and fathers
Throughout the land
And don't criticize
What you can't understand
Your sons and your daughters
Are beyond your command
Your old road is rapidly agin'
Please get out of the new one if you can't lend your hand
For the times they are a-changin'

SOURCE 4.4.2 From 'The Times They Are A-Changin' ', lyrics by Bob Dylan, released in 1964

SOURCE 4.4.3 The Seekers on Westminster Bridge in London, around 1966. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q **Would parents of the 1960s be worried about their children listening to the music of the Seekers if they used this image as a guide? Why or why not?**



TELEVISION IN THE SIXTIES

By 1965, approximately nine out of ten Australian families owned a television. The connection of a coaxial cable between Sydney and Melbourne in 1963 allowed effective networking to occur. By the end of the decade, Australia was connected to the international satellite system. Programs could be broadcast live across the country and Australians received the latest news and events from overseas, such as the moon landing in 1969.

There were three commercial stations—Channels 7, 9 and 0 (later to become 10)—and the government-owned Australian Broadcasting Commission (ABC). However, Australian television was still dominated by US programming on the commercial networks, with a government report in 1963 finding that 97 per cent of drama serials were imported from the United States. The ABC screened mostly British-produced programming, such as *Coronation Street* (1960–), and Australians were beginning to demand more Australian content. The power of television to influence the nature of Australian culture and the sense of Australian identity could no longer be ignored.

Australian programs for teenagers, such as *Bandstand* and *Six O'Clock Rock*, were popular, as were children's programs such as *Mr. Squiggle* (1959–99), *Play School* (1966–) and *Here's Humphrey* (1965–2008). The ABC began its current affairs series *Four Corners* (1961–), and the success of the distinctly Australian *Homicide* (1964–77), *The Mavis Bramston Show* (1964–68) and *In Melbourne Tonight* (featuring Graham Kennedy and Bert Newton) indicated that Australians were prepared to embrace their unique culture. The production of *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo* (1966–70) ready for export in colour in 1968, before Australia even had colour television, signalled that Australians were preparing to launch Australian culture onto the world.



SOURCE 4.4.4 Skippy of *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo* (1966–70) and his companion Sonny

FILM IN THE SIXTIES

The gradual progress being made to screen more Australian content on television was not replicated at the cinema. Locally made films were rare and Hollywood still monopolised the silver screen with productions such as *Psycho* (1960), *Cleopatra* (1963), *The Sound of Music* (1965), *Oliver!* (1968), *2001: A Space Odyssey* (1968), *Planet of the Apes* (1968), *Butch Cassidy and the Sundance Kid* (1969), and *Easy Rider* (1969), covering all genres. At the end of the decade, the federal government increased funding to support production of Australian-made films.

MUSIC IN THE SEVENTIES

FESTIVALS AND POLITICAL CHANGE

The 1960s ended with songs of protest and the psychedelic music of performers such as the Doors and Jimi Hendrix. The Woodstock music festival in 1969 was the pinnacle of youth culture in the United States. Australia followed suit with the 'Pilgrimage for Pop' at Ourimbah on the New South Wales Central Coast in 1970, the 'Meadows Technicolor Fair' in South Australia in 1972, and from 1972 to 1975 the 'Sunbury Pop Festival' in rural Victoria. Gough Whitlam's Labor Government was elected in 1972, ending twenty-three years of conservative rule in Australia, and seemed to be addressing many of the pressing issues being protested and sung about. Ending Australia's involvement in the Vietnam War and passing legislation addressing inequities in Australian society regarding women, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, and migrants were all on the agenda. While much of the music from the late 1960s remained popular, new influences from overseas started to take hold of Australian popular culture. Local bands started to develop a distinctive Australian flavour.

BUBBLEGUM MUSIC

Some music of the late 1960s and early 1970s deliberately targeted teenagers with simple, catchy lyrics and tunes that could be danced to. It was referred to as '**bubblegum music**', the most popular groups being Ohio Express with songs such as 'Yummy, Yummy, Yummy', and the Archies with 'Sugar, Sugar'. A US group, the Monkees, became very popular during this period with a British lead singer and a sound very similar to the Beatles. They were deliberately manufactured for mass consumption through television and perfected the art of appealing to the youth market. African-American music through the Motown record label was having an influence on popular music, with a young Michael Jackson as the lead singer for his band of brothers, the Jackson Five. Other family-based groups such as the Osmonds and the Carpenters emerged that had a sound that relied upon harmonies and simple, catchy tunes. The development of more serious 'soft rock' aimed at an older audience saw groups such as the Eagles from the US and Australia's Little River Band enjoy considerable success.



SOURCE 4.4.5 ABBA with television host Daryl Somers (centre) during their visit to Australia in 1976

Q How does this source inform historians about the relationship between music and television in the creation of popular culture?

DISCO

The global phenomenon of **disco** took off in Australia in the mid-1970s via US artists such as KC and the Sunshine Band and later the Village People, who drew upon influences from homosexual subculture of the time. European performers Leo Sayer and ABBA were also popular, perhaps more so in Australia than other parts of the world. Australian-based performers also contributed to the disco movement with artists such as John Paul Young and the Bee Gees, who achieved worldwide recognition for their contribution to the soundtrack of the hit film *Saturday Night Fever* (1977).

GUITARS AND GLAM ROCK

Disco was very different to the music that had come before it, and it was distinctly 1970s. However, the heavy rock of Deep Purple, Led Zeppelin and home-grown AC/DC took music in a new direction and added another dimension to the image of 1970s popular culture. **Glam rock** started in Britain with performers such as David Bowie, Gary Glitter and Roxy Music who dressed in elaborate costumes, wore make-up and platform shoes, and whose androgynous nature reflected shifting gender stereotypes. Australian group Skyhooks combined the look of glam rock with controversial lyrics that saw much of their music, including the hit 'You Just Like Me Cause I'm Good in Bed', banned in some parts of the media. Glam rock was very popular in Australia, with Split Enz and Sherbet also proving to be successful local talent. **Shock rockers** took things a step further in the late 1970s, using elaborate sets and stunts in their performances to excite the audience. The painted faces, costumes and fireworks of KISS were very popular in Australia, but the pretend decapitations of animals on stage by Alice Cooper led to some questioning this type of music.

SOURCE 4.4.6 Glam band Skyhooks pose in their extravagant costumes at the height of their musical career, 1975.

Q **Compare the appearance of Skyhooks to the Seekers in Source 4.4.3. How are they different, and can you draw any conclusions about changing attitudes or trends from this?**



PUNK

Perhaps the most confronting music to develop during the 1970s was **punk**. It was rebellious, loud and very threatening to traditional society. Brought to the world from Britain by the Sex Pistols and the Clash, and the Ramones from the United States, punk artists were anti-mainstream popular culture and their appearance had a 'do-it-yourself' look that rejected consumerism. As such, it was only ever really popular as part of a subculture in Australia. The Saints were probably the most successful Australian punk band, but punk did influence Australian musicians such as Nick Cave. Among all of this new and sometimes controversial music, an interesting development occurred when Sister Janet Mead's rock version of 'The Lord's Prayer' spent three weeks at number one in the national charts in 1974.

TELEVISION IN THE SEVENTIES

HOME-GROWN CONTENT IN COLOUR

Television continued to expand into more remote parts of Australia during the 1970s, reaching Kalgoorlie, Mt Isa and Darwin in 1971. Colour television was available in 1975, and within three years seven out of ten households had switched to colour. The success of Australian programs in the 1960s encouraged the production of more home-grown content. In 1976, the federal government imposed a quota of 50 per cent local content to be broadcast between 4.00 p.m. and 10.00 p.m. Some of Australia's most popular and iconic television programs first aired in the 1970s, including *Matlock Police* (1971–75), *Young Talent Time* (1971–89), *Hey Hey It's Saturday* (1971–99), *A Current Affair* (1971–), *The Young Doctors* (1976–82), *The Sullivans* (1976–83) and *60 Minutes* (1979–).

Other programs broke social barriers, such as *Number 96* (1972–77) that featured full nudity and an openly gay character, or *The Paul Hogan Show* (1973–84), *The Aunty Jack Show* (1972–73) and *The Norman Gunston Show* (1975–79), which all used humour to address many of the social and political issues of the period. Molly Meldrum's *Countdown* (1974–87) was a crucial contributor to popular culture, bringing live musical acts, many of which were Australian, to youth across the country. Sport broadcasting was becoming more sophisticated and live matches screened more often, which brought more money from advertising into sport. The dominance of overseas programs on Australian television was beginning to be challenged.

SOURCE 4.4.7 The cast from the cult series *The Aunty Jack Show* (1972–73)

Q

1. **What might be the purpose of this photograph? How do you know?**
2. **Based on the images in the source, what type of program do you think *The Aunty Jack Show* was?**



FILM IN THE SEVENTIES

NEW WAVE AND 'OZPLOITATION'

By the end of the 1960s, many Australians felt that Australian stories on the big screen were lacking, as the Australian film industry had been swamped by Hollywood. Funding from the federal government to finance Australian films and establish schools to teach people about making them, together with the genuine interest of Australians to define their own culture, led to a surge in the production of Australian films. Over 400 **new wave** films were made between 1970 and 1985, some of which included *Picnic at Hanging Rock* (1975), *Don's Party* (1976), *Storm Boy* (1976), *The Chant of Jimmy Blacksmith* (1978), *My Brilliant Career* (1979) and *Mad Max* (1979), which starred a young Mel Gibson.

Films such as *The Adventures of Barry McKenzie* (1972) and *Mad Max* have been labelled **'ozploitation'** as they exploited, celebrated and satirised stereotypical Australian culture, a phenomenon that has recurred over time in the Australian film industry. US films were still very popular in 1970s Australia with blockbusters such as *The Godfather* (1972), *Jaws* (1975), *Star Wars* (1977), *Superman* (1978) and *Rocky* (1976); science fiction stories in *Close Encounters of the Third Kind* (1977); and musicals such as *The Rocky Horror Picture Show* (1975) and *Grease* (1978) all claiming their place in Australian popular culture.

> *'As a kid my parents and teachers insisted I see quality films like* Picnic at Hanging Rock,' *he explains. 'Then I saw this movie* Patrick, *about a telekinetic coma victim, on commercial TV late one night and it thrilled, excited and downright scared me, just like the horror films made in the US but with our voices, faces and places. I didn't know we could do that.'*

SOURCE 4.4.8

Comment by Australian director Mark Hartley in 'Larrikin streak', by Tony Moore, *The Australian*, 16 August 2008

Q **Explain the value of this source to a historian studying Australian popular culture.**



SOURCE 4.4.9

Based on a novel of the same name, *Storm Boy* (1976) tells the story of a boy who rescues an orphaned baby pelican in the wetlands of South Australia.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- bubblegum music
- disco
- folk music
- glam rock
- hippie movement
- new wave
- 'ozploitation'
- punk
- sanitised
- shock rockers

2 **a** Give two examples of how social attitudes and issues influenced the type of music that was being created and listened to in the 1960s.

b Why did the types of music available to young people in the 1970s begin to change from the previous decade?

3 **a** Why was there more Australian content in 1970s television and film?

b How was television in the 1970s contributing to a sense of an Australian identity?

c How was film in the 1970s contributing to a sense of an Australian identity?

Understanding and analysing

4 Construct a table to record how Britain and the United States influenced popular culture in Australia during the 1960s and 1970s.

5 Design and construct a diagram that summarises the types of music that young Australians listened to in the 1960s and 1970s, including examples of overseas and Australian performers.

Evaluating

6 Explain how improvements in television technology increased its influence as a vehicle of popular culture.

7 Why might hippie culture have been seen as a significant threat by those of older generations?

8 What are the possible positives and negatives of the emergence of 'ozploitation' films?

Evaluating and creating

9 Use the internet and other sources to find images of performers from the 1960s and 1970s such as those mentioned in this unit. Categorise them and create collages under the following headings: '1960s overseas', '1960s Australian', '1970s overseas' and '1970s Australian'. Once completed, consider if there are any significant differences or similarities between the collages and propose possible explanations for them.

THE X-FACTOR OF THE EIGHTIES AND NINETIES



With the passing of each successive decade, there are certain characteristics of popular culture that are particular to each period and define it in some way. In music, the 1950s was defined by rock 'n' roll, the 1960s was a time of the Beatles and the hippie movement, and the 1970s remembers disco, glam rock and punk. Although heavily influenced through mass media by the United States and Britain, Australians have tended to put their own spin on the dominant trends to give them an Australian flavour. However, as young people have gained access to improved communication technology they have also had access to a greater variety of choices in the types of music, associated styles in fashion, and values that come with both. So much so, that with each passing decade it becomes harder to define popular culture as being just one style or trend. In fact, neatly compartmentalising popular culture into decades does not quite do the job either, as people have come up with terms such as baby boomers, generation X, generation Y, and recently generation Z in an attempt to group people and their popular culture.

GENERATION X

Popular culture of the 1980s and 1990s was the world of **generation X**, generally defined as people born in the 1960s through to the late 1970s. Doing the maths indicates that early generation Xers were teenagers in the mid to late 1970s, so we can see why these sorts of definitions are imprecise. Just as it is fair to say that early baby boomer popular culture was different to that of late baby boomers, so is the case with generation X. Generation X youth are usually portrayed as being against the attitudes and values of their conservative baby boomer parents. Though mindful of the threat of nuclear war, they were distanced from the protests of the Vietnam War era and the political activism that broke down many of the social barriers for women and minority groups. Generation Xers are often described as socially and politically apathetic, cynical, and quietly rebellious against over-achieving parents. In France, they are literally referred to as Generation 'Whatever' based on the defining response of generation X teens to the criticism of their parents.

MUSIC IN THE EIGHTIES

MTV AND SYNTHESISERS

The influence of '**music television**' in the 1980s was significant. The MTV network, both the US and Australian versions, and the music video program *Rage* (1987–), brought local music and music from around the world to Australians. It also generated a new priority for many performers, that being the production of music videos, which often became more important than the quality of the music itself. Michael Jackson and Madonna became hugely influential stars during this period, as did British groups such as Duran Duran and Spandau Ballet with their big budget video clips viewed at home or in nightclubs. 'Boy bands' such as Bros, New Kids on the Block, and Wham! were specifically created to take advantage of this medium. Music videos strengthened the relationship between performers, advertisers, and of course the young audience. Stars performed in advertisements for all sorts of products, which often blurred the line between music and blatant **commercialism**. Another 1980s development was portable listening devices such as the Walkman, which gave young people the opportunity to listen to music without others hearing it. People from older generations considered this to be anti-social and often assumed that there must be something sinister about the music that they could not hear.

The distinctive sound of synthesisers became an addition to the music of many performers during the 1980s. Music from the 1980s experienced its own new wave as artists combined rock, punk and disco influences from the 1970s with synthesiser beats. British bands the Police, Simple Minds and Tears For Fears became popular, as did US performers Talking Heads, Prince and the Bangles. Australian bands also developed in this style of music, one of the most successful being INXS. Some groups such as Depeche Mode, Pet Shop Boys and Australia's Pseudo Echo were classed as **'synthpop'** for their heavy use of synthesisers, which saw their music being prominent in nightclubs. Others were closer to punk, such as the Cure and Billy Idol.

DID YOU KNOW?

The first music video ever played on MTV, in 1981, was 'Video Killed the Radio Star' by Buggles.



SOURCE 4.5.1 Michael Jackson in his famous 'Thriller' pop music video, released in 1984. At 14 minutes long, 'Thriller' is widely regarded as the most influential music video of all time; it set the benchmark for music video popular culture in the 1980s and decades to come.

'GLAM BANDS' AND CROOKED BASEBALL CAPS

Popular rock bands such as U2, Van Halen, Def Leppard and AC/DC, and the 1980s version of 'glam bands' in Bon Jovi, Queen, Mötley Crüe and Poison drew huge crowds with their big sound, energetic performances and elaborate special effects. Many of these types of bands became notorious for their party lifestyle and reckless behaviour. Less elaborate rockers such as Bruce Springsteen and Dire Straits also had hits in Australia. The heavier rock of 'metal' bands Metallica and Megadeth appealed to other young people, 'headbanging' and playing 'air guitar' as they listened on.

Gangsta rap was a type of music that grew out of African-American inner-city street culture in the late 1970s and became popular with some Australian youth in the 1980s. The often aggressive lyrics by performers such as Ice-T, Public Enemy, N.W.A and the Beastie Boys worried many parents, and explored social issues that were mostly unique to the United States. Gangsta rap blended with traditional 'rhythm and blues' influences to evolve into 'hip-hop'. The phenomenon of **break dancing**, that involved acrobatic and body contorting movements such as spinning on heads and backs to rap music, interested teenage boys in particular as they attempted to master the moves of groups like the Rock Steady Crew on taped together pieces of cardboard and linoleum.



SOURCE 4.5.2 Australian band INXS took the world by storm in the late 1980s and early 1990s, while maintaining their Australian identity. They experienced the highs and lows of modern media attention, and eventually hosted a reality television show in 2005 to find a new lead singer to replace Michael Hutchence who died in 1997.

Q
1 How do you know which musician is the lead singer?
2 What cues are there in the photograph to indicate that this is an Australian group?

AUSTRALIAN 'PUB BANDS'

The diversity of music available to young Australians in the 1980s was further supplemented by a booming Australian pub and nightclub music scene. Some of the bigger Australian bands of the time included Midnight Oil, Men at Work, Cold Chisel, Icehouse, Divinyls, the Church, Crowded House and Hoodoo Gurus, many of whom, as well as performers such as Kylie Minogue, made names for themselves on the world stage. The 1980s was seen as a critical period for Australian popular music, when many artists broke free of simply replicating the music of the United States and Britain. Such variety in music tastes is representative of the **heterogeneous** nature of generation X.

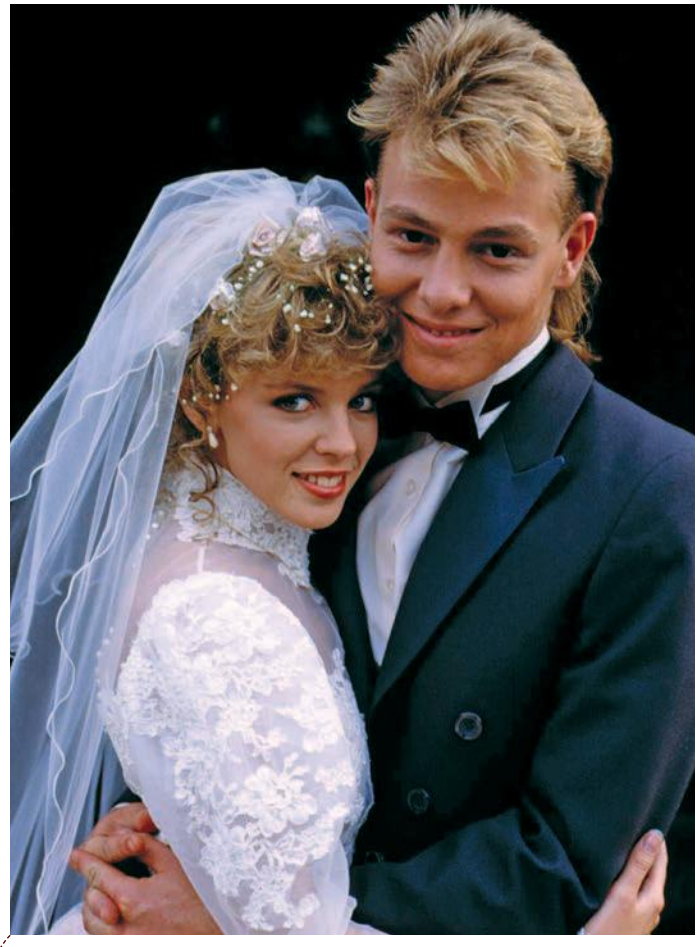
TELEVISION IN THE EIGHTIES

Television technology continued to improve in the 1980s, delivering popular culture to more Australians in remote areas through improved access via a new domestic satellite, AUSSAT, in 1986. Live broadcasts of the 1983 America's Cup, 1984 and 1988 Olympic Games, 1986 Commonwealth Games, and the Live Aid concert in 1985 are examples of Australians being as up to date with world events as most others in the Western world. Although spectators had to stay up late to watch international events due to time differences, the 'tyranny of distance' was being slowly chipped away. The establishment of the Special Broadcasting Service (SBS) in Melbourne and Sydney in 1980, and its expansion throughout the decade, began providing programs in many languages to support Australia's growing multicultural population. Video cassette recorders also meant that people had more flexibility with their television viewing, and by the 1990s over 80 per cent of homes had one. By 1980, businesses and advertisers had realised the potential of television to sell their products and services, and commercial television accounted for 33 per cent of all advertising revenue.

MINI-SERIES AND SOAP OPERAS

Along with music video programming, Australian television networks began producing dramatic **mini-series** that would be presented in a defined number of episodes. Series such as *Women of the Sun* (1981), *For the Term of His Natural Life* (1983), *The Dismissal* (1983) and *Bangkok Hilton* (1989) starring a young Nicole Kidman, were stories about Australians made in Australia and for Australians, that dealt with a range of social and political issues of the near and distant past.

Soap operas such as *A Country Practice* (1981–93), *Sons and Daughters* (1982–87), *Neighbours* (1985–) and *Home and Away* (1988–) all began their successful runs in the 1980s. Many Australian stars including Kylie Minogue and Guy Pearce launched their careers from these programs.



SOURCE 4.5.3 The *Neighbours* (1985–) wedding of Scott (Jason Donovan) and Charlene (Kylie Minogue) in 1987 had most of Australia glued to their televisions.

LOCAL PRODUCTIONS GAIN POPULARITY

Australians were becoming more comfortable with seeing themselves portrayed in every possible way on the small screen. It is estimated that eight out of ten of the most popular programs on Australian television in 1980 were Australian productions. The game show *Sale of the Century* first aired in 1980 (ending in 2001 in its original format), and the emerging tradition of Australian comedy programming was well represented with the skit show *The Comedy Company* (1988–90) on Network Ten, and *The Gillies Report* (1984–85), *Mother and Son* (1984–94), *The D-Generation* (1986–87) and *The Big Gig* (1989–91) all premiering on the ABC. Yet British programs such as *The Bill* (1984–2010) and *Doctor Who* (1963–89) were watched widely, and the cult sitcom *The Young Ones* (1982–84) had a significant following. US offerings *MASH* (1972–83), *The Love Boat* (1977–86), *Dynasty* (1981–89), *Cheers* (1982–93), *The Cosby Show* (1984–92), *Miami Vice* (1984–90), and animated programs for children such as *The Transformers* (1984–87) and *Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles* (1987–96) maintained the flow of US popular culture into Australia.

FILM IN THE EIGHTIES

STEREOTYPES AND ACTION HEROES

The Australian film industry continued to thrive in the 1980s after its revival in the 1970s. Iconic films *Gallipoli* (1981), *The Man from Snowy River* (1982) and Paul Hogan's *Crocodile Dundee* (1986) and *Crocodile Dundee II* (1988) all enjoyed success domestically and internationally. They were distinctly Australian in portraying stereotypical Australian male qualities such as bravery, mateship, resourcefulness, larrikinism and a lack of respect for authority. There were certainly other Australian stories being told; the book and then film, *Puberty Blues* (1981) was unique in that it candidly explored the world of teenage girls within Australian surf culture.

Despite the success of these films, US action blockbusters *The Terminator* (1984), *Lethal Weapon* (1987) and *Die Hard* (1988) as well as science fiction films *Star Wars: Episode V—The Empire Strikes Back* (1980), *E.T.: The Extra-Terrestrial* (1982), *Star Wars: Episode VI—Return of the Jedi* (1983) and *Ghostbusters* (1984) provided considerable competition for the Australian film industry. *Back to the Future* (1985) was a film that many young people could identify with, as it featured a teenager witnessing the shortcomings of his own parents when they were teenagers. Other teen films the likes of *Footloose* (1984), *The Breakfast Club* (1985), *Pretty in Pink* (1986) and *Ferris Bueller's Day Off* (1986) also seemed to strike a chord with young generation Xers, as they all starred young actors and were set in the world of teenagers (albeit US teenagers) just as had happened in films of the 1950s for the baby boomer generation.



SOURCE 4.5.4 The sprawling bush landscape as represented in *The Man from Snowy River* (1982)

Q
1. **What interpretation of Australian culture is portrayed in this image?**
2. **Why is the story of *The Man from Snowy River* so easily identified as Australian?**

MUSIC IN THE NINETIES

International artists of the 1980s such as Michael Jackson and Madonna were still very popular in the 1990s, as were many of the big bands including Bon Jovi, U2, Guns N' Roses (who had emerged in the mid-1980s), and Australia's INXS and AC/DC. **Mainstream music**, promoted heavily by large recording companies on radio and television, was mostly classed as contemporary rhythm and blues, contemporary rock, or simply **pop**. Pop music lyrics were mostly about love and relationships and were not overly threatening to parents or conservative values. Some have compared much of this music to the bubblegum music of the late 1960s and early 1970s in the way it was deliberately produced for a particular market (in this case generation X). Janet Jackson, soft rockers Alanis Morissette and Sheryl Crow, and ballad singers such as Michael Bolton, Celine Dion, Whitney Houston and Mariah Carey were all popular.

Pop groups such as Backstreet Boys and the Spice Girls from Britain performed catchy lyrics to electro-pop music with highly choreographed video clips completing the package. A young Britney Spears burst onto the world stage in the late 1990s, drawing upon much of the same techniques. Even hip-hop had become mainstream in the 1990s, and hits from the likes of MC Hammer with 'U Can't Touch This' influenced dance and fashion trends.

POP MUSIC IN AUSTRALIA

In 1991, the Australian band Yothu Yindi released their hit song 'Treaty'. Yothu Yindi became known for their distinctive sound, combining didgeridoos, Yolngu Aboriginal language and dance with contemporary instruments. Their success reflected the mood of the time, as Australian people of all backgrounds more readily



SOURCE 4.5.5 Natalie Imbruglia performing in London, July 1998

embraced Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander culture, while acknowledging that there was still a lot to be done to mend the relationship with the country's first inhabitants. Australian performers Savage Garden, Natalie Imbruglia, Kylie Minogue and boy band Human Nature were popular in the 'mainstream' music scene of the 1990s.

ALTERNATIVE ROCK AND GRUNGE

The late 1980s and early 1990s saw the emergence of **alternative rock**, a style of music that produced guitar-based, raw sounds combining many different musical influences and styles. Alternative rock lyrics of the 1990s dealt with social and emotional issues that appealed to young people. Groups such as Violent Femmes, R.E.M., Red Hot Chilli Peppers, Counting Crows and Smashing Pumpkins from the United States often found early success on university campuses or in small 'underground' nightclubs and bars frequented by young people. Similarly, Britain produced bands such as Oasis and Blur.

The **'underground' scene** was born out of opposition to the heavily commercialised music of the 1980s. It became an important outlet for youth culture to choose the way in which it would express itself. Small youth radio stations played the music of the Whitlams, You Am I, Regurgitator, the Cruel Sea and Spiderbait in Australia. Although classed as 'alternative', this type of music eventually reached vast numbers of young people, as the new technology of compact discs (CDs) allowed popular artists to be signed up by large recording companies who promoted their music globally. The Australian government-owned Triple J radio station played a significant role in bringing alternative music to a wider audience, as well as uncovering new Australian talent such as the band Grinspoon.

A musical phenomenon of the early 1990s was the style of music knows as **grunge**. It emerged from the alternative music scene in Seattle in the United States and was based on heavy drums; loud, distorted guitars and 'power chords'; lyrics that reflected the angst of many young generation Xers; and the deliberate absence of synthesiser-based sounds. The most well-known grunge band of the 1990s was Nirvana, with its lead singer and guitarist Kurt Cobain epitomising grunge culture and the 'whatever' attitude of some generation Xers. Other groups included Alice in Chains, Soundgarden and Pearl Jam, with Australian teenage group Silverchair becoming very successful locally and internationally.

DID YOU KNOW?

While the serious alternative and grunge music scene was evolving, in 1991, Australian group the Wiggles started their successful global career entertaining children.

RAVES

The discos of the 1970s and dance parties of the 1980s evolved into **raves** in the 1990s. Raves were an aspect of 1990s global sub-culture rather than popular culture, but were attended by large numbers of young people. They were introduced to Australia via Europe and Britain in particular, and represented another rebellion by youth against commercialised music. Originally taking place in inner-city suburbs, and later spreading to outer suburbs and rural venues, young people gathered in warehouses or pavilions at showgrounds to dance through the night to energetic, electronically generated **techno** music. Raves usually included elaborate light and laser effects, video



SOURCE 4.5.6 Members of the band Nirvana, including the deceased lead singer Kurt Cobain (left)

Q
1 Describe how Nirvana is being portrayed in the photograph?
2 Is this photograph posed? How can you tell?



SOURCE 4.5.7 Silverchair formed in Newcastle, New South Wales. Their debut track 'Tomorrow' spent six weeks on top of the Australian singles chart in 1994.

Q
1 How is Silverchair being portrayed in a similar way to Nirvana in Source 4.5.6? What can you learn about the nature of popular culture from this?
2 What explanations for the development of grunge music can be found in Sources 4.5.6 and 4.5.7?

screens, and even computer games being played by ravers. Each rave would have an escapist or science-fiction based name like 'Field of Dreams' or 'Cyber City 96'.

Early raves were sometimes advertised in youth magazines and on posters at universities and in music stores. They were more often promoted secretly through word of mouth and last-minute flyers, which gave raves a sense of mystery, rebellion and exclusiveness. Early raves were often alcohol-free events, but in time became associated with party drugs. This, along with the repetitively hypnotic nature of rave music, concerned many parents.

MANGA AND ANIME

The rave scene also became an entry point for popular Japanese **manga** print cartoons and **anime** film animation, which seemed to fit in with the global and make-believe world of raves. Anime artists and techniques have had a great influence on animated television and film, reflecting the ever-more globalised nature of popular culture. Raves were more interactive than a typical concert or nightclub experience, so the ravers felt more involved in the 'music event' as opposed to a passive audience being sold a 'music product'.

'BIG DAY OUT'

In Sydney, the annual 'Big Day Out' music festival began in 1992 and eventually spread around the country, attracting local and international acts. The festivals brought a wide range of musical styles together, and are a revealing representation of the eclectic nature of popular culture in Australia from the 1990s onwards.

TELEVISION IN THE NINETIES

PAY TV AND *THE SIMPSONS*

Very few Australian households were without a television set in the 1990s. By 1995, the viewing public could choose to pay for extra channels through **subscription television** companies such as FOXTEL and AUSTAR. Regional centres began to develop their own programs for the specific needs of their communities as free-to-air regional stations were established. With a wider choice of programs, popular culture became more diffused. Producers of television programs were trying to catch the attention of a competitive market and, quite simply, people were not all watching the same programs any more. Regardless, some programs were more popular than others and productions from the United States still had a huge impact in Australia.

Seinfeld (1989–98) and *The Simpsons* (1989–) were not simply comedies; they also critiqued society and family life in the 1990s in a way that connected with many viewers. Australians also watched US sitcoms such as *Home Improvement* (1991–99), *Frasier* (1993–2004) and *Friends* (1994–2004). Drama series from the United States included *NYPD Blue* (1993–2005) and *ER* (1994–2009), while the science fiction world of *The X-Files* (1993–2002) and the quirky murder mystery played out in *Twin Peaks* (1990–91) were also popular with audiences. Soap operas such as *Beverly Hills 90210* (1990–2000) and *Melrose Place* (1992–99) were clearly aimed at younger audiences who would copy the fashions of the appealing young stars. *Baywatch* (1989–2001) was also very popular—it featured an attractive cast and showcased the beach lifestyle Australians had become familiar with.

AUSSIE DRAMA AND REALITY TV

New Australian drama included the mini-series *Banjo Paterson's The Man from Snowy River* (1993–96) and *Blue Heelers* (1994–2006), keeping Australians connected with life in rural areas past and present. The ABC continued to develop innovative Australian television with the dramatic *Police Rescue* (1989–96), the satirical *Frontline* (1994–97) and the comedy game show *Good News Week* (1996–2000). It also ventured into the world of reality television in producing *Sylvania Waters* (1992), which followed the daily lives of a family in suburban Australia. The success of the comedy series *Acropolis Now* (1989–92) indicated that Australians had matured enough to be able to laugh at aspects of their multicultural society. Lifestyle programs *Burke's Backyard* (1987–2004), *Healthy, Wealthy and Wise* (1991–96) and *Better Homes and Gardens* (1996–) all became popular additions to weekly viewing for many families.



SOURCE 4.5.8 The 1995 cast from *Baywatch* (1989–2001)

Q
1 How might Australians identify or not with the characters in this promotional image?
2 What can you learn about the nature of popular culture in the late twentieth century from this image?

FILM IN THE NINETIES

GLOBAL AUDIENCES AND COMPUTER-GENERATED IMAGERY

The cinema remained an important aspect of popular culture in the 1990s despite the dominance of home entertainment mediums such as television and video cassette recorders. New 'multiplex' cinemas were built in many suburbs making it easier for people to see a range of different films at different times of the day and night.

Hollywood still dominated the cinema listings—only 15 per cent of films viewed were Australian made. However, one could argue that the productions coming out of Hollywood were not always telling US stories and many were intended for a global audience. For example, *The Matrix* (1999) was filmed in Australia, but was primarily a US production for a global audience. *Babe* (1995) was most definitely an Australian story filmed in Australia, but used facilities, production skills and technology from Britain and the United States in its making. The face of popular culture in film was becoming more diverse.

The new technology of the film industry was the use of computer-generated imagery (CGI), which gave producers and directors almost limitless potential to create special effects and fantasy characters and worlds. *Jurassic Park* (1993), *Forrest Gump* (1994), *Titanic* (1997) and *Star Wars: Episode I—The Phantom Menace* (1999) are examples of films that drew heavily on CGI technology. The success of the CGI-animated film *Toy Story* (1995) contributed to a boom in animated films utilising the same technology.

Other non-CGI films were also popular with audiences, including *Pretty Woman* (1990) and the British-made film *The Full Monty* (1997). Films that defined this decade for many young people were *Reality Bites* (1994), which explored the lifestyle choices made by some generation Xers, and *Pulp Fiction* (1994), which combined crime, violence, comedy, flawed characters and references to pop culture within a non-linear storyline.

'MURIEL' AND 'PRISCILLA'

Australian films of the 1990s played an important role in reassessing Australian identity and presenting this to the world. *Strictly Ballroom* (1992) and *Muriel's Wedding* (1994) dealt with aspects of urban life in modern Australia. While still presenting many stereotypical Australian characters, these films were probably more recognisable to Australians than people overseas. Other Australian stories were being told, such as *Romper Stomper* (1992) starring Russell Crowe, which took a confronting look at racial violence in Australia. Russell Crowe also starred alongside Jack Thompson in *The Sum of Us* (1994), which followed the story of a father and his homosexual son—a story that would not have appeared on Australian screens in decades past.

Perhaps the most resounding example of Australia's cultural development in the 1990s lies in the making of *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert* (1994), a film about two drag queens and a transsexual from the city travelling through outback Australia to perform a cabaret show in Alice Springs. The film challenged national values and prompted Australians to redefine 'who they are'. Compared to its predecessors, generation X was more exposed to diversity in people's ethnicity, class, religion and sexual orientation. In some cases, people of this generation rejected popular culture en masse in search of their own identity, one that had become less distinctive or easily defined and more individualised.



SOURCE 4.5.9 Computer-generated imagery (CGI) contributed to the distinctive special effects shown in *The Matrix* (1999).



SOURCE 4.5.10 A scene from *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert* (1994)

Q Explain the visual and cultural contrasts in this image?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- alternative rock
- anime
- break dancing
- commercialism
- gangsta rap
- generation X
- grunge
- heterogeneous
- mainstream music
- manga
- mini-series
- music television
- pop (music)
- raves
- soap operas
- subscription television
- 'synthpop'
- techno
- 'underground' scene

2 Why is using 'decades' and 'generations' as a means to define changes in popular culture imprecise?

3 **a** What were the main influences on 1980s and 1990s music?

b Design and construct a diagram that illustrates the different styles of 1980s and 1990s music. Ensure that you include examples of performers for each style. Include some images to support the text.

Understanding and analysing

4 Explain how advancements in communication technology in the 1980s and 1990s affected Australian television viewing and distribution of popular culture.

5 What effect might the secrecy surrounding some raves have had on young people in the 1990s?

Understanding and evaluating

6 **a** How were Australians being portrayed to the world in the successful Australian films of the 1980s?

b Explain if this is an accurate reflection of Australian culture and values.

7 **a** How had the nature of Australian films changed in the 1990s?

b What did this mean for Australians' view of themselves and their national identity?

Evaluating

8 Which style of 1980s and 1990s music do you think parents would have been most concerned about their children listening to? Explain your answer.

9 What reasons might there be for the continued popularity of Australian comedy television programs throughout the 1980s and 1990s?

10 What did the development of non-mainstream popular culture in the 1990s signal about young generation Xers?

Creating

11 Research one of the performers, television series or films mentioned in this unit and create an advertisement or digital commercial promoting them/it to young Australians of the 1980s or 1990s. You will need to use imagery and language that will appeal to a teenage audience of the time.

UNIT 6

SOURCE STUDY: AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL PASTIME

THE IMPORTANCE OF SPORT

Sport has become an important part of the Australian national identity. For a relatively small country, Australia has consistently performed well in the international sporting arena. Athletic success has not only strengthened national morale, but has led to characteristics including strength, courage and resilience being regarded as 'Australian'. Success in sport prior to World War II was seen as one means for the country to prove its worth to the rest of the world, particularly against the British. Playing, watching, reading about and betting on sport have always been key aspects of the Australian national identity. Sport has allowed Australians to play out values of mateship and egalitarianism both socially with friends in polite games, and publicly in serious, top-level competition.

SOURCE 4.6.1 The Australian netball team celebrating victory over New Zealand in the 2002 Commonwealth Games. Netball is the most popular women's team sport in Australia.





SOURCE 4.6.2 Australian fans supporting the Australian women's soccer team at the 2011 FIFA Women's World Cup in Germany



SOURCE 4.6.3 A St Kilda supporter at the 2010 Australian Rules football grand final. A crowd of over 100 000 gathered to watch St Kilda versus Collingwood at the Melbourne Cricket Ground.

Since World War II, sport has maintained its position as integral to Australian popular culture and is often referred to as the 'national pastime'. Most Australians have an interest in one or several sports. In 2005, the *Sydney Morning Herald* reported that out of the forty most watched television programs from 2001 to 2005, eighteen were sports events. For the twentieth century, nine out of the top twenty individual television programs were sports events. Although the international success of Australian sports stars has become a source of national pride, Australians are also interested in the manner in which sportspeople behave in winning or losing and whether they display the qualities that people associate with being 'Australian'.

	NUMBER ('000) 2005–06	NUMBER ('000) 2009–10	ATTENDANCE RATE (%) 2005–06	ATTENDANCE RATE (%) 2009–10
Australian Rules football	2 526.7	2 831.8	15.8	16.2
Horse racing	2 003.7	1 940.3	12.5	11.1
Rugby league	1 486.4	1 563.8	9.3	8.9
Motor sports	1 485.2	1 423.0	9.3	8.1
Soccer (outdoor)	560.7	938.8	3.5	5.4
Cricket (outdoor)	730.7	678.7	4.6	3.9
Rugby union	682.0	575.5	4.3	3.3
Harness racing	444.2	412.1	2.8	2.4
Tennis (indoor and outdoor)	267.9	293.7	1.7	1.7
Dog racing	224.8	281.4	1.4	1.6
Total spectators*	**7 096.7**	**7 551.2**	**44.3**	**43.2**

* Includes attendance at all sports, not just those listed above.

SOURCE 4.6.4 Spectators at sporting events, selected sporting events: 2005–06 and 2009–10. Figures from Spectator Attendance at Sporting Events, Australia, 2009–10 (Cat. No. 4174.0), Australian Bureau of Statistics



SOURCE 4.6.5 The trophy awarded to the grand final winners of the National Rugby League replicates this photo called *The Gladiators*, which depicts a mud covered Norm Provin of St. George and Arthur Summons of Western Suburbs after the 1963 grand final.

During the 1950s and into the mid-1960s, all was apparently 'quiet on the south-eastern front' of the SCG [Sydney Cricket Ground] Hill with a tolerable amount of raucous, rowdy behaviour apparently remaining within the bounds of official acceptability. However during this era three changes occurred which were to impact on later crowd behaviour. The first was the introduction of transistor radios in the early 1950s with the first 'transistor test' being played in 1954 in Sydney. The second was the introduction of television in 1958 and a limited televised coverage of test matches. This coverage increased to full series telecasts in the 1970–71 season. These new developments had the effect, among other things, of significantly changing the size and nature of the cricket audience. The third innovation of the 1950–60 era was that of the tin beer can (the tinnie) and the first 'beer can test series' was in 1962–63 between England and Australia. The invention of the beer can and its trusty companion, the portable cooler, meant that the crowd on The Hill (and in other places) had a cool supply of beer for the entire day. An early Australian report of an additional use of the can as missile comes in 1964–65 when a player 'was pelted with cans after he dropped a catch in front of a group of patrons who were swilling beer'. An editorial in the Sydney Morning Herald *also notes the impact of the new beer technology. The editor writes that 'wide popularity of the beer can and the portable cooler... has added to the crowd's irascibility, which becomes evident by mid-afternoon, especially on a hot day when the play is rather slow'.*

SOURCE 4.6.6 From: 'A Symbolic Patch of Grass: Crowd Disorder and Regulation on the Sydney Cricket Ground Hill', by Rob Lynch in *Crowd Violence at Australian Sport*, Australian Society for Sports History Incorporated, Campbelltown, NSW, 1992

The ongoing success and high profiles of Aboriginal sportspeople post–World War II has done much to promote Reconciliation between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and the broader Australian community. In 1968, at the age of 19, Lionel Rose became the first Aboriginal Australian to win a world boxing title in the bantamweight division. Evonne Goolagong Cawley of the Wiradjuri people in central New South Wales was a top-ranking professional tennis player during the 1970s. She won seven grand slam singles titles, including the 1971 and 1980 Wimbledon ladies' championships. Australians of all walks of life celebrated Cathy Freeman's unforgettable victory in the women's 400 metres track event at the 2000 Olympics. The win cemented her place in sporting history as the first Aboriginal Australian to win an individual Olympic gold medal.

SPORTS PARTICIPATION

In the 1970s, Australians were great sports fans and spectators, but rising obesity and heart disease rates suggested that most were not participants. The 'Life. Be in it.' campaign featuring the character 'Norm' was launched in Victoria in 1975. The campaign went national in 1978 with the goal of encouraging Australians to become more physically active.

By the start of the twenty-first century, the same concerns about the sedentary lifestyles of many Australians hypnotised by television sets and computer games challenged the athletic Australian ideal. The Australian Bureau of Statistics reported in 2010 that in the twelve months prior to being interviewed 64 per cent of Australians aged 15 years and over participated in sport or physical activities, down from 66 per cent in 2005–06.

'THE BEST OLYMPICS EVER'

Hosting the Olympic Games for the second time in Australia's history in 2000, this time in Sydney, reinforced the importance of sport as part of Australian popular culture and national identity. The Sydney Olympics were declared by the then International Olympic Committee President Juan Antonio Samaranch 'the best Olympics ever'. Millions of people around the world were beamed images of their athletes competing, along with carefully constructed promotional footage advertising Australia's positive qualities and desirable holiday destinations.

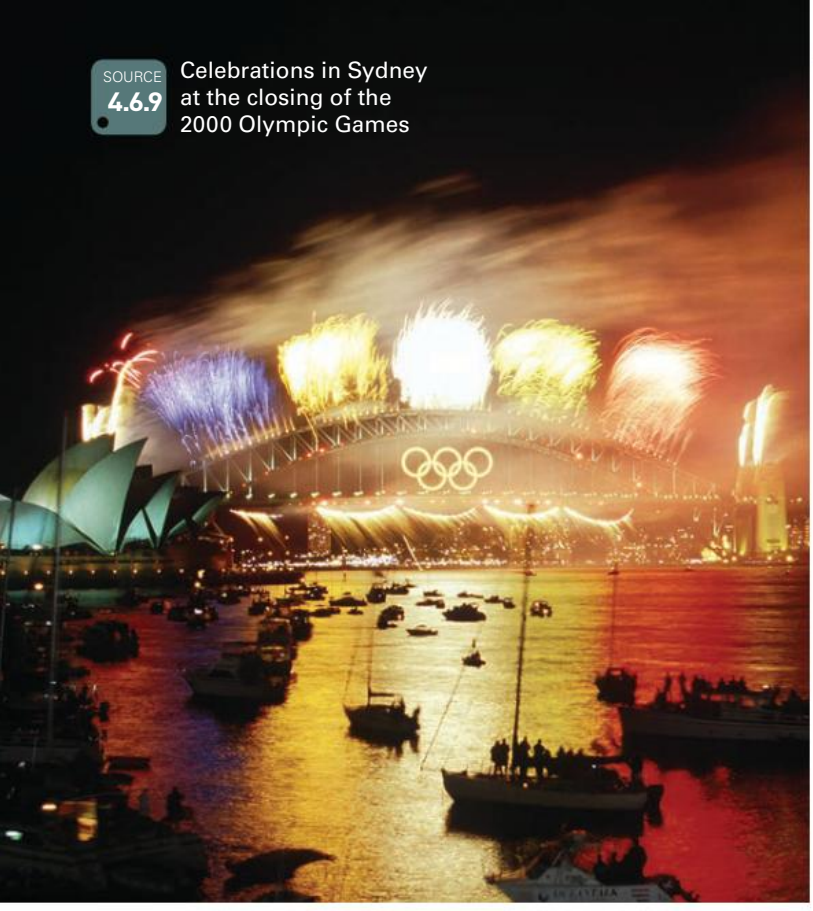
Australia won sixteen gold medals (fifty-eight overall), finishing in fourth place behind the United States, Russia and China. Australian stars of the 2000 Olympics have become household names,



SOURCE 4.6.7 Poster for the Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation featuring Australian sprinters Melinda Gainsford-Taylor and Cathy Freeman. Held at the National Library of Australia

	NUMBER ('000)	PARTICIPATION RATE (%)
Walking for exercise	4 004.9	22.9
Aerobics/fitness/gym	2 448.9	14.0
Swimming/diving	1 292.9	7.4
Cycling	1 141.4	6.5
Jogging/running	1 135.9	6.5
Golf	786.3	4.5
Tennis	702.4	4.0
Netball	445.8	2.6
Bush walking	412.3	2.4
Soccer (outdoor)	401.0	2.3

SOURCE 4.6.8 Participants, sport and physical recreation 2009–10, by selected activities. Figures from Participation in Sport and Physical Recreation, Australia, 2009–10 (Cat. No. 4177.0), Australian Bureau of Statistics



SOURCE 4.6.9 Celebrations in Sydney at the closing of the 2000 Olympic Games



SOURCE 4.6.10 Socceroos celebrating their victory over Uruguay in December 2005 to qualify for the 2006 World Cup

just like those that came before them. Gold-medal performances by swimmers such as Ian Thorpe, Grant Hackett and Susie O'Neil; beach volleyball competitors Natalie Cook and Kerri Pottharst; and trap shooter Michael Diamond are golden moments of Australia's sporting history.

REPRESENTING AUSTRALIA AND AUSTRALIANS

Sportspeople are regarded as role models for young Australians and poor behaviour on their part can see them publicly shamed in the press, lose sponsorship, and in some cases suspended or banned from their chosen sport.

Australian sportspeople not only represent Australia in national and international contests, but many also compete in large overseas competitions and are idolised by sports fans in those countries. Australian coaches, sports psychologists, physiotherapists, doctors, nutritionists, administrators and producers of sports equipment are also employed by other national teams, overseas clubs and sporting organisations. All of these people take Australia's passion for sport with them as they promote Australian culture and values to sportspeople and sports fans around the world.

FOOTBALL: FOUR GAMES, ONE NAME

...Football (or footy as it is also known) in Australia can mean any one of four codes– Australian Rules football, Association Football (Soccer), Rugby League or Rugby Union. All four codes are team sports...

The football code an Australian plays or follows is often dictated by where they live, their cultural heritage, or by the code they were taught at school. Both Rugby Union and Rugby League are most popular in New South Wales and Queensland. Australian Rules football is the dominant form of football in Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia, Tasmania and the Northern Territory.

Soccer is considered to be the most popular team sport in the world and is played in over 200 countries. Rugby League is played in more than 30 countries and is most prominent in Australia, England and New Zealand. Rugby Union is also popular in many countries including Australia, England, Wales and Japan...

SOURCE 4.6.11 From 'Football: Four games, one name', feature article in Perspectives on Sport, May 2009 (based on data collected 2005–06), Australian Bureau of Statistics

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING, ANALYSING AND EVALUATING

1 What conclusions about the place of sport in Australian popular culture can be drawn from Sources 4.6.2, 4.6.3, 4.6.4 and 4.6.6?

2 a In reference to Source 4.6.6, what are the three changes that impacted on crowd behaviour at the cricket?

b Explain how each of these changes may have impacted upon crowd behaviour.

3 a According to Source 4.6.8, which physical activity had the highest number of participants in 2009–10?

b Which team sports are included in this list? How does Source 4.6.1 relate to these statistics?

c What conclusions about Australians and sport can be drawn from these figures?

4 Examine the statistics in Source 4.6.4.

a Which sport had the highest number of spectators at live matches over both periods?

b Which sport had the greatest percentage increase over the two periods? Can you suggest a possible explanation for this?

c Is the general trend for attendance at live sporting events increasing or decreasing? (Remember to look at all sports.) Can you suggest a possible explanation for this trend?

d What other information would be useful to a historian who is trying to draw conclusions from the information in Source 4.6.4?

e What are the difficulties in trying to analyse the data in both Sources 4.6.4 and 4.6.8 to draw conclusions about Australian sporting habits?

5 a How are the Australian values and characteristics discussed in this unit reflected in Source 4.6.5?

b What does the use of this image as a trophy reveal about the way sports administrators are trying to portray Rugby League?

6 Explain the significance of the athletes pictured in Source 4.6.7. What is the poster trying to achieve, and why have the creators used the athletes pictured to support the purpose of the poster?

7 Explain how the image in Source 4.6.9 is useful in demonstrating the way in which sport is used to promote other aspects of Australia to the international community.

EVALUATING AND CREATING

8 a How does the information in Source 4.6.11 help to explain the significance of the achievement being celebrated in Source 4.6.10?

b Based on this information, what argument can be made to support the view that Australia qualifying for the soccer World Cup is more important to the nation than winning a Rugby Union or Rugby League World Cup?

c What benefits are there to Australia when Australian sportspeople achieve international success?

d In light of the answers you have given to parts a, b and c, how can the popularity of Australian football codes (see Sources 4.6.3 and Source 4.6.4) be explained?

9 On your own or in pairs, write a list of ten popular Australian sportspeople from a range of sports. Use the internet to find images of these people and use them to create a photo collage. Test others in the class to see if they can name the personalities you have chosen. Discuss as a class how successful you were in identifying the personalities presented by other individuals/groups. What conclusions can you draw from this in terms of:

- the place of sport in Australian popular culture
- the significance of personal interests and cultural heritage when it comes to knowledge of popular culture
- the role of generational change in the creation of popular culture
- the role of the media in promoting popular culture.



UNIT 7

GEN Y AND TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY CYBERSPACE

GENERATION Y

The term **generation Y** started appearing in the early 1990s to describe the next generation of teenagers born in the 1980s and 1990s who seemed very different to generation X. Those of generation Y started leaving secondary school at the turn of the century, inspiring the label 'Millennials'. They have also been referred to as the 'MyPod generation' and 'echo boomers', due to their teenage years coinciding with the prominence of MP3 technology, and the upswing in birth rates during this period. Their strength in numbers makes them a large and therefore influential group in terms of popular culture. Global issues that have influenced this generation include the threat of terrorism since the terrorist attacks in the United States on 11 September 2001, the nature of extremism and renewed conservatism in many religions, the promotion of **environmentalism**, and the future uncertainties resulting from a global economic recession.

Developments in communication technology have influenced the evolution of popular culture throughout the post–World War II period. Since the late 1990s, the broad use of the internet and, in particular, search engines such as Google and websites such as YouTube, has enabled people to search for, access and often stumble across music and video images from every corner of the globe. Popular culture is no longer only delivered via the television, radio and in films, but also in an online environment. The advent of social networking through websites such as Myspace, Facebook and Twitter has enabled generation Y to quickly share their diverse tastes in music and video entertainment with friends in **cyberspace** instantaneously.

While young people still sit in garages with guitars preparing to be the next musical superstar, they are also armed with video cameras and **smartphones**, making short films ready to be posted online and shared with a potential audience of millions. Some popular stars of the twenty-first century first, such as Justin Bieber, came to prominence via the internet.

SOURCE 4.7.1 From 'A–Z of Generation Y', by Bryan Patterson, *Sunday Herald Sun*, 8 July 2007

They're hip, smart-talking, brash and sometimes seem to suffer from an overdose of self-esteem.

And if there's a generalisation to be made about young Generation Y people, it's that they don't like waiting.

With a BlackBerry in one hand, half-caf latte in the other and iPod-plugged earphones surgically attached to ears, they are ambitious, demanding and apparently born to rule. Right now!...

They grew up with mobile phones, the internet, pay TV, bottled water, laptops and Eminem in a world of AIDS, terrorism and addiction to crack and ice.

Technology has played an important part in empowering them. About three-quarters of Gen Ys regularly use the internet. They are the most educated-minded generation in history and are more optimistic about life and work than their predecessors, Generation X.

They are generally socially aware, and tolerant and accepting of cultural differences.

They are the first generation to have been in the sights of advertisers while in the womb; but they are cynical of marketers because they have been exposed to TV and mass marketing since they were born.

They are technically savvy—as toddlers they learned to flip TV channels via remote control and played with computer graphics in primary school.

No wonder that almost three-quarters of all SMS messages are sent by Gen Ys.

They are the most technology-fluent, multi-tasking, adaptable and team-oriented group in history...

The only problem might be their impatience with the old ways: they want instant gratification, think email is snail mail and want to be chief executive of the company by 25. And, of course, all in no more than 35 hours a week.

What they lack in experience, they believe they make up in enthusiasm. They will leave jobs quickly if the boss is nasty, the hours inflexible or the pay unsatisfactory.

Almost half of baby boomers believe they should stay in a job with the one employer for at least five years, but only a quarter of Gen Ys would consider such a long stay...

Q

1 According to the source, how are generation Y people different to the baby boomers and generation X?

2 From the description provided in this source, what are the positive and negative qualities of generation Y?

DIGITAL AND REALITY TELEVISION

By 2004, 99 per cent of Australian households owned a television and 23 per cent subscribed to pay television. On average, teenagers were watching nearly 2 hours of television each day, on top of another 2 hours of computer-based entertainment. Television still contributed an enormous amount to Australian popular culture. The introduction of **digital television** at the turn of the millennium resulted in more channels being available to the public on free-to-air television, increasing choices even further.

The production of programs in **high definition** (HD) combined with improvements in television set technology such as plasma and LCD flat screens, as well as 3D televisions and programs, has led to many households setting up home theatres. At the same time, many young people have been able to watch programs out of the view of parents online via computers and smartphones, lessening the control that parents have over their children's access to popular culture.

US television shows have still proven to be popular with Australian audiences during the 2000s, with programs such as *CSI* (2000–), *Desperate Housewives* (2004–12), *Grey's Anatomy* (2005–), *The Big Bang Theory* (2007–) and *Glee* (2009–) covering most genres. US television's impact upon Australian popular culture was perhaps best illustrated by the hysteria created in early 2011 when talk show hostess Oprah Winfrey filmed two episodes in Sydney in front of huge crowds and with much media hype and attention.

Regardless of the US influences, Australian programs such as *All Saints* (1998–2009), *Rove* (2000–09), *Kath and Kim* (2002–07), *Summer Heights High* (2007), *Packed to the Rafters* (2008–) and the *Underbelly* (2008) mini-series have received excellent ratings. The prominence of reality television programs such as *Big Brother* (2001–08) challenged Australians' perception of what was and was not considered entertainment and where ethical lines should be drawn. Other incarnations of reality shows include talent programs such as *Australia's Got Talent* (2007–), the cooking program *MasterChef Australia* (2009–), and home makeover programs *The Block* (2003–) and *The Renovators* (2011–). This type of programming has become very popular, particularly with young people, and has led to the phenomenon of some celebrities 'being famous for being famous'.



SOURCE 4.7.2 The television mockumentary *Summer Heights High* (2007) offers a representation of Australian secondary school life.

GLOBALISATION AND AUSTRALIAN STORIES

Film at the beginning of the twenty-first century was becoming more multinational, as production studios in Hollywood increasingly drew upon technical and creative talent from around the world. The size of the Indian film industry, **Bollywood**, challenged that of the United States. One of the most highly acclaimed films of the 2000s, *Slumdog Millionaire* (2008), was set in India, had a British director and multinational production crew, and took inspiration from Bollywood themes and styles. The Australian film industry and business sector have also developed closer ties with Bollywood through collaborative productions and financing films. Bollywood films such as *Heyy Babyy* (2007) and *Love Story 2050* (2008) employed large Australian crews and showcased scenery from both rural and urban Australia. Although martial arts films made in Asia have always been popular with Australian audiences, the success of *Crouching Tiger, Hidden Dragon* (2000) also signalled a shift towards the globalisation of the film industry and a widening of influences upon popular culture.

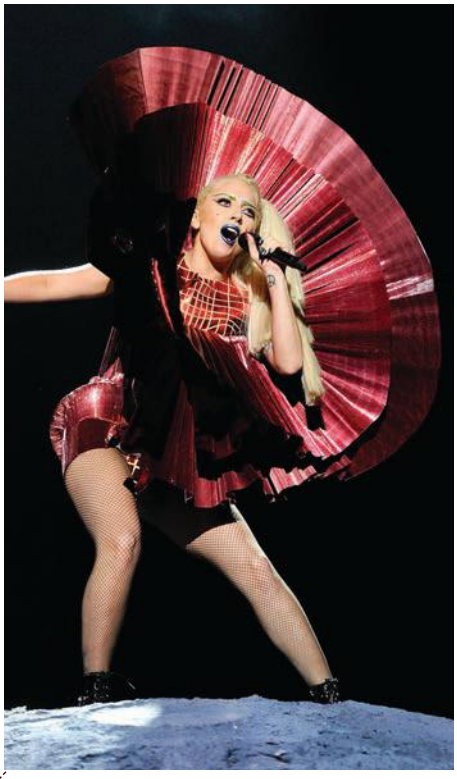
Australian films have continued to be diverse in content. The Baz Luhrmann production *Australia* (2008) received mostly positive reviews worldwide, but was generally regarded as an epic film that maintains Australian stereotypes. *Lantana* (2001), *Rabbit Proof Fence* (2002), *Bran Nue Dae* (2009), *Balibo* (2009), *Beneath Hill 60* (2010) and *Animal Kingdom* (2010) are films that tell distinctly Australian stories, each dealing with different aspects of society and national identity. As has been done internationally, Australian film productions have utilised talent from all over the world, which means Australians have not been the only people involved in telling Australian stories.

A SELECTIVE AUDIENCE

Young people in the twenty-first century have become more selective in the music they listen to. They no longer rely upon radio stations, music television programs, or even artists' albums to shape the music they consume. Personalised play lists constructed by sampling and choosing music (mostly downloaded from the internet) are played on personal digital listening devices, any time and anywhere.

In the 2000s, Australian bands such as Powderfinger, Jet and Wolfmother kept rock fans happy, while Delta Goodrem and Holly Valance followed in Kylie Minogue's footsteps, transitioning from television to a career in music. The Presets took the dance music world by storm, and performers Missy Higgins, Ben Lee, the Veronicas and Rogue Traders enjoyed broad success.

One of the most successful groups of the 2000s was Coldplay, from Britain, and other European acts such as Lily Allen, Franz Ferdinand, James Blunt and Radiohead were also popular. The emergence of a new market in **tweens**, children (especially girls) roughly between the ages of 9 and 12, allowed artists influenced by country music such as Miley Cyrus (aka Hannah Montana) and Taylor Swift notable success. Britney Spears, Christina Aguilera and Justin Timberlake all enjoyed enormous popularity, as did *American Idol* winner Kelly Clarkson and *Australian Idol* stars Guy Sebastian, Shannon Noll and Indigenous artist Jessica Mauboy. R & B performers from the United States such as Beyoncé, Usher, Jennifer Lopez, Alicia Keys and Rihanna all developed healthy Australian fan bases. Hip-hop took on various forms with favourites Eminem, Jay-Z and the Black Eyed Peas all fitting loosely into this genre. Bands such as Linkin Park, Good Charlotte, Kings of Leon and Limp Bizkit provided for those with a taste for loud music. The thought-provoking lyrics, energetic performances and extravagant costumes of female artists such as P!nk and Lady Gaga personified the diversity of generation Yers' musical tastes.



SOURCE 4.7.3 Lady Gaga's music and flamboyant style appeals to many young people of generation Y.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- Bollywood
- cyberspace
- digital television
- environmentalism
- generation Y
- high definition (HD) television
- smartphones
- tweens

2 Apart from generation Y, what other terms have been used to label people born in the 1980s and 1990s? Explain the origin of these terms.

Applying and evaluating

3 From the 1950s onwards, some television personalities have become music and/or film stars, and some music artists have become film stars. List as many of these career transitions in the entertainment industry as you can think of from the 1950s to the present day. Why do you think this happens and what effect does it have on the development of popular culture?

Understanding and evaluating

4 What is reality television and why do you think it is criticised by some people? What do you think are the positive and negative aspects of reality television?

5 Explain how the film industry has become globalised and what impact this might have on popular culture of the future.

Creating

6 **a** Create a proposal for a new Australian reality television series. You will need to explain:

- where the series would be set
- the type of people who would star in it
- who would host it (if there is need for a host)
- how it would be filmed
- the life experiences viewers would be exposed to through watching the series
- whether there would be rewards or prizes for those involved, and what they would be
- any other information you think is relevant to explain or 'sell' the concept.

b Produce an advertisement to promote the series aimed at your target audience. It could be a television advertisement filmed at school or home, a print advertisement for newspapers and/or magazines, or an online advertisement using a range of images, texts, animations and video.



AUSTRALIAN INFLUENCES ON GLOBAL POPULAR CULTURE

While Australian popular culture has been heavily influenced by film, music and television from other countries, it is also evident that Australians have taken their unique way of looking at the world to the global community. The creative talents of Australians have influenced the evolution of global popular culture by being a part of, and in many cases leading the construction of it.

MUSICAL INFLUENCES

In the late 1950s, the success of rock 'n' rollers Johnny O'Keefe and the Dee Jays in the United States signalled to the world the arrival of Australians on the international music scene. The Easybeats were the first Australian group to do well in Britain with their song 'Friday on My Mind'. Those that experienced success tended to offer something a little different; for example, the Seekers became well-known folk music artists in the 1960s with 'I'll Never Find Another You' and 'Georgy Girl' becoming hits in Britain, the United States and Australia all at the same time.

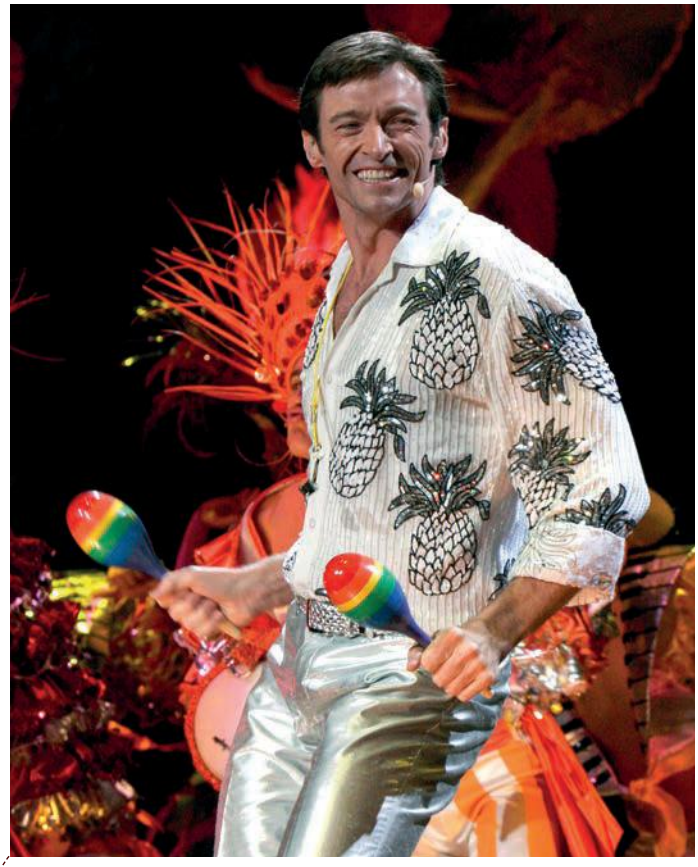
The Bee Gees became one of the most influential contributors to popular culture in the 1970s with the inclusion of their songs in the soundtrack for the film *Saturday Night Fever*. The Bee Gees became one of the biggest selling music artists of all time and the group was inducted into the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame in 1997.

Peter Allen was a prolific writer of hit songs and a performer in Broadway musicals. He won an Academy Award for co-writing 'Arthur's Theme (Best That You Can Do)' that featured in the film *Arthur* (1981), and was immortalised after his death in the hit musical 'The Boy from Oz'.

Helen Reddy became the voice of the **women's movement** worldwide with her song 'I Am Woman' in 1972. This proved that Australians were starting to break the mould and lead popular culture rather than simply follow it.



SOURCE 4.8.1 Australian singer and songwriter Peter Allen wore elaborate costumes and gave energetic performances in front of local and international audiences in the 1970s and 1980s.



SOURCE 4.8.2 Hugh Jackman performs in Sydney in 'The Boy from Oz'. The musical, based on the life of Peter Allen, was a hugely successful production on Broadway, New York, USA. It is an example of Australians' influence on global popular culture.

From the 1980s to the present day, performers such as AC/DC, INXS, Midnight Oil, Hoodoo Gurus, Savage Garden, Crowded House, Jet, Keith Urban, the Presets, and children's entertainers the Wiggles have achieved great international success, adding an Australian flavour to popular culture.

Men at Work claim a broader place in Australian and global popular culture. Their hit song 'Down Under' sits alongside Peter Allen's 'I Still Call Australia Home' as being synonymous with Australia and Australians overseas.

INFLUENCES IN FILM

Films such as *Crocodile Dundee*, *Australia* and *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert* presented Australian characters and stories in distinctly Australian locations. They, along with a diverse range of other films, have informed the world about who Australians are, what Australia is like as a country, and claim a place in global popular culture, regardless of how accurate the representations are.

Australian influence on global popular culture in film goes way beyond Australian productions. Australian actors and actresses such as Eric Bana, Cate Blanchett, Toni Collette, Russell Crowe, Judy Davis, Peter Finch, Mel Gibson, Hugh Jackman, Nicole Kidman, Heath Ledger and Geoffrey Rush have received accolades and won awards for their performances in films that cover a variety of genres.

As Australians contributing to the telling of other people's stories, or simply as entertainers, their faces, voices and interpretations of characters have become part of global popular culture.

PRODUCTION CREW AND FACILITIES

Australian film directors, such as Bruce Beresford, Baz Luhrmann, George Miller and Peter Weir have won as many awards and enjoyed as much success as Australian actors. As directors, they arguably have had more influence over popular culture through their control of most aspects of a film as it is being made. Other highly sought after professionals who contribute to both Australian and multinational productions include Catherine Martin, who has won several prestigious awards for costume design and art direction; John Seale for his work on the **cinematography** of films such as *Witness* (1985) and *The English Patient* (1996); and John Cox for his work on visual and special effects.

Australian production studios, such as Fox Studios in Sydney, have hosted the making of blockbuster films *The Matrix*, *Mission: Impossible II* (2000), *Moulin Rouge!* (2001) and *Superman Returns* (2006), drawing upon Australia's technical talent and scenic locations.

SOURCE 4.8.3 Mel Gibson starred in and directed *Braveheart* (1995), earning him two Academy Awards in 1995 for Best Picture and Best Director.



INFLUENCES IN TELEVISION

Australian television programs have had some success overseas. Some comedies have been remade overseas using local actors and storylines. The earliest Australian-made program to be sold overseas for prime-time viewing was the variety program *Revue '61* (1961–62), which was sold to Canada in 1962. *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo* was the first series to become popular overseas; it aired in over eighty countries, including the United States. However, the most consistently popular type of Australian programming with overseas audiences has been soap operas, particularly in the United Kingdom. Images of 'typical Australian life' in programs such as *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* have been very appealing to those in the United Kingdom from the 1980s onwards.

RECOGNISABLE FACES

Two of the most recognisable Australian faces on global television in recent history have been Steve Irwin and Barry Humphries (dressed as the character Dame Edna Everage). Before his untimely death in 2006, Steve Irwin's wildlife documentary series *The Crocodile Hunter* (1997–2004) aired in 130 countries, including the United States and the United Kingdom, and was regularly watched by 500 million people in the late 1990s to mid-2000s. His energetic message of conserving the habitat of wild animals was punctuated with the catchphrase 'Crikey!' Irwin's legacy is carried on by his family. His daughter Bindi is a well-known ambassador for Australia Zoo and conservation.



SOURCE 4.8.4 Bindi Irwin, daughter of the late Steve Irwin, is the face of Australia Zoo and a young promoter of environmental causes.

SOURCE 4.8.5 *Home and Away* (1988–), the long-running Australian soap opera, has been popular with audiences in the United Kingdom since it was first broadcast there in 1989.





Barry Humphries has had a long career in the arts, using film, live theatre and most recently television to satirise aspects of society in both Australia and the United Kingdom. His 'chat show' format television specials in the United Kingdom in the late 1990s to 2007 were not only popular, but usually had live celebrity audiences who would become the butt of his characters' jokes. Although sometimes rude and offensive, his characters have become part of global popular culture and are particularly recognised as 'Australian' characters.

SOURCE 4.8.6 Barry Humphries as the glamorous Dame Edna Everage, whom Humphries announced as 'retired' in 2012

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms below.
   - cinematography
   - women's movement
2. According to the text, in what ways have Australians influenced global popular culture?

Understanding and evaluating

3. What type of Australian musicians have tended to be more successful overseas? Why do you think this is the case?
4. Explain why films with Australian stories are important in terms of promoting Australian popular culture.
5. How do Australian actors, directors and film personnel contribute to global popular culture?
6. What type of Australian television programs have tended to be most popular overseas? Why do you think this is the case?

Evaluating

7. How might someone such as Rupert Murdoch, an Australian-born media mogul, influence popular culture?
8. What are the positive and negative aspects of the success of entertainers such as Steve Irwin and Barry Humphries for Australia's national identity?

Creating

9. Using the internet and other sources, search newspapers and magazines to find an article about an Australian or a group of Australians who have made a significant contribution to global popular culture in the past twelve months. Present the story of their success and the nature of their contribution in a format approved by your teacher.

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 Music with a conscience

Many musicians have written songs that reflect on or make comment about important political or social issues of the time. Some of the more popular themes previously explored by artists in their music include the Vietnam War and war in general, peace, protecting the environment, women's rights, race relations, and generational change. Select and research the work of a music artist or group from the second half of the twentieth century, focusing on the political or social agenda expressed in their music. Present your findings to the class by:

a playing one of the artist's/group's songs to the class, either as a video or just the music
b leading a discussion with the class to analyse what the song is about
c providing evidence about your interpretation of the song
d explaining the significance of the song's topic in relation to the evidence you have provided.

#2 'Fashionista'

Select a post–World War II decade and research the fashion trends (clothes, hairstyles, shoes and make-up) worn by teenagers and young adults that emerged during the period. Once you have identified the main trends, try to identify where and/or from whom they originated and how these trends were received by those of older generations. Present your findings in a multimedia presentation that:

a shows examples of the fashion trends on a timeline
b explains where and/or from whom the trends originated and how they found their way to Australia
c illustrates how the trends were significantly different to those of the past and what they represented to teenagers of the time
d gives some examples of reactions to the trends
e identifies how long lasting the trends were.

#3 At the movies

After conducting relevant research that builds upon the material presented in this chapter, write an essay in response to this topic.

'Assess the Australian film industry's representation of Australian stereotypes and the influence this does or does not have on the Australian national identity.'

In your essay:

a define and explain the nature of Australian stereotypes
b identify a range of Australian-made films from the post–World War II period to the present, and explain their representation of Australians and Australian society and culture
c provide print and visual primary and secondary sources (analyse these using the ADAMANT technique)
d present your opinion about the topic with supporting arguments.

INQUIRY TASKS

#4 *This Is Your Life*

In pairs or small groups, research the life of one Australian from the post–World War II period to the present who has enjoyed significant international success. Present your findings as a half-hour episode in the style of *This Is Your Life*. You could choose to research someone involved in sport, music, film, television, theatre and the arts, science, medicine, business and industry, or philanthropy and social welfare. Your program should:

a describe the extent of the Australian's achievements and success

b identify the impact they have made in their area of expertise globally

c outline difficulties that they may have faced in making their mark internationally and identify particular strategies that they employed to achieve their goals

d explain the influence they have had over other Australians who aspire to achieve success internationally in a similar or unrelated field.

One student takes the part of the host who interviews the guest. Another student takes the role of the successful Australian, and any other students can perform the roles of significant people from the guest's life who the host calls upon to comment on the famous Australian's achievements.

Perform your episode in front of the class.

#5 That's dinky-di

In 2011, Prime Minister Julia Gillard presented US President Barack Obama with an MP3 player pre-loaded with Australian music. This gesture stirred debate in society about which 'typically Australian' music should have been included in such a culturally significant gift.

You have been asked to put together a collection of five cultural objects that, in your opinion, best represent present-day Australian popular culture. The items in your collection will be considered for inclusion in a class time capsule that future generations will study.

You may choose to present your collection as a multimedia presentation with an image of each object and an explanation of why it is on your list. Or your teacher may ask you to physically produce each object (or an accurate replica) to present and explain to the class.

As a class, discuss which objects should be included in the class time capsule. Consider their cultural significance and what future historians will learn about Australian national identity and popular culture of the time by studying these objects.



SOURCE **4.9.1**

Steve Irwin's infectious enthusiasm for wildlife and conservation made him an endearing Australian character, cementing his place in local and international popular culture.

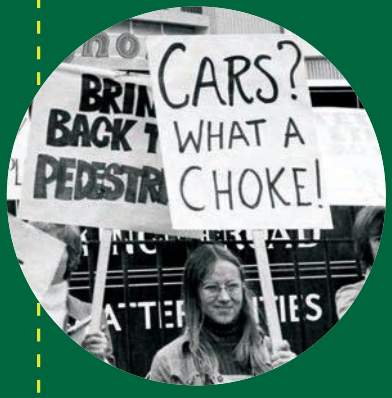
CHAPTER 5

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- What conditions contributed to the growth of the environment movement?
- Why and how did the environment movement grow to become a global force?
- What impact has the environment movement had on the modern world?
- How has the environment movement shaped Australian society?

DEPTH STUDY 3
THE GLOBALISING WORLD

The environment movement emerged in the Western world in the 1960s. In its relatively short history, it has greatly changed people's attitudes towards the impact of humans on the natural world. Due to relentless pressure from activists on a wide range of issues, governments and international organisations have increasingly had to respond to environmental considerations. In the twenty-first century, the environment movement has become entrenched in social practices and political debates around the world.







THE ENVIRONMENT MOVEMENT



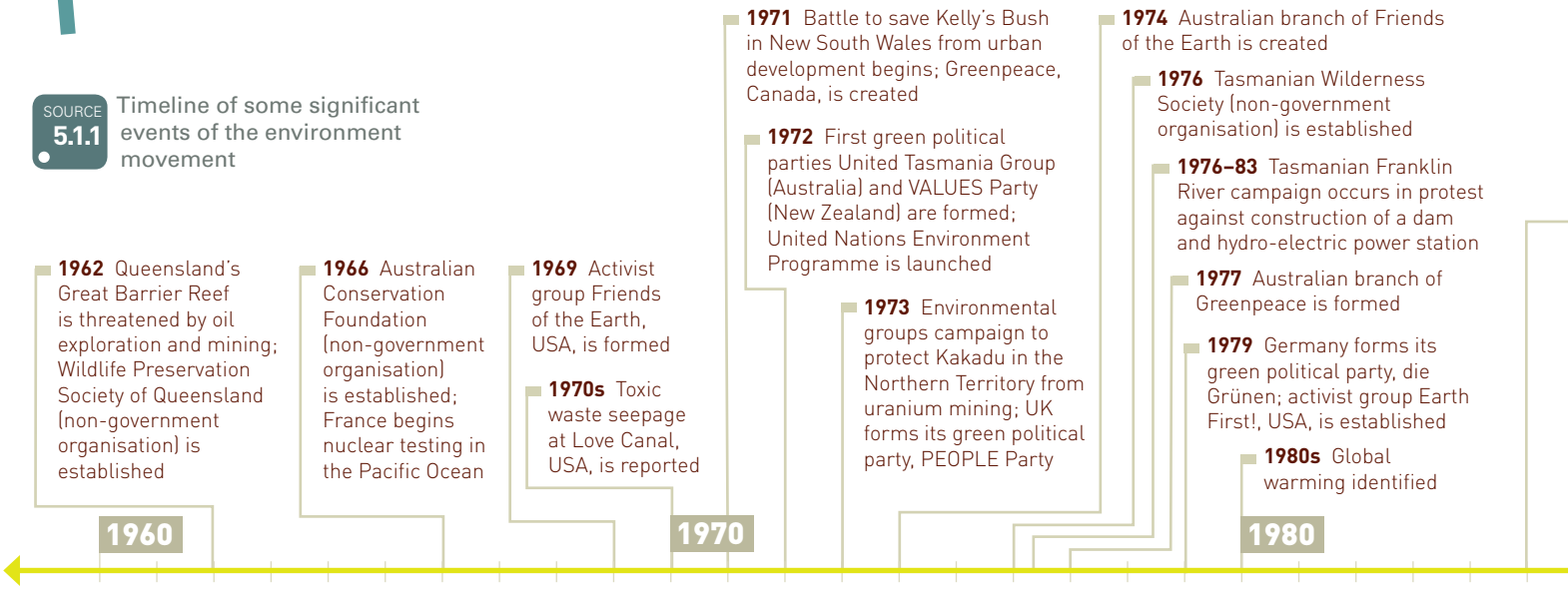
SOURCE **5.0.1**

Wilderness Society rally in Melbourne, 6 June 2004. On this day, thousands of people protested against the logging of Tasmanian old-growth rainforests in marches in cities around Australia. It was one of the largest environmental protests of that decade. The rally organisers said this sent a clear message to the government about Australians' demands to save old-growth forests.

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1960s–the present

SOURCE 5.1.1 Timeline of some significant events of the environment movement



EMERGENCE AND GROWTH OF THE ENVIRONMENT MOVEMENT

What we call the 'environment movement' today is a loosely connected network of groups, organisations and individuals. They have a shared interest to protect and regulate human impact on the natural world so as to ensure a good quality of life for present and future generations.

The environment movement has its roots in Western countries in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, when there were changing ideas about how humankind should relate to the natural world. From the 1960s onwards, accepted opinions about what we now call the 'environment' were increasingly contested. This occurred in ways that gained growing attention and support that tended to cut across the social classes. In fact, the environment movement is seen as one of several social movements that evolved in the late twentieth century that has challenged a range of social norms.

The environment movement has been driven by the beliefs that the environment needs to be protected for its own sake, that business and government should not prioritise profits and economic development at the expense of the environment, and that people need to modify their way of life in order to take better care of the environment.

FEATURES OF THE MOVEMENT

A multitude of groups, organisations and influential individuals are behind what we call the 'environment movement'. Some have a single-issue focus, while others deal with a range of issues. The scale at which they operate ranges from local, national and international, and often moves across more than one level.

The environment movement is dynamic; that is, it has changed in various ways over time. Environmental incidents and threats lead to greater public visibility of the movement, as concerned groups and organisations heighten their activities. Some groups, organisations and influential individuals have tended to feed off each other, but they do not operate as a single entity and may disagree over goals and tactics. The movement has no overarching leadership or coordinating body.

THE MOVEMENT IN AUSTRALIA

Developments in Australia have featured prominently in the environment movement from the 1960s onwards. A major focus has been preservation of wilderness areas, such as the Great Barrier Reef in Queensland, the Franklin River in Tasmania and Kakadu National Park in the Northern Territory. Another key focus has been improving urban areas, such as the Kelly's Bush (in New South Wales) demands for open green space. The movement has operated at local, national and international levels. One of the features of the movement in Australia has been the formation of green politics.

SOURCE 5.1.2

Satellite image of the Gulf of Mexico oil slick just off the Louisiana coast, 18 June 2010. The oil slick appears as patterns of varying shades of off-white.



1985 Ozone hole is discovered over Antarctica

1986 Chernobyl nuclear accident spreads radioactive waste over western Soviet Union and Europe

1988 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change is launched

1989 *Exxon Valdez* oil spill contaminates the Alaskan coastline

1992 Australia forms its national green political party, Australian Greens; activist group Earth Liberation Front, UK, is established

1998 Jabiluka uranium mining blockade takes place in the Northern Territory

2001 Global Green Network, International is formed

2007 Australia ratifies the Kyoto Protocol, committing to 20 per cent target for renewable energy by 2020

2010 Underwater blowout of deep-sea oil well contaminates the Gulf of Mexico, USA

2011 Fukushima nuclear disaster occurs in Japan

1990 2000 2010

SOURCE 5.1.3

Protesters speak out against nuclear power and weapons at a memorial service held on 6 August 2011, the anniversary of the 1945 atomic bombing of Hiroshima, Japan.





UNIT 2

BACKGROUND TO ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS

THE DISTANT PAST

For almost 2 million years, *Homo sapiens* lived on this planet causing little disruption to the environment. They moved in small groups and within limited areas they hunted animals and gathered plants for food. As people started living in large groups, they also began to manipulate the environment. They raised crops, domesticated animals, used rivers for irrigation, cut timber and excavated rock for building, and mined minerals for manufacture and trade. However, the overall environmental impact was minimal. By and large, nature was able to replenish itself.

ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS

As the populations of towns and cities grew more dense, problems due to **pollution**, **deforestation** and **soil degradation** were recognised. For instance, in Ancient Sumer some cities were abandoned as irrigated lands became saline and waterlogged; in parts of Ancient Greece, timber stripping caused **soil erosion**; and the ancient city of Rome experienced air and water pollution from wood burning, sewage and industries such as tanning and smelting. Some measures to deal with such problems were taken. For example, the Greeks began to use passive solar energy by orienting buildings towards the sun and in China, India and Peru farming practices to limit soil erosion were developed.

THE MEDIEVAL PERIOD

The medieval period saw the growth of **urbanisation** and manufacturing, particularly in Europe. This led to increased deforestation as well as pollution (due to a growing reliance on coal for fuel, and waste disposal in streams and open sewers). There were greater problems of public health, particularly due to overcrowding and poverty in urban centres. The devastating Black Death spread so rapidly because of unclean air and water. In Europe, which was largely Christian, people believed that God had given humans authority over animals and the natural world, which they could use for their own purposes. They also believed that human wellbeing depended on taming nature.

CHANGING VIEWS OF NATURE

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

By the sixteenth century in Europe, some Renaissance scholars focused on the capacity of humans, through the use of reason and experiment, to better understand the natural world. This led to the beginnings of what we call 'modern science' and sparked the Scientific Revolution in Britain and Europe during the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. The Scientific Revolution saw remarkable developments in all fields of science, aided by the invention of scientific instruments such as the telescope and microscope. The natural world had become a vital subject for scholarly investigation and was now thought to be best approached and explained through use of the 'scientific method'.

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

By the eighteenth century, largely due to the Scientific Revolution, an intellectual movement known as the Enlightenment blossomed in France, Britain, Germany and the Netherlands, as well as some North American colonies. At its core was a critical questioning of traditional institutions, customs and morals, and strong beliefs in the use of reason, science and human progress.

Enlightenment thinkers considered that nature was regulated by fixed laws and structures that could be scientifically discovered. Nature was then seen as something that could be controlled and exploited in the name of progress. At the same time, certain influential writers argued that nature was a resource to be made productive and that humans had a right to use this property for their own benefit. Such Enlightenment ideas about the conquest of nature came to dominate Western thinking, from the Industrial Revolution through to very recent times.

DID YOU KNOW?

There is a book that catalogues the natural world. Written by Swedish scientist Carl von Linné in 1735, *Systema Naturae* catalogues the natural world into animal, plant and mineral kingdoms, and organises them into classes, orders and species.

IMPACT OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution of the late eighteenth to the early twentieth century began in Britain and spread to Europe, North America and other parts of the world, including Australia. It ushered in great changes in manufacturing, agriculture, transportation, trade, economic organisation, social structure and living conditions.

THIRST FOR RESOURCES

The factory system and new forms of transport, powered by the new steam engines, relied on readily abundant sources of coal. New industrial and agricultural machinery, as well as building and transport, increasingly relied on utilising iron ore. At the same time, mass production created greater demand for other raw materials, including those from across the world—Australia, for instance, supplied more than half of Britain's wool imports by 1850. Thus, due to the new thirst for resources, the economy and way of life in Western countries became much more dependent on exploiting the natural world.

SOURCE 5.2.1 Cotton mills in Miles Platting, an inner-city district of Manchester, England, late nineteenth century

Q What changes brought by the Industrial Revolution are shown in this nineteenth-century illustration?

CHANGING LANDSCAPES

Factories and mines took over large tracts of countryside, expanding existing towns and cities and giving rise to new ones. In these overcrowded urban areas, water, air and noise pollution became commonplace, while poor or non-existent disposal of industrial and human waste resulted in fresh outbreaks of disease. In rural areas, deforestation, overgrazing and overcropping to meet demands for raw materials often led to more extensive soil degradation and soil erosion. In addition, the land was increasingly crisscrossed by railway lines, canals and improved roadways largely used to transport raw materials and manufactured goods.

POPULATION GROWTH

The Industrial Revolution contributed to dramatic rises in population. In the West, expansion in food production and gradual improvements in living conditions, combined with advances in medicine, resulted in an overall increase in life expectancy. England's population, for instance, more than tripled from 8.3 million in 1801 to 30.5 million in 1901. A comparable pattern occurred across Europe during the same period. Even when its high rates of immigration (mostly from Britain and Europe) are taken into account, the United States of America experienced incredible population growth, from 5.3 million in 1800 to 76.2 million in 1900. Such rates of population growth put a new strain on the environment.



SOME NINETEENTH-CENTURY QUESTIONS

Despite the material achievements of the Industrial Revolution, some thinkers challenged how people understood the natural world and their relationship with it. In Britain, for example:

- The scholar Thomas Malthus (1766–1834) argued in his book *An Essay on the Principle of Population* that if population growth was not controlled there would be more famines, epidemics and wars. He believed that natural resources were limited and could not keep up with unchecked population growth.
- The naturalist Charles Darwin (1809–1882) revolutionised Western thinking though his book *On the Origin of Species*. He argued that humans had common ancestry with certain animal species, and that, like animal species, the survival of humans depended on them adapting to, rather than separating themselves from, nature.

So some new questions were emerging. These were summed up by the English biologist Thomas H. Huxley who wrote in 1863:

> *The question of questions for mankind—the problem which underlies all others, and is more deeply interesting than any other—is the ascertainment of the place which Man occupies in nature and of his relations to the universe of things. Whence our race has come; what are the limits of our power over nature, and of nature's power over us; to what goal we are tending; are the problems which present themselves anew…*

SOURCE 5.2.2 From *Evidence as to Man's Place in Nature*, by Thomas H. Huxley, published in 1863

SOURCE 5.2.3 *Branch Hill Pond, Hampstead Heath*, by John Constable, oil on canvas, around 1825. Held at the Tate, London. Hampstead Heath is now a local nature reserve managed by the City of London.



GETTING BACK TO NATURE

When Western countries were experiencing the historic changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution, among some people there was a growing interest in the natural world for its own sake and a growing concern that it should be protected. By the late nineteenth century, the field of **natural history**, that is, the study of animal or plant life, had gained popularity, and natural history clubs and scientific societies enjoyed some political influence. In Australia, each colony had its own Natural History Association or Royal Society. These organisations got articles published in newspapers and had some success in pressuring colonial governments to legally protect **flora** and **fauna** through, for instance, the establishment of nature reserves.

This new appreciation of the natural world partly stemmed from the work of writers and artists. By the early nineteenth century in Britain and Europe, an intellectual movement known as Romanticism encouraged emotional attachment to nature as a symbol of goodness and beauty. English poets such as William Wordsworth and painters such as John Constable depicted landscapes untainted by industrialisation. This movement later influenced literary developments in the United States, which in turn sharpened public awareness of the modern destruction of the natural world. In his famous book *Walden*, US author Henry David Thoreau asked: 'What's the use of a fine house if you haven't got a tolerable planet to put it on?'

THE IDEA OF 'WILDERNESS'

By the late nineteenth century, the idea of '**wilderness**', referring to areas still unaltered by human activity, caught people's attention. In long-settled countries such as England, there were limited areas of wilderness. Protectionist groups wanted to save them from destruction. In supposedly new countries such as the United States, Canada and Australia, vast regions were seen as remaining wilderness. But at that time at least, this view largely ignored the existing occupation and cultural attachment of indigenous peoples to such lands.

PRESERVATION OR CONSERVATION?

By the late nineteenth century, two different points of view on how best to protect wilderness areas had emerged.

- Some individuals and groups favoured '**preservation**', a position advocated by the influential US writer John Muir. He argued that wilderness areas should be left more or less untouched, to be enjoyed and used only for recreational and educational purposes.
- Some individuals and groups preferred '**conservation**', a position advocated by Gifford Pinchot, an American who studied forestry in Europe. He argued for the sustainable exploitation of wilderness for the benefit of the public as a whole, not just those who could visit these areas. Sustainability meant that natural resources would be utilised only as far as they could eventually replenish themselves and that waste would be prevented.

These two points of view about protecting wilderness areas continued to be debated by people, and influenced government thinking through to the twentieth century and beyond.

NATIONAL PARKS MOVEMENT

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, the idea of wilderness and calls for its protection were supported by a growing number of individuals and groups. They pressured governments to set aside areas of wilderness for preservation. The outcome was the establishment of national parks, which continued well into the twentieth century.

UNITED STATES

In the United States, largely due to the efforts of the geologist Ferdinand Hayden, the federal government led by President Grant established the first wilderness preservation area. In 1872, 2 million acres [800 000 hectares] of wilderness area within the states of Wyoming, Montana and Idaho were designated as Yellowstone National Park, the first national park in the world. Sequoia and Yosemite National parks (both in California) followed in 1890. By 1920, there were many others, one of which was Grand Canyon National Park in Colorado. In 1917, the US federal government established the National Park Service to administer national parks across the country.

DID YOU KNOW?

Yellowstone National Park had 300 visitors in 1872, the year it was established. The extension of railways into the area boosted visitors to 5000 in 1883. After 1915, as cars replaced coach travel, visitor numbers jumped by an extra 1000 people per year.

SOURCE 5.2.4 Photograph of a stagecoach inside Yellowstone National Park, around 1922



AUSTRALIA

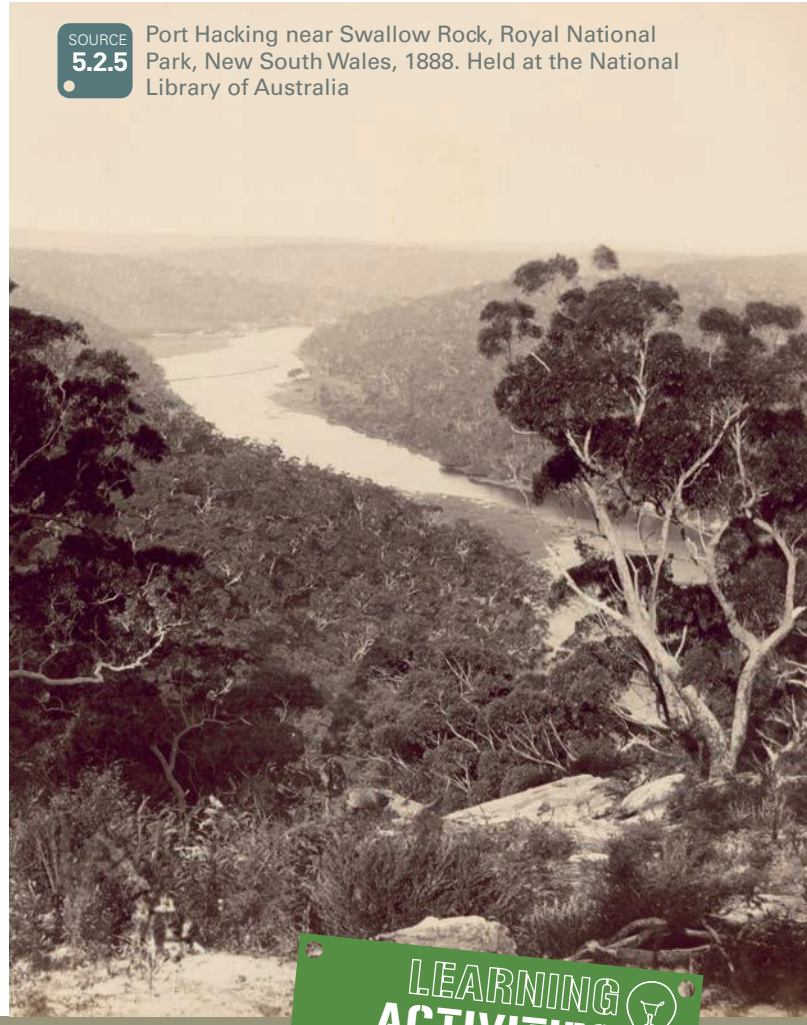
Partly inspired by the Yellowstone achievement, influential individuals, as well as natural history and scientific societies and the growing number of bushwalking clubs, lobbied their colonial (later state) Australian governments. Their aim was to protect certain wilderness areas from encroaching settlement. The second national park in the world was Royal National Park, established in 1879 on the outskirts of Sydney. Other national parks and nature reserves followed, for example Belair National Park in 1891 near Adelaide and Wilsons Promontory National Park in 1905 some distance from Melbourne.

DID YOU KNOW?

By the late nineteenth century, many bushwalking clubs began to form in Australia. The bush was seen as a sanctuary where urban populations could escape the poor health conditions in deteriorating urban environments caused by over-development.

OTHER COUNTRIES

The national parks movement spread internationally. In Canada, Banff National Park was established in Alberta in 1885. New Zealand's first, Tongariro National Park, was founded on the North Island in 1887. The vast Kruger National Park, which spread across different regions in Africa, was established in 1898.



SOURCE 5.2.5 Port Hacking near Swallow Rock, Royal National Park, New South Wales, 1888. Held at the National Library of Australia

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- conservation
- deforestation
- fauna
- flora
- natural history
- pollution
- preservation
- soil degradation
- soil erosion
- urbanisation
- wilderness

2 List the main destructive effects on the natural environment due to human activity from the distant past right through to 1900.

3 Construct a mind map that documents the changing attitudes towards nature and the environment in Western societies from the medieval period to the late nineteenth century.

Analysing and applying

4 Re-read Source 5.2.2. Discuss the following with a classmate:

a What conditions in nineteenth-century England would have prompted Huxley to pose these questions?

b What people or groups in Australia today are asking the same questions as Huxley did in the nineteenth century?

c What conditions are prompting them to ask such questions today?

Briefly report your thoughts to rest of the class.

Analysing and creating

5 Through your own research, investigate the establishment of one of the early national parks in the United States. Present your findings as a booklet, poster or multimedia presentation. Include a map of the national park's location as well as information about:

a the main individuals or groups who influenced the decision to establish the park

b the actions these people took

c the Native American tribes in the area and what happened to them

d the main flora and fauna to be protected in the national park

e any changes the national park may have experienced in the fifty years that followed its establishment.



ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS GROWS

PROGRESSIVISM IN THE UNITED STATES

Progressivism was a reform movement that influenced US society and politics in the early twentieth century. At the political level, President Theodore Roosevelt (1901–09) focused on three reform ideas: control of large business, protection of consumers and conservation of natural resources. His policies included the preservationist ideas of safeguarding wilderness for its own sake, as advocated by John Muir. However, he leaned more towards Gifford Pinchot's notion of conservation and using scarce resources rationally and efficiently.

Among Roosevelt's achievements was the National Conservation Commission Report of 1909. It was a complete list of the nation's natural resources and a detailed resource management policy. Roosevelt set aside more federal land for national parks and nature reserves than past US presidents. In total, he established fifty-three reserves and five new national parks, as well as the first wildlife reserve at Pelican Island in Florida in 1903. During Roosevelt's presidency, the US Forest Service was founded and the protection of forest reserves increased by 20 per cent.

IMPACT OF WORLD WAR I

As well as the unprecedented death toll, World War I (1914–18) resulted in the environmental destruction of both urban and rural areas on a scale never before seen in war. New and improved military technology allowed widespread use of weapons such as machine guns, grenades and tanks. Tanks caused extensive damage by trampling plants, churning soils and destroying animal **habitats**. The poison gas used as a chemical weapon spread through trenches, killing soldiers and polluting the air. Trench warfare transformed the landscape into a treeless wasteland of ditches and mounds of dugouts and bombed soil. For the first time, fighter and bomber planes carried out large-scale aerial bombing. Both rural and urban environments deteriorated as a result.

Environmental damage was not confined to countries on whose soil the war was fought. For instance, the United States increased industrial production and supplied Europe with goods such as munitions (war materials). Australian steel and pharmaceuticals were exported to Britain, as were wheat, wool and meat. The increased wartime production of these countries placed pressure on their natural resources that was detrimental to their environments.



SOURCE 5.3.1 A raiding party of French and US soldiers moving through the woods in France. This photograph was taken in 1918 near Badonviller, France.

Q What impact did the war have on the environment around Badonviller?

DID YOU KNOW?

In Australia, in the 1920s, state governments established 20 000 soldier settlement farms for returning World War I soldiers. The inexperience of the soldier farmers and the difficulty of farming marginal semi-arid land resulted in serious soil erosion problems.

PROSPEROUS TIMES

In many Western countries, the 1920s was a time of economic recovery and growing prosperity. Industrial manufacturing boomed. The United States led the way and pioneered assembly-line mass production. The prosperous times boosted consumers' spending power. Consumer demand for goods was created and heightened by greater advertising in magazines and on the radio. Resources seemed limitless. Receding wilderness, pollution, resource depletion and environmental deterioration were seen as a small price to pay for manufacturers' profits and consumers' access to products. The US Government actively encouraged economic expansion with a 'hands-off' approach to business interests. Conservation and business regulations brought in during the progressive era were ignored or allowed to lapse.

IMPACT OF THE GREAT DEPRESSION

Prosperous times came to an abrupt end on 29 October 1929 when the US stock market crashed. The economic depression that resulted eventually spread to most countries and recovery only came with the beginning of World War II (1939–45). Unemployment soared as many businesses and industries closed down. Consumer demand plummeted, causing prices to fall that in turn triggered further closures of industries. In the United States, industrial production fell by almost 50 per cent and unemployment rose to 25 per cent. In Australia, unemployment peaked at 30 per cent in 1932.

Governments preoccupied with the economic catastrophe paid little attention to the environment. The US Government, however, did inadvertently direct attention to the environment. In an effort to create employment and stimulate the economy, President Franklin Roosevelt introduced the '**New Deal**' reform between 1933 and 1936. It included some conservation projects like the Civilian Conservation Corps that employed 3 million young men to restore national parks and forests. The Tennessee Valley Authority project focused on revitalisation of a poor agricultural area by controlling flooding, dam construction, **hydro-electric** power generation and tree planting.

LESSONS FROM THE 'DUST BOWL'

The 1930s saw the unfolding of a human-made environmental disaster on the Great Plains of the United States. Decades of over-farming and over-grazing on the fragile grasslands created a 'dust bowl' on the severely eroded land. Between 1936 and 1937 there were 200 dust storms. Half of the Great Plains lost its topsoil. Four hundred thousand people deserted their farms and migrated to the West Coast seeking work. The disaster was felt across the United States and caused international alarm.

Environment management suddenly became a priority, after years of little government attention. The government passed the Taylor Grazing Act (USA) in 1934, which allowed it to take over land and carefully control grazing. The Soil Conservation Act (USA) was passed in 1935, and the Soil Conservation Service came under the Department of Agriculture. In 1937, under the US Government's Shelterbelt Project, thousands of trees were planted across the Great Plains to protect the soil from erosion. This stopped further environment deterioration but did not reverse the damage.

Australia, like the United States, experienced soil erosion problems following decades of unchecked agricultural expansion. Although evident in the 1920s, the first response was not until the 1930s when the federal government required state governments to establish soil conservation committees. New South Wales and Victoria introduced *Soil Conservation* Acts in 1938 and 1940 respectively. In Victoria, a part-time Soil Conservation Board was established in 1930.

SIGNIFICANCE OF WORLD WAR II

Production and fuelling of the more sophisticated tanks, aircraft, ships and vehicles used in World War II resulted in greater exploitation of coal, iron and crude oil resources by both the Allies and the Axis powers. The reliance on oil in particular increased during World War II and was a key factor in the war itself. The use of strategic and area bombing by both the Allies and Germany devastated cities and surrounding areas, causing long-term environmental damage. A major target of these bombing raids was oil refineries.

SOURCE 5.3.2 A dust storm in Stratford, Texas, 1935



Q
1 **Estimate the height of the dust storm using the buildings as reference points.**
2 **Explain why such dust storms were detrimental to the environment.**

INTO THE NUCLEAR AGE

The United States' atomic bombings of Japan in 1945 added new dimensions of environmental destruction, as is evident from Nagasaki and Hiroshima, where single bombs flattened 40 per cent and 90 per cent of these cities respectively. The super-hot fireballs of 3000 degrees Celsius produced by the bombs burnt everything in their paths. The **radiation** released caused immediate and long-term health problems. Radiation lingered for years in the atmosphere and soil, rendering the environments hazardous.

In the decades that followed World War II, many countries embarked on research, development and testing of atomic weapons in an effort to match and surpass the nuclear capability of the United States. This nuclear arms race escalated during the Cold War (1945–91) between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and the United States. France and Britain were also among the countries in the nuclear race. The French carried out nuclear tests in the Pacific Ocean from 1966 to 1996, and the British conducted nuclear tests at Maralinga, South Australia between 1955 and 1963. Despite clean-ups of radioactive materials in 1967 and 2000, there is still debate about the safety of Maralinga and the long-term health risks for traditional Aboriginal owners.

MOVES TO INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

In addition to maintaining international peace, the newly formed United Nations (founded in 1945) concerned itself with the impact of the war on natural resources and the need to conserve resources for post-war recovery. By 1948, the United Nations formed the International Union for the Protection of Nature, an international body of both governments and independent groups promoting wildlife and environment preservation. The first attempt at an international discussion about resource management and economic development occurred in 1949 at the United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilisation of Resources.

POST-WAR TRENDS

POPULATION

Most Western societies experienced increased birth rates in the immediate period after World War II. In Australia, the birth rate that had fallen to 2.1 during the Great Depression, surged to 3.1 in 1947 and peaked at 3.5 in 1961 when over 4 million babies were born. This became known as the post-war baby boom. Growing populations were regarded as essential to economic development and prosperity; they provided the workforces and were the consumers that generated demand for products.

URBANISATION

Urban centres attracted people in a trend of increasing urbanisation. Cities became focal points of secondary and tertiary industries. Factories turned their attention from war production to civilian products, such as cars and household appliances. Transport systems were expanded as urbanisation continued.



SOURCE 5.3.3

A refrigerator advertisement, published in a US magazine, 3 June 1950. Elaborate and coloured advertisements like this were designed to stimulate consumerism.

CONSUMERISM

Governments, businesses and marketing firms promoted consumer activity. Consumerism was accelerated by the introduction of television and consumer advertising. Advertisements tantalised consumers who were keen to forget the deprivation of the war years. The development of attractive, new packaging also lured consumers. The energy demands of the 1950s placed increased pressure on petrol, electricity and gas resources. The priority was economic growth, not environment management.

ENVIRONMENTAL CONSEQUENCES

Both rural and urban areas experienced greater environmental problems. In rural areas, soil erosion increased as forests were harvested and land was cleared to expand agricultural terrain. In cities, the concentrations of populated areas and manufacturing resulted in increased air, noise and water pollution. Heavy reliance on and the increasing demand for **fossil fuels** by industry and households greatly contributed to pollution. Industrial chemicals, product packages and the growing array of household appliances brought about waste disposal practices that polluted the environment.



Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- fossil fuels
- New Deal
- habitats
- progressivism
- hydro-electric
- radiation

2 **a** State President Theodore Roosevelt's stance on environmental issues.

b Provide two examples that demonstrate Roosevelt's environmental policies.

3 Refer to 'Impact of World War I' and, using a few words for each, name three ways the war impacted on the environment.

4 Give two reasons why environment management was not a priority in the 1920s.

5 Explain how the Great Depression impacted the environment.

6 **a** Explain what lesson was learnt about environment management from the Dust Bowl experience.

b Provide two examples of environment legislation introduced to address problems brought about by the Dust Bowl.

7 Explain how World War II caused damage to the environment.

8 Give two reasons why environmental damage became a bigger problem with nuclear activity.

9 **a** Who organised international environmental action and why?

b How was international environment preservation to occur into the future?

10 **a** What was the impact of growing populations on the environment?

b Who would have seen growing populations as beneficial and why?

c What impact did consumerism have on the environment?

Analysing and applying

11 **a** Using your student book and additional research, prepare a flow chart for the first half of the twentieth century that shows the changing attitudes towards environment management.

b Write approximately 100 words explaining when and why opinions on environment management differed during this period.

Analysing and evaluating

12 Examine Source 5.3.3.

a When was this advertisement produced and what is it marketing?

b Who was the target audience for the advertisement?

c What techniques does the advertisement use to market the product?

d Provide evidence from the advertisement that demonstrates it was produced in a time of consumerism.

e Explain why it would be unlikely for such an advertisement to be produced in the early half of the twentieth century.

f How do you think the three people in the advertisement would have felt about their possible impact on the environment?

THE ENVIRONMENT MOVEMENT: 1960s AND 1970s



SETTING THE SCENE

The environment movement arose and took shape in the Western world in the 1960s and 1970s. Conditions were ripe for social change. Many post-war baby boomers had reached adulthood at this time. Generally an educated generation with high expectations of society, many were prepared to fight for change. The result was political activism on a range of issues, including demands for racial equality and the banning of nuclear weapons. The new mass media, television, gave people greater access to information and images. Mass protests became a common tool for political expression, especially at the 'grassroots' level of ordinary people. Some groups in society challenged traditional values and the dominance given to economic development above all else. The idea of the 'environment' itself evolved from the older notions of protecting nature.



SOURCE 5.4.1 One of the first images of Earth from space, taken on 24 December 1968 as *Apollo 8* orbited the Moon. This photograph became famous for showing the beauty and fragility of the Earth.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1965, the US ambassador to the United Nations likened the Earth to a spaceship. The analogy captured the idea of travelling in space with the Earth's supplies of air and soil aboard the spaceship. Human survival depended on very careful maintenance of the finite resources of the Earth.

The rise of the environment movement is thought to have been triggered by the publication of Rachel Carson's book *Silent Spring* in 1962. It became an immediate bestseller. Carson was a US marine biologist, conservationist and nature writer. Based on her extensive research, Carson wrote of the effects of synthetic chemical **pesticides** and **insecticides**. The book warns that the chemicals used to control pests interfere with and pollute the environment—impacting upon soil, water and wildlife. Carson expressed concern that economic factors were overriding environmental impact. She argued that chemical pesticides should not be banned completely, but used with caution.

> *The earth's vegetation is part of a web of life in which there are intimate and essential relations between plants and the earth, between plants and other plants, between plants and animals. Sometimes we have no choice but to disturb these relationships, but we should do so thoughtfully, with full awareness that what we do may have consequences remote in time and place.*

SOURCE 5.4.2 From *Silent Spring*, by Rachel Carson, published in 1962 by Houghton Mifflin

Q **What do you think Carson meant by the term 'web of life'?**

EVOLVING LANGUAGE

The term environment came into common use in the 1960s. It referred to humanity's physical surroundings: the land, air and water. Commonly used terms relating to the environment include:

- **Biodiversity**—the number and variety of plant and animal species found in an area
- **Ecology**—a branch of biology that deals with the dependence or relationships of living organisms to each other and their natural surroundings
- **Ecosystem**—the interaction and functioning of living creatures in their physical surroundings within a certain space

In 1963, US President John F. Kennedy asked for a report on pesticide use. The report from the president's Scientific Advisory Committee led to changes in local and federal government policies. By 1972, DDT (a synthetic insecticide) was banned across the United States. The twelve most toxic chemical substances listed in *Silent Spring* were eventually banned or restricted.

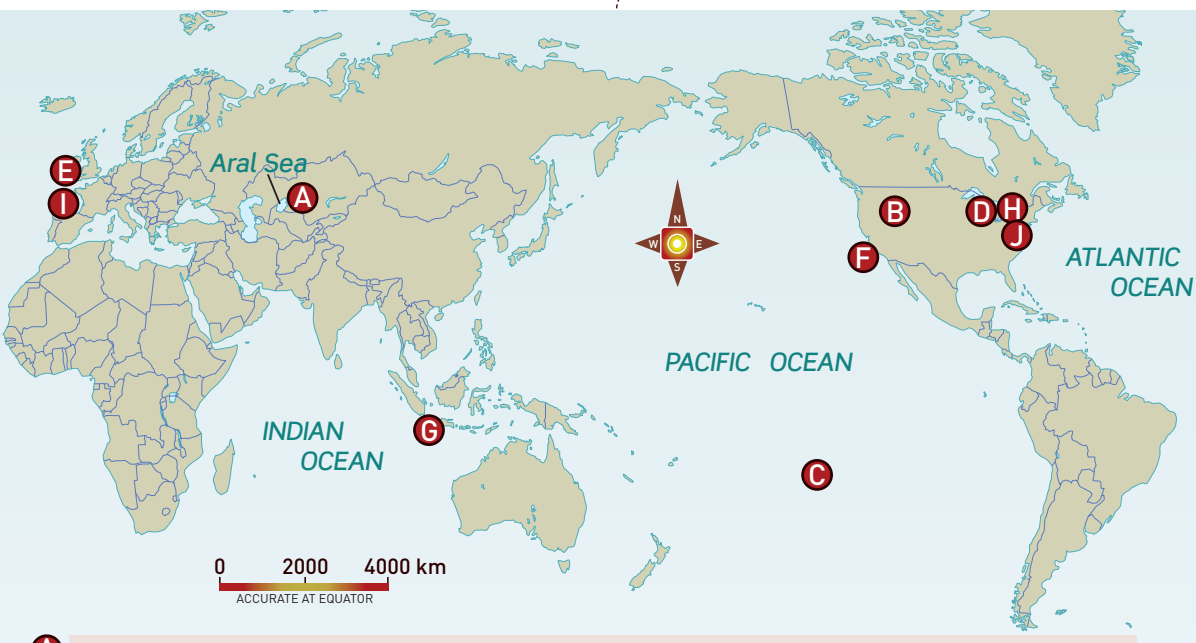
THE GAIA HYPOTHESIS

The idea of ecology was taken a step further by the Gaia hypothesis. In 1979, the English biophysicist James Lovelock published the book *Gaia: A New Look at Life on Earth*. The Gaia hypothesis proposes that the Earth and surrounding **biosphere** function as a single organism—a complex, self-regulating system that maintains conditions (temperatures, ocean **salinity** and the atmosphere) for life to survive. The hypothesis aroused debate among scientists, who have criticised the theory's concept of 'a living Earth'.

EVENTS AND CAMPAIGNS

Unlike the regional environmental disasters of the past, the environmental problems of the 1960s and 1970s were often on a much larger scale. They extended across national borders, and therefore attracted wider media coverage, especially on television. This increased general awareness of environmental issues in different parts of the world. Unit 6 of this chapter deals with significant environment events in Australia.

SOURCE 5.4.3 Map of some serious environmental disasters of the 1960s and 1970s



A In the 1960s, the Soviet Government diverted two rivers away from the Aral Sea for an irrigation scheme that resulted in the near destruction of the surrounding ecosystem.

B In 1961, the Low-Power Reactor Number One nuclear reactor in Idaho Falls, USA, exploded, releasing radioactive material into the atmosphere.

C French nuclear testing in the Pacific Ocean began in 1966. There were fears the radioactive waste would destroy the marine ecosystem.

D In 1966, the Enrico Fermi Nuclear Generating Station in Michigan, USA, suffered a partial meltdown.

E In 1967, the oil tanker *Torrey Canyon* struck a reef off the English coast and polluted hundreds of kilometres of coastline. The clean-up chemicals caused further environmental damage.

F In 1969, the Union Oil Company's Pacific Ocean oil platform off the coast of California experienced a well blow-out. Thousands of sea birds and marine animals died.

G In the early 1970s, large areas of Indonesia's rainforest were logged for timber or burnt-off for farmland. Over the decades that followed, 72 per cent of the original forests were lost, resulting in ecosystem destruction.

H The 1970s Love Canal toxic waste seepage in the town of Niagara Falls was declared a state of emergency.

I In 1978, the super tanker *Amoco Cadiz* became stranded off the French coast. Wild seas ripped open the hull, spreading crude oil over 300 kilometres of coastline.

J In 1979, the cooling malfunction at the Three Mile Island nuclear plant in Pennsylvania, USA, narrowly missed being declared a complete meltdown.



SOURCE 5.4.4 An anti-nuclear protest held in 1979 in Bonn, Germany. It was organised in response to the nuclear accident at Three Mile Island in the United States.

Q
1 **What sort of people took part in the demonstration? Consider their age and appearance.**
2 **What can you deduce about the environment movement in Germany from this source?**

NUCLEAR TESTING IN THE PACIFIC

Between 1966 and 1996 the French Government conducted 193 nuclear weapon tests on the French Polynesian islands of Mururoa and Fangataufa. Contamination from the atomic bombs led to a global protest movement against further testing. Large anti-nuclear campaigns took place in New Zealand, Australia and Fiji. Protest groups included Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament, Friends of the Earth and Greenpeace. In Australia, thousands of people participated in protest marches in Melbourne, Sydney, Adelaide and Brisbane. Activists interrupted the testing program by sailing ships into the Pacific exclusion zone—an area that protesters were prohibited from entering. One of these ships was Greenpeace's the *Rainbow Warrior*.

In 1972, the New Zealand and Australian governments applied to the International Court of Justice in the United Nations for a stop to nuclear testing. The French Government ignored the court ruling to cease testing, but moved the tests from above ground to below ground sites after 1975.

As a consequence of the French testing program, the New Zealand Government developed an anti-nuclear policy. In 1984, nuclear-powered ships were banned from entering New Zealand waters. In 1987, the New Zealand Nuclear Free Zone, Disarmament, and Arms Control Act banned entry of any nuclear material into New Zealand.



SOURCE 5.4.5 The Greenpeace ship the *Rainbow Warrior* in Auckland Harbour, New Zealand. French agents bombed the ship in 1985 while Greenpeace prepared to lead a fleet of ships to Mururoa in protest against nuclear testing. This image appeared in the media of many different countries.

Q
1 **What conclusions can be drawn about the French Government from this source?**
2 **How might people have felt about nuclear testing when they saw this source?**
3 **Would such an image help or hinder the campaign efforts of Greenpeace?**

LOVE CANAL DISASTER

In the 1970s, Love Canal, a neighbourhood in Niagara Falls, New York, gained national and international media attention when residents began experiencing serious health issues. The site of Love Canal was a toxic chemical waste dump until 1953; in the mid-1950s it became urban development land. By the 1970s, residents were feeling the effects of contamination: high rates of pregnancy miscarriage, cancers, birth defects and nervous disorders. Urban construction had broken protective clay layers in the ground that contained the chemicals. Houses and backyards filled with stinking puddles of toxic chemicals.

In 1976, local investigative newspaper reporters alerted the public to the levels and extent of toxins, but local politicians denied a problem existed. By 1978, it was a national issue and President Jimmy Carter ordered the Federal Disaster Assistance Agency to use funds to deal with the emergency. The federal government compensated and relocated 800 families.

The Love Canal disaster contributed to the US Government passing the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act in 1980, commonly called the Superfund. The law gave the Environment Protection Authority (formed in 1970) power to identify hazardous waste sites, find responsible parties and force them to clean up the damage.

'PROPHETS OF DOOM'

Paul Ehrlich's book *The Population Bomb* was published in 1968. Ehrlich was a US biology professor at Stanford University who researched the rate of world population growth. He put forward a theory that environmental problems stemmed from an exploding world population and the inability of resources to sustain such growth. He warned of mass starvation in the near future and increasing environmental problems.

In 1972, *The Limits to Growth* was published by the newly formed Club of Rome, an independent environmental group of scientists, businessmen, economists and heads of state. The report made dire predictions that by the end of the century the world's resources would be exhausted and food shortages and death rates would soar; unlimited growth was unsustainable. The report was controversial among scientists and other groups in the general public.

GRASSROOTS REACTIONS

Concerns about the environment surfaced in the songs and magazines of popular culture. Joe South sang about the deterioration of the environment in his 1969 hit 'Don't It Make You Want to Go Home'. Marvin Gaye expressed similar feelings in his song 'Mercy Mercy Me (The Ecology)', which was released in 1971.

Woo ah, mercy mercy me
Ah things ain't what they used to be, no no
Where did all the blue skies go?
Poison is the wind that blows from the north and south and east...
Oil wasted on the ocean and upon our seas,
fish full of mercury...
Radiation under ground and in the sky
Animals and birds who live nearby are dying...
What about this overcrowded land
How much more abuse from man can she stand?

SOURCE 5.4.6 From 'Mercy Mercy Me (The Ecology)', lyrics by Marvin Gaye, released in 1971

In 1970, the first *Mother Earth News* magazine was published in the United States. It supported the 'back-to-earth' movement by providing practical advice for self-sufficiency. The magazine featured do-it-yourself articles on topics such as raising chickens, generating solar and wind power, beekeeping and medical self-care. It attracted a wide readership among people who, disillusioned with urban life and consumerism, began growing their own food on small-scale farms.

Jacques-Yves Cousteau, through the medium of television, brought marine life into public awareness in many countries, including the United States and Australia. Cousteau was a French researcher, explorer, photographer, author and filmmaker. His work as a pioneer in marine conservation began in the 1950s. Through his research, and television series, *The Underwater Odyssey of Commander Cousteau* (1977–81), people learnt of the effects of pollution, over-exploitation of resources and the impact of coastal development. Altogether, he made over 120 television documentaries and wrote over fifty books. Cousteau created the Cousteau Society for the Protection of Ocean Life in 1973, an organisation that had over 300 000 members by the end of the twentieth century.

The attendance numbers at the first Earth Day on 22 April 1970, held in the United States, left no doubt that the environment had become a central public issue. It was the largest environment-focused demonstration to date. There were rallies at 1500 universities and 10 000 schools across the country. In New York, 10 000 people filled the streets, forcing Fifth Avenue to close for two hours. By 2000, Earth Day had expanded to 184 countries with the support of 5000 environment groups and hundreds of millions of people.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

The human environment was part of international discussions in 1968 at the United Nations Biosphere Conference and again at the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (or the Stockholm Conference) in 1972. One hundred and thirteen countries attended the 1972 meeting, along with 400 non-government organisations. Outcomes of the Stockholm Conference included the formation of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the declaration of twenty-six principles or values concerning the environment and an action plan to tackle problems. Since the UNEP was founded it has researched many environmental issues, including protecting endangered species, controlling the movement of hazardous wastes and reversing the thinning of the ozone layer.

GREEN POLITICS

Existing political parties and governments were slow to react to the heightened concern about environment issues. '**Green politics**' and political parties emerged because traditional political parties were not meeting the demands of environmentalists. The world's first green political party was formed in April 1972 in Tasmania, by environmentalists campaigning to save the south-west wilderness of the state. In November 1972, New Zealand formed the VALUES Party, the first national green party. These were followed by the PEOPLE party in the United Kingdom in 1973, and die Grünen in Germany in 1979. These parties actively promoted environmental issues. The first elected 'green' was a New Zealander who won a city council position in 1973, and a Swiss won the first national seat in 1979.

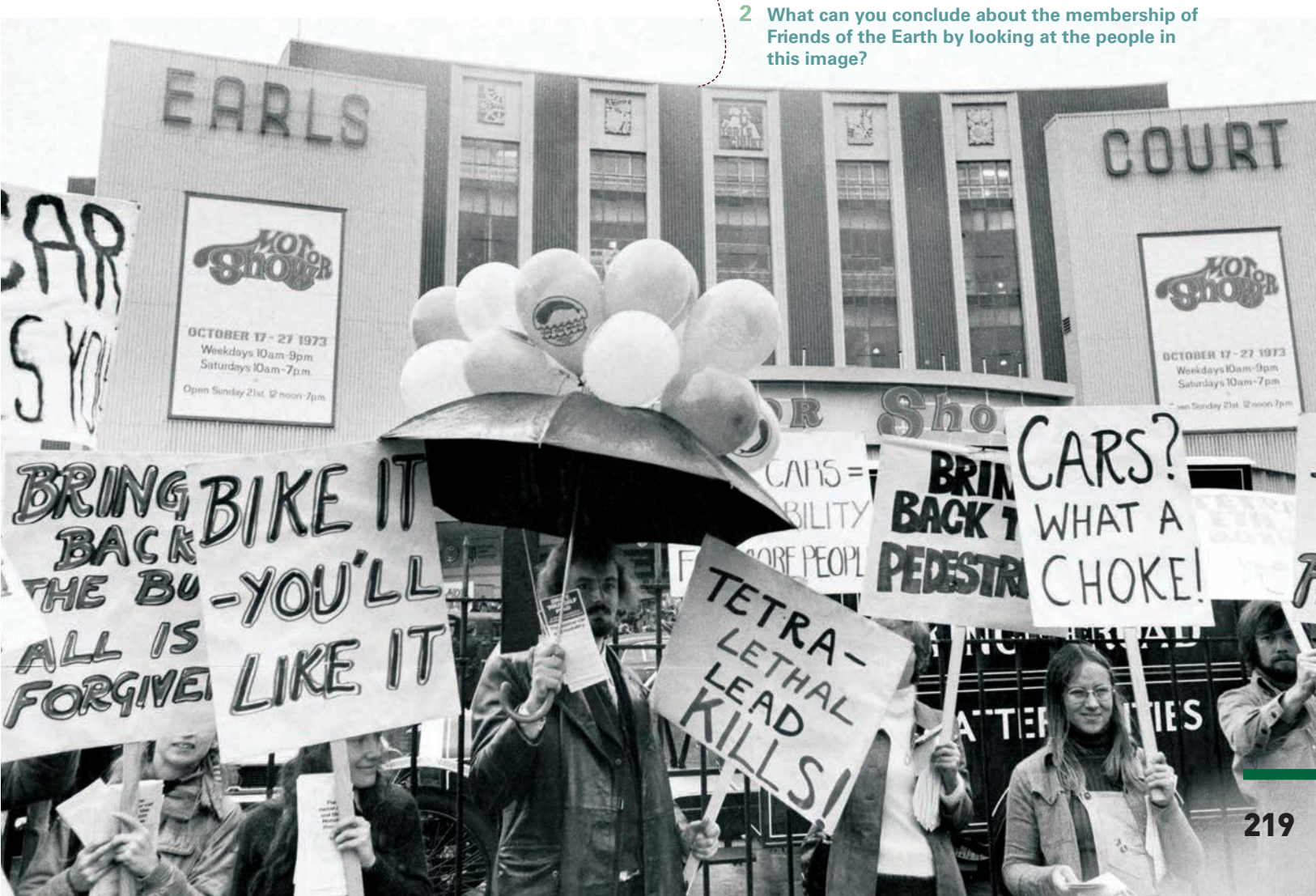
ENVIRONMENTAL ACTIVISTS

FRIENDS OF THE EARTH

Friends of the Earth (FoE) was founded in 1969 in the United States and has become an international network operating in 76 countries with over 2 million individual members. FoE has interests in a range of environmental issues such as forest logging, water supply and quality, the impacts of mining, climate change and nuclear power. It operates on a local through to national level, and its group tactics include direct action, lobbying and research.

SOURCE 5.4.7 Friends of the Earth protest against pollution caused by motor cars in front of the International Motor Show at Earls Court, London, 1973.

Q
1 What difference do you think protest rallies such as this one would have made to environmental conditions? Give reasons for your answer.
2 What can you conclude about the membership of Friends of the Earth by looking at the people in this image?

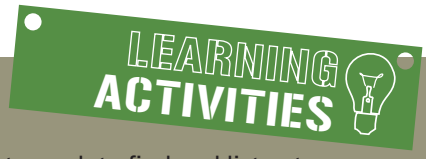


GREENPEACE

In 1971, Greenpeace was formed in Canada and grew into an international activist group concerned with environmental issues such as whaling, nuclear testing and pollution. It has gained a reputation for dramatic publicity stunts, but prides itself on using non-violent direct action, lobbying and research to promote its views. The group now has almost 3 million members worldwide.

SEA SHEPHERD CONSERVATION SOCIETY

Paul Watson, an early member of Greenpeace, formed Sea Shepherd in 1977 after a difference of opinion with Greenpeace activists. Watson's philosophy was to create a more aggressive protest organisation. Sea Shepherd uses direct and extreme action, such as the ramming and sinking of whaling ships. The organisation's efforts focus on marine wildlife protection and conservation.



Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- biodiversity
- biosphere
- ecology
- ecosystem
- green politics
- insecticides
- pesticides
- salinity

2 **a** Re-read 'Setting the scene' and construct a mind map that summarises the conditions and triggers that contributed to the growth of the environment movement in the 1960s.

b What role did Rachel Carson's book, *Silent Spring*, play in the development of the environment movement?

3 In your own words, explain the Gaia hypothesis.

4 Explain Paul Ehrlich's contributions to the environment movement.

5 **a** Which international conference was organised to discuss environment issues in the 1970s?

b What were the outcomes of the conference?

6 **a** Where did the first 'green' political party form?

b Provide one reason to explain the formation of green political parties.

Analysing and evaluating

7 What can you conclude about environmental activist groups from the different approaches taken by Greenpeace and Sea Shepherd Conservation Society?

8 **a** List the ways that concern for the environment was expressed in popular culture in the 1960s and 1970s.

b Why did songs and magazines with a focus on the environment emerge at this time and what was their purpose?

c Who do you think was the target audience of such songs and magazines?

9 Conduct an internet search to find and listen to Joe South's 'Don't It Make You Want to Go Home' and Marvin Gaye's 'Mercy Mercy Me (The Ecology)'. According to the lyrics, what were the environmental issues of concern at the time and what was causing them to occur?

Analysing, evaluating and creating

10 Refer to Source 5.4.3. Imagine you are a newspaper journalist reporting on one of the environmental disasters highlighted on the map. Your task is to investigate the incident and write an informative feature newspaper article that includes:

- a brief description of the event, its causes and environmental impact
- an account of who responded to the event and an explanation of the responses
- an explanation why this is a key event in the advancement of the environment movement
- a map and appropriate layout features for a newspaper article.

Separately, write a short paragraph commenting on the impact of newspaper articles such as the one you have written on the development of the environment movement. You could consider whether the media is actually an influential feature of the movement.

11 Rachel Carson (1907–1964) is often credited with triggering the environment movement. Her death in 1964 meant that she did not live to see the environment movement grow. Imagine a dialogue that might have taken place at the end of the 1970s between Rachel Carson and a person involved with an environmental organisation. Write a minimum of eight open-ended questions Carson might have asked the conservationist. Provide the detailed answers that might have been given to her questions.



THE ENVIRONMENT MOVEMENT EXPANDS: 1980s AND 1990s

SETTING THE SCENE

The burst of activity by environment organisations in the 1960s and 1970s was followed in the 1980s by many organisations adopting more business-like structures. While direct action through protests continued to be used, many organisations increased their lobbying of governments, carried out research and ran public awareness and education programs. As global problems such as global warming emerged, international organisations started taking a visibly greater role. In these two decades, green politics also became more influential in environment policy, with more party members gaining positions in governments.

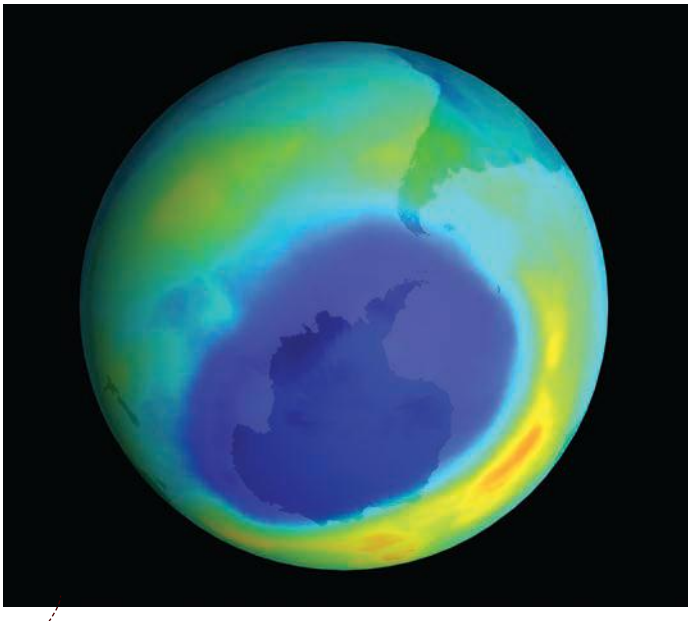
INTERNATIONAL INITIATIVES

As international powers continued to cooperate with each other, they increasingly dealt with environmental issues concerning the global commons.

- The **Montreal Protocol** (protocol means the official procedure for a situation) of 1987 came out of the Vienna Convention (1985) driven by the United Nations Environment Programme. It focused on protecting the Earth's atmosphere by phasing out the use of substances such as chlorofluorocarbons, which are known to deplete the ozone layer. The protocol was ratified (signed off and approved) by 196 countries and has been updated seven times.
- In 1988, the United Nations established the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). Since then, the IPCC has prepared objective assessments on climate change every five years.
- In 1992, the United Nations' Framework Convention on Climate Change, also called the **Earth Summit**, was held in Rio de Janeiro where delegates discussed the management of **greenhouse gas** levels in the atmosphere. Lists of the causes of greenhouse gas emissions were put together and used to create benchmark levels for each country, setting 1990 as the reference year. Although the summit suggested greenhouse gas emission limits for individual countries, they were not compulsory. There was no legal way to enforce suggestions, so the summit's achievements were limited.

EVOLVING LANGUAGE

- **Climate change**—a change in weather patterns (temperature, humidity, rainfall) occurring naturally or due to human activity that persists for an extended period of time
- **Global commons**—a term coined by the United Nations' World Conservation Strategy report of 1980. In English law, 'a common' was a piece of land that did not belong to any single person but was for the use of all villagers. This idea was extended to areas of the planet that did not belong to any one country in particular but belonged to everyone, such as the oceans and the atmosphere.
- **Global warming**—an increase in the Earth's overall temperature measured over a long time, occurring naturally or due to human activity. The terms 'climate change' and 'global warming' are often used interchangeably.
- **Sustainability**—management of the environment by using resources without over-exploiting them, so resources are available for future generations



SOURCE 5.5.1 The deep blue shading represents the ozone hole over Antarctica in the year 2000. It was the largest ozone hole on record.

- In 1997, the **Kyoto Protocol** was established as a result of the findings of the Earth Summit. It set binding greenhouse gas emission targets for industrial countries. The aim was to reduce emissions to equal 1990 levels, requiring an average 5 per cent drop in emissions. The protocol recommended **carbon trading** as a way to achieve targets. It was put into force in 2005. By 2011, 191 countries had signed and ratified the Kyoto Protocol. One of the world's largest emitters, the United States, did not ratify the Kyoto Protocol.

GREEN POLITICS GAINS INFLUENCE

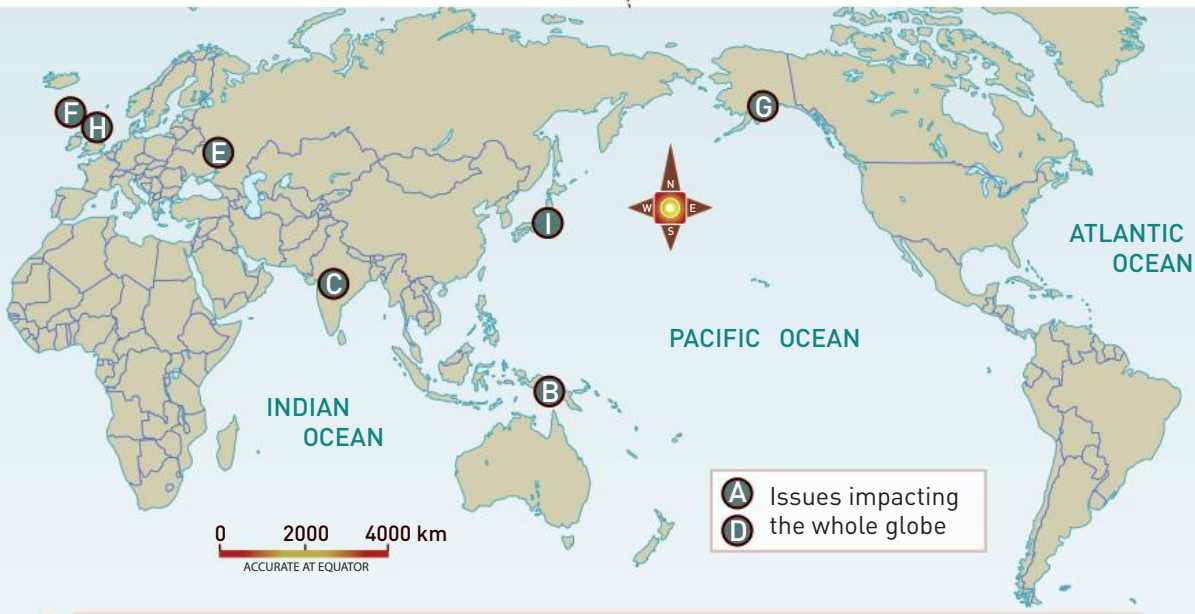
Green political parties gained greater electoral influence after 1980. Their campaigns to gain 'green' seats in government became increasingly successful. For example, in 1983, the German Green Party (die Grünen) won twenty-seven seats in the national parliament, and in the 1998 election they formed and held government with the Social Democratic Party until 2005.

Established political parties realised they needed to give greater attention to their own environmental policies. By the end of the twentieth century, there were seventy green parties worldwide. The formation of the Global Green Network in 2001 determined the principles and political action plan for member green parties. Unit 6 discusses green politics in Australia.

EVENTS AND CAMPAIGNS

The transnational trend of environmental problems continued with single disasters extending beyond their countries of origin. Many environmental problems involved the global commons. Unit 6 explores environmental events in Australia.

SOURCE 5.5.2 Map of some serious environmental disasters of the 1980s and 1990s



A Global warming has been a concern since the 1980s. Some scientists believe it is caused by human activities, such as burning fossil fuels.

B In the 1980s, BHP began mining gold and copper at the Ok Tedi mine in Papua New Guinea. The massive amounts of rock and mine tailings choked the Fly and Ok Tedi rivers, causing an ecological disaster.

C In 1984, a deadly gas leak at the Union Carbide India Limited pesticide plant in Bhopal, India, caused one of the world's worst industrial disasters. There were thousands of deaths.

D Scientists discovered the ozone hole over Antarctica in 1985. Human-made chlorofluorocarbon chemicals (CFCs) were found to be responsible for the hole.

E In 1986, the Chernobyl nuclear power plant explosion released large amounts of radiation into the atmosphere that spread across Western Europe as far as Portugal.

F In 1988, there was an explosion on the Piper Alpha North Sea oil and gas platform. It totally destroyed the platform and caused an oil spillage.

G In 1989, the oil tanker *Exxon Valdez* ran aground on a reef off Alaska. Over 2100 kilometres of coastline were contaminated. It was one of the world's largest oil spills.

H In 1993, the oil tanker *Braer* ran aground off Scotland. Although a storm washed most oil out to sea, the oil concentrations near the shore were still 20000 times higher than normal.

I The 1999 nuclear accident at Japan's Tokaimura uranium processing plant was Japan's worst accident to date. About 700 people were exposed to radiation.



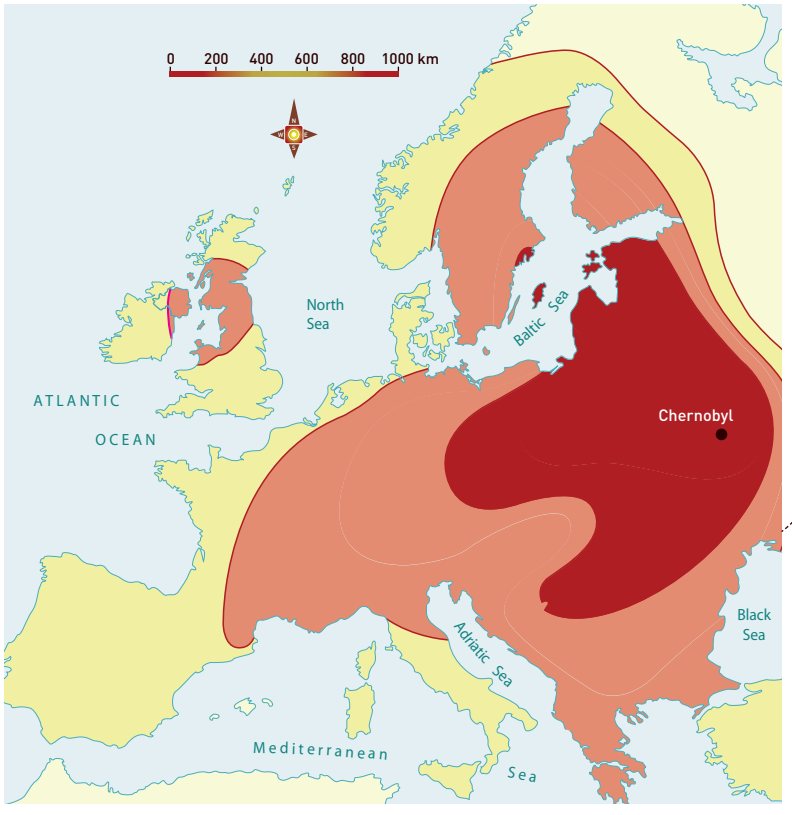
SOURCE 5.5.3 Locals demonstrate against Union Carbide and its Chief Executive Officer, Warren Anderson, on 7 June 2010. An Indian court found Anderson guilty of negligence for the gas leak that killed thousands of people in Bhopal, India, in 1984. Union Carbide has taken no responsibility, neither paying compensation to victims nor cleaning the toxic site. Union Carbide paid compensation of US$470 million to the Indian government in 1989. In 1999, Greenpeace established a cyber cafe at the abandoned factory site, enabling locals to send messages to Union Carbide demanding a clean-up of the toxic site.

CHERNOBYL NUCLEAR DISASTER

On 25 April 1986, the Chernobyl nuclear explosion produced a radioactive cloud that spread out from western Soviet Union and across Europe. It released more than 100 times the radiation of the Nagasaki and Hiroshima atomic bombs. Every country in the northern hemisphere experienced a degree of radiation fallout. Soviet Government secrecy made it difficult to assess the full impact of the disaster. According to Greenpeace, cancer deaths could eventually reach 93 000 and other radiation illnesses could make the total death toll as high as 200 000. Contamination affected agriculture and impacted national economies—a ban was placed on many European agricultural goods by many other countries.

The Chernobyl disaster triggered a wave of anti-nuclear protests, particularly in Germany, where large areas had been affected by radioactive fallout. The German Green Party (die Grünen) campaigned for the closure of German nuclear facilities. The Brokdorf protest in June 1986 attracted 40 000 demonstrators outside the fence of the nuclear power plant, demanding all world power plants be switched off. Large protests were also held in Italy opposing the Italian nuclear program.

The Chernobyl disaster was a turning point in environmental activism for the Soviet Union. Up until then, the Soviet Government policy of secrecy kept environmental disasters, such as the ecological destruction of the Aral Sea in the 1960s, concealed from the public. A new government policy of openness in the 1980s resulted in authorities acknowledging the Chernobyl disaster. This was done with some reluctance however, after Western countries pinpointed the radiation source to be within the Soviet Union. Nevertheless, even these initial steps towards openness were enough to allow fledgling environmental activism on a range of issues. Political debates were allowed, and citizens were permitted to organise environment groups, petitions and demonstrations.



SOURCE 5.5.4 Map showing the intensity and extent of radioactive fallout across Europe from the Chernobyl nuclear disaster

EXXON VALDEZ OIL SPILL

In 1989, the *Exxon Valdez* oil tanker owned by the US multinational oil company Exxon, struck Bligh Reef off the Alaskan coast and spilled about 750 000 barrels of crude oil. The remote location accessible only by boat and plane, made the clean-up very difficult. Only 10 per cent of the oil was recovered. Over the next few weeks, oil contaminated over 2000 kilometres of coastline and 28 000 square kilometres of ocean. Hundreds of different wildlife species were affected. It was estimated the Arctic habitat would take thirty years to recover from the disaster.

Responses to the disaster were quick and came from a wide range of people and organisations. This was an example of how diverse, yet united, the environment movement had become with a common aim to protect the environment.

- Consumers in the United States protested by boycotting Exxon Mobil service stations.
- The local Alaskan community formed a group to act as a citizen 'watchdog' over oil operations. The Prince William Sound Regional Citizens Advisory Council was an independent organisation set up to oversee the safe operation of the oil pipeline. It conducted research, advised the oil industry on oil spill prevention and increased public awareness.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1990, the Australian rock band Midnight Oil participated in a protest following the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill. The band played for half an hour outside Exxon's headquarters in New York near a banner that read: 'Midnight Oil makes you dance, Exxon oil makes us sick'. Lead singer Peter Garrett criticised Exxon for not doing more to clean up the oil that remained in Prince William Sound. Garrett told the crowd, 'We can't treat the world like a garbage dump, and there's more to life than profit and loss.'

- At state level, the governor of Alaska ordered two tugboats to escort loaded tankers out of the narrow waterway from the port. The Alaskan Department of Environmental Conservation organised regular drills and training in the event of another spill.
- The US Government passed the Oil Pollution Act in 1990. It prohibited any ship that had been involved in a large oil spill from entering Prince William Sound and prompted a phasing in of double-hulled ships by 2015 in case of another grounding.

SOURCE 5.5.5 People in Kodiak carry signs to protest the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill, Alaska, USA, 27 May 1989.

Q
1 What are the people protesting about?
2 What do you think these protesters would like to see done in Kodiak?



ENVIRONMENTAL ACTIVISTS

By the 1980s, more radical environmental groups emerged, who, like Sea Shepherd, were prepared to use extreme tactics and were branded as **eco-terrorists**. At the same time, the internet became globally available, enabling electronic publicity and communication. Over the next two decades, activist groups were able to develop websites to appeal to a worldwide audience quickly and cheaply.

EARTH FIRST!

Earth First! (EF!) emerged in the United States in 1979 by a group of environmentalists critical of mainstream activist groups for bending to pressure from business and industry. Members of some of its branches have participated in legal action and sabotage tactics, such as scuttling unattended whaling ships, cutting fishing nets and contaminating the fuel of unattended earthmoving equipment. Critics of EF! accuse the group of being eco-terrorists.

EARTH LIBERATION FRONT

Earth Liberation Front (ELF) was established in the United Kingdom in 1992 and has gathered membership from the rest of Europe and the United States. The group operates using violent tactics, including sabotage and arson against businesses that cause environmental damage. In 2001, the FBI in the United States classified ELF as eco-terrorists.



SOURCE 5.5.6 The logo and motto of Earth First! EF! Australia is dedicated to preserving land and supporting sustainable agriculture.

Q
1 **What image is Earth First! projecting of itself with this logo and motto?**
2 **How do you think some people would respond to Earth First! on the basis of this image?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- carbon trading
- climate change
- Earth Summit
- eco-terrorists
- global commons
- global warming
- greenhouse gas
- Kyoto Protocol
- Montreal Protocol
- sustainability

2 a What is the Earth Summit?
b Why did the Earth Summit have limited success?
c What is the Kyoto Protocol?
d How did the Earth Summit influence the Kyoto Protocol?

3 a When and where did green politicians first win seats in national government?
b How did green political victories make a difference to environmental policies?

4 Explain why Earth First! and Earth Liberation Front have been described as eco-terrorists.

Analysing and evaluating

5 Between 1988 and 1997 there were a number of international environmental initiatives such as those mentioned in this unit. Why do you think international action of this kind became a significant aspect of the environment movement?

6 Re-read the sections on the Chernobyl nuclear disaster and the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill in 'Events and campaigns'. Government responses were very different for these two incidents. What can you conclude about the development of the environment movement in Russia and the United States based on these disasters?

7 Examine Source 5.5.6. Use evidence from the source to describe how Earth First! sees its role in the environment movement.

Evaluating and creating

8 Refer to Source 5.5.2. Imagine you are a member of an activist group concerned with the environment (such as Earth Liberation Front), a member of the United Nations, or a green politician. Prepare a poster or concept map about one of the environmental disasters highlighted on the map (excluding the Chernobyl nuclear disaster and the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill) that includes:
- a brief description of the event, its causes and environmental impact
- a description of the type of approach you or your environment organisation would take in response to the event to protect the environment
- a brief justification of your suggested approach to the problem.

Form groups of four or five students to compare posters and concept maps. What can you conclude about the nature of the environment movement in the 1980s and 1990s?



UNIT 6

THE ENVIRONMENT MOVEMENT IN AUSTRALIA

SETTING THE SCENE

Australian environment organisations contributed significantly to what became known as the environment movement. This unit focuses mainly on Australian developments from 1960 to the end of the twentieth century.

A desire to preserve the environment was evident among some groups in Australia well before the 1960s. Prior to British settlement in 1788, the continent was a pristine wilderness. The **arid** and **semi-arid** Australian environment and the shifts between periods of flood and drought, alerted the new settlers to the fragility of the environment. As early as the 1920s, the environmental destruction caused by farming in marginal semi-arid areas was evident in the post–World War I soldier settlement schemes.

While the highest population concentrations developed along the coast, the bush gained myth-like status—it provided a contrast to urban living conditions and inspired campaigns to establish national parks in the late nineteenth century. Australia was the second country in the world, after the United States, to establish a national park—Royal National Park, near Sydney, in 1879.

While wilderness preservation dominated the work of early conservationists, the post–World War II period, with its economic boom, broadened the scope of environmental issues. Emerging global problems of the 1980s, such as climate change and ozone depletion, prompted another widening of focus and an increased international outlook.

IMPORTANT DEVELOPMENTS

GREEN POLITICS

The world's first 'green' political party was the United Tasmania Group (UTG), which was formed in 1972. Growing out of the campaign to save Lake Pedder from the impact of a proposed hydro-electric scheme, the UTG, now the Tasmanian Greens, inspired the development of green parties in other states. For example, the Queensland Greens formed in 1985, the South Australian Greens in 1989 and the Western Australian Greens in 1990. The eight state and territory green parties were organised into a federation in 1992. A national party, the Australian Greens, also followed in 1992.

Ongoing environmental issues strengthened public support for the Greens, which saw them gain seats in the lower houses and senates of state and federal parliaments. In a number of parliaments, the Greens held the balance of power, thereby exerting considerable influence on policy. This occurred in the 1989 Tasmanian election. The 2010 federal election also resulted in the Independents and Greens supporting the minority Labor government. The Greens also gained Senate seats in every state in the 2010 federal election.

Individuals have played a large part in the evolution of Australian green politics. Bob Brown was a key figure in the formation of the UTG in 1972 and entered Tasmanian Parliament as a Green in 1983. He was re-elected in 1989. In 1992, Brown became the leader of the Australian Greens party and moved into federal politics. He was one of the first green federal senators in 1996, and was re-elected in 2001, 2007 and 2010. Brown's contribution to the environment movement has been acknowledged by a number of awards, including the United Nations Environment Programme's Global 500 Roll of Honour, which he received in 1987. In 2012, he retired from federal politics.

Tasmanian Christine Milne has also taken a leading role in green politics. She was a protester at the Franklin River blockade in 1983 and was elected to the Tasmanian Parliament as a Green in 1989. In 1993, she became the leader of the Tasmanian Greens after Bob Brown assumed the leadership role for the Australian Greens party. Milne moved into federal politics in 2000, first as adviser to Bob Brown then as a Tasmanian representative in the Australian Senate in 2004. She became deputy-leader of the Australian Greens in 2008, and leader after Brown's retirement in 2012.

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

The first federal government environment department was set up in 1971. Since then, it has undergone a number of name changes and has greatly increased its responsibilities. Likewise, state governments have established environment departments and also passed legislation for the establishment of environment protection authorities. For instance, Victoria set up an Environment Protection Authority (EPA) in 1971 to monitor and protect the environment as directed by Acts of Parliament. Environment protection authorities advise governments and receive support from governments to carry out their duties.



SOURCE 5.6.1 Christine Milne and Bob Brown speaking at a press conference about carbon pricing, Canberra, May 2011

HOME-GROWN ENVIRONMENT GROUPS

A number of local, non-government organisations (NGOs) have emerged as part of the environment movement in Australia. NGOs operate independently of government, are self-funded and can be critical of government practices.

The Wildlife Preservation Society of Queensland (WPSQ) was formed in 1962. Its initial purpose was to save the Great Barrier Reef from oil exploration and mining—a project that it successfully halted. WPSQ has remained a state-based group that focuses on wildlife and conservation issues.

The Tasmanian Wilderness Society (established in 1976) campaigned to save Lake Pedder from a proposed hydro-electric scheme. The campaign failed, but the society went on to successfully save the Franklin River from the impact of a dam and hydro-electric power station. It grew into a national group, changing its name to the Wilderness Society in 1980.

The Australian Conservation Foundation (ACF) was set up in 1966 as a non-government organisation; however, its formation was not in response to a particular environmental issue. The foundation was the inspiration of Francis Radcliffe, a Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO) scientist who saw conservation as one of the most pressing issues facing humanity. Its diverse group of members such as scientists, businesspeople, public servants and politicians, carry out research, develop policy, lobby government and promote public education through its magazine *Habitat*. In addition, the ACF supports other conservation organisations in many major environmental issues.

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVIST GROUPS

A number of international activist groups have established branches in Australia. In 1977, Greenpeace Australia Pacific was set up, initially to focus on anti-whaling. In 1979, the Australian branch of the World Wildlife Fund (now called Wildlife for Nature) was launched. Friends of the Earth have also established a network of twelve branches across Australia.

EVENTS AND CAMPAIGNS

THE GREAT BARRIER REEF CAMPAIGN

The campaign to save the Great Barrier Reef was one of Australia's first major environmental campaigns. It occurred in the 1960s, during the post-war economic boom when large overseas companies were encouraged by governments to set up operations in Australia, thereby boosting the country's economy and creating jobs. In 1967, rumours that the Queensland Government was preparing to grant licences for oil exploration and drilling on the Great Barrier Reef triggered a major environmental protest.

DID YOU KNOW?

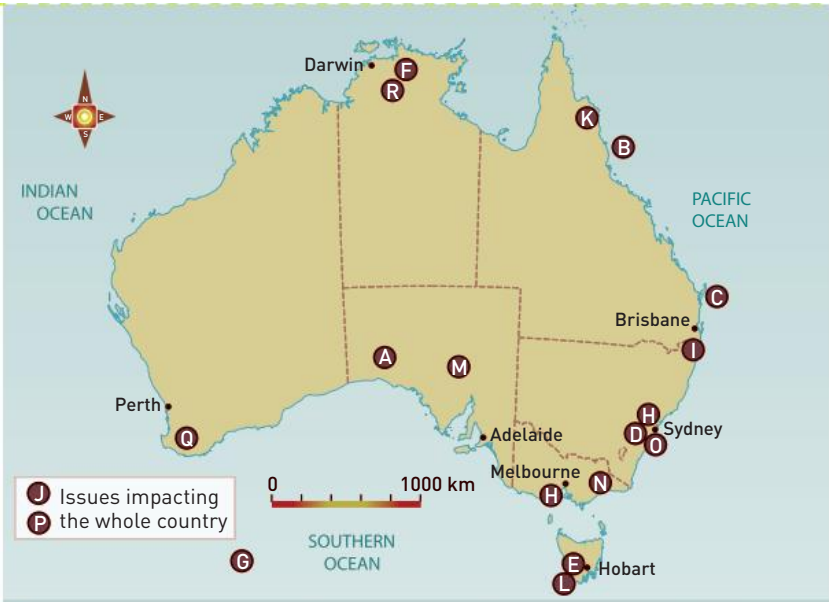
The Great Barrier Reef is one of the largest and most complex ecosystems on Earth. It includes 900 islands, 2900 reefs, is 2300 kilometres long and can be seen from space.

THE ISSUE AND RESPONSE

International oil companies sought to explore and drill for oil and gas on the Great Barrier Reef in the 1960s. Opponents believed such activities would damage the delicate reef ecosystem and wanted it declared a national park.

The Wildlife Preservation Society of Queensland (WPSQ) led the campaign. The society had high-profile leaders: Judith Wright (a poet) and Vincent Serventy (a wildlife expert). WPSQ viewed the Great Barrier Reef as a whole ecosystem and took the position that it needed protection. It opposed all oil exploration.

WPSQ used a variety of strategies to promote its case. In the mid-1960s, members personally lobbied Liberal Prime Minister Harold Holt and opposition leader Gough Whitlam. WPSQ also appealed to the Australian public, distributing thousands of vehicle bumper stickers that read: 'Save the Barrier Reef'. Newspapers featured many articles on the campaign, as public interest in the issue was lucrative for media owners. A petition was organised and, in 1969, a WPSQ poll of Queenslanders revealed that 95 per cent opposed drilling.



SOURCE 5.6.2 Map of some serious environmental issues and events in Australia from the 1960s to 1990s

A Between 1955 and 1963, Maralinga in South Australia was the site of British nuclear testing.

B In 1962, the Great Barrier Reef was threatened by oil exploration and mining.

C In 1971, sand mining on Fraser Island, Queensland, was opposed by conservationists.

D The battle to save Kelly's Bush in New South Wales between 1971 and 1975 was a conflict of interests between urban developers and preservationists.

E In 1972, Lake Pedder in Tasmania was flooded after a failed campaign by conservationists to stop construction of the Middle Gordon power station. This campaign inspired the world's first green political party, the United Tasmania Group.

F In 1973, Kakadu in the Northern Territory became the focus of environmental groups campaigning for a national park to protect the wetlands from uranium mining companies.

G Whaling in the Southern Ocean emerged as an issue in 1975, when conservationists launched the anti-whaling campaign Project Jonah. The issue of whaling south of Australia resurfaces regularly.

H Anti-nuclear protests occurred between 1975 and 1984 across Australia; the largest were in Melbourne and Sydney.

I In 1979, conservationists protested about rainforest logging in Terania Creek, northern New South Wales.

J During the 1980s, scientists became aware of the ozone hole over Antarctica.

K In 1982, conservationists campaigned against logging in the Daintree Rainforest, Queensland.

L The Tasmanian Franklin River protest campaign (1976–83) stopped construction of a dam and hydro-electric power station.

M From 1983 to 1984, protesters opposed uranium mining in Roxby Downs, South Australia.

N Errinundra, in Victoria, was the site of an anti-logging campaign in 1984.

O In 1985, protests occurred in Kurnell, New South Wales, against petrochemical and pesticide production plants polluting the urban environment.

P Global warming was identified as a pressing issue in the 1980s.

Q In 1994, conservationists expressed concern about logging and deforestation of the jarrah-karri old-growth forest, in south-west Western Australia.

R Uranium mining in the Northern Territory reappeared as an environmental issue following proposed mining at Jabiluka in 1998.

The WPSQ campaign was boosted by oil-related disasters elsewhere that made the headlines of Australian news, such as the pollution caused by the *Torrey Canyon* oil tanker wreckage off south-west Britain (1967) and the Esso-BHP gas blowout in Bass Strait off the Victorian coast (1968). A year later, the Union Oil Company leak off the coast of California reinforced the WPSQ message that oil spills were dangerous and the Great Barrier Reef should be protected from any such threat.

OUTCOME

As a result of the Save the Barrier Reef campaign, the federal government appointed a Royal Commission in 1970, and, in 1974, the commission produced a report calling for the banning of drilling. The reef became a national park after the introduction of the *Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Act 1975*. In 1981, the Great Barrier Reef was given World Heritage status by UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation).

NEW THREATS

The Great Barrier Reef was again under threat in the 1990s due to global warming. By 2002, rising sea temperatures had bleached 50 per cent of the reef. A further rise of just 2 degrees Celsius would kill 97 per cent of the reef. The WPSQ ran an electronic campaign via their website to provide detailed information about reef bleaching, to explain and comment on government strategies, and to invite public comment about the issue. This campaign typifies the growing trend of twenty-first century activism: **cyber activism**.

A 2009 review of the Barrier Reef, its management and future produced the Great Barrier Reef Outlook Report. In preparing the report, the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority consulted the Australian and Queensland governments, scientists, industry, regional committees and the public. A report is to be presented five-yearly to the federal Minister of Sustainability, Environment, Water, Population and Communities.

KELLY'S BUSH CAMPAIGN

The 1971 campaign to save Kelly's Bush in New South Wales was a turning point in the Australian environmental movement. This campaign was unique because for the first time, local campaigners and trade unions worked together for a common cause.

THE ISSUE AND RESPONSE

AVJennings, a housing development company, proposed the construction of a large housing complex at Kelly's Bush in the Sydney suburb of Hunters Hill. The opponents wanted the last open space in the suburb preserved as bushland.

The battle to save Kelly's Bush began in 1971, when a group of women from Hunters Hill launched the Battlers for Kelly's Bush campaign. The group approached Jack Mundey, the leader of the New South Wales branch of the Builders Labourers' Federation (BLF) trade union for support. Mundey promised that the BLF would refuse to work on the planned building development.

The BLF strike action was called Green Bans. The actions of the BLF were controversial. While the union and local groups worked to protect the open space, opponents accused the union of stopping progress and costing jobs. AVJennings threatened to use non-union labour to bypass the Green Bans; in return the BLF threatened to extend the Green Bans on all of the developer's building sites. Today, Kelly's Bush remains a development-free area.

OUTCOMES

The BLF's success at Kelly's Bush led to Green Bans at forty-two other sites. The bans ceased in 1974 when Jack Mundey's leadership of the New South Wales branch of the BLF ended. Mundey went on to be elected president of the Australian Conservation Foundation.

As a result of the Green Bans, the federal government led by Labor Prime Minister Gough Whitlam passed the *Environment Protection (Impact of Proposals) Act 1974*, which gave the Department of the Environment power to intervene in disputes about development plans. The New South Wales Government passed the *Environmental Planning and Assessment Act 1979*, which placed more emphasis on the environment in town planning and created new planning authorities.



SOURCE 5.6.3

A protest march against the development of Kelly's Bush organised by the Hunters Hill High School Conservation Club, 25 June 1971. Children from four local schools participated and were addressed by the local Member of Parliament.

Q
1 **Who organised and participated in the protest?**
2 **What conclusions could future historians reach about the environment movement in Australia in the 1970s from looking at this source?**

> JACK MUNDEY: *I didn't start off as some great environmentalist forward thinker. I became a part of an urban movement. It's a learning process. I was convinced of it by the actions of the people, so we grew into it together…*
>
> JACK MUNDEY: *I said, 'And what's the use of winning higher wages and better conditions, if we live in cities devoid of parks and denuded of trees?' And then the most unlikely alliance of middle-class women linking up with the rough-hewn Builders' Labourers saved Kelly's Bush. And the first green ban was imposed at a fashionable suburb called Hunters Hill, where there weren't many Builders' Labourers, I might add…*

SOURCE 5.6.4

Transcript of part of an interview with Jack Mundey on the ABC program *Talking Heads*, screened 17 August 2009

Q **According to Jack Mundey, why did he become involved in the campaign to save Kelly's Bush?**

KAKADU NATIONAL PARK CAMPAIGN

The Kakadu controversy is notable for its long duration, the number of stakeholders involved and its multiple environmental issues at play. In addition, the traditional landowners took a role in determining an outcome and the subsequent management of the area.

THE ISSUE AND RESPONSE

As early as 1965, conservationists proposed the establishment of a national park at Kakadu to preserve it from encroaching pastoralists. Large uranium discoveries were made in the 1960s and 1970s in the Kakadu area at Ranger, Koongarra and Jabiluka that the mining industry and government were keen to exploit. Conservationists were concerned about the impact of mining on the landscape and about nuclear energy in general. Aboriginal Peoples viewed both the national park and mining as an intrusion and disruption to their land and culture.

The establishment of Kakadu National Park took decades and occurred in stages. The 1977 Ranger Uranium Environmental Inquiry report was influential in the process. This government-commissioned inquiry canvassed wide public participation including the Australian Conservation Foundation, Australian Atomic Energy Commission, Friends of the Earth and Aboriginal representation through the Northern Lands Council (NLC). The report recommended the establishment of a national park as well as some restricted uranium mining. In 1979, the Jabiluka and Ranger mine areas were set aside for mining, while a large area became stage 1 of the national park. By 1981, stage 1 of the Kakadu National Park had gained World Heritage status. The traditional owners became joint managers along with the Director of National Parks. The NLC, as a representative of the traditional owners, and the government signed the Ranger uranium mining agreement.

Stages 2 and 3 of Kakadu National Park were proclaimed in 1984 and 1987 respectively. Stage 2 gained World Heritage status in 1987. Protests broke out in 1987 because the proposed stage 3 included a 2253 square kilometre 'conservation zone' that included Coronation Hill where mining was permitted. Protesters opposed to mining staged demonstrations and a blockade of Coronation Hill. The Australian Conservation Foundation lobbied the environment minister. The NLC declared 'we will fight to the end'. In 1991, Labor Prime Minister Bob Hawke stopped mining at Coronation Hill despite opposition from the mining industry and many Members of Parliament.

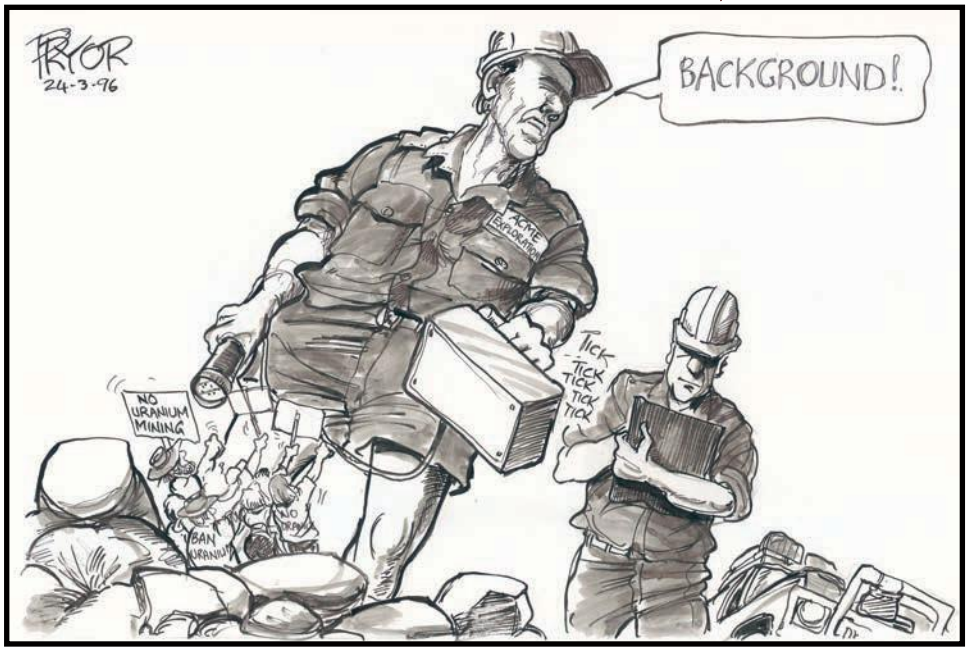
OUTCOMES

The entire Kakadu National Park gained World Heritage status in 1992, including the 'conservation zone'. The Ranger and Jabiluka mining areas were excluded from the national park, despite being surrounded by it. Aboriginal Peoples, through the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976*, gained ownership and joint management of the land. Mining companies were permitted limited and restricted mining leases in designated areas.

In 1996, the newly elected Howard Liberal Government considered proposals for new uranium mines and further development of the Jabiluka site. The traditional owners and conservationists launched a court case, appealed to the World Heritage Committee and ran an eight-month blockade in 1998. Development at Jabiluka was put on hold. With such enormous uranium reserves and growing demand for the resource, the issue may be revisited in the future.

SOURCE 5.6.5

Cartoon by Geoff Pryor, published in *The Canberra Times* newspaper, 24 March 1996. Held at the National Library of Australia. It was drawn as Liberal Prime Minister John Howard proposed to further open the Jabiluka uranium mine in Kakadu, and prepared to take on conservationists to do so.



Q

1. **Identify which groups the two large figures in the centre and the small figures at the bottom left represent. What evidence from the source supports your answer?**
2. **What message is intended by drawing two figures larger than the others?**
3. **What comments do the words 'Background!' and 'Tick, tick …' convey about government attitudes towards conservationists?**



SOURCE 5.6.6 A protest march against development of the Jabiluka uranium mine at Kakadu, 8 July 1998

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- arid
- cyber activism
- semi-arid

2 Name two reasons why Australia holds a prominent position in the environment movement.

3 a What is Bob Brown's contribution to the environment movement?

b What is the Australian Greens and why did it form?

4 a Name one Australian non-government environment group and explain why it was established.

b Why is Francis Radcliffe a notable conservation figure?

5 Examine Source 5.6.2.

a Which decade appears to have had the largest number of major environment events?

b Which parts of Australia experienced the greatest number of environmental issues? Suggest one reason to explain this.

6 a Explain the positions of the Queensland Government, the mining companies and the conservationists in the Save the Barrier Reef campaign of the 1960s.

b State why the Great Barrier Reef was under threat in the 1990s.

c Explain how environmental campaigning was different in the 1960s from the 1990s.

7 Explain what Green Bans are, when they were imposed during the Kelly's Bush campaign and by whom.

Applying, analysing and evaluating

8 a Construct a concept map that includes the four groups involved in the dispute about uranium mining at Kakadu: government, mining companies, traditional landowners, conservationists. Clearly show what each group's position on uranium mining is and reasons for their position.

b Draw a timeline to show the key events in the Kakadu controversy about uranium mining and its establishment as a national park.

9 a Using the information from this unit, construct a timeline that highlights key events in the environment movement in Australia. Include a minimum of twelve events on your timeline.

b Using evidence from the timeline, identify the decade when the environment movement gained momentum in Australia. Explain why there was so much activity in this decade.

10 a Identify the similarities and differences in the Great Barrier Reef and Kelly's Bush campaigns. Your answer could be presented as a table or Venn diagram.

b Why do you think that protesters from both campaigns continue to celebrate anniversaries of the campaigns?

Creating

11 Imagine you were involved in one of the environmental campaigns highlighted in this unit: the Great Barrier Reef, Kelly's Bush or Kakadu National Park. Consider the nature of your involvement in and position on the issue (you may choose to support or oppose the campaign). Write an article of approximately 300 words for a newspaper, in which you:
- briefly describe the issue and the parties involved
- provide at least two detailed arguments to support and promote your point of view on the issue
- include a relevant image and/or map to support your writing.

UNIT 7

SOURCE STUDY: THE FRANKLIN RIVER STRUGGLE

The 1976–83 campaign to preserve the Franklin River in south-west Tasmania was a landmark event in the Australian environment movement. It was one of the longest and largest conservation battles ever fought in Australia, and set a record for the number of protester arrests (over 1200) in Australian environmental history. The environmental issue surrounding the Franklin River dominated Australian politics for over five years.

THE ISSUE

The Hydro-Electric Commission (HEC) of Tasmania planned to build a dam and power station on the Gordon River downstream of the Franklin River junction (Gordon-below-Franklin plan). It was to add to the electricity output from the state's existing twenty-three hydro-electric power stations and create jobs for the population. Conservationists wanted to preserve one of the last wild rivers in Tasmania and the world's last extensive temperate rainforest. They objected to the dam that would flood 37 kilometres of the Gordon River and 33 kilometres of the Franklin River, which would create a reservoir twenty-seven times larger than Sydney Harbour.

THREAT AND INITIAL RESPONSE

When rumours of plans for the Franklin Dam began to circulate in Tasmania in 1976, there was a rapid response from conservationists. Many had been involved in the earlier Lake Pedder campaign, which failed to stop its damming and artificial enlargement. The flooding of Lake Pedder in 1972 was the first scheme of a government plan to dam rivers and flood lakes in south-west Tasmania for hydro-electric power generation. The Franklin River scheme was the second.

Conservationists' immediate response in 1976 was to form the Tasmanian Wilderness Society (TWS). Led by Bob Brown, the TWS began a public awareness program with public meetings, pamphlet drops, letters to newspapers, television appearances and lobbying of politicians. The discovery of Kutikina Cave on the Franklin River in 1981, with its significant Aboriginal artefacts, strengthened the conservationists' position. A dam would flood this cave.

Thinking that he could satisfy both sides, Premier Doug Lowe proposed a compromise: a dam on the Gordon River upstream of the Olga River (Gordon-above-Olga plan). Both the pro- and anti-dam groups opposed this. The HEC preferred the Gordon-below-Franklin plan. Conservationists were against all dams. A state referendum in December 1981 asked voters to vote for the preferred plan, but they did not have the option to vote 'no dams'. The TWS and Australian Conservation Council appealed to voters to write 'no dams' on ballot papers.

Referendum results revealed 8 per cent of people were in favour of the Gordon-above-Olga plan, 47 per cent preferred the original Gordon-below-Franklin plan and 33 per cent wanted no dams at all. This deadlocked the government and led to state elections in May 1982. The Liberal Party, led by Robin Gray won, formed government and immediately proceeded with the Franklin Dam proposal. Assured of success, Liberal politician Harry Braid said, 'No power on this Earth will stop the dam now.'

> *It's in an area which is isolated. The environmental significance of that area has been grossly overstated. For 11 months of the year the Franklin River is nothing but a brown ditch, leech-ridden, unattractive to the majority of people.*

SOURCE 5.7.1 A comment made by Robin Gray on the ABC program *Stateline Tasmania*, screened 27 June 2003. Gray was premier of Tasmania from 1982–89 and a key figure in the Franklin River dispute.

> *The Tasmanians are doing it again. They killed off their unique Aboriginal race. They wiped the Tasmanian tiger off the island with little trouble. Now they are destroying their south-west wilderness area.*

SOURCE 5.7.2 A letter from A. H. Rees to the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 17 December 1982

I write this letter with a guilty conscience. My eight-year-old daughter asked me tonight: 'Why are they damming that beautiful river, Mum, and all those mountains? I haven't even seen them yet.' I explained.

We leave so little for the next generation with so much knowledge we so wilfully flood into extinction such a wonderful resource, a place of such unique and distinct beauty. We are no doubt mad...

SOURCE 5.7.3 A letter from Jennifer McNabb to *The Age*, 18 December 1982

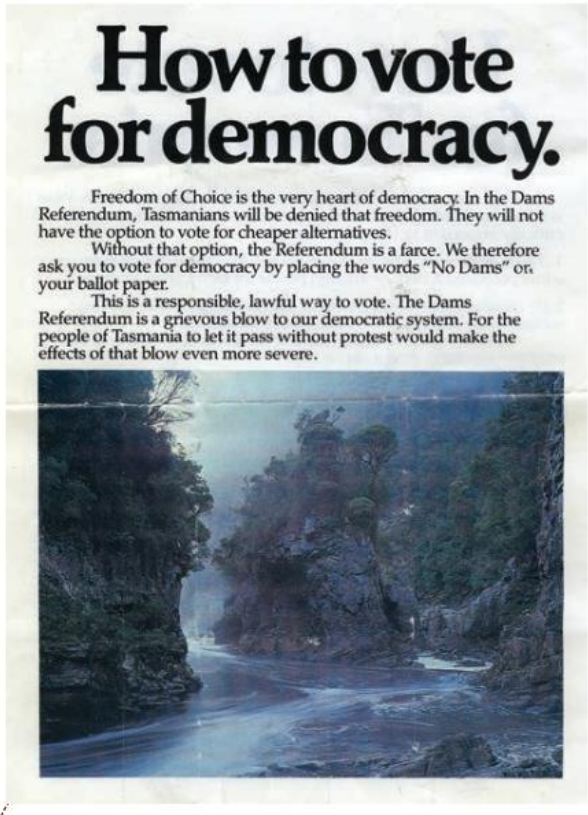
I am continually amazed at the number of people who oppose worthwhile projects whether local, state or national, such as Tasmania's Franklin Dam project...

The future advantage to society and the nation, generally, must always take precedence over narrow parochial objections which usually have no real substance, except to be reactionary in the extreme.

We object to nuclear power because of the radiation, and thermal power because of air pollutants or conservation of oil. Hydro-electricity is the only pollution-free energy source within our economic reach.

In view of the very limited physical and geographical opportunities for dam construction in this country, why must our intelligent policy-makers become so embroiled and bow to political expediency just to satisfy a vocal, selfish minority?... the ill-informed and often irresponsible minority?... so let's advance this country, not hold it back.

SOURCE 5.7.4 A letter from J. Tually to the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 17 December 1982



How to vote for democracy.

Freedom of Choice is the very heart of democracy. In the Dams Referendum, Tasmanians will be denied that freedom. They will not have the option to vote for cheaper alternatives.

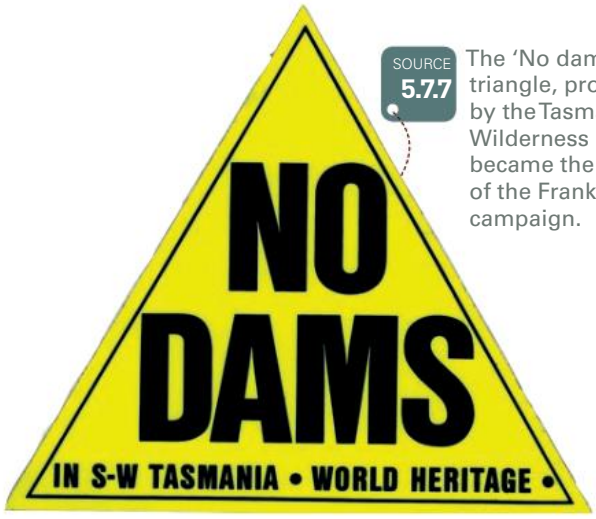
Without that option, the Referendum is a farce. We therefore ask you to vote for democracy by placing the words "No Dams" on your ballot paper.

This is a responsible, lawful way to vote. The Dams Referendum is a grievous blow to our democratic system. For the people of Tasmania to let it pass without protest would make the effects of that blow even more severe.

SOURCE 5.7.5 A leaflet produced and circulated by the Tasmanian Wilderness Society in 1981, prior to the referendum



SOURCE 5.7.6 The Franklin River Dam protest held in Hobart, 2 September 1981, was led by Bob Brown who marched in front of the first banner.



SOURCE 5.7.7 The 'No dams' triangle, produced by the Tasmanian Wilderness Society, became the symbol of the Franklin River campaign.

STRAHAN:... the most significant archaeological find in the southern hemisphere... Fraser or Kutikina (Spirit) Cave on the banks of the Franklin River...

More than 15 000 years ago... [Tasmanian Aboriginal People] occupied Fraser Cave, archaeologists believe, for about 5000 years, and have left behind more than 100 000 artefacts... experts have unearthed 80 000 stone artefacts and claim many more remain. They say about 1000 species of insects, not known in science, exist in the vicinity, along with 'Biglandulosum', a second cave said to be potentially more important than Fraser Cave.

If the Tasmanian Government has its way, it will all be under 50 metres of water as part of a $453 million plan to create a 178 megawatt dam on the Gordon-below-Franklin River...

Archaeologists, like Professor John Mulvaney from the Australian National University, believe the site is in the top five in the world...

It is regarded as the most significant find on the western Pacific rim, and marks the beginning of the southern-most extension of man's spread on the globe.

SOURCE 5.7.8 From 'Back in Fraser Cave, after 14 500 years', by Peter Ellingsen, *The Age*, 23 December 1982

BLOCKADE AND OUTCOME

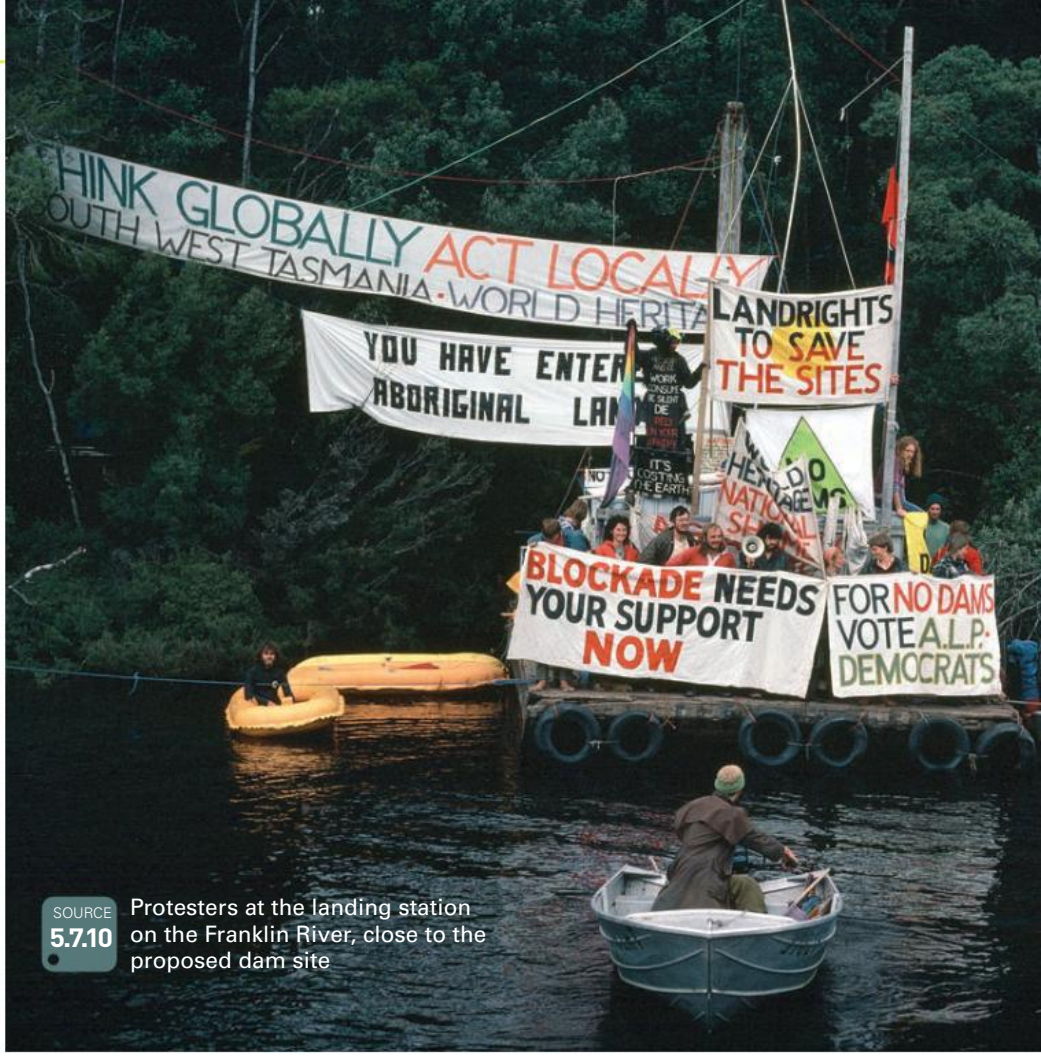
Following the election of the Gray Government in May 1982, the TWS, aided by the Australian Conservation Foundation, appealed for national support to fight what looked like a losing struggle. Brown toured Australia, lectured, and talked to media outlets and federal politicians. Branches of the TWS sprang up across Australia and memberships soared. Large rallies were organised in Sydney, Hobart, Launceston, Canberra and Melbourne, branding the slogan 'Let the Franklin run free'. Despite pressure from lobby groups, Liberal Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser would not intervene in what was considered a state matter.

On 14 December 1982, the TWS under the leadership of Bob Brown, began a non-violent blockade of the Franklin River. Protesters formed lines of 'rubber duckies' across the Gordon River to prevent the HEC moving equipment to the dam site. Over 2500 people protested in a blockade that lasted until the end of March 1983. There were over 1200 arrests, including the arrest and imprisonment of Bob Brown. The protest gained media attention across Australia.



SOURCE 5.7.9 Protesters in rubber duckies form barricades across the Gordon River in January 1983. Their aim was to block the arrival of the first bulldozer to the dam site.

Meanwhile, the federal election on 31 March 1983 resulted in Labor forming government under Bob Hawke. Hawke, who had campaigned against the dam, immediately passed legislation to stop work. Tasmanian Premier Robin Gray ignored the legislation and work continued. The Tasmanian Government challenged the federal government's power in the High Court to intervene in state matters but failed in its objection. Crucial to the High Court's decision was the fact that UNESCO granted south-west Tasmania World Heritage status in December 1982. In July 1983, the High Court ruled that the federal legislation was lawful and gave the federal government power over the states to protect areas with World Heritage status. The Franklin River was saved.



SOURCE 5.7.10 Protesters at the landing station on the Franklin River, close to the proposed dam site

The World Heritage Commission placed Tasmania's endangered south-west wilderness area on its list today, and the State Government and the Tasmanian Wilderness Society both claimed victory.

The area, proposed by the Federal Government, contains the site of the planned Franklin dam.

Tasmania's Deputy Premier, Mr Bingham, at the hearing in the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation building in Paris, was pleased with the result.

'It gives us the green light to go ahead with the dam, having due regard to the treatment of the area as one of great beauty,' he said. 'The area involved in the hydro-electric scheme is only 1 or 2 per cent of the total of the land of the reservation.'...

But a spokesman for the Wilderness Society, Mr Bill Buckland, saw the decision as a total victory for his group...

'The committee has asked the Australian Government to do all that is possible not to endanger the integrity of the area... The committee is seriously concerned at the likely effect of dam construction in the area on these natural and cultural characteristics which make the property of outstanding universal value...

We recommend to the Australian society to take every possible measure to protect the integrity of the site... to place the property on the list of world heritage in danger until the question of dams construction is resolved.'...

SOURCE 5.7.11 From 'Wilderness placed on heritage list: Both sides claim victory', *The Canberra Times*, 15 December 1982

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSING

1 Re-read Source 5.7.1.

- **a** Use evidence from the source to explain Premier Gray's position on the building of the Franklin Dam?
- **b** Do you think the source is biased? Give reasons for your answer.

2 During the Franklin Dam struggle, newspapers across Australia printed many letters of opinion from the public. Re-read three of these letters in Sources 5.7.2, 5.7.3 and 5.7.4.

- **a** Identify which letters oppose and which support the building of the dam.
- **b** Prepare a table of two columns, with the headings 'Opposition to dam' and 'Support for the dam'. Under the appropriate heading, list the arguments presented in the letters that reject or favour the dam. You will add to this table in the next question.

3 Study Sources 5.7.6 and 5.7.11. Use them to add arguments against and in support of the dam to the table you prepared in Question 2.

4 Re-read Source 5.7.8.

- **a** Where is Kutikina Cave and when was it discovered?
- **b** Explain why the discovery of Kutikina Cave was significant in the Franklin Dam controversy.

5 Examine Source 5.7.10 and explain the meaning of the protester message 'Think globally, act locally'.

6 Re-read Source 5.7.11.

- **a** What decision did the World Heritage Commission make regarding south-west Tasmania?
- **b** Explain how the two opposing groups, the Tasmanian Wilderness Society and the Tasmanian Government, both saw the decision as a victory for their side.

ANALYSING AND APPLYING

7

- **a** Use the information in this unit to construct a timeline with at least six key events of the Franklin Dam struggle.
- **b** On the timeline, mark and label when you think Source 5.7.7 was produced and circulated. Explain why you chose this date.
- **c** Explain why the event in Source 5.7.9 could not have occurred in 1980.

ANALYSING AND EVALUATING

8 Study Source 5.7.5.

- **a** What do you understand 'democracy' to be from this poster?
- **b** What does the poster urge people to do and why?
- **c** Why do you think the photograph *Morning Mist, Rock Island Bend* by photographer Peter Dombrovskis was included on this poster?
- **d** How effectively does the poster convey its message? Give reasons for your answer.

9 Examine Sources 5.7.9 and 5.7.10. Which of these two primary sources is more valuable for the historian researching the Franklin Dam struggle? Explain your answer.

EVALUATING AND CREATING

10 Study Source 5.7.7.

- **a** Explain why the 'No dams' triangle was an effective symbol for the Tasmanian Wilderness Association.
- **b** Design your own symbol for the fight to save the Franklin River.

THE ENVIRONMENT MOVEMENT IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY



RECURRENT PROBLEMS

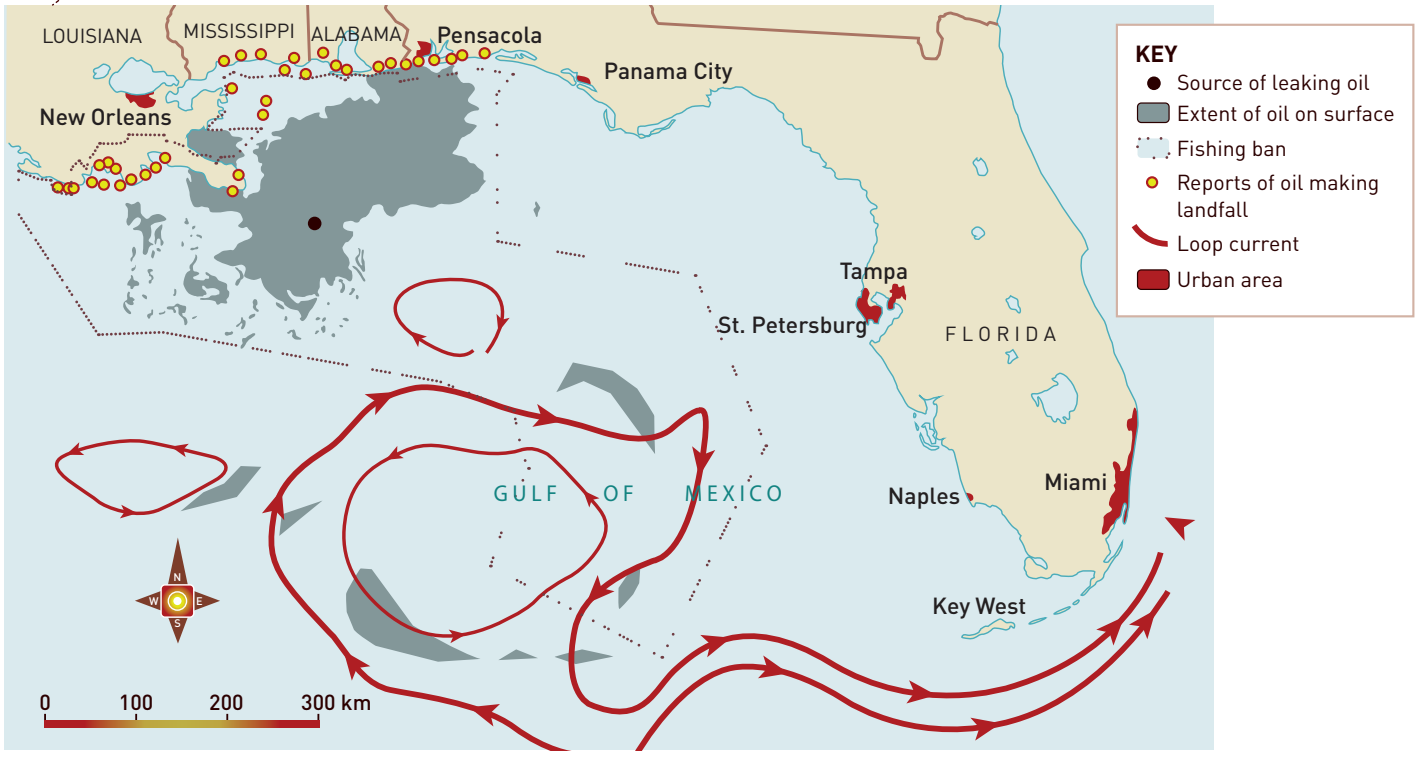
GULF OF MEXICO OIL SPILL

On 20 April 2010, an underwater blowout at the deep-sea oil well in the Gulf of Mexico caused an explosion of the Deepwater Horizon drilling platform. The spill lasted three months. The oil platform was owned by Transocean and was leased to British Petroleum (BP) at the time of the accident. BP delayed disclosure of information and was secretive about the damage. Media access was limited into the area, although pressure forced BP to relax restrictions.

It is believed that environmental impacts of the oil spill could take years to become apparent. Never before had a spill occurred on the sea floor, nor had such huge quantities of chemical dispersants been used. Clean-up efforts only concentrated on surface oil. Over 300 square kilometres of the Gulf of Mexico were closed to fishing. One year after the spill, some parts of the sea floor had a thick layer of oil and no sign of sea life.

SOURCE 5.8.1 Map of the Gulf of Mexico showing the location of the Deepwater Horizon platform and areas affected by the oil spill two months after the initial blowout

Q Use information from the map to describe the impact of the oil spill on the natural and human environments.



The US Government's immediate response was a six-month moratorium (suspension) on all deep-water offshore drilling, starting 30 May 2010. The accident reignited an ongoing debate in the United States about offshore drilling. BP conducted an internal report in September 2010 and blamed its associate Transocean for the accident because it was responsible for the well's ocean floor cement seal. BP did admit negligence on the part of its own platform managers. In January 2011, The United States Presidential Commission found BP and Transocean management put cost-cutting above safety and that relevant US Government departments had neither the staff expertise nor the staff numbers to regulate the oil industry. It concluded that such a disaster could potentially occur again.

EVOLVING LANGUAGE

Rights of nature takes the view that the natural world is important for its own sake and is not the property of humankind. In April 2011, the United Nations General Assembly discussed adopting a Universal Declaration of the Rights of Nature. Under such a declaration 'Mother Earth has the right to exist, to persist, and to continue the vital cycles ... that sustain all human beings'.

FUKUSHIMA NUCLEAR DISASTER

The Fukushima nuclear disaster of 11 March 2011 was caused by a magnitude 9 earthquake and a 7 metre tsunami. A cooling system failure caused meltdowns, explosions and release of radiation from the power plant into the atmosphere. The International Atomic Energy Agency ranked the nuclear incident equal in severity to Chernobyl. Both suffered major releases of radiation and widespread health and environmental effects.

Following the Fukushima disaster, anti-nuclear sentiment resurfaced and many countries re-evaluated their nuclear energy programs. In Germany, on 12 March 2011, 60 000 people formed a 45 kilometre human line from Stuttgart to the Neckarwestheim power plant. Large anti-nuclear protests also occurred in Taiwan, Tokyo (Japan), India, Spain, the United States and Switzerland.

In Japan, the government dismissed the head of the Nuclear and Industrial Safety Agency and other top officials, accusing them of misconduct and lax standards. The plant operator, Tokyo Electric Power Company, was criticised for downplaying the severity of the disaster. The prime minister changed his pro-nuclear position, halting plans for new reactors and closed the old Hamaoka plant for safety reasons. In light of the Fukushima accident, Japan has begun a long-term policy of phasing out nuclear energy, although this was under review in 2012 due to severe energy shortages.

AN ESCALATING PROBLEM: CLIMATE CHANGE

The existence of global warming was identified in the 1980s. Scientific evidence points to elevated concentrations of greenhouse gases, such as **carbon dioxide** (CO_2) and human-made **chlorofluorocarbons** (CFCs). The Fourth Assessment Report of the United Nations Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change in November 2007, prepared by 1300 independent scientists, concluded there was a 90 per cent probability that climate change is being caused by human activities over the last 250 years.

Leaders of the world's developed countries held discussions at a Washington Declaration in 2007. This meeting involved the G8+5 heads of governments—the eight industrial countries of Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, the United Kingdom and the United States,

SOURCE 5.8.2

Protesters wore ghost masks at an anti-nuclear energy rally outside the Malacanang presidential palace in Manila, Philippines, on 15 March 2011. The protest was triggered by the explosions at the Fukushima nuclear plant in Japan, just days earlier. Demonstrators demanded closure of the Philippine Bataan Nuclear Power Plant.



and the five leading emerging economies of Brazil, China, India, Mexico and South Africa. The group's objective was to develop a non-binding agreement on climate change to contribute towards a replacement for the Kyoto Protocol, which was set to expire in 2012. The agreement included both developed and developing countries and recommended a global system of carbon emissions caps and trading.

The United Nations has also taken a major role in tackling climate change. Leading into the twenty-first century, the United Nations held a number of climate-focused conferences. In December 2009, the United Nations Copenhagen Summit discussed an action plan to put in place after the Kyoto Protocol's 2012 expiration. The meeting resulted in the Copenhagen Accord, a non-binding agreement to reduce global emissions in an effort to keep the rise in global temperature below 2 degrees Celsius. Opinions are mixed on whether the summit was considered successful.

AUSTRALIA AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Evidence of climate change in Australia is noticeable with the occurrence of extraordinary weather events, such as the period of drought from 2002 to 2006, the 2009 Victorian bushfires and the Queensland floods of 2010–11. Climate change has made these natural disasters more frequent and severe.

- *By 2020, significant loss of biodiversity is projected to occur in some ecologically rich sites, including the Great Barrier Reef and Queensland Wet Tropics.*
- *By 2030, water security problems are projected to intensify in southern and eastern Australia and, in New Zealand, in Northland and some eastern regions.*
- *By 2030, production from agriculture and forestry is projected to decline over much of southern and eastern Australia, and over parts of eastern New Zealand, due to increased drought and fire. However, in New Zealand, initial benefits are projected in some other regions.*
- *By 2050, ongoing coastal development and population growth in some areas of Australia and New Zealand are projected to exacerbate risks from sea level rise and increases in the severity and frequency of storms and coastal flooding.*

SOURCE 5.8.3 Predictions for Australia and New Zealand from the United Nations Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change report, written by 1300 independent science experts from around the world, November 2007

Q According to the report, what future environmental problems could Australia face?



SOURCE 5.8.4 Walk Against Warming rally held in Melbourne, 11 November 2007. Over 40 000 people attended the rally in the lead-up to the federal election (held 24 November 2007); they were sending a clear message to political parties.

Q Compare Sources 5.8.3 and 5.8.4. Which is the more valuable historical source and why?

Australia's response to climate change has varied in the twenty-first century, as governments have changed hands.

- Under Prime Minister John Howard (March 1996–December 2007) progress was minimal. Howard did not ratify the United Nations Kyoto Protocol despite Australia being one of the world's largest polluters per person. Public pressure before the 2007 election forced Howard to announce a carbon trading scheme for implementation in 2011.
- Prime Minister Kevin Rudd's (December 2007–June 2010) first official duty was to ratify the Kyoto Protocol, committing Australia to emissions reductions, to an emission trading scheme and a 20 per cent target for **renewable energy** by 2020. Rudd postponed his controversial Carbon Pollution Reduction Scheme until 2012. The Rudd Government also created a new department—the Department of Climate Change and Energy Efficiency—to develop and implement Australia's climate change response.
- Prime Minister Julia Gillard (June 2010–) turned away from Rudd's Carbon Pollution Reduction Scheme that the Senate had twice rejected. Instead, with the support of the Independents and Greens, she introduced a **carbon tax** that passed the Senate in November 2011.

AUSTRALIA AND ALTERNATIVE ENERGY

As a signatory of the Kyoto Protocol, Australia has committed to a 20 per cent target for renewable energy by 2020. The federal Department of Climate Change and Energy Efficiency implemented its Clean Energy Future plan in July 2011, to reduce reliance on fossil fuels and promote **alternative energy** sources. The plan incorporates a carbon tax, greater energy efficiency initiatives, as well as more sustainable land use.

Government initiatives have included subsidised home insulation and solar energy programs, plus development of wind farms. The option of nuclear energy as an alternative energy source re-emerged in debate but has not gained approval from some state governments and was rejected at federal level under Prime Minister Rudd.

RESPONSES TO AN EMERGING CHALLENGE: GM FOODS

More than a century after the Industrial Revolution, the technological revolution gave rise to a range of new environmental challenges. The scientific development of **genetically modified (GM) foods** in the late twentieth century appeared to offer a solution to feeding the world's millions of people. When GM foods were released commercially, their impact on the environment was not fully known. There was a danger the manipulated DNA could spread to other crops and wild plants, thus reducing biodiversity. Also, interfering with a plant's biology could affect its relationship with its ecosystem. Japan and Europe have expressed most concern about GM foods. Environment groups, such as Greenpeace, have called for more research into their possible environmental impacts.

DID YOU KNOW?

In March 2011, Kellogg's® announced it would not use genetically modified ingredients in its food. In response to media publicity, consumer protests and Greenpeace campaigns, other companies also committed to stopping their use of GM ingredients, namely Snack Brands (makers of CC's®, Samboy®, Cheezels® and Thins® chips) and SPC™ beans and spaghetti.

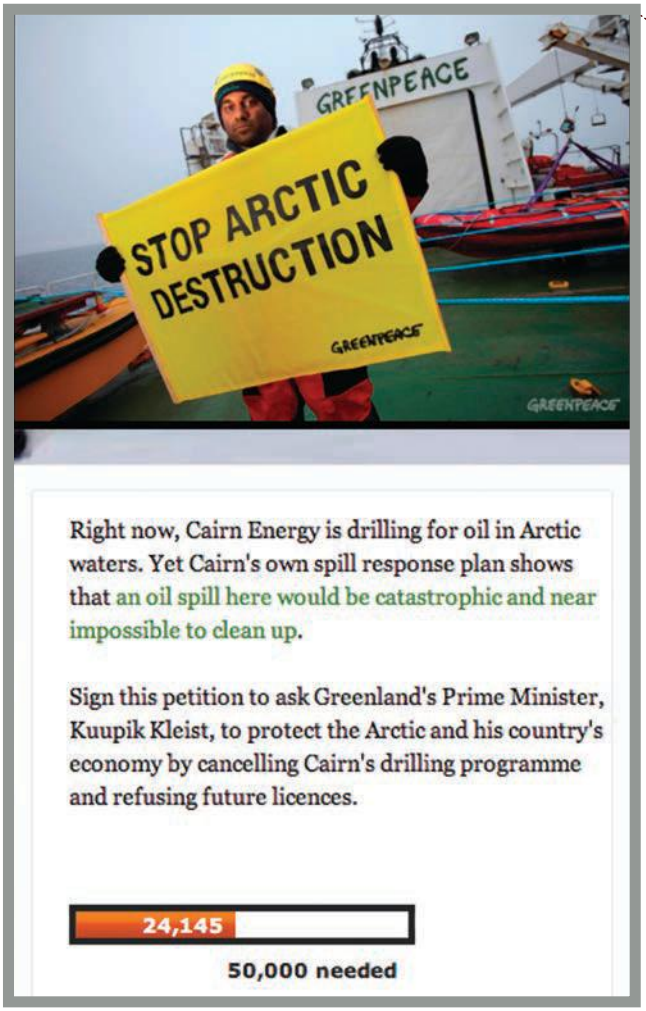
AN INFLUENTIAL INDIVIDUAL

American Al Gore has been a prominent campaigner for the environment since the late twentieth century. The US senator challenged his own political party, the Democrats, to develop policies to protect the environment and sustain economic development. As well as holding the office of vice president between 1993 and 2001, Gore has been involved in environmental issues since the mid-1970s. In the 1990s, Gore argued unsuccessfully for the United States to ratify the Kyoto Protocol. He rose to international acclaim in 2006 with the publication of his book and documentary *An Inconvenient Truth: The Planetary Emergency of Global Warming and What We Can Do About It*. Both the documentary and book focus on worldwide problems, illustrating the strong global nature of environmental issues in the twenty-first century. Gore's work on climate change earned him a Nobel Prize in 2007, shared with the United Nations Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

NEW FORMS OF ACTIVISM

Activism in the twenty-first century has taken advantage of the communication revolution. Email, websites, blogs, text messages and social networking are increasingly being used to spread information quickly and to large audiences. Electronic activism—also known as cyber activism—eliminates political borders and is fast and inexpensive, so has the power to revolutionise campaigns.

Environmental activist groups continue to use traditional methods of action, but they are supported by cyber activities. For example in 2000, Greenpeace activists installed a webcam that provided live proof of a French nuclear agency's underwater discharge of radioactive waste. The outcome was an end to the dumping after thousands of people viewed the footage and sent electronic messages of protest.



SOURCE 5.8.5 A Greenpeace cyber campaign to stop drilling for oil in the Arctic. Notice the sliding tally showing the petition signatories.

Q
1 What is the purpose of this campaign and who is conducting it?
2 What are the advantages and disadvantages of cyber campaigns for environmental groups?

DID YOU KNOW?

A cyber campaign pressured Coca-Cola®, McDonald's® and Unilever, major sponsors of the Sydney Olympics in 2000, to reduce their emissions of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs). These companies' heavy reliance on CFC refrigeration conflicted with what was promoted as the 'Green Olympics'. Following an intensive global internet campaign by Greenpeace in 2000, these sponsors committed to phasing out CFCs by 2004.

Greenpeace took advantage of the opportunity presented by the Olympics, a high-profile worldwide event, to unfold the next part of their long-running anti-CFC protests. Up to that point, their vigorous campaigning of chemical multinational companies, urging replacement of CFCs with natural refrigerants such as ammonia, had been met with strong resistance.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- alternative energy
- carbon dioxide
- carbon tax
- chlorofluorocarbons
- genetically modified (GM) foods
- rights of nature
- renewable energy

2 a Describe how Al Gore contributed to public awareness of environmental issues.
b Explain how he was able to become a prominent environmental campaigner.

3 List the advantages of cyber activism for environmental protection in the twenty-first century.

4 a What forms of alternative energy have been considered by Australian governments?
b Why do you think nuclear energy has been debated as an alternative energy source? What impact do events such as the Fukushima nuclear disaster have on such discussions?

Analysing and evaluating

5 a Using the information in this chapter, draw a concept map that shows the different strands or elements that were part of the environment movement from the 1960s to the twenty-first century.
b What conclusions can you reach about the characteristics of the environment movement?

6 Compare and contrast responses to the environmental concerns of climate change and the 2010 Gulf of Mexico oil spill by:
a listing who was involved in responding to each problem
b explaining why responses came from different organisations/people in these two situations.

7 Re-read 'Responses to an emerging challenge: GM foods' and explain whether you think genetically modified foods are a threat to the environment or a solution to the world's food shortage problem. Provide two arguments to support your answer. You may need to conduct further research to complete this activity.

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 The Kyoto Protocol: To sign or not to sign?

Global warming has been a dominant environmental issue of recent decades. A major international response to the problem was the Kyoto Protocol, established in 1997 and adopted in 2005. Although there is general consensus that global warming is an urgent problem, the ratification of the protocol was controversial. When implemented in 2005, two of the largest carbon emitters, the United States, led by George W. Bush and Australia, led by John Howard, had not ratified the protocol. Australia ratified it in 2007 with a change of government, led by Kevin Rudd.

Investigate the conflicting points of view about ratification of the Kyoto Protocol. Your report should include the following:

- an explanation of what the Kyoto Protocol is
- an explanation of who was responsible for preparing the protocol
- a brief history of events leading up to adoption of the protocol, its ratification and implementation
- an explanation of the arguments in favour of ratifying the protocol and the arguments opposed to ratification
- at least one primary source, written or visual, from each side of the controversy (Explain how each source demonstrates support for a particular point of view.)
- a brief discussion of the implications of the protocol for global warming.

#2 Living history

Many people in Australia today remember and possibly participated in past environmental campaigns. Imagine you are a journalist investigating the environment movement. You are seeking to interview a person about their recollections and/or involvement in an environmental campaign. Prepare a set of questions for the interview that focus on:

- recollections about a well-publicised environmental event and what the issue was
- when and where it occurred
- the person's feelings about the event
- how the event changed conditions for people today.

Use your interview questions to carry out an interview with someone who has participated in your chosen environmental campaign.

As a journalist, you decide to conduct further research on the event discussed with the person you interviewed. Investigate how the event was reported in the media at the time. Collect some primary sources (written and visual) that show people's feelings about what was happening. Compare your interviewee's recollections and feelings with what you discovered through your additional research. What are the similarities and differences? How can you account for these?

#3 Persisting problems

Nuclear energy disasters and oil spills have been recurring, serious environmental problems of the last six decades. Their impacts have been the focus of many environmental groups and organisations. Select either a nuclear energy disaster or an oil spill to investigate further, and create a multimedia presentation or an AVD that includes:

- a timeline of the key events of the disaster
- a description of the organisations, groups and/or individuals who responded to the disaster
- an explanation of what actions were taken by the organisations, groups and/or individuals involved and the outcomes of the actions
- one written primary source and one visual primary source with annotations that clearly show how these historical sources add to the understanding of the disaster
- an evaluation of what the modern world would look like today had environmental groups not become involved in this environmental disaster. (You may choose to present this as a concept map.)



SOURCE **5.9.1** Greenpeace activists attempt to disrupt a Japanese whaling ship from hauling a whale on deck in 2000. Greenpeace and Sea Shepherd Conservation Society have maintained steady opposition to Japanese whaling in the Southern Ocean.

CHAPTER 6

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- How have significant world events shaped the waves of post–World War II migration to Australia?
- What has been the impact of changing government policies on Australia's migration patterns?
- What have been the experiences of migrants to Australia in the post–World War II period?
- How has migration contributed to Australia's changing identity as a nation and its international relationships?

DEPTH STUDY 3 THE GLOBALISING WORLD

Australia is one of the most culturally diverse nations in the world. Within a population of more than 22 million people, over 400 languages are spoken, with English as the common and official language. Over a quarter of the population was born in another country. The story of Australia's growth as a modern country in the twentieth century is closely tied to those stories of the nearly 7 million migrants who have travelled from across the globe since World War II (1939–45) to make Australia their new home.







MIGRATION EXPERIENCES



SOURCE **6.0.1**

Migrants arriving in Sydney (detail), by David Moore, direct positive colour photograph, 1966. Held at the National Gallery of Australia, Canberra. Here the photographer captures the expectation and anxiety of immigrants as they begin a new life in Australia.

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1901–the present

SOURCE 6.1.1 Timeline of Australia's migrant history (1901–the present)

23 December 1901 *Immigration Restriction Act* is passed

1906 *Pacific Islander Labourers Act* is amended to enforce the deportation of Kanaka labourers

1914 *War Precautions Act* is passed and leads to the internment of 'enemy aliens' during World War I

1926 Development and Migration Commission is established to facilitate assisted settlement of British migrants

6 September 1940 HMT *Dunera* arrives in Australia carrying refugees from the German Nazi regime

1945 End of World War II; Arthur Calwell is appointed Australia's first Minister for Immigration in June

1947 'Populate or perish' policy is well underway with the arrival of 32 000 migrants to Australia (over two-thirds of British origin)

November 1947 First boatload of migrants from the Baltic States arrives in Australia

1949 Construction of the Snowy Mountains Hydro-electric Scheme begins, requiring the labour of thousands of migrants before its completion in 1974

1950 Australia signs the Colombo Plan to support developing countries throughout the Asia–Pacific region

1951 Australia becomes a signatory to the United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees

1900 1920 1940

AUSTRALIA: A COUNTRY OF MIGRANTS

Since the arrival of Europeans in 1788, Australia has become a country of migrants. Apart from the original inhabitants, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, the population of modern Australia is made up of people whose forebears originally came from somewhere else. In the days of British imperialism, the young colonies spread around the coastline of the Australian continent were viewed as outposts of the British Empire. The centuries that followed have seen the sense of Australian identity continue to evolve as people came to Australia from not only Britain, but from many other countries–bringing their own cultures, beliefs, values and ways of life. Change has not always been embraced. In the early twentieth century, for instance, the belief held by many that Australia should remain predominantly 'white and British' led to the passing of the *Immigration Restriction Act* by the newly formed Commonwealth Government in 1901.



SOURCE 6.1.2 Cover of *The Australian Women's Weekly*, January 1951, which celebrated fifty years since Federation. Held at the National Library of Australia

1957 'Bring out a Briton' campaign is launched

1958 Dictation test is abolished as a means of assessing the suitability of migrants wanting to come to Australia

1966 Migrants are accepted into Australia based on their skills and qualifications rather than their cultural heritage

1960

1968 Division of Assimilation within the Department of Immigration is renamed Division of Integration

1970 By this time, 2.5 million Australians were born overseas

1973 Remnants of the White Australia policy are formally dismantled

1975 *Racial Discrimination Act* is passed; end of Vietnam War and first arrivals of refugees from Vietnam

1980 By this time, 40 000 Vietnamese refugees and asylum seekers had arrived in Australia

1980

1995 For the first time, migrants from Britain are not the largest group arriving in Australia—New Zealanders represent the largest group

1988 Celebration of the Bicentenary of European settlement in Australia leads to debate about the concept of multiculturalism

1989 Tiananmen Square massacre leads to 20 000 Chinese students being allowed to stay in Australia

1992 Mandatory detention for refugees arriving in Australia without visas is introduced

2007 Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs is renamed Department of Immigration and Citizenship

11 September 2001 Terrorist attacks occur in the United States, prompting public xenophobia

2000

2002 Terrorist attacks in Bali, Indonesia, kill 202 people, including eighty-eight Australians

December 2005 Race riots occur in Cronulla, Sydney

2011 Australia's population moves past 22.5 million people; over a quarter born overseas

POST–WORLD WAR II MULTICULTURALISM

The turbulent nature of the world after World War II, and the eventual end of the White Australia policy, has brought refugees and migrants to Australia from virtually every country in the world. They have brought with them new ideas, hopes, dreams, and have forever changed the social landscape of Australia. The road to the multicultural Australia of today from the White Australia policies that existed right up to the 1970s has been a bumpy one, especially for those wanting to make a new home for themselves and their families in Australia. Australia's expectations of migrants, their value to the country, and whether cultural change has been a positive outcome, are topics that are often discussed and debated in modern society.



SOURCE 6.1.3

Fake flag, by Constanze Zikos, paint, crayon, metallic and plastic self-adhesive tape on cardboard, 1994. Held at the National Gallery of Victoria. Through this work of art, Zikos is commenting on the diversity of Australia's social and cultural identity.

Q **What was the artist's intention in creating this work of art?**

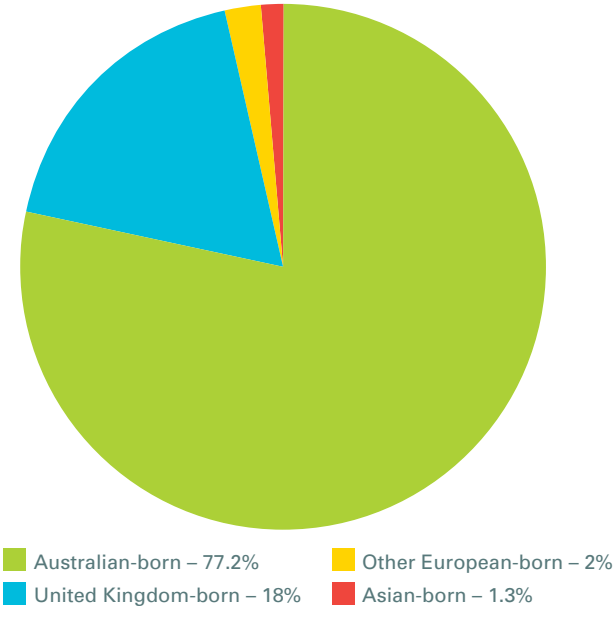


KEEPING AUSTRALIA 'WHITE'

POPULATION OF AUSTRALIA IN 1901

The population of Australia at the turn of the twentieth century was about 3.8 million and is best described as being predominantly **Anglo-Celtic**, meaning most Australians were either born in the British Isles or descended from people born there. Of those born outside Australia and not of Anglo-Celtic origin, the largest groups were from Germany, China and New Zealand. Combined, these countries accounted for roughly 2.5 per cent of the total population, and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples made up an estimated 2.4 per cent.

Although 77 per cent of Australians were born in Australia in 1901, many still referred to Britain as the **'mother country'** and held the belief that British culture and institutions were superior and desirable. Australia's legal, political and economic systems largely mirrored those of Britain, as did the general 'way of life' of most Australians. This made perfect sense to most Australians. But for many it also reflected the broadly held beliefs associated with **social Darwinism**.



SOURCE 6.2.1 Australia's population in 1901. Figures from 1901 Australian Snapshot, (Cat. No. 1301.0), Australian Bureau of Statistics

ORIGINS OF THE WHITE AUSTRALIA POLICY

Although Charles Darwin never applied his theories on 'the survival of the fittest' to human beings and society, some people did and used this to justify the belief that some cultures and races were naturally superior to others and therefore deserved to be dominant. Such ideas rationalised the mistreatment of indigenous people around the world, and the lack of respect for their cultures by many Europeans as they colonised their lands. It also led to a belief in the need for racial and cultural purity to protect the superiority and strength of 'white' European races and cultures.

Throughout the 1800s, migrants from many parts of the world began to come to Australia in search of better lives, new opportunities and wealth. Hastened by developments such as the gold rushes of the 1850s and the increasing demand for labour in rural Australia, the arrival of people from China and the Pacific Islands began to challenge many Australians' sense of national identity just as it was beginning to form. The emergence of laws and regulations designed to discourage and restrict non-British people from coming to Australia became known as the **White Australia policy**, and would become one of the primary reasons for the push towards federation.



SOURCE 6.2.2 Photograph of a Melbourne family of British descent, taken in the 1880s. Held at the State Library of Victoria



SOURCE 6.2.3 Chinese workers at a court house in Burketown, Queensland, 1900. Held at the State Library of Queensland

CHINESE IN THE COLONIES

As one of the main reasons for federation, migration became a particularly emotive issue that was regularly debated and explored in the media of the time. Most people and political groups in Australia believed that Australia should be a country for 'whites only', which meant British. Apart from Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, from the earliest times of European settlement there were people of non-British heritage living in Australia. Chinese people, for instance, had worked in Australia as indentured servants (referred to as 'coolies') in a range of occupations for decades. But a steady rise in the number of Chinese people coming to Australia in search of wealth from the 1850s gold rushes in Victoria, New South Wales, Queensland and Western Australia, began to concern many Anglo-Celtic Australians. By 1861, there were 38 258 Chinese-born people living in Australia, accounting for 3.4 per cent of the total population (a figure that has never been surpassed).

Anglo-Celtic miners on the goldfields were suspicious and resentful of Chinese people because of their different appearance, language, religion and work practices. They were met with open hostility by many and in some cases, such as the Lambing Flat riots in 1861, were subjected to violent attacks. Despite this, many Chinese people persevered and once profits from gold mining dried up they returned to China. However, some remained and worked in agriculture or moved into nearby towns to establish businesses. Even though numbers of Chinese people in Australia decreased in the 1890s, resentment towards them seemed to increase due to economic depression and a belief that Chinese workers were taking the jobs of Anglo-Celtic Australians. Furniture and other products were even stamped to indicate they were made by European labour.

Between 1855 and 1890, the colonies introduced more than two dozen Acts to restrict the entry of Chinese people into Australia. They varied from colony to colony, but included measures such as poll taxes upon entry to a colony, tariffs on goods made by Chinese workers, and dictation tests. Such measures have been broadly referred to as the White Australia policy; although such a policy was never formally written, the intent of these measures was very clear.

PACIFIC ISLANDERS IN QUEENSLAND

Another group specifically targeted under the White Australia policy were workers on the sugarcane plantations of Queensland from the Pacific Islands, referred to at the time as **Kanakas**. From the 1860s through to the early 1900s, workers from the Pacific Islands were recruited, and often violently kidnapped, by 'blackbirders' to be contracted as cheap labour. For many Kanakas this amounted to little more than slavery, but supporters of the practice referred to it as **indentured labour**. They were paid only a fifth of that awarded to Anglo-Celtic labourers doing the same job, often having that pay given to them 'in kind' as food and board. If they ran away they were then captured and imprisoned for three months.



SOURCE 6.2.4 Family, troops and Pacific Islander labourers (Kanakas), 1895. Held at the Australian Stockman's Hall of Fame and Outback Heritage Centre

Q What aspects of British culture have been adopted by the Pacific Islanders in this photograph?

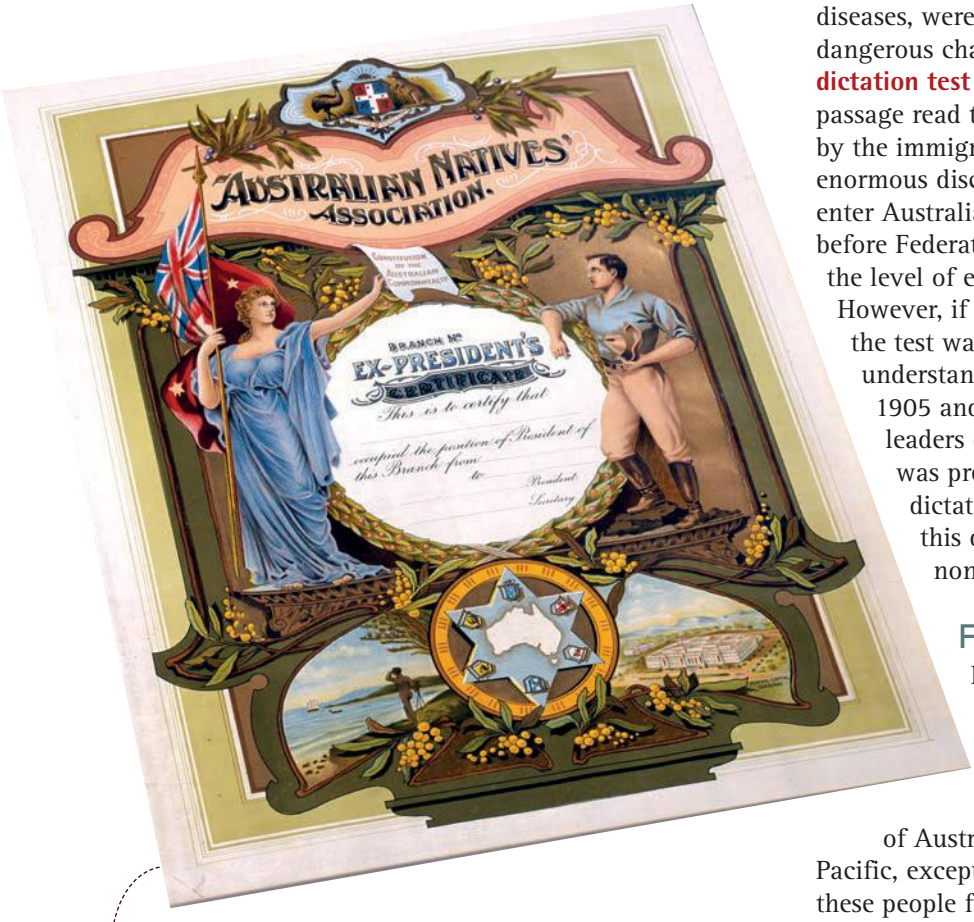
Despite efforts by the Queensland Government to regulate the practice of **blackbirding**, plantation owners claimed that they were unable to find enough Anglo-Celtic workers prepared to do the work; as this was such a profitable industry for the colony, the practice continued. As was the case with Chinese workers, during the economic depression of the 1890s, trade unions and many in the media claimed that Kanakas were undermining the working conditions of Anglo-Celtic workers. Many people from other colonies wanted the practice of blackbirding stopped, which caused significant tension between these colonies and Queensland.

ARGUMENTS TO RESTRICT IMMIGRATION

The inconsistency of immigration laws from colony to colony called for a Commonwealth Government that could consistently coordinate immigration for all Australian colonies, with a view to keeping Australia 'white'. The British Government disapproved of laws that directly restricted the immigration of any particular race into their colonies as they feared protest from their multiracial empire. Many people in Australia resented the British Government's refusal to allow tougher measures. This strengthened the move towards federation.

The arguments to restrict immigration came down to:

- the belief that non-British workers could be paid less and this would worsen employment prospects for Anglo-Celtic Australians
- the belief that 'white' races were superior and that inter-marriage between races should be prevented to protect racial purity
- the belief that the British-based 'way of life' would be threatened by too many people of non-British races living in Australia.



SOURCE 6.2.5 A certificate issued to past presidents of the Australian Natives' Association after Federation. This association supported immigration restriction and provided benefits to Australian-born members, one of whom was Prime Minister Alfred Deakin. Held at Museum Victoria

IMMIGRATION LAWS

One of the first things the new Australian federal government addressed was the passing of two laws specifically designed to restrict migration into Australia.

- The *Pacific Islander Labourers Act* was passed on 17 December 1901.
- The *Immigration Restriction Act* became law on 23 December 1901, and remained in place until 1958.

PACIFIC ISLANDER LABOURERS ACT

The *Pacific Islander Labourers Act* allowed Kanaka labourers to keep working on the Queensland sugarcane plantations as cheap labour. In 1906, the Act was amended and enforced the deportation of all Pacific Islander workers unless they had lived in Australia for a continuous period of twenty years, owned property, or had married women from other races.

IMMIGRATION RESTRICTION ACT

The *Immigration Restriction Act* allowed the government greater powers over who could and could not come to Australia, including those suffering from contagious diseases, were criminals, or were 'of a loathsome or dangerous character'. In particular, the use of a fifty-word **dictation test** where applicants had to correctly write a passage read to them in any European language prescribed by the immigration officer, gave immigration officials enormous discretion over who they deemed suitable to enter Australia. Similar tests had been used by the colonies before Federation, and in South Africa, to determine the level of education of people wishing to immigrate. However, if the applicant was considered 'undesirable' the test was given in a language they were unlikely to understand. When Britain became allies with Japan in 1905 and wanted to maintain good relations with the leaders of the country, the Australian Government was pressured to change the Act. From 1905, the dictation test could be given in any language, but this did little to change the outcome for most non-British migrants.

FURTHER LAWS

Further Acts were passed, such as the *Commonwealth Franchise Act (1902)* and the *Naturalisation Act (1903)*, which denied the right to vote and the right to being naturalised to 'aboriginal native[s] of Australia, Asia, Africa or the Islands of the Pacific, except New Zealand'. Such Acts also excluded these people from invalid and old-age pensions, maternity allowance, and many other benefits provided by the federal government. The *Post and Telegraph Act (1901)* even prevented 'non-whites' from handling the mail in an attempt to protect employment in this area. The message was very clear that Australia was for 'whites only'.



SOURCE 6.2.6 A poster advertising a play produced in Melbourne, 1909. Its theme was the invasion of Australia. Held at the State Library of Victoria

Q How do Sources 6.2.5 and 6.2.6 reflect the attitudes of Australians in the early 1900s?

BETWEEN THE WARS

The White Australia policy was hailed by many as a great success, and in 1919 Prime Minister William 'Billy' Hughes declared it 'the greatest thing we have achieved'. In fact, he had threatened British Prime Minister David Lloyd George that he would leave the Paris Peace Conference of 1919 if the Japanese request for a statement of racial equality was included in the Covenant of the League of Nations—such was his commitment to protecting a 'white Australia'.

The principles of the White Australia policy survived the period between the world wars, even though the Australian Government was by no means completely against the idea of immigration. In the 1920s, the need for migrants to help bolster the growth of the Australian economy saw the Bruce-Page federal government adopt the British policy of 'Men, Money and Markets', which necessitated the arrival of more migrants to increase demand for products and provide labour to growing industries. British loans and migrants would help stimulate the Australian economy, while improving markets for British producers and profits for British investors. This was a policy promoted by Britain across the entire British Empire.

Between 1922 and 1931, 282 000 British migrants arrived in Australia, many receiving government assistance, and in 1926 the Development and Migration Commission was established to coordinate the assisted settlement of British migrants. It was believed that 'the ties of kinship' between Britain and Australia would ensure the successful settlement of British migrants in Australia, further propagating a belief in the benefits of a 'white Australia'. Yet many failed in this pursuit, as despite being provided with land and resources, wool and wheat prices were falling and they could not turn poor land into a profitable enterprise or find reliable markets.

However, with the introduction of Immigration Restriction Acts in the United States of America in 1921 and 1924, some non-British Europeans started to look towards Australia as a possible destination. Although some were accepted, they were generally resented as foreigners. For example, up until 1921, only 8100 Australians declared their birthplace to be Italy; by 1930, this number had risen to 23 928, with many settling in rural areas and becoming involved in agriculture. In Queensland, such was the success of the farming practices of some Italian-born sugarcane farmers that in 1926 resentment against them led to the Australian Workers' Union refusing to handle 'Italian-grown' sugar.

TREATMENT OF 'ENEMY ALIENS'

WORLD WAR I

At the outbreak of World War I (1914–18), the *War Precautions Act (1914)* was passed, giving the Commonwealth Government wide-ranging powers to act against perceived threats to national security. Many of the 100 000 people of German descent living in Australia were being viewed with suspicion by some Australians before this Act was passed, and the provisions under the Act, along with others like it, heightened and confirmed this distrust. Many Australians refused to buy German beer or German-made products; they refused to deal with businesses owned by German-Australians, and even banned music by German composers. Towns with German-sounding names had them changed, and anti-German sentiment forced the sacking and resignation of fellow workers and public officials, such as South Australian Attorney-General Hermann Homburg's resignation in 1915. Despite this, about 18 000 young men of German heritage enlisted in the Australian Imperial Force, with some **anglicising** their German-sounding names before joining to fight against Germany and its allies.

The Commonwealth Defence Department classified 6890 people as 'enemy aliens', including women and children, of mostly German or Austro-Hungarian descent. Some had been sent to Australia by the British from places in South-East Asia; some were sailors stranded in Australia when war broke out. But many were from German families that had lived in Australia for many generations. Most spent time in **internment camps** at places like Holsworthy, Trial Bay, Berrima and Bourke in New South Wales. Generally they made the most of life in the camps, participating in sports and the arts. At the end of the war, 6150 Germans and other enemy aliens were **deported**. Discrimination against people of German descent continued into the 1920s.

DID YOU KNOW?

Australia's most famous World War I commander was the son of German-Jewish migrants. General Sir John Monash (the family name was originally Monasch) was the commander of the Australian Imperial Force's fourth brigade in Egypt in 1914.

WORLD WAR II

Australia had begun receiving small numbers of immigrants fleeing the Nazi regime in Europe before the outbreak of World War II. Once World War II began immigration virtually ceased. Over 51 000 people were categorised as 'aliens' and those deemed to be enemy aliens (22 314) were registered by the government. A total of 5228 people were interned in camps for the duration of the war at places such as Hay and Holsworthy in New South Wales, Tatura in Victoria, Rottnest Island in Western Australia, and Enoggera in Queensland.

Unlike World War I, many of the camps also held some of the 19 000 **prisoners of war**, who were mostly Italian, Japanese or German. Although the majority of the prisoners of war were Italian (14 720), many were content to work on farms under minimal supervision. The escape of over 500 Japanese prisoners of war from the camp at Cowra (central western New South Wales) in August 1944 caused quite a panic for locals in the surrounding district. Although they were eventually recaptured, the event resulted in half of the prisoners being killed or wounded. Prisoners of war were repatriated to their country of origin after the war.

SOURCE 6.2.7 Camp café at Holsworthy Internment Camp, photo taken around 1915, Dubotzki collection, Germany. Held at the Historic Houses Trust, NSW

Q **What does this source reveal about life in internment camps? What are the limitations of this source as historical evidence?**



The arrival of the HMT *Dunera* on 6 September 1940 is the most well-known example of refugees coming to Australia during World War II. The refugees on the HMT *Dunera* were mostly Jewish people of German descent fleeing the Nazi regime. The Commonwealth Government agreed to accept the 2000 men after they were redirected from Britain, having been originally told they were going to Canada. On board were also 200 Italian prisoners of war and 250 Nazis.

The journey to Australia was rough and tense. Many artists, musicians, religious leaders and well-educated men were among the group. Once interned, they settled in and set up rich cultural and academic programs at the camps they were brought to. At the end of the war, more than half of the 'Dunera Boys' remained in Australia, many making significant contributions to Australian society in a range of fields.

When, during World War II, Prime Minster John Curtin stated 'this country shall remain forever the home of the descendants of those people who came here in peace in order to establish in the South Seas an outpost of the British race' he reaffirmed a commitment to the White Australia policy.

> *We who arrived in Sydney on HMT* Dunera *on September 6th 1940 have indeed been lucky. Had we travelled in peacetime on a scheduled P&O liner, our shipboard friends, who became our extended family, would have been but acquaintances; we would have been more shallow and narrow-minded. The experience was a great leveller—we were all equal in misfortune.*
>
> *We could hardly have had a less promising start in a new land: uninvited, unwanted, many of us unskilled and penniless, in tattered clothes, without kith or kin, strangers to its language and customs.*
>
> *Yet the thousand who stayed can look back with pride on the contributions they have made to this country, unique for so small a group.*
>
> *Australia has been good to us. Like good wine, given the right soil, climate and time, we have matured and improved with age.*
>
> *We have been able to repay our debt with interest—and gratitude.*

SOURCE 6.2.8 Horst Jacobs' reflections upon being a 'Dunera Boy'. He arrived in Australia on the HMT *Dunera* in 1940.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- anglicising
- Anglo-Celtic
- blackbirding
- deported
- dictation test
- indentured labour
- internment camps
- Kanakas
- 'mother country'
- prisoners of war
- social Darwinism
- White Australia policy

2 Refer to Source 6.2.1. How can Australia's population in 1901 be best described?

3 Explain why Australians promoted the British 'way of life' in Australia in 1901. How does Source 6.2.2 reflect this?

4 Explain the intention of the White Australia policy and how it was implemented.

5 What were the reasons for implementation of the *Immigration Restriction Act (1901)*?

6 What was the basis of the decision to increase immigration to Australia during the 1920s and 1930s? To what extent did the approach of the government reflect the views of the time?

Applying and creating

7 Design two posters set in Australia during World War II that present opposing views on the internment of enemy aliens. One poster should include a slogan, images and creative methods of making the point that people deemed to be enemy aliens should be interned for the course of the war. The other should include a slogan, images and creative methods of making the point that people deemed to be enemy aliens should not be interned for the course of the war.

Creating

8 In small groups, create a rhyming rap that outlines the attitudes and actions of the Australian people and government towards immigration in the years up to the end of World War II.

9 Research the experiences of enemy aliens interned in Australia during World War II. Create a series of diary entries for a fictional character interned in one of the camps, reflecting upon his/her experiences.



UNIT 3

POPULATE OR PERISH

AUSTRALIAN SOCIETY IN 1945 AND THE PUSH FOR IMMIGRATION

In 1945, at the end of World War II, Australia's population was 7.5 million people. Low birth rates during the Great Depression and the impacts of World War II had not only led to slow population growth, but also a general neglect of infrastructure resulting in badly needed building programs, and a lack of skilled labour to carry them out. After the war, the Chifley Labor Government established the Department of Immigration with Arthur Calwell appointed Australia's first Minister for Immigration.

> *The Honourable Member's question draws attention to a grave state of affairs which has been causing every thoughtful Australian great concern for some time past. The sad truth is that Australia as we know it is 160 years old, but we are slowly bleeding to death. If the net rate of reproduction does not improve, we will be finished as a nation at the end of another 50 years.*

SOURCE 6.3.1 Response by Minister for Immigration Arthur Calwell to a question in parliament about the state of the Australian population, 29 April 1947

Q **What does Arthur Calwell mean when he refers to Australia being '160 years old'? What does this imply about the type of Australia he is talking about?**

Following World War II, **'Populate or perish'** became the slogan used to promote the push to increase Australia's population. The concept had already been applied in Australia as early as 1907 by some promoting increased immigration, and by former Prime Minister William 'Billy' Hughes in the 1930s. Considering Australia's sparse population in a vast continent, and recent threats to border security by Japan during World War II, 'Populate or perish' was an emotive slogan, the meaning of which was very clear to most Australians. The main arguments for increasing Australia's population were:

- A larger population and workforce were required to help stimulate post-war economic growth and wealth.
- New workers would bring new skills and talents to help Australia's development.
- A larger population would make Australia less of a target for the populous Asian nations to the north, providing more people for defence and justifying the possession of so much land.

WHITE AUSTRALIA POLICY AND 'ACCEPTABLE' MIGRANTS

Calwell's plan was to increase Australia's population by 2 per cent (150 000 people) per year, with 1 per cent coming from natural increase and a further 1 per cent from immigration. British migrants were preferred and Calwell hoped that for every non-British migrant there would be ten from Britain. Some immigrated to Australia unassisted, but the vast majority of British immigrants wanting to escape the cold weather and food rationing of war-torn Britain were offered **assisted passage**:

- Free passage was granted for ex-servicemen.
- The assisted passage fare was £10 per adult; young children travelled for free.
- Migrants had to remain in Australia for two years or pay back the full cost of the fare.



SOURCE 6.3.2 A 1950s poster advertising emigration from Britain to Australia. Held at the Powerhouse Museum

Q **What techniques have been used in the poster to make the prospect of migrating to Australia appealing to British families?**

My father left by ship for the 6 week sail to Australia in early 1955, and arrived with no job, no money and nowhere to live. A timber machinist by trade, and with life in post-war England looking very tough, it was agreed that a better life was to be had in Australia. After arriving, he managed to pick up a job as a salesman with a Queensland timber company at a sawmill located in the bush with only a group of a dozen houses (for employees) and a sawmill. Following this, my mother then had to tidy up all the affairs in Lancashire, and sail on another boat with 3 children arriving in Sydney, then by train to Brisbane.

As fortune would have it, a newspaper photographer happened to be on the station that morning, and took a picture of the reunited family on the railway station, and this [Source 6.3.4] is a scanned copy of the only ageing photo of the event…

I think my parents had an amazing resolve, when you consider they were separated for about 6 months, travelled to live across the world, never saw their parents again, had no shops or theatres or transport, no electricity and no relatives around the corner any more, and lived in the bush, with heat, flies and snakes.

SOURCE 6.3.3 Jim Hulme's recollections about his family's migration from Britain to Australia in 1955



SOURCE 6.3.4 Jim Hulme's family reunion at a Brisbane train station, 5 August 1955. Jim Hulme is the young boy being held by his parents.

Australia's job opportunities and warmer climate ensured the scheme was reasonably successful, but the number of British migrants fell short of the target set by the government. Of the 32 000 people admitted to Australia in 1947, 23 000 were British and 9000 were non-British. Calwell began looking further afield, having already extended free passage for US ex-servicemen of European descent, and ex-servicemen from the Netherlands, Norway, France, Belgium and Denmark who had fought in resistance movements against the Nazis. Although not British, people from such countries still fit into the widening definition of a 'white Australia'.

CHILD MIGRANTS

Between 1947 and 1953, about 3200 children migrated to Australia from Britain. In fact, one of the Australian migration slogans of the period was 'the child, the best migrant'. Some believed that **child migrants** would assimilate more easily, and would be relatively cheap to accommodate and care for, making them ideal workers. British children who were orphans or came from families unable to care for them were sent to Australia and other Commonwealth countries.

Child migration continued into the 1960s. Charitable and religious organisations believed that they would be better off with the opportunities available to them in countries such as Australia. However, along with the emotional suffering of being separated from their families, many children were abused by carers and employers, and were subjected to hard labour. Although some had positive experiences, generally, the child migration scheme has been widely criticised, which has resulted in a formal apology to those affected from the Australian and British governments in 2009 and 2010 respectively.

WHY EMIGRATE?

In Europe, World War II left millions of people homeless or stranded outside their country of origin. In many cases, the wartime damage done to countries, as well as political changes such as the emergence of communist governments in some parts of the world, led to people being unable or unwilling to return home. These people were called **displaced persons**.

PUSH FACTORS

After World War II, the reasons for people wanting to emigrate differed from country to country, and often only affected some sections of communities within countries. These **push factors** were usually either economic or political:

- *Economic*: There may have been an economic downturn in their country of origin, which led to rising unemployment and limited opportunities for people to earn a living, and so they sought new opportunities elsewhere. People seeking to leave their country of origin and come to Australia for these reasons are usually referred to as 'immigrants'.

- *Political*: There may have been a change in government, or specific laws or policies, which led to people wanting to move to a new country either for their own safety or because of a desire to live in a different political environment. These people are usually referred to as 'refugees'.

PULL FACTORS

Pull factors are those that contribute to the attractiveness of a country as a destination for immigrants and refugees. Immediately following World War II, the fact that Australia was relatively untouched by the war and very distant from the problems of Europe made it an attractive place to live. The knowledge that Australia had a need for skilled people, and was offering assisted passage and the opportunity of employment also added to the country's appeal. In the years that followed, the lure of being reunited with relatives who had already migrated to Australia led to **chain migration**.

INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENTS

The recently formed United Nations set up the International Refugee Organisation (IRO) in 1946 to help resettle displaced persons. Having been relatively untouched by the ravages of war, Australia was approached by the IRO to help refugees find new homes. Australia agreed to accept at least 12 000 displaced persons a year from camps across Europe. In November 1947, people from the Baltic countries of Latvia, Estonia and Lithuania began arriving in Australia. Later refugees from Poland, Yugoslavia, Ukraine and Hungary made the journey by ship. The Displaced Persons Scheme resulted in 170 000 refugees arriving in Australia by 1953, after which the scheme ended.



SOURCE 6.3.5 Minister for Immigration Arthur Calwell greets Egyptian arrivals in 1947.

Between 1945 and 1949, one-third of the 500 000 immigrants arriving in Australia were from Britain and Ireland, and by 1949, Australia accepted any Europeans as long as they opposed communism and were under 45 years of age. Australia joined the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration in 1951 as one of its founding members. Through this and other agreements over the next decade, including becoming a signatory to the United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees in 1951, arrangements were made to accept migrants and refugees from Austria, Greece, Italy, Spain, Belgium, Malta, West Germany, the Netherlands and Eastern Europe. From 1948, the Australian Government accepted fifty Dutch farmers a month, with the Dutch Government organising their travel. Despite this surge in immigration, the federal government still protected the general principles of the White Australia policy and those arriving in Australia needed to look like they would 'fit in'.



THE AGE, MONDAY, DECEMBER 8, 1947

Happy Settlers from the Baltic

SOURCE 6.3.6 Post-war migrants from Baltic countries were preferred as it was believed they would assimilate easily due to their appearance. The government promoted the arrival of Baltic migrants with photographs of attractive young women in newspapers and magazines, such as this, to ease public concerns about non-British migration.

ASSIMILATION POLICY

'WOGS' AND 'REFFOS'

In the pursuit of a better life, many migrants endured long and arduous journeys to Australia, leaving family members and most of their possessions behind. European, non-British migrants were actively encouraged to immigrate to Australia by the Australian federal government and agencies in their country of origin. Those receiving assisted passage with the promise of employment felt needed and expected to be welcomed with open arms. But they were often met with suspicion and sometimes open hostility, being called derogatory names such as 'dagos', 'Balts', 'reffos' and 'wogs'. Some Australians were nervous that they would lose their jobs to migrants. Others were concerned about immigrants coming to Australia from

countries that were Australia's enemies during World War II. Others simply did not like the new immigrants because they were 'different' from themselves.

The government assured people that the 'New Australians' would not take the jobs of others and were important to the development of Australia; they were to be welcomed and embraced. However, the guiding principle of settling people in Australia was one of **assimilation**, where the expectation was that newly arrived ethnic groups would embrace and adopt the Australian 'way of life', which was regarded as superior. It was assumed that they would leave behind their old customs, beliefs, values, religion, dress, language and culture, ready to make a fresh start. British migrants had a distinct advantage as they spoke English and had an understanding of social conventions in 'white Australia'. But for others it was far from easy.

SOME GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

In 1949, the newly elected Liberal Party under the leadership of Prime Minister Robert Menzies continued to believe in the importance of migrants in the plan to rebuild post-war Australia. Assimilation was actively promoted through the provision of English language classes, but it became clear that migrants would learn most quickly from Australians they interacted with every day. Special ABC broadcasts promoted the contributions made to communities by 'New Australians' in an attempt to reduce prejudiced treatment of migrants. In 1950, the 'Good Neighbour' policy was promoted in cinemas and on radio, encouraging Australians to be welcoming and to help 'New Australians' settle into the Australian 'way of life'. The public were shown scenes such as:

- mock situations of English speakers trying to purchase food in a country where they did not speak the language, to engender empathy for migrants
- scenarios portraying young boys playing cricket in a park and including a 'New Australian' boy by teaching him how to play, and women inviting their 'New Australian' neighbour over for tea, cake and a chat.

Generally though, the government was encouraged to broaden the search for migrants and increase migrant numbers, as the fear that immigrants would be treated badly by Australians was mostly unfounded.

CAMPS AND HOSTELS

Important considerations for when migrants arrived in Australia included housing and ways to start them on their new life in Australia. **Migrant camps**, or hostels, were established out of disused military camps, often in remote rural areas. Camps in places like Kelso, Parkes, Cowra and Greta in New South Wales; Bonegilla near Albury in Victoria; and Woodside in South Australia, provided temporary housing and were places where migrants could receive medical care and basic necessities such as food and clothing. They also received intensive English classes and education on the Australian 'way of life', and began their preparation to take up employment in Australia.



CANBERRA
JULY, 1957
No. 42
Monthly bulletin of the Department of Immigration to assist migrants.

The Good Neighbour
incorporating The New Australian

'Bring out a Briton'

FIRST 49 FAMILIES HERE

THE FIRST 49 families to reach Australia under the 'Bring out a Briton' scheme arrived at Fremantle in the liner 'Oronsay' on June 29. The families total 172 people.

Three of the families will settle in Western Australia; 10 in South Australia; 10 in Victoria; 7 in Tasmania; 9 in New South Wales; and 10 in Queensland.

The "Bring out a Briton" scheme was launched early this year to widen the scope for British migration to Australia.

A second group of 50 families will sail in the "Strathnaver" on July 5. Meanwhile, Australian immigration officials in the United Kingdom are proceeding with the selection of more migrants for departure under the scheme.

Message

The Minister for Immigration, Mr. Athol Townley, sent a radio message to the "Oronsay" before it berthed at Fremantle.

The message said:

"As Minister for Immigration, I send a warm welcome from Australia to all the migrants aboard the "Oronsay."

The Australian people, I am sure, will join me in wishing you a happy and rewarding life in our country.

"That is the spirit of Australia, which wants to take as many British migrants as possible."

Mr. Townley boarded the ship at Melbourne on July 3 and at Sydney on July 7 to give a personal welcome to the migrants for the eastern States.

At Fremantle he was represented at a shipboard welcome by Mr. R. Chaney, M.H.R. for Swan, W.A., and at Adelaide by Mr. A. R. Downer, M.H.R. for Angas, S.A.

The "Oronsay" also carried 127 British migrants who came here on personal nominations and two Danish migrant families.

● Below: Among the first "Bring out a Briton" families on the "Oronsay" were Fred Linden, 37, from Liverpool, with his wife, Muriel, and sons, Paul, 10, and Simon, 6.

● Mr. Athol Townley

Q'LD. IMMIGRATION WEEK IN OCTOBER

THE contribution migrants have made to Australia's industries and cultural lifewill be highlighted in Queensland's second Immigration Week from October 6 to 12.

The week, which will feature the theme "Immigration Builds the Nation," will begin with a State-wide series of church services.

A graphic picture display, prepared by the Department of Immigration, will be on show at the Brisbane City Hall throughout the week.

The display includes more than 100 large-sized photographs and tells the immigration story in all its phases, from the time migrants are recruited overseas until they are assimilated into the Australian community.

Expected to watch a mid-day naturalisation ceremony in the Brisbane City Hall and hundreds more may see a "closed circuit" telecast of the ceremony outside.

Other plans for the week:

● A Statewide festival of British and Continental films staged by the Motion Pictures Exhibitors' Organisation.

● A trades display, "Background to British Migration" arranged by the U.K. Trade Commissioner, Mr. David Fell.

● Migration features, talks and music programmes on city and country radio stations.

Queensland's first Immigration Week in September, 1953, was the first to be held in Australia.

Brought greetings on 'tape'

Naturalisations

It will be supplemented by displays prepared by the Commonwealth Office of Education, the State Education Department, the three Armed Services, and the Petroleum Information Bureau.

More than 1,000 new settlers are expected to become Australian citizens at a series of naturalisation ceremonies to be held throughout the week.

Two thousand people are ex-

. . 'heard' from family

A BRITISH migrant in Brisbane recently heard tape - recorded messages from his family 12,000 miles away in Kent, England.

He is Jim Willis, who came to Australia two years ago and now manages a butcher's shop in Brisbane.

Besides special messages from his parents and five brothers and sisters, Jim heard recordings of the family's favourite skiffle music.

[Skiffle music is extemporised with the aid of pots, pans and any other home-made "instruments."]

The recordings were made at family parties by Jim's brother John (pictured above) who brought them with him when he migrated to Australia in the "Oronsay" this month.

Said John: "Jim told us that Australia is "tops" — and that is good enough for us. Now the whole family is planning to follow us here."

Jim, who worked for a firm of butchers in London, got the idea of migrating to Australia from one of his customers—Mr. R. E. Armstrong, Chief Migration Officer at Australia House, London.

SOURCE 6.3.7

Embracing 'New Australians'. Held at the State Library of New South Wales. Organisations funded by the federal government promoted the contributions of newly arrived immigrants in newspapers such as *The Good Neighbour*, a monthly publication produced by the Department of Immigration.

For people who had lived in large European cities, or had been exposed to concentration camps during World War II, the camps could be very confronting and seemed a long way from the prosperity they had sought in immigrating to Australia. Indeed, in some cases, tension was created by placing former combatants during World War II in close proximity to each other. However, this was but one of the many problems that would need to be overcome by 'New Australians'.

Huts, or 'dormitories', were mostly uncomfortable; they were made from corrugated iron and timber and had no insulation. Often a number of families had to share sleeping quarters. There were communal showers, toilets, laundries and dining rooms, with Australian camp food seeming very foreign and unappealing to the new arrivals. There were chapels for religious worship and most camps became bearable as residents organised dances, concerts, and a broad range of cultural events. The basic living conditions offered in the camps were not solely because

of financial restrictions on the part of the government. They also ensured that migrants were not too comfortable and would work hard to save money in order to move out of the camps and start their new lives in the broader Australian community.

> *We were allocated a room. I went there, slept, and got up next morning. I didn't know where I was. I just looked around all confused. I thought the sun was coming from the west!*
>
> *I stayed at Bonegilla 23 days. During that time they called me into the employment office. First, they offered me work in Queensland to cut sugar cane, but I heard there is snakes. Secondly, they wanted me to go working in a timber mill factory in Victoria. I said no but the girl from the office said, 'The government has brought you here to work. It's alright to refuse one job and the second, but the third one you accept.' I didn't pay any money to come over to Australia but I had signed a contract that required me to work for two years and then I could leave.*

SOURCE 6.3.8 Extract from the story of George Kotsiros, recounting his time at the Bonegilla migrant camp in 1955



SOURCE 6.3.9 Men helping each other build a house, 1951. The two men on the right are Ukrainian; the heritage of the other two is unknown. It was more common than it is today for people to build their own houses with the help of friends and relatives. Held at Museum Victoria

Q **How might this practice contribute to developing a sense of community, particularly among migrants?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- assimilation
- assisted passage
- chain migration
- child migrants
- displaced persons
- migrant camps
- 'Populate or perish'
- pull factors
- push factors

2 Who was Arthur Calwell?

3 Explain why the federal government decided to increase migration to Australia after World War II. How does Source 6.3.1 demonstrate the importance of the 'Populate or perish' belief?

4 How was the White Australia policy applied to immigration policy immediately after World War II?

5 Construct a diagram illustrating the reasons for people emigrating from Europe to Australia after World War II.

Understanding and analysing

6 **a** How did the aftermath of World War II in Europe, and the agreements made between Australia and other countries and organisations during this period, affect immigration to Australia?

b Explain how Australia was taking a more active role in world affairs during this period.

7 Who were 'child migrants'? Explain the similarities between this practice and those carried out on the Stolen Generations of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

8 List some of the possible difficulties faced by the family in Sources 6.3.3 and 6.3.4 upon arrival to Australia.

9 What do Sources 6.3.5 and 6.3.6 each indicate about the importance of migration to Australia at this time?

10 What general beliefs did the policy of assimilation reflect?

Understanding and evaluating

11 Give at least two reasons why non-British migrants were not warmly welcomed by some Australians.

12 What does Source 6.3.7 contribute to our knowledge of the treatment of immigrants coming to Australia at this time?

Creating

13 Using the knowledge you have gained from the sources and text in this unit, draw a cartoon that reflects the experiences of migrants in Australia during the late 1940s and the 1950s; **or**, in small groups, draft a script for a short performance reflecting on the experiences of migrants in Australia during the late 1940s and the 1950s. Perform your play for the class.



BUILDING A NATION

From the 1950s through to the early 1970s, Australia, like many other Western countries, enjoyed new economic expansion and prosperity. After the difficult social and economic conditions experienced during the Great Depression, World War II and the first years of post-war recovery, now was the time of **nation building**. This meant that the Australian federal and state governments adopted policies aimed at fostering economic growth and social development. As a wartime measure in 1942, the federal government took control of income tax. This increased power was retained after the war, giving the federal government greater financial resources that it could invest in nation building, either directly or through grants to the states. To deal with labour shortages, continued migration was regarded by the federal government as necessary for this new phase of nation building.



SOURCE 6.4.1 European migrants arriving in Australia in 1954. Held at the National Archives of Australia

IMMIGRANTS' CONTRIBUTIONS TO NATION BUILDING

Immigrants made enormous contributions to the reconstruction of Australia after World War II and, by 1966, accounted for one-seventh of the Australian population. They worked in the building, mining, power and steel industries. In agriculture, they saved fruit and vegetable crops from being left unharvested and established their own farms. They were a vital part of the labour force for public works such as railways, roads and hospitals. While some took a short while to be allocated work, others were employed virtually as they walked off the ships. The car manufacturing industry was particularly active in recruiting anyone with the skills the booming industry required.



SOURCE 6.4.2 Migrant labourers working in a Victorian motor vehicle production plant, 1959. Held at the National Archives of Australia

The large, mostly young and energetic workforce initially contributed to increased output in building materials, and helped build new homes for the growing Australian population experiencing a 'baby boom' in the post–World War II period. Cities expanded, new suburbs grew, and although causing some overcrowding and stress on resources and infrastructure (such as schools and hospitals), eventually immigrants also had the desired effect of increasing demand for goods and services due to the ever-growing population.

Some immigrant families became business owners in their own right and, often by pooling their resources, extended families started small businesses that for some would grow to be become multimillion dollar enterprises, such as Frank Lowy and the Westfield retail business group. They helped lay the foundations for ongoing economic growth and development for the following decades and the prosperity that Australia still enjoys today. Even at the time, the significance of the contributions made by immigrant workers was acknowledged not only by government and industry, but also the general public, which added greatly to their growing acceptance into Australian society.

THE SNOWY MOUNTAINS HYDRO-ELECTRIC SCHEME

One of the most well-known projects to be worked on by immigrants was the Snowy Mountains Hydro-electric Scheme in New South Wales. Work began on the project in 1949 as an initiative of the Labor federal government under Prime Minister Ben Chifley. The plan was to use the power of melting snow and ice and the subsequent flow of water to generate electricity, with the water then being redirected to irrigation projects for farming. It involved the construction of sixteen major dams, 145 kilometres of underground tunnels and pipeline, and seven power stations. In today's terms, it cost about 1 billion dollars to build. It is still the biggest project of its type ever undertaken in Australia. By the time it was completed in 1974, immigrants from over thirty countries comprised two-thirds of its workforce.

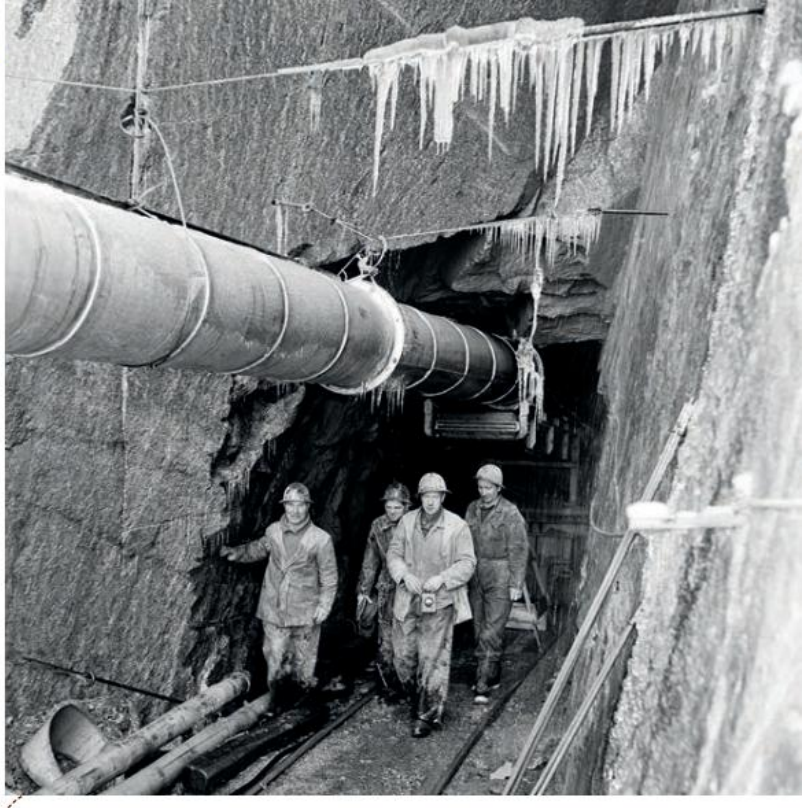
Along with unskilled labourers, scientists, engineers, and experts on geology, tunnelling, hydrology and surveying were recruited to help complete the project. The nearby towns of Cooma and Tumut soon began providing a variety of new foods to cater for the wide cultural range of workers, and whole towns of tents and sheds were established to accommodate the workforce. Assimilating to the Australian lifestyle was not pursued by most of the workers as migrants were in the majority, despite being quite a varied mix. The country of origin of most of the workers remained very obvious through their language and dress, with German, Estonian or Polish sections of the camps, for example, developing their own distinct character.

a *For the first few days I was worried (about hostility towards Germans)... but you could see almost straight away there was nothing to worry about. Everyone just seemed to be glad to be here... It was a happy time... The war was behind us... we were all starting again.*
Hein Bergerhausen

b *I'd four years in the (Australian) army—I could have hated those German chaps as much as anyone, but I couldn't see the sense in it. We were there to do a job. The war was over and they were there to kick off again and start a new life.*
Tom Little, Snowy Mountains Authority foreman

SOURCE 6.4.3 Workers Hein Bergerhausen (a) and Tom Little, Snowy Mountains Authority foremen (b) share their experiences working on the Snowy Mountains Hydro-electric Scheme.

Q How do the comments in this source support each other? What do they indicate about the attitude towards building a new nation after World War II?



SOURCE 6.4.4 Norwegian miners working on a Snowy Mountains Hydro-electric Scheme construction site, 1952. Held at the National Archives of Australia

HARDSHIPS EXPERIENCED

For many migrants, Australia was not the land of opportunity they had hoped for.

- Many highly educated migrants, such as medical doctors and other professionals, soon discovered that their qualifications were not recognised in Australia and found themselves deployed as 'factory fodder' and other forms of manual labour.
- Families were often separated shortly after arrival. Men were sometimes sent many hundreds of kilometres from the migrant camps. This caused considerable hardship as some men did not see their families until after their two-year agreement concluded.
- Some migrants were taken advantage of in the workplace; migrant women in particular were often paid lower wages than they were entitled to and were deprived of the working conditions enjoyed by other Australians.
- Many migrants found themselves unable to move beyond the most lowly paid jobs with few prospects for improving their situation, and usually they were first to be laid-off if business was going badly.
- Trade unions had little interest in the particular problems faced by migrants. With poor English-language skills and only limited union support, many found themselves working long hours with minimal rewards, making them feel powerless and unhappy. This was particularly the case for those whose qualifications were not recognised in Australia. Facing discrimination at work and sometimes prejudice in the broader community, they began to question their decision to come to Australia.

After finishing my scholarship at Technical College in 1962 in Poland, I thought I was the smartest young man in the world. I had two choices: either join friends on conscription to the military forces or start working in the coal mines. However I picked a third choice: why not join my family, my father, in Australia? He had come to Australia as an immigrant in the Post War Scheme. I went to see my mother first who had resided in Germany due to World War II.

[On] 17 January 1962, I disembarked a ship called the Roma *in Sydney Port after three months at sea. I expected my father to welcome me but he was waiting on a different Pier. My cabin friend met his brother and they decided to give me a lift to Blacktown. It was a very hot day and I was dressed in [a] European, fashionable brown winter suit. They dropped me off at the Police Station and the Police directed me in the direction of the address I had for my father. I walked for over an hour and arrived at the address that I had, which was an overgrown block of land with a tiny garage at the back. The next door neighbour was Australian and she was in the 20s; she guessed who I was and took me to another house that was a few doors down where a German family lived. I couldn't speak any English and it was at this house that I finally met my father.*

After two weeks I found work with the NSW Railways in the Wagon Repair Shop. This job did not recognise my qualifications as a metallurgist. I got a job as a labourer, separating metal scraps. My immediate boss was a truck driver. He was as Aussie as could be and he helped me a lot to learn English. He would bring in comic books and this is how I learnt to speak and read English. I decided that I needed to have my qualifications recognised so I enrolled into the Technical College at Ultimo. I was puzzled why my qualifications were not recognised in Australia. All the students in my course were quite nice but after the first two years in Australia I did consider returning home to Poland. After three years of study I again graduated and I quickly got a job in my industry in a Supervisor's role.

SOURCE 6.4.5 From an interview conducted in October 2011 with Jerzy (George) Zagora, who immigrated to Australia from Poland

RESISTANCE TO ASSIMILATION

The policy of assimilation may have made perfect sense to the government and people of Australia. However, immigrants came to Australia with their own very rich cultures from old and well-developed civilisations. Apart from **'visible luggage'** such as food and clothes, they also brought with them **'invisible luggage'**: things that the government was expecting in terms of work-related skills such as their ideas, skills and energy, but they also brought their language, culture, religion, beliefs, customs, music, art, literature and sport. Unwilling, and more so, unable to give up these things, migrants formed communities through their common identity. They formed social and sporting clubs, set up newspapers, held cultural events, organised the importation or production of traditional foods, and established restaurants to serve their cuisine.

DID YOU KNOW?

Pellegrini's Espresso Bar and Legend Café lay claim to being Melbourne's first 'real' espresso bars. They opened their doors in 1954 and 1956 respectively.

With more than 2.5 million Australians having been born overseas by 1970, aspects of their cultures impacted on the whole community. Prior to World War II, most Australians' diet was based on British traditions; they did not dine out at restaurants very often, and drinking wine with meals was unusual. But, as time went on, Australians increasingly came to enjoy the foods and recipes of migrant cultures, and dined out with family and friends at the local Italian or Greek restaurant. The interest in foreign cuisine created a market for quality wine production in Australia. Foods such as pizza, souvlaki and kebabs became popular. New types of vegetables such as zucchini and capsicums, fruits, nuts, and even flowers broadened choices and tastes. Meanwhile, those who liked to be well dressed now looked to a more European style of clothing and valued the skills and flair of migrant tailors and dressmakers.



SOURCE 6.4.6 Cartoon illustrating the changes taking place in Australian society after World War II

> *I believe in a multicultural society for Australia as unavoidable and desirable. It pains me to remember the chronic boredom of the predominantly Anglo-Saxon Australia of my youth. When I returned to live in the country after World War II, the presence of so-called ethnics is what made it bearable, and since then, their contributions have made life increasingly interesting.*

SOURCE 6.4.7 Extract of a letter from Patrick White to Geoffrey Blainey, written in 1984, quoted in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 8 November 2002. Famous Australian novelist Patrick White provides his thoughts on the influence of migrants on Australian culture in this letter. At the time, historian Professor Geoffrey Blainey sparked a debate over the success and appropriateness of multiculturalism in Australia.

Q
1. **What is the point being made by Patrick White? What specific 'contributions' do you think he might be referring to?**
2. **How does Source 6.4.6 support the comments made by Patrick White?**

CULTURAL ENCLAVES

Another example of the failure of assimilation as a policy was the growing number of suburbs becoming dominated by one particular cultural group. As immigrants arrived in Australia and eventually moved beyond the migrant camps, many tended to settle in suburbs with their relatives or others from the same country, forming **enclaves** with churches, clubs and sporting teams. It made them feel more secure to be near those who spoke the same language as they did, who had the same cultural background, beliefs and values, and had common experiences. It was often easier to share resources or gain access to specific traditional products.

In these situations, assimilation had at least partly failed: in many cases adult members of these communities rarely dealt with those outside the cultural group, though compared to many other countries this was a very small percentage of migrants. For some it took a number of generations to move beyond the confines of these suburbs, while for other Australians cultural enclaves became a source of mistrust and prejudice.

Generally, however, the Australian community was embracing the richness of culture and range of choices that came with the arrival of new ethnic groups to their shores. In this way, not only did Australian society change what it ate and how it dressed, but also the Australian 'way of life' began to evolve and would continue to do so as new groups of immigrants arrived in Australia.

INTEGRATION

Over time, it became clear that the policy of assimilation was not working for all migrants or the broader Australian community. While some found it relatively easy to adapt to the Australian lifestyle, many others struggled and clung to their traditional culture and communities. They were becoming marginalised, and for 16 per cent of migrants in the early 1960s, leaving Australia and returning home seemed like the best option. It was also becoming obvious that the contributions made to cultural life in Australia by migrants were increasingly valued, and so the government gradually moved towards a policy of **integration**. Integration acknowledged that different cultural groups had something to offer Australian society and should be encouraged to do so. No longer were they expected to give up their traditional customs, values and beliefs for those of the dominant, established Australian culture.

Government policies and community expectations of migrants gradually changed during the 1960s, and in 1968, the Division of Assimilation within the Department of Immigration was renamed the Division of Integration. Programs in a range of languages began to be broadcast on the radio, with the goal of keeping non-English speakers connected to the broader community and current events. Some schools started catering for students from non–English speaking backgrounds, and workplaces were more aware of the specific needs of migrant workers, for example by printing safety signs in foreign languages. The Australian Broadcasting Commission (ABC) introduced a television program to help people learn English.

Although such provisions did not solve all problems for migrants, their situation and particular needs were better recognised by the community at large. This shift in policy also influenced how Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were regarded, as is evident by the successful 1967 referendum. In the case of both migrants and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, there were still many in Australia who resented anyone receiving special treatment. But one could argue the move towards integration was a move towards enabling everyone to have the same opportunities.



SOURCE 6.4.8 Greek migrants in Adelaide celebrating Greece's national day in the Greek Community Centre, 1963. Held at the National Archives of Australia



SOURCE 6.4.9 Chinatown in Melbourne. Chinese New Year is celebrated widely by the Chinese community in Australia.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- enclaves
- integration
- 'invisible luggage'
- nation building
- 'visible luggage'

2 Construct a mind map summarising the contributions made by migrants to Australia both economically and culturally.

Understanding and applying

3 Explain why 'cultural enclaves' developed in some parts of Australia. List any specific suburbs you can think of that are or have been cultural enclaves, and which cultures dominated them.

Understanding and analysing

4 How did the Snowy Mountains Hydro-electric Scheme benefit both Australia and migrants?

5 Explain why the policy of integration was adopted and the impact this had on Australian society and migrants.

Analysing and evaluating

6 Of the hardships faced by migrants listed in the text, which do you imagine would be the most difficult to overcome? Explain why this might be the case.

Creating

7 Design an advertising poster from one of the following perspectives:

- the Australian Government promoting immigration to Australia to prospective immigrants overseas
- a disappointed immigrant already in Australia warning others against immigrating to Australia
- an immigrant already in Australia who is happy they made the move and is encouraging others to do the same.

Make sure that you include a suitable headline phrase or slogan to grab the reader's attention, appropriate images, and use creative ways to provide detailed information.



SHIFTING PATTERNS

UNDOING THE WHITE AUSTRALIA POLICY

POST-WAR PERIOD: GRADUAL CHANGES

After World War II, the potential for flexibility in the White Australia policy was tested in a number of ways.

- In 1947, the Chifley Labor Government announced that non-Europeans who had been living in Australia for fifteen years and were admitted for business reasons could be granted residential status.
- In 1949, the *Nationality and Citizenship Act* came into effect, which allowed people to become Australian citizens rather than British subjects, provided they were born in Australia or had been living in Australia for more than five years. It was ceremoniously marked by the granting of **citizenship** to seven migrant men, one from each state and the ACT, who had lived in Australia for significant periods of time, a few since childhood. They were all European, reaffirming the White Australia policy.

> *We have, for many years, restricted certain forms of immigration into our Commonwealth. Ever since Federation, we have, with minor exceptions, excluded the settlement of Asian peoples. We believe the reasons for that policy to be so compelling as to justify us in persisting with it despite the criticism and resentment it has aroused in Asia. But while we can point not merely to economic problems but to important differences of tradition and culture which would make the assimilation of Asian settlers so much more difficult, the same arguments cannot be advanced with equal force to justify restrictions on settlement by Europeans.*

SOURCE 6.5.1 Comments made by Harold Holt, the Liberal Minister for Immigration, from *Australia and the Migrant*, Angus and Robertson, 1953, p. 2

Q
1 **Which two Australian Government policies relating to immigration are evident in this source?**
2 **What reasons does Harold Holt give for restricting the immigration of people from Asia to Australia? How specific are these reasons?**

However, the contributions and commitment made to Australia throughout the 1950s by migrants could not be ignored, not to mention the size of the non–Australian born population.

- In 1952, Japanese war brides were given permission to stay in Australia on five-year permits.
- In 1957, the Menzies Liberal Government amended the citizenship rules so that non-Europeans who had lived in Australia for fifteen years could become citizens, as was the case for non-European spouses of Australian citizens.
- In 1958, the abolition of the 'dictation test', and the avoidance of references to race that had been part of policy since 1901, was a significant sign that the times were changing. Sir Alexander Downer, the Minister for Immigration, pointed out that 'distinguished and highly qualified Asians' might be suitable immigrants to Australia.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1957, the federal government launched a new program to encourage migration from Britain. 'Bring out a Briton' encouraged employers to sponsor suitable British families to immigrate to Australia.



SOURCE 6.5.2 British Boys sponsored by another initiative to bring more British people to Australia, the 'Big Brother Movement', arriving in Sydney in 1964. Held at the National Archives of Australia

Q **Explain how this image reflects the attitudes expressed in Source 6.5.1.**

INFLUENCE OF THE COLOMBO PLAN

The **Colombo Plan** was an initiative first proposed by the Australian Government at a meeting of Commonwealth foreign ministers in 1950 in Colombo, Sri Lanka. The intension of the agreement was to promote economic and political cooperation within the Asia–Pacific region.

One component of the Colombo Plan was the provision of educational scholarships. Between 1951 and 1964:

- Australia hosted nearly 5500 students and trainees from over fifteen South and South-East Asian countries.
- Malaysian and Indonesian students were the majority, representing 27 per cent and 17 per cent respectively.
- Overseas students represented 4 to 6 per cent of the main student body, with a high proportion of these students coming from Asia. (In more recent times, the majority of overseas students have come from China, with many paying their own way as private students.)

Although these students had to leave Australia on the completion of their studies, many eventually returned and immigrated to Australia.

The significance of this provision was not only part of the Australian Government's desire to become more politically active in Asia, but it was also a means of facilitating improved cultural understanding. In 1952, Australia's Minister for External Affairs, Richard Casey, said:

> We need to understand and be understood by the countries of South and South-East Asia ... [For Asian students] to see Australia at an impressionable stage of their lives and to exchange views at our universities and with our officials should do a great deal to break down prejudices and misunderstandings on both sides ...

The qualities and academic success of Asian students at Australian universities led to a change in people's perception of Asians, particularly young and well educated Australians. This success meant that the claim of racial superiority by Anglo-Celtic Australians was very easily disputed.

PRESSURE FOR REFORM

During the 1960s, associations for immigration reform were formed in most states, and many started to argue that the qualities of the individual rather than their racial background should form the basis of someone's suitability to immigrate to Australia. This was reflected in public opinion polls of the 1950s—in 1954, support for the White Australia policy was at 61 per cent; by 1959, this had decreased to 34 per cent.

Immigration reform groups not only argued that public opinion on immigration was clearly changing, but that the racist nature of the White Australia policy was deeply resented by Australia's closest neighbours in Asian countries. Through lobbying and public pressure from groups such as these, politicians began to take notice.

In 1966, a review of government policies regarding non-European migration resulted in Prime Minister Harold Holt and Immigration Minister Hubert Opperman announcing that applications for migration would be accepted on the basis of people's suitability as settlers, considering the usefulness of their professional qualifications to Australia. Non-European temporary residents were also able to become permanent residents or citizens after living in Australia for five years. This represented a major shift from the White Australia policy and saw the arrival of non-European immigrants rise from 746 people in 1966 to 2696 individuals in 1971.



SOURCE 6.5.3 The first Turkish migrants arrive in Sydney under the Turkish Assisted Passage Scheme, 1968. Held at the National Archives of Australia

END OF THE WHITE AUSTRALIA POLICY

The 1970s were a time of changing perceptions about **national identity** in Australia. The new Whitlam Labor Government was elected under the slogan of 'It's Time' in December 1972, and set about recognising the fact that Australia was no longer an outpost of the British Empire. In 1973, the last traces of the White Australia policy were dismantled. The government:

- legislated that all migrants, of whatever origin, be qualified to obtain citizenship after three years of permanent residence
- issued policy instructions to overseas posts to completely disregard race as a factor in the selection of migrants
- ratified all international agreements relating to immigration and race.

In 1974, 'God Save the Queen' was replaced with 'Advance Australia Fair' as the national anthem. In 1975, an Australian honours system was introduced to replace the British system.



SOURCE 6.5.4 Cartoon by Oslo Davis commenting on the end of the White Australia Policy

Q **What is the point being made by the cartoonist? Is the cartoonist only referring to the actual documents associated with the White Australia policy?**

FROM INTEGRATION TO MULTICULTURALISM

The Whitlam Government had realised that for Australia to prosper in a global community it was important for the world to view Australia as inclusive and accepting of all cultures, particularly those of Asia. Replacing the policy of integration was one of '**multiculturalism**', which acknowledged and celebrated the diversity of cultures that existed within Australia. Based around the principles of respect and tolerance for those of other cultures, the expectation was that people could maintain their own culture while acknowledging the right of others to do the same, as long as people were loyal to Australia and followed Australian law. Al Grassby, the Minister for Immigration (1972–74), referred to the idea of building the 'family of the nation'.

> *Grassby... is for a multi-language, multi-cultural, participatory democracy which will show the world's oldest nations what a young one can do in building a national community: A Family of the Nation concept which accepts differences... loves colourful diversity, encourages mutual respect between all.*

SOURCE 6.5.5 Ian Moffatt's commentary on the policies of Al Grassby, published in *The Bulletin*, 3 July 1976

Other government initiatives of the early 1970s that supported the principles of multiculturalism included the banning of racially selected sporting teams from playing in Australia, the removal of the provision for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples to seek permission before going overseas, and support for campaigns to abolish Apartheid in South Africa. Migrant groups also applied pressure on politicians by forming state and national associations to maintain their cultures, and promote the survival of their languages and heritages within mainstream institutions.

However, changes in government policy did not necessarily mean that the long-held opinions and beliefs of many Australians would change overnight. Negative attitudes towards migrants still persisted in many communities, and in fact intensified as some Australians felt their sense of national identity was being challenged. As a means of supporting the principles of multiculturalism, the newly elected Liberal Government under Malcolm Fraser introduced the *Racial Discrimination Act (1975)*, which declared the use of racial criteria as illegal for any official purpose. The term 'multiculturalism' became more widely used by politicians to describe Australian society in speeches and addresses to parliament.



SOURCE 6.5.6 Members of Melbourne's Indonesian community partake in the Australia Day parade, 26 January 2012. Multicultural festivals have become regular events in Australia, as communities celebrate the diversity of cultures in the area.

MULTICULTURALISM EVOLVES

By the 1970s, more than one-third of the Australian population had been born overseas, and throughout the rest of the 1970s and 1980s a range of federal and state government agencies, official reviews, and community organisations contributed to supporting the evolution of multicultural Australia. The Fraser Government commissioned a 'Review of Post-Arrival Programs and Services for Migrants' in 1977, resulting in the Galbally Report of 1978. The main recommendations of this report would govern Australia's approach to immigration and migrants for the years to come.

The recommendations of the Galbally Report, and others that followed such as those by Jupp in 1986 and FitzGerald in 1989, resulted in the expansion of existing settlement services, such as:

- on-arrival accommodation and orientation assistance
- increased English-language teaching
- interpreting and translation services
- assistance with overseas qualifications recognition.

Migrant resource centres were formed to enable ethnic communities and voluntary agencies to cater to the welfare needs of migrants. The Special Broadcasting Services (SBS) television station was established in 1980 to broadcast programs in a range of languages. Mainstream multicultural and 'Saturday school' programs were introduced in schools for migrant children to learn the language, traditions and culture of their families.

GALBALLY REPORT RECOMMENDATIONS (1978)	JUPP REPORT (1986) PRINCIPLES	GOVERNMENT POLICY BASED ON FITZGERALD REPORT (1989) FINDINGS
• All members of our society must have equal opportunity to realise their full potential and must have equal access to programs and services. • Every person should be able to maintain his or her culture without prejudice or disadvantage and should be encouraged to understand and embrace other cultures. • [The] needs of migrants should, in general, be met by programs and services available to the whole community but special services and programs are necessary at present to ensure equality of access and provision. • Services and programs should be designed and operated in full consultation with clients, and self-help should be encouraged as much as possible with a view to helping migrants to become self-reliant quickly. From E. Koleth, 'Multiculturalism: a review of Australian policy statements and recent debates in Australia and overseas', Research paper No. 6, 2010–11, Parliament of Australia	All Australians should have: • equal opportunity to participate in the economic, social and political life of the nation • equitable access to and an equitable share of government-managed resources • the opportunity to participate in and influence government policies, programs and services • the right to enjoy and use one's own culture, religion and language while respecting the rights of others to enjoy and use other forms. From Prof A. Jakubowicz's commentary of the Jupp Report, Making Multicultural Australia website, 2012	Multiculturalism based on three rights. The right to: • cultural identity (expressing and sharing one's individual cultural heritage, including their language and religion) • social justice (equality of treatment and opportunity, and the removal of barriers of race, ethnicity, culture, religion, language, gender or place of birth) • economic efficiency (the need to maintain, develop and utilise effectively the skills and talents of all Australians). Multiculturalism based on three obligations. The obligation: • to have an overriding and unifying commitment to Australia, to its interests and future first and foremost • to accept the basic structures and principles of Australia • to accept that the right to express one's own culture and beliefs involves a reciprocal responsibility to accept the right of others to express their views and values. From E. Koleth, 'Multiculturalism: a review of Australian policy statements and recent debates in Australia and overseas', Research paper No. 6, 2010–11, Parliament of Australia

SOURCE 6.5.7 A comparison of recommendations and findings from reports on multiculturalism in Australia during the 1970s and 1980s

Q
1 What themes recur throughout the three reports?
2 What new ideas were included as time progressed? Had any been removed? What might be an explanation for these changes?
3 What conclusions can you make about the issues that existed in multicultural Australia from 1970 to 1990?

NEW CONDITIONS EMERGE

During the 1950s and 1960s, the Australian economy experienced a boom period of exceptional growth and virtually full employment. Migrants were a vital part of developing Australia into a modern and prosperous nation, and although not always welcomed they did not pose any real threat to the employment prospects of most Australians. However, during the 1970s and 1980s, the economic outlook was not as optimistic and as unemployment figures (5–10 per cent) and inflation rates (8–10.5 per cent) rose, many Australians could not see a place for new immigrants, especially those coming from Asia.

Refugees from Vietnam began arriving in Australia in 1975, fleeing the communist government that took over at the end of the Vietnam War (1955–75). As Australia had been involved in the war supporting the non-communist South Vietnamese Government, and was a signatory to the United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, Australia had an obligation to assist. Originally accepting 1000 refugees including about 300 children, this commitment soon increased as **'boat people'** started arriving in Darwin in 1976 and continued to do so into the 1980s. They travelled to Australia crammed into boats that were mostly not designed for the open seas, often enduring terrible conditions and treatment along the way. Large groups of immigrants from Lebanon, China, Malaysia and the Philippines also arrived in Australia during the 1980s.

As war broke out in the former Yugoslavia in 1990, there was an increase in refugees fleeing from parts of the Balkans. This was also the case with groups of people from the Middle East, as the war in the Persian Gulf began in the same year. This, coupled with political oppression in other parts of the Middle East, saw people from Iraq, Iran and Afghanistan arriving in Australia, along with others from Africa and Timor-Leste (East Timor).

Unusual events also sometimes contributed to migration. Following the Tiananmen Square massacre of 1989, Prime Minister Bob Hawke allowed 20 000 Chinese students to stay in Australia. This decision was regarded by many as opening the door to increased immigration of Chinese people to Australia.

Also contributing to the changing nature of migration during this period was the increased phenomenon of **temporary migration**, where people came to Australia for a specific purpose (such as work, business or study) for a short period of time. Over 88 000 people were granted temporary visas for such reasons in the period 1993 to 1994.

For the first time in 1995, Britain lost its top ranking as the place of origin for people immigrating to Australia. This was not due to an increase in immigrants arriving from Asia, the Middle East or Europe; New Zealanders replaced the British as the largest group of immigrants to Australia.

SOURCE 6.5.8 Vietnamese 'boat people' at Darwin Harbour, 1977. Held at the National Archives of Australia





SOURCE 6.5.9 As a part of Harmony Day celebrations, young Muslim women model Australian flag hijabs, Melbourne, 21 March 2006.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- 'boat people'
- citizenship
- Colombo Plan
- national identity
- multiculturalism
- temporary migration

2 Explain how the Colombo Plan affected immigration to Australia.

3 What point was Richard Casey trying to make, and how did the academic success of Asian students challenge the beliefs held by some about the racial superiority of Anglo-Celtic Australians?

4 Construct a timeline summarising the key developments in Australia's migration history from the 1950s to the 1990s. Be sure to include an appropriate 'scale' when constructing your timeline.

Understanding and analysing

5 What signs were there in the 1950s and 1960s that the Australian Government's attitude towards migration was changing? What indicated that they still preferred migrants from Britain? Account for these conflicting messages.

6 How are the changes to Australian national identity through developments such as introducing an Australian honours system and a new national anthem linked to the final dismantling of the White Australia policy?

7 How does Source 6.5.5 help to explain the meaning of the term 'family of the nation'?

8 Why is government legislation, such as the *Racial Discrimination Act (1975)*, an important part of bringing about social change in Australia?

9 What developments in regards to migration led to the need for formal reviews into the policy of multiculturalism?

Evaluating and creating

10 Use the timeline you constructed in Activity 4 as a guide to create a comic strip storyboard, consisting of 4–5 frames, that illustrates the changing nature of migration in Australian during the 1970s to the 1990s.

11 Imagine you are walking down the street and have just passed the girls in Source 6.5.9. Draw two thought bubbles. In one, outline how you think this is a positive image and explain why. In the other, express an opposing view that this is a negative image and explain why.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2010, 469 619 international students were studying in Australia on a student visa.

UNIT 6

SOURCE STUDY:

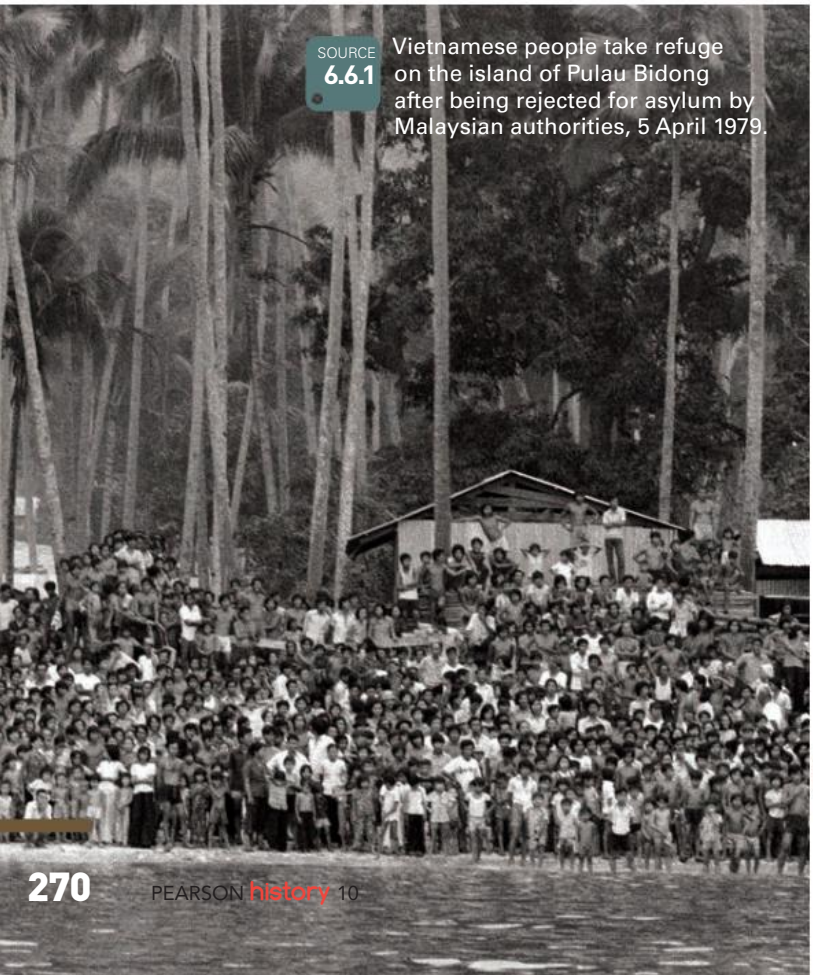
VIETNAMESE 'BOAT PEOPLE'

The Vietnam War ended in 1975 and many Vietnamese people chose to flee the communist government that had taken control of the newly united nation. Some feared persecution due to their:

- involvement in, or support of, the non-communist South Vietnamese Government prior to and during the war
- role within the South Vietnamese military
- support of the US forces during the war
- religious beliefs, particularly for Catholics.

Others were opposed to communism and did not want to live under a communist government.

Most of the people who left Vietnam during this period did so on boats, which were often unseaworthy and overcrowded. International media reported stories of passing vessels rescuing people from these boats in the seaway between Vietnam, Singapore, Hong Kong and Australia. They would be dropped off at nearby ports, creating the problem of what to do with these displaced people who had brought with them virtually no possessions or money.



SOURCE 6.6.1 Vietnamese people take refuge on the island of Pulau Bidong after being rejected for asylum by Malaysian authorities, 5 April 1979.

My family, just like many another family, went to find freedom—to find a bright future—and we escaped from Vietnam in February, 1979, by boat at Longan and arrived in Malaysia after five nights and four days.

Walking up to the wooden boat about 22 metres long and 5 metres wide, I did not know if I was happy or sad: I seemed to have no feeling. The boat carried 350 people: it was suffocating. We could not move: we had to sit with folded legs and drowsed. If you wanted to turn to left or right, or wanted to take something to eat, it was the most difficult job in the world: people were everywhere—on the prow of the boat, up boat, down boat, people jostled together.

The first morning came and we were advancing towards freedom, the sea was calm and the colours of the sea were very dark, too, so you could imagine that someone had poured blue ink into it. Inside the boat it was too hot, and it smelled too much of someone who had vomited. I could not stay inside any more so I tried to go out on to the deck and sat down there and looked down at the sea. I felt homesick; I said to myself 'Goodbye Vietnam...'

On reaching Malaysia we were taken to an island. It was called Pulau Bidong and was really small... it contained about 45 000 people. The people here lived in wooden houses with roofs of nylon tents which were very hot in the morning and cold at night. It was very dirty; many flies flew on your head, or on your food if you did not cover it carefully and the rats made you sick—and insects and cockroaches everywhere crawled over your clothes, your food, but the most important thing that I could never forget were the bedbugs. Oh it was terrible!...

My parents and I lived there for six months then Australia accepted us...

SOURCE 6.6.2 Hue Kim Chau's recollections of the journey from Vietnam to Australia. From *Why Must We Go?*, Richmond Girls' High School, Melbourne, 1981



SOURCE 6.6.3 Vietnamese people stranded off the coast of the Philippines after fleeing their homeland, 28 December 1978. Living in unbearable conditions and facing uncertain futures, they wait for a host country to accept them.

Q What can historians learn about the experiences of Vietnamese 'boat people' from this source?

REFUGEES

Due to Australia's obligations as a signatory to the United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, the Fraser Liberal Government agreed to accept responsibility for refugees from Vietnam who came to Australia illegally, as well as those who were organised to stay in government-controlled refugee camps. Most countries, including Australia, adhered to the definition of 'refugee' as prescribed in this convention; however, at the time this only applied to people in Europe, and specifically related to events prior to January 1951. Due to ongoing conflict and dangerous political situations for many people across the globe, including Asia, the eligibility for refugee status was amended in 1967 to include non-Europeans. According to the 1951 Convention, a refugee is a person who:

> owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality, and is unable, or owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country.

'BOAT PEOPLE'

In the late 1970s, the term 'boat people' came into use to describe asylum seekers (people awaiting the outcome of their refugee status application) from Vietnam who arrived in Australia by boat without permission to enter the country. Coming from all classes of Vietnamese society, nearly 40 000 Vietnamese refugees and asylum seekers arrived in Australia between 1975 and 1980, all needing to be accommodated in hostels. Many eventually settled into Australian society with employment and the chance of a new life. From 1985, more Vietnamese immigrants came to join family members who had arrived earlier, and eventually about 50 000 Vietnamese people settled in Australia. They became the third largest migrant group of the 1980s, behind those from Britain and former Yugoslavia.



SOURCE 6.6.4 The Lu family on the deck of *Tu Do*, the boat that took them from Vietnam to Darwin Harbour, November 1977. Held at the National Library of Australia



SOURCE 6.6.5 The Lu family on the deck of the restored *Tu Do* in Sydney, 2005, nearly thirty years after the boat had brought them to Australia in 1977. *Tu Do* is part of the Australian National Maritime Museum collection.

My family, we lost a lot of money through those 7 attempts to get out of the country, because each attempt would be very costly. I remember one attempt, I almost got burnt, in a boat. I was in the lower deck and I think the captain was just going inside the lower deck to see how everyone was going and he actually had a lighter in his pocket and then next to me was also a carton of petrol and then for some reason it was just alight. Luckily the man sitting next to me, used his hands to cover that light right away...

Some other attempts we just got deceived by the organisers. You'd go on a small boat and then hoping you'd get onto the big boat... it's not like... a cruise ship here. It's just another fishing boat... But on many of our attempts we never got to see the larger fishing boat... then we came back and just try to live life and find the next opportunity to escape, so it was like gambling, you know just from one gamble to another...

But, we finally succeeded, so I got out of my country, with my mother on a boat with twenty-six other people, and we got to Thailand, after three days of travelling on the high sea, then we stayed in a refugee camp for two years...

I think I was lucky because at that time I was very young, so I didn't go through a lot of thoughts and worries and fear. I'm sure that my parents and other people that were older than me, they would have been very fearful and very scared...

SOURCE 6.6.6 Huy Pham recalls his family's attempts to escape from Vietnam in the 1980s.



SOURCE 6.6.8 A Vietnamese migrant family and their hosts at a community function, Canberra, 1980. As part of the refugee settlement program of the late 1970s, many Vietnamese families were hosted by local church or community groups.

SETTLING INTO LIFE IN AUSTRALIA

Like other migrants before them, the Vietnamese often settled in suburbs with a relatively high percentage of Vietnamese or Indochinese people already living there. Suburbs such as Cabramatta and Fairfield in New South Wales, and Springvale, Footscray and Richmond in Victoria, have become centres for Vietnamese communities and culture. As Vietnamese refugees became more proficient with English and familiar with the Australian lifestyle, they moved beyond their communities and have integrated into mainstream society while maintaining their culture and heritage. Generally, Vietnamese migrants have been successful in finding employment and have actively sought Australian citizenship.

SOURCE 6.6.7 Number of Vietnamese-born people in Australia, 1976–96. Figures from Australian Bureau of Statistics Census data

	1976	1981	1986	1991	1996
NSW	1 023	16 926	33 994	49 185	61 148
VIC.	379	12 840	27 899	44 394	55 141
QLD	465	3 509	6 237	8 654	11 048
SA	237	3 844	6 985	9 271	10 667
WA	77	2 778	5 913	8 215	10 065
TAS.	48	212	234	250	209
NT	21	193	436	427	523
ACT	176	794	1 358	1 929	2 251
TOTAL	***2 427**	**41 096**	**83 056**	**122 325**	***151 052**

*Total includes 'Other territories' (e.g. Norfolk Island)



SOURCE 6.6.9 Freedom Plaza in Cabramatta, New South Wales, 2007

Vinh: *We first came here to study, my wife and I. We came to Australia to study, through AUSAID to do the postgraduate diploma in TESOL at the University of Canberra. We planned to go back, to help our people, our young people there. We stayed, but then we also love Australia… we love Australia because of the way people treat people over here too.*

Kim: *Very friendly and generous.*

Vinh: *Very friendly, and freedoms, and peacefulness and after a year of studying at the University of Canberra, we got to know a lot of Australians and we can see how people think, how people treat people and we love it you know? So you choose a place to live, and we choose Sydney… We moved from Canberra because of survival. There's not much work there [in Canberra].*

Kim: *Also it's cold; always the weather conditions are harder than in Sydney… For about nearly eighteen years, we all live around here in Fairfield, so we live around the river here…*

Vinh: *Like most of the families only one person could go, then they support the rest of the family. It was tough, very hard for us, for the first few years, really hard, then after the family reunion it was much easier.*

Kim: *In our family when we sponsored the older kids [the two older boys] from Vietnam to come here, at first they didn't want to stay, they asked us to send them back to Vietnam. And after a few months we asked them 'you want to go back or stay here?' : 'I'll stay here!'*

SOURCE 6.6.10 Kim and Vinh Nguyen share their migration experiences.



SOURCE 6.6.11 Lunar Festival celebrations in Footscray, Victoria



SOURCE 6.6.12 Vietnamese refugees were a hot topic in the Australian news.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSING

1 Explain how Source 6.6.1 corroborates the story presented in Source 6.6.2.

2 Compare Source 6.6.3 to Source 6.5.8 from Unit 5.
   - **a** What are the similarities and differences between these two sources?
   - **b** Which source is more useful to historians studying the conditions endured by Vietnamese 'boat people' on the voyages to Australia? Explain your answer.

3 Explain how Sources 6.6.4 and 6.6.5 are more valuable to historians by examining them as a pair, rather than each on its own.

4 What evidence of the impact of Vietnamese culture on the suburbs of Cabramatta and Footscray can be gained from Sources 6.6.9 and 6.6.11?

5 Examine Source 6.6.12.
   - **a** What is the meaning of each of the headlines?
   - **b** Paying attention to the dates of each headline, explain how they indicate changing attitudes towards 'boat people' over a period of time.

UNDERSTANDING AND EVALUATING

6 Compare Sources 6.6.2 and 6.6.6.
   - **a** Create a table with two columns. Note the similarities and differences between the accounts.
   - **b** What are the possible reasons for the differences in the experiences presented?
   - **c** List three points from these accounts that you think are the most valuable for historians studying Vietnamese 'boat people'. Compare your decisions with those of others in your class and discuss the reasons for your choices.

7 Re-read Source 6.6.10.
   - **a** Explain how the story of immigrating to Australia presented in Source 6.6.10 is different to those in Sources 6.6.2 and 6.6.6.
   - **b** What evidence is there of the importance of family to immigrants in Source 6.6.10?
   - **c** Why might Vinh and Kim in Source 6.6.10 have found settling into their new life easier than people experiencing a similar path to Australia as expressed in Sources 6.6.2 and 6.6.6?

8 What conclusions can be drawn from Source 6.6.7? What are the limitations of this source in terms of its usefulness to historians?

ANALYSING AND EVALUATING

9 Examine Source 6.6.8.
   - **a** What does Source 6.6.8 indicate about support given to Vietnamese migrants in Australia?
   - **b** How is this similar or different to support given to European immigrants after World War II?
   - **c** To what extent do your answers to questions a and b support the reasons given by Kim and Vinh (Source 6.6.10) for deciding to stay in Australia?

10
   - **a** Which of the sources provided in this unit is most useful to historians studying Vietnamese immigration to Australia? Explain your choice.
   - **b** Which of the sources provided in this unit is least useful to historians studying Vietnamese immigration to Australia? Explain your choice.



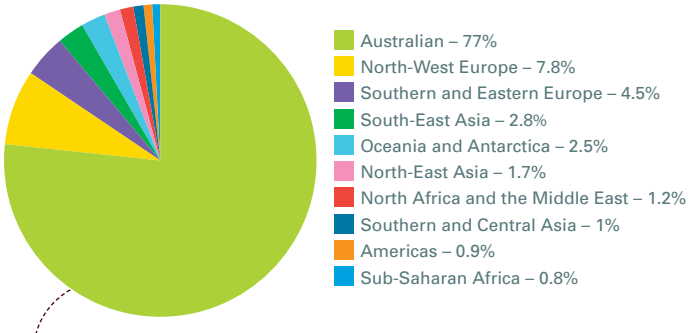
NEW DEBATES SURFACE

POLICIES AND DIRECTIONS

In the late 1970s and through the 1980s, Australia's immigration policies were based on a system that ensured migrants had the skills and qualities that best suited Australia's needs. Called the Numerical Multifactor Assessment System, it selected migrants according to factors such as family ties and occupational and language skills. It was modified (and renamed) a number of times throughout the 1980s as the needs of the country changed. There was also more emphasis placed on the reunification of families, while maintaining a commitment to humanitarian and compassionate responsibilities. Approximately 2 million immigrants arrived in Australia during these decades.

The mid-1990s saw further emphasis placed on selection of migrants in terms of their '**human capital**', meaning their ability to resettle and contribute to the Australian economy. Over 900 000 immigrants arrived in Australia during the 1990s and the total population reached 19.2 million by 2000. Heading into the new century, renewed prosperity in Europe also meant that Italians and Greeks no longer made up the majority of non-British new arrivals. After New Zealanders, greater numbers came from China, South Africa and India. Throughout this period and beyond, immigrants were still viewed as being important to ongoing nation building, with the government's migration program best described as having three streams:

- skills stream—identifying skills shortages and recognising skills that could contribute to Australia's economy
- family stream—acknowledging the value and importance of family migration
- humanitarian stream—admitting refugees for settlement.



SOURCE 6.7.1 Australia's population in 2000 by regions of birth. Figures from Migration, Australia, 2009–10, (Cat. No. 3412.0), Australian Bureau of Statistics

BIRTHPLACE COUNTRIES	TOTAL
Australia	13 629 685
United Kingdom	1 036 245
New Zealand	355 765
Italy	218 718
Vietnam	154 831
China (excludes Special Administrative Regions [SARs] and Taiwan province)	142 780
Greece	116 431
Germany	108 220
Philippines	103 942
India	95 452
Netherlands	83 324
South Africa	79 425
Malaysia	78 858
Lebanon	71 349
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	67 122
Poland	58 110
Yugoslavia, Federal Republic of	55 365
United States of America	53 694
Sri Lanka	53 461
Croatia	51 909
Ireland	50 235
Indonesia	47 158
Malta	46 998
Fiji	44 261
Macedonia (FYROM)	43 527
Korea, Republic of (South)	38 900
Singapore	33 485
Egypt	33 432
Turkey	29 821
Canada	27 289
France	17 268
Born elsewhere overseas	708 069
Not stated	1 034 120
Overseas visitors	203 101
Total	**18 972 350**

SOURCE 6.7.2 Australia's population in 2001 by countries of birth. Figures from 2001 Census of Population and Housing, Australian Bureau of Statistics

Q
1. **How does Source 6.7.2 provide more detailed information about Australia's population than Source 6.7.1?**
2. **What limitations do the categories 'Born elsewhere overseas' and 'Not stated' in Source 6.7.2 place on the usefulness of the overall statistics?**
3. **For what type of study might Source 6.7.1 be more useful than Source 6.7.2?**

A MULTICULTURAL SOCIETY

By the 1980s, Australia was seen as a multicultural society. Australia's population was (and continues to be) made up of a wide range of ethnic groups, including those from British backgrounds. At the same time, the federal government policy for incorporating new immigrants into Australian society was that of 'multiculturalism'. Multiculturalism as government policy means that the government recognises and respects the cultural diversity of the population and supports programs to assist ethnic minorities. From when it was first introduced in the 1970s, the policy of multiculturalism has changed as different governments have adapted it to suit their political aims.

CHALLENGES TO MULTICULTURALISM

THE 'BLAINEY DEBATE'

In the 1980s, some conservative politicians and media commentators echoed views expressed by the historian Geoffrey Blainey. Blainey was of the opinion that multiculturalism encouraged differences between ethnic groups, and was dividing Australian society. He questioned the cost of grants to ethnic organisations and the influence of ethnic lobbies on politicians, and he criticised what he called the 'Asianisation of Australia'. Blainey argued multiculturalism was based on views held by a minority of Australians. At the time, his arguments were fiercely debated. As the Bicentenary of European settlement in Australia approached in 1988, evidence emerged that many Australians resented multiculturalism as a political strategy because, to a majority of Australians, it was an irrelevant issue. Some held the view that by disproportionately embracing and placing great value on the cultures of non-British immigrants, the part played by British culture in creating modern Australia and the benefits of British traditions were being devalued and ignored.

> **a** *Multiculturalism is an appropriate policy for those residents who hold two sets of national loyalties and two passports. For the millions of Australians who have only one loyalty this policy is a national insult.*
>
> **b** *The more emphasis that is placed on the rights of minorities and the need for affirmative action to enhance those rights, the more is the concept of democracy—and the rights of the majority—in danger of being weakened.*

SOURCE 6.7.3 Comments made by Geoffrey Blainey about multiculturalism. (a) 'Australian Australians must begin to shout loudly', by G. Blainey, *The Weekend Australian*, 2–3 July, 1988. (b) G. Blainey, Latham Memorial Lecture. Cited in *The Australian*, 29 April 1993

Q
1. **What is the common point being made in both of these extracts?**
2. **Explain how Blainey has expressed this key point differently in each extract.**



SOURCE 6.7.4 Media headlines around the time of the 'Blainey debate'

Q **Which migrant group seems to be the focus of the attention in these headlines?**

ONE NATION

Racialising debates about multiculturalism have occurred following claims by some people that particular migrant groups, because of their races, pose more of a threat to the Australian 'way of life' than others. The increases in Asian migration in the 1980s and 1990s fuelled the claims made by some in the media and politics of an **'Asian invasion'**. Most notably, Pauline Hanson (a Member of Parliament) and the One Nation political party, gained popularity in the 1996 and 1998 federal elections based on their opposition to Asian migration. Hanson was outspoken about what she believed to be unfair advantages and resources being directed towards migrants and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. Hanson's general claim was that multiculturalism was divisive and weakening Australian society. Although abhorred by many Australians at the time, the approval given to such opinions by many other Australians did in fact demonstrate how divisive the issue of multiculturalism had become. Some commentators believe it influenced the main political parties of Australia as they attempted to win the votes of possible One Nation supporters.

I believe we are in danger of being swamped by Asians. Between 1984 and 1995, 40 per cent of all migrants coming into this country were of Asian origin. They have their own culture and religion, form ghettos and do not assimilate. Of course, I will be called racist but, if I can invite whom I want in my home, then I should have the right to have a say in who comes to my country.

SOURCE 6.7.5 Thoughts expressed by Pauline Hanson from her maiden speech in federal parliament, 10 September 1996

Q
1 What are Pauline Hanson's arguments against Asian immigrants?
2 How are these arguments different to those expressed by Geoffrey Blainey (Source 6.7.3) in regards to multiculturalism?



SOURCE 6.7.6 Pauline Hanson next to her campaign poster for the Queensland state election, 10 June 1998

Q How is Pauline Hanson being portrayed in the image on the poster?

DIVIDED OPINIONS

Even supporters of multiculturalism became divided in opinion, classified as either in favour of 'welfare multiculturalism' or 'ethnic rights multiculturalism'. It was suggested that Australia's commitment to migrants did not take seriously their needs and genuine contributions to Australian society. Such views were passionately disputed by many politicians and supporters of government initiatives. Even the appropriateness of the term 'multiculturalism' was up for debate, some claiming that phrases such as 'cultural pluralism', 'cultural diversity', or even 'Australian multiculturalism' were more appropriate.

Throughout the mid-2000s, the term 'multiculturalism' was used less frequently, particularly by federal politicians who opted for terms such as 'diverse community' and 'Australian citizenship'. There seemed to be a shift in the way people viewed Australian society and, in 2007, the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs was renamed the Department of Immigration and Citizenship.

In the same year, a **citizenship test** was introduced by the Howard Liberal Government. Those wishing to become Australian citizens had to demonstrate their knowledge of Australian history, society and values. The test was amended in 2008 because only 20 per cent of potential citizens were passing it on their first attempt and it was agreed that many long-term, permanent Australians would probably fail to pass as well.

FURTHER DEVELOPMENTS

PROBLEMS SETTLING IN

From time to time, specific ethnic groups have been discussed in the media and by some politicians as being of particular concern for not adhering to what is expected of migrants in Australia. In 2007, the suitability of refugees from Sudan and Horn of Africa nations in general came into question when the Liberal Minister for Immigration and Citizenship, Kevin Andrews, referred to this particular group as having difficulties integrating into Australian society. This was partly due to a reported spike in crime associated with young Sudanese men at the time. The government announced it was going to decrease the intake of refugees from this part of the world in the coming years. The different public responses to this decision drew attention again to the meaning of multiculturalism as a government policy and within Australian society.

Such issues also serve as a reminder that the settlement experience for many refugees can be a very difficult time with feelings of homesickness, isolation and the effects of culture shock compounding people's abilities to start a new life in Australia. Many refugees have experienced very traumatic pasts before arriving in Australia. They may have experienced high levels of poverty, low levels of formal education, suffered from the effects of war, torture and trauma, and have a low level or no knowledge of English. Their day-to-day existence before arriving in Australia may have been in a refugee camp, often for many years. Many may have never rented a house, paid a bill, gone to work or have any concept of dealing with institutions such as banks, real estate agents or government departments.

IMPACT OF TERRORISM

The 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States committed by al-Qaeda prompted a renewed sense of **xenophobia**, which means a fear of foreigners or strangers. In Australia, people feared other terrorist acts would be committed by **extremists**, who are people who advocate or resort to measures beyond the norm to achieve political or ideological goals. Many saw this threat as most likely to come from people seeking to enter Australia as refugees from the Middle East or Islamic nations to Australia's north, such as Indonesia. Such beliefs led to calls for the government to tighten immigration laws.

Media attention in Sydney surrounding the alleged rise in crimes associated with 'Middle Eastern' gangs, in particular a series of rapes in 2000, led to significant racial tension, division and suspicion in some suburbs. This tension was not helped by anti-US comments made by some Muslim leaders in Australia following the September 11 attacks, and the 2002 terrorist attacks in Bali, which saw 202 people (including eighty-eight Australians) killed by the extremist group Jemaah Islamiyah. Two-thirds of Muslim Australians and Australians of Arabic descent claimed to experience a rise in racial vilification, such as verbal and physical abuse and discrimination, during this period. Muslim women in particular reported being harassed because of the way they dressed.



SOURCE 6.7.7 Cartoon by Ron Tandberg, published in *The Age*, 24 February 2006, following comments made by Peter Costello (deputy leader of the Liberal Party) that migrants should adopt 'Australian' values

RACISM AND VIOLENCE

In December 2005, a series of violent incidents between youths at the Sydney beach suburb of Cronulla resulted in a racially inspired riot as young men of Middle Eastern appearance were sought out and attacked by rival groups of young men. Retaliatory action saw the violence spread to neighbouring suburbs as groups of young men, often armed, went on a rampage. Ugly images and references to racially inflammatory comments made by participants were broadcast across the country and the globe, undermining the promotion of Australia as a racially tolerant and cohesive multicultural society.

Similarly, during 2007 to 2009 some violent attacks on Indian migrants in Melbourne led to claims they were racially motivated. In May 2009, 4000 Indian students staged a protest to draw attention to their belief that people of Indian descent were being specifically targeted in robberies and assaults. The violence gained international attention and caused diplomatic tension between the governments of Australia and India. Again, the perception of a culturally harmonious Australia was questioned, and the bad publicity posed a problem for educational institutions that depended on the revenue from fees paid by international students.

ASYLUM SEEKERS

HUMANITARIAN OBLIGATIONS

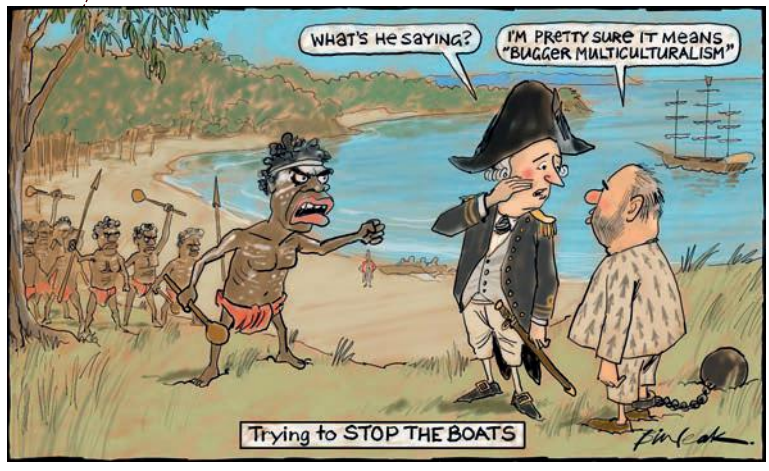
Along with the country's immigration program, Australia continues to maintain its commitment to numerous international agreements to protect the human rights of asylum seekers and refugees who arrive in Australia. This includes not sending refugees back to a country where their life would be in danger or where they would face the threat of their human rights being violated, and protecting their human rights while in Australian territory.

Asylum seekers and refugees make up a relatively small percentage of the total number of people settling in Australia each year. In 2006–07, 192 000 migrants permanently settled in Australia, with 14 000 the result of the humanitarian program. Of these, it is estimated that 208 people arrived in eleven boats. Yet asylum seekers and refugees are often the subject of debate in the media and wider community, with politicians tending to react to changing public perceptions with changes in policy. A new argument has formed against these people coming to Australia. Those who manage to arrive by boat are seen by many to be **queue-jumpers**, that is, people who are attempting to bypass the legal processes of gaining refugee status in United Nations refugee camps and processing centres around the world. Apart from some thinking this is not fair, it also has led many to view asylum seekers with suspicion.

Successive Australian governments under Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser (1975–83) and Prime Minister Bob Hawke (1983–91) worked to establish processing centres in South-East Asia and reach agreements with other countries about admitting refugees and asylum seekers into Australia.

SOURCE 6.7.8 Cartoon by Bill Leak showing an Aboriginal man confronting two British colonists, 21 February 2011

Q
1 What is the point being made in this source?
2 Are there any similarities between the arrival of the First Fleet in Australia in 1788 and the arrival of asylum seekers in more recent times?



Despite their efforts, in the late 1980s and early 1990s some boats began arriving in Australian waters carrying people who, it was discovered, had paid for their passage to Australia. Some people were selling all of their worldly possessions to buy spots on overcrowded and barely seaworthy boats organised by agents who have become referred to as **people smugglers**.

MANDATORY DETENTION

Partly to discourage the dangerous practice of people smuggling and to maintain control over who came to Australia on humanitarian grounds, in 1992, the federal government under Labor Prime Minister Paul Keating introduced a policy of '**mandatory detention**' through an amendment to the *Migration Act (1958)*. This meant that it was compulsory for immigration officials to detain all non-citizens arriving in Australia without a valid visa. The period through to the mid-2000s under the Liberal Howard Government resulted in policies aimed at deterring asylum seekers from coming to Australia by boat, such as:

- **offshore processing**, where asylum seekers are interviewed and have their details checked before reaching mainland Australia
- temporary protection visas
- increased coastal surveillance.

This period in Australia's immigration history is still hotly discussed.

In reference to the issue of asylum seekers, as part of a campaign speech in the lead-up to the 2001 federal election, Prime Minister John Howard declared, 'We will decide who comes to this country and the circumstances in which they come.' This speech was delivered not long after the '*Tampa* affair'.

THE '*TAMPA* AFFAIR'

In August 2001, the Norwegian freighter, the MV *Tampa*, having rescued over 400 Afghan asylum seekers from a sinking vessel, was refused entry to Australian waters. The Norwegian ship was eventually boarded by Australia's Special Air Service, and the asylum seekers were sent to the Pacific island nation of Nauru for processing.

In October 2001, a vessel believed to be carrying asylum seekers was intercepted by the HMAS *Adelaide* 190 kilometres north of Christmas Island. People aboard the vessel were alleged to have thrown young children overboard from the sinking boat to ensure they were rescued and taken into Australian custody, thus becoming the responsibility of the Australian navy and government. Prime Minister Howard condemned the actions of the asylum seekers, further fuelling the debate over 'boat people' and people smugglers. Images in the media did show children and adults in the water; however, it was later revealed that these could have been taken after the boat sank and that children were not thrown overboard.



SOURCE 6.7.9 Cartoon by Peter Nicholson commenting on the '*Tampa* affair', 1 September 2001

Q

1. **Which organisation is portrayed as the 'complaints' department?**
2. **The figure pushing in at the front of the queue is then Prime Minister John Howard. What are the two key points being made in the cartoon?**
3. **Does the cartoonist intend to make Australia's issues with asylum seekers seem relatively significant or insignificant compared to other nations?**

THE 'PACIFIC SOLUTION'

Prior to the 2001 election, the Howard Government removed external territories such as Christmas, Ashmore, Cartier and Cocos islands from Australia's migration zone. This meant that asylum seekers arriving on these islands on the way to Australia, or those intercepted at sea by coastal patrols, had their claims for asylum dealt with outside Australia and the Australian legal system. Agreements with the governments of Nauru and Papua New Guinea led to Offshore Processing Centres being established on Nauru and Manus Island (part of Papua New Guinea). By 2008, when the 'Pacific Solution' ended after the election of the Rudd Labor Government in 2007, 61 per cent of the 1637 people detained on Nauru and Manus Island had settled in Australia.

Federal governments continue to struggle with the issue of dealing with asylum seekers. Despite Australians wanting the government to protect the country's borders and maintain control over the claims for asylum, they also want to be regarded as compassionate and good global citizens. It is a difficult balancing act for governments between discouraging people from arriving in Australia through 'illegal' means and deterring people smugglers, and assisting people in genuine need of support and protection. It is made even harder by the pressures of conflicting public opinion and unfolding events in other parts of the world that create new groups of asylum seekers.



Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- 'Asian invasion'
- citizenship test
- extremists
- human capital
- mandatory detention
- offshore processing
- people smugglers
- queue-jumpers
- racialising
- xenophobia

2 Construct a mind map summarising the challenges to multiculturalism since the 1980s.

3 What attitudes did the change in name of the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs to the Department of Immigration and Citizenship reflect?

4 Why does Australia accept refugees and asylum seekers?

5 List the ways the Australian Government has attempted to regulate the arrival of refugees and asylum seekers into Australia.

Understanding and analysing

6 **a** What criteria were used to assess the suitability of migrants for Australia throughout the 1970s to the 1990s?

b Explain how this reflected the priorities of the Australian Government during this period.

7 Why do some refugees find it difficult to settle in to their new life in Australia? How can this sometimes lead to resentment of these groups in the broader community?

8 Explain why the threat of terrorism led to a renewed sense of xenophobia. To what extent do you think this was justified?

9 **a** How did the '*Tampa* affair' and children overboard incident portray asylum seekers negatively?

b How might this portrayal support the arguments of those wishing to restrict the entry of asylum seekers to Australia?

10 Explain why dealing with asylum seekers is complicated for governments.

Analysing and evaluating

11 Compare the statistics in Source 6.7.1 to those presented in Source 6.2.1 in Unit 2. What are the similarities and differences? Along with the information in the text, what conclusions can be drawn from this information?

12 There are a number of cartoons in this unit.

a What techniques do cartoonists use as they attempt to represent the issues of the day?

b Why are cartoonists often unable to present a thorough representation of key events or issues?

c With this in mind, why are cartoons still a valuable source of information for historians?

Applying and creating

13 Create a cartoon that portrays one of the following aspects of this unit:

- The difficulties faced by newly arrived refugees during their first few years in Australia
- The unjustified xenophobia in Australia following the September 11 terrorist attacks
- The benefits of multiculturalism for a cohesive Australian society.



AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL IDENTITY IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

In 2011, Australia's population moved past 22.5 million, and of this nearly 6 million people were born overseas in over 200 different countries. There are more than 250 different ancestries and 400 different languages spoken in homes across the nation. People born in the United Kingdom were the largest group of overseas-born residents, accounting for 1.2 million people. The next largest group was born in New Zealand (544 000), followed by China (380 000 people), India (341 000) and Italy (216 000).

There is little doubt that since the end of World War II, Australia has become a country significantly influenced by the arrival of migrants, bringing with them their cultures, beliefs, values and ways of life. Importantly, they also brought a desire to make a better life for themselves and their families, and a work ethic that would drive the development of modern Australia. In doing so, migrants have made valuable contributions to the building of post–World War II Australia, creating a rich and vibrant society drawing from the best the world has to offer, and stimulating and supporting economic growth for the benefit of all. This has also resulted in a shift in the way Australians view themselves: the sense of national identity that one associates as being typically Australian.

CULTURAL CONTRIBUTIONS TO AUSTRALIAN SOCIETY

The most obvious ways that migrants have contributed to Australian society is through their impact on culture and lifestyle. New foods, beverages, clothing and fashion, literature and art, languages and music, religions, festivals and sports are relatively easy to identify from those of the predominantly Anglo-Celtic cultural landscape of Australia before World War II. Each new wave of migrants has added to the eclectic mix of lifestyles that have evolved and blended to become the Australia of today. Most would agree that the contributions of migrants to the richness of Australian culture have been a positive outcome of the 'migrant experience'.

Many migrants have become very well known and are role models for young Australians due to their contributions to Australian society. Migrants and children of migrants are successful sportspeople, academics, professionals, entrepreneurs, business owners, politicians, media personalities, artists, writers, entertainers, and community leaders. Success in virtually every field of endeavour is not only evidence of the commitment to hard work that most migrants have brought to Australia, but also of the valuable contributions they have made to the development of modern Australian society.

SOURCE 6.8.1

Harvest of Endurance, a 50-metre-long scroll representing the history of Chinese immigration to Australia. It portrays stories of the Chinese experience in Australia in the *gongbi* style of painting. This scroll was sponsored by the Australia–China Friendship Society and is held at the National Museum of Australia.

Q **List the different representations of Chinese people embracing multiculturalism in this image.**





SOURCE 6.8.2 Khoa Do, Young Australian of the Year 2005

- Left Vietnam at 2 years of age on a fishing boat with his parents
- Won a scholarship to St Aloysius College in Sydney and went on to study Arts/Law at University of Sydney
- Developed a passion for theatre, film and comedy
- Worked with youth developing English skills in Cabramatta, New South Wales
- In 2000, was named Young Vietnamese-Australian of the Year
- In 2001, was nominated for an AFI Award for his screenplay for the short film *Delivery Day*
- In 2002, began voluntary work with disadvantaged kids at Cabramatta's Open Family Youth Social Services Centre
- In 2004, was nominated for two AFI Awards, three Film Critics' Circle Awards and two Australian Writers' Guild Awards for the internationally acclaimed film *The Finished People*



SOURCE 6.8.3 Yassmin Abdel-Magied, Young Queenslander of the Year 2010

- Immigrated to Australia from Sudan with her family
- During high school, switched from an Islamic school to a Christian college, becoming the first girl at the school to wear a headscarf
- At 16 years of age, established the organisation Youth Without Borders, a forum that empowers youth to work together for the implementation of positive change within local and international communities
- Became the Deputy Chair of the Queensland Youth Council
- Has promoted diversity and understanding using sport as a medium for change by coordinating Shinpads and Hijabs, a soccer training program for young Muslim women
- Is a board member of the Youth Affairs Network of Queensland
- Regularly returns to Sudan to help underprivileged children

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE AUSTRALIAN ECONOMY

The original goal of increasing immigration to Australia after World War II was in part to strengthen the economic growth of the country. Migration continues to have a positive impact upon both the supply and demand sides of the economy. Generally, more migrants lead to an increase in population. This generates greater demand for goods and services, which encourages the growth of businesses to meet the demand. Migrants also contribute to the supply of goods and services as their labour and skills are used in the workforce. Skilled workers in particular, such as professionals and tradespeople, are extremely valuable in bringing new skills and knowledge to the Australian workforce at little cost to the Australian community as their training and education is often paid for in their country of origin. The Australian economy benefits not only from their expertise, but from the taxes they pay and the money they spend.

Despite the fears of many Australians surrounding increased migration as a threat to their employment prospects, studies have shown that this is not the case. In fact, recently arrived migrants are the people most likely to find themselves unemployed in times of economic hardship. On average, it takes migrants 4–5 years to establish a life for themselves in Australia, in terms of consistent employment, accommodation and community ties. Those with existing support networks in Australia, such as family, or good English language skills, tend to take less time to adjust. It is during this period of establishment that migrants rely upon government-funded services before they can contribute back to the economy.

Migrants have worked in every Australian industry, contributing to mining, farming, construction and manufacturing, fishing, logging, and often establishing their own businesses. They have built homes and communities, clubs and shopping centres, railways and bridges, roads and skyscrapers, dams and power stations.

They have engaged in retraining and education to improve their skills and knowledge, and their children and grandchildren have done likewise to enter every profession and trade. Their knowledge of foreign languages, understanding of other cultures and traditions, and connections to business, people and governments across the globe have contributed to Australia's international trade, establishing relationships that may have otherwise taken many years to develop. The prosperity of modern Australia is very closely linked to its migrant history.

MULTICULTURALISM AND AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL IDENTITY

To many, the notion of a 'national identity' is seen as a construct, and something that has never been truly representative of all Australians. Australia's national identity is diverse and an image of a typical Australian is difficult to define, so terms such as 'multicultural' have come to be used to help describe Australian society. Viewing Australian identity in this way can be limiting, as it is applies many cultural stereotypes in an attempt to explain what a typical Australian might look like and how they might behave in day-to-day life.



SOURCE 6.8.4 Mecca Laa Laa wears a 'burqini', specially designed for Muslim lifesavers, as she patrols Cronulla Beach (site of the 2005 Cronulla riots) in Sydney, 2007.

Some claim that the Australian 'way of life' is more than attempting to define a national character. Perhaps it has more to do with a universal way of looking at the world and engaging with it, what Australians aspire to and value. Australian literature, media, film and television have regularly explored and challenged the concept of an Australian identity. Historians have pointed towards key events and people in Australian history, such as Gallipoli, Kokoda and Ned Kelly, to shape national identity, and politicians have tried to appeal to perceived Australian values, such as 'mateship' and 'a fair go', in an attempt to connect with the public in pursuit of common purpose and national direction that is beyond cultural differences. In more recent times, Australia has looked towards the culture of its Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples as a point of difference between Australian identity and that of the rest of the world.



SOURCE 6.8.5 African Women's Dinner Dance is an annual event where women from Sydney's African community meet to dance and embrace their cultures.

The concept of a multicultural Australia has also affected relationships within the Asia–Pacific region, as Australia is no longer regarded as being simply a British outpost. Australia's evolving migrant heritage has contributed significantly to the development of closer ties with Asian nations, such as China and India. Improved understanding of international cultures, beliefs and values have led to economic and political benefits.

In defining Australian identity, Australia's migrant history is a key aspect that must be considered. Migrants have made important cultural and economic contributions to the country, and have influenced the way Australia interacts with the rest of the world. The reasons for Australia's changing policies in regards to accepting and integrating migrants say a lot about how the country has grown, how attitudes and values have developed, and how Australians as a nation of migrants have learnt to embrace and respect the many cultures that constitute Australia's diverse population.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Analysing

1 Explain why the people in Sources 6.8.2 and 6.8.3 have been acknowledged in Australia Day awards.

Evaluating

2 How does Source 6.8.4 challenge some stereotypes associated with Australian identity?

3 What do you believe have been the five most significant contributions made by migrants to Australia? Justify your answers. Compare your list with the rest of the class.

Creating

4 Create an illustration that best represents your views on what Australia's national identity is today. Below are some suggestions.

- A collage of famous Australians from different cultural backgrounds
- A picture similar to that of Source 6.8.1, showing a range of scenes representing multicultural Australia

INQUIRY TASKS



#1 Snapshots

Create a photo essay recording the contributions of non-British migrants to your local community.

a Group your findings by cultural group and identify which group seems to have made the largest contribution. Compare this to statistics on the percentage of different migrant groups in your local community. What conclusions can you draw from this?

b Create a list of the types of things you did not photograph. Were all of these things the result of British migrants? Explain your findings.

#2 Out and about

Select an aspect of cultural life (food, sport, literature, music, film, art, fashion etc.) and research the contributions made by migrants to the development of this aspect of cultural life in Australia. You may want to present your findings as a multimedia presentation, a wiki, a blog, or a video documentary.

#3 Movers and shakers

Create a short profile on a post–World War II migrant who has made a significant contribution to Australia in one of the following areas: business, sport, education, science, the arts, politics, entertainment or another field of your choosing. They may or may not be famous. What difficulties did they have to overcome to achieve success in their chosen field? Present your profile on one A4 page, including a picture of the person. You may want to incorporate a timeline that summarises their migration history and notable events or achievements in their life.

#4 Migrant history of my school

Design and conduct a survey of the cultural background of students in your school. Create categories of information and construct a series of questions to gather information on things such as:

- where their family originally came from
- why they came to Australia and when
- the difficulties faced by their family in immigrating and settling in to life in Australia
- success stories of their families as migrants
- what they believe their family's culture has contributed to Australian society.

Create a report including images, statistics and maps that summarises the migrant history of your school.



SOURCE **6.9.1** Migrants who now call Australia home pose in front of the Australian flag, 11 July 2008.

GLOSSARY

abolitionists in reference to the US Civil Rights movement, people and organisations that agitated to abolish slavery

alternative energy energy sources that replace or supplement fossil fuels and are environmentally friendly, such as solar, wind, tidal and geothermal energy

alternative rock genre of popular music that emerged in the late 1980s and early 1990s that produced guitar-based, raw sounds and lyrics that dealt with social and emotional issues of young people of the time

amphibious landing armed forces using sea craft to land troops and supplies

anglicising change in form or character to become more British

Anglo-Celtic born in the British Isles or descended from people born there

anime style of film animation originating from Japan

Anschluss German word meaning 'union', usually used to describe the German occupation of Austria in 1938. This resulted in Austria becoming part of Germany

antisemitism prejudice against, or hatred of Jews

Apartheid former policy in South Africa of racial segregation that was used to provide superior opportunities for the 'white' population at the expense of the country's 'non-white' people

appeasement policy in which a country offers concessions to an aggressive power in order to avoid conflict

'Arab Spring' term used to describe the 2010–11 pro-democratic movement in the Middle East that toppled long-standing military-backed governments in countries such as Egypt and Libya

area bombing strategic bombing that includes the use of incendiary bombs

arid unproductive, barren area that lacks moisture due to very low rainfall and extreme temperatures

armaments weaponry used for warfare

armistice situation in which the parties involved in a war agree to stop fighting

arms race competition between the United States and the Soviet Union to develop and stockpile increasingly sophisticated weapons

Articles statements within a larger written document. The Articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights outline the civil, political, social and economic rights to which every person is entitled

'Asian invasion' refers to the perception by some that the increase in Asian migration in the 1980s and 1990s was impacting negatively upon Australian society

assimilation process whereby migrants embrace and adopt the way of life of another national culture

assimilation policy laws advocated by Australian state governments from the mid-1930s that expected Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples to abandon their culture and languages and adopt the way of life of 'white' Australia

assisted passage government-subsidised passage to Australia offered to desirable migrants

the Australian dream belief that home ownership can lead to a better life and is an indication of success and security

Axis alliance partnership between Germany, Italy, Japan and some other European countries that fought against the Allies in World War II

biodiversity variety of life forms in an ecosystem

biosphere parts of the Earth that support living organisms: atmosphere, hydrosphere and surface of the planet

blackbirding recruitment of workers through trickery or deception

black market situation in which goods and services are exchanged illegally and outside the government's control

Black Panthers US militant political party created around 1966 by Huey Newton and Bobby Seale to break down the barriers that stopped the advancement of African Americans

the Blitz intense bombing of British cities by the German air force between September and October 1940

Blitzkrieg German term for 'lightning war'; it involves the combination of air power, artillery, armour and infantry in warfare in order to create a rapid breakthrough

bloc group of people or countries united in a common goal

'boat people' people who travel in small boats from their country of origin to seek refuge in another country

bodgies groups of young men who adopted the 'sharp' trends and fashions of the 1950s

Bollywood film industry in India

bopping popular dance style developed in the 1940s based on swing and jive

break dancing style of dance that involves acrobatic and body contorting movements, such as spinning on heads and backs, to rap dance music

***Bringing them home* report** report published in 1997 that documents findings from the Keating Labor Government's National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families

bubblegum music genre of popular music that developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s that appealed to teenagers because of its use of simple, catchy lyrics and tunes that could be danced to

bus boycott tactic used by civil rights protestors in the United States during the 1950s in which people refused to ride in buses until the laws of segregation on public transport were removed

capitalism economic system in which the means of production, distribution and exchange are privately owned

carbon dioxide invisible, odourless gas found in the atmosphere formed by decomposition of organic matter, burning of fossil fuels and animal respiration

carbon tax tax on the burning of fossil fuels with the aim of reducing production of greenhouse gases that lead to global warming

carbon trading system that aims to reduce overall carbon emissions by allowing an entity that reduces its emissions below a particular level to sell the credit (amount of saved emissions) to an entity that has exceeded its level

censorship attempts to halt or limit various types of communication that may not suit the interests of a country or other controlling organisation

chain migration occurs when someone who has settled in a new country supports relatives or friends from their country of origin to immigrate to the same place

child migrants British children, orphaned or from families unable to care for them, sent to Australia and other Commonwealth countries from the late 1940s to the 1960s

chlorofluorocarbons group of chemical compounds that are being phased out because of the damage they cause to the ozone layer

cinematography creation of motion picture images

Citizen Military Forces (CMF) another name for the militia. This group performed the important job of defending Australia from within when World War II began

citizenship status of a member of a particular community with social, political and human rights and duties

citizenship test introduced in 2007 by the Howard Liberal Government (and amended in 2008), those wishing to become Australian citizens had to demonstrate their knowledge of Australian history, society and values via a test

civil disobedience usually non-violent strategies of non-cooperation with governing authorities to bring about desired change

climate change naturally occurring and human-induced change in weather patterns that persist over an extended period of time

Colombo Plan initiative proposed by the Australian Government at a Commonwealth foreign ministers' meeting in 1950 in Colombo, Sri Lanka, as a way to promote economic and political cooperation within the Asia–Pacific region (e.g. through the provision of educational scholarships to Asian students)

commercialism methods of business geared towards generating profit

communism political system characterised by the control of a single party, and an economic system characterised by government ownership and regulation of the means of producing a country's goods and services

concentration camps collections of buildings where people were placed without trial because they were considered to be dangerous to the ruling party

conservation use of natural resources for the benefit of all humans and at a rate that is sustainable, so resources are available for future generations

Constitution written document that outlines the rules of how a government should function in society

cooperative organisations 1950s initiative of sharing skills and resources to build homes collaboratively

Crown land land owned and managed by the government

Cuban Missile Crisis confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union in 1962 over missile bases being established in communist Cuba

cultural cringe rejection of distinctly Australian culture in favour of cultural influences from other countries, such as Britain or the United States

cyber activism campaigning for a cause using the internet as a communication medium

cyberspace computer network in which online communication takes place

'Day of Mourning' declared on Australia Day in 1936 (the 150th anniversary of British settlement of Australia) by Aboriginal activist William Cooper as 'the day we lost our land, lost our spirit culture, lost our language'

D-Day Allied invasion of Europe on 6 June 1944

decolonisation process of establishing independence in countries that had previously been controlled by a colonising power

deforestation clearing an area of trees and vegetation

demobilised released from duty in the armed forces

deported forcibly removed from one nation and returned to a country of origin

depression major economic downturn that impacts severely on many sectors of society. It is often characterised by large-scale unemployment, a slowdown in international trade and increased tariffs

desegregate to remove the laws that allow for the separation of individuals or groups

détente period of peaceful co-existence in the 1970s between the United States and the Soviet Union

dictation test requirement of applicants seeking to immigrate to Australia to correctly write a passage read to them in any European language prescribed by the immigration officer before being admitted into the country

digital revolution term used to describe the dominance of digital technology that has allowed the storage and transmission of vast amounts of information

digital television technology of sending and receiving television broadcasts as digitally encoded signals

disco genre of music that was popular in dance clubs of the 1970s

displaced persons people left homeless or stranded outside their country of origin after World War II due to wartime damage or political changes experienced in their home country

domino theory US belief held during the Vietnam War that if one Asian country was allowed to become communist, its neighbours would certainly follow

Earth Summit meeting of international delegates held in 1972 to discuss a wide range of issues dealing with sustainable development, biodiversity and maintaining an environmentally healthy planet

ecology branch of biology that deals with the interaction of organisms and how they relate to each other and their physical surroundings

ecosystem community of organisms interacting with one another and the environment in which they live

eco-terrorists people or groups who take radical environmental action, such as destruction of equipment or buildings of organisations that cause environmental damage, in order to stop their operations

Einsatzgruppen mobile killing squads that operated in the lands recently conquered by the German armies in their eastern campaigns during World War II

enclaves suburbs populated or characterised by a particular ethnic group

'enemy aliens' people from a foreign country that is at war with the country in which they now live. For example, Germans living in Australia during World War II

environmentalism political imperative of developing policies and practices to protect the natural environment

extermination camps places to which Jews in World War II were transported primarily to be killed in large numbers

extreme nationalism system of beliefs based on very strong association with a country; belief in the superiority of one's own country over others

extremists people who advocate or resort to measures beyond the norm to achieve political or ideological goals

fauna animal life in a region

'flapper' name given to free-spirited women of the 1920s who pushed the boundaries of socially accepted behaviour

flora plant life in a region

folk music in the 1960s and 1970s, genre of popular music with lyrics that deliver social and political messages and commentary

fossil fuels energy sources such as coal, natural gas and petroleum formed under the ground by organic (plant and animal) material that has decayed over geological time

'freedom rides' organised bus rides to places where racial discrimination is practised, by people wishing to protest against the discrimination. 'Freedom rides' occurred in the early 1960s in the United States in response to segregation on buses, and were organised in Australia in 1965 by a group of University of Sydney students wanting to draw public attention to problems associated with Aboriginal health, education and housing

freehold title complete ownership of land

Führer German word for a leader, used by Adolf Hitler to describe himself as the leader of his political party and state

gangsta rap type of music that grew out of African-American inner-city street culture in the late 1970s

generation X people born in the 1960s through to the late 1970s

generation Y people born in the 1980s and 1990s

genetically modified (GM) foods foods derived from genetic manipulation or engineering of animal or plant genes to create desired characteristics, such as disease-resistant plants or faster-growing crops

genocide deliberate attempt to exterminate a national or racial group

German–Soviet Non-Aggression Pact formal agreement signed on 23 August 1939 between Germany and the Soviet Union to not fight a war between themselves

ghettos parts of cities usually occupied by specific groups of people. Old slum areas, designed for Jews only, were created within large towns and cities in German-occupied Europe during World War II

glam rock genre of popular music that emerged in the 1970s, characterised by performers dressed in elaborate costumes and with androgynous personas

glasnost policy of 'openness' used by Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev in the 1980s to challenge the total control of communist rule in the Soviet Union

global commons natural resources, such as seas and the atmosphere, that do not belong to any one entity but are shared by all

global warming increase in the Earth's overall temperature that is measured over a long period of time and may be a human-induced or natural occurrence

Great Depression worldwide economic crisis that began in the United States in 1929 and lasted well into the mid-1930s

green politics political ideology that places a focus on environmental issues

greenhouse gas gas like carbon dioxide or chlorofluorocarbons that cause temperatures to rise by trapping infrared radiation in the Earth's atmosphere

grunge genre of popular music that emerged in the 1990s and was based on heavy drums; loud, distorted guitars and 'power chords'; and lyrics that reflected the angst of many young generation Xers

habitats natural environments of plants or animals

heterogeneous diverse in character

high definition (HD) television term used to describe a higher resolution of images presented on television and cinema screens

hippie movement series of actions or activities that developed in the 1960s and 1970s on college campuses in the United States directed towards encouraging young people to seek an alternate lifestyle

hire purchase system that allows a purchaser to make regular payments for a product purchased, until the full amount is paid

the Holocaust systematic persecution and extermination of the Jewish people by the Nazi regime

human capital ability of prospective migrants to resettle and contribute to the economy of a country

hydro-electric electricity generated by converting the energy produced from fast running water

imperialism belief that one country can control and exploit the peoples and territories of other countries

indentured labour work under a restrictive contract of employment for a fixed period in a foreign country in exchange for payment of passage, accommodation and food

insecticides chemicals that kill insects

integration blending of a minority migrant group with the broader community

internment camps places established for the temporary imprisonment of those deemed to be 'enemy aliens' during World War I and World War II

inter-war period years between World War I and World War II

'invisible luggage' intangible items brought by migrants to a new country, such as work-related skills, language, culture, religion etc.

Iron Curtain imaginary barrier between communist Eastern Europe and democratic Western Europe that was prominent from the 1950s to the 1980s

isolationist policy policy in which a country elects to not become involved in the affairs of other countries. Its best example is the US stance of keeping out of European politics during the 1930s

the Jazz Age term used to describe the 1920s, particularly in the United States. It refers to a style of music and also a sense of social liberation felt among people of the time

'Jim Crow' laws laws passed mainly in the Southern states of the United States between the 1870s and 1950s that enforced racial segregation

junta small ruling group in a country, which may or may not have come to power through legal means

Kamikaze Japanese pilots who would embark on suicide missions to intentionally crash their planes into Allied warships

Kanakas name given to workers recruited from the Pacific Islands during the late 1800s to work on Queensland's sugarcane plantations

Kristallnacht also known as the 'night of broken glass', this anti-Jewish riot supported by the Nazi state occurred in German territory in November 1938

Ku Klux Klan group formed in 1866 that believed the white race was superior to the all other racial groups

Kyoto Protocol United Nations international agreement adopted in 1997 to establish procedures to reduce greenhouse gas emissions for industrial countries

land rights policies legal recognition of right to own land, especially the rights of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples to possess traditional land

League of Nations first permanent organisation of countries that was set up to prevent the outbreak of wars. It came into being at the Paris Peace Conference in April 1919

Lebensraum German word that means 'living space'

'lucky country' phrase that is generally used to describe Australia as being a stable, prosperous country, which allows its citizens favourable opportunities for advancement

Luftwaffe German air force

lynching to put a person to death by whipping, hanging, mutilating, burning or otherwise without authority or process of law

Maginot Line French defensive fortifications built after World War I that were intended to prevent another German invasion

mainstream music music promoted heavily by large recording companies on television and radio

mandate commission given to one country by an international body to manage the affairs of another country

mandatory detention compulsory detainment of all non-citizens arriving in Australia without a valid visa

manga style of print cartoons originating from Japan

Manhattan Project joint operation between the United States, Britain and Canada to build the first atomic bomb

mass media technologies that are intended to reach large audiences via mass communication, such as newspapers, radio, television and the internet

mass production ability to produce products on a large scale at a single site. It was founded on the use of the assembly line

'master race' group of people with specific racial features who regard themselves as better than all other races. The term is typically used in reference to Germany's 'Aryan' race during the Nazi period

migrant camps temporary housing for newly arrived migrants

militia military unit not part of the regular army. In Australia, during the early years of World War II, this unit could not serve overseas

mini-series television production presented in a defined number of episodes, usually two or three

Montreal Protocol international agreement established in 1987 and driven by the United Nations that focused on protecting the Earth's atmosphere by phasing out the use of substances such as chlorofluorocarbons, which are known to deplete the ozone layer

'mother country' country of one's birth or one's ancestors

multiculturalism maintenance and promotion of more than one culture within a society

music television television programs that focus on popular music; the emergence of music specifically created with a television audience in mind

Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD) policy during the Cold War that if one side launched a nuclear attack, the other would retaliate, guaranteeing the destruction of both superpowers

national identity characteristics of a country, encompassing its culture, traditions, language and politics

national pastime amusement or game that is considered to be an intrinsic part of the culture of a country; e.g. sport in Australia

nation building adoption of policies by the Australian federal and state governments that aimed to foster economic growth and social development after World War II

native title in Australia, the right to land ownership by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples who have maintained connection to the land, and the possession of such land is recognised by Australian law

natural history the study of animal or plant life

Nazi Party German political party that formed government in 1932 and remained in power until 1945. Its full title was the National Socialist German Workers' Party

Nazi youth groups organisations of boys and girls, starting at 10 years of age, which placed emphasis on training young Germans in the beliefs of the Nazi state

New Deal US reform policy introduced by President Franklin D. Roosevelt that employed people in conservation projects between 1933 and 1936

new wave Australian films made in the 1970s and 1980s that featured Australian issues, events and characters, signalling a revival of the Australian film industry

non-government organisations (NGOs) groups formed by everyday citizens that work independently of government to improve an aspect of society by influencing government policy

Northern Territory Intervention legislation introduced by the Howard Liberal Government with the intention of protecting Aboriginal children from negligence and abuse in the Northern Territory

offshore processing interviewing and obtaining the details of people seeking entry to Australia before they reach the mainland

one-party state country in which only one political party is allowed

Operation Thunderclap code name for the Allied bombing of Dresden (Germany) in February 1945

Oslo Accords 1993 peace agreement in the Middle East where Israel recognised the Palestinian Liberation Organisation (PLO) as the legitimate representative of the Palestinian people, and the PLO recognised the right of Israel to exist

'ozploitation' films that are thought to exploit, celebrate and satirise stereotypical Australian culture

people smugglers participants in the illegal transportation of people to a country where they are not permitted to enter as immigrants

perpetual lease ongoing settlement of land to be renewed as the lessee wishes

pesticides human-made chemicals used to destroy plant, fungal and animal pests that harm agricultural production

Phoney War name given to the period of time (October 1939 to March 1940) in World War II in which there were no major offensives

pollution presence of harmful or poisonous substances in the environment

pop (music) commercial, modern music with wide popular appeal

'Populate or perish' policy adopted by the Australian Government after World War II with the aim of increasing Australia's population, partly through immigration

Potsdam Conference major meeting of the Allied powers in occupied Germany in July 1945. Its major topics were the final surrender ultimatum to Japan and administrative matters concerning the end of the war in Europe

preservation safeguarding of the natural environment in its original, untarnished state

prisoners of war someone captured by an enemy during a time of war

progressivism reform movement in the early twentieth century that influenced US society and politics

propaganda distribution of information used to promote particular beliefs, but often based on incorrect or biased information

protection policies laws that enabled Australian state governments to control aspects of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples' lives such as where they could live, the wages they could receive and whom they could marry

pull factors reasons that contribute to the attractiveness of a destination for immigrants and refugees

punk rebellious, anti-mainstream and loud genre of popular music that emerged in the 1970s and was threatening to traditional society

push factors reasons people want to emigrate from their country of origin

queue-jumpers people who are attempting to bypass the legal processes of gaining refugee status in United Nations refugee camps and processing centres

racialising emphasising race or racial considerations when determining policy or interpreting events

radiation emission of energy from a radioactive source

rationing when goods and services that are in short supply are distributed using a system which limits how much can be obtained at any one time

raves dance parties held in large, empty spaces (typically warehouses) where patrons dance to loud, electronic music

recession period of economic downturn that often precedes a more severe depression

Reconciliation Australian Government initiative introduced in the early 1990s to improve the relationships between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and the broader Australian community

reconstruction period of modernising, reorganising and rebuilding the Australian economy and society after World War II

Reich German word usually meaning 'kingdom' or 'empire'

renewable energy energy sources that can be replaced by natural process and are derived from the sun, wind, tides, biomass and geothermal sources

repatriate to return somebody to the land from which they came or where they are a citizen

rights of nature idea that the natural world has a right to exist and be protected from human activities

rock 'n' roll popular style of music from the 1950s onwards that is a fusion of country and western music with African-American rhythm and blues

Royal Air Force (RAF) air wing of the British armed forces

salinity relative amount of salt in a substance such as soil or water

sanitised in music, careful management and creation of performers to present behaviour and an image that will not offend

Second Australian Imperial Force (AIF) special formation of 20 000 soldiers formed in September 1939 for use at home or abroad

segregate to separate one group from another, often on the basis of race

self-determination right of a country's people to determine their own future

semi-arid area that has relatively low rainfall, low scrub vegetation and coarse grasses

shock rockers music performers of the late 1970s who dressed flamboyantly and used elaborate sets and stunts in their performances to excite the audience

Singapore Strategy World War II strategy whereby British naval vessels were to be sent from European waters to Britain's naval base in Singapore in the event of danger to Australia or Britain's East-Asian colonies

sit-in tactic used by civil rights protestors in the United States during the 1960s that involved passive protest in which demonstrators occupied segregated areas, such as restaurants or cafeterias, and refused to move. Their intention was to highlight the laws of segregation that existed in these places

smartphones mobile telephones that have the functionality of a computer and can give users access to the internet

soap operas ongoing, episodic work of dramatic fiction presented in serial format on radio or as television programming

social Darwinism theory that persons, groups and races follow the same laws of natural selection as proposed by Charles Darwin (1809–1882) for plants and animals in nature

social media use of internet-based technologies to distribute information through online social channels

social networking communication between people using digital platforms and media

soil degradation soil that becomes less productive and poorer in quality due to over-farming and clearing of forests and woodlands

soil erosion soil that is washed or blown away by water or wind; common in areas where trees have been cleared

'Sorry Speech' national address delivered by Labor Prime Minister Kevin Rudd on 13 February 2008 to formally apologise to Australia's Stolen Generations and their descendants for the actions of past governments

Stolen Generations Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples who, as children, were forcibly removed from their families as a result of government policy from the 1880s until the early 1970s

strategic bombing intensive bombing campaigns designed to cause a country to surrender by destroying its resources and its will to fight

subscription television introduced in Australia in 1995 as a service provided by select communications companies to offer viewers additional channels for a subscription-based fee

sustainability management of natural resource use in a way that does not exploit or deplete the environment, but maintains an ecological balance

'synthpop' genre of popular music that emerged in the 1980s and is known for its heavy use of synthesisers

tariffs taxes imposed on imports by countries

techno modern genre of pop or dance music that is electronically generated

Tehran Conference high-level strategy meeting, held in Iran, between the leaders of the United States, Britain and the Soviet Union at the end of 1943. Two of its topics were the invasion of Western Europe by the Allies and the war against Japan

temporary migration settlement in another country granted to people for a short period of time and for a specific purpose, such as work, business or study

'Tent Embassy' protest camp erected on the lawns of Parliament House in Canberra on 26 January 1972 in response to unsatisfactory recognition of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples' claims to land rights

terra nullius Latin term meaning 'empty land' or 'nobody's land'

Treaty of Versailles agreement signed in 1919 between the Allied powers and Germany to officially end World War I

Tripartite Pact formal agreement, signed in September 1940, between Germany, Italy and Japan reaffirming their agreement to come to one another's aid if attacked by other forces

tweens children roughly between the ages of 9 and 12

UN Charter agreed set of rules and principles that govern the actions of the United Nations

Underground Railroad process by which escaped slaves from the South of the United States would be transferred from one safe house to another until they reached the slavery-free states of the North

'underground' scene music sub-culture of the 1980s that was born out of opposition to heavily commercialised music

universal human rights claims or entitlements that every individual has with regard to their social, political and economic wellbeing

urbanisation growth of cities as increasing numbers of people move from rural areas to live in urban areas

US Civil Rights movement series of actions or activities directed towards improving the rights of African Americans in the United States, particularly in the 1950s and 1960s

'visible luggage' physical or tangible items brought by migrants to a new country, such as food and clothes

Wall Street Crash collapse of the stock market in New York on 29 October 1929

war brides women who marry soldiers from another country during a time of war

weapons of mass destruction weapons capable of widespread destruction. Their alleged existence was used to justify the 2003 US-led invasion of Iraq

Weimar Republic permanent democratic government of Germany created in 1919 to replace the former imperial government

White Australia policy collection of laws and regulations designed to discourage and restrict non-British people from coming to Australia

widgies female equivalents of bodgies

wilderness areas in their original state and unaltered by humans

women's movement series of actions or activities directed towards the pursuit of equal rights for women

women's suffrage right of women to vote in elections

xenophobia fear or hatred of foreigners or strangers

youth culture norms, values and practices of adolescents

INDEX

A

abolitionists 111
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and US Civil Rights movement 129–30
  Charles Perkins 129–31
  deaths in custody 150
  'freedom ride' 129–31, 133
  integration replaces assimilation 131
  limits of Australia's Constitution 133
  Little Children are Sacred report 150
  Maralinga nuclear testing 128
  Northern Territory Intervention 150–1
  post-war decades 127
  recent challenges 150–3
  strikes and petitions 128–9
  terra nullius 120, 128, 141–2
  towards constitutional change 133
  United Nations 129
  Wave Hill strike 129
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples before 1945 33, 104–5, 120–5
  1967 referendum 133–7
  assimilation policy 122
  emerging protest movements 122
  Great Depression 121–2
  impact of European occupation 120
  life expectancy 41
  limited citizenship gains 125
  meaning of Federation 121
  protection policy 120–1
  removal of children 122, 127
  Stolen Generations 122
  traditional laws, culture 120
  White Australia policy 121, 127
  World War II experiences 124–5
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, land rights 139–43
  aims of 140
  and mining 141
  claiming rights 141
  historic Mabo case 141–2, 144
  land rights policies 139
  Native Title Act 142–3, 147
  self-determination policy 140
  ten-point plan 143
  'tent embassy' 137, 139
  Wik decision 142–3, 144
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, reconciliation
  Bringing them home report 146–8
  council for 144–6
  Lowitja (Lois) O'Donoghue 147
  Patrick Dodson 145–6, 151
  'Sorry Speech' 148
  Stolen Generations inquiry 146–7
Aborigines Progressive Association 123
African Americans before 1945 110–14
  Civil War consequences 111
  legacy of slavery 110–12
  National Association for the Advancement of Colored People 113
  segregation and the 'Jim Crow' laws 111–12, 115
  the great migration 112
  the World Wars 113
African National Congress (ANC) 35–6, 109
African wars 26
Allied victory
  Asia–Pacific 77
  Europe 60–1
  occupation of Japan 96
  see also World War II
alternative energy 240
alternative rock 183
amphibious landing 77
ancient life and the environment 206
Anglo-Celtic 248, 250
anime 184
Anti-Apartheid movement 34–6
antisemitism 64
Apartheid 34–6, 109
'Arab Spring' (struggle for democracy) 25, 37
arid 226
armistice 57
arms race 12
Asia–Pacific 72–8
  Allied advances 77–8
  Colombo Plan 265
  Papua campaign 76
  prisoners of war 87–8, 252
  see also war/s; World War II
assimilation 257, 261–2
assisted passage 254
atomic bomb 2, 90–3
  decision to use 92
  race for 91–2
Australia
  alternative energy 240
  and modern world 2–43
  ANZUS Pact 97
  asylum seekers 278–80
  climate change 239–40, 242
  Commonwealth proclaimed 121
  Constitution 133
  country of migrants 246
  environment movement 226–30
  Great Depression 7–8
  home-grown television 177
  immigration 248–83
  keeping 'white' 248–55
  Korean War 97
  mandatory detention 279
  migration to 248–83
  national parks movement 209
  nation building 259
  populate or perish 127, 254–8
  predicament, Asia–Pacific war 75
  refugees 271, 276–80
  SEATO 97
  sport (source study) 187–90
  twenty-first century identity 281–3
  under attack 84
  United Nations 108
  Vietnamese 'boat people' 268, 270–3
  women's changing roles 47, 82–3
  see also Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples; environment movement; popular culture
Australia, film 170–2
  Bollywood 193
  cinematography 196
  computer-generated imagery 185
  global audiences 185
  global influence 196
  in the eighties 182
  in the nineties 185–6
  in the seventies 178
  in the sixties 176
  'Muriel' and 'Priscilla' 185–6
Australia, immigration
  'Asian invasion' 276
  assimilation policy 256–7
  contribution to nation building 259

humanitarian obligations 278–9
laws 250
new debates surface 275–6
'Pacific Solution' 280
populate or perish 254–8
push and pull factors 255–6
queue-jumpers 278
reform pressures 265–6
restriction 250
snapshot 246–7
White Australia policy 121, 127, 248–55, 264–6
see also Australia, migration experiences
Australia, impact of World War II 80–5
American 'invasion' 85
attack on Sydney 84
bombing of Darwin 84
end of the war 85
'enemy aliens' 82
greater government power 80
immigration 127
post-war foreign policy 95
prisoners of war 87–8
rationing 80–1
two armies 80
United Nations 95–6
urban employment 83
Women's Land Army 83
see also popular culture
Australia, international relations and World War II 94–7
Australia, life after World War II 164–9
air travel 167
creature comforts 165
golden age of radio 170
high-rise housing 165
motor vehicles 166
multiculturalism 247, 266–8, 276–7, 281–3
push for immigration 254
reconstruction 164
sporting nation 168–9
the Australian Dream 164–5
undoing White Australia policy 264–6
see also popular culture
Australia, migration experiences 246–83
camps and hostels 257–8
citizenship test 277
economic contribution 282–3
hardships 260–1
integration 263
multiculturalism 247, 266–8, 276–7, 281–3
snapshot 246–7
temporary 268
Vietnamese 'boat people' 268, 270–3
see also Australia, immigration
Australia, music 6
global influence 195–6
in the eighties 179–80
in the nineties 182–3
in the seventies 176–7
in the sixties 174–5
raves 183
techno 183
Australia, Northern Territory Intervention 150–1
conditions of 151
later government positions 152
perspectives on 151
Australia, popular culture *see* Australian influences on global popular culture; popular culture
Australia, television 39
digital and reality television 193
global influence 197–8
in the eighties 181
in the nineties 184
in the seventies 177
in the sixties 175
Australian Aboriginal Progress Association 122
Australian Aborigines League 122
Australian Conservation Foundation 227
Australian influences on global popular culture 195–8
film 196
music 195–6
television 197–8
see also popular culture
Australian Military Forces (AMF) 80
Australia's national pastime (source study) 187–90
Axis powers 53, 58

B

Balkan wars 25
Battle of Britain 58
Battle of Kokoda 76
Battle of Stalingrad 59
Belgian, occupied 57
Berlin Wall 11
Bill of Rights, US 106
biodiversity 215
biosphere 216
blackbirding 249
black market 81
Black Panthers 119
Blitzkrieg 56
Blitz, the 58
'boat people' 268, 270–3
Britain
Australia's wartime relationship 94–5
Battle of 58
bombing of 58
see also Asia–Pacific; war/s; World War II
Brown, Bob 226–7, 232–5
Burma, struggle to democracy 36–7
Burma–Thailand Railway 89

C

Canada's aboriginal peoples 156–7
Nunavut 156–7
capitalism 10
carbon dioxide 238
carbon tax 240
carbon trading 222
censorship 81
change in life as we know it 38–42
technology 38–41
Chernobyl nuclear disaster 223
child migrants 255
Chinese in Australian colonies 249
chlorofluorocarbons 238
civil disobedience 21
Civil Rights movement, US *see* US Civil Rights movement
climate change 221, 238–40, 242
Cold War 2, 10–13, 15
post-Cold War conflicts 24–9, 93
commercialism 179
communications (technology development) 38–41, 192–4
communism 10–15, 24
concentration camps 51, 65, 69
see also extermination camps
conscription 80
conservation 209
cooperative organisations 165
Crown land 141
Cuban missile crisis 12–13

D

D-Day 60
Declaration of Independence, US 106
Declaration on Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms 107
declarations of war 56, 72
decolonisation, movements for 21–3
deforestation 206
democracy, continuing struggles for 36–7

Democratic Republic of the Congo, decolonisation 22–3
deported 252
depression *see* economic depression
desegregate 115
détente 15
digital revolution 40–1
digital television 193
displaced persons 69, 255
Dodson, Patrick 145–6, 151
'domino theory' 14

E

Earth First! 225
Earth Liberation Front 225
Earth's resources, pressures on 42
Earth Summit (environment) 221
ecology 215
economic depression 2, 7–9, 49, 121–2, 165, 212
ecosystem 215
eco-terrorists 225
enclaves 262
environment
  climate change 221, 238–40
  global commons 221
  GM foods 240
  grassroots reactions 218
  impact of Great Depression 212
  impact of World War I 211
environment movement 203–43
  1960s and 1970s 215–20
  1980s and 1990s 221–5
  activists 219–20, 225, 227, 240
  background 206–10
  events and campaigns 216–18, 222–4, 227–30
  Franklin River struggle (source study) 232–5
  Gaia hypothesis 216
  Great Barrier Reef campaign 227–8
  growth of awareness 211–14
  in Australia 226–30
  international initiatives 219, 221
  Kakadu National Park campaign 230
  Kelly's Bush campaign 229
  non-government organisations 227
  nuclear age 213
  post-war trends 213–14
  preservation or conservation 209
  twenty-first century 237–41
environmentalism 192
Europe
  Allied victory 60–1
  prisoners of war 87, 252
  war in 56–63
extermination camps 66–7
  see also concentration camps
extreme nationalism 49
  see also fascism
extremists 277
Exxon Valdez oil spill 224

F

fascism 49
  Italy 49–50
  Nazi Germany 50–1
  Spain 51–2
fauna 209
Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders 128–9, 133–4, 136
film *see* Australia, film; popular culture
'Final Solution' 67
First Gulf War 26
flora 209
folk music 174
fossil fuels 214
France
  invasion of 57
  liberated 60
Franklin River struggle (source study) 232–5
Freedom Charter (South Africa) 109
freedoms *see* rights and freedoms
freehold title 141
Friends of the Earth 219
Fukushima nuclear disaster 238

G

Gaia hypothesis 216
generation X 179
generation Y and twenty-first century cyberspace 192–4
genetically modified foods 240
genocide 26, 33, 51, 107
  see also Holocaust, the
German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact 54
Germany 4
  Allied victory 61
  antisemitism 64
  imperialist aggression 52
  Nazi 33, 50–3, 64–70
  prisoners of war 87
  Weimar Republic 49
Gandhi, Mahatma 21–2
ghettos 66
glam rock 176–7, 180
glasnost 15
global warming 221, 238–40, 242
government 8
  Australia after World War II 80
  the environment 226
Great Depression 2, 7–9
  Australia 121–2, 165
  environmental impact 212
  Germany 49
  government responses 8
Greece, invasion of 59
greenhouse gas 221
Greenpeace 220, 241, 243
'green politics' 219, 222, 226
Gulf of Mexico oil spill 237
Gulf Wars 26–8

H

habitats 211
health 41
hippie movement 174
hire purchase 165
Hiroshima, atomic bomb 92
Hitler 49, 53–4, 57, 65
Holocaust, the 44, 64–70, 107
  aftermath 69
  'Final Solution' 67
  ghettos 66
  see also genocide; Jews
home entertainment 38–9
household products 38–9
housing 164–5
hydro-electric 212, 246, 260

I

immigration experiences *see* Australia, immigration experiences
imperialist aggression 52–3
indentured labour 249
India, decolonisation 21–2
Indonesia, decolonisation 22
Industrial Revolution, and the environment 207
insecticides 215
internment camps 252
interpreting sources 17
Inuit indigenous rights 156–7
investment 7
Irish Republican Army 27
Iron Curtain 10–11
Italy
  Allied victory 60
  fascism 49–50
  imperialist aggression 52

J

Japan
  and Australia post-war 96–7
  bombing of mainland 77–8
  drive south 74
  imperialist aggression 52
  militant nationalism 52–3
  move to war 72
  prisoners of war 88
  reaction to aggression 72
  surrender of 78
  see also Asia–Pacific
jazz age 6
Jews
  antisemitism in Germany 64
  concentration camps 51, 65, 69
  'Final Solution' 67
  persecution intensifies 65–6
  removal of rights 65
  Star of David, enforced display 65
  the Holocaust 44, 64–70
  see also genocide
'Jim Crow' laws 111, 115

K

King Jr, Martin Luther 105, 116, 118, 119
Korean War 11
Kristallnacht 65
Ku Klux Klan 112
Kyoto Protocol 222, 242

L

land rights *see* Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, land rights
League of Nations 4, 48, 107
life expectancy 41
living conditions 7
'lucky country' 164
Luftwaffe 57
lynching 112

M

Mabo, Eddie 141–2, 144
Maginot Line 57
Malaya, invasion of 74
mandate 24
Mandela, Nelson 35
manga 184
mass media 172
mass production 5
'master race' 50
media, social 40
Melbourne Olympics 168–9
migration experiences *see* Australia, migration experiences
militia 80
modern world and Australia 2–43
Montreal Protocol (environment) 221
movements
  Anti-Apartheid 34–6
  decolonisation 21–3
  environment 203–43
  rights and freedoms 33–7
  women's 33–4
multiculturalism 247, 266–8, 281–3
  challenges to 276–7
music *see* Australia, music; popular culture
music television 179–80
Mussolini 49–50, 53
  grab for Empire 59–60
Mutually Assured Destruction 12

N

Nagasaki, atomic bomb 92
National Aboriginal Consultative Committee 140
National Association for the Advancement of Colored People 113–14
national identity 21–3, 33, 281–3
nationalism 49
  militant, Japan 52–3
national parks movement 209
native title 141
Native Title Act 142–3, 147
natural history 209
naval battles, 1942 75
Nazi atrocities 33
Nazi party 8, 49–53
Nazism and the Holocaust 64–70
Nazi youth groups 50
Netherlands, occupied 57
non-government organisations (NGOs) 32
North Africa, invasion of 59
Northern Territory Intervention *see* Australia, Northern Territory Intervention
nuclear disaster 223, 238
nuclear testing in the Pacific 217
Nuremberg trials 69

O

O'Donoghue, Lowitja (Lois) 147
offshore processing 279
oil spills 224, 237
one-party state 49
Oslo Accords 25

P

Pacific islanders in Queensland 249
Palestine Liberation Organisation 25
Palestinian–Israeli conflict 24–5, 32
Pearl Harbor 60, 72–3
people smugglers 278
perpetual lease 141
pesticides 215
Phoney War 56
Poland, invasion of 59, 66
pollution 206, 214, 217, 218, 223–4, 237–8
popular culture 160–201
  alternative rock and grunge 183
  Australian influences on 163
  bodgies and widgies 172–3
  break dancing 180
  defining 162
  disco 176
  festivals and political change 176
  film industry 170–2, 176, 178, 182
  gangsta rap 180
  globalisation and Australian stories 193
  mini-series and soap operas 181
  music 174–5, 176, 179
  new wave and 'ozploitation' 178
  pop 182
  radio 170, 172
  raves 183
  rock 'n' roll 171
  snapshot 162–3
  sport 187–90
  stereotypes and action heroes 182
  'synthpop' 179
  television 171–2, 175, 177, 179–81, 184
  today 162–3
  tweens 194
  violence 172
  see also Australia, life after World War II; X-factor of eighties and nineties
population 41
  and environment 207, 213
  Australia, 1901 248
  Australia, post-war 127
  Jewish, and the Holocaust 65
post-Cold War conflicts 24–9, 93
Potsdam Conference 61
prisoners of war 82, 87–9, 252
propaganda 51, 64
public health (technology development) 41

R

racism 34–6, 64, 109, 276, 278
  see also genocide
radiation 213
radio 170, 172
'Rats of Tobruk' 59–60
reality TV 184, 193
recession 5
reconciliation *see* Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, reconciliation
reconstruction 164
refugees 271, 276–80
renewable energy 240
reparation 48
repatriate 69
rights and freedoms 102–59
  Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples 120–53
  African Americans before 1945 110–14
  of all indigenous peoples 154–7
  rights of nature 237
  snapshot 104–5
  Universal Declaration of Human Rights 102, 107–9
  US Civil Rights movement 115–19
  see also United Nations
'roaring twenties' 5–6
Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody 150
Rwandan genocide 26

S

salinity 216
sanitised 174
scientific revolution, and environment 206
Sea Shepherd Conservation Society 220
Second Australian Imperial Force (AIF) 80
Second Gulf War 28
segregate 111
Singapore, invasion of / fall of 74–5
slavery 110–12
  conditions under 111
  consequences of Civil War 111
  opposition to 111
snapshots
  environment movement 204–5
  migration experiences 246–7
  popular culture 162–3
  rights and freedoms 104–5
  World War II 46–7
social Darwinism 248
social media 40
social networking 40
soil degradation 206
soil erosion 206
source study
  1967 referendum 133–7
  Australia's national pastime 187–90
  changing nature of sources 17–19
  Franklin River struggle 232–5
  the Holocaust 64–70
  Vietnamese 'boat people' 268, 270–3
Soviet Union
  invasion of 58–9
  prisoners of war 87
  response to Hitler 54
sport, Australia (source study) 187–90
  'best Olympics ever' 189–90
  representing Australia 190
  sports participation 189
Stolen Generations 122, 146–7
strategic bombing 90
subscription television 184
suffrage, women's 34
superpowers 11–12, 24
sustainability 221

T

'*Tampa* affair', the 279
tariffs 7
taxation 7
technology and change 38–41
Tehran Conference 60
television *see* Australia, television; popular culture
'Tent Embassy', Aboriginal 137, 139
terra nullius 120, 128, 141–2
terrorism 27–8, 277–8
the Holocaust *see* genocide; Holocaust, the; Jews
thirst for natural resources 207
Timor-Leste (East Timor), war 31–2
Torres Strait Islanders *see* Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples
travel and trade (technology development) 39–40
Treaty of Versailles 4, 48–9

U

UN Charter 30
unemployment 7–8
United Nations (UN) 33, 46, 69, 133, 271
  and Australia post-war 95–6
  Charter 30
  Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 140
  Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples 154–6
  establishment 107
  General Assembly 107–8
  peacekeeping 31–2
  see also rights and freedoms
United States
  Australia's wartime relationship 94–5
  Constitution 111
  entry to war in Europe 60
  hippie movement 174–5
  isolationist policy 54
  national parks movement 209
  New Deal and environment 212
  progressivism (environment) 211
  response to Hitler 54
  slavery 110–12
  see also African Americans before 1945; Asia-Pacific; war/s; World War II
Universal Declaration of Human Rights 102, 107–9
universal human rights 107
urbanisation 206, 213
US Civil Rights movement 33, 104–5, 110, 115–19, 133
  Black Power 118–19
  bus boycotts 116
  Civil Rights Act (USA), 1964 118
  education desegregation 115–16
  Martin Luther King, Jr 105, 116, 118, 119
  protest marches 117–18
  sit-ins, freedom rides 116, 129
  Voting Rights Act (USA), 1965 118

V

Vichy Government (France) 57
Vietnamese 'boat people' 268, 270–3
Vietnam War 13–15, 163, 174, 270

W

Wall Street crash 7
Wannsee Conference ('Final Solution') 67
war/s 10–15
  Afghanistan 28–9
  African 26
  Arab–Israeli 24–5
  Asia–Pacific 72–8
  atrocities 59
  Balkan 25
  between the World Wars 4–9
  Gulf 26–8
  in Europe 56–63
  Korean 11
  Rwanda 26
  Timor–Leste (East Timor) 31–2
  treaties 4
  Vietnam 13–15, 163, 174, 270
  see also Asia–Pacific; Australia, impact of World War II; Australia, life after World War II; Cold War; Europe; fascism; Germany; Holocaust, the; Japan; World War I; World War II
'war brides' 85
war on terror 27–8
weapons of mass destruction 28
Weimar Republic 49
Western Europe invaded and occupied 57
White Australia policy 121, 127, 248–55
  between the wars 251
  end of 265–6
  origins 248–50
  undoing of 264–6
'wilderness', idea of 209
women 47, 82–3, 83
  traditional roles 84
  women's movement 33–4, 195–6
  women's suffrage 34
World Health Organisation 41
World Trade Centre 47
World War I 53
  'enemy aliens' 252–3
  impact on Germany 48–9
  the environment 211
World War II 44–101
  Allied victory 60–1, 78
  appeasement of Hitler 53–4
  Australia's international relations 94–7
  Australian immigration 252–3
  Burma 74
  civilian targets 90–1
  declarations of war 56, 72
  displaced persons 69
  Europe 56–63
  Manhattan Project 92
  Philippines 74, 77
  snapshot 46–7
  the environment 212
  see also Asia–Pacific; Australia, impact of World War II; Europe; fascism; Germany; Holocaust, the; Japan; Jews; war/s

X

xenophobia 277
X-factor of eighties and nineties, Australia 179–860