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VICTORIAN CURRICULUM

Geraldine Carrodus | Tim Delany | Bernie Howitt

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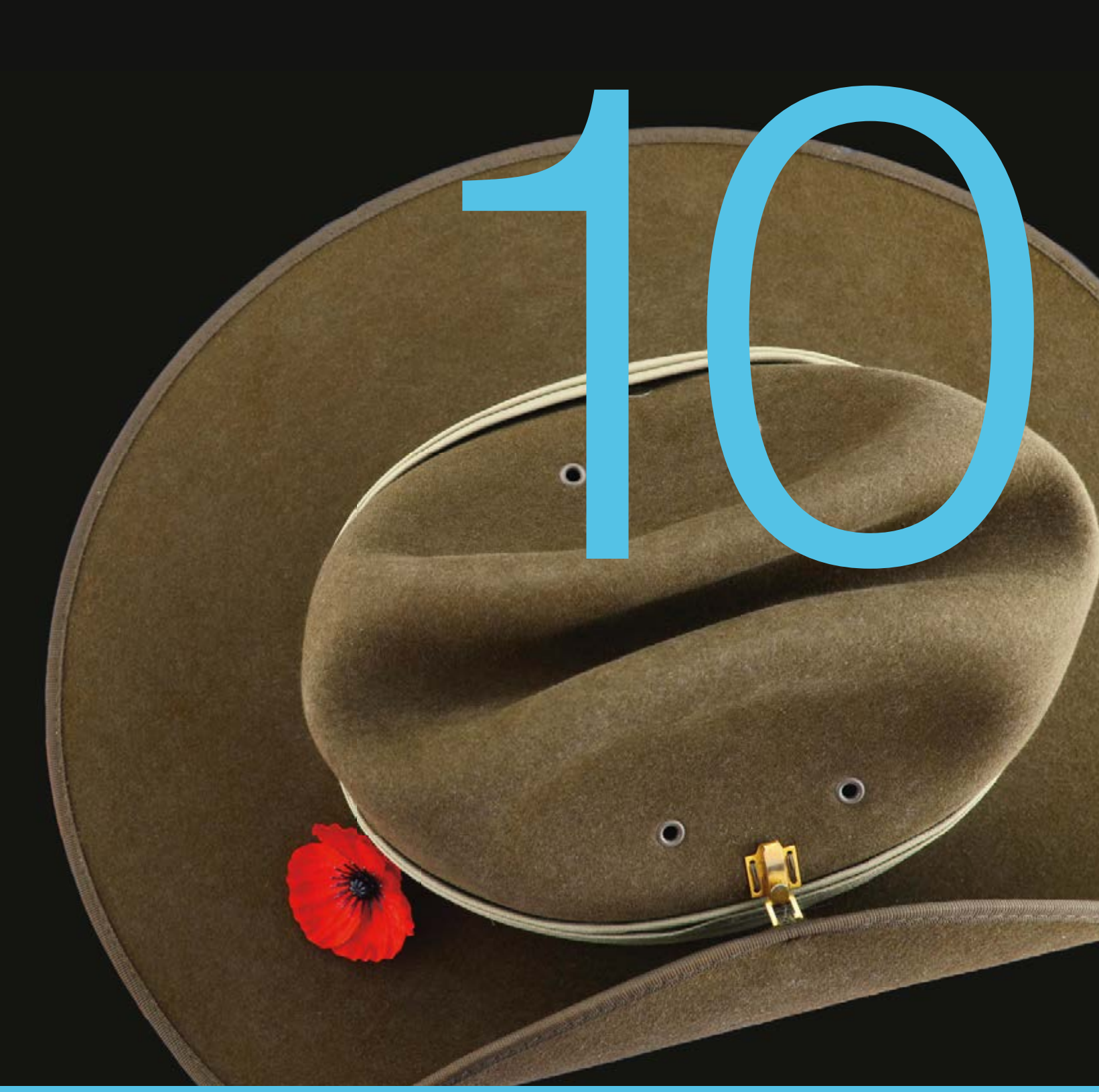


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Geraldine Carrodus | Tim Delany | Bernie Howitt

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Angela Wong | Bruce Dennett

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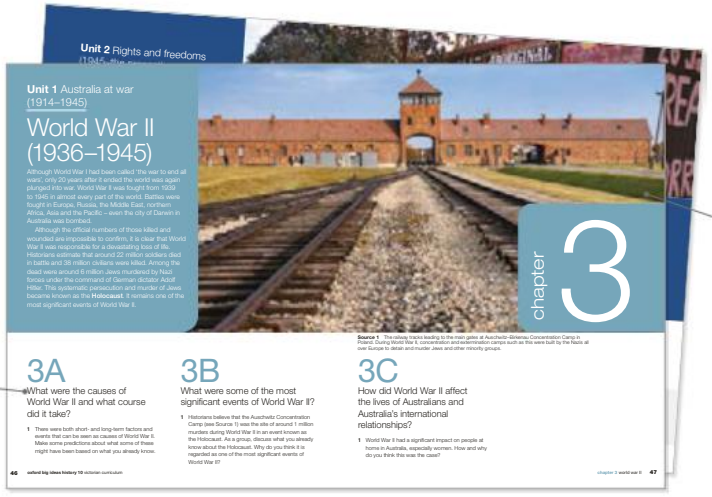
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Focus on inquiry

Each chapter of *Oxford Big Ideas History* is structured around key inquiry questions from the Victorian Curriculum. Each unit of the text supports teachers and students as they adopt an inquiry-based approach to the key learning areas in geography.

The learning sequence in each chapter is clearly set out under key inquiry questions. Students are encouraged to use their prior knowledge and make predictions at the start of each new topic.



Stunning full-colour photography generates discussion and interest.

Focus on engagement

Each unit of the Student book combines a range of engaging source materials – such as photographs, videos, data tables, graphs and illustrations – with supporting questions and activities.

Source materials – such as photographs, infographics, political cartoons, graphs – simplify difficult concepts and engage reluctant learners.

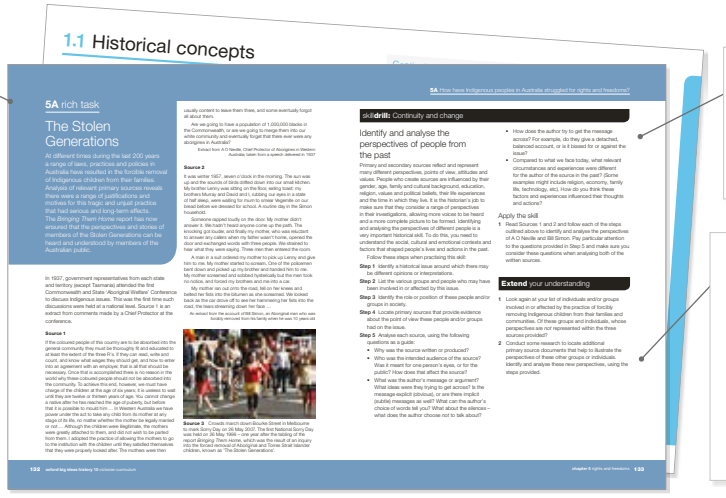


Check your learning activities accompany every unit, allowing students to consolidate and extend their understanding. These are graded according to Bloom's Taxonomy – catering for a range of abilities and learning styles.

Focus on concepts and skills

Complete coverage of all concepts and skills provided in stand-alone reference ‘toolkits’. All of these concepts and skills are also integrated throughout the text so students can see them at work in context.

Rich task activities encourage students to apply the knowledge and skills they have learned in each chapter to a new and interesting case study, event or issue.



Skill drill activities guide and support students step by step as they learn and apply key skills.

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Oświęcim, Poland

During World War II, the Nazi regime operated over 1000 concentration and extermination camps across Europe. The concentration camps were originally created to incarcerate political opponents of Nazi policy, but during the war their role expanded to hold Jews and other ‘undesirables’. Perhaps the most infamous of these is Auschwitz. The German inscription on the main gate of Auschwitz I reads ‘Work Makes Free’. The words misled incoming prisoners into thinking that the only way to secure their freedom was through labour. In reality, for 1.1 million people – mostly Jews – entering these gates meant death via mass genocide.



history

Concepts and skills

Unit 1 Australia at war (1914–1945)

Unit 2 Rights and freedoms

Unit 3 The globalising world

Concepts and skills

The history toolkit

History is the study of the past. Historians seek to piece together accurate pictures of what life was like in days gone by. They also look for patterns – what has remained the same, what has changed, and why.

Historians follow a process of **historical inquiry** in order to better understand the past. They ask questions, form opinions and theories, locate and analyse **sources**, and use **evidence** fto develop an informed explanation about the past. Oral accounts, documents, **artefacts** and archaeological finds form the basis of research and investigation in history.

This year you will be looking at events that took place from 1918 to the present day and how these events influenced modern-day Australia. By conducting historical inquiries into important world events such as World War II, historians show how aspects of our past have shaped the modern world.



1A
What are the historical concepts?

1B
What are the historical skills?



chapter 1

Source 1 This World War II propaganda image by wartime artist W. Krogman shows the bombing of the German city of Cologne by RAF Lancaster bombers. Although propaganda images were often factually inaccurate, they served to rally public support for the war and boost civilian morale by portraying the military successes of the Allied Forces.

1C

What are the career opportunities for historians?

1.1 Historical concepts

Historians use seven concepts to help them investigate and understand the past. At times you will use several of these concepts at once; at other times you may focus on just one. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian. The seven key concepts in history are:

- **perspectives**
- **continuity and change**
- **cause and effect**
- **evidence**
- **empathy**
- **significance**
- **contestability.**

Perspectives

The concept of perspectives is an important part of any historical inquiry. A person's perspective is their point of view – the position from which they see and understand events going on in the world around them. People often have different points of view (or perspectives) about particular events, historical figures, civilisations or artefacts depending on their age, gender, social position and their beliefs and values. Just like anyone else, historians have perspectives, that can influence their interpretation of the past and the way in which they write about it. Regardless of their own perspectives (and what they may think about something personally), historians must try to understand the different values and beliefs that shaped and affected the lives of people who lived in the past.

The fall of Saigon marked the end of the Vietnam War in 1975. The government of South Vietnam (supported by the USA, Australia and other anti-communist countries) was defeated by forces in North Vietnam (supported by China and other communist countries). The end of the war led to the reunification of North and South Vietnam under a communist government. Vietnamese people in the South who had supported US and Australian troops were regarded as traitors by the new government. In the years after the war, millions were captured and sent to 're-education camps' where they were tortured or abused. It is estimated that around 165 000 people died in these camps.

From 1975 onwards, well over 1 million refugees fled Vietnam. Many escaped on foot to neighbouring countries where they were housed in camps. Others chose to escape by boat, attempting a dangerous sea crossing to reach safety. The first refugees from Vietnam to arrive by boat (known as '**boat people**') in Australia landed in Darwin in April 1976.



Source 1 Boat people fleeing Vietnam after the fall of Saigon and the end of the Vietnam War

The concept of perspectives is very useful when interpreting the complex issues such as the mass migration of Vietnamese boat people after the war. From the perspective of the boat people themselves, there was no other option but to leave. The risks of travelling by boat to other countries presented better odds of survival than staying in Vietnam. From the perspective of those refugees waiting in camps, boat people were often seen as queue jumpers who refused to apply for asylum through the proper legal channels. From the perspective of the Australian government at the time, Vietnamese refugees were seen as a responsibility. Because of the role Australia had played in the conflict, the government (supported by large sections of the Australian public) felt obligated to help those who had helped us.

Continuity and change

Historians recognise that over time some things stay the same, while others change. This concept is referred to as continuity and change. Examples of continuity and change can be seen across every civilisation at any given period of time.

Historians refer to aspects of the past that stay the same over time as continuities. They refer to aspects of the past that do not stay the same over time as changes. Continuities and change can be identified within a certain civilisation and over short periods of time. They can also be identified across different civilisations and much longer periods of time.

The use of **propaganda** in Australia during World Wars I and II provides some good opportunities to look at continuity and change. During both world wars, propaganda was used to encourage people to support the Australian war effort by enlisting to fight. Propaganda posters not only encouraged people to act, but also reminded those already serving in the war that their efforts were important to all Australians. Sources 2 and 3 are examples of recruitment posters from World War I and World War II. The objective of both posters (i.e. to recruit new soldiers), and the techniques used to meet that objective, are very similar. Both sources use images of mateship and honour to encourage men to enlist. They both also attach a sense of shame and disloyalty to the idea of not enlisting. All of these shared similarities are examples of continuity.

Many changes can also be observed in the way propaganda was used in Australia during World War I and World War II. For example, Germans and Turks were demonised in Australian propaganda campaigns during World War I, but during World War II it was the Japanese who were most often demonised. This is largely because the Germans and Turks were seen as our main enemies during World War I and the Japanese were seen as our main enemy during World War II. The most obvious change, however, was linked to the introduction of new forms of mass communication between the wars. During World War I, the vast majority of propaganda took the form of posters that were displayed on the street and in workplaces. Although printed posters were still important during World War II, a far greater percentage of propaganda at that time was delivered in the form of moving pictures known as newsreels. Newsreels, shown in cinemas around Australia, served to boost morale of Australians at home and focus the country's anger on the enemy.

Another aspect of change was that during World War II, news delivered on the radio and short newsreels shown before feature films in cinemas encouraged people to think and act in particular ways. This was viewed as a technique for maintaining morale.



Source 2 An Australian pro-conscription poster from World War I



Source 3 An Australian pro-conscription poster from World War II

Cause and effect

The concept of cause and effect is used by historians to identify chains of events and developments, both in the short term and in the long term. Cause and effect aims to identify, examine and analyse the reasons why events have occurred and the resulting consequences or outcomes. It helps to think of cause and effect as the 'why' and 'what' of history.

Sometimes the link between cause and effect is very clear. For example, heavy rain over many weeks (cause) leads to flooding (effect) and the destruction of crops (effect). However, often this link is not quite so obvious. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event or action. There can also be many effects (outcomes). Sometimes the effects are simple to identify, while in other cases they are more difficult to predict and may not even become obvious until long after the event.

At the end of World War I, when the **League of Nations** forced Germany to accept the terms of the **Treaty of Versailles**, the aim of the league was not just to punish Germany but also to make sure that Germany was too weak to ever pose a threat to European peace again. However, many historians now agree that it had the opposite effect. It is generally accepted that the Treaty of Versailles caused such extensive economic suffering in Germany that it contributed to the rise of the Nazi party and the start of World War II.

Historians were able to reach this conclusion by using the concept of cause and effect. Germany's defeat in World War I led the leaders of the Allied forces to come together to decide the terms of the German surrender and agree on **reparations** to be paid by Germany as compensation. These terms were all outlined in the Treaty of Versailles (cause). They resulted in a range of effects – some short-term, others long-term. Short-term effects included:

- feelings of humiliation and anger among the German people
- severe economic difficulties and instability led to hyperinflation (extreme price rises) and Germany's currency became almost worthless for a time (see Source 4)
- high unemployment
- unstable government
- the scapegoating of groups such as the Jews and communists for the country's economic problems.
- Long-term effects included:
- the rise of Adolf Hitler and the election of the Nazi Party to government in Germany with promises to restore Germany to its former glory
- the start of World War II as Germany moved to 'reclaim' territories it had lost in Europe at the end of World War I
- the formulation of 'the Final Solution' which included a plan to exterminate all Jews living in Europe (an event known as the **Holocaust**).



Source 4 Hyperinflation was one of many short-term effects in Germany brought about by the Treaty of Versailles. For a time, the prices of goods such as food and heating oil increased so rapidly that money became worthless. These men are baling up billions of German Marks to be burned for heat.

Evidence

Evidence is the information gathered from historical sources. The concept of evidence is an essential part of historical inquiry. Evidence can come from many different sources; for example, interviews and accounts from people who lived at the time, letters, diaries, films, maps, newspapers, buildings, paintings, photographs, song lyrics, nursery rhymes, clothing, photographs and even cartoons. But how do we use these sources to piece together the story of the past? We can make an educated guess (called a **hypothesis**) and then look for evidence to support it.

Evidence can be gathered from two types of sources:

primary sources – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after. Examples of primary sources include official documents, such as laws and treaties; personal documents, such as diaries and letters; photographs or films; and documentaries. These original, firsthand accounts are analysed by historians to answer questions about the past.

secondary sources – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation. Examples of secondary sources include writings of historians, encyclopaedia entries, documentaries, history textbooks, films, illustrations, reconstructions and websites.

Historians do not always agree on evidence, even when it comes from the same source. They often have different opinions or points of view. This is why historians are constantly searching for new sources of evidence. They rely on a range of different sources to help them gain a more complete picture of the past.



Source 5 This photograph was taken in a London Underground station during the ***Blitz*** in December 1940. The Blitz was a time when Germany was carrying out nightly air bombing raids on cities across Britain. Train stations and tunnels in London were converted to air raid shelters after the attacks started on the city and many residents were forced to take shelter there each night. Primary sources such as this are very useful to historians because they provide a wealth of evidence about the conditions experienced by civilians during this time.



Source 6 Winston Churchill's Britain at War Experience was a temporary museum that operated in London from 2010 to 2012. The aim of the museum was to recreate the experience of daily life in London during World War II. The museum featured a reconstruction of a London Underground air raid shelter. Here, visitors could experience huddling together to the terrifying sounds of bombs falling above, just as civilians did during the Blitz. Secondary sources such as this reconstruction rely heavily on evidence from primary sources in order to be as historically accurate as possible.

Empathy

The concept of empathy helps us to understand the impact of past events on particular individuals or groups. This includes an appreciation of the circumstances they faced and the motivations, values and attitudes behind their actions. Put another way, empathy is the ability to 'walk in someone else's shoes' – to be aware of and sensitive to others' feelings, thoughts and experiences.

Empathising brings history to life. It connects us as human beings regardless of how much time has passed. Consider the experiences of many mixed-race and Aboriginal children who were forcibly removed from their families by federal and state government agencies from around 1908 to the 1970s and placed under the care of state-run institutions or white families. These children are now referred to as the **Stolen Generations**. It isn't difficult to empathise with the victims of these policies. Just imagine how terrifying and upsetting it would be to never see your family again. This will give you some idea of what it must have been like for these children and their parents.

The concept of historical empathy, however, encourages us to view events from all sides and not to judge past events by today's standards. It requires us to look objectively at the attitudes and social norms that were common during the period being studied in order to understand the motives and actions of the different people involved. It may not come naturally, but historical empathy requires you to put yourself in the position of the politicians and government officials who enforced these policies. There were many reasons given at the time to justify the actions of the government and the public. It is essential to understand that white Australian customs, language and laws at this time were believed to be far superior to Aboriginal customs. Many Australians discriminated against Indigenous Australians on the basis of race and did not recognise them as citizens. By removing Indigenous children from their families, teaching them English, exposing them to Christianity and making them attend school, many government officials thought they were giving these children a better chance at a successful life in Australia. For this reason, many white Australians believed it would be better for children of mixed race to grow up in white families and become productive members of society.

Empathising does not excuse the actions of people from the past, but it does help us to gain a more complete understanding and appreciation of the factors that motivated them. In 2008, then Prime Minister Kevin Rudd delivered an official apology to members of the Stolen Generations who suffered as a result of official government policies. The apology came about because of a broad change in attitude towards Indigenous Australians and a growing respect for their traditional cultures and customs, but much work remains to be done in the areas of Indigenous rights and freedoms.



Homes Are Sought For These Children

A GROUP OF TINY HALF-CASTE AND QUADROON CHILDREN at the Darwin half-caste home. The Minister for the Interior (Mr Perkins) recently appealed to charitable organisations in Melbourne and Sydney to find homes for the children and rescue them from becoming outcasts.

I like the little girl in centre of group, but if taken by anyone else any of the others would do, as long as they are blacks

Source 7 This newspaper clipping from 1934 is seeking homes for mixed-race Aboriginal children taken from their families. Children such as this later became known as the Stolen Generations.

Significance

The concept of significance relates to the importance assigned to aspects of the past. This includes people, events, developments, discoveries, movements and historical sites. History is full of so many important events, significant people and interesting places that we could never study all of them. Instead, we need to make a judgement about which of these is worthy of study. In order to determine if a person, event, development, discovery, movement or site is historically significant, historians may ask the following questions:

- How important was this to people who lived at that time?
- How many people were affected?
- To what degree were people's lives affected?
- How widespread and long-lasting were the effects?
- Can the effects still be felt today?

When thinking about events that are historically significant, it can be tempting to choose global incidents – like world wars – that involved many countries and resulted in wide-scale death and destruction. There is no denying that these types of events are of major significance – in only a few short years they can change the course of history forever. However, a range of other events can be just as significant, even though they may take place over a much longer period of time and not be as obvious. Take the arrival of television in Australia. The first mainstream television broadcast in Australia took place on 16 September 1956 in Sydney. At this time, less than 10 per cent of the population had a television in their home. By 1978, 64 per cent of homes in Melbourne and 70 per cent of homes in Sydney had television. By 2000, 99 per cent of all Australian homes had a television – with most having more than one. Although this change took place slowly over a longer period of time, it is very significant.

Increasing rates of television viewing since 1956 have had many wide-ranging impacts on Australian society. For example, the spread of television led to a massive increase in the cultural influence of the United States in Australia in the second-half of the 20th century. For the first time, people across Australia were exposed to (and influenced by) American views and attitudes on a nightly basis. In the early 1960s, at least 80 per cent of all Australian television content was sourced from the United States. These American programs consistently topped the ratings. Regulations were later brought in to ensure a certain level of Australian content on television. Today Australian law requires 55 per cent of free-to-air shows to be produced in Australia. The majority of the remaining 45 per cent continues to be produced in the USA. In fact, popular American shows are now fast tracked from the United States so that Australians can watch them only hours after they have screened in the United States. Today, these programs have a significant impact on Australian popular culture and identity, influencing everything from language and music to politics and law.



Source 8 From the time of its introduction to Australia in 1956, television has had a significant impact on Australian society and culture.



Source 9 Popular television shows from the United States that are watched in Australia have a significant influence on our views and attitudes.

Contestability

The concept of contestability relates to explanations or interpretations of past events that are open to debate. Historians around the world often have access to very different sources. Artefacts, such as jewellery and weapons, may have been damaged, or artworks may be incomplete. Written records may contain errors, or might have been changed after they were written. Some records may even have been completely destroyed. This can lead historians to draw different conclusions about what they are seeing. Even historians studying the same sources can sometimes come to very different conclusions about what the evidence is telling them. This is one of the exciting things about history – it is open to debate. There is often no right answer, and historians are always seeking a more complete understanding of the past. For example, there is an ongoing public debate in Australia about how to interpret and represent Australian history since white settlement, particularly with reference to the impact of colonisation on Indigenous Australians.

The growth of the Aboriginal rights movement since the 1970s prompted a new wave of historians to argue that 'official' Australian history since British settlement had largely ignored the stories of hundreds of thousands of Indigenous Australians who had suffered as a result of European colonisation. Historians such as Manning Clark and Henry Reynolds wanted to correct the imbalance in the history books and acknowledge the murders, injustices and racial policies that had dominated the relationship between Europeans and Indigenous peoples since colonisation.

Other historians resisted this new approach to Australian history arguing that it was too negative and obscured the achievements of white Australia.



Source 10 These Indigenous Australians, covered in traditional body paint, are shown taking part in a street protest against the Australian Bicentennial (200th anniversary) celebrations held in 1988. Many Indigenous Australians regard the arrival of British settlers as a day to be mourned rather than celebrated. Many historians today disagree with each other on the interpretation of events in the history of Australia since British colonisation (particularly relating to the impact that settlement had on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples). This debate is known as the history wars.

Historians such as Geoffrey Blainey and Keith Windschuttle contest the extent of the harm inflicted on Indigenous Australians by white settlers on the frontier. On occasions they have accused other historians of falsifying evidence relating to the level of violence committed towards Aboriginal people, particularly in Tasmania. They also contest the extent of frontier violence against Aboriginals presented by Clark and Reynolds.

The public debate over the interpretation of events in Australia's history since British settlement is ongoing. Today, it is referred to as the history wars. Historians on both sides of the debate have undertaken significant archival and fieldwork research in order to present evidence to support their hypotheses. In many cases, however, historians on opposing sides of the argument have questioned the research methodology used and contest the findings.

Check your learning 1.1

Remember and understand

1 What is the difference between a primary and secondary source? Give an example of each type of source.

2 Which historical concept would be most helpful to historians attempting to understand the factors that led to certain Indigenous Australian children being taken from their families by force during the 20th century? Explain your response.

3 Historians in Australia have developed two competing interpretations of the experiences of Indigenous Australians since British settlement. What is this debate commonly referred to? Which historical concept is this an example of?

4 In your own words, define the concept of perspectives. Why is it a useful tool for historians? Why did different people in Australian society have different perspectives on the arrival of Vietnamese boat people in the 1970s?

Apply and analyse

5 Look again at the types of questions historians ask to decide if events, discoveries, people or sites are historically significant. For example:

- how important was it to people who lived at that time?
- how many people were affected by it?
- to what degree were people's lives affected by it?
- how widespread and long-lasting were its effects?
- can its effects still be felt today?

Use each of these questions to determine the historical significance of the following:

- the signing of the Treaty of Versailles at the end of World War I
- the release of the worldwide hit *Wrecking Ball* by Miley Cyrus in 2013
- the arrival of Vietnamese immigrants to Australia after the Vietnam War
- the introduction of television to Australia in 1956.

a Place the events in order from most to least significant, providing a justification for each.

b Compare your responses with other members of your class. Did you all draw the same conclusions?

6 Examine Source 10 and complete the following tasks.

a When was this source taken and what are these people shown doing?

b How might the perspectives of these people differ from the perspective of the Australian government when it comes to the Australian Bicentennial celebrations? Explain your response.

c Explain how the historical concept of empathy is useful when conducting a historical inquiry into the colonisation of Australia by the British?

Evaluate and create

7 Conduct additional Internet research to create a flow chart that shows the causes and effects (both short-term and long-term) of World War II on Australian society.

8 Use a selection of new examples and images to create a poster or audiovisual presentation that briefly explains all seven of the historical concepts discussed in this section.

1.2 Historical skills

History has been described as the study of 'who we are and why we are the way we are'. Historians examine the past and try to explain what they find. Like detectives at the scene of a crime, they follow a process of historical inquiry – they pose questions, locate and analyse sources, use evidence from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past, and then communicate their findings.

To conduct a historical inquiry, historians need a range of skills. By studying history you will gradually master each of these skills. Some of them you will find easy to master, others may take a little longer. As you develop each new skill you will have gained another important tool for understanding and explaining events and people that have shaped our world.

Source 1 The five categories of skills used in a historical inquiry

Chronology, terms and concepts	• Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events and developments in different periods and places • Use historical terms and concepts
Historical questions and research	• Identify and select different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry • Evaluate and enhance these questions • Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods
Analysis and use of sources	• Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources • Process and synthesise information from a range of sources for use as evidence in a historical argument • Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources
Perspectives and interpretations	• Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past • Identify and analyse different historical interpretations (including your own)
Explanation and communication	• Develop texts, particularly descriptions and discussions that use evidence from a range of sources that are referenced • Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies

You will now be familiar with many of these skills from your studies in junior history. This year you will revisit each of the skills and learn to apply them more effectively. Each of the skills you will be learning are organised into five broad categories (see Source 1). Each category represents the stages of a historical inquiry and contains a number of more specific skills that you will be practising.

It might help you to think of each of these skills as individual tools in your toolkit. For some historical inquiries, you may only need to use one tool; for others, you may need to use all of them.



Source 2 Historical skills help you to be a detective of the past.

1.3 Chronology, terms and concepts

Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events

One of the most helpful things historians can do to get a better understanding of the past is to organise events according to the order in which they happened. This is known as **chronology**. Chronology can help us organise things that happened over a small period of time, like a day or week, or large periods of time, like hundreds of thousands of years. We can also use chronology to look at events that happened in one place or society, or compare events across many different places and societies.

Chronology allows us to develop an ordered sense of time. Once events have been ordered chronologically, we are able to use a range of historical concepts such as cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change to analyse them in detail.

skill**drill:** Chronology

Creating a timeline

Timelines are used by historians to sequence time and order important events chronologically. They help divide large sections of time into smaller periods so that events can be arranged in the correct order.

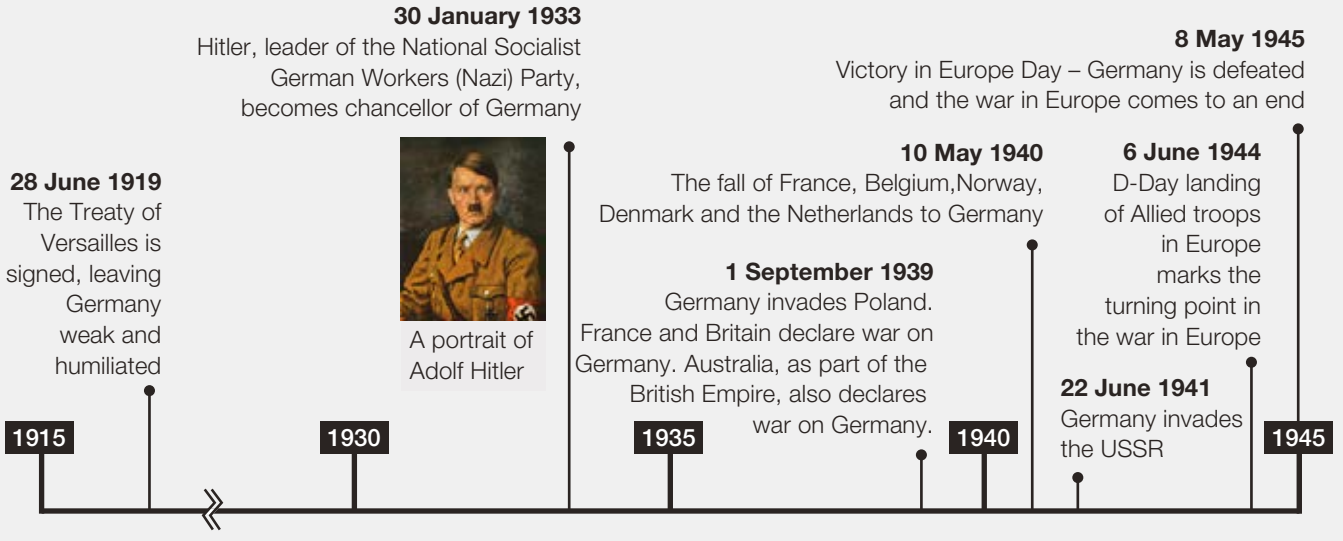
Timelines can look quite different, but essentially they all work in the same way. There are some basic steps you need to follow when constructing timelines.

Step 1 Work out the length of time you want to represent on your timeline, then divide it evenly into suitable blocks of time – in this case, 50 years. A timeline showing what you did yesterday might be divided into hours; one showing key events in the 19th century might be divided into decades.

Step 2 To represent a large span of time, you may need to break your timeline into sections using a jagged line. This shows that a section of time has been left out and will ensure that your timeline will fit on the page!

Step 3 Mark specific dates into the timeline. These dates need to be accurately plotted so that they appear in chronological order. A full date with day and month can be added for particularly significant events if this is appropriate.

Step 4 Provide a brief description of the dates plotted on the timeline, describing the events that took place. Include a picture and caption if appropriate.



Source 1 A simple timeline of some key events from World War II

Use historical terms and concepts

Just like scientists and mathematicians, historians share a common language. They use historical terms and concepts to clarify what they are talking about and share their findings. Source 2 lists and defines some important historical terms you will come across during your study of the modern world and Australia.

Source 2 Some useful historical terms you will encounter while learning about the modern world and Australia

Term	Definition
appeasement	a policy adopted by Britain and France towards Germany from the mid-1930s until 1939; the policy was designed to avoid a second world war by granting certain allowances to Hitler and the Nazi government
communism	an economic system in which the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned (by the state) and goods are distributed equally according to need, as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as capitalism
democracy	a political system based around the idea that the citizens of a society should have control over the way in which they are governed
genocide	the deliberate and systematic (planned) mass killing of people based on their race, ethnicity, religion or culture
globalisation	the increasing connectedness of economic and financial systems in countries around the world; globalisation refers to a number of changes that are taking place to decrease the importance of national barriers to the production and trade of goods and services
Holocaust, the	the deliberate and systematic (planned) mass murder of Jews and other 'undesirables' by the Nazis during World War II (*see also Shoah*)
immigration	the act of entering and settling permanently in a country or region to which a person is not native
imperialism	the process of gaining and maintaining control over other countries, regions or territories for economic or strategic (military) reasons
propaganda	information or material that attempts to influence the behaviour or opinions of people within a society; propaganda can take many forms (e.g. posters, flyers, advertising campaigns, films) and is designed to promote a particular cause or course of action and/or damage the cause of an enemy
referendum	(in Australian history) a national vote of the people on actions proposed by the government; any proposed changes to the Australian Constitution must be put to a vote in a referendum
Third Reich	a term used to describe the German state from 1933 to 1945 when it was under the rule of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party
White Australia policy	a term used to describe a series of government policies introduced after Federation in 1901 that prevented 'non-white' immigrants from settling in Australia, favouring instead those from certain European nations (especially Britain); these policies were progressively overturned between 1949 and 1973

Check your learning 1.3

Apply and analyse

1 Why do you think history has been described as the study of 'who we are and why we are the way we are'? Do you think this is an accurate description?

2 In your own words, define the term 'chronology'? Why is it an important skill for historians?

3 Name one of the most useful tools for organising significant historical events into chronological order.

Evaluate and create

4 Choose a significant issue or event that interests you that took place between 1918 and the present. Conduct some Internet research and create a timeline of events related to the issue or event you have chosen. Some events you might like to examine include:

- the struggle for civil rights in the United States
- World War II
- the introduction of television in Australia.

a Your timeline should include at least six entries related to the issue or event. Each entry must include the date and a brief description.

b Include images of video links for at least two of the entries on your timeline.

c Present your timeline electronically or as a poster.

1.4 Historical questions and research

Identify and select different kinds of questions about the past to inform a historical inquiry

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking big questions. From these big questions, historians develop a **hypothesis** (theory) about who, what, where and why certain events took place. These questions then help to frame the process of inquiry and act as a guide for the collection of evidence.

The photograph in Source 1 shows a group of women working in a factory, assembling the wing of an aeroplane. Women workers on the home front were essential during World War II to maintain the supply of weapons and other goods to the men on the battlelines.



Source 1 Using sources such as this, historians can begin to develop a range of closed and open questions to frame a historical inquiry.

skill**drill:** Chronology

Generating questions to inform a historical inquiry

Look closely at Source 1. This photograph could provide an interesting starting point for a historical inquiry into the roles of women during World War II. To start your inquiry, think of some questions that begin with the words 'what', 'where', 'how', 'when' and 'why'.

For example, questions such as those listed below help to guide the research process:

- What are the people in the photograph doing?
- Who are they?
- What are they building and what might it be used for?

By asking these kinds of questions (known as closed questions), you will often discover a range of facts to follow up on. This is a good start. However, in addition to asking closed questions, it is important that you ask more complex questions (known as open-ended questions). Open-ended questions such as 'What were working conditions like for these people?' and 'What effects did increasing numbers of women in the workforce have on society?' will often open up exciting new areas for you to explore.

Apply the skill

1 Based on what you have read and seen, generate two closed and two open questions of your own that will help guide an inquiry into the women on the home front in Australia during World War II.

2 Once you have generated your inquiry questions, identify the information you will need to answer these questions and where you might be able to locate it.

3 Are there any questions for which you have not been able to find reliable evidence or answers? What reasons might there be for this?

Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

Sources provide information for historians. They can take many different forms, from historical artefacts to written records in books or online. Some examples of sources include human remains, coins, cave paintings, textbooks, journals, online databases, newspapers, letters, cartoons and diaries.

Locating a range of relevant sources is a valuable skill which usually involves a number of different search methods, such as:

- checking catalogues at your school and local library
- using online search engines such as Google, Yahoo and Bing
- visiting museum and government websites
- looking at newspaper and magazine archives
- contacting local historical societies
- interviewing older family members about the past, and examining family antiques and keepsakes.

Using ICT to locate relevant sources

Although printed books and newspapers are valuable sources of information, most research today is conducted online. In order to ensure that sources gathered online are accurate, reliable and relevant, a number of guidelines should be followed:

Source 2 Some common domain names and their characteristics

Domain name	Description
.edu	The site is linked to an educational institution such as a university or school. These sites are generally very reliable.
.gov	The site is linked to a government department or institution. These sites are generally very reliable.
.net	This site is linked to a commercial organisation or network provider. Anyone is able to purchase this domain name and generally there is no one to regulate the information posted on the site. As a result, these sites may be unreliable.
.org	This site is linked to an organisation. Generally, these organisations are not for profit (e.g. Greenpeace, World Vision International, British Museum). If the organisation is reputable and can be contacted, it generally means that the information provided has been checked and verified by that organisation. You need to be aware of any special interests that the organisation may represent (e.g. particular religious, commercial or political interests) as this may influence what they have to say on a particular issue. If you are unsure about the reliability of information found on a website with this domain name, check with your teacher or librarian.
.com	This site is linked to a commercially based operation and is likely to be promoting certain products or services. These domain names can be purchased by anyone, so the content should be carefully checked and verified using another, more reliable source.



Source 3 Most research today is conducted online.

- Search engines such as Google are useful research tools, but much of the material on these sites is not reliable and may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information or material that is out of date. When using search engines like Google or Yahoo, be sure to define your search using keywords. Your librarian is a good person to ask for help and information. Most schools will also have a website devoted to providing information about developing good research skills.
- A reliable way of searching for sources is to use sites linked to government departments, reputable companies, museums, universities and educational institutions. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in the URL (Internet address). Some of the most common domain names are listed in Source 2 along with some information about their reliability.
- Avoid blogs posted by unknown individuals. If you happen to find information relevant to your investigation on a blog or social media site, always verify it by using a more reliable source.
- Never cut and paste information from the Internet straight into your own work. Taking someone else's work, ideas or words and using them as if they were your own is called plagiarism and can have very serious consequences.

Recording relevant sources

As you identify and locate relevant sources, it is essential that you record details to include in your list of references or bibliography.

When citing (mentioning) a book in a bibliography, include the following, in this order, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s)
2 year of publication
3 title of book (in italics)
4 edition (if relevant)
5 publisher
6 place of publication
7 page number(s).

Example:

Carrodus, G., Delany, T., Howitt, B., 2016, *Oxford Big Ideas History 10 Victorian Curriculum*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.

When citing an online source in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
2 year of publication or date of web page (last update)
3 title of document enclosed in quotation marks
4 date of posting
5 organisation name (if different from above)
6 date you accessed the site
7 URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets <…>.

Examples:

Australia's War 1939–1945, 'All in – Indigenous service', accessed 24 March 2016, <http://www.ww2australia.gov.au/allin/indigenous.html>.

Foley, Robert T, 2011, 'Blitzkrieg', BBC History, accessed 2 April 2016, <http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwtwo/blitzkrieg_01.shtml>.

Check your learning 1.4

Remember and understand

1 List three different examples of sources. Next to each example, write where it can be found.

Apply and analyse

2 Copy the table below and use it to list two advantages and two disadvantages of using the different search methods shown.

Search methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Using a library catalogue		
Conducting an Internet search		
Interviewing an older family member		

3 Examine the following sites. Decide whether you think they are reliable and provide reasons why.

a Australian War Memorial
www.awm.gov.au/atwar/ww2

b Microsoft
www.microsoft.com

c Griffith University
www.griffith.edu.au

d World War II Tours
www.worldwar2tours.com

Evaluate and create

4 Create a poster or class wiki providing tips on good research techniques. Share it with other students in your year level or post it on your school intranet.

1.5 Analysis and use of sources

Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources

As explained earlier, historians use two types of sources to gather evidence about the past:

- primary sources – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after
- secondary sources – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

Understanding the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources

Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but it is important to understand:

- where they came from (origin)
- why they were created (purpose)
- the historical setting in which they were created (context).

These factors are important because they provide clues about the perspective of the person who made the source, as well as the attitudes and beliefs that were common at that time. All sources are influenced by the author's own point of view. In some cases the author may even have been paid (or forced) to write in a particular way or to ignore certain facts. This is referred to as **bias** and is often aimed at persuading the reader to agree with the author's point of view. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate all of the sources they use.





Source 1 The origin and purpose of these primary (A) and secondary (B) sources are very different, even though they are both related to the building of the Burma Railway by Allied **prisoners of war (POWs)** during World War II (under orders from Japanese forces).

(A) This aerial photograph, taken on 5 February 1945 of a bridge built as part of the Burma Railway over the River Kwai in Thailand, is a primary source. So is the bridge itself. The construction of the bridge started in October 1942 and it was completed by late October 1943. Sixteen thousand Allied POWs (including 2815 Australians) and 100 000 imprisoned slave labourers of Chinese, South Indian, Malay, Burmese, Japanese and Dutch–Indonesian origin lost their lives during the bridge's construction.

(B) This photograph, taken on location in Sri Lanka during the filming of the 1957 British–American war film *The Bridge on the River Kwai*, is a secondary source. The popular film (which is also a secondary source) won seven Academy Awards (including Best Picture). It gave a largely fictional account of events that took place during the construction of the bridge during World War II.

Analysing sources by asking 'who', 'what', 'when' and 'why' questions will help you identify the origin and purpose of the sources. For example:

- Who wrote, produced or made the source?
  - Is the creator's personal perspective obvious in the source?
  - Is the creator a member of a particular group, religion or organisation?
- What type of source is it?
  - Was the source created at the time of the event or afterwards?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
  - How old is the source?
  - Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
  - Is the source complete?
- Why was it written or produced?
  - Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
  - Does the creator have anything to gain personally from the source?
  - What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?

Process and synthesise information from a range of sources as evidence

By this stage of your historical inquiry, you will have collected a variety of different sources and types of information. Now it is time to process and synthesise the most relevant information to use as evidence to support your hypothesis. There are a number of ways to organise large amounts of information so that you can decide quickly and easily which sources provide the most useful, relevant and reliable evidence.

Using graphic organisers to help you process and synthesise information

Graphic organisers are very useful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. A decision-making chart like Source 2 can help you do this.

Source 2 A decision-making chart showing an example of how you might process, compare and select sources

Research topic: What were the experiences of Allied prisoners of war during the construction of the Burma Railway?			
Hypothesis: That Allied prisoners of war were treated so harshly that they died in their thousands.			
Source 1: 'Changi' ABC website	Pros: • The entry is has some great primary sources • The entry is written by a reputable organisation – the ABC – and was developed to accompany a TV documentary on the subject	Category of source: Secondary source – special interest webpage	Reference information: http://www.abc.net.au/changi/history/burma.htm (Accessed 24 February 2013)
	Cons: • Not detailed enough • The website is focused mainly on conditions at the prisoner of war (POW) camp known as Changi. Only a pretty small section of the article talks specifically about the Burma Railway		
Source 2:	Pros:	Category of source:	Reference information:
	Cons:		
Source 3:	Pros:	Category of source:	Reference information:
	Cons:		
Recommended sources in order of relevance/usefulness: 1 2 3			

Analysing propaganda posters

Propaganda is information or material that attempts to influence the behaviour or opinions of people within a society. Propaganda can take many forms, such as posters, flyers, advertising campaigns and films, and use many different techniques to get its message across. Regardless of the forms it takes, all propaganda is designed with the same goal in mind – to influence people's thoughts and actions by promoting a particular idea or course of action. Very often, propaganda is also designed to damage the reputation or cause of an enemy.

Throughout World War II, many forms of propaganda were used. One of the most common was the poster. Propaganda posters can tell us a great deal about the time period being studied. Although they do not always present the truth, they can provide historians with great insights into opinions and attitudes that were popular at the time. The most effective propaganda poster uses a range of techniques to convey its message simply and directly.

The text 'Germany awake!' calls the viewer to action. It suggests that Germany has been sleeping and that it is now time for action.

The strong use of red grabs the audience's attention and is associated with the greatness of the German Empire.

Red was also the colour of the National Socialist (Nazi) Party.

The swastika became a symbol of Nazi strength and racial superiority in the 1930s and 1940s in Europe.



The eagle is a traditional symbol of German strength and power. Its strength is emphasised by being large and central.

In the background, a large crowd of people all show their support for this message by raising their right arms in the air (the Nazi salute).

The text 'Vote list: 2 National Socialists' instructs people to vote for the National Socialist (Nazi) Party and tells them how to use the ballot paper.

Source 3 A sample analysis of a National Socialist (Nazi) propaganda poster, *Germany awake!* This poster by Felix Albrecht was issued for the German federal elections to the Reichstag, 31 July 1932.

When asked to analyse a propaganda poster, follow these steps:

Step 1 Look for evidence of a range of visual techniques.

Propaganda posters use a range of techniques to grab the attention of viewers and get their message across quickly and effectively. These include:

- **colours** – often a combination of bright, bold colours (or dark, menacing colours) are used to convey a message, grab the viewer's attention and/or provoke some kind of emotional response
- **images and symbols** – a range of different images and symbols are used to convey the message and/or identify people and countries. It is common for flags, logos and animals to be used to represent countries. For example, Source 3 proudly displays the symbols of the German eagle and the swastika to represent German strength and unity. It is also common for enemies to be represented using racist or derogatory imagery.
- **text** – most often, a clear and simple message accompanies a propaganda poster. This is often a call to action or a warning of some kind. For example, Source 3 declares 'Germany awake! Vote List: 2 National Socialists'



Source 4 An Australian propaganda poster from 1942, *He's coming south* (AWM ARTV09225)

Step 2 Ask a range of questions to analyse the intended message and audience of the poster.

Once you have identified the main visual techniques being used, it is time to think more deeply about what the poster is trying to achieve. You can do this by asking a range of questions such as:

- Who is the intended audience? Who was the poster made for?
- What is the historical context of the poster? What year was it produced in?
- What is the purpose of the poster? What is the intended message? What is it trying to get people to do?
- Is it effective at getting its message across to the audience? Why/why not?

Source 3 has been done as an example.

Apply the skill

1 Use the steps provided to analyse the propaganda poster in Source 4.

2 List the similarities and differences between Source 3 and Source 4. Which do you think is more effective at achieving its goal? Provide reasons for your answer.

Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of sources

A useful source, whether primary or secondary, is one that will add to your understanding of a historical inquiry. The source needs to be relevant to your investigation and must also be reliable. The conclusions you draw about the sources you have found will determine their usefulness. In many cases, this means separating fact from opinion. A fact is something that can be proved and verified by more than one source; for example, the year in which an event took place. An opinion is the view or belief of a person or persons. Opinions are generally based on interpretations of facts, but are more subjective. The use of words such as 'might', 'could', 'believe', 'think' and 'suggests' all indicate that an opinion is being expressed, but it is not always that simple to separate fact from opinion. More often than not, you will need to conduct research to determine this. For example, without research it would not be possible to identify which of the following statements is fact, and which is opinion:

- Fact: The crossing over the River Kwai in Kanchanaburi, Thailand, was built by Allied prisoners of war and slave labourers under orders from the Japanese army during World War II.
- Opinion: The 1957 film *The Bridge on the River Kwai* accurately portrays the type of harsh treatment received by British prisoners of war at the hands of the Japanese during the construction of the Burma Railway.

The following questions will help you determine the reliability and usefulness of a source you are researching:

- Is it balanced or does it present one point of view (in other words, is it biased)?
- Does it provide information that is supported and reinforced by evidence from other sources?
- Does it provide factual information or opinion?
- Does it provide enough information and sufficient detail to help me answer the inquiry question?



Source 5 An illustration by Murray Griffin, a prisoner who was held at the Changi POW camp in Singapore, created in 1946. It depicts the kinds of punishments given to British and Australian prisoners of war by the Japanese during the construction of the Burma Railway. Griffin sought to make records of events and conditions based on the testimony of surviving POWs.

Check your learning 1.5

Remember and understand

1 Which of the following are examples of primary sources?

a Source 5 – an illustration by Murray Griffin, a prisoner at Changi

b Source 1 on page 25 – a photograph of two Australian prisoners of war outside a hut at Changi.

Give a reason for your answer.

2 Provide two reasons why graphic organisers are useful tools when processing and synthesising information from a range of different sources.

Apply and analyse

3 Give two reasons why it is important to know the origin and purpose of every source used in a historical inquiry.

4 What words indicate that a writer is expressing an opinion rather than a fact? If none of these words are present in a written source, what is the best way to identify it as fact or opinion?

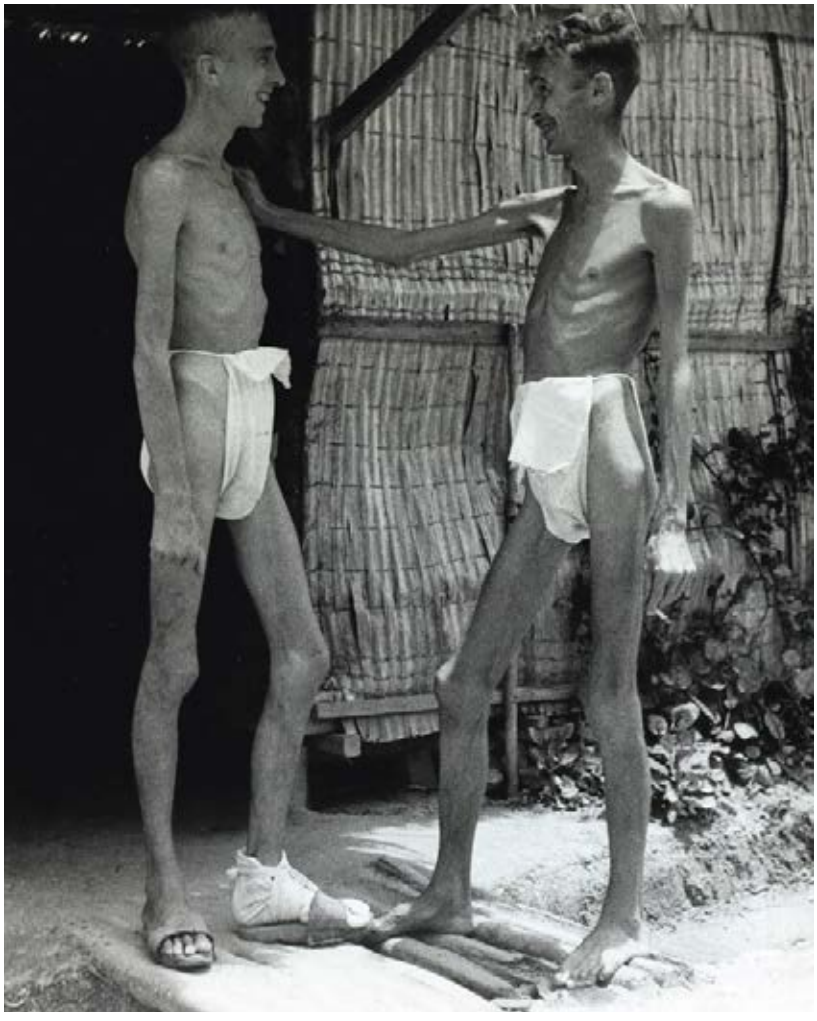
Evaluate and create

5 Conduct an online search to locate other graphic organisers that may be useful to help you process and synthesise information from a range of sources as evidence. Some graphic organisers of use to you may include KWL charts, fishbone diagrams and PMI charts. Once you have examined other types of graphic organisers, make a decision about which ones you think are most useful to you.

1.6 Perspectives and interpretations

Identify and analyse perspectives and interpretations from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different points of view, attitudes and values. These may include personal, social, political, economic or religious points of view. For example, an extract from an affidavit by former Gunner (soldier) Reginald Melbourne to the Australian War Crimes Registry, provides the following description of conditions in Changi, a notorious prisoner of war (POW) camp run by the Japanese:



Source 1 This photograph shows two Australian prisoners of war outside one of the huts at Changi POW camp in Singapore, just after the camp was liberated in 1945.

Source 2

> After capture I was taken to Changi Camp, where I was with approximately 12000 men, employed clearing the bombed area, also well sinking. Work was from 6 to 6, food was half a cup of cooked rice per man per day.
>
> From Changi I was marched with 500 men to Duckatinor Hills. Here we were employed clearing after bombing runs, building roads and hill levelling. Food supplies were as at Changi.
>
> Whilst working at the river camp I witnessed a guard (known as the Black Snake) bash Gnr Jack Francis with a heavy stick many times and finally brutally kicked him in the stomach and about the head. Francis died a few days later.
>
> I was severely beaten by the Black Snake with a heavy bamboo. He knocked me down several times, then kicked me. I vomited frequently following the bashing was unfit to work and generally was much knocked about. I was finally operated upon by Col. Dunlop for a damaged bladder and internal injury.

Extract from an affidavit (sworn statement) by former Gunner (Gnr) Reginald Melbourne to the Australian War Crimes Registry recorded on 2 January 1948

This account is one of many that help historians form opinions about how the Japanese treated prisoners of war during World War II. Many other sources also provide evidence on different aspects of conditions for POWs and their Japanese captors during World War II, from the perspectives of POWs themselves, Japanese soldiers, Japanese government and military officials and social observers at the time. It is only when we consider the full range of different perspectives revealed through all of the available sources that we can begin to form a complete picture of their experiences – one that is both accurate and reliable.

1.7 Explanation and communication

Develop texts, particularly descriptions and explanations that use evidence from a range of sources that are referenced

Historical writing requires you to describe and explain events using evidence from a range of sources. You will often be required to outline the significance of a past event while providing reasons for the event and referring to relevant evidence. As you have learned, different types of sources need to be used to ensure that historical writing presents a balanced view and is supported by reliable evidence.

The two most common and useful text types you will be expected to use this year are descriptions and explanations.

Writing descriptions

The purpose of descriptions is to give clear information about people, places or objects at particular moments in time. They focus on the main characteristics or features of particular people or things. They 'paint a picture' in words for readers to increase their understanding.

Descriptions must be well planned. Use the structure in Source 1 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Descriptions must always follow a set structure, and events must be organised in chronological order.

Source 1

Structure of a description	
Introduction	Introduces the subject. States the name of the person or event. Outlines why the topic is important.
Body	Provides details about the person or event (including dates and important facts). Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. Quotations and descriptive words should be used where relevant.
Conclusion (optional)	Revisits the most important details and provides a concluding statement.

Writing explanations

The purpose of explanations is to tell how or why something happened. They provide the reader with a greater understanding of the causes and effects of past events. Use the structure in Source 2 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Explanations must be clear and factual. They should not contain opinions or emotional language. There must be supporting evidence from a variety of sources for each point made. These sources must be acknowledged in a bibliography using the correct referencing format.

All historical writing needs to be acknowledged. At the end of your writing you must always include a full reference list or bibliography. This list shows your readers the range of different sources of evidence you used and where they can be found. For detailed information on this refer to the skill 'Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods', which was covered earlier.

Source 2

Structure of an explanation	
Introduction	Clearly states the main idea or aim. Briefly outlines the reason/s why an event occurred and its effect/s.
Body	Each idea must be supported by evidence. There should also be some analysis of the evidence to explain its significance or importance. Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. Language should be precise and not contain emotional words. Personal opinions (e.g. 'I' or 'my') should be avoided.
Conclusion (optional)	Provides a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body. States a conclusion drawn from the evidence.



Source 3 Audiovisual presentations are a good way of presenting the findings of your historical inquiry because they draw together all of the information you have collected and – if delivered well – can engage your audience.

Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies

The final stage of any historical inquiry is the presentation of your findings. This is one of the most important aspects of your inquiry because it draws together all of the sources, evidence and findings of your investigation.

There are a number of ways to effectively and impressively communicate your findings. For example:

- oral – speeches, class presentations, re-enactments, interviews and role plays
- graphic – posters, cartoons, graphic organisers and models
- written – descriptions, explanations, class newspapers, scripts, letters and diaries
- digital – audiovisual presentations, websites, films, blogs, wikis and apps (see Source 3).

All of these communication forms can add colour and life to the presentation of historical information.

Check your learning 1.7

Remember and understand

1 Historical sources always reflect the perspective of their writer. Give two examples of factors that may influence a writer's point of view or perspective.

2 What is the purpose of a description? How is this different from the purpose of an explanation?

Apply and analyse

3 Your teacher has asked you to provide a written report on the experiences of Australian POWs during World War II. Would it be more appropriate to write a description or an explanation? Explain your choice.

4 Source 2 on page 25 is an extract from an affidavit (sworn statement) by former Gunner (Gnr) Reginald Melbourne to the Australian War Crimes Registry. It was recorded on 2 January 1948.

Do you think this piece of statement presents a balanced and reliable description of conditions for Australian POWs held in Changi Camp? Why/why not?

Evaluate and create

5 Imagine that all members of your class have been asked to present an audiovisual presentation on the short- and long-term effects of **internment** on Australian POWs held at Changi.

Your teacher has asked each member of the audience to create a peer evaluation form that can be used to assess each presentation. Create five assessment criteria to be included on the form that can be used to assess the most important aspects of each presentation. Present your five assessment criteria in order of importance.

1.8 Careers in history

There are a wide range of jobs and careers linked to the study of history. Because many aspects of society, culture and technology change so quickly these days, the need to preserve stories and artefacts from the past has become more important than ever. An appreciation of events from the past can help members of a community or citizens of a nation avoid repeating costly mistakes (such as wars) and make better plans for the future.

Today, there is a wide range of career opportunities available for students of history (see Source 1). Some of these jobs relate to the study and preservation of our heritage, while others involve communicating and sharing aspects of our history.

Source 1 Studying history can lead to many interesting and exciting career paths.

Valuing and preserving our heritage	Communicating and sharing history	Related opportunities
Collections manager	History consultant	Journalist
Art historian	Museum education officer	Architect
Ethnographer	Genealogist	Policy researcher
Heritage planner	Researcher	Novelist
Art restorer	Archaeologist	Public relations officer
Antique dealer	Documentary film maker	Lawyer
Social historian	Multimedia designer	University lecturer
Auctioneer	Tourism officer	Foreign affairs

Valuing and preserving our heritage

Historic preservation is an important field of history that seeks to preserve and protect artefacts, buildings, and other objects of historical significance. Older and rarer artefacts that are in good condition are generally considered to be more significant historically, and therefore more valuable. Unfortunately, however, the older an artefact is, the higher the chances that it has been damaged or changed in some way – for example, ancient buildings and monuments can be damaged through constant exposure to pollution or extreme environmental events (see Source 2). Likewise, delicate objects such as fine pottery can chip when being handled or moved and priceless works of art can be damaged through exposure to certain types of light and levels of moisture in the air.

Historians work in a wide range of interesting and important roles when it comes to valuing and preserving our heritage. As well as those who specialise in the preservation of books and paper, metals, ivory, artworks, textiles and stained glass, there is a new and growing career path for historians that involves digital preservation. In addition to physical artefacts such as stone, wood, paper, silk and bamboo that record our history, a large quantity of historical information today only exists in digital forms. You might not immediately think of emails, blogs, wikis, social networking websites and online photo albums as historical artefacts, but these items will tell the stories of modern society in the same way that stone tablets did in ancient times. With digital media it is easier to create content and keep it up-to-date, but this content is continually changing. This creates many challenges in the preservation of this content so that it can be studied in the future.



Source 2 Art restorers work in the Papal Basilica of St. Francis of Assisi in the town of Assisi, Italy. The basilica (church) is one of the most important religious buildings in Italy and has been a UNESCO World Heritage site since 2000. These art restorers are busy repairing damage caused by two earthquakes that hit Assisi in 1997, damaging the basilica.

Communicating and sharing history

In addition to historians who preserve our heritage, there are those who work in exciting careers communicating the past and sharing our traditions with other people.

Career profile: Lucy Bracey – Associate Historian with Way Back When Consulting Historians

Lucy Bracey works as an Associate Historian for Way Back When Consulting Historians – a small company of professional historians who produce histories for a range of clients from individuals and small community groups to large organisations. Anyone who has a story they want researched and recorded (or something from the past that they consider worth preserving) can approach Way Back When and take advantage of their expertise.

Lucy helps her clients by researching their histories and communicating their stories in interesting and meaningful ways. Depending on the wishes of the client, these histories can be presented in many different formats – book, digital story, website, radio program, exhibition, heritage report or iBook.

Lucy uses a wide range of historical skills in her day-to-day work. She conducts research in archives and libraries, tracing primary and secondary sources of evidence to answer key inquiry questions. For Lucy, being a historian is like being a time detective – finding out all about how people lived, what they did and who they were.

Lucy's job as an Associate Historian offers her lots of variety and the opportunity to work on a range of interesting projects. This means she never gets bored. From one week to the next, Lucy can be working at home, in the office or out on the road. Lucy likes travelling to different places and meeting interesting people. She also enjoys seeing a range of historical artefacts and investigating historical collections and archives people have assembled. She appreciates meeting weird and wonderful people at local historical societies in sleepy Victorian towns and is motivated by the prospect of uncovering all sorts of hidden treasures!

Related opportunities

History graduates are also sought after in many other fields including law, politics and foreign affairs because they know how to find and analyse information. Most importantly, the study of history encourages us to test assumptions and support statements and opinions with evidence. The ability to sift through large amounts of information and work out what is important in the detail is essential in these professions.

Source 3 Lucy Bracey, Associate Historian with Way Back When Consulting Historians, shares fascinating stories from the past with a wider audience.

Check your learning 1.8

Remember and understand

1. Why is historical preservation such an important area of history?
2. A new and growing career path for historians today involves digital preservation. In your own words, define what this involves and why it is important.

Apply and analyse

3. Lucy Bracey works as an Associate Historian for Way Back When Consulting Historians. What types of activities does her job involve?
4. Why might a community group or organisation want Way Back When to research and record its history?

Evaluate and create

5. Learn more about the services offered by Way Back When Consulting Historians by visiting their website.
   - **a** In a short written report, summarise the type of work they do and name at least two of their former clients.
   - **b** Are you a member of any clubs or organisations that you think might be interested in having their histories recorded by Way Back When? If so, what format do you think would be most appropriate: written, oral or digital? Explain your choice.



Introduction to Australia at war (1914–1945)



The years from 1918 to the present have been some of the most turbulent and significant in human history. The world has changed more over the last century than it has during any other period. The signing of peace treaties (such as the **Treaty of Versailles**) after the end of World War I in 1918 forced members of the defeated Central Powers, such as the German Empire, Ottoman Empire and Austria–Hungary, to admit fault for causing the war and agree to pay reparations (compensation) to the Allied powers. Once-great empires were broken up and new countries such as Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia were created in their place. Members of the Allied powers, such as Britain, France, Italy and the United States, dominated negotiations leading up to the signing of the Treaty of Versailles. At this time, Britain, France and Russia controlled vast empires around the world, making them the most powerful nations on Earth.

2A

What events defined the years between World War I and World War II?

2B

What were the key events of World War II?



chapter 2

Source 1 The Roll of Honour at the Australian War Memorial in Canberra records and commemorates members of the Australian armed forces who have died during or as a result of war service. More than 100 000 Australians died serving in World War I (1914–1918) and World War II (1939–1945). Families and friends remember their sacrifice by placing poppies in the roll next to their names.

2C

What was the significance of World War II?

Australia at war (1914–1945)

This unit is **mandatory**:

- World War II (1939–1945)

It must be completed by all students.

2.1 The aftermath of World War I

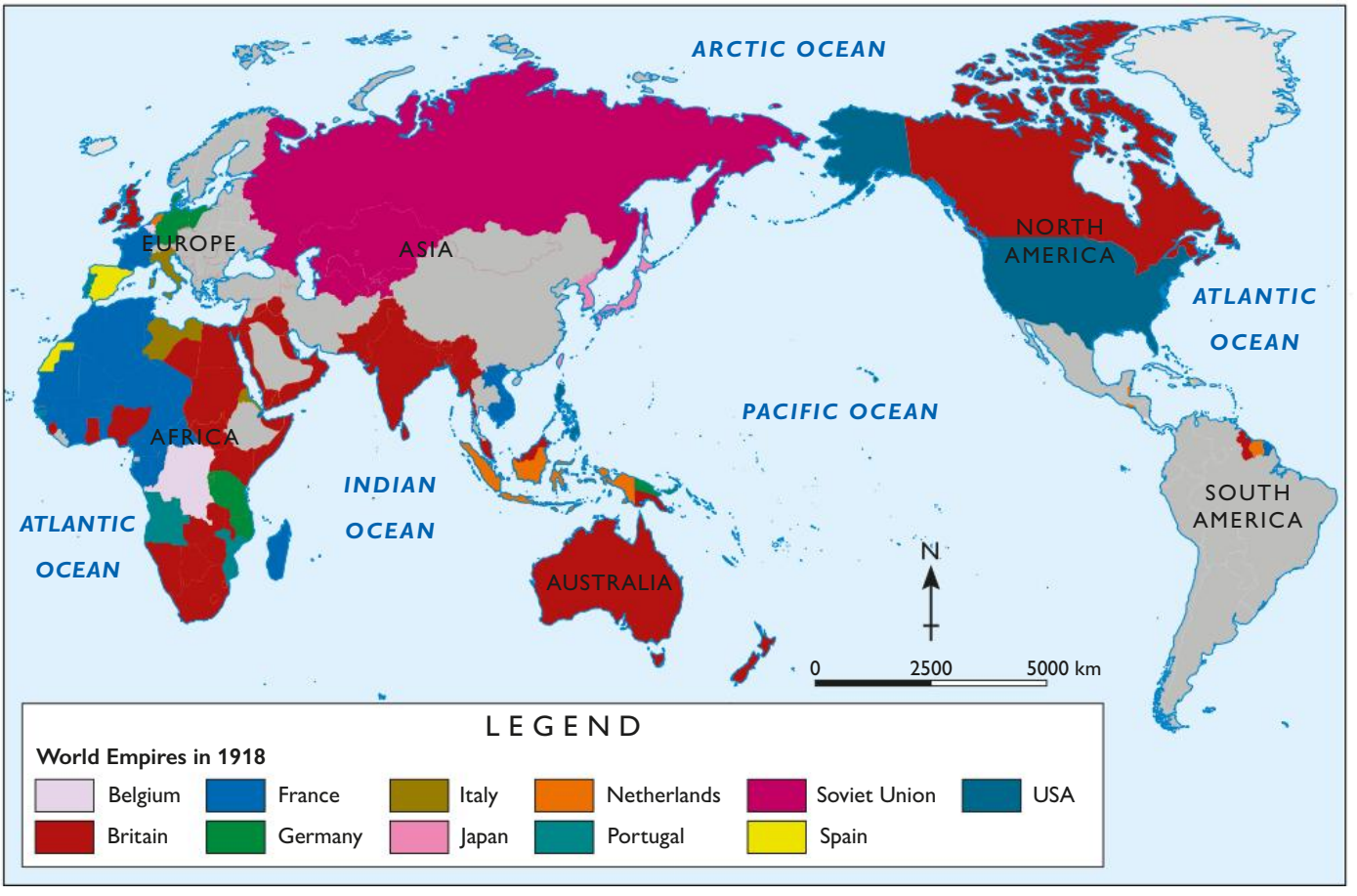
In Unit 1 – Australia at war (1914–1945) you will learn more about the political situation in Europe at the end of World War I as well as some of the social and economic factors (such as the **Great Depression**) that led to the outbreak of World War II in 1939, just 20 years after the signing of the **Treaty of Versailles**. This period became known as the interwar years.

World War II was fought from 1939 until 1945. It took global conflict to new levels and was responsible for the deaths of around 60 million people, including the deaths of around 6 million Jews at the hands of the Nazis during the **Holocaust**.

By the end of World War II in 1945, Europe was in ruins and crippled financially after years of fighting.

In the years after the war, the map of Europe and the world was redrawn. Germany was divided into two separate countries, Russia took control over a number of countries in Eastern Europe such as Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, and a number of colonies controlled by the Japanese, Dutch, French and British empires all declared their independence. It was during this time that the USA and the Soviet Union emerged as the new 'superpowers' of the post-war world. With their opposing political and economic ideologies, the communist Soviet Union and the capitalist USA become bitter political and military rivals, involved in a **Cold War** that lasted from 1947 through to the early 1990s. Although no direct military action broke out

WORLD: GLOBAL EMPIRES POST-WORLD WAR I



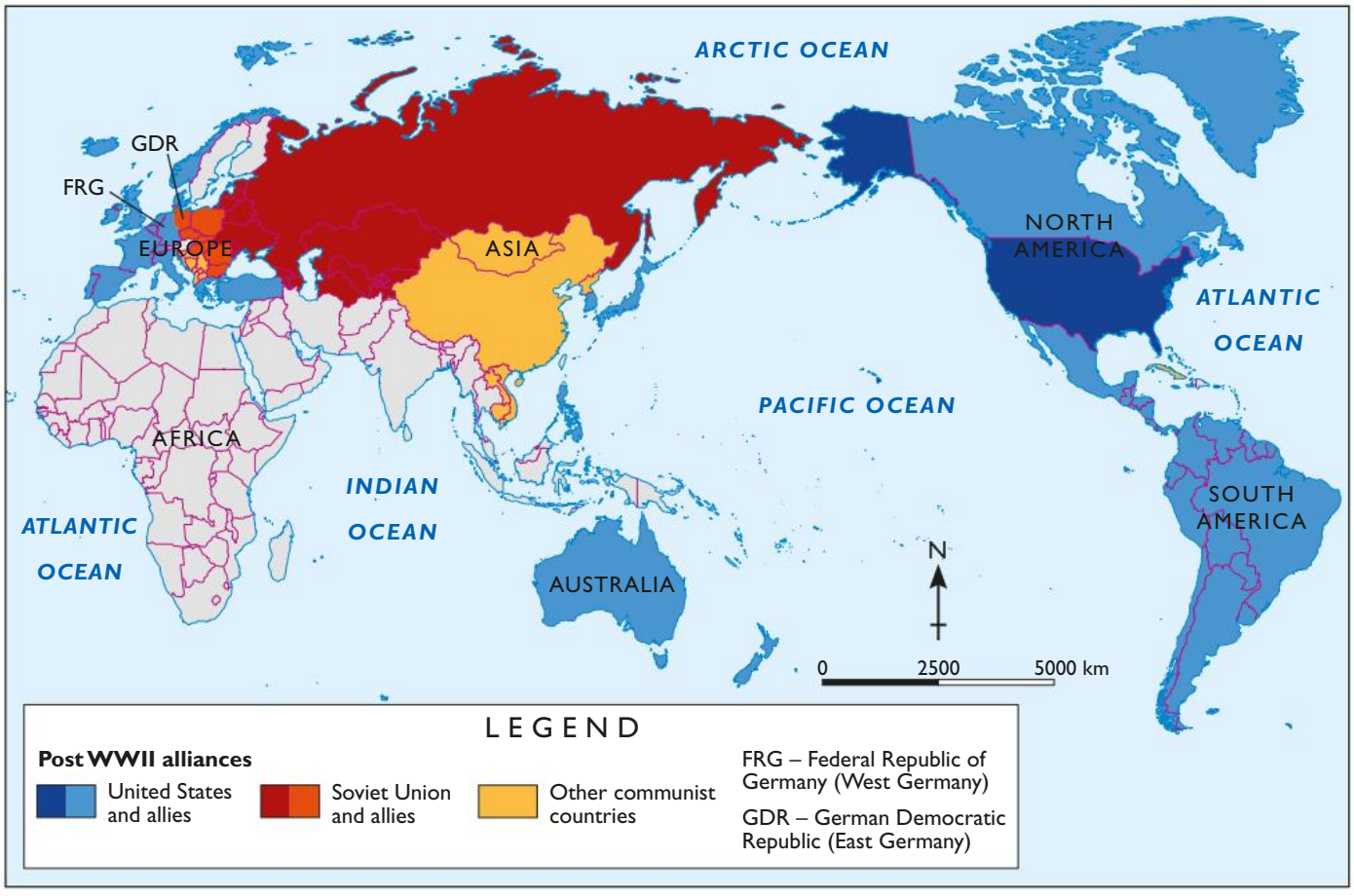
Source 1

Source: Oxford University Press

during this time, the tension and paranoia of the Cold War years effectively split the world into two opposing regions of influence (see Source 2).

The events that took place during this period continue to influence the modern world in many ways – and Australia's place in it.

WORLD: USA AND SOVIET UNION AND ALLIES POST-WORLD WAR II



Source 2

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.1

Remember and understand

1 How does Source 1 help to explain why Great Britain, France and Russia emerged as some of the most powerful nations on Earth after the end of World War I?

2 What was the Cold War? How long did it last for?

3 List two reasons why the British and French empires lost some of their power after World War II.

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source 2. Using an atlas, list all of the countries shown in orange on the map. Many of these countries had strong ties and alliances with the Soviet Union during the Cold War.

a Why do you think this was the case?

b Research one of these countries more closely. What did they gain through their alliance with the Soviet Union? What did they have to offer in return?

5 At the end of World War II, the government of Australia chose to continue building a strong alliance with the government of the United States of America. Why do you think they did this? How might an alliance like this benefit Australia?

2.2 The Treaty of Versailles

The Great War (as World War I is also known) left many countries across Europe devastated. Many historians regard it as the first 'total war', meaning that nations dedicated all available resources (both military and civilian) to the war effort and suffered casualties at a level never experienced before. Over 8 million soldiers and sailors lost their lives during the war and a similar number of civilians died as a result of fighting, starvation and disease. A further 21 million people were wounded. Almost immediately after the end of the war was declared in 1918, the world was hit by a deadly flu pandemic (called the Spanish influenza). The pandemic lasted for about a year and resulted in the deaths of over 30 million people, most of them between 20 and 40 years of age.

The Treaty of Versailles

In January 1919, the victorious nations of World War I met at the Paris Peace Conference in France to come up with a plan for rebuilding Europe and ensuring ongoing peace in the future. The leaders of 32 countries attended the conference, but negotiations were dominated by the leaders of four major powers:

- Prime Minister David Lloyd George of Britain
- Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau of France
- President Woodrow Wilson of the USA
- Prime Minister Vittorio Orlando of Italy.

The French had suffered greatly during World War I, and wanted revenge and compensation for the damage done to their country. Clemenceau wanted to weaken Germany so it would never be able to take up arms again. President Wilson, on the other hand, wanted to achieve lasting peace with a treaty that punished Germany, but not so harshly that they would one day want their own revenge.



Source 1 French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau (left), American President Woodrow Wilson (centre) and British Prime Minister David Lloyd George (right) greet the crowd after signing the Treaty of Versailles on 28 June 1919

GERMANY: TERRITORIAL LOSSES AFTER THE SIGNING OF THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES, 1919



Source 2 Source: Oxford University Press

After months of negotiations, the Treaty of Versailles was signed on 28 June 1919. While large sections of the German public were opposed to the terms of the treaty, German representatives at the negotiations knew that if they did not sign, Allied troops would invade Germany. With Germany's army in ruins, Germany would be powerless to stop them.

The terms of the Treaty of Versailles

As part of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was required to surrender large sections of its territory (see Source 2) and all of its overseas **colonies** (including the former German New Guinea which was given to Australia).

Under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was required to limit its army to 100 000 men who were mostly volunteers. It was also prohibited from possessing an air force, tanks, submarines or heavy artillery. Germany was required to accept full responsibility for starting the war and forced to pay **reparations** (compensation) to the Allies. It was agreed that Germany should pay an amount close to £7 billion British pounds (the current equivalent of around $526 billion Australian dollars).

Germany's allies in the war were also punished by the treaty. For example, Austria–Hungary was also required to pay reparations to the Allies, and the empire was broken up. The borders of Austria and Hungary were redrawn and the territory lost was used to create the new nations of Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia.

Establishment of the League of Nations

The **League of Nations** was an international organisation formed at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919 to maintain world peace and prevent the outbreak of future wars by encouraging nations to negotiate with each other rather than engage in military conflicts. To help ensure its success, the League of Nations had the power to order countries in conflict to discuss their differences at an assembly of member countries. At these hearings, aggressors could be warned, punished with economic sanctions or threatened with military action. Forty-two countries (including Australia) joined the League of Nations. At its peak in 1935, there were 58 member countries. Although the idea for the League of Nations had been suggested by US President Wilson, the USA did not join the League. This was largely due to the reluctance of the American people to get involved in European affairs. Although the League of Nations had some early successes, it ultimately failed in its principal mission of preventing the outbreak of future wars.



Source 3 This cartoon, by Australian political cartoonist Will Dyson, was published in 1920. It is highly critical of the harsh terms of the Treaty of Versailles. It shows the French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau (together with Woodrow Wilson and David Lloyd George) leaving the Paris Peace Conference. Clemenceau, known as 'The Tiger', says 'Curious! I seem to hear a child weeping'. The child shown represents the '1940 class' – the German children of the 1920s who will become 'cannon fodder' (soldiers likely to die) by 1940 when the next war starts.

Check your learning 2.2

Remember and understand

1 The Treaty of Versailles was signed on 28 June 1919.
   - **a** Summarise the restrictions placed on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles in terms of territory, the military and finance.
   - **b** Why did the German people oppose many of the terms outlined in the treaty?
   - **c** If so many Germans opposed the treaty, why did German representatives at the Paris Peace Conference sign it?

2 Summarise the different positions taken by the French Prime Minister and the US President at the Paris Peace Conference with regards to how Germany should be treated.

3 What was the League of Nations and why was it created?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source 3 and complete the following tasks.
   - **a** Name the three men shown in the cartoon. Why has the cartoonist chosen to show one man more prominently than the others?
   - **b** Who is the child supposed to represent?
   - **c** Why do you think the child is shown naked?
   - **d** What comment is the cartoonist making in this source?

2.3 The Roaring Twenties

Although Germany suffered a severe economic downturn during the 1920s (as it struggled to meet the terms set out in the Treaty of Versailles), this decade was a time of great economic prosperity in many other parts of the world, including the USA, Britain, France and Australia. Economic prosperity, together with a new hope and optimism brought about by the end of war, resulted in a wide range of social changes and technological advances during this decade – hence the term 'the Roaring Twenties'.

During the 1920s, the production of cars and consumer goods (such as household appliances) rose dramatically. Automated methods of mass production, using machinery and assembly lines, meant that large volumes of cars and a wide range of goods could be produced more quickly and efficiently. As a result, these items were no longer luxury products that could only be bought by the rich. For the first time since the war, people had regular work and money to spend. Advertising campaigns encouraged ordinary people to buy these new labour-saving appliances, with toasters, vacuum cleaners (see Source 1) and refrigerators in high demand.

During the 1920s in Australia, electric lighting was installed in many homes for the first time, although many did not have power points. Electrical appliances such as vacuum cleaners, fridges and irons became available in the 1920s, but their use did not become widespread until the 1940s. Cars were mostly imported from overseas until Ford and General Motors established themselves in Australia in 1925. In 1921, there were just under 100 000 cars registered in Australia. By 1939, this had risen to over 560 000. By comparison, there were 26 201 400 passenger cars registered in the United States by 1939.

Another influential innovation of the time was the radio, which became the first mass broadcasting medium. The advertising industry grew rapidly as companies began to deliver their sales pitches over the airwaves to families who gathered nightly around the radio. Radio also helped bring in the Jazz Age of the 1920s. Originating in black communities in New Orleans around the turn of the century, jazz became an international phenomenon thanks to radio broadcasts. Australia's first radio station, using the call-sign 2SB, went to air on 23 November 1923. It was later renamed 2BL then 702 ABC.



Source 1 An advertisement for Electrolux vacuum cleaners from the 1920s

The Hollywood motion-picture industry also emerged during the 1920s. Silent films had been popular for some years, but in 1927 the first 'talking picture' (or 'talkie') was released. *The Jazz Singer* was the first motion picture to feature synchronised sound and spoken words. It revolutionised the film industry. By 1930, over 100 million Americans were going to the movies every week. Actors and actresses like Charlie Chaplin, Greta Garbo and Rudolf Valentino became the first 'movie stars' and were recognised all over the world.

Fashion in the 1920s celebrated youth and freedom. Women in particular saw changes in the way they could present themselves publically. A boyish 'flapper' style became popular, with daringly short skirts (showing the knees), and waistlines slung low on the hip (see Source 2). Women covered their short cropped hair

under tight bell-shaped hats. For the first time, flappers danced, smoked and drank alcohol in public. They also went out without chaperones (adults who supervised young unmarried women during social events), flaunting their disregard for more traditional codes of behaviour. This behaviour outraged more conservative elements of Australian society and churches called for a return to traditional family values. In many ways, flappers were rebelling against the social expectations that had been placed upon them during the war and shaking off traditional expectations of women that were common at the time.

During the war the range and variety of jobs available to women had grown. For the first time in the 1920s, many girls leaving high school now expected to work. Pay rates for women, however, were still half those of men. Male-dominated trade unions argued that if they supported females, they would be putting the hard-working men of Australia out of work. The government was also generally opposed to the working ambitions of women. There was still a common perception that a woman's primary responsibility was to maintain the home and raise children.

The 1920s may have been a time of prosperity for non-Indigenous Australians, but many Indigenous people suffered hardship and turmoil from government policies of **protection** and **assimilation**. This involved the forced segregation of Indigenous Australians on **missions** and **reserves**, and the forced removal of children from their families.



Source 2 A group of 'flappers' showing off fashion trends popular during the 1920s

Check your learning 2.3

Remember and understand

1 What types of changes took place during the 1920s that led to the use of the term 'Roaring Twenties'?
2 Was the economic prosperity of the 'Roaring Twenties' experienced by all nations around the world? Why/why not?
3 What was the name given to films that featured synchronised sound and spoken words? What effect did these movies have on the film industry?

Apply and analyse

4 The 1920s saw the rapid growth of the automobile industry. What effects do you think this growth had on people's everyday lives (and on society in general) at this time? Draw up a cause and effect flowchart.
5 Examine Source 1 and complete the following tasks.
   a In what ways would the availability of this product have changed the lives of ordinary people at the time?
   b Compare this source with a modern advertisement for a vacuum cleaner. Identify as many similarities and differences between the two advertisements as you can.
6 Examine Source 2 and complete the following tasks.
   a Describe the appearance of a typical 'flapper'. In what ways did this style of dress differ from more traditional women's fashions?
   b Why was the behaviour of many 'flappers' considered by some to be outrageous at the time? Why do you think they chose to act in this way?

Evaluate and create

7 Conduct some research into the major technological innovations of the 1920s. Create a cartoon that highlights the major changes and advances brought about by the availability of new technologies.

2.4 The Great Depression

In the late 1920s, the world economy began to slow. Work became harder to find and companies that were producing large quantities of consumer goods could no longer find people to buy them. Quickly, prices for mass-produced consumer goods and agricultural staples (such as crops, timber and wool) dropped worldwide, and unemployment began to rise in many industrialised nations. It is possible that these problems may have been overcome had they not been followed by the collapse of the New York stock exchange in 1929. The combination of these events plunged the world into a period of severe economic downturn and hardship known as the Great Depression.

Throughout the 1920s, the New York stock market had been a popular place for people to invest their money because shares could be bought on credit (i.e. using borrowed money) and sold for a profit when the prices of the shares rose. By the late 1920s, so many investors were involved in this type of trading that share prices became inflated and were pushed to unreasonable highs. When a number of shareholders began to lose confidence in the market and sell their shares, prices fell rapidly and the market crashed. Many investors, stockbrokers and business owners lost everything.

As confidence in the economy evaporated, businesses closed down and unemployment grew. Workers lost their jobs or their wages were severely slashed. As a result, they bought less, which then led to further cutbacks in production and jobs. Governments seemed powerless to stop their economies spiralling out of control and poverty spread.



Source 1 A family living in a shanty town in Sydney during the Great Depression

Australia and the Great Depression

During the 1930s, the Australian economy was heavily dependent on overseas countries, particularly Great Britain. When the American economy collapsed in 1929, two-thirds of world trading ceased. Almost overnight, almost 50 000 Australians found themselves unemployed. By 1932, around 32 per cent of all Australians were out of work.

The Great Depression's impact on Australian society was devastating. Without jobs or a steady income, many people lost their homes and were forced to live in substandard housing. Shanty towns, built from discarded materials on waste ground, sprang up on the edges of major cities.

Many men took to the roads in search of jobs such as fruit picking or cattle mustering. Often, children and women became the main breadwinners, as they were cheaper to employ. Soup kitchens and charity groups did their best to feed the starving and destitute, but many went without. Soldiers who had returned home to Australia after fighting in the war a decade earlier were often hit the hardest. Many were still recovering from the traumas of their wartime experiences. Without work, families broke down and many ex-soldiers became homeless. During this time, the suicide rate among returned solders increased dramatically.

The susso

The government provided relief to the unemployed in the form of sustenance payments – more commonly known as the 'susso'. By 1932, more than 60 000 people depended on the susso merely to survive. It was only granted to the truly destitute; those who had been unemployed for a sustained period of time, and had no assets or savings. The susso was given in the form of food rations (such as bread and potatoes) or coupons. It became the subject of a popular children's rhyme from the time (see Source 3).



Source 2 A line of men receiving food handouts during the Great Depression in Australia in the 1930s

Source 3

We're on the susso now,
We can't afford a cow,
We live in a tent,
We pay no rent,
We're on the susso now.

A contemporary Australian children's rhyme from the Great Depression

Source 4

People were forced into all sorts of tricks and expediencies to survive, all sorts of shabby and humiliating compromises. In thousands and thousands of homes, fathers deserted the family and went on the track (became itinerant workers), or perhaps took to drink. Grown sons sat in the kitchen day after day, playing cards, studying the horses, and trying to scrounge enough for a three-penny bet, or engaged in petty crime … mothers cohabited with male boarders who were in work and might support the family, daughters attempted some amateur prostitution and children were in trouble with the police.

A survivor of the Great Depression reflects on the hardship in *Weevils in the Flour: an oral record of the 1930s depression in Australia*, Wendy Lowenstein, 1998

Check your learning 2.4

Remember and understand

1. How did the collapse of the New York stock exchange affect the world economy at the end of the 1920s?
2. Why did events overseas affect jobs in Australia?
3. Explain what the 'susso' was and who qualified to receive it.
4. Who was hit the hardest by the Great Depression in Australian society? Why do you think this was the case?

Apply and analyse

5. Look carefully at Source 1. What evidence does the source provide about the circumstances faced by typical Australians during the Great Depression?
6. Read Source 4 carefully. What exactly do you think the author means by the 'shabby and humiliating compromises' people were being forced to make?

2.5 Key events of World War II

Although World War I had been called 'the war to end all wars', by 1939, just 20 years after the signing of the Treaty of Versailles, the world was once again at war. The nature and scale of this war was unlike anything that the world had ever seen. It took global conflict and 'total war' to new levels and was responsible for the deaths of around 60 million people – both civilian and military. Britain was among the first nations to introduce strategies to support a 'total war' effort. These included **conscription**, the rationing of food and supplies, and the introduction of a range of policies designed to encourage the British people to join the war effort (see Source 2).

Learning about the many issues and events of World War II in detail can sometimes be a bit overwhelming. The following tables provide a quick reference to some of the main content you will be expected to learn about in *Unit 1 Australia at war (1914–1945)*. They can be used as a reference to help you navigate the content more easily, a summary of key points or a tool to help you identify connections between significant events.



Source 2 During World War II, nations on both sides used propaganda campaigns to rally public support for the war and influence people's behaviour. This propaganda poster produced in Britain from 1939 to 1945 was designed to encourage British military personnel and civilians to unite against Germany behind their wartime Prime Minister Winston Churchill.

Source 1 Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party rose to power in Germany during the 1930s by rallying the support of the German people. Hitler was a charismatic and gifted public speaker who promised to restore Germany's reputation as a strong and proud nation after the economic hardships of the post-World War I era.



An overview of the causes of World War II, why men enlisted and where Australians fought		
Causes of World War II	Topic 3.2	• A combination of short- and long-term factors contributing to the outbreak of conflict in 1939, including German resentment of terms in the Treaty of Versailles, economic depression, weakness of the League of Nations and unchecked acts of aggression by Germany and Japan in the 1930s • Rise of Adolf Hitler and the National Socialist (Nazi) Party in Germany • The actions of the Nazi government in the 1930s (including re-arming and regaining territories lost after WWI breach the terms of the Treaty of Versailles) • Invasion of Poland in September 1939, causing Britain and France to declare war
Why Australians enlisted to fight	Topic 3.10	• Initially Australians were less enthusiastic to enlist (after the experiences of WWI), but numbers increased significantly after Germany's invasion of France in 1940. • Surge in recruitment after the fall of Singapore to the Japanese in 1942 when Australians felt more directly under threat
Where Australians fought	Topic 3.4 Topic 3.6	• Major campaigns involving Australian forces: Europe (Greece 1940–41), the Middle East (Syria and Lebanon 1941), Africa (Libya and Egypt 1941–1942), South East Asia (Malaya and Singapore 1942), Battle of the Coral Sea 1942, New Guinea 1942, Guadalcanal (South-west Pacific) 1942

The scope and nature of warfare during World War II		
The changing scope and nature of warfare	Topic 3.4	• Aircraft and long-range tanks are used for the first time in a German invasion tactic known as *Blitzkrieg* (a term meaning 'lightning war'); German forces invade France despite French 'super-trenches' known as the Maginot Line; bombing of civilians in strategic cities such as London • Code-breaking technology used to influence outcomes of battles
Where World War II was fought	Topic 3.4 Topic 3.6	• The war in Europe 1939–1945: fighting took place in Western Europe, North Africa, the Middle East, Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. • The war in the Pacific 1941–1945: Allies opposed Japanese invasions in the Pacific region with fighting taking place in Singapore, Midway Islands, Coral Sea, and Papua New Guinea.
The Holocaust	Topic 3.8	• The deliberate and systematic persecution of Jews and other minority groups by the Nazi government in Germany in the lead-up to war, and in Nazi-occupied territories throughout World War II • Deaths in Nazi labour camps, systematic killings in concentration camps by means of poison gas and mass shootings.
Atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki	Topic 3.9	• Allied campaigns in the Pacific recapture many Pacific Islands taken by Japan. Allies eventually push the Japanese back to Japan's 'Home Islands'. Heavy Japanese casualties and bombing of Japanese cities fail to force a Japanese surrender. • The first atomic bomb is dropped on Hiroshima on 6 August 1945 followed by a second bomb dropped on Nagasaki on 9 August. Both cities are devastated and Japan formally surrenders.



Source 3 Australian women played an important role during the war, filling jobs at home left empty by men fighting overseas. This propaganda poster produced in 1943 by the Australian government emphasises the importance of work being done by women in clothing factories to support men working and fighting overseas.

Significant events and experiences of Australians during World War II		
Significant events	Topic 3.4 Topic 3.6	**In Europe** The Battle of France • In May 1940, Germany invades the Netherlands, Belgium and France using *Blitzkrieg* tactics. • On 22 June 1940, France surrenders to Germany. The Battle of Britain • After Germany invades France, it turns its attention to defeating Britain. • From July–October 1940, Germany launches a large-scale air attack on the UK targeting key industrial cities (a period known as the *Blitz*). • Germany fails to achieve its objective. Operation Barbarossa • On 22 June 1941, Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan) invade the Soviet Union. More than 3 million troops, 3600 tanks and 4300 aircraft take part in the campaign, making it the largest military operation in human history. It resulted in huge casualties. • The Axis powers won many battles but ultimately failed to take the capital Moscow, because of harsh winter and fierce resistance by Russian troops. **In the Pacific** The Fall of Singapore • On 15 February 1942, Singapore surrendered to the Japanese. Around 130 000 Allied troops (including 22 000 Australians) were taken as prisoners of war. The Kokoda campaign • In 1942, Japanese forces launch an assault to seize Port Moresby, a possible base of attack on Australia, via the Kokoda Trail. • A small force of soldiers from Australia's local militia and army reinforcements fight a series of battles in difficult conditions, forcing the Japanese to withdraw.
Prisoners of war	Topic 3.11	• Over 8000 Australian prisoners in Europe, and over 22 000 Australians captured in South-East Asia, mainly after the fall of Singapore • Forced labour and poor treatment in prison camps led to a high death rate of prisoners captured by the Japanese.
Participation of women	Topic 3.12	• Australian women were encouraged to join the armed services after 1940; the majority joined auxiliary forces that operated on the home front. • Women were still not permitted to take combat roles or serve overseas, with the exception of nurses.
Participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples	Topic 3.13	• During WWII, restrictions for Indigenous Australian volunteers were officially lifted or unofficially relaxed. • An estimated 3000 Indigenous Australians served in the armed forces. • On their return, many Indigenous soldiers found they were not eligible for soldier resettlement schemes that were offered to white Australians.

Impact of World War II on the Australian home front		
Specific military attacks on Australia	Topic 3.6	• Bombing of Darwin on 19 February 1942 and towns in northern Australia until November 1943 • Direct attack on an Australian ship (HMAS *Kuttabul)* in Sydney Harbour by a Japanese midget submarine on 31 May 1942 resulting in the deaths of 19 Australian sailors
Conscription	Topic 3.10	• Conscription for overseas military service in the Pacific was introduced in 1943 with little opposition, as Australians felt the real threat of Japanese invasion.
Use of government propaganda	Topic 3.12	• A range of propaganda produced by the Australian government was used throughout the war. It was designed to encourage Australians to enlist in armed forces, work and save for the war effort and unite against a common enemy. For the first time, propaganda posters, radio and newspaper campaigns were supported by the use of cinema newsreels.
The changing role of women	Topic 3.12	• Some women served in the armed forces, and over 60 000 women served in auxiliary services on the home front. • With so many Australian servicemen deployed overseas, the work of women in the auxiliary services and civilian groups (such as the Women's Land Army) was increasingly important. • An increase in employment for women was crucial for Australia's war economy. After the war, women were expected to return to traditional roles, which happened for the most part.
The treatment of 'enemy aliens'	Topic 3.12	• Some Australians of German and Italian heritage living in Australia were thought to pose a threat to national security. These people were declared 'enemy aliens' and detained in internment camps. • All people of Japanese heritage living in Australia during the war were thought to pose a risk and were sent to internment camps.
War-time controls and censorship	Topic 3.12	• The *National Security Act 1939* gave the Australian government greater powers, including powers of censorship, the detention of 'enemy aliens', the banning of groups opposed to war, and other war-time controls.

Check your learning 2.5

Remember and understand

1 World War I was known as the 'war to end all wars'. Was this an accurate description?

2 What kinds of strategies did governments around the world introduce during World War II to support a 'total war' effort?

3 How many people died during the course of World War II? Were they all soldiers?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Sources 2 and 3 and complete the following tasks.
   - **a** What are these posters examples of and who were they produced by?
   - **b** What is the goal of each poster? What types of techniques are used to achieve these goals?
   - **c** Which poster do you feel is more successful at achieving its desired goal? Justify your point of view.

5 How do you think asking women to give up their war jobs and go back to traditional roles would have affected the growing women's movement and why?

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct some research into the *National Security Act 1939*. In a short paragraph, summarise what the Act was designed to achieve and what powers it granted the government of the time. Based on your research, do you think the government was justified in its decision to pass the Act? Why or why not?

2.6 The significance of World War II

The events of World War II remain some of the most significant in human history and have influenced almost every aspect of the modern world. World War II ended with Japan's surrender after the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki (see Source 1). By the end of the war, many European cities lay in ruins and the traditional imperial powers of Britain and France were severely weakened. In the years immediately following the end of the war, the economic and political power of the USA and Soviet Union increased dramatically, filling the gap left by Britain and France. Over the coming decades, these two nations would become the world's new superpowers ushering in a new era in world politics.

In addition to a shift in world powers, World War II was responsible for many other significant effects in the short- and long-term – both in Australia and around the world.

An overview of the significance of World War II in Australia		
Impact of the war on returned soldiers and civilians	Topic 3.14	• Nearly 600 000 Australians served overseas during WWII, with around 250 000 still serving in the Pacific and Europe when the war ended. Although there were fewer deaths in comparison to WWI, more than 20 000 returned servicemen suffered from the long-term effects of the brutal treatment they received from the Japanese as prisoners of war. • The government continued to support war veterans with medical care, pensions, home loans, training and education and employment assistance.
Changing relationship of Australia with other countries after World War II	Topic 3.14	• The experiences of World War II altered the average Australian's view of their place in the world. Australia's relationship with Britain changed after the fall of Singapore. It caused the Australian government to build strategic relationships with other nations closer to home and form a partnership with the United States for extra military support in the Pacific region. • One million American servicemen came to Australia in the immediate post-war period, beginning a 'cultural invasion' of American cinema, music, language and popular culture in the decades after WWII. • The mass migration of people from Europe to Australia after WWII changed the nature of Australian society and influenced its relationships with the rest of the world. The arrival of immigrants from a wide range of countries ultimately led to the end of the discriminatory laws of the **White Australia policy** and the birth of **multicultural** Australia.

An overview of the significance of World War II around the world		
Shift in world powers	Topic 4.1 Topic 4.2	• WWII left the old powers of Europe (such as France, Britain and Germany) broke and in ruins. • Old empires started to break up post-WWII as former colonies saw a chance to claim independence. • New world powers emerged in the form of the USA and the Soviet Union. • Germany was divided into a capitalist West and the communist East. • The United Nations (UN) was formed with the goal of preventing future wars (see Source 3). • The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the UN in 1948.
Mass migration of refugees	Topic 3.8 Topic 3.14	• Millions of Europeans were left homeless after WWII and many were looking for a fresh start in a new country. • The nation of Israel was formed in the Middle East to provide a home for Jews displaced by the war and who had survived the horrors of the **Holocaust** (see Source 2).
Nature of future warfare	Topic 4.1	• The atomic bomb was unlike any other weapon used in human history. Its capacity to cause death and destruction on a massive scale would change the world forever. The threat of nuclear attack loomed large over the post-WWII world and fuelled the Cold War that lasted until the early 1990s.
Growth of US cultural influence	Topic 3.14	• As the US emerged as a new superpower, its cultural influence grew and spread across the world through modes of mass communication like film, music and television.



Source 1 The atomic bombing of the Japanese city of Hiroshima on 6 August 1945 was one of the most significant events of World War II. The only building left standing in the centre of the city was the Hiroshima Prefectural Industrial Promotion Hall. The ruin, now known as the Hiroshima Peace Memorial (shown above in 2015), commemorates the people who were killed in the atomic bombing. More than 70 000 people were killed instantly, and another 70 000 suffered fatal injuries from the radiation.



Source 2 The State of Israel was founded in 1948 to provide a homeland for Jews who had survived the horrors of the Holocaust in Europe during World War II. Today, many young Israelis travel to visit the concentration camps in order to honour relatives who were murdered during World War II.



Source 3 The United Nations (UN) was formed on 24 October 1945 as a direct result of World War II. The primary goal of the UN was to prevent another world war from ever breaking out. Today, there are 193 member states. They meet regularly in the UN Headquarters in New York.



Source 4 Australia's relationships with nations around the world changed dramatically as a result of World War II. In the immediate post-war period, American cinema, music and popular culture influenced a generation of young Australians. This trend continues to this day.

Check your learning 2.6

Remember and understand

1 Why was the State of Israel created after World War II? What event influenced this event?
2 How many Australians served overseas during World War II? How did the government try to support these returning soldiers?
3 How did Australia's relationships with other world nations change after World War II?

World War II (1939–1945)



Although World War I had been called 'the war to end all wars', only 20 years after it ended the world was again plunged into war. World War II was fought from 1939 to 1945 in almost every part of the world. Battles were fought in Europe, Russia, the Middle East, northern Africa, Asia and the Pacific – even the city of Darwin in Australia was bombed.

Although the official numbers of those killed and wounded are impossible to confirm, it is clear that World War II was responsible for a devastating loss of life. Historians estimate that around 22 million soldiers died in battle and 38 million civilians were killed. Among the dead were around 6 million Jews murdered by Nazi forces under the command of German dictator Adolf Hitler. This systematic persecution and murder of Jews became known as the **Holocaust**. It remains one of the most significant events of World War II.

3A

What were the causes of World War II and what course did it take?

1 There were both short- and long-term factors and events that can be seen as causes of World War II. Make some predictions about what some of these might have been based on what you already know.

3B

What were some of the most significant events of World War II?

1 Historians believe that the Auschwitz Concentration Camp (see Source 1) was the site of around 1 million murders during World War II in an event known as the Holocaust. As a group, discuss what you already know about the Holocaust. Why do you think it is regarded as one of the most significant events of World War II?



chapter 3

Source 1 The railway tracks leading to the main gates at Auschwitz–Birkenau Concentration Camp in Nazi-occupied Poland. During World War II, concentration and extermination camps such as this were built by the Nazis all over Europe to detain and murder Jews and other minority groups.

3C

How did World War II affect the lives of Australians and Australia's international relationships?

1 World War II had a significant impact on people at home in Australia, especially women. How and why do you think this was the case?

3.1 World War II: a timeline



A Jewish-owned shopfront after *Kristallnacht*

30 January 1933
Hitler becomes Chancellor of Germany leading the National Socialist German Workers Party (better known as the Nazi Party).

9–10 November 1938
A series of attacks take place on Jewish homes, businesses and synagogues across Germany and Austria. The attacks become known as *Kristallnacht* (Night of the Broken Glass).

1919 | 1933 | 1938 | 1939 | 1940 | 1941

1919
The Paris Peace Conference is held and the Treaty of Versailles is signed, leaving Germany humiliated.



Signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919

1 September 1939
Germany attacks Poland and German troops cross the border, causing Britain and France to declare war on Germany. All countries in the British Empire, including Australia, also declare war on Germany.

1940
France, Belgium, Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands fall to Germany; Dunkirk evacuation.



Source 1 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to World War II



Adolf Hitler touring the French capital, Paris, in June 1940 – one year before invading the USSR.



Aerial view of Hiroshima, Japan, after the atomic bomb was dropped



Kokoda Trail campaign

8 May 1945
VE Day (Victory in Europe Day) – marks the end of the war in Europe.

22 June 1941
Beginning of Operation Barbarossa (German invasion of the USSR).

July–November 1942 The Kokoda campaign fought between Australia and Japan in New Guinea.

6–9 August 1945
The USA drops two atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima (6 August) and Nagasaki (9 August) leading to Japan's surrender.

1942

1944

1945

19 February 1942
Darwin bombed by the Japanese, Australia put on 'total war' footing.

6 June 1944
D-Day landing of Allied troops in Europe.

30 April 1945
Hitler commits suicide in Berlin, leading to the surrender of Germany.

15 August 1945
VP Day (Victory in the Pacific Day) officially marks the end of war in the Pacific.

December 1941
Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor and Singapore – war in the Pacific war begins.



USS *Arizona* sinking in Pearl Harbor – the USA enters the war the next day

Check your learning 3.1

Remember and understand

1 In what year did Hitler become Chancellor of Germany?
2 When did Britain and France declare war on Germany?
3 When was Darwin bombed by the Japanese?

Apply and analyse

4 How do you think the Paris Peace Conference may have contributed to the beginning of World War II?
5 What event initiated the Pacific war?
6 Using the timeline, calculate how long the Pacific war lasted.

3.2 Causes of World War II

Only 20 years after the end of World War I, Europe was once again at war. At the time, many people blamed the outbreak of World War II on those who had negotiated the terms of peace at the end of World War I. In particular, they blamed the treaty that Germany was forced to sign – the Treaty of Versailles. The reality was more complex than that, with many short- and long-term factors contributing to the outbreak of conflict in 1939.

The Paris Peace Conference and the Treaty of Versailles

Immediately after World War I ended in 1918, members of the victorious Allied powers (Britain, France, the USA and Italy) met at the Palace of Versailles just outside Paris to negotiate the terms of surrender for the defeated central powers (Germany, Austria–Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria) and agreed on a set of penalties. After months of tense negotiations, the Treaty of Versailles was signed. It imposed a series of harsh terms on Germany (see Source 1).

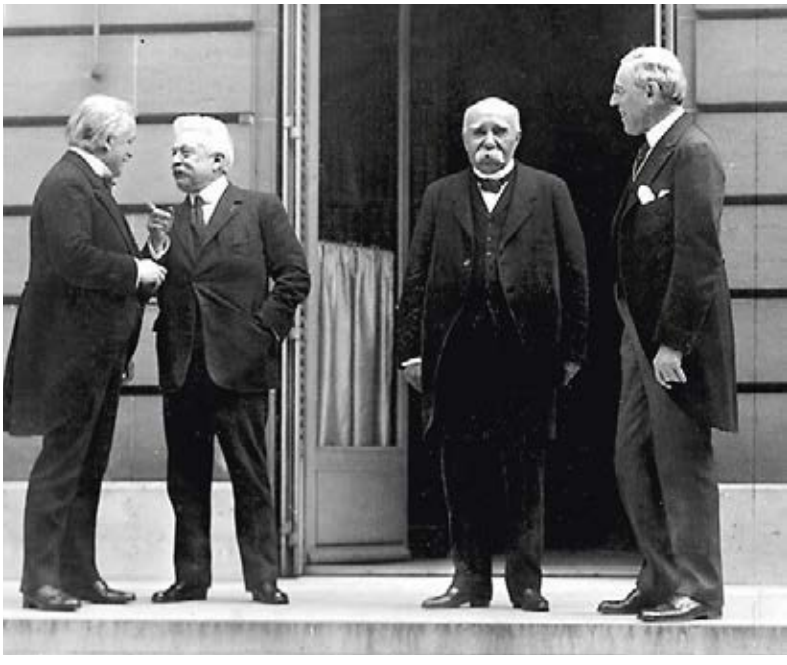
Source 1 Key outcomes of the Treaty of Versailles

- Article 231 (known as the 'War guilt clause') blamed Germany and its allies for starting World War I and declared that Germany was responsible to pay for 'loss and damages' – the payments Germany had to make were called **reparations**.
- Germany's army was limited to 100 000 men; conscription (compulsory military service) was banned, the German air force was disbanded, and the production of weapons and ammunitions in German factories was limited.
- German territory was given to neighbouring nations such as France, Denmark, Belgium, Poland – other German-controlled areas were reclaimed in order to create the country of Czechoslovakia (see Source 3) and Italy was also given two small areas.
- German colonies were divided between the Allies – this included Australia, which claimed German New Guinea and Nauru.
- The League of Nations was established – an organisation formed with the aim of preventing another war and maintaining world peace by settling disputes between nations through negotiation.

The terms of the Treaty of Versailles were devastating for Germany, both politically and economically. The terms created a weak and unstable economy in Germany with mass unemployment and severe rates of inflation (price rises). Over time this led to a sense of resentment and bitterness among the German people. Many of them felt that they had been unfairly treated. This resentment was exploited by a number of German politicians during the 1920s and 1930s.

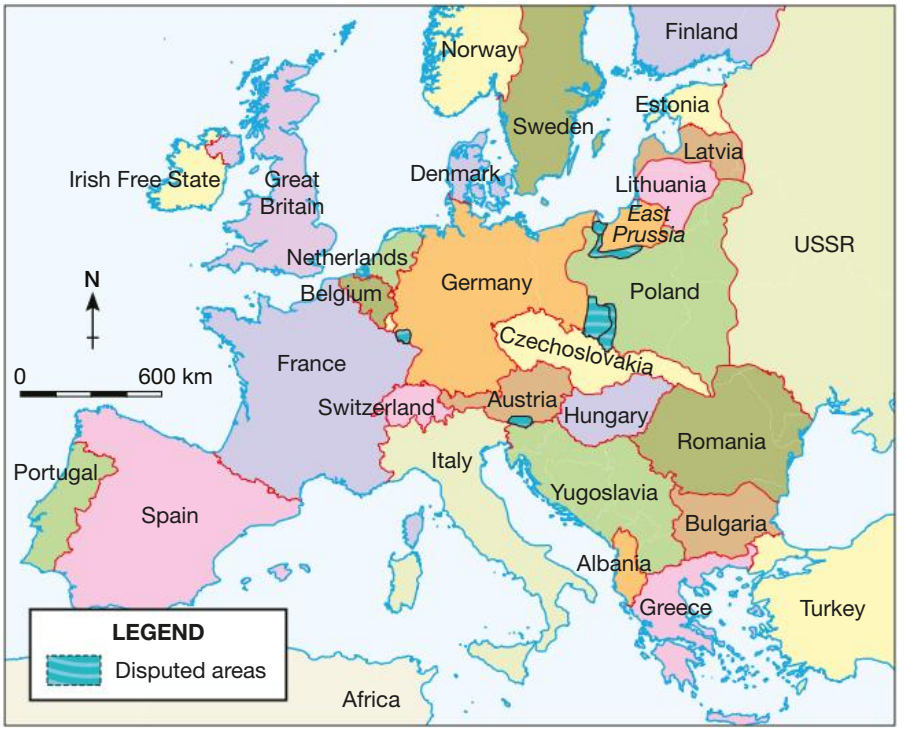
The Paris Peace Conference alienated some of the Allies. Italy was outraged that it received few benefits for joining the Allies.

The conference also sowed the seeds for war in the Pacific. Japan was permitted to keep Chinese territory it had seized from Germany during the war. However, Japan unsuccessfully tried to introduce a 'racial equality' clause to the Treaty of Versailles. The clause was opposed by Britain and Australia in particular. Japan's failure to ensure its equality with the other powers contributed to the breakdown in Japan's relations with the West, and the rise of Japanese **nationalism** and **militarism.**



Source 2 British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, French Premier Georges Clemenceau and US President Woodrow Wilson in Paris during negotiations for the Treaty of Versailles

EUROPE: BORDERS AFTER THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES



Source 3

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 4 A German housewife using millions of *Deutschmarks* to light her stove. During the **hyperinflation** of 1923, bank notes were worth so little that it was more useful to burn them than spend them.

The Great Depression and the rise of dictatorships

At the end of World War I in 1918, Germany had been defeated and Kaiser Wilhelm II – the emperor of Germany – stood down. A new democratic government, known as the Weimar Republic, took power in the Kaiser's place. Even though the new government had no choice in the matter, many Germans blamed it for agreeing to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. As a result, it was very unpopular with the people.

The new government also had serious economic problems to deal with. In 1929, a stock market crash in New York triggered a period of severe economic hardship that lasted until the late 1930s. This was known as **the Great Depression**. Germany was one of the worst affected nations during this time, suffering mass unemployment, record price rises and a fall in the standard of living. Workers went on strike, German currency depreciated in value, and the economy suffered as foreign investors moved their money out of Germany.

key concept: Significance

The League of Nations

The League of Nations was established as part of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. The league was the brainchild of US President Woodrow Wilson. The idea was that the league would settle disputes between nations through negotiation, with the aim of preventing another world war. Only as a last resort would troops be used to settle a dispute.

One major weakness of the scheme was that the USA did not join the league. Although a US president had proposed the idea, the US Congress refused to join. Wilson's party, the Democrats, was defeated at the 1920 election. It seemed that a majority of Americans wanted to maintain a neutral position and not be caught up in world affairs.

The League of Nations had no armed forces of its own, and little power to force members to comply with its decisions. It had some minor successes in the 1920s, such as resolving territorial disputes between some countries in Europe, but it failed in its central aim of preventing another world war. By 1939, Japan, Germany, Italy and the USSR had all left the organisation.

Despite its failure, the League of Nations is still considered to be significant in history because it laid the foundations for the formation of the United Nations at the end of World War II.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to page 11 in 'The history toolkit'.

As a result of these tough economic and political conditions, a number of political movements and ideologies became popular in Europe and Asia, including **communism**, **fascism** and **militarism**. These movements emphasised strict government control and military power and were quick to take hold in countries such as the Soviet Union, Italy, Japan and Germany. Although these countries were very different, they shared a few common features:

- the importance of the state over the individual
- support for a strong central leader
- public displays of power and authority, such as parades and rallies (see Source 6)
- a reliance on **propaganda** campaigns to promote the views of the party and suppress opposition
- a belief in the importance of national pride
- an ambition to increase the size of their territories
- the need for force in the struggle against foreign enemies.

The Nazi Party

One such group that formed in Germany in 1920 was the National Socialist German Workers' Party (formerly the German Workers' Party) – better known as the Nazi Party. Adolf Hitler, who was elected chairman of the party in 1921, had fought with the German army in World War I and, like most Germans, resented the restrictions placed on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles.

Nazism was characterised by the strong and charismatic leadership of Adolf Hitler, supported by a small, powerful inner circle of people. Its ideology was built on German nationalism, anti-communism, **antisemitism** (hostility towards Jews), and the idea that ethnic Germans were racially superior to all other races. Nazis also believed in the 'stab-in-the-back myth'. This was the idea that Germany was not defeated in World War I, but was betrayed by socialists and Jews on the home front.

The Nazi Party attempted to seize power in 1923 in Munich in an uprising known as the 'Beer Hall Putsch'.



Source 5 Nazi propaganda posters showing the swastika and the eagle (both symbols of the Third Reich)

This uprising failed, and the ringleaders, including Hitler, received short prison sentences. After this incident, Hitler was determined to win power legally at the ballot box. In November 1932, the Nazi Party received 37.3 per cent of votes, more than any other party but not a majority. In 1933 Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany after negotiating a deal with other leaders.

The Third Reich

After coming to power, Hitler began putting his beliefs into practice. The period of his rule became known as the Third Reich. During this time there was little or no personal freedom. People were encouraged to report on friends, neighbours and even family members suspected of disloyalty to the regime. Propaganda and large well-organised rallies were used to convince citizens of the legitimacy of the regime and to silence critics. Punishments were severe and often involved torture and **internment** in concentration camps. Jews were the primary targets of Nazi persecution. Writers, artists, playwrights, university professors and others traditionally associated with free thinking were also targets of Nazi persecution.

Ceremonies, uniforms, symbols, marches, music and rallies were used by the Nazis to create a sense of belonging and show strength. There was a particular attempt to gain the support of young people through organisations such as Hitler Youth. The huge Nuremberg rallies held in the 1930s played an important role in gaining popular support for the Third Reich (see Source 6).



Source 6 Members of the Nazi Party display their strength at the Nuremberg Rally, 1933

Check your learning 3.2

Remember and understand

1 What were some of the conditions imposed on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles?
2 Which other countries were dissatisfied with the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, and why?
3 When and why was the League of Nations formed?
4 Even though the League of Nations ultimately failed, many historians still consider its formation to be a significant historical event. Why?
5 In your own words, define the word 'reparations'.
6 Why was the Weimar Republic unpopular in Germany in the 1920s?
7 Describe some of the ideological beliefs of the Nazi Party.
8 How did the Third Reich restrict personal freedom?
9 How did the Nazis create a sense of belonging among German people?

Apply and analyse

10 What were some of the early problems encountered by the League of Nations?
11 Explain how the outcomes of the Paris Peace Conference contributed to the outbreak of war in the Pacific.
12 Study the propaganda posters used by the Nazis at the Nuremberg Rallies (Source 5), held between 1927 and 1938 to celebrate the Third Reich.
   a What impression do they create of the Nazi regime and the Third Reich?
   b What aspects of the posters (such as signs, symbols, colours) help to create this impression?
13 Imagine you are US President Woodrow Wilson in 1920. Write a short speech to deliver as part of your election campaign, in which you try to convince the American public of the importance of the League of Nations and why America should join. You will need to conduct some research to ensure that your speech accurately reflects Wilson's views.
14 Search the Internet to locate a map of Europe in 1917, just prior to the end of World War I. Compare your map with Source 3 that shows the borders of European countries brought about by the Treaty of Versailles. List the key differences.

3.3 Significant individual: Adolf Hitler

For generations, the name Adolf Hitler has been linked with the idea of 'evil'. What is often forgotten is that Hitler exploited democratic processes in Germany to seize unparalleled power and impose his ideology on the world.

Early life

Hitler was born in the Austrian village of Braunau in 1889. He was very close to his mother Klara but is said to have had a bad relationship with his father, who died when Hitler was 13. Hitler showed early academic promise in primary school but dropped out of secondary school at 16 and went to Vienna to become an artist.

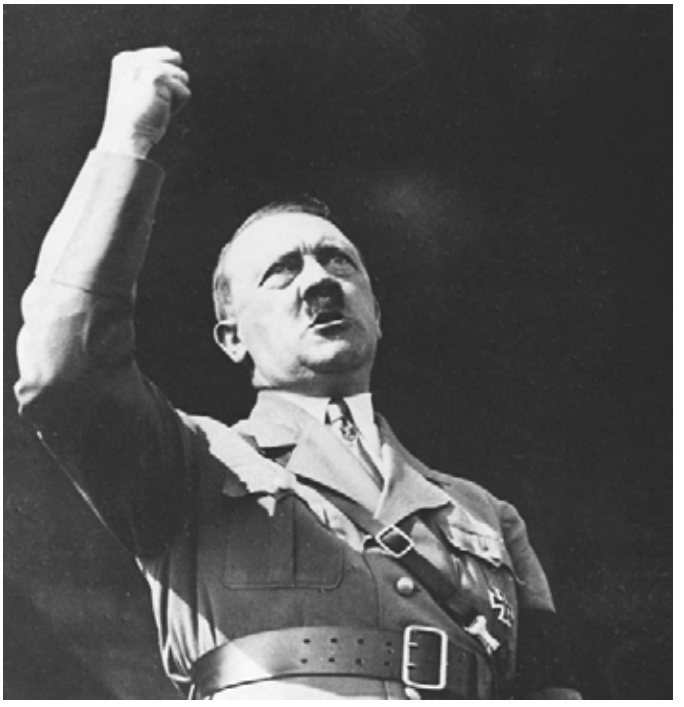
During his time in Vienna, Hitler was a drifter. He was twice rejected by the Academy of Fine Arts. Historians debate whether Hitler already held antisemitic views before he moved to Vienna, or whether his experiences there caused him to look for others to blame and inspired his hatred of Jewish people.

During World War I

Despite his Austrian birth and his father's position in the Austrian public service, Hitler became a strong believer in German nationalism. He evaded conscription into the Austro–Hungarian army by travelling across the border to Munich, where he enlisted in the German army in 1914. Hitler served as a message runner on the Western Front, a job that was considered 'safe'. Nevertheless, he was wounded in October 1918, and was in hospital at the time of the armistice (ceasefire). He passionately opposed the armistice and believed that Germany should never have surrendered. This influenced his later ideology. During the war, Hitler's superiors thought he lacked leadership skills, so he was never promoted beyond the rank of corporal.

Key influences and ideas

Hitler was influenced by a number of competing ideologies, such as German nationalism, ideas of 'racial purity', anti-communism and, arguably most importantly, by antisemitism.



Source 1 Hitler held crowds mesmerised for hours with his speeches.

Antisemitism (hostility towards and persecution of Jews) existed in German society, and in 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.

Hitler's political career began in 1919 when he joined the German Workers' Party (DAP), a small group of extreme nationalists and antisemites who saw their role as trying to convince the German people that Jews were primarily responsible for Germany's plight.

In July 1921, he took over the leadership of the party, by then renamed the National Socialist German Workers' Party (or Nazi Party).

The Nazis wanted to make Germany great again after its defeat in World War I. As part of this goal, they used pseudoscientific theories about race that have since been discredited. These theories divided the human race into a hierarchy of distinct racial groups. The nationalist movement and the pseudoscientific **eugenics** movement (see 'Unit 3.8 The Holocaust' on pages 72–3) influenced their thinking. The Nazis believed that 'Aryan' Germans were a 'master race' destined to rule the world. Jews were seen as the single most dangerous threat to this plan because of their supposed racial differences, economic power and social values.

The Nazis used antisemitic propaganda to influence the German public. Jews everywhere were portrayed as acting as a single unit. Antisemitism was emphasised as a 'racial' prejudice rather than a religious one. In order to achieve their 'Aryan' society, other races considered by the Nazis to be 'weak' or 'polluting' were to be removed from society. In addition to the Jews, these groups included Slavs and Sinti/Roma people (Gypsies), as well as non-racial groups such as those with disabilities, Jehovah's Witnesses and homosexuals. While Nazi persecution of these groups was widespread, Jews in particular were made a scapegoat for many of Germany's problems.

Rise to power

The Nazi Party's first attempt to seize power in 1923 was a disaster. Hitler was charged with treason (betrayal of country), but received friendly treatment from the court. In his defence he claimed honourable and nationalistic motives. The judge allowed Hitler to discuss his ideas in court with few restrictions. He eventually served only eight months in prison enjoying many privileges such as daily visits from friends and family, and no forced labour. Hitler used this time to write *Mein Kampf*, a book outlining his ideology, experiences and plans for the Nazi Party.

On his release from jail, Hitler decided that the Nazis should try to gain power by exploiting the political system rather than attacking it. His party gained a small number of seats in the Reichstag (the German legislative assembly) during the 1920s, but it was the Great Depression that gave the party its real opportunity. By 1932 the Nazi Party was the largest single party in the Reichstag. Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany in January 1933 by President Hindenburg (see Source 2). After Hindenburg's death in 1934, Hitler combined the roles of Chancellor and President, making himself the *Führer* (supreme ruler) of Germany. Hitler's government then began implementing many of the plans and policies described in *Mein Kampf*. These included the expansion of the military, expansion of Germany's borders, systematic persecution of the Jewish community, and compulsory sterilisation for many Jewish and Sinti/Roma people, as well as those with disabilities.



Source 2 Hitler is sworn in as the new Chancellor in January 1933. Here he is shaking hands with President Hindenburg (right).

For the first three years of the war, Hitler's popularity remained strong. However, in 1942 Germany suffered severe military losses and German cities were regularly bombed by the Allies. Some Germans began to turn against Hitler. There were at least 17 recorded assassination attempts against him and many more were rumoured to have occurred. Hitler gradually withdrew from public life and directed operations from his underground 'bunker' in Berlin. Hitler took his own life as the Soviet Army overran Berlin on 30 April 1945.

Check your learning 3.3

Remember and understand

1 List four facts about Hitler's childhood and teenage years.
2 What nationality was Hitler?
3 During World War I:
   a What job did Hitler perform in the German army?
   b Why was Hitler never promoted beyond the rank of corporal?

Apply and analyse

4 What special treatment did Hitler receive when he was tried for treason after the Nazi Party's first attempt to seize power in 1923? Why do you think that was?
5 Describe some of the key characteristics of Hitler's ideology.
6 How did the Great Depression help Hitler and the Nazis rise to power?
7 How did Hitler exploit the democratic process to seize power?

Evaluate and create

8 Conduct a class debate on the following topic: 'Hitler himself was not personally significant. Any dictator could have seized power in Germany at that time'.

3.4 The course of the war in Europe

Appeasement

Immediately after coming to power in 1933, Hitler started to violate the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. He began increasing the size of the military, reintroduced conscription in Germany, re-established the German *Luftwaffe* (air force), and increased the production of weapons and ammunition.

One of Hitler's aims in the 1930s was to regain the territories taken from Germany under the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. Under the terms of the treaty, the Rhineland (a region in western Germany) had been made into a demilitarised zone. Although Germany had political control of this area, it was not allowed to base any troops there. In 1936, however, Hitler ordered that German troops enter the Rhineland.

The British and French response to these events was largely to tolerate them, known as a policy of **appeasement**. Britain and France followed this policy because:

EUROPE: GERMAN TERRITORIAL EXPANSION 1936–39



Source 2 Source: Oxford University Press

- they believed that giving in to Hitler's demands would avoid another war
- neither France nor Britain could afford to go to war as the economies of both countries were in the grip of the Great Depression
- many people believed that the Treaty of Versailles was too harsh on Germany and some believed that Hitler's actions were justified.

In 1938, Hitler went a step further by annexing (taking control over) Austria (see Source 2). Once again, France and Britain did not react. In the same year, Hitler demanded that the Sudetenland region (part of the newly formed country of Czechoslovakia) be returned to Germany. The Sudetenland had a population of around three million ethnic Germans. Hitler used this fact to justify his claims to the region. In September 1938, representatives from Britain, France, Italy and Germany met in Munich (see Source 1). They agreed to return Sudetenland to Germany (see Source 3). In return, Hitler agreed not to make any further claims over disputed territory in Europe. Despite these assurances, Germany invaded the rest of Czechoslovakia in March 1939.

However, when Hitler began demanding the return of territories in Poland later that same year, Britain formed an alliance with Poland to guarantee the latter's security and independence. On 1 September 1939, Germany invaded Poland and the policy of appeasement was abandoned. France and Britain (including British colonies and dominions such as Australia) declared war on Germany in September 1939.



Source 1 British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain arrives back from his meeting with Hitler in 1938, holding the agreement which he said would deliver 'peace for our time'

Initial German success

The invasion of Poland, launched on 1 September 1939, was the first example of what became known as ***Blitzkrieg*** ('lightning war') tactics. *Blitzkrieg* tactics involved the use of coordinated air and land forces to quickly overrun the enemy, followed by slower-moving ground forces, often using horse-drawn transport, which 'mopped up' the shattered defenders and occupied their territory.

Despite the British and French commitment to support Poland, the speed of the German advance made it virtually impossible for either power to offer practical military support. By the end of September, Poland was divided between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union, with which Hitler had signed a pact in August.

The 'Phoney War'

The period after the German invasion of Poland in September 1939, is known as the 'Phoney War'. Although Germany, France and Britain were officially at war from October 1939 up until April 1940 there were no major battles. There were some sea battles, but Britain and France did not attack Germany on land; instead the British built up their strength and prepared to defend France against German attack. The Phoney War ended in April 1940, when Germany attacked and defeated Denmark and Norway.

For the first two years of the war, Nazi Germany and its allies enjoyed considerable military success. In a series of military campaigns, they used new tactics and equipment to establish an empire that stretched from the English Channel to the Soviet Union; from Norway to the African countries of Algeria and Libya.

The Battle of France

In May 1940, Germany invaded the Low Countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg) and France using *Blitzkrieg* tactics. Despite outnumbering the Germans, the Allied forces were unable to deal with the speed of the German attack. The British government evacuated 338 000 British and French troops from the port of Dunkirk, in northern France (see Source 5). On 22 June 1940, France surrendered (see Source 6), although some military units outside of France rejected the surrender and continued fighting Germany as the Free French Forces.



Source 3 Women respond to the arrival of Hitler's troops in the Sudetenland in 1938



Source 4 German troops drive into Poland in September 1939



Source 5 In May–June 1940, more than 300 000 Allied troops were cut off by the German Army and were evacuated from the French port of Dunkirk. This event became known as the Dunkirk evacuation.



Source 6 Adolf Hitler at the Eiffel Tower following the fall of France in 1940

The Siege of Tobruk

Italy entered the war on Germany's side in June 1940. Its leader, Benito Mussolini, planned to conquer Egypt from the Italian territory of Libya. However, Australian troops led a British counterattack into Libya, capturing Bardia, Tobruk and Benghazi early in 1941. Hitler sent General Rommel, one of his most experienced officers, with German forces to support the Italians in Libya. Rommel drove the British back into Egypt, although a force of Australian and British troops held on to Tobruk. German propaganda described these men as 'rats', a name that was embraced by the Australian troops as a compliment. The 'Rats of Tobruk', as they became known, proved very aggressive and successful, despite primitive conditions and a complete lack of air support (see Source 9). Royal Australian Navy ships braved enemy air attack to bring in supplies and evacuate the wounded. By September 1941 most of the Australians had been replaced by Polish troops. Rommel did capture Tobruk in June 1942.

The Battle of Britain

Germany turned its attention to defeating Britain. The plan for an invasion required the *Luftwaffe* to destroy Britain's air force, before a combined land and sea assault could be launched. If the Royal Air Force could be destroyed, the *Luftwaffe* could prevent the Royal Navy from interfering with a German invasion fleet. Facing stiff resistance, Germany eventually changed its tactics to focus on bombing Britain's industrial cities, a period of the war known as the ***Blitz***. The Royal Air Force, which included around 100 Australians, was extremely successful in resisting the German attacks from July 1940 to May 1941. By then, Germany was focused on the invasion of Russia, and the threat to Britain had passed.



Source 7 A British propaganda poster raising the efforts of the Royal Air Force during the *Blitz* featuring the famous words of British Prime Minister Winston Churchill



Source 8 German bombers during the Battle of Britain, 1940



Source 9 Australian troops, nicknamed the 'Rats of Tobruk', occupy a frontline position (AWM 041790)

Operation Barbarossa

The peak of the campaign by the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan) in Europe was the *Blitzkrieg* invasion of the Soviet Union (USSR), which began in June 1941. Code-named Operation Barbarossa, it is still the largest military operation – in terms of manpower, area covered and casualties – in human history. The Axis force was made up of more than three million troops, 3600 tanks and 4300 aircraft.

In 1939, Germany and the Soviet Union had signed a pact, agreeing not to attack each other. Germany's invasion of the USSR in 1941 broke this agreement. There were several reasons for the invasion. Hitler had long argued that the large landmass of Eastern Europe was to provide *Lebensraum* ('living space') for ethnic Germans, and would provide useful resources for the war effort. The motivations were also ideological. The Nazis hated communism and considered Russia's Slavic peoples to be racially inferior to Germans.

Despite the fact that Hitler had outlined a plan to invade the Soviet Union in his book, *Mein Kampf*, the Soviets were still caught unprepared for the invasion. Germany won several major battles and captured huge areas of territory, while the Soviet army was forced to retreat. By November 1941, German forces were within striking distance of Moscow, the Soviet capital.

However, the German forces were unable to capture Moscow. They were unprepared for the severity of the Soviet winter and were met by stubborn resistance



Source 10 German troops were defeated as much by the weather as by the Russian troops on the Eastern Front in 1941–42.

(see Source 10). When the winter of 1941–42 ended and the Germans could manoeuvre again, Hitler directed his forces to southern Russia and its oilfields. Their advance eventually came to a halt at Stalingrad (now known as Volgograd) in September 1942, in a battle that would become one of the bloodiest in history. The German army eventually surrendered at Stalingrad in February 1943. Nevertheless, the Nazi forces still occupied a great area of the USSR, and their control extended over most of continental Europe.

Check your learning 3.4

Remember and understand

1 Identify some of the ways in which Germany violated the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.
2 What was the policy of appeasement? In what way did it fail?
3 Why did Hitler claim that the Sudetenland should be returned to Germany?
4 What was the 'Phoney War'? How did it end?

Apply and analyse

5 Who were the 'Rats of Tobruk'? Why were they called that?

Evaluate and create

6 Create a diagram or flowchart to explain how *Blitzkrieg* tactics worked. Why do you think they were so effective?
7 During the Battle of Britain, British fighter pilots were instructed to shoot down German sea rescue planes if they thought those planes were being used for surveillance purposes. According to the Geneva Convention – an agreement signed in 1929, outlining the basic standards of war – this was a crime.
   a In pairs, conduct research on the Internet into the Geneva Convention and make a list of the rights protected under it.
   b With your partner, discuss whether shooting down rescue planes is acceptable conduct when your nation is fighting for its survival.
   c Compare your responses with others in your class. Do you all agree?

3.5 The end of the war in Europe

The tide of war turns in Europe

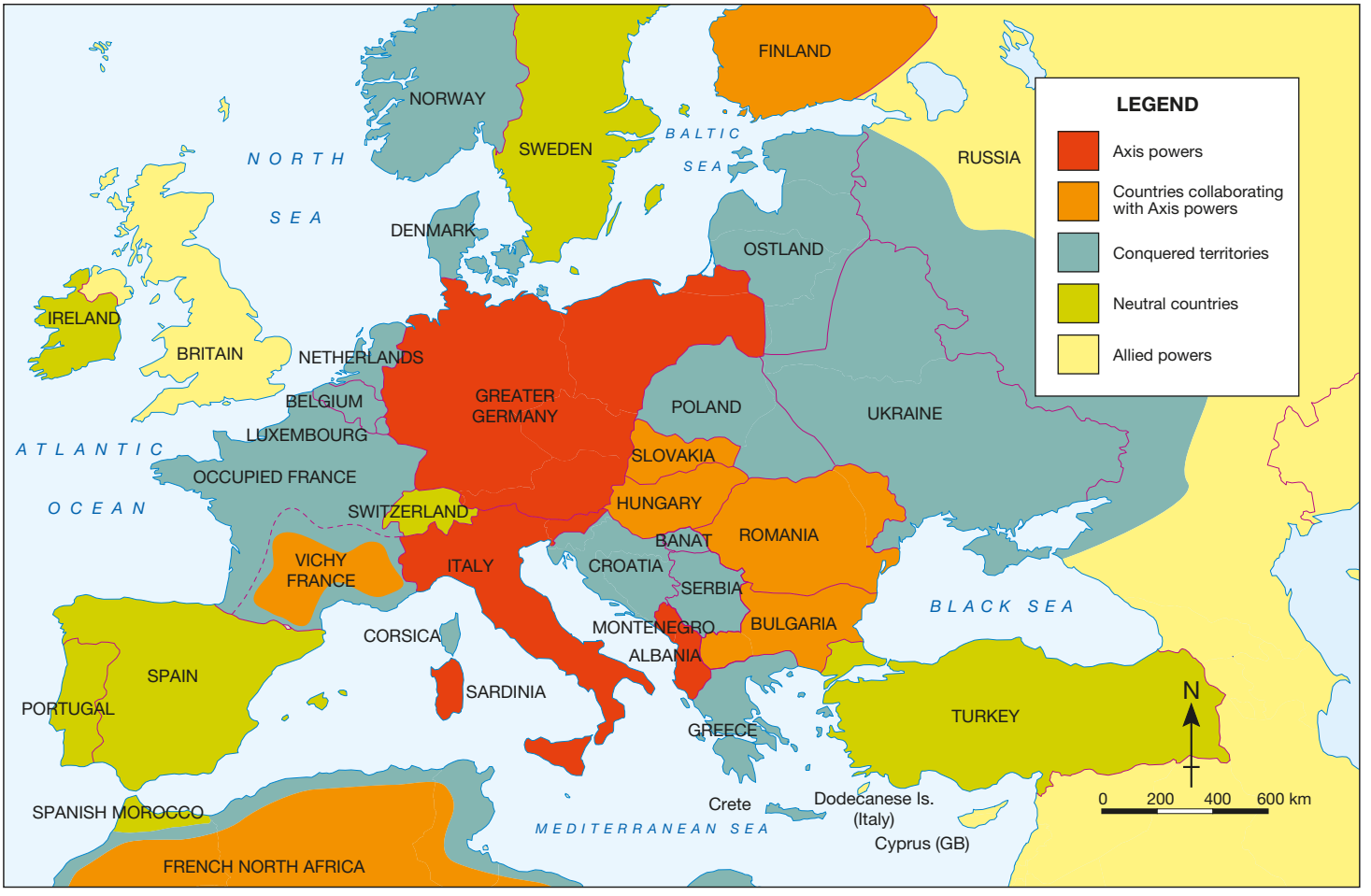
By 1943, the German *Blitzkrieg* tactics had lost the element of surprise and their wartime success had peaked (see Source 1). That year, Britain, the British dominions (including Australia), the USA, the Soviet Union and the Free French Forces formed an alliance to force Germany and its allies into an unconditional surrender.

From 1943, the Soviet army won a series of battles against Germany. By 1945, Germany had been forced out of most of Eastern Europe, with Soviet troops occupying Russia, Poland, Romania, Czechoslovakia and the Baltic States. The Russians continued their advance into Germany, and reached the German capital, Berlin, in April.



Source 2 American troops storming a beach at Normandy, France, on D-Day

EUROPE AND NORTH AFRICA: THE HEIGHT OF AXIS POWER 1942



Source 1

Source: Oxford University Press

In Western Europe, the Allies began major bombing campaigns on Germany from 1942, initially focusing on destroying German airfields but later bombing industrial cities. This campaign failed to significantly affect German morale or industries, and on its own could not win the war. The Allies developed a plan to invade France. On 6 June 1944, around 160 000 Allied troops landed on the beaches of Normandy, in northern France. This operation, known as 'D-Day', led to the liberation of France in August 1944 (see Source 2).

The defeat of Germany

In September 1944, Allied ground troops invaded Germany from the west. The Allies continued bombing major German cities, including Berlin. In April, the Soviets encircled Berlin and launched a final assault. Hitler remained in Berlin, to direct the defence of the city from his underground bunker. Although most of Berlin's population was forced to take part in the fighting, the Soviets seized Berlin after a week of fighting in the streets. Hitler committed suicide on 30 April (see Source 3), and Germany officially surrendered on 7 May 1945.

key**concept:** Contestability

Conflicting reports surrounding Hitler's death

In the years following the defeat of Germany in World War II, there were many reports about Hitler's death and what was done with his body. Numerous conflicting accounts of what actually happened were published in the days and months following the event.

Some reports claimed that Hitler had committed suicide with his wife Eva Braun and that, afterwards, their bodies were burnt. Some reports claimed that the bodies had been buried and were recovered by Soviet troops when Berlin fell and shipped back to Russia. Other reports claimed that Hitler's body was never found at all.

While there was little evidence to support the idea that Hitler had escaped, many alleged sightings of him were reported all around the world in the years following the war. In addition to these reports, the FBI kept detailed records on Hitler for 30 years after the war, and is rumoured to have fully investigated any report that alleged he was still alive.

For more information on the key concept of contestability, refer to page 12 in 'The history toolkit'.



News Chronicle

LATE LONDON EDITION

ballito

HITLER DEAD

Doenitz, new Fuehrer, says: We fight on

WEHRMACHT ORDERED TO MAINTAIN DISCIPLINE

All the generals must surrender

The man who now leads the Third Reich

Berlin's garrison herded together in last stand

Bernadotte tells his story

Hitler's birthplace overrun

GERMAN NAVY MAY FIGHT ON

HIMMLER WAS OUT OF TOUCH

FOOD GOING TO DUTCH BY SEA, AIR, ROAD

Her teeth are YOUR concern—

Phillips' Dental Magnesia

Source 3 The front page of the *News Chronicle* (London), 2 May 1945, announces the death of Adolf Hitler

Check your learning 3.5

Remember and understand

1. Which countries formed an alliance in 1943 in order to try and force Germany and its allies to surrender?
2. Using Source 1, list all of the countries that were controlled by the Axis powers by the end of 1942.
3. How did Hitler die?
4. Which country was eventually responsible for the capture of Berlin?
5. When did Germany officially surrender?

Apply and analyse

6. Why do you think that German *Blitzkrieg* tactics were less effective later in the war?
7. Why were there conflicting reports surrounding Hitler's death at the end of the war?

3.6 The course of the war in Asia and the Pacific

Background to Japan's involvement in World War II

Compared to many countries in the Asia–Pacific region during the early 1900s, Japan was a powerful, independent and nationalistic country with a strong army. Unlike many other Asian countries, however, Japan had very limited access to natural resources such as oil, coal, rubber and iron ore for steel production. Instead, it relied on other countries such as China and the USA for these.

Japan had supported the Allies (Britain, France and Russia) during World War I, but it was disappointed by the terms of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. Although Japan was permitted to keep Chinese territory it had seized from Germany during the war, in the years after the war Western powers such as the USA began to limit Japan's influence there.

The Great Depression of the 1930s caused massive unemployment and major social problems in Japan. This led to a military takeover of the government. The military rulers of Japan took a far more aggressive approach to solving their economic problems. Throughout the inter-war period, Japanese politics was dominated by nationalist and militarist movements. Out of these movements came the idea of a 'Greater East Asian Co-prosperity Sphere'. This was the idea that East Asia could exist free of Western influence. It proposed that Japan act as the leader of a bloc of Asian and Pacific nations working together. In reality though, it was designed to allow Japan greater influence and access to oil and rubber resources in neighbouring countries. In 1936, Japan signed an agreement with Germany known as the Anti-Comintern Pact. The following year, Japan invaded China (see Source 1). Finally, in 1940, Japan signed the Tripartite Pact, which cemented the alliance of the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan).

Despite the fact that Japan's invasion of China was in 1937 and the signing of these pacts took place before the war, these events are generally considered to be part of World War II. However, the event that has come to symbolise Japan's entry into World War II is the attack on Pearl Harbor.

CHINA: JAPANESE OCCUPIED TERRITORIES AT THE START OF WORLD WAR II



Source 1 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 2 The bombing of Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941

Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor

When World War II began in Europe, the attention of Britain, France, the USA and even Australia was diverted away from Japan. Despite evidence of Japanese aggression, there was still a belief that the Japanese did not pose a significant threat.

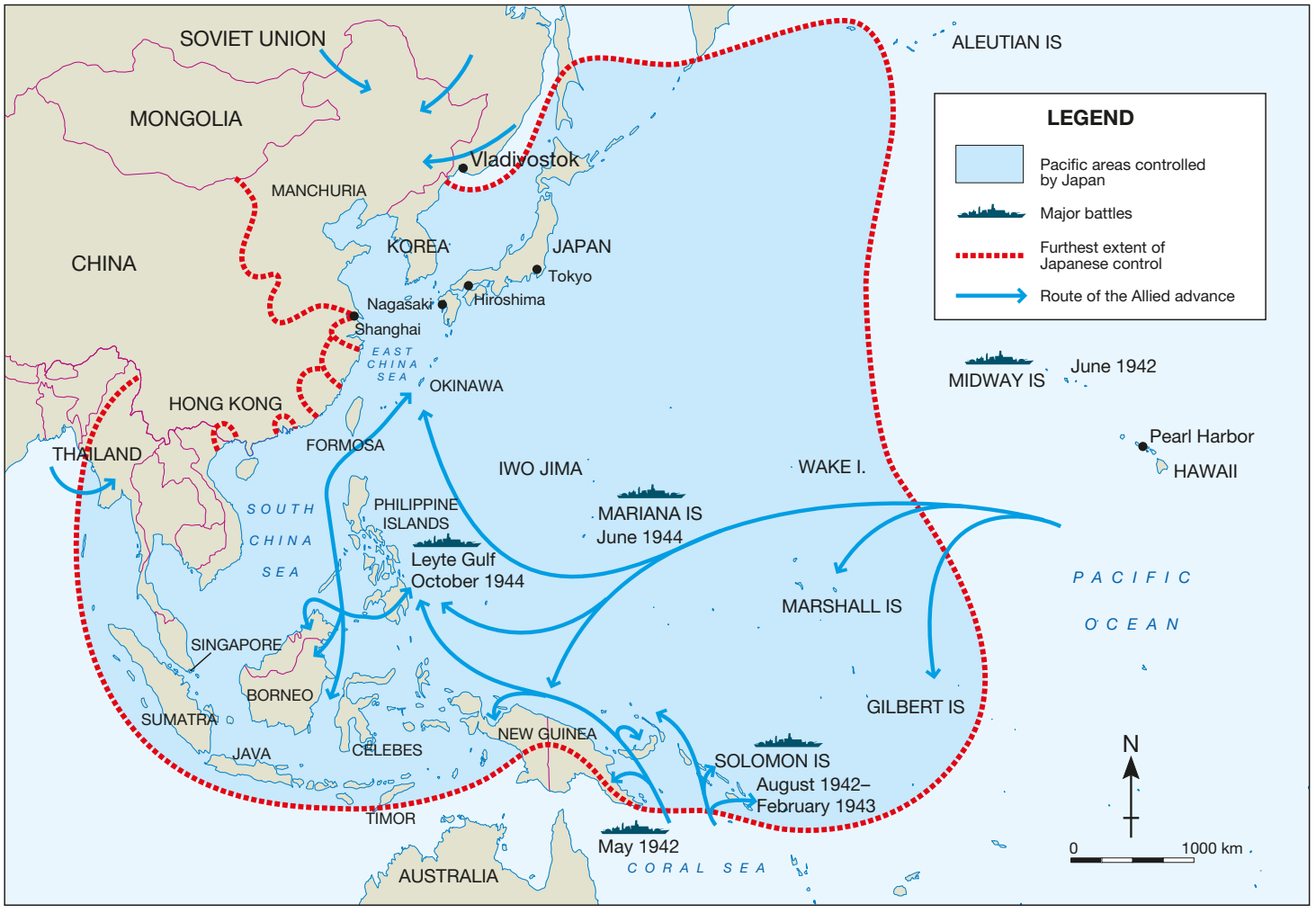
The attack on the American naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on 7 December 1941 changed this (see Source 2). It alerted the Allies to the nature of the Japanese threat. Japan hoped to destroy America's Pacific fleet, as a preventative strike to stop American interference in the Pacific. While the attack on Pearl Harbor seemed to be successful, the damage inflicted on the American fleet was less than originally thought. Rather than preventing American intervention, the attack caused the USA, Australia and the Netherlands to declare war on Japan. Germany (an ally of Japan) declared war on the USA. This brought the USA into the European war.

War in the Pacific

For the first two years of the war, Japan appeared to have the upper hand. Following the attack on Pearl Harbor, Japanese forces quickly occupied Malaya, Singapore, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Guam and Wake Island. Malaya was attacked by the Japanese for its rubber resources, quinine was taken from Java and Borneo was raided for its oil – all resources that were much needed for battle.

Japan also conquered Burma in the west, and pushed south through French Indochina (Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos) and the Dutch East Indies to reach Australia's doorstep in New Guinea (see Source 3). Britain and the USA had seriously underestimated Japan's military ability. This, together with the element of surprise and the imaginative use of combined naval and air forces by the Japanese, gave Japan an early advantage.

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC: THE JAPANESE EMPIRE IN 1942



Source 3

Source: Oxford University Press

The fall of Singapore

Singapore surrendered to the Japanese on 15 February 1942, and more than 130 000 allied troops, including 15 000 Australians, became Japanese prisoners of war. Controversially, a small number of soldiers, including the Australian commander Gordon Bennett, escaped on ships to avoid capture. The fall of Singapore caused great concern in Australia. Singapore had been regarded as almost impossible to invade, and strong British presence there prior to 1942 had meant that Australia felt protected. The defeat of the British base in Singapore meant that there was nothing to stop the Japanese advance into Australia. Australia's leaders realised that they could no longer depend on Britain, and that they needed new allies against Japan.

Source 4

> I make it quite clear that Australia looks to America, free of any pangs as to our traditional links of kinship with the United Kingdom … We know the problems that the United Kingdom faces. We know the constant threat of invasion … but we know too that Australia can go, and Britain can still hold on … We are therefore determined that Australia shall not go, and we shall exert all our energies towards the shaping of a plan, with the United States as its keystone, which will give our country confidence of being able to hold out until the tide of battle swings against the enemy.
>
> Australian Prime Minister John Curtin, quoted in the Melbourne *Herald*, 27 December 1941



Source 5 A propaganda poster used to rally Australian support following the Japanese attack on Darwin (AWM ARTV09225)

The Battle for northern Australia

The fall of Singapore brought the war much closer to Australia than had ever been anticipated. From December 1941, there began an evacuation of women and children from Darwin and surrounding areas in fear of a Japanese attack. On 19 February 1942, Japan launched an assault on Darwin (see Source 6). Officially, around 250 people were killed, although the real death toll continues to be debated. Most other Australians were unaware of the seriousness of the attack. The government played down the bombing and the number of deaths. A Royal Commission into the events surrounding the attack revealed that some people, including members of the defence forces, had panicked under fire. There were also stories that some people had looted bombed buildings or simply fled the city.

By November 1943, Darwin had suffered 64 air raids. Other towns in the Northern Territory, Queensland and Western Australia were also struck. In total, there were 97 airborne attacks on northern Australia and approximately 900 Allied troops and civilians were killed. Several ships and almost 80 aircraft were lost. Many people felt that the bombing of Darwin was the beginning of a full-scale invasion of Australia, but whether this is the case or not remains a controversial topic.

War comes to Sydney Harbour

On 31 May 1942, three Japanese midget submarines, launched from a group of five larger submarines further out to sea, entered Sydney Harbour. The submarines sank a ferry carrying military personnel. Twenty-one people were killed before Australian forces sank the submarines. A week later, two larger submarines surfaced off the coast at Bondi, shelling several Sydney suburbs and the nearby city of Newcastle. While little damage was done, the appearance of Japanese vessels emphasised to Australians that the war was now much closer to home.

Turning points

In March 1942, Japanese forces established bases on mainland New Guinea, with the objective of capturing Port Moresby. From there, they could launch regular bomber raids against northern Australia. With this threat looming, Prime Minister Curtin agreed to place all Australian forces under the command of the American General Douglas MacArthur, formerly the commander of the US-controlled Philippines. While American forces were assembling in Australia, and the battle-hardened soldiers of the Second AIF were returning to defend Australia, it was left to inexperienced Australian militia units to stop the Japanese advance to Port Moresby.

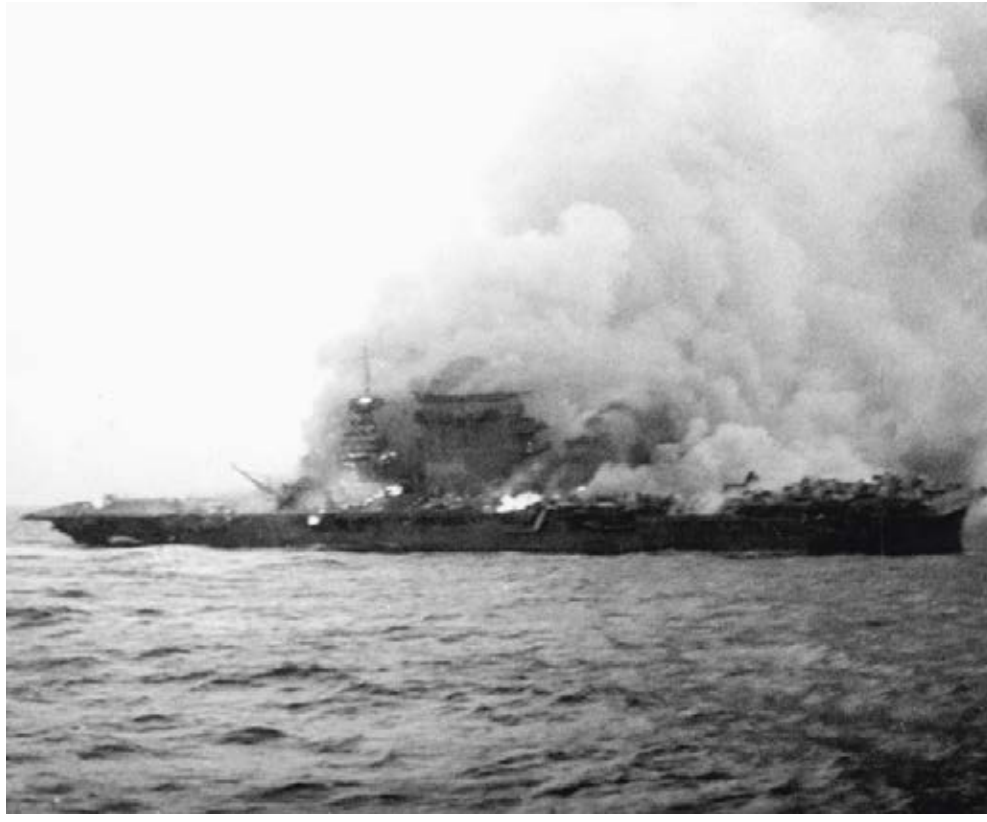
Several battles are identified as key turning points in the Asia–Pacific war zone. At sea the most significant were the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Battle of Midway. Both involved the navies of the USA and Australia in cooperative ventures.

The Battle of the Coral Sea (4–8 May 1942) was fought off the north-east coast of Queensland, just south of New Guinea. Although the Allies suffered a number of casualties (see Source 7), it prevented the Japanese from launching a sea-based assault on Port Moresby. This forced them to make a land-based assault via the Kokoda Trail.

In the Battle of Midway (4–7 June 1942) Japanese naval forces attempted to lure several US aircraft carriers into a trap to capture the strategically important Midway Islands. US code-breakers intercepted Japanese communications. The US Navy destroyed four Japanese aircraft carriers and more than 200 aircraft, severely weakening the Japanese war machine. The USA would use this weakness to prevent supply ships taking war materials, such as oil, munitions and food to Japanese forces in the region. Historians have described the Battle of Midway as 'the most stunning and decisive blow in the history of naval warfare'.



Source 6 Bomb damage to the Darwin post office and surrounding buildings as a result of the first Japanese air raid



Source 7 The *USS Lexington* in flames after a Japanese attack during the Battle of the Coral Sea, 1942

The Kokoda campaign

Japanese forces occupied parts of the north-east of New Guinea in early 1942. As the Japanese navy was halted at the Battle of the Coral Sea, Japan's only option to seize Port Moresby seemed to be an overland assault through dense jungle along a narrow path known as the Kokoda Trail.

The Kokoda Trail (sometimes called the Kokoda Track) is a roughly 96-kilometre-long narrow path in New Guinea, connecting Port Moresby to the village of Kokoda (see Source 8). Surrounded by steep mountains and jungle, the trail was frequently a river of sticky mud, and it was extremely slippery.

PAPUA NEW GUINEA: THE KOKODA TRAIL



Source 8

Source: Oxford University Press

As the risk of a Japanese attack on Port Moresby increased, a military force had to be assembled. Because most Australian troops had been fighting for more than two years in Africa and the Middle East, or had been captured as prisoners of war in the fall of Singapore, a new group of soldiers had to be assembled. Military leaders gathered a group of volunteers from the Citizen's Military Forces (CMF) and local Papuan soldiers. They became known as Maroubra Force. These troops were young, inexperienced and underprepared for frontline combat. They received little training in jungle warfare, and were equipped with old, outdated weapons. By mid-1942, however, more experienced officers were sent to support the young soldiers.

Some units were kept around Port Moresby in reserve, while a smaller force was posted to the village of Kokoda in July 1942. They were sent to defend the airfield there. It took eight days and nights to reach Kokoda, with the troops arriving on 15 July.

The first clash of the Kokoda campaign occurred on 23 July, when a small Australian platoon slowed the Japanese advance across the Kumusi River, before falling back to Kokoda. On 29 July, 80 men defended Kokoda against a Japanese attack, suffering heavy casualties as they engaged in hand-to-hand fighting. The next morning, they retreated further along the trail to the village of Deniki. They suffered heavy casualties attempting to retake Kokoda on 8 August, as well as during the retreat along the trail. This retreat was followed by a two-week break in the fighting, when the survivors met with reserves from Port Moresby and prepared to defend the trail at Isurava.

The Battle of Isurava was a major turning point in the Kokoda campaign. Maroubra Force defended the trail valiantly, but was outnumbered and suffered heavy casualties on the first day of battle. At Isurava, however, the first substantial reinforcements from the AIF began to arrive, providing a vital boost for the depleted Maroubra Force. The battle lasted four days, before the Australians had to retreat further, mounting small-scale delaying actions along the way. Further battles took place at Mission Ridge and Imita Ridge, before the Japanese troops began to run out of supplies and their advance stalled. In October, Australian troops launched a counterattack along the trail, gradually forcing the Japanese back. By 2 November, Kokoda was back in Allied hands. Months of hard fighting lay ahead before the Allies could shift the Japanese from their bases at Buna and Gona.

Approximately 625 Australians were killed fighting along the Kokoda Trail, while at least 16000 were wounded. More than 4000 also suffered from serious illnesses such as malaria. In the immediate aftermath of the campaign, members of Maroubra Force were hailed

as 'the men who saved Australia'. The campaign also had an immediate impact on the organisation of both the American and Australian armies. The Australian troops on the trail had been poorly supplied because of the unreliability of air drops. Both the Australian and American militaries developed new techniques for dropping supplies after their experiences at Kokoda.

The drive to Japan

With increased US involvement in the Pacific, Japan became drawn into a war of attrition, meaning that both sides attempted to wear each other down to the point of collapse (even though forces and supplies were depleted). Under pressure to replace its depleted forces, particularly after the disastrous Battle of Midway, Japan threw inexperienced recruits into the frontlines. Japan's war industries could not keep up with demand for replacement ships and aircraft. Japan gradually lost the resources to undertake major offensives. With Japan on the back foot, the Allies made two successful counterattacks in 1943.

For the remainder of the war, Australia's role changed. The involvement of the Australian military was decreased, and more emphasis was placed on moving Australians into war-related industries and production. Australia's task was often seen as providing other nations with the food and resources needed to defeat Japan and Germany. Despite this, many Australians continued to be involved overseas.

By late 1944, American B-29 bombers had bases from which they could strike Japan's home islands. These raids were highly effective because most Japanese buildings, made of paper and wood, burned easily. On 8 March 1945, a single raid on Tokyo killed 83 000 people, mainly civilians. As US forces got closer to mainland Japan, they found that the Japanese defence was becoming tougher and more desperate. Japanese Kamikaze pilots would carry out suicide missions, crashing their planes into US ships. The US government, in an attempt to bring the war to a swift end, began to consider new options, including the use of nuclear weapons (discussed in section 3B).



Source 9 Steps on the Kokoda Trail (AWM 026821)

Check your learning 3.6

Remember and understand

1 Which nations were involved in the Tripartite Pact?
2 What was Japan's main reason for attacking Pearl Harbor?
3 Why was the attack on Pearl Harbor less successful than initially thought?

Apply and analyse

4 Using Source 3 identify and locate the countries and areas taken over by the Japanese between 1937 and 1942.
5 In your own words, explain why the fall of Singapore was such a significant event for Australians.
6 Analyse Source 4. What was Prime Minister Curtin saying about Australia's changing relationship with Britain and the United States?

Evaluate and create

7 Research the experiences of Australian **prisoners of war** (**POWs**) in the Pacific, and the experiences of Soviet POWs in Germany and Eastern Europe. Prepare a PowerPoint presentation that compares and contrasts the experiences of the two groups.

3.7 Significant individuals: wartime leaders

During times of war, political and military leaders assume more prominent roles than they do during peacetime. As a result, they are often held responsible for the success or failure of wars.

Initially, these leaders decide whether to declare war or remain neutral. They also decide how many troops to commit. They are also ultimately responsible for the actions of their troops, including the responsibility for upholding the laws of warfare. In World War II, the Allied leaders had monumental decisions to make, and had to accept the consequences of their actions. The political and military leaders discussed here are among the most significant individuals of the Allied forces.

President of the United States – Harry Truman

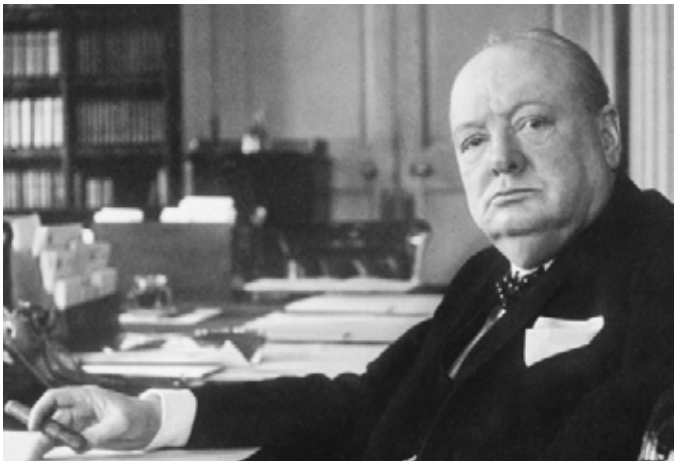
Franklin D Roosevelt was President of the USA for most of the war. When Roosevelt died on 12 April 1945, Truman became President. It was only then that Truman was briefed on the ultra-secret Manhattan Project – the research and development plan for the atomic bomb. In July 1945, Truman joined the other Allied leaders for the Potsdam Conference. While there, he was informed that the atomic bomb had been successfully tested. At Potsdam, the Allied leaders agreed on the terms of surrender to be offered to Japan. When Japan rejected these terms, Truman authorised atomic strikes on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. These bombings forced Japan to unconditionally surrender. Despite the consequences of the bombings, Truman never publicly regretted his decision, and said that 'under the same circumstances, I would do it again'.

Prime Minister of Great Britain – Winston Churchill

Churchill had been involved in politics since 1900, and was military strategist behind the disastrous Dardanelles campaign (including the Australian attack at Gallipoli) during World War I. He held several different positions between the wars, and became a vocal critic of the policy of appeasement during the late 1930s. He was appointed to the War Cabinet by Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain on the day Britain declared war on Germany, and became Prime Minister in May 1940. Churchill's main contribution to the war effort was to maintain the morale of the British people through his rhetoric and charisma, steering the nation through the Battle of Britain, the Blitz and the D-Day landings. Despite his popularity as a wartime leader, he was defeated in the 1945 elections. He served a second term as British prime minister between 1950 and 1955.



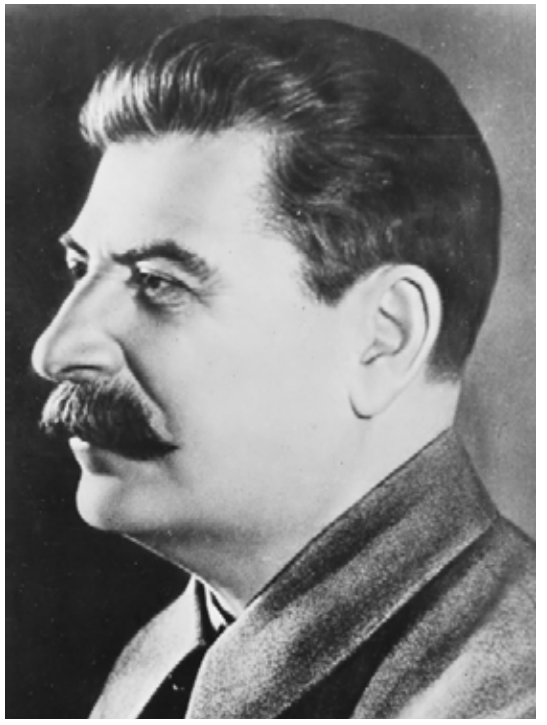
Source 1 Harry Truman



Source 2 Winston Churchill

Premier of the Soviet Union – Joseph Stalin

Stalin joined the Bolsheviks (a militant communist organisation) in 1903, and became the organisation's main operative in his home region of Georgia. When the Bolshevik Revolution installed a communist government in Russia in 1917, Stalin became an increasingly important political figure. By World War II, Stalin was the Premier and undisputed leader of the Soviet Union. He signed a non-aggression pact with Nazi Germany in 1939, which also divided Eastern Europe into German and Soviet spheres of influence, but then Germany invaded the Soviet Union in 1941, starting the war on the Eastern Front. Stalin proved to be a ruthless negotiator at the wartime and post-war conferences, and laid the groundwork for the 'Sovietisation' of Eastern Europe and the Cold War.



Source 3 Joseph Stalin

French General – Charles De Gaulle

Charles de Gaulle held no official government role.
When World War II broke out, he was a colonel in the French army. When his unit achieved a rare victory during the Battle of France, the French Prime Minister, Paul Reynaud, appointed de Gaulle to his War Cabinet. In this role, de Gaulle argued against surrendering to Germany. When France surrendered, de Gaulle rejected the decision and fled to Britain to continue fighting. De Gaulle frequently clashed with the other Allied leaders. Despite this, he proved a charismatic and intelligent leader. His Free French Forces continued to grow, and eventually merged with the French Army of Africa in 1943. By the time of the D-Day landings, Free French Forces numbered 400 000 men. They played a significant part in the liberation of France, and de Gaulle assumed the role of Prime Minister of the Provisional Republic of France from 1944 to 1946.



Source 4 Charles de Gaulle

Check your learning 3.7

Remember and understand

1. Did President Harry Truman regret his decision to authorise the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki? Why did he authorise the bombings?
2. What was different about Charles de Gaulle's role as an Allied leader?

Evaluate and create

3. Conduct further research on one of these Allied leaders, covering the following:
   - **a** Identify how he came to power.
   - **b** Decide what you think his most significant decision during World War II was.
   - **c** Analyse his importance after World War II.

3A rich task

The Kokoda campaign

The Kokoda campaign was arguably the most significant military campaign in Australia's history. Although it is generally accepted that Japan did not plan to invade mainland Australia during World War II, this was a real fear at the time. Given the limited information available to them, the soldiers of Maroubra Force believed they were fighting the 'battle to save Australia'. Had the soldiers of Maroubra Force not held back the Japanese advance in New Guinea, the war in the Pacific would have gone on for much longer, and cost even more lives.

The campaign is made even more incredible by the conditions in which it was fought. Sources 2 and 3 provide an insight into the experiences of soldiers on the Kokoda Trail.

Source 2

They'd wish they were down with Satan, instead of this hell on earth,

Straining, sweating, swearing, climbing the mountain side,

'Just five minutes to the top'; my God how that fellow lied,

Splashing through mud and water, stumbling every yard

One falls by the wayside when the going is extra hard

Extract from 'The Crossing of the Owen Stanley Range', by Private H McLaren

Source 3

You are trying to survive, shirt torn, arse out of your pants, whiskers a mile long, hungry and a continuous line of stretchers with wounded carried by 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' doing a marvellous job. Some days you carry your boots because there's no skin on your feet …

Private Laurie Howson, 39th Battalion, diary entry

Despite the significance of the Kokoda campaign in World War II, the Gallipoli campaign of World War I is usually remembered as Australia's proudest battle. Over time, Gallipoli and Anzac Day have become the main focus of public commemoration and remembrance. Some historians and critics now argue that Kokoda would be a more appropriate focus of national commemoration than Gallipoli. They suggest that the Kokoda campaign was fought in defence of Australia, whereas Gallipoli was an invasion of a foreign nation that posed no threat to Australia. Some people also argue that the 'Kokoda spirit' is more relevant to modern Australia than the 'Anzac spirit'.



Source 1 A still from the film *Kokoda: 39th Battalion* showing members of the 39th battalion on the Kokoda Trail

skill**drill:** Historical significance

Writing a historical discussion

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. Follow these steps to write your own historical discussion.

Step 1 Consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence.

- Consider various primary sources – such as newspapers, photographs or political and legal documents from the period being studied.
- Also consider the ideas of other historians, presented in secondary sources such as textbooks and websites.

Step 2 You need to mention in your writing where information is coming from. Some examples of how you can do this include:

- 'According to the historian Peter Williams …'
- 'The depiction of Australian soldiers' experiences in Alister Grierson's film *Kokoda: 39th Battalion* shows that …'

Step 3 Conclude with your own point of view on the question or issue.

Source 4 Summary of the structure of a written discussion

Introduction	• Introduces the topic, question or issue • Outlines why the topic, question or issue is important
Main body	• A series of paragraphs that outline different arguments or opinions about the topic, question or issue • Each opinion or argument that is presented should also refer to the evidence which supports it
Conclusion	• Sums up the issue and gives the writer's opinion

Step 4 Include a bibliography that references all sources used in the discussion. When citing a book in a bibliography, include the following information, in this order:

- Author surname(s) and initial(s)
- Year of publication
- Title of book (in italics)
- Edition (if relevant)
- Publisher
- Place of publication
- Page number(s)

Example:

Braga, S, 2004, *Kokoda Commander: The Life of Major-General 'Tubby' Allen*, Oxford University Press, pp 83–84.

When citing an online source in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

- Author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
- Year of publication or date of web page (last update)
- Title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
- Organisation name (if different from above)
- Date you accessed the site
- URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets

Example:

James, K, 2009, 'The track: a historical desktop study of the Kokoda Track', *Department of Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts*, accessed 10 July 2016 <http://www.environment.gov.au/heritage/publications/pubs/awm-kokoda-report.pdf>

Apply the skill

1 Write a 500-word historical discussion on the following topic:

'Kokoda was Australia's most successful and significant military campaign and should be commemorated as such.'

Use the information and sources in this section together with your own research to locate a range of primary and secondary sources of information which provide evidence about the significance of Kokoda. Make sure you include a bibliography that references all your sources using the conventions outlined above.

Extend your understanding

1 What was significant about the units that made up Maroubra Force at the start of the Kokoda campaign?

2 Use the sources in this section as well as information you have located through research to write a paragraph describing the conditions in which the soldiers fought along the Kokoda Trail.

3 Research the 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' mentioned by Private Howson in Source 3.

a What role did they play in the Kokoda campaign?

b Has the contribution of the Papua New Guineans to the campaign been officially recognised?

c Imagine you have been asked by the Australian government to design a new war memorial for the Papua New Guineans. Design a plan for an appropriate memorial, considering: appropriate symbols, where your memorial will be built, the materials you would use, and the message you want your memorial to send.

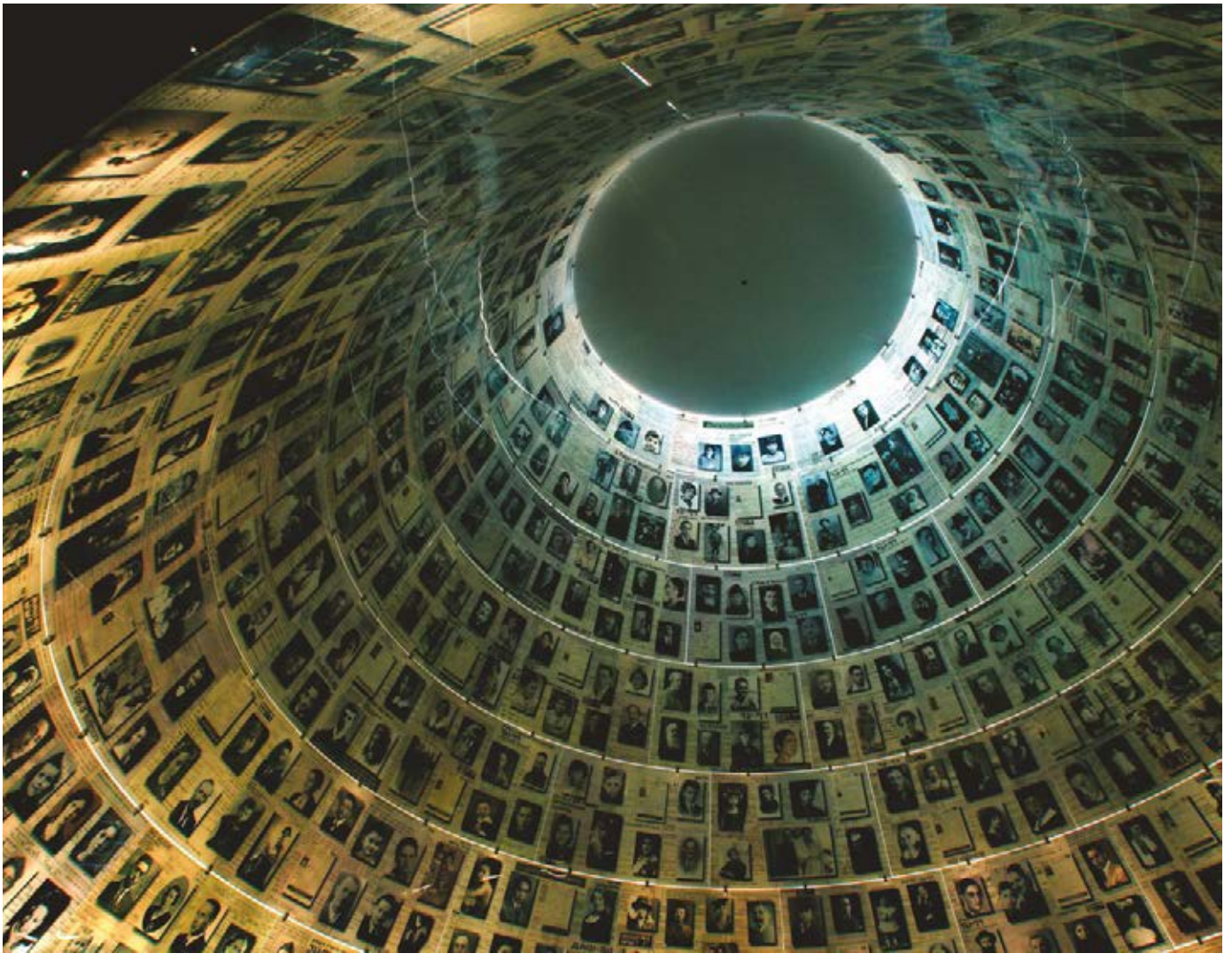
3.8 The Holocaust

In 1933, it is estimated that the Jewish population of Europe stood at around 11 million. By the end of the war in 1945, it is estimated that more than six million Jews had died at the hands of the Nazis. To put this into perspective, more than half of all European Jews were killed. This systematic, government-endorsed persecution and murder of Jews took place throughout the Nazi-occupied territories under the command of Adolf Hitler. It is among the most brutal and destructive policies of the 20th century, and is referred to as the **Holocaust**. Hundreds of thousands of German military and civilian personnel were involved in the mass murder. Millions more collaborated or accepted these events without protest. The word 'Holocaust' is of Greek origin and means 'sacrificed by fire' or 'burnt'. Out of respect for the dead, Jewish communities today use the Hebrew word *Shoah* instead, meaning 'catastrophe'.

Beginnings of the Holocaust

The origins of the Holocaust can be traced back further than Adolf Hitler's lifetime. Antisemitism has its origins in the ancient world, and was rife throughout Europe in the Middle Ages.

In the 1880s, the eugenics movement became popular. Eugenics, a practice that aimed to 'improve'



Source 1 The conical-shaped Hall of Names in the Holocaust History Museum in the Yad Vashem Holocaust complex in Israel – the Hall of Names shows around 600 portraits of Jewish Holocaust victims



Source 2 Nazi storm troopers (also known as brownshirts) outside a Jewish business, directing people to shop elsewhere, 1933

the human gene pool by controlling the types of people giving birth to children, was taught as a subject at many universities. For a time, eugenics was supported by people like Winston Churchill, and was government policy in countries such as the United States. By the 1930s the popularity of the eugenics movement was declining, but the Nazi Party's policies were heavily influenced by its ideas.

Hitler outlined the development of his antisemitism and even some of his proposed policies towards Jews in his book *Mein Kampf*. Many of these beliefs were borrowed from the eugenics movement. He declared that 'the personification of the devil as the symbol of all evil assumes the living shape of the Jew'. *Mein Kampf* also outlined Hitler's hatred of communism, and his belief that Germany would have to expand east to provide Lebensraum ('living space') for ethnic Germans. The seeds of Hitler's cruel and murderous policies were present in his ideology at least a decade before he became Chancellor of Germany in 1933.

Within months of coming to power, Hitler also introduced a law that allowed the compulsory sterilisation of people with mental or physical disabilities. In other words, anyone who was disabled (a broad definition of 'disabled' was used, ranging from schizophrenia, to deafness, to alcoholism) could be legally forced to have an operation to ensure they could not have children. More than 400000 people were sterilised and around 5000 died as a result of these operations. Another 70000 were killed under a related euthanasia program.

Antisemitism and eugenics eventually combined in Germany's racial policies. As well as violence against Jews and boycotts of Jewish businesses (see Source 2), the government refused to grant German citizenship to Jews and sought to remove all Jews from the government, the legal professions and universities. Laws limited the number of Jewish students allowed in public schools, banned Jews from many public places, expelled Jewish officers from the army, and transferred ownership of many Jewish businesses to non-Jewish Germans.

As Hitler's policies began to take hold, many Jews (and Germans) refused to believe the reality of what was taking place around them. Some, including the famous scientist Albert Einstein, left Germany. Others believed that they would be protected because they were German citizens. By the time the reality dawned, they had been stripped of their citizenship and, often, the avenues of escape had been closed to them.

In 1938 there was a wave of violence directed against Jewish synagogues, businesses and houses across Germany. It was known as *Kristallnacht* or the 'Night of Broken Glass'. While there is no doubt that this was organised by the Nazis, Hitler claimed that it was a spontaneous attack by German people, and that it showed the depth of anti-Jewish feeling. The Nazi regime was widely criticised in the international press as a result of *Kristallnacht*.



Source 3 A cloth Star of David badge that Jews were required to wear in public – the word 'Jude' means 'Jew' in German

Spread of antisemitism and the formation of ghettos

Soon after the invasion of Poland in 1939, **ghettos** were set up in Nazi-occupied territories, such as Poland, Hungary and the Soviet Union. Ghettos were small areas of larger cities that were used to isolate Jews from the rest of the population. They were bricked off or encircled with barbed wire to stop people from escaping. Over the course of the war, many Jewish people were rounded up and forced to leave their homes



Source 4 A Jewish youth selling Star of David armbands in Warsaw

and move into ghettos. One of the largest ghettos was in Warsaw, Nazi-occupied Poland (see Source 5). Conditions inside the ghetto were extremely brutal. It was very crowded and there was often no running water, or toilet facilities. Jews were often not allowed to leave the ghetto and had to depend on the few rations provided by the Nazis. One survivor described the Warsaw ghetto as 'a prison without a roof'. Approximately 800 000 Jews died in the ghettos from malnutrition, disease and forced labour. Others were murdered outright by shooting.

Although the principal victims of the Holocaust were European Jews, Nazi policies also targeted other segments of society, such as Sinta and Romani peoples (often referred to as Gypsies) as well as homosexuals and people with physical or intellectual disabilities. Between 200 000 and 500 000 Sinta and Romani peoples alone were killed by the Nazis. These criminal actions were later labelled **genocide** – the deliberate attempt to wipe out a religious, racial or ethnic group. Nazi occupation policies, particularly in Eastern and Central Europe, were also brutal. In Poland and the Soviet Union, for instance, they resulted in the deaths of millions of civilians.

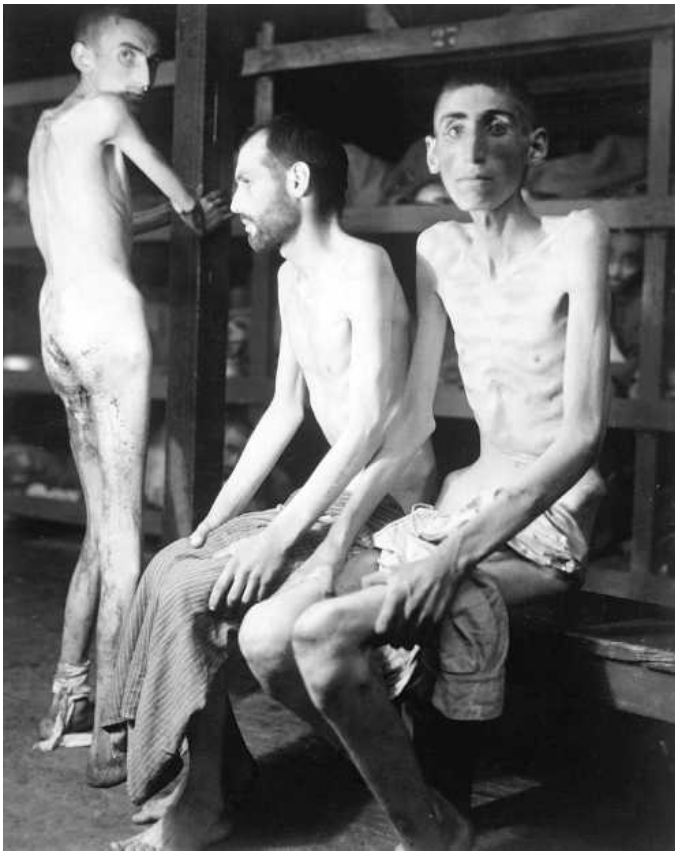


Source 5 The clearing of Jews from the Warsaw ghetto in Nazi-occupied Poland in 1943. Towards the end of the war, German troops cleared ghettos and transported those living in them to concentration camps either to work or to be killed.

Concentration camps

In addition to the formation of ghettos in large cities to confine Jews and other 'undesirables', the Nazi government used existing concentration camps in Germany and built many new camps throughout the occupied territories, mostly in Poland. The exact number of concentration camps is not known; however, it is generally accepted that there were between 2000 and 8000 camps.

The camps varied in character. Some were forced labour camps where inmates were compelled to do hard physical labour such as mining and road building under harsh conditions (see Source 6). Others were prisoner of war camps where Allied soldiers were held and often tortured in order to reveal secret information. Still others functioned as extermination camps designed for the sole purpose of murdering. Many camps, however, served a combination of these functions. The best known and largest of these camps was Auschwitz–Birkenau, where inmates considered unsuitable for forced labour were gassed and their bodies burnt in crematoria (giant ovens – see Source 7). More than one million Jews alone were murdered at Auschwitz.



Source 6 Russian, Polish and Dutch slave labourers interned at the Buchenwald concentration camp had an average weight of 75 kilograms each before entering camp. Eleven months later, when this photograph was taken, their average weight had dropped to 31 kilograms.



Source 7 Crematoria where the remains of people killed at Buchenwald concentration camp were cremated

Mass shootings

With the invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941, Nazi policy towards the Jews began to move into its most extreme phase. Between the start of the invasion and early 1943, roughly 1.6 million eastern European Jews were executed in mass killing campaigns that were conducted by members of the *Einsatzgruppen* (mobile killing squads). Local collaborators, the SS (Hitler's elite forces) and some members of the *Wehrmacht* (German armed forces) also participated in this extermination. The process generally involved rounding up the members of a local Jewish community and executing them in an area close to their homes. On 29–30 September 1941 at Babi Yar, near the city of Kiev, 33 771 Jews were executed. This phase of the Holocaust was the most public, and rumours of executions began to spread in the occupied areas and in Germany itself.

The 'Final Solution'

In January 1942, at a meeting in the city of Wannsee near Berlin, leading Nazi officials identified a process to achieve a 'final solution to the Jewish question'. The aim was to eliminate the estimated 11 million European Jews. This 'Final Solution' combined forced deportation and transportation of Jews to labour camps before extermination.

Historians generally agree that around 3 million Jews were killed in concentration and extermination camps, while another 3 million died in other violent or oppressive circumstances outside the camps. All 6 million deaths were a result of Nazi extermination policies. Many other non-Jewish inmates died of maltreatment, disease and starvation.



Source 8
Polish prisoners dig graves for their fellow prisoners after a mass execution by the Nazis, 1941

The Holocaust's legacy

More than 6 million of Europe's 11 million Jews were killed in a deliberate campaign of extermination during the Holocaust. Some survivors endured slave labour in the various camps. Many others hid or were protected by sympathetic non-Jews. There were also those who took up arms against the Nazis, such as the Jewish Combat Organisation whose members led uprisings in some of the major ghettos.

After the war, many European Jews migrated to other countries, including Australia, where they have established vibrant new communities. After enduring the horrors of the Holocaust, many Jews wished to join their fellow Jews who were already living in their ancient homeland. So, in November 1947, the United Nations endorsed the establishment of an independent Jewish state in what became known as Israel (see Topic 3.14). Israel declared its independence in May 1948.

The horrors of the mass murders and other atrocities committed by the Nazis shocked people all around the world. After World War II, the nations of the world were determined to prevent such grave crimes from ever happening again or, at least, ensuring that people committing such crimes would not go unpunished. The facts and lessons of these events are commemorated in Holocaust museums that have been established in many countries, while memoirs and films communicate the Jewish experience of the *Shoah* to the world. New international treaties on human rights, the humane treatment of civilians in times of war, sanctuary for refugees and the elimination of racial discrimination have come into effect since the events of the Holocaust. These treaties, such as the Declaration of Human Rights, recognise the inherent dignity and equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human race as the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world.



Source 9 These are the tracks along which trains took people to their death at the Auschwitz–Birkenau concentration camp in Oswiecim, Nazi-occupied Poland.

Check your learning 3.8

Remember and understand

1 What does the word 'Holocaust' mean? What term do Jewish communities use to refer to the Holocaust?
2 What was the eugenics movement? How popular was it?
3 What were some of the laws implemented during Nazi Germany to persecute Jews?
4 Apart from Jews who else was persecuted by the Nazis?
5 Explain the difference between concentration camps and extermination camps.
6 What was the 'Final Solution' and how was it carried out?
7 Why do some sources say that there were six million victims of the Holocaust, and some say 11 million?
8 What are some of the ways in which people have ensured that the events of the Holocaust will not be forgotten?

Apply and analyse

9 Hitler outlined his antisemitic attitudes in his book *Mein Kampf*, and introduced antisemitic policies after coming to power in 1933. Why do you think that so few Jews fled Germany before it was too late?

Evaluate and create

10 Some Holocaust survivors who spent time in the Auschwitz–Birkenau camp have said that the people who were sent to the gas chambers were the 'lucky ones'. Conduct some research into the conditions faced by Auschwitz prisoners. Why do you think survivors have made these types of statements?

3.9 The atomic bombings

In addition to the horrific events of the Holocaust, the dropping of the atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, which effectively ended the war, is remembered as one of most significant events of World War II.

The development of more sophisticated technology in World War II culminated in the invention of the atomic bomb. In spite of the horrific bombing raids experienced in Europe during the war, the use of nuclear weapons remains a symbol of the terrifying force and destructive effects of war. The use of the two bombs that successfully ended the war also marked the beginning of the Cold War and the ever-present threat of nuclear destruction.

The Potsdam Declaration

Following the end of the war in Europe, the Allies turned their attention to the war in the Pacific – with the goal of forcing Japan to surrender. At the Potsdam Conference in July 1945, the Allied leaders issued the Potsdam Declaration to Japan. This was an ultimatum, threatening that if Japan did not unconditionally surrender it would face 'prompt and utter destruction'.

The Manhattan Project

The Manhattan Project was the name given to the research program that developed the first atomic bomb. It had its origins in a letter from two of the world's leading physicists, Leo Szilard and Albert Einstein, that was sent to President Franklin D Roosevelt in 1939. The letter outlined their fears that Nazi Germany was beginning research into atomic bombs, and recommended that the USA should begin its own nuclear program. Roosevelt accepted their proposal, and began funding secret research into atomic energy. In 1942, the research program was placed under the command of the American military, and became the Manhattan Project.

Even before the USA entered World War II, it was dedicating huge resources to the Manhattan Project. By 1944, approximately 129000 people were working on the Manhattan Project, including scientists, construction workers and military personnel. Included was a physicist named Robert Oppenheimer (see Source 1) who became known as the 'father of the atomic bomb' for his role in the project.

After three years of using their research to develop a weapon, members of the Manhattan Project tested the first atomic bomb on 16 July 1945, in New Mexico. This test was codenamed 'Trinity'.



Source 1 Robert Oppenheimer and General Leslie Groves examine the wreckage of the tower and shack that held the first nuclear weapon, 11 September 1945

The Trinity test was extremely successful. At the time it was the largest man-made explosion in history. The shock wave made by the explosion was felt up to 160 kilometres away. The test observers immediately contacted President Harry Truman, who was at the Potsdam Conference, and told him that they had been successful. The following month, two other atomic bombs developed by the Manhattan Project were dropped on Hiroshima (on 6 August 1945) and Nagasaki (on 9 August 1945), Japan, in what history would record as the last major acts of World War II.

The Japan campaign

In mid-1945, Japan was losing the war in the Pacific. America had recaptured the Mariana Islands and the Philippines, and Japan was running out of resources.

The Japan campaign began with a series of minor air raids. These raids soon developed into a major strategic firebombing campaign in late 1944, which involved dropping large numbers of small bombs designed to start fires. The change to firebombing tactics resulted in devastating attacks on 67 Japanese cities, killing as many as 500000 people. Despite the damage and the huge civilian death toll, the Japanese military refused to surrender.

America therefore continued to push towards the Japanese Home Islands (the islands that the Allies had decided would be the extent of Japan's territory after the



Source 2 US marines watch a phosphorous shell attack on the Japanese in the Battle of Okinawa



Source 3 'Little Boy' – the atomic bomb that destroyed almost 70 per cent of Hiroshima in August 1945

war). Two major land battles, at Iwo Jima and Okinawa, revealed how fierce Japan's defence of the Home Islands would be. Both islands were heavily fortified and fiercely defended. Around 6800 American troops and approximately 21 000 Japanese soldiers were killed at Iwo Jima. The Battle of Okinawa (see Source 2) was the bloodiest in the Pacific, with 50 000 Americans wounded, and 12 000 killed. Approximately 95 000 Japanese soldiers were killed, including many who committed suicide rather than surrender. It is unknown how many civilians were killed in the American invasion of Okinawa, but estimates vary from 42 000 to 150 000.

Despite the immense loss of life on both sides at Iwo Jima and Okinawa, the American commanders in the Pacific continued preparations for Operation Downfall, the plan to invade Japan. The Soviet Union also prepared to enter the war in the Pacific, planning to declare war on Japan and invade the Japanese-occupied region of Manchuria on 9 August. However, these commanders were not aware of the Manhattan Project. Japan's rejection of the Potsdam Declaration in July 1945 caused President Truman to authorise the atomic bombings of Japanese cities, hoping that it would force Japan to surrender and save millions of lives that might be lost in Operation Downfall.

The bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki

On 6 August 1945, an atomic bomb nicknamed 'Little Boy' was dropped on the city of Hiroshima (see Source 3). Hiroshima was chosen because it was a large, urban, industrial city that also served as a military storage area and an assembly point for troops. No one knew how much damage the bomb would do, so Hiroshima was one of the few major cities not targeted by the American firebombing campaign. In that way the damage caused by the bomb could be more easily observed.

The bombing occurred at 8.15 on a Monday morning in Hiroshima. The city's residents had been given no warning of the atomic bombing. The bomb's immediate impact was incredible. Approximately 80 000 people, or 30 per cent of Hiroshima's population, were killed, and another 70 000 were injured. Roughly 69 per cent of the city's buildings were completely destroyed. The long-term effects of the bombing were even worse. People suffered from burns, radiation, cancer and many other side effects. The exact figures are disputed, but the total number of deaths caused by the bomb by the end of 1945 was between 90 000 and 160 000. By 1950, around 200 000 people had died because of side effects from the bomb.

After the bombing of Hiroshima, President Truman released a statement saying that a new weapon had been used, and that 'if they [the Japanese government] do not now accept our terms, they may expect a rain of ruin from the air'. On the same day, the Soviet Union declared war on Japan and invaded the Manchuria region. However, the Japanese government still did not respond to the Potsdam Declaration. On 9 August, a second atomic bomb was dropped on the port city of Nagasaki.

The bomb's impact on Nagasaki was just as devastating as it was on Hiroshima. Between 40 000 and 75 000 people were killed by the immediate effects of the bomb, and a further 74 000 were injured. By the end of 1945, at least 80 000 were dead because of the bomb's long-term effects.

keyconcept: Empathy

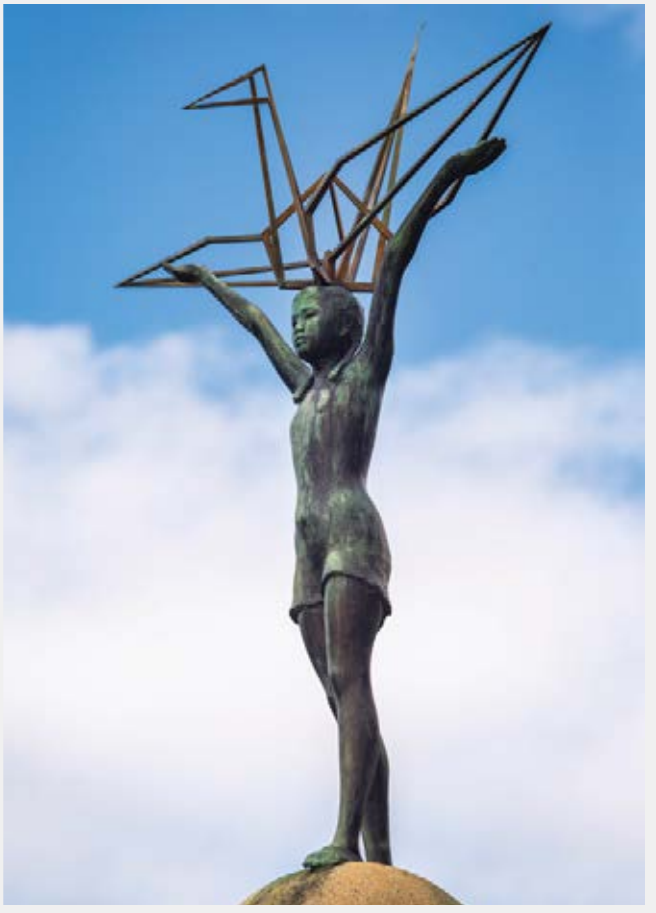
The story of Sadako Sasaki

Sadako Sasaki is one of the most famous victims of the atomic bombings in Japan during World War II. She was only two when the atomic bomb was dropped on her home city of Hiroshima. She survived the explosion, but began to develop symptoms nearly a decade after the bombing. In November 1954, Sasaki developed swelling on her neck, and purple spots on her legs. She was diagnosed with leukaemia, and hospitalised in February 1955.

While in hospital, she was visited by a friend who taught her to fold paper to make origami cranes. There is a Japanese tradition that folding 1000 paper cranes brings good luck and grants the person who folds them one wish. Sasaki attempted to fold 1000 cranes, but died in October 1955 before she could complete her task. Her friends and family finished the cranes, and built a memorial to Sasaki, and all the children who were affected by the bombings.

Sasaki's story is just one of tens of thousands of victims of the atomic bombings. Her story puts a human face on the suffering of the victims, and helps to ensure that the victims are not considered simply as statistics.

For more information on the key concept of empathy, refer to page 10 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 4 Statue of Sadako Sasaki holding a crane in the Peace Memorial Park in Hiroshima

Japan surrenders

Japan was shocked and devastated by the two atomic bombings and the declaration of war by the Soviet Union. Although the Japanese military commanders wanted to continue fighting the war, Emperor Hirohito ordered his government to surrender.

On 14 August the Japanese government notified the Allies that it would accept the terms of the Potsdam Declaration, provided the Emperor retained full sovereignty of Japan (the right to rule independently and free of foreign influence). That night, members of the Japanese military attempted to overthrow the government and remove Emperor Hirohito from power. They were unsuccessful. On 15 August 1945, Hirohito's surrender speech was broadcast on Japanese radio, marking the end of World War II. The formal declaration of surrender was signed on 2 September, and the Allies occupied Japan from that date until 1952.

Debate about the bombings

Immediately after World War II ended, most Americans supported the use of the atomic bombs to force Japan to surrender. Disturbing images of maimed survivors were censored in the USA, and many people were so used to anti-Japanese propaganda that they felt little empathy for the victims of the bombings. Since then, however, there have been fierce debates over whether the atomic bombings were justified or necessary to win the war.

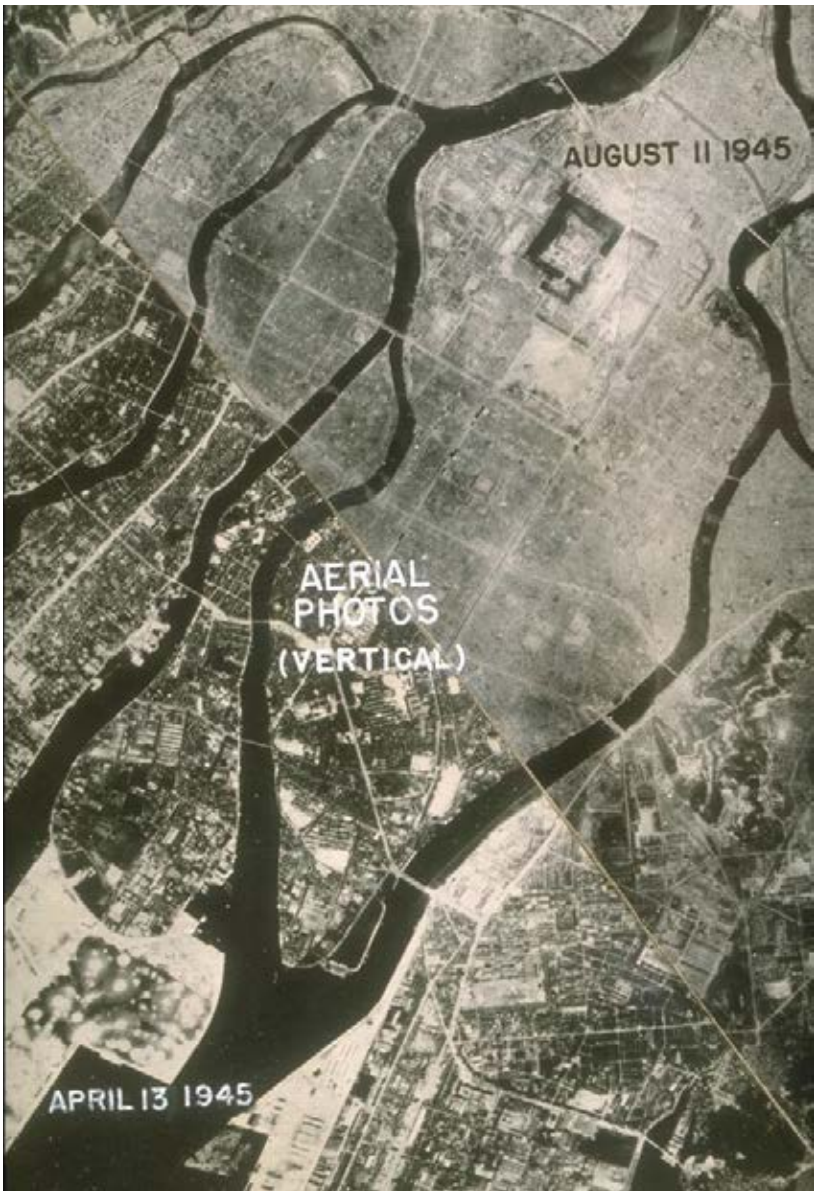
Some argue that the bombings saved millions of lives by preventing the need for an invasion of the Japanese Home Islands. The ferocity with which Japanese soldiers fought at Iwo Jima and Okinawa made this a popular view among American soldiers and their families. Other supporters of the decision to use the atomic bombs say that Japan's 'never surrender' warrior culture meant that, without the bombings, Japan would not have surrendered. Another argument is that the atomic bombings were the inevitable result of both sides

engaging in total war. At the time, many people believed that it would not be practical to spend $2 billion on the Manhattan Project, and then decide not to use the atomic bombs created to save American lives.

Some critics of the bombings argue that the surprise bombing of civilians with nuclear weapons was fundamentally and morally wrong. Others argue that the bombings constituted war crimes, or crimes against humanity. In a 2003 interview, Robert McNamara, who was the US Secretary of Defence from 1961 to 1968, recalled General Curtis LeMay, who was involved in planning the bombings, telling him 'if we'd lost the war, we'd all have been prosecuted as war criminals'.



Source 5 General Sir Thomas Blamey, the commander of the Australian army, accepts the surrender of the 2nd Japanese Army on the island of Morotai, in September 1945 (AWM 115645)



Source 6 Hiroshima before (13 April 1945) and after (11 August 1945) the atomic bombing

Check your learning 3.9

Remember and understand

1. What were some of the reasons for the choice of Hiroshima as the target for the first atomic bombing?
2. Who sent the letter to President Roosevelt that kick-started the Manhattan Project? What were the two main points of the letter?
3. What was Operation Downfall? Why was it never fully carried out?

Evaluate and create

4. Outline some of the arguments for and against the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in World War II. Do you believe the bombings were justified?
5. Collect a series of images and quotations to create a PowerPoint presentation showing the impact of the atomic bombings of Hiroshima or Nagasaki. You should consider both the short-term and long-term effects of the bombings.

3B rich task

Antisemitism in Nazi Germany

There is considerable evidence that shows the nature and complexity of the experiences of those who were subjected to antisemitism in Nazi Germany, before, during and at the end of World War II.

Evidence includes the many laws passed in Germany during the 1930s. Once the war started, the Nazis took photographs in the ghettos and in concentration and extermination camps. Then, when the camps were liberated by the Allies in May 1945, there were more photographs taken and views recorded by those who liberated the camps. The soldiers were shocked at what they found. Still later, as Holocaust survivors began to readjust to life after the trauma, many of them documented their experiences and feelings.



Source 1 Buchenwald prisoners liberated by the US army in April 1945

Source 2

I hated the brutality, the sadism, and the insanity of Nazism. I just couldn't stand by and see people destroyed. I did what I could, what I had to do, what my conscience told me I must do. That's all there is to it. Really, nothing more.

Oskar Schindler, German Industrialist who saved many Jews

Source 3

When people came to gas chamber, they had a soldier going around and said, 'Women here, men here. Undress. Take shower.' They told them, 'You're going to a camp. Going to work. Tie shoes together. And make sure your children tie their shoes together. Because when you come out, you don't so much spend time look for your shoes and your clothes.' All a lie. They were not thinking about it that they will be dead in another fifteen minutes.

Holocaust survivor Sigmund Boraks

Source 4

A Jew cannot be a citizen of the Reich. He cannot exercise the right to vote; he cannot hold public office … Marriages between Jews and nationals of German or kindred blood are forbidden … Jews are forbidden to display the Reich and national flag or the national colours.

Selected points from the Nuremberg Laws, a series of antisemitic laws put in place in Germany by the Nazis

Source 5

I feel the urge to present to you a true report of the recent riots, plundering and destruction of Jewish property [on *Kristallnacht*]. Despite what the official Nazi account says, the German people have nothing whatever to do with these riots and burnings. The police supplied SA men with axes, house-breaking tools and ladders … the mob worked under the leadership of [Hitler's] SA men.

Anonymous letter from a German civil servant to the British Consul, 1938

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources

Historians use a range of sources to make speculations, develop insights or draw conclusions about the thoughts and actions of people in the past, including letters, diaries, photographs, artworks, legislation, buildings and clothing as well as reminiscences about an event, even if they were not recorded until many years later. Being able to evaluate the reliability and usefulness of different sources is one of the most important, and perhaps most difficult, historical skills you need to master. The first thing to understand is that these terms (reliable and useful) are not interchangeable: a source can be both unreliable and useful at the same time, or reliable and not useful at the same time!

Step 1 Evaluating reliability

To determine the reliability of a source, you need to identify whether it is **biased**. Bias means having an unbalanced or one-sided opinion. Bias is found in secondary and primary sources. It is natural for people to show their opinion when they write something. To recognise bias in a source, think about:

- who wrote/created it
- when it was written/created
- why it was written/created
- whether the source distorts the facts
- whether the source gives or shows one side of the story, or whether it is balanced
- whether the views expressed in the source can be verified.

You can then come to a conclusion about whether the source is biased. Make sure you give specific reasons for your conclusion. You need to explain how and why a source is biased, and how this bias affects its reliability. The more biased the source, the less reliable it is, *but* remember that sources are never completely reliable nor unreliable.

Step 2 Evaluating usefulness

Some historical sources are more useful than others. But sources are not simply useful or not useful in their own right. They are useful or not useful depending on what you wish to find out from them.

Just because a source is biased does not automatically mean that it is not useful. It may be extremely useful if you are investigating the opinions of a particular group at a particular time. However, if you are investigating 'the facts' of an event, a biased source may be much less useful. For example, anti-Jewish propaganda during World War II may be very useful when considering Nazi attitudes towards Jews in the 20th century, but not much use as evidence that there were some Germans who did not support the Nazi's antisemitic policies. To make a conclusion about whether a source is 'useful', you need to be very clear about *what* you want to use the source for.

Use the following steps to evaluate a source's usefulness:

- Be clear about what historical question you are investigating.
- Identify whether the source is biased/reliable using the process above.
- Look at what the source is telling/showing you and compare it to what you need/would like to know. Remember to consider both explicit (clear) and implicit (hidden) messages.
- Ask yourself: what are the uses of this source to answer my historical question?
- Ask yourself: what are the problems of using this source to answer my historical question?
- Make a final judgement about the source's usefulness for your purposes.

Apply the skill

1 Analyse each of the sources provided in this section. Then, using the process outlined above:
   - **a** evaluate each source's reliability.
   - **b** evaluate how useful each source would be in explaining Nazi attitudes towards Jews.
   - **c** evaluate how useful each source would be as evidence that not all Germans supported the Nazi's antisemitic policies.

2 For each source, be sure to explain how you reached your conclusions.

Extend your understanding

1 Conduct research into some of the main concentration camps that were built by the Nazis in Germany and its occupied territories. For each camp, take notes on the following:
   - name of the camp
   - location
   - when it was built
   - its main purpose (that is, as a holding place; forced labour; extermination)
   - the years in which it operated
   - estimated number of Jews killed in the camp.

2 See if you can locate the story of a person who survived the camp, and summarise some of their main experiences. If possible, try and also find some images, drawings or photographs of some aspect of the camp.

3 Create a PowerPoint presentation that highlights your findings.

3.10 Australia's commitment to the war

When Britain declared war on Germany in September 1939, Australia gave its full support to the declaration. Only a few hours after Britain declared war on Germany, the Australian Prime Minister, Robert Menzies, made a radio broadcast to the nation.

Source 1

> Fellow Australians,
> It is my melancholy duty to inform you officially, that in consequence of a persistence by Germany in her invasion of Poland, Great Britain has declared war upon her and that, as a result, Australia is also at war. No harder task can fall to the lot of a democratic leader than to make such an announcement.
>
> From a speech made by Prime Minister Robert Gordon Menzies, 3 September 1939

Despite the declaration of war, Menzies was initially reluctant to commit Australian troops to fight in Europe. Australia's military was in a depleted state, and Menzies wanted to ensure that Australia could defend itself at home if required. The first Australian Imperial Force (AIF) had been disbanded after World War I. In 1939, the army consisted of around 3000 professional soldiers, and a voluntary **militia** (non-professional soldiers) called the Citizen Military Force (CMF). The CMF could only serve in defence of Australia. These units were mainly equipped with weapons brought home from World War I by the first AIF.

Despite his doubts, Menzies authorised the creation of a second AIF in September 1939. The Australian Government had promised 20000 soldiers for the British war effort, but initially struggled to fulfil this commitment. Soldiers in the AIF were paid less than those in the CMF, and AIF wages were even lower than the dole. As a result, many members of the CMF were reluctant to transfer to the AIF. The Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) was also much more attractive to many Australians, because it seemed more exciting and offered higher wages. It took three months to fill the 6th Division of the AIF, in contrast to the three weeks it took to raise 20000 men at the start of World War I.

The fall of France in 1940 changed Australia's perception of the war. Recruitment rates surged, three new divisions of the AIF were formed, and the government began to pour money into war-related industries. From 1940 to 1942, the AIF served mainly in Libya, Greece, Crete, Syria, Egypt and Malaya. The Australian air force and navy also served in a number of significant battles during this time.



Source 2 Second AIF recruitment poster (AWM ARTV06723)



Source 3 Robert Gordon Menzies (1894–1978), Prime Minister of Australia when World War II was declared

Conscription was still a matter of great debate in Australia at the start of World War II. When conscription was introduced in October 1939, it only required unmarried men aged 21 to report for three months' militia training and service in the CMF. They could also choose only to serve in Australia or its territories. This mild form of conscription did not cause too much outrage among Australians in 1939. Soon after, in 1942, however, all men aged 18–35 and single men aged 35–45 became eligible to be conscripted into the CMF. These conscripts, despite being given the derogatory nickname 'Chocos', performed admirably under incredibly difficult conditions in the Kokoda and Milne Bay campaigns. (Choco was short for 'chocolate soldier' because militia were thought to 'melt' in the heat of battle.)

From September 1939 until December 1941, Australia gave full support to the European war but Australians at home felt little impact from the war. This changed dramatically with the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the fall of Singapore.

After John Curtin was elected Prime Minister in 1941 and Japan entered the war, Australia's experience of the war changed as the whole population mobilised to support the war effort. Women were encouraged to enter the workforce; industry and the production of goods and equipment became regulated by the government; and coastal defences were extended and reinforced. With the fall of Singapore, Australia was directly under threat for the first time.

On 8 December 1941, the Prime Minister, John Curtin, addressed the nation.

Source 4

> Men and women of Australia, we are at war with Japan. That has happened because, in the first instance, Japanese naval and air forces launched an unprovoked attack on British and United States territory; because our vital interests are imperilled and because the rights of free people in the whole Pacific are assailed. As a result, the Australian Government this afternoon took the necessary steps which will mean that a state of war exists between Australia and Japan. Tomorrow, in common with the United Kingdom, the United States of America and the Netherlands East Indies governments, the Australian Government will formally and solemnly declare the state of war it has striven so sincerely and strenuously to avoid.
>
> John Curtin, Declaration of war on Japan; excerpt from ABC radio broadcast of the Prime Minister's address to the nation, 8 December 1941



Source 5 Soldiers of the Second AIF leaving Australia to serve in the war, January 1940 – their helmets show their enlistment numbers and the cases on their chests hold their gas masks (AWM 011141)

The war actually reached Australia's shores in February 1942, when Japanese fighter and bomber planes launched a series of bomb attacks across northern Australia. The most serious was the bombing of Darwin on 19 February (see Source 6 on page 65). The Prime Minister declared that Australia was now in a state of 'total war'.

Check your learning 3.10

Remember and understand

1 Why was Prime Minister Menzies initially reluctant to commit Australian troops to fight in Europe?
2 What were some of the reasons the AIF initially struggled to fulfil its commitment of supplying 20 000 soldiers to support British troops in Europe? What event boosted recruitment?
3 Why were conscripted members of the CMF nicknamed 'Chocos'?

Apply and analyse

4 What do Menzies' words (see Source 1) tell us about the relationship between Britain and Australia in 1939?
5 How and why did Australia increase its commitment to the war after 1941? Refer to Source 4 in your answer.

3.11 Australian experiences of the war abroad



Source 1 Australian Army Rising Sun Badges like this one from 1942 were issued to soldiers of the AIF during World War II. They helped identify Australians fighting abroad.

In the early years of World War II, Australia's contribution to the war effort closely mirrored that of World War I. Roughly 550 000 Australian men served overseas in the armed forces out of a total population of seven million. Australian servicemen fought in campaigns in Europe, the Middle East and the Pacific.

In 1941, Australian ground forces were stationed in North Africa, Greece, Crete and Syria as part of the wider imperial commitments. Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) pilots and crew also played a major role in the Allied bombing campaigns over Germany, where 6500 died.

The bombing of Pearl Harbor and the fall of Singapore increased the level of Australia's involvement. From 1942, the majority of Australian forces were deployed in the South-West Pacific area – in New Guinea, the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia) and the Pacific Islands.

In 1943, conscription into the armed forces in Australia's overseas territories including New Guinea and the Solomon Islands was introduced with little opposition. Because of the real threat of Japanese invasion, the issue of conscription was much less divisive than it had been during World War I.

In Australia, as with the other nations involved in World War II, 'total war' meant that both servicemen and civilians became part of the war effort. From early 1942, when the war came close to Australia's shores, all aspects of the Australian economy were focused on the war effort. 'Luxury' industries such as furniture making were disbanded, and men involved in 'critical' war-related industries were not allowed to enlist. The USA made Australia its main base for the South-West Pacific meaning that up to one million American servicemen were based in Australia. The economy was geared to meet the needs of these soldiers as well as supporting the Australian forces and maintaining the war effort.

Prisoners of war

Australian service personnel were captured by the enemy in all the major areas of war. Roughly 8184 Australians were held as prisoners of war (POWs) in German and Italian camps. Of these, 269 died. These men were mostly captured in Greece and North Africa, while many members of the RAAF had been shot down in bombing raids over Germany and captured there. Most Australian POWs in Europe were imprisoned in purpose-built POW camps under decent conditions. Nine Australians were, however, among a group of 168 Allied pilots shot down over France and imprisoned in the Buchenwald concentration camp.

By far the highest number of Australian POWs were captured by the Japanese in the Pacific (see Source 2). Between January and March 1942, more than 22 000 Australian service personnel were captured by Japanese forces in the region, with 15 000 captured in Malaya and Singapore alone. By 1945, more than 8000 had died. The significantly higher rate of deaths among POWs captured by the Japanese can be attributed to Japan's attitude towards prisoners. Japanese military culture, shaped by



Source 2 Australian POWs in a Japanese prison camp at the end of the war (AWM 019199)

traditional values, meant that the Japanese treated enemy prisoners poorly. Japan refused to follow the terms of the **Geneva Convention**, an international agreement on the treatment of captured civilians and military personnel.

At camps in Ambon in Indonesia and Rabaul in Papua New Guinea, conditions were so appalling that more than half those captured died, and hundreds of Australian prisoners were massacred. POWs were also killed in tragic accidents. In 1942, 1053 Australian POWs were killed while being transported from New Guinea to Japanese-occupied China. The Japanese ship they were on was torpedoed and sunk by an American submarine unaware that the ship was carrying ally POWs.

The Japanese also made use of POWs as forced labour, most notably on the Burma Railway. Along with British, Dutch and American prisoners, 13000 Australian POWs were used as forced labour to build the Thailand–Burma railway line, which was to supply the Japanese campaign. About 2800 Australians died from malnutrition, mistreatment and disease.

key**concept:** Significance

Edward (Weary) Dunlop

Among Australia's prisoners of war there were many remarkable stories of heroism and resilience. One of the most notable was the story of Edward (Weary) Dunlop, a Melbourne doctor who was captured by the Japanese in Java in 1942. Dunlop was sent to work on the Burma Railway where he often put his own life on the line to care for sick and wounded soldiers. He also stood up to the Japanese on behalf of those unfit for work. For this reason he is remembered as a significant Australian.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to page 11 in 'The history toolkit'.

Source 3

> … thousands of us starved, scourged, racked with malaria, dysentery, beri beri, pellagra and the stinking tropical ulcers that ate a leg to the bone in a matter of days, and always Weary Dunlop and his fellow MOs [medical officers] stood up for us, were beaten, scorned, derided, and beaten again.
>
> An ex-prisoner-of-war (from Weary Dunlop page at vicnet)



Source 4 Sir Edward (Weary) Dunlop, right, in Singapore, 1942

Check your learning 3.11

Remember and understand

1. List some of the places where Australian soldiers served during World War II.
2. Describe the ways in which the Japanese treated their prisoners of war. Give examples.
3. What is the Geneva Convention?

Apply and analyse

4. Why do you think there was minimal opposition to the introduction of conscription in World War II when the same issue caused such controversy and division during World War I?

Evaluate and create

5. Conduct some further research into Edward (Weary) Dunlop and write a short biography that provides details about his early life, his experiences and actions during World War II, and his life after World War II including the work he undertook to help former prisoners of war.

3.12 Life on the home front

When Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies committed Australia to the war in 1939, the direct threat to the Australian mainland was fairly low. The war was mostly seen as a European conflict. However, when the threat of a Japanese invasion of Australia became a reality in 1941, the Australian war effort had a serious impact on the lives of ordinary Australians at home.

National Security Act

One of the first steps towards 'total war' taken by the Australian Government was the National Security Act. This Act, passed on 8 September 1939, introduced laws that gave the federal government greater powers to respond to the threat of war. It allowed newspapers and the media to be censored, and legalised the detention of so-called 'enemy aliens' – for example, Germans and Italians living in Australia. It also meant that groups who opposed the war, such as the Communist Party of Australia and Jehovah's Witnesses, were banned.

Censorship and propaganda

During the war years, the Australian government believed that strict **censorship** was necessary to maintain national security and boost public morale. The Department of Information was responsible for its administration. All forms of media, such as newspapers and radio broadcasts, were subject to controls that limited what they could report. For example, when Japanese forces bombed Darwin in 1942, the extent of damage, the scale of the attack and the loss of life were downplayed in newspapers and on radio.

Similarly, when Australian and US soldiers brawled in the so-called 'Battle of Brisbane' on 26 November 1942, the death of one Australian and the injury to others was censored because the event was seen as threatening US–Australian relations.

In addition to this, the Department of Information censored mail (see Source 2) and monitored phone calls to ensure that military information relating to troop movements and locations was not communicated to the enemy.

In addition to censoring information during the war, the Australian government also relied heavily on **propaganda**. Propaganda is information designed to influence the ideas and attitudes of a group of people by presenting only one side of an argument. Throughout World War II propaganda was used to encourage Australians to support the war in different ways: enlist to fight; work in certain industries; support certain causes. Most importantly propaganda was used to unite Australians against a common enemy. Propaganda did this by encouraging an emotional response from people. Anger, fear and a sense of national pride were all strong motivations.



Source 1 A campaign poster urging civilians in Australia not to gossip (AWM ARTV02497)



Source 2 Mail being censored (AWM 139316)



Source 3 Italian POWs at Liverpool Prisoner of War and Internment Camp, New South Wales, during World War II (AWM 123706)

Censorship and propaganda were used together during the war to ensure that Australians were sympathetic to significant changes being made to laws and government policies.

Internment

During World War II, the Australian government took steps against people living in Australia who they believed threatened national security. Initially, this included the **internment** (detaining people in special camps) of Germans and Italians living in Australia who were believed to be pro-Nazi or pro-fascist (see Source 3). When war with Japan began, all Japanese who lived in Australia were also interned. Approximately 7000 'enemy aliens', many of whom had lived peacefully and innocently in Australia for decades, were interned in camps around the country.

Everyday life

Although the people of northern Australia suffered numerous air attacks from the Japanese, the lives of most Australians further south were not dramatically affected by the actual fighting of World War II. However, their lives were influenced in other ways, including the types of work they were allowed to perform. The government gave priority to industries such as manufacturing (for war materials such as aircraft and munitions) and agriculture (which was vital for food supplies).

In 1942, the federal government established the Directorate of Manpower to control the workforce. This allowed the government to force people to work in particular jobs or industries. In a way, this was similar to conscription – only for industry service rather than military service.

Other government policies influenced many aspects of Australian life during the war years. The fear of air raids, for example, led to the introduction of blackouts, which plunged major cities into darkness. Streetlights were switched off, car headlights reduced to narrow beams, and houses were required to have blackout curtains to prevent light showing in the street (see Source 4). Failure to comply could result in fines.

The wartime government also imposed many other restrictions. It reduced hotel and bar trading hours and set maximum prices for restaurants. In 1942, the government brought in national identity cards that included personal details and listed the industry an individual worked in. Daylight saving was introduced to save power, and annual leave entitlements were cut back.

Rationing

As the war dragged on, the supply of many basic goods and products was limited. Restrictions on trading ships coming to Australia and the need to dedicate supplies of food and products to the war effort overseas meant that there were shortages of food and clothing for many ordinary Australians. In order to ensure that available supplies were distributed evenly, the Australian government introduced a **rationing** system in May 1942. Products such as butter, milk, eggs, meat, tea, shoes and clothes were all rationed. Alcoholic drinks were also rationed and people were encouraged to restrict travel unless it was absolutely necessary.

The government issued civilians with ration books containing coupons, which had to be presented when paying for certain goods (see Source 5). Pregnant women and families with young children were given extra rations.

During the war, some items simply could not be produced, such as pyjamas, lawnmowers and children's toys. Recycling was encouraged and depots were set up for scrap metal, cloth and rubber. People were also urged to grow their own food to supplement rationing. Vegetable patches appeared in front gardens and many families kept chickens in the backyard. Australians responded imaginatively to wartime rationing. Newspapers and magazines such as the *Women's Weekly* offered advice to housewives about how to cope with the shortages. This included handy hints for cooking, or advice about how to paint seams on the backs of their legs to look as if they were wearing stockings. Women were encouraged to avoid buying new items, by repairing and patching clothes for as long as possible.

Men on the home front

Almost three-quarters of a million Australians (mostly men) enlisted in the Second AIF during World War II. However, a great many more men and women were engaged in the war economy. Many men were not allowed to enlist in the armed forces because they worked in **reserved occupations**, such as farming and manufacturing (see Source 6). Men were needed at home to construct vital wartime infrastructure and military buildings, such as ports, aerodromes, bridges and barracks, and also to make war equipment and munitions. The Allied Works Council was set up in 1942 to oversee such projects. As part of this program, the Civil Construction Corps was established. The corps, while a civilian organisation, was run with military-style discipline. By mid-1943, more than 50000 men served in the corps, which was mostly made up of labourers, carpenters and truck drivers.

Men who were unable to enlist because of age, health or their positions in reserved professions also joined the Volunteer Defence Force. Members of this force, including many veterans of World War I, were trained to protect against enemy attack on the home front. The Volunteer Air Observers Corps monitored the sky for potential air raids. Air-raid wardens made sure that everyone followed blackout procedures and participated in evacuation drills.



Source 4 Preparing for the night-time blackout



Source 5 Ration coupons entitled civilians to certain goods.



Source 6 These men are shown producing munitions during World War II. Jobs such as these were known as reserved occupations because they were essential to the war effort.

Women's role in the war

Australian women had a very broad range of duties and responsibilities during World War II. The needs of the armed forces, the war economy and the deployment of many men overseas created new types of work possibilities. Before World War II, Australian women were not permitted to serve in the military. Most working women were employed in factories, shops or in family businesses. It was expected that women would resign from their employment once they had children. Although the number of women entering the workforce between 1939 and 1945 only increased by about 5 per cent, the types of jobs they were involved in changed dramatically.

At the start of World War II, women on the home front were encouraged to take the sorts of roles that they had held during World War I. They were expected to knit and sew, pack parcels, raise money, encourage enlistment and maintain the home.

This changed as the war came closer to Australia. From late 1940, women were not only permitted but were encouraged to join the services (see Source 7). Around 35 000 women served in the army, making up around 5 per cent of the entire force. The Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF) established in October 1940 was quickly followed by the women's army and navy forces. Women were not sent overseas to fight, but were trained in many of the home-front tasks so that more servicemen could be freed up to join the overseas forces.



Source 7 Recruitment poster to attract women into the services (AWM ARTV00332)

By the end of the war, the WAAAF was made up of 18 500 women; the Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) had 24 000 women (see Source 8); and the Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS) boasted 2000. Most commonly, women's roles in the armed forces were clerical. However, some were involved in traditional men's roles, as signallers, truck and ambulance drivers, intelligence officers, wireless telegraphers or aircraft ground staff (see Source 9). Despite their new skills women were still not permitted to take on combat roles or serve outside Australia. The exception to this was the nurses who served in most areas where Australian troops were sent.

Even if women did not enlist in the Auxiliary Forces, it was argued that increasing women's employment would enable more men to enter military service. However, the understanding was that their employment was only for the duration of the war. Women entered new areas of work, acting as tram conductors, and taxi and truck drivers. As the war progressed, Australian women worked increasingly in war industries, such as manufacturing munitions and military equipment. Under Manpower regulations, women could be deployed in occupations that suited their skills. A woman trained as a florist could be compelled to work in a factory because of her skills with wire; a dancer could be sent to work on a farm because she was agile and physically fit. By mid-1943, nearly 200 000 women were employed in roles that would assist the war effort. They were paid roughly two-thirds of men's pay rates.

As the war continued, and conscription called up more and more men, many farms were suffering from a shortage of workers. The Women's Land Army was set up to distribute female labour to farms and orchards to keep food production going (see Source 10). Around 3000 women were members of the Land Army.



Source 8 Australian Women's Army Service mechanics



Source 9 Female plane-maintenance workers

Volunteer groups such as the Australian Women's National League continued to take on the more traditional tasks for the war effort, such as knitting socks for the troops, preparing Red Cross food parcels, and raising money for soldiers' families. Other volunteers completed training in emergency services such as first aid and ambulance driving in case of air raids.

At the end of the war there was a general expectation that women would return to domestic duties in the home and that the returned soldiers would be welcomed back into the workforce. This is mostly what happened, but there were some women, especially single women, who remained in their jobs.

It is often argued that women were forced out of the workforce and back to a dull domestic existence at the end of the war. There is some truth in this, but there is also evidence that many women wanted to return to traditional roles. Many who had had boring and unfulfilling jobs during the war were glad to be rid of them. Others who had put off marriage and childbearing during the war were delighted to return to domesticity and begin raising their families.



Source 10 Members of the Australian Women's Land Army gather flax straw as part of their farm work (AWM P00784.128)

Check your learning 3.12

Remember and understand

1. What were some of the ways the National Security Act allowed the Australian government to respond to the threat of war?
2. What was the 'Battle of Brisbane' and why were details about it censored?
3. What were some of the items that were rationed in Australia?
4. What kinds of jobs did women do in the services and the general economy during World War II?
5. What were some of the other restrictions placed on the lives of Australian citizens by the Australian government during World War II?

Evaluate and create

6. Write a role play based around some of the issues women faced at the end of World War II. Adopt the roles of the following two characters:
   - A woman who has been working as a meteorologist during the war. She is single and has been earning a good wage during the war. She has also enjoyed the work and the independence. She does not see why she should now be forced to leave the workforce.
   - A man who has recently returned from the war and is keen to begin work as an accountant with his previous employer. Unfortunately, there are no vacancies at the accounting firm, because all available roles are filled by well-qualified women.

   Each person must speak at least five times during the role play and support their arguments for and against the sacking of women and the re-employment of men in the workforce after the war.

3.13 Indigenous Australians at war

It is impossible to know how many Indigenous Australians served during World War II. At the start of the war, the AIF officially only accepted Aborigines who were of 'substantially European descent'. However, the RAAF accepted Aborigines from the outset, and many Indigenous Australians joined the AIF by claiming to be another nationality. Due to the early shortage of recruits, many recruiters also accepted Aboriginal volunteers, despite official restrictions. Reg Saunders became the first Aboriginal commissioned officer in the Australian army in 1944. After the bombing of Darwin, the restrictions on Aborigines joining the AIF were relaxed. A small number of Torres Strait Islanders were also recruited into the United States army. It is estimated that around 3000 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers served in the armed forces during World War II, but the number who enlisted under another nationality was probably much higher.

In addition to the regular army, a number of Indigenous Australians served in Special Forces. The Torres Strait Light Infantry was formed in 1941 to defend the strategically important Torres Strait area. In 1941, anthropologist and soldier Donald Thomson was authorised to organise and lead the Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit. This unit contained 51 Aborigines and five white Australians. They lived off the land while they patrolled the coastline of northern Australia. In the event of a Japanese invasion, they were to conduct a guerrilla campaign from behind enemy lines using traditional Aboriginal weapons.



Source 1 Indigenous soldiers on parade in 1940 (AWM P02140.004)

The Aboriginal soldiers in these units were not formally enlisted in the army, and received goods such as tobacco rather than monetary pay until 1992, when back-pay and medals were awarded.

Other Indigenous Australians were also employed by the army in a variety of roles. Aborigines worked on farms and in butcheries; built roads and airfields; were construction workers, truck drivers and general labourers. They also filled more specialised roles, such as salvaging downed aircraft and organising munitions stockpiles. Many Aboriginal women were also involved in these roles, as well as joining organisations such as the Australian Women's Army Service. Despite their important work, pay rates remained low for Indigenous workers. The RAAF briefly increased wages for Aboriginal workers, but was pressured to lower them again by the civilian government.

Indigenous Australians made a huge contribution to the war effort. By 1944, almost every able-bodied male Torres Strait Islander had enlisted. This meant that, as a proportion of its population, no other community in the world voluntarily contributed as many men to the war effort.

There seems to have been remarkably little racism or tension between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians in the army. When they returned to civilian life, however, many Aboriginal veterans faced the same discrimination they had left behind before the war. Many were banned from Returned and Services League (RSL) Clubs except on Anzac Day. Most Indigenous Australians were not given the opportunity to use the skills they had learnt during the war when they returned home. Len Waters, who joined the RAAF in 1942 and flew 95 missions, dreamed of becoming a civilian pilot after the war. Waters was forced to return to his pre-war occupation as a shearer.

One ex-soldier, Tommy Lyons who had served at Tobruk said on his return: 'In the army you had your mates and you were treated as equal, but back here you were treated like dogs.'



Source 2 Informal group portrait of members of the 2/18th Australian Field Workshop, which included Indigenous and non-Indigenous soldiers: Alick Jackomos (centre front row), a Greek Australian, worked for Aboriginal rights and was one of the founders of the Aboriginal Advancement League after the war (AWM P00898.001)

Check your learning 3.13

Remember and understand

1 Did Indigenous Australians who had served in World War II receive the same benefits as non-Indigenous veterans?

Apply and analyse

2 Who was Len Waters? What does his experience suggest about the treatment of Indigenous Australians after World War II?

3 Use the Internet to conduct some research on the Coloured Digger Project and the proposed memorial to Aboriginal soldiers. Record some of the opinions on the proposed memorial.

Evaluate and create

4 In pairs, discuss how significant you think Reg Saunders' promotion to become the first Aboriginal commissioned officer was. Why do you think it took until 1944 for an Aboriginal soldier to get promoted to officer rank? Compare your responses with other pairs.

3.14 Australia's international relationships

Although Australia did not experience the levels of war damage of many of its allies and was never occupied by enemy forces, the conflict had a number of important consequences. It fundamentally altered Australia's relationship with Britain and the USA. The legacies of World War II also laid the foundations for great economic and social change in the second half of the 20th century.

Australia and the USA

In 1939, Australia's Prime Minister Robert Menzies had committed Australia to a war in support of the British Empire. By 1945, though, the world had changed markedly. Britain had entered the conflict as one of the world's greatest powers. The countries of the empire cooperated to confront Nazi aggression in Europe. However, as the conflict expanded into a global one, the strains of war took their toll. In confronting Nazi Germany, Britain became dependent on the financial, military and economic support of the USA.

As the war continued, Britain's resources were reduced, and the nation found it increasingly difficult to defend itself and fight Germany and Italy in Europe and North Africa. Britain could only send limited resources to Asia, when the war expanded into the Asia–Pacific region. When Japan struck, Britain experienced its greatest wartime defeat with the fall of Singapore in 1942.

To address this changing situation, Prime Minister John Curtin moved Australian troops from the Middle East to Australia, against the advice of the British government. This was a practical, short-term solution to a major strategic problem. The long-term consequence was the realisation that Australia could no longer rely on Britain to defend it. Australia now focused on a strategic relationship with the USA. As a result of this new arrangement, Curtin placed Australian forces under the control of the broader US military campaign in the Pacific.

American General Douglas MacArthur would also establish his base for the south-west Pacific campaign in Australia (see Source 1). Until this point, Australia's foreign policy had largely been determined by the needs of the British Empire. This relationship with the USA was an important step in establishing an independent Australia and continues to have an important bearing on Australian foreign policy decisions.



Source 1 Australian Prime Minister John Curtin welcomes General Douglas MacArthur to Australia, 1942

Domestic changes

The social and economic implications of the war were also far-reaching for Australia. Wartime industries had encouraged the growth of manufacturing and services. For the first time in the nation's history, farming ceased to be the major area of economic activity. Food processing and canning, an increase in steel production, and the manufacture of consumer goods such as washing machines and refrigerators all expanded during and after World War II. The first Holden car rolled off the assembly line at Fisherman's Bend, Victoria, on 29 November 1948, and cost the equivalent of two years' wages for the average worker – £675 ($1350).

The presence of almost one million American service personnel in Australia during the war also had a significant cultural impact. For some Australian women these men would become boyfriends or husbands. The influence of American cinema, language and culture made its first major inroads in Australia during this

period. Australians had mixed feelings about this cultural 'invasion'. On one level, many feared the loss of Australian culture and traditions. On the other hand, for many younger Australians there was a fascination with American music, dress and slang.

The experiences of the war years also reshaped the role of Australian governments in people's lives and cemented the place of the federal parliament as the most significant of the three tiers of government in the nation. In order to fight the war, the federal government had significantly expanded the scope of its activities. Income taxation and its spending were now centrally controlled, and the banking system was regulated by government. The Australian public placed greater reliance and expectations on the government to successfully manage the economy and social issues.

The experience of war and the death of roughly 39 000 Australian service personnel and civilians also shaped Australia's future. The commemoration of the 1939–45 fallen was incorporated into commemorations of World War I. Local communities recognised the sacrifice of the more recent deaths by extending and expanding the monuments originally constructed to remember the dead of the 1914–18 conflict, ironically described as 'the war to end all wars'.



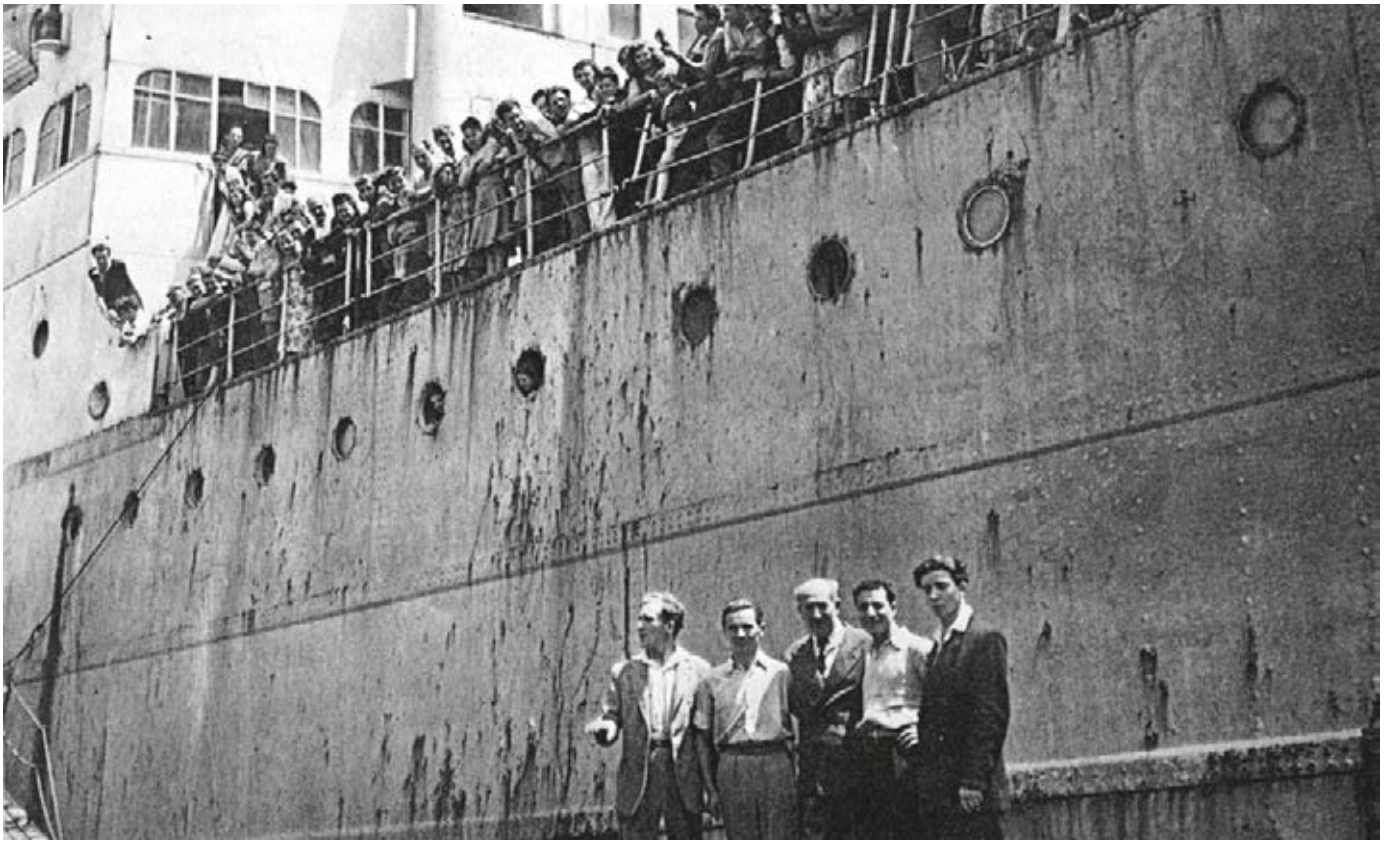
Source 3 The first production-model Holden rolled off the assembly line in 1948.



Source 2 Memorial to those who lost their lives in the bombing of Darwin, February 1942



Source 4 US sailors and soldiers on their arrival in Australia quickly made friends wherever they went, and were received with hospitality.



Source 5 Immigrants arrived from all corners of Europe as part of the 'Populate or perish' campaign.

Post-war migration

After World War II, many Australians felt that they had only narrowly avoided a Japanese invasion. The government, under the new Prime Minister Ben Chifley, decided that Australia needed to increase its population to protect itself from the threat of foreign invasion. The slogan 'Populate or perish' was coined by the Immigration Minister, Arthur Calwell, to promote this new immigration policy. The 'Populate or perish' campaign initially focused on encouraging British migrants, but this failed to increase the population enough. For the first time, Australia began to actively seek migrants from continental Europe (see Source 5).

The war had caused somewhere between 11 and 20 million refugees in Europe. Many of these refugees, including Holocaust survivors and people who had fled the Soviet occupation of Eastern European nations, were housed in Displaced Persons (DP) Camps. These camps were initially organised by the armies of various nations, but were gradually taken over by the United Nations. They provided shelter, nutrition and basic health care for the refugees. A more permanent solution had to be found, however. Around six million refugees were returned to their own countries by the end of 1945, but a huge number of refugees still faced persecution in their homelands and remained in the DP Camps. In 1947, around 850000 refugees were still living in DP Camps in Europe. The International Refugee Organization (IRO) was founded by the United Nations in 1946 to find homes for these people.

In 1947, desperate to increase its population, Australia reached an agreement with the IRO to resettle 12000 refugees a year. These 'new Australians', as they came to be called, were accepted on the condition that they agreed to work in government-selected jobs. Australia eventually exceeded its commitment to the IRO, and resettled approximately 180000 refugees.

As well as refugees, the government sought to encourage people from southern and central Europe to migrate to Australia. In the 20 years after the end of World War II, almost two million people migrated to Australia. The influx of migrants from non-English speaking nations, as well as the belief that Australia's security was linked to its population size, changed Australia's migration policy. The dictation test, which had been used to effectively exclude migrants on the basis of race, was abolished in 1958. This led to Australia accepting refugees throughout the rest of the 20th century, including those from the Middle East and Vietnam; and, eventually, to accepting Asian migration.

World War II was the catalyst to change Australia's migration policies and Australia's relationships with the rest of the world.

Foundation of the United Nations

The **League of Nations**, which had been set up after World War I to provide an international forum to promote peace, had clearly failed. The first step towards establishing its replacement was the Declaration of the United Nations. Even while World War II was still in progress, plans were underway to create a new international body.

The **United Nations** officially came into existence in 1945, with 51 nations as founding members. The first major meeting to prepare the Charter of the United Nations was held in San Francisco in April 1945 (see Source 6). Australia's delegate, the then Minister for External Affairs, Herbert 'Doc' Evatt, played a key role in drafting the charter of the United Nations. The Charter outlined the role of the United Nations as an international organisation to prevent war. It also included provisions for the United Nations to aid refugees, support economic reconstruction after the war, and protect human rights.

Evatt argued that larger powers, such as the USA and the Soviet Union, should not dominate the system, and that smaller nations, such as Australia, had an important role to play. Evatt was involved in negotiating the establishment of the State of Israel, one of the first initiatives of the United Nations. He also played a key role in the drafting of the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights in 1948.

Evatt went on to become one of the first presidents of the United Nations General Assembly, the UN's main organisational structure. Other elements of the United Nations (such as the Security Council, the World Health Organization (WHO), the World Bank, the International Atomic Energy Commission (IAEC), the International Court of Justice, and the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)) all have their origins in the foundation of the United Nations and continue to play a significant part in world affairs.



Source 6 Australia's delegation to the United Nations Conference, San Francisco, 25 April 1945 – Herbert 'Doc' Evatt is seated second from the right

Check your learning 3.14

Remember and understand

1 Why did Prime Minister Curtin turn to the USA for support?
2 What moves did Curtin make once war loomed on Australia's doorstep?
3 Who coined the slogan 'Populate or perish'?
4 Why were many people forced to remain in DP Camps across Europe long after World War II had finished?
5 Why did Australia want a larger population after World War II?

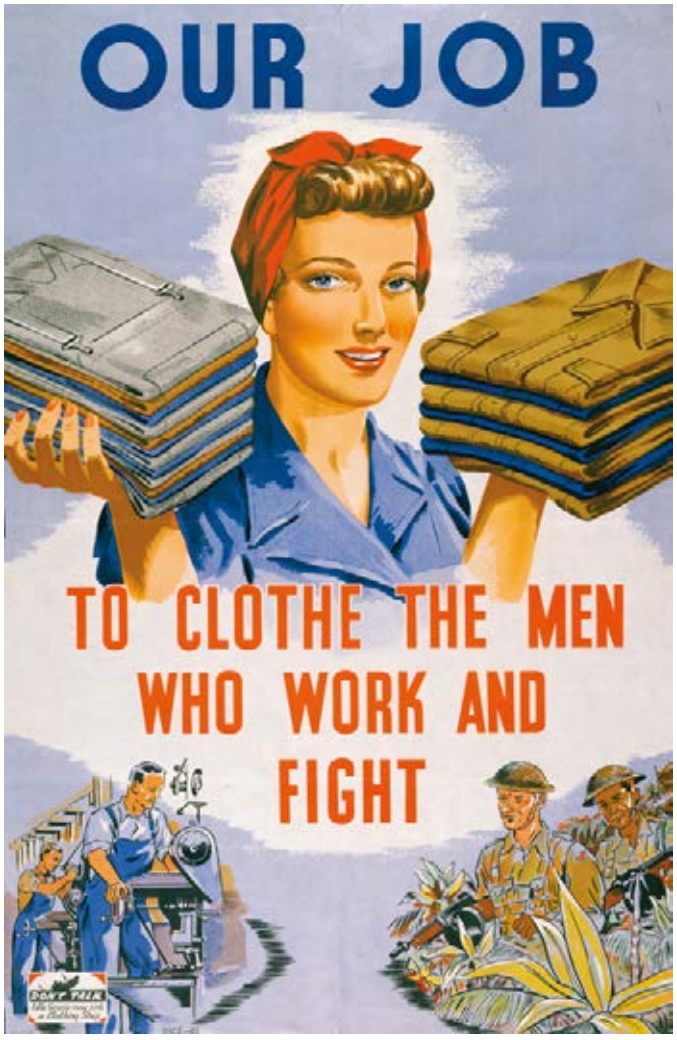
Apply and analyse

6 How do you think Australia would be different today if Robert Menzies had remained prime minister throughout World War II?
7 Can the wartime relationship between Australia and the USA be described as a 'love–hate' relationship? Give reasons for your response.

3C rich task

Australian wartime propaganda posters

Throughout the course of World War II, a range of propaganda was used in Australia in order to encourage Australians to think and act in particular ways. Propaganda came in many different forms, including newspapers, radio, posters and other forms of mass communication (such as the short newsreels shown before feature films in cinemas).



Source 1 Recruitment poster 1942

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Analysing propaganda posters

Propaganda is anything that has been deliberately created to influence an audience's beliefs or actions. Even though the word propaganda has a negative connotation today, it is only information – a tool – and is neither good nor bad. It can provide historians with lots of information about the period being investigated. However, it needs to be very carefully analysed and evaluated. Use the following steps to guide your analysis of a propaganda poster.

Step 1 Establish the intended audience – who the producer of the poster intended to influence.

Step 2 Check the context of the poster. Consider:

- other events that may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the producer of the poster
- the political environment at the time the poster was created
- the common prejudices and social norms that existed at the time, which may have influenced the producer of the poster.

Step 3 Check the message that is being conveyed. Consider:

- the main images on the poster and what they seem to suggest or represent
- any text written on the poster – what it says or whether the message is direct or suggestive
- the persuasive techniques used – these can include: emotional appeals; generalisations; stereotypes; name calling (direct or indirect); repetition; social disapproval (that is, a suggestion that if the viewer acts in a different way to what is being promoted in the poster they will be rejected or made fun of by their friends or loved ones).

Step 4 Establish the intended effect on the audience – what the producer of the poster hopes the audience will think/do/feel.

Apply the skill

An example of the way in which propaganda can be analysed is provided in Source 2.

1 Look carefully at Source 1 and analyse it using the steps above as a guide.

2 Write a short paragraph comparing and contrasting Sources 1 and 2 in terms of audience, message, intended effect and purpose.

Countries to the north of Australia are shown flying Japanese flag – they are darkly coloured to illustrate the threat of invasion moving closer and closer to Australia's shores..

The call to action is in capital letters on a bright red background to draw people's attention – 'Bar the Gates' creates an image of Australia as a place that needs to be locked up in order to keep it safe.

The goal of peace is highlighted at the bottom of the poster (close to the call to action) so that the viewer associates peace with the production of Beauforts.



The use of emotive language such as 'menace' is designed to shock and scare viewers.

Australian ships close to Japanese territories are shown in flames and sinking in order to generate an emotional response (such as anger or grief) in the viewer.

The central image of Australia surrounded by Japanese submarines and aircraft is designed to unsettle people and convince them that the threat of invasion is real – the dark blue circle makes Australia appear as though it is a target on a dart board.

Australians are shown peacefully enjoying sports and working on farms – 'the Australian way of life'.

Source 2 An Australian propaganda poster produced by the Department of Aircraft Production (Beaufort Division) in 1942 – 'Beauforts' were the first all-metal aircraft built in Australia

Extend your understanding

1 What forms does propaganda take today that were not available during World War II? (For example, Twitter, Facebook, etc.)

2 It is often assumed that propaganda contains false or untrue information. This is not always the case. Consider, for example, the many advertisements produced by the government to influence people to quit smoking. These can be defined as propaganda, given that they are an attempt to influence people's opinions and behaviour. Locate an example of modern-day propaganda, and analyse it using the steps outlined above.

Unit 2 Rights and freedoms (1945–the present)

Introduction to rights and freedoms

The 20th century was a century of social change. Key events of World War II – such as the Holocaust – had highlighted the inequalities that existed around the world. They were such extreme examples of discrimination and persecution that the horror of them prompted many individuals around the world to stand up and demand freedom and equal rights for all. The United Nations formed out of the ashes of World War II and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted.

In Australia, an Aboriginal rights movement emerged from the 1930s onwards – celebrating major victories in the 1960s – as Aboriginal people achieved equal citizenship and were entitled to vote in federal elections for the first time.



4A

How did the outcomes of World War II shape the modern world?

4B

In what ways have people fought for rights and freedoms since 1945?



chapter 4

Source 1 The Aboriginal Tent Embassy on the lawns of Old Parliament House in Canberra was established in 1972 to protest against the Australian government's refusal to recognise Aboriginal land rights. Today, it still stands as a reminder of the struggle for Aboriginal rights and freedoms.

Rights and freedoms (1945–the present)

This unit is **mandatory**:

- Rights and freedoms.

It must be completed by all students.

4.1 The effects of World War II on the modern world

The aftermath of World War II in Europe

After World War II, Germany was divided into four zones of occupation (see Source 1). Each sector was occupied and administered by the armed forces of one of the Allied powers. Britain, France, the Soviet Union and the United States all controlled separate parts of the country and the capital city of Berlin was also divided in this way.

After the war it became clear that the communist government of the Soviet Union was keen to expand its authority in the region. It set out to achieve this by influencing the governments of a number of countries in central and eastern Europe that the Russian Army had liberated during the German retreat in the final days of the war. These countries became Soviet 'satellite states' meaning that although they were officially independent, they were heavily influenced by the Russian government and military. Russian satellite states included Poland, Bulgaria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Romania and Albania. The nation of Yugoslavia formed at the end of World War I also emerged from World War II as an independent communist state allied with the Soviet Union.

GERMANY: BRITISH, AMERICAN, FRENCH AND SOVIET OCCUPATION ZONES AFTER WORLD WAR II



Source 1 Source: Oxford University Press

The division of Germany

In 1949 the British, French and American occupation zones in Germany were combined to create a new country called the Federal Republic of Germany (or West Germany). That same year, the Soviet zone was officially renamed the German Democratic Republic (or East Germany). A patrolled border fence was erected between East and West Germany and people living in the Soviet occupation zone at this time were no longer permitted to leave. From this time onwards, the border between Soviet-controlled countries in Eastern Europe and democratic countries in Western Europe became divided by what British Prime Minister Winston Churchill described as the 'Iron Curtain' (see Source 2).

Although Berlin lay behind the Iron Curtain, the western half of the city was still under Western control. It effectively became an island of democracy surrounded by a sea of communism. In fact, from June 1948 until May 1949, the only way to get food and supplies into West Berlin was by plane – an event known as the Berlin blockade.

The start of the Cold War

By the time World War II ended in 1945, it was becoming clear that the balance of power around the world was shifting. The once great imperial powers of Britain and France had been devastated by the war and struggled to rebuild their cities and economies. In their place, two **superpowers** emerged – the United States of America (USA) and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR).

Although the USA and USSR had worked as allies against the Axis powers during the war, they actually shared a deep mistrust of one another, mainly because the two countries were founded on such different ideological approaches (see Source 3):

- The USA was founded on democratic principles and its economy was based on the system of capitalism.
- The USSR was founded on socialist principles and its economy was based on the system of communism.

From 1946 to 1991, the fierce lack of trust between the USA and USSR fuelled many diplomatic disputes. Although no actual fighting ever took place, relations between the two superpowers over this period were so frosty that the situation became known as the **Cold War**.

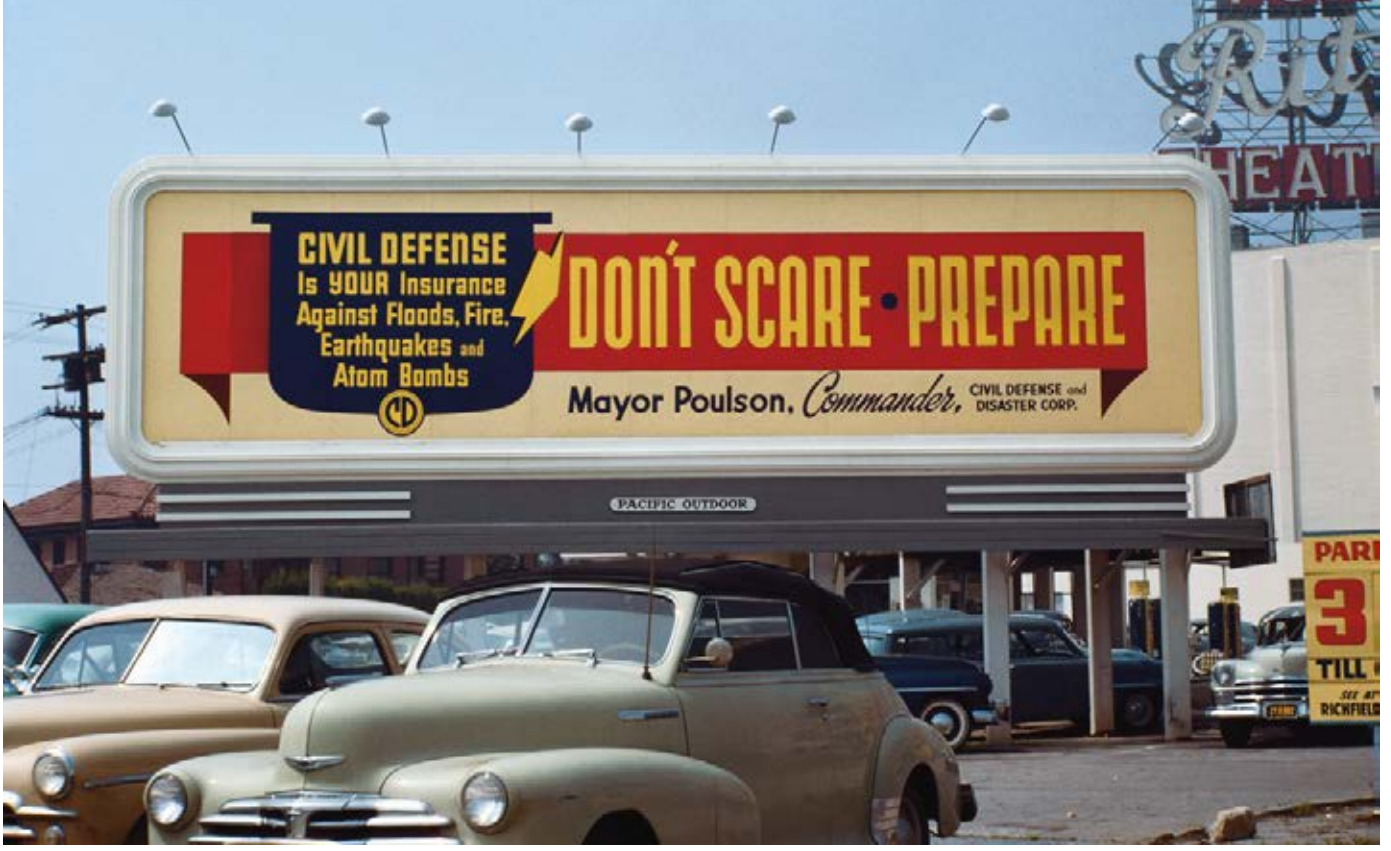
CENTRAL EUROPE: THE IRON CURTAIN IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD



Source 2 Source: Oxford University Press

Source 3 A comparison of key features of capitalism and communism

	Capitalism	Communism
Government control	• Multi-party democracies with voting rights for citizens • Freedom of speech and protest • Belief that government should not interfere in the economy any more than necessary	• Single-party control • Belief that the government should control the economy for the benefit of all citizens
Competition	• Competition is healthy and encourages individuals to be the best they can be.	• Competition pits people against each other. Working together for the common good is seen as the best way to motivate people.
Profit	• Profits are considered fair reward for owners of business • Different wages and salaries for different jobs is considered fair and encourages people to aim higher.	• Profits kept in the hands of a few private business owners is seen as the exploitation of the workers. • Collectives should distribute profits evenly



Source 4 Protecting yourself during the early years of the Cold War in the USA meant taking out insurance not only against natural disasters but also against the threat of a nuclear attack by the USSR.

The Cold War period was characterised by propaganda campaigns, international spying, and fierce public competition over sporting events such as the Olympic Games. Of greatest concern, however, was competition between the USA and USSR to possess the largest armies and nuclear weapons stockpiles. This competition was known as the international **arms race**.

While all of these issues dominated world affairs during the Cold War, the international arms race became a key global concern because it presented the very real threat of a nuclear war.

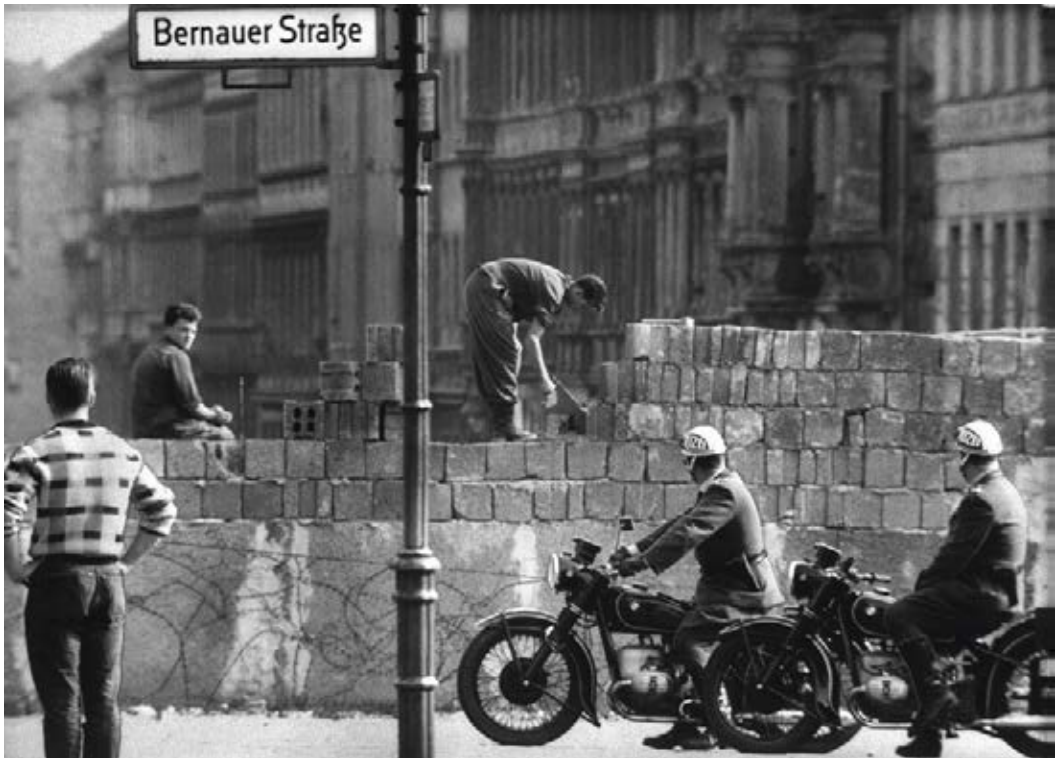
The Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan

By 1947, the USA had become increasingly concerned about the growing power of the USSR. In March 1947, US President Harry Truman told the American Congress that it was America's job to contain the spread of communism. This became known as the Truman Doctrine.

Truman believed that communism took hold when people faced financial hardship. In order to limit the spread of communism across Europe, the United States offered financial aid to European countries that had been badly affected by the war. This program was called the Marshall Plan and involved the distribution of around $13 billion worth of US aid designed to get the economies of Europe going again. Food, machinery and many other things were shipped to democratic countries in Europe. The Soviet Union and its allies were also offered aid, but did not accept. The Premier of the USSR, Joseph Stalin, saw this as an attempt by the USA to dominate Europe by making it dependent on American handouts.

Berlin: a city divided

In the decades following the division of Germany, the differences between life in the communist East and capitalist West became very obvious. West Germany's economy grew rapidly and the standard of living there increased greatly. By comparison, personal freedoms in East Germany were severely limited and the economy struggled. As a result, around 3 million people left East Germany for West Germany between 1949 and 1961 despite attempts by the Russians to stop this. Most of these people were able to leave the East by crossing into West Berlin. This situation was humiliating for the government of East Germany, so on 13 August 1961 (one day after around 4000 East Germans had crossed into West Berlin), a temporary barbed wire fence was erected to stop people from leaving the East. This was soon replaced by a heavily-guarded concrete wall that entirely surrounded West Berlin, known as the Berlin Wall (see Source 5). The division of Germany remained in place until 1990 when the country was reunified. Over that time, the Berlin Wall became the most enduring symbol of the Cold War in Europe.



Source 5 Workers constructing the Berlin Wall in 1960. The wall became an enduring symbol of the Cold War in Europe.

Growing tensions between the USA and the USSR

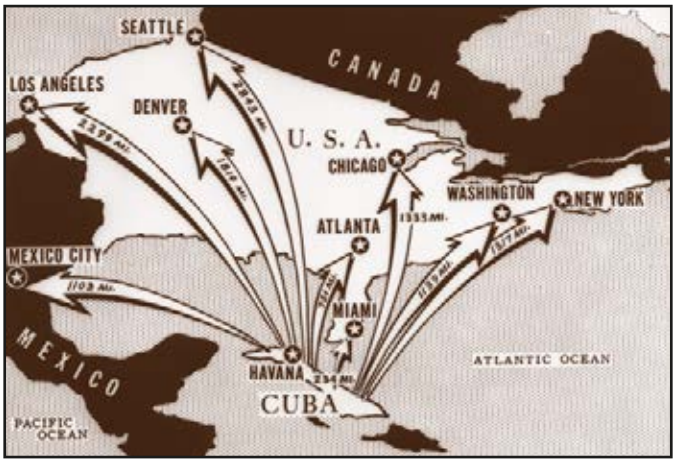
The Cuban Missile Crisis

One of the most serious and potentially dangerous events of the Cold War was a confrontation between the USSR and the USA that took place in October 1962. Known as the Cuban Missile Crisis, this event was the closest the world has ever come to an outright nuclear war. Today it is remembered as one of the defining events of the Cold War.

In 1959, a communist rebel named Fidel Castro came to power in Cuba, overthrowing the government of Fulgencio Batista (a corrupt leader who was supported by the US government). Soon after coming to power, Castro brought most Cuban industries under state control and nationalised American-owned companies. This meant that private companies and assets became the property of the Cuban government. As a result, many investors in the USA (including the US government) lost commercial investments they had in Cuba. In retaliation against this move, the American government halted all aid to Cuba and stopped importing Cuban sugar. This was very damaging to Cuba's economy as sugar was its primary export. Castro asked the USSR for help, and in 1960, the USSR signed an agreement to buy 1 million tonnes of Cuban sugar every year.

This alliance with the USSR made the USA very nervous. In April 1961, the CIA (a US government spying agency) helped a group of Cuban anti-communists to invade Cuba with the goal of overthrowing Castro. The invasion failed and was a public embarrassment for the USA.

In September 1961, Castro asked Russia for weapons to defend Cuba against any future US attacks. About a year later, photographs of Cuba taken by American spy planes revealed Soviet nuclear missiles under construction at various sites in Cuba. These sites brought every city and town in the USA within range of Soviet nuclear missiles (see Source 6). President John F. Kennedy made a televised announcement to the



Source 6 Distances of major US cities from Cuba

American people on 22 October 1962 that they were under threat. He also proclaimed that any nuclear missile launched from Cuba would be regarded as an attack on the US by the USSR, and demanded that the Soviets remove all weapons from Cuba.

For a few days in late October, US naval ships formed a blockade of Cuba to prevent additional Russian missiles and equipment from reaching the island, and Soviet field commanders in Cuba were prepared to use nuclear weapons to defend the island if the USA invaded. It seemed very likely that there would be a war between the USA and the USSR.

Luckily, President Kennedy and Premier Khrushchev were able to reach an agreement whereby the Soviets removed their missiles from Cuba in exchange for a commitment by the USA not to invade Cuba.

The space race

Another key element of Cold War rivalry between the USA and the USSR was space exploration. This was seen as necessary for national security and became a public symbol of technological superiority. In many ways, the 'space race' became a way for the two superpowers to compete without direct military conflict.

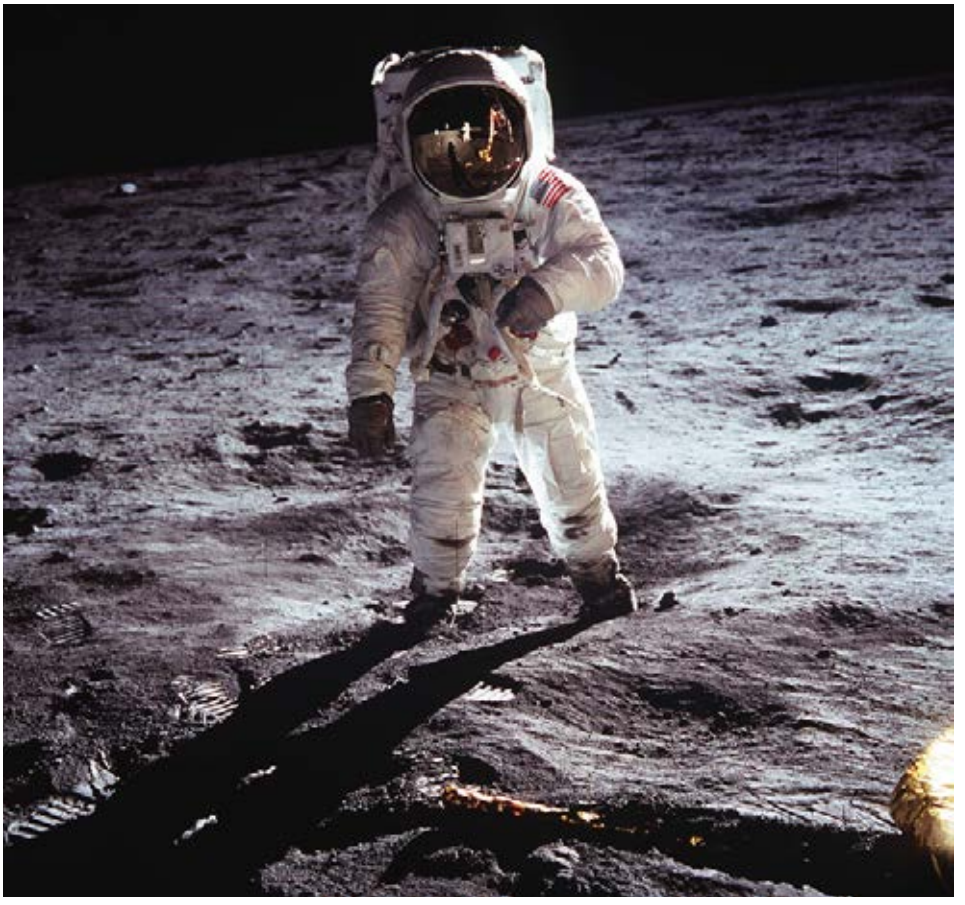
The space race became particularly serious when the USSR successfully launched a satellite, called *Sputnik 1*, in October 1957. Ten days later, they launched a second satellite called *Sputnik 2* – this time with a dog inside it. The dog, named Laika, survived the flight and was the first animal to orbit the Earth. This caused huge concern in the USA, where it was felt that American superiority in terms of education and technology was being threatened.

The following year, the USA sent a satellite into space and established the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) to coordinate and plan its future space program. Once again, the Russians moved ahead of the Americans in the space race by successfully sending the first manned flight into space in April 1961. This triggered a pledge from President Kennedy in May 1961 that the USA would be the first nation to land a man on the moon. This goal was achieved by *Apollo 11* on 20 July 1969 (see Source 7).

The end of the Cold War

In addition to the enormous costs of the international arms race, the economies of both nations were strained by the high cost of the space race. Throughout the 1980s, the Soviet Union was also fighting an expensive and frustrating war in Afghanistan. When the reformist politician Mikhail Gorbachev came to power in 1985, he was determined to end the Cold War and to bring economic and political reform to the Soviet Union. He initiated dramatic agreements with the United States, which involved both nations agreeing to reduce the amount of money and energy they were investing in the arms race. He also took steps to introduce more democratic political processes across the Soviet Union.

These initiatives rapidly improved relations between the United States and the USSR, ultimately bringing an end to the Cold War. What Gorbachev failed to anticipate, however, was that without the Communist



Source 7 Astronaut Buzz Aldrin was part of the first space mission to land men on the moon – *Apollo 11*.



Source 8 The fall of the Berlin Wall in November 1989 came to symbolise the triumph of democracy and the end of the Cold War.

Party and Soviet Army maintaining complete control of all the Soviet satellite states, the Soviet Union would soon break apart. Attempted political reforms at home left the Soviet Union unwilling to defend challenges to its authority in many countries across Eastern Europe. During 1989 and 1990, the Berlin Wall came down and Germany was reunified. Elsewhere in Eastern Europe, borders opened and free elections were held that ousted communist regimes. In August 1991, Gorbachev resigned as leader of the Soviet Union. By October of that year, 10 Soviet republics had declared their independence and the Soviet Union collapsed. With stunning speed, the Iron Curtain was lifted and the Cold War came to an end.

Check your learning 4.1

Remember and understand

1 Define the following terms in your own words:
   - **a** the international arms race
   - **b** the space race
   - **c** the Cold War.

2 Why did the East German government build a wall around the Western part of Berlin?

3 What was the Cuban Missile Crisis and why is it regarded as such a significant historical event?

Apply and analyse

4 Why do you think Churchill referred to the border between East and West Europe as the 'Iron Curtain'?

5 Why was the USA so concerned about the relationship between Cuba and the USSR? Do you believe their fears were justified?

Evaluate and create

6 Examine Source 7 carefully and complete the following tasks.
   - **a** Conduct research online to determine why this source was produced, who produced it, and when it was published.
   - **b** Do you think this source is an example of propaganda? Justify your response.

4.2 The struggle for rights and freedoms since 1945

The 20th century was an era of social change. The events of World War II highlighted the inequalities that existed around the world. The **Holocaust** was such a horrific example of discrimination and persecution that it prompted many individuals around the world to stand up and demand freedom and equal rights for all.

The formation of the United Nations

Immediately following the end of World War II, the **United Nations (UN)** formed with the goal of preventing future wars. A few years later in 1948, a document outlining a set of rights to which all human beings are entitled was released. The **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**, as it was known, was the first international declaration of its kind. It marked a new era of international cooperation and outlined a vision for the post-war world.

The UN was officially formed at the end of World War II in 1945, during a meeting of 50 nations in San Francisco. All nations present at the conference signed the Charter of the United Nations, which set out the purpose and rules of operation of the UN. The key goals of the UN were to prevent war and ensure the wellbeing and freedom of all peoples.

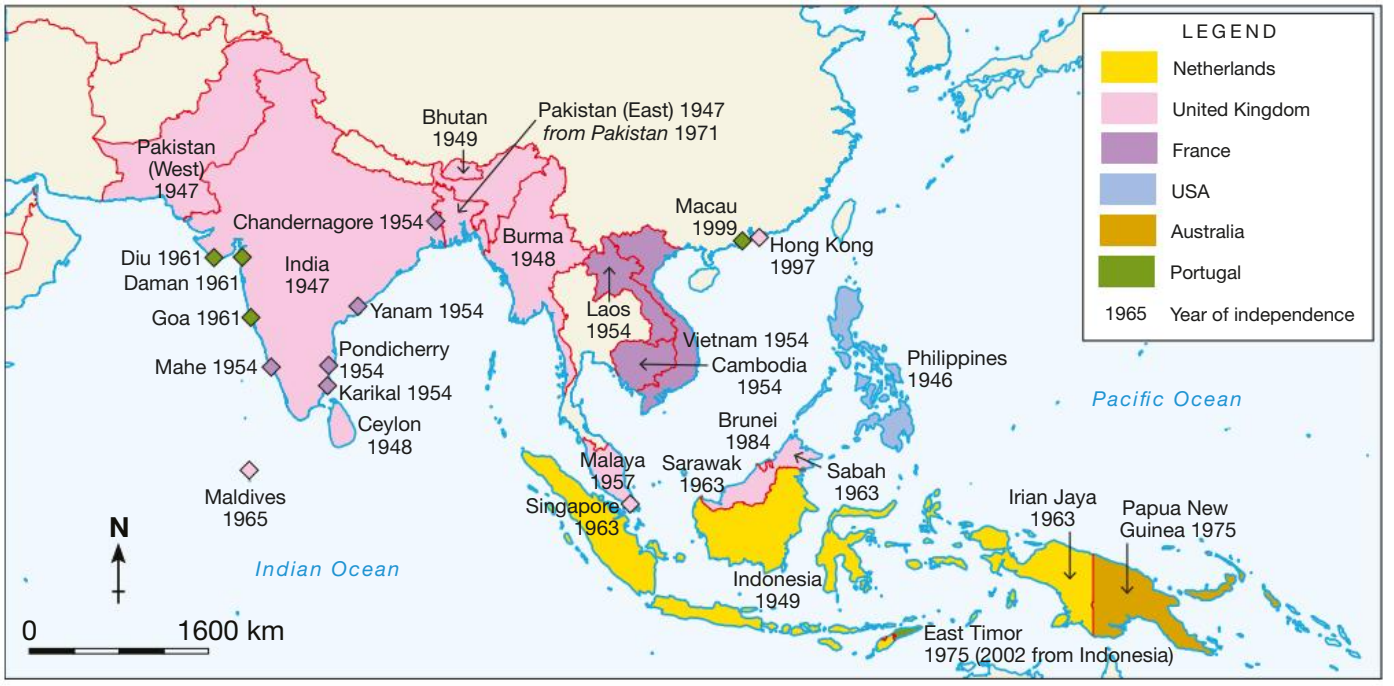
Structure of the United Nations

The structure of the United Nations is based around its charter. The United Nations Charter consists of 111 articles that, together, explain how the United Nations works.



Source 1 Flags outside the current United Nations building in New York

ASIA–PACIFIC REGION: THE INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENT AFTER WORLD WAR II



Source 2

Source: Oxford University Press

The Charter established five separate branches of the United Nations:

1. The General Assembly – The General Assembly discusses and makes decisions about issues of international peace and security. All members of the United Nations are represented in the General Assembly.
2. The Security Council – This consists of five permanent members (USA, USSR, Britain, China and France) and six non-permanent members. The Security Council has the task of maintaining peace and security at an international level. The Security Council can recommend the use of a blockade or other financial imposition on any country that decides to break international law. If these do not work, then the Security Council can call on the United Nations to use military force.
3. The Economic and Social Council – The main task of this branch is to promote and improve the economic and social wellbeing of those living in the member states.
4. The International Court of Justice (ICJ) – The ICJ is the main judicial body of the United Nations.
5. The Secretariat – This is the body that runs the United Nations. The Secretary-General is the chief administrative officer of the United Nations.

The main involvement of the UN in modern conflicts has been to supply peacekeeping forces. The UN Peacekeeping Forces may only be deployed when both parties involved in a conflict accept their presence. There are two types of peacekeeping operations – unarmed observer groups and lightly armed military forces. Military forces are only allowed to use their weapons for self-defence.

The United Nations was not only formed to promote security around the world but to also promote the wellbeing and freedom of all peoples. The defeat of Germany and the freeing of Jewish prisoners from concentration camps by Allied soldiers brought the full horrors of the Holocaust to the attention of the world. There was global agreement that such a thing should never be allowed to happen again.

One of the first actions of the United Nations was to draft a declaration of human rights. The declaration was ratified in 1948. Article 1 of the declaration stated that 'all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights'.

The struggle for rights and freedoms

A number of movements around the world were formed to fight for the recognition of a range of rights and

freedoms. These can be grouped broadly into three categories:

- Independence movements – In the immediate post-war period, a number of former colonies around the world fought for their independence from their imperial masters.
- Racial equality movements – Around the world, traditional views and established laws based on racial difference were challenged. In the United States, African Americans (together with other disadvantaged cultural and ethnic groups) set out to remove all forms of social and legal discrimination based on race. A similar movement in Australia campaigned for equal rights for Indigenous Australians and the repeal of laws which deprived Indigenous Australians of civil liberties. In the 1960s, two major victories were celebrated in Australia. For the first time, Aboriginal people achieved equal citizenship and were entitled to vote in federal elections. The 1960s also marked the beginning of a determined attempt to achieve land rights for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in Australia.
- Gender equality movements – Across the Western world in countries like Australia, the United States and Britain, women campaigned for equality at all levels of society.

Together, these movements brought about enormous social and political changes that influenced the modern world. Many of these rights are taken for granted by people today, but the struggle for the acceptance and recognition of many of these rights took enormous courage and determination.

Independence movements

The post-war period saw a wave of different groups start to demand their human rights. Countries under the control of the old empires saw their chance to fight for self-rule. Other groups who were disadvantaged in society because of their race or sex also started to demand equal rights around this time and organised into movements to bring about change.

The immediate post-war years saw a wave of **decolonisation** sweep across the world. Once-powerful empires (such as Britain, France, the Netherlands and Spain) that had been weakened by the war faced growing opposition from those living under colonial rule. Over a few years, European powers were forced to withdraw from their colonies and recognise their independence (see Source 2). The process of decolonisation began in India and Pakistan, both countries gaining independence from British rule in 1947. From here, the movement swept across Asia, with Indonesia breaking away from the Netherlands in 1949 and France giving up control of Vietnam in 1954. This desire for self-rule later swept across other parts of the world. By the early 1980s old colonial countries throughout Africa, Asia and the Caribbean had all gained their independence.

Racial equality movements

During this period, people in many Western societies questioned old attitudes, beliefs and ways of doing things. Traditional attitudes towards racial and ethnic groups within society were challenged by a range of grassroots organisations and social movements that raised awareness about inequality. These groups fought hard for the acceptance and recognition of a range of basic human rights. Over time, these movements brought about change by changing attitudes and gaining support from the broad population. Many of these organisations are still active today as the struggle for personal freedoms and democratic rights continues. The following tables highlight some significant events and ideas that influenced the struggle for rights and freedoms in the United States and Australia.



Source 3 Dr Martin Luther King, Jr after the March on Washington in 1963

An overview of the struggle for rights and freedoms by African Americans		
Civil rights movements and actions	Topic 5.6 Topic 5.7 Topic 5.8	• The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is passed by the United Nations in 1948 • **Segregation** (separation of blacks and whites) is widespread in the southern states of the USA • In 1954 (in *Brown vs the Board of Education*) the US Supreme Court rules segregation in US schools to be unconstitutional (illegal) • The case of Emmett Till in 1955, (in which a 14-year-old African-American boy was murdered for talking to a white woman) brings national attention to the issue of race relations in the USA • In 1955, Rosa Parks refuses to give her seat to a white woman on an Alabama bus • In 1957, nine African American students try to enrol at the all-white Little Rock Central High School, Arkansas. The US army is sent in to enforce their right to attend the school. • Early 1960s, a mixed group of African Americans and white Americans ride buses throughout the Southern States testing the end of segregation. Known as the Freedom Riders, the group exposes that many southern states are ignoring the ruling of the Supreme Court. • The March on Washington in 1963 sees around 250 000 people travel to the US capital to hear Martin Luther King, Jr. (leader of the African-American civil rights movements) give his famous 'I have a dream' speech (see Source 3).

An overview of the struggle for rights and freedoms by Indigenous Australians		
How Indigenous Australians were disadvantaged	Topic 5.2	• In the first Australian census after Australian Federation in 1901, Indigenous Australians were not counted. • An **assimilation** policy was introduced in 1937 – Aboriginal people of mixed race were to be assimilated into white society. • Segregationist practices until the 1960s excluded Indigenous Australians from mixing with white people and from holding certain jobs. • **Stolen Generations** – from the late 19th century until the 1970s Indigenous children were removed from their families to be brought up in 'white' families or state-run institutions
Indigenous rights movements and actions	Topic 5.3 Topic 5.9	• Indigenous Australians boycott sesquicentenary (150th anniversary) of British settlement in 1938 and instead hold a Day of Mourning. An address is given by Jack Patten, President of the Aborigines Progressive Association. • Australian Freedom Riders take a bus journey through rural NSW to protest segregation
Significant Indigenous Australians	Topic 5.4 Topic 5.5 Topic 5.11	• Jack Patten, leader of the Aborigines Progressive Association (NSW) • William Cooper, leader of the Australian Aborigines League (Vic) • Albert Namatjira, Aboriginal artist • Doug Nicholls, VFL player for Carlton and Fitzroy • Eddie Gilbert, cricketer • Charles Perkins, leader of the Freedom Riders • Lowitja O'Donoghue, founding chairperson of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) and Order of Australia recipient
Indigenous land rights	Topic 5.9 Topic 5.10	• The Wave Hill walk-off, 1966 – Indigenous pastoral workers demand equal pay and a return of traditional lands. This was the first land rights claim. • 1971 – the Aboriginal flag was designed • 1972 – Aboriginal Tent Embassy established on the grounds of parliament in 1972 (see Source 4) • 1992 – Eddie Mabo wins native title to family land on Murray Island. This decision was followed by the *Native Title Act* in 1993. • 1996 – the Wik decision allows for native title on land under pastoral lease. The Native Title Amendment Bill in 1997 effectively overturns native title.
Changes to government attitudes	Topic 5.9 Topic 5.12 Topic 5.13	• 1967 Referendum gets a 'yes' to count Indigenous Australians in the census. This would lead to Indigenous Australians also getting full voting rights. • In Prime Minister Keating's Redfern Park speech in 1992, Keating acknowledged past injustices towards Indigenous Australians. • In 2008, Prime Minister Rudd says sorry to the Stolen Generations



Source 4 Protesters outside the Aboriginal Tent Embassy

Gender equality movements

The other major movement of the period was the struggle for gender equality. Across the Western world, including countries like Australia, women campaigned hard for equality. Although by 1920 all Australian women (with the exception of Indigenous women) had the right to vote and run for parliament, they were a long way from enjoying equal status with men in other areas of Australian society. Despite entering the workforce during World War II, after the war many women were expected to return to their duties as mothers and homemakers. Married women were prohibited from holding permanent government positions and women generally were expected to give up their jobs to men returning from the war. Those who chose to continue working faced discrimination in the form of unequal employment opportunities and lower pay.

Over time, rising female participation in the workforce, social changes and technological advances all contributed to rapid changes in the roles of women in Australia. By the late 1950s, women were demanding equal pay for their work and attempting to overturn the widely held belief that it was a man's role to act as financial provider. In 1969, the Conciliation and Arbitration Commission ruled that men and women working in Australia should be paid equally.

The 1970s saw the emergence of women's liberation movements, inspired by figures such as Germaine Greer (a prominent feminist writer and thinker). Greer's book *The Female Eunuch* (published in 1970) asserted that women were enslaved within society by discrimination and commonly accepted values of male superiority. Greer argued that women should strive to break free of these conditions and that the male domination of society must be fought (see Source 5). Feminists achieved some notable successes in these years, including the passing of the *Maternity Leave Act 1973* and the *Sex Discrimination Act 1975* (South Australia). These pieces of legislation protected a woman's right by law to maternity leave and protected people against being victimised for complaining about discrimination.

With the introduction of the federal *Sex Discrimination Act* in 1984, and the appointment of the first Sex Discrimination Commissioner, Pamela O'Neil, sex-based discrimination in most areas of Australian life became illegal. Despite these gains, feminists continued to combat sex-based prejudice and discrimination in Australian society. They targeted issues such as sexist language and attitudes, as well as the depiction of women in the media as second-class citizens and/or sexual objects. Gender equality activists have also continued to campaign for equal pay and recognition in the workforce. Even today, women still do not enjoy the same levels of income as men across many sectors of the workforce.



Source 5 Protesters in Sydney holding placards demanding that women be allowed to be train drivers, 1976



Source 6 Protesters at the International Women's Day march in Sydney, 1972

Check your learning 4.2

Remember and understand

1. In what year was the United Nations officially formed and what are its key goals?
2. In what year did India achieve independence from British rule?
3. By what year were all Australian women legally able to vote and run for parliament?

Apply and analyse

4. Conduct some brief research on the federal *Sex Discrimination Act* passed in 1984. What did the Act outlaw? How did the introduction of the Act change conditions for women living in Australia?
5. In your own words, define the term 'decolonisation'. Where did this first take place and what were the reasons for this change?

Unit 2 Rights and freedoms (1945–the present)

Rights and freedoms

Indigenous Australians have lived in Australia for at least 40 000 years. The arrival of Europeans in 1788 resulted in significant changes to their traditional customs and ways of life. Colonial governments and communities formally and informally discriminated against Aboriginal people. Federation in 1901 made the exclusion of Aboriginal people from Australian society even more pronounced.

Despite this discrimination, an Aboriginal rights movement emerged from the 1930s and celebrated major victories in the 1960s, as Aboriginal people gained equal citizenship and were entitled to vote in federal elections for the first time.

By the 1990s, the reconciliation movement was in full swing.

A formal apology to the **Stolen Generations** was sought, but it was not until the Rudd Government in 2008 that it was finally delivered.



5A

How have Indigenous peoples in Australia struggled for rights and freedoms?

1 Make a list of examples of discrimination against Indigenous Australians since Europeans colonised Australia in 1788.

5B

How have African Americans and Indigenous peoples in Australia achieved change?

1 The 1960s civil rights movement in the United States was very influential for Indigenous Australians. Discuss the similarities and differences between the experiences of African Americans and Indigenous Australians.



Source 1 Indigenous Australians have struggled to have their rights and freedoms recognised under Australian law since the British established a colony here in 1788. This march for Aboriginal rights took place in Canberra in 2008.

5C

How do activists continue the struggle for civil rights and freedoms?

1 Indigenous Australians continue to experience less favourable circumstances compared to non-Indigenous Australians. What do you think could be done in order to ensure true equality of opportunity for Indigenous Australians today?

5.1 Rights and freedoms: a timeline

1938
Australia's sesquicentenary (150th anniversary) celebrated around Australia. Aboriginal leaders in Melbourne and Sydney hold 'Day of Mourning' events and call for citizenship rights.

1961
American Freedom Riders travel on racially mixed buses in the southern United States to challenge segregation laws.



Freedom Riders outside their bus

1965
Australia's Freedom Riders discover de facto segregation throughout country NSW while touring the regions on a 'fact finding' mission.

1975
The Whitlam Government returns 3300 square kilometres of land to the Gurindji people – a beginning to land rights for Aboriginal people in Australia

1935 | 1945 | 1960 | 1970

1948
Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by United Nations.

1963
Martin Luther King Jnr delivers his 'I have a dream' speech during the March on Washington.

1967
Overwhelming support for referendum to change the Constitution to allow the Commonwealth to make laws for Aborigines and to include them in the census.

1972
Aboriginal Tent Embassy established on the lawns of Parliament House in response to the McMahon Government's refusal to accept native title.



The Day of Mourning Protest in 1938 was held in defiance of the national sesquicentenary (150th anniversary) celebrations.

Source 1 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to civil rights and freedoms



Prime Minister Gough Whitlam pours local sand into Aboriginal man Vincent Lingiari's hand in a symbolic gesture



Crossing the Sydney Harbour Bridge during the reconciliation march

1990
The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) formally established as the key representative body responsible for the implementation of self-determination policies.

1992
The High Court overturns *terra nullius* and acknowledges native title in historic Mabo ruling. Prime Minister Paul Keating's Redfern Park address includes frank admissions about the removal of Aboriginal children from their families.

1997
The *Bringing Them Home* report is tabled in Parliament. The report includes thousands of testimonies from members of the Stolen Generations.

2000
Massive numbers join walks for reconciliation across Australia.

2004
The Howard Government abolishes ATSIC.

2008
Prime Minister Kevin Rudd issues a formal apology to the Stolen Generations.

1990 — 2000 — 2010



Supporters at the Aboriginal Tent Embassy

Check your learning 5.1

Remember and understand

1 When was the 'Day of Mourning' held?
2 When was *terra nullius* overturned by the High Court?
3 When did Prime Minister Kevin Rudd make a formal apology to the Stolen Generations?

Apply and analyse

4 In what ways do you think the American Freedom Riders might have inspired and influenced the Australian Freedom Riders?
5 Using the timeline, calculate how long the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) existed for.

5.2 Background to the struggle for Indigenous rights

When British explorers and settlers arrived on the east coast of Australia in 1788, they did not understand the Indigenous population. The British looked for signs of permanent residence, and could find none, so they didn't negotiate any treaties. They also looked for evidence of farming, and could find none, so they proclaimed Australia *terra nullius* – a Latin term that literally translates as 'nobody's land'.



Source 1 Aboriginal children at the Catholic Little Flower Mission in Arltunga, Northern Territory, *c.* 1946

The negative effects of European settlement on Indigenous Australians that had started in 1788 continued with the policies of Australian colonial and state governments in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. The expansion of British colonial settlements into established Aboriginal lands destroyed traditional ways of life. High numbers of Indigenous Australian premature deaths were the result of violence and disease. By the time of **Federation** in 1901, European settlements dominated most of the continent.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures were not officially recognised, and public policy was dominated by ideas of **segregation** (separating blacks from whites) and **assimilation** (integrating blacks into white society). Both of these ideas were based on the assumption that Aboriginal people were inferior to Europeans.

Aboriginal Protection Boards

Before Federation in 1901, Aboriginal Protection Boards were established in the colonies around Australia to 'manage' Aboriginal populations. After Federation, these boards became the responsibility of state governments. Removing children was the core work of these boards. The new Commonwealth took no responsibility for the wellbeing of this significant minority. Chief **Protectors** were appointed to watch over the Aboriginal people in each state and oversee what many thought to be a 'dying race' of people.

Aboriginal **reserves** and **missions** were established by governments and religious organisations across Australia to support the assimilation policy (see Source 1). But most agree that the real reason for these missions was segregation – to keep blacks away from white society. For many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples these institutions meant separation from families and communities, isolation and loss of culture, identity and control.

The situation at Federation

When the Australian colonies federated in 1901, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples remained politically and legally marginalised. Many of the rights extended to the citizens of the new Commonwealth of Australia were denied to the original inhabitants. A number of Acts passed by the new Commonwealth Parliament specifically excluded them. They were not entitled to vote in federal elections unless previously registered to vote in their state. They did not receive the basic wage and they were not eligible for aged and invalid pensions. Travel restrictions were often enforced on them. They were excluded from military training

and Aboriginal mothers did not receive the baby bonus that was given to non-Indigenous mothers. When a **census** was held, Aborigines were not counted as members of the Australian population.

Western Australian Senator Alexander Matheson was one of the strongest opponents of Aboriginal people being given the right to vote (see Source 2).

After Federation, state governments and religious organisations continued to dominate Aboriginal policy. The new Commonwealth government took no responsibility for the wellbeing of this significant minority. The common trend to assimilation underpinned work by authorities in each state; however, insufficient resources meant that often work was simply neglected. Assimilation did guide two key areas of work – the Christian missions and the removal of mixed-race Aboriginal children.

Source 2

> We must take steps to prevent any Aboriginal from acquiring the right to vote. Surely it is absolutely repugnant to the greater number of the people of the Commonwealth that an Aboriginal man or Aboriginal lubra or gin [woman] – a horrible, degraded, dirty creature – should have the same rights that we have decided to give to our wives and daughters … The honourable gentleman fails to recognise that we have taken this country from the blacks, and made it a white man's country, and intend to keep it a white man's country, so that there is no earthly use in the honourable gentleman saying that 100 years ago this was a black man's country … We are aware of the fact that it is very regrettable, and the only consolation we have is that they are gradually dying out.
>
> Western Australian Senator Alexander Matheson, Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates, Senate, 22 May, 1901

Controlled by colour

The 'assimilation policy' was officially adopted at the Aboriginal Welfare Conference of Commonwealth and State Authorities in 1937. Aboriginal people of mixed race were to be assimilated into white society whether they wanted to be or not. This was a new form of control. If these people were not going to simply 'die out' then all efforts should be directed to ensuring that mixed-race Aborigines, in particular, could be integrated (see Sources 3 and 4). The removal of Aboriginal children continued and new powers were given to 'Welfare' officials to judge whether children were 'progressing'.

Source 3

> The destiny of the natives of aboriginal origin, but not of the full blood, lies in their ultimate absorption … with a view to their taking their place in the white community on an equal footing with the whites.
>
> From a conference paper from the Aboriginal Welfare Conference of Commonwealth and State Authorities in 1937

New government resources were aimed at changing the ways that Aboriginal people lived. Traditional camps were demolished and additional assistance was given to missions to 'do the job'. Jackson's Track in Gippsland, Victoria, was a 'dry' sawmill settlement occupied by many Aboriginal families – including the family of Lionel Rose, Australia's first boxing world champion.

Daryl Tonkin, who married an Aboriginal woman and settled at Jackson's Track, recalls the idyllic life of those living there in his book *Jackson's Track*. However, from the 1940s, government and church officials began putting pressure on the Aboriginal elders to move their families to somewhere more 'civilised'. 'Welfare' would visit frequently, and in 1961 the community was dismantled (see Sources 4 and 5).

Source 4

> It wasn't long before people at the Track found out what the authorities had decided to do. The church people came around to all the camps and explained how they had the welfare of the blackfellas in mind and that they truly felt this was the best thing for them. They said the good people of the church had worked together to build some housing for the blackfellas and that in one week a truck would be out to fetch them.
>
> Extract from *Jackson's Track* by Daryl Tonkin, page 254



Source 5 Two dwellings at Jackson's Track, Victoria, *c.* 1947–1960 (Source: Museum Victoria. Photographer: Richard Seeger)



Homes Are Sought For These Children

A GROUP OF TINY HALF-CASTE AND QUADROON CHILDREN at the Darwin half-caste home. The Minister for the Interior (Mr Perkins) recently appealed to charitable organisations in Melbourne and Sydney to find homes for the children and rescue them from becoming outcasts.

Source 6 A newspaper article seeking homes for children of mixed race

Tonkin explains a few pages later that the promised 'houses' were actually tents and that a number of previously employed, teetotaller Aboriginal men began drinking for the first time in their lives to escape the boredom and depression of their new lives away from 'the Track'.

Segregation

Another effective means of controlling Aboriginal people was to prevent them from fully participating in society. 'Colour bars' – bans that prevented Aboriginal people from entering clubs, pubs, restaurants, theatres, public swimming pools or using public transport – resulted in a form of **apartheid**. Aboriginal people were also prohibited from working particular jobs – including working in post offices – and were expected to work for much less money. For the first 30 years after Federation, this segregation was applied quite consistently across the states and territories of Australia.

Despite assimilation being the official policy of the government, the practice of segregation continued until the 1960s. Separate sections in theatres, separate wards in hospitals, and denial of school enrolment to Aboriginal children were common. Aboriginal rights activists in the 1960s had plenty of evidence that obvious discrimination continued across Australia.

The Stolen Generations

From the late 1800s to the 1970s many thousands of Aboriginal children were forcibly removed from their families and placed into state care or placed with white families. These children, now referred to as the **Stolen Generations**, faced ongoing emotional and social difficulties because of their removal from their families.

In most states, it was believed that if mixed-race Aboriginal children could be brought up in a 'white' community, their Aboriginality could be overcome and their 'white' attributes would shine through. These children were taken from their families and raised in missions or with white families (see Source 6). Unfortunately, these children often ended up being rejected by both the Aboriginal and European communities.

Full-blooded Aboriginal children were also removed from their families and put into state-run institutions where they were prepared for unskilled and semi-skilled work. For example, the Cootamundra Girls' Home in New South Wales trained girls to be domestic servants.

The *Bringing Them Home* report

The Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission collated the stories of the Stolen Generations for the Commonwealth Parliament in 1997. Their report, entitled *Bringing Them Home*, revealed the hurt felt by the many Australians who were affected by this policy (see Source 7).

Source 7

> Most of us girls were thinking white in the head but were feeling black inside. We weren't black or white. We were a very lonely, lost and sad displaced group of people. We were taught to think and act like a white person, but we didn't know how to think and act like an Aboriginal. We didn't know anything about our culture.

> We were completely brainwashed to think only like a white person. When they went to mix in white society, they found they were not accepted [because] they were Aboriginal. When they went and mixed with Aborigines, some found they couldn't identify with them either, because they had too much white ways in them. So that they were neither black nor white. They were simply a lost generation of children. I know. I was one of them.
>
> Extract from *Bringing Them Home: Report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families April 1997*, Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission

The extent to which mixed-race Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children were forcibly removed from their families has recently been a subject of debate. Some historians and commentators question whether there is enough common ground in the experiences of the removed children for them to be thought of as a single group. For example, the removal of children to attend secondary schooling, unavailable in many remote locations, might not be considered in the same way as the removal of whole families of children without justification. Other justifications dominated discussions when *Bringing Them Home* was released. These included 'child protection', beliefs that Australia's Indigenous people would 'die out', and a desire to 'civilise' Indigenous children through their assimilation into white society. However, the report dealt with many of these questions by making comparisons with non-Indigenous children removed from their families (see Source 8).

Source 8

> In contrast with the removal of non-Indigenous children, proof of 'neglect' was not always required before an Indigenous child could be removed. Their Aboriginality would suffice. Therefore, while some removals might be 'justifiable' after the event as being in the child's best interests, they often did not need to be justified at the time.
>
> Extract from *Bringing Them Home*, page 9

Proof that children were being neglected was not the main motive behind the forcible removal of Aboriginal children from their families. More often, it was the desire of European settlers to civilise or 'breed out' Aboriginality. Dr Cecil Cook, Chief Protector of the Northern Territory between the years of 1927 and 1939, was perhaps the most famous government official involved in the removal of Aboriginal children during this period. His views were that part-Aboriginal women should be elevated 'to white standard with a view to their absorption by mating into the white population'. This argument was used as motivation to remove thousands of Aboriginal children from their families.



Source 9 Marita Ah Chee was taken from her family to Garden Point Mission on Melvin Island in 1947. After 13 years she came back to work as a nanny in Alice Springs and her Aboriginal mother, having heard through the nuns that she was in Alice Springs, went 'doorknocking' until mother and daughter were finally reunited after 15 years.

Check your learning 5.2

Remember and understand

1. List some of the main ways in which Indigenous people were discriminated against in Australia from 1788 to the 1960s.
2. Describe the policy of assimilation.
3. What happened to the Jackson's Track community?
4. What does the term 'Stolen Generations' refer to?

Apply and analyse

5. Research the *Bringing Them Home* report. What was its purpose? What contribution to Australian history do you think it has made?

Evaluate and create

6. In your opinion, what was the greatest impact that the European settlers had on Indigenous Australians? Could this impact have been lessened if the policy of *terra nullius* had not been applied when Australia was colonised? Explain your point of view in a 200-word written response citing at least two historical sources.

5.3 Indigenous protests during the 19th and 20th centuries

Despite the many discriminatory policies of Australian colonial and state governments in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, Indigenous Australians made repeated attempts to have their traditions and rights recognised.

Many of the people who would go on to become important figures in the struggle for Indigenous **civil rights** came from the Aboriginal reserves and missions that had been set up by Aboriginal Protection Boards.

key**concept:** Significance

The Cummeragunja Station: birthplace of a movement?

Cummeragunja Aboriginal Station was established in 1881 on the New South Wales side of the Murray River. It was set on 1800 acres of land not far from the Maloga Mission, which is where many of the original inhabitants came from. It was in the heart of the Yorta Yorta Nation, not far from Corowa where colonial leaders would meet 12 years later to plan for a 'new' Australian Commonwealth. Originally, the Aboriginal residents managed Cummeragunja Station with little interference from the government. It was a productive farm and was home to many Aboriginal families when neighbouring Maloga Mission closed down some years later.

For a time, the school at Cummeragunja Station allowed Aboriginal children to continue studying well beyond the legislated three years. The outcome of this was that in the early part of the century, a number of future Aboriginal leaders acquired knowledge and skills that would later support their efforts to bring greater rights and freedoms to their people. Jack Patten (see '5.4 Significant individual: Jack Patten') attended primary school there, Doug Nicholls attended the school until he turned 14, and William Cooper was one of many leaders to take advantage of adult literacy classes.

William Cooper, who had spent most of his life fighting for justice for the Yorta Yorta people from his home at Cummeragunja, eventually left in 1933. He moved to Footscray in Melbourne at the age of 72 in order to qualify for the aged pension. From his new home in Footscray, he joined together with many other Cummeragunja exiles – forming the Australian Aborigines League. Exiles who joined this league included Doug Nicholls, Margaret Tucker and Thomas Shadrach James, who had been one of the schoolteachers at Cummeragunja decades before.

In 1939, Cummeragunja was again the focus of the national Aboriginal Rights movement as more than 200 Aboriginal people walked off the mission and crossed the river to Victoria to protest against poor treatment and conditions. This was the first ever mass strike of Aboriginal people in Australia.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 1 William Cooper (left) and his family in 1936 – his cousin, Margaret Tucker, is standing next to him

The first protests

When the centenary (100th anniversary) of British colonisation in Australia was celebrated in 1888, little attention was paid to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. All colonies except South Australia proclaimed 'Anniversary Day' a public holiday in order to allow people to celebrate the European settlement.

Indigenous Australians boycotted celebrations, but very few people of European descent noticed. Indigenous people were excluded from public life and largely ignored. When the sesquicentenary (150th anniversary) of British settlement took place in 1938, organised groups of Indigenous Australians decided to use it as a chance to protest for their rights. They referred to the celebrations as a Day of Mourning and Protest (see Source 2).

The Australian Aborigines League (in Victoria) and the Aborigines Progressive Association (in New South Wales) had been involved in previous petitions seeking civil rights for Indigenous Australians. They refused to participate in the re-enactment of the First Fleet's landing at Farm Cove in Sydney, which was the focus of white celebrations. Instead, the Indigenous groups planned a protest march from the Sydney Town Hall.

After they were refused permission to meet at the Town Hall, they decided to march to the Australian Hall in Elizabeth Street instead. Even though this was to be a meeting of only Indigenous Australians, they were refused entry to the Australian Hall through the front door and were forced to enter through a rear door. The meeting was the first really effective all-Indigenous civil rights meeting in Australian history.

key**concept:** Significance

The Day of Mourning and Protest

The Day of Mourning and Protest is remembered as one of the most historically significant events in the struggle for Indigenous civil rights in Australia. A **manifesto** (written declaration) titled *Aborigines Claim Citizen Rights* was distributed at the meeting. The manifesto opened with a declaration that 'This festival of 150 years of so-called "progress" in Australia commemorates also 150 years of misery and degradation imposed on the original native inhabitants by white invaders of this country'. It was a powerful statement that introduced white Australians to an alternative view of their history. One of the protesters at the meeting, Jack Patten, delivered an address that marked a turning point in the fight for acceptance by Indigenous Australians (see Source 2 on the next page). Patten would go on to be one of the most significant figures in this struggle.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.


AUSTRALIAN
Aborigines Conference
SESQUI-CENTENARY
Day of Mourning and Protest
to be held in
THE AUSTRALIAN HALL, SYDNEY
(No. 140 Elizabeth Street — a hundred yards south of Liverpool Street)
on
WEDNESDAY, 26th JANUARY, 1938
(AUSTRALIA DAY)
The Conference will assemble at 10 o'clock in the morning.
ABORIGINES AND PERSONS OF ABORIGINAL BLOOD ONLY ARE INVITED TO ATTEND

Source 2 Flyer advertising the Day of Mourning and Protest, 1938

Check your learning 5.3

Remember and understand

1 Describe the action taken by the Australian Aborigines League (in Victoria) and the Aborigines Progressive Association (in New South Wales) on 26 January 1938.

2 What event was to be the focus of white celebrations for Australia's sesquicentenary? Who refused to participate in this event?

Apply and analyse

3 Why do you think Cummeragunja Aboriginal Station produced so many important leaders of the civil rights movement in Australia?

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct some additional research to complete the following task.

a Choose one of the following individuals who (at some point) lived on Cummeragunja Aboriginal Station:

- Doug Nicholls
- Margaret Tucker
- William Cooper
- Thomas Shadrach James.

b Create a short biography outlining some interesting facts about this person's early life and provide a summary of their key achievements in the struggle for civil rights by Indigenous Australians.

5.4 Significant individual: Jack Patten

Jack Patten (born John Thomas Patten) was an Indigenous Australian civil rights activist and journalist. He is regarded by many historians as one of the most significant individuals to contribute to the fight for rights and freedoms of Indigenous Australians.

Early life

Jack Patten was born on 28 March 1905 at Cummeragunja Mission in the Yorta Yorta Nation, near Moama on the New South Wales side of the Murray River. He was the eldest of six children to John James Patten, a blacksmith and police tracker, and his wife Christina Mary, a local farmer's daughter.

After he attended high school in West Wyalong, New South Wales, he won a scholarship and tried to join the navy to continue his education. He was rejected because of his race. Patten then took on a number of labouring jobs and joined a boxing troupe that travelled around Australia. On these travels, and on subsequent journeys around Australia, he developed a very clear picture of the issues facing Aboriginal people.

Political awakening

Patten moved with his family to Salt Pan Creek, Sydney, in 1929. At this Depression-era camp he joined a group of dispossessed Aboriginal people who were already beginning to organise themselves into a political movement. Patten would speak about Aboriginal citizenship and equality on Sundays in the Domain in Sydney and, in 1938, published the first Aboriginal newspaper, *The Australian Abo Call* (see Source 1).

With his political partner, William Ferguson, Patten founded the Aborigines Progressive Association in 1937, and worked with the Australian Aborigines League to coordinate the first Aboriginal Day of Mourning in Sydney on 26 January 1938. Five days later, Patten and the other Aboriginal leaders met with Prime Minister Joseph Lyons and presented their 10-point plan for citizens' rights.



The Australian

ABO CALL

THE VOICE OF THE ABORIGINES

EDITED BY J. T. PATTEN

Representing 80,000 Australian Aborigines

We ask for Education, Opportunity, and Full Citizen Rights

To all Aborigines!

OUR TEN POINTS

Deputation to the Prime Minister

A LONG RANGE POLICY FOR ABORIGINES

URGENT INTERIM POLICY

DAY OF MOURNING

"THE ABO CALL"

EASTER MEETING

SELECT COMMITTEE

MR. BRUNTON'S PROMISE

PACKSADDLE

Source 1 The front cover of the newspaper *The Australian Abo Call – The Voice of the Aborigines*

Source 2

> On this day the white people are rejoicing, but we, as Aborigines, have no reason to rejoice on Australia's 150th birthday. Our purpose in meeting today is to bring home to the white people of Australia the frightful conditions in which the native Aborigines of this continent live. This land belonged to our forefathers 150 years ago, but today we are pushed further and further into the background.
>
> The Aborigines Progressive Association has been formed to put before the white people the fact that Aborigines throughout Australia are literally being starved to death. We refuse to be pushed into the background. We have decided to make ourselves heard. White men pretend that the Australian Aboriginal is a low type, who cannot be bettered. Our reply to that is, 'Give us the chance!'

> We do not wish to be left behind in Australia's march to progress. We ask for full citizen rights, including old-age pensions, maternity bonus, relief work when unemployed, and the right to a full Australian education for our children. We do not wish to be herded like cattle and treated as a special class. As regards the Aborigines Protection Board of New South Wales, white people in the cities do not realise the terrible conditions of slavery under which our people live in the outback districts.
>
> I have unanswerable evidence that women of our race are forced to work in return for rations, without other payment. Is this not slavery? Do white Australians realise that there is actual slavery in this fair progressive Commonwealth? Yet such is the case. We are looking in vain to white people to help us by charity. We must do something ourselves to draw public attention to our plight. That is why this Conference is held, to discuss ways and means of arousing the conscience of white Australians, who have us in their power but have hitherto refused to help us.
>
> Address delivered by Jack Patten, the President of the Aborigines Progressive Association, on the Day of Mourning (26 January 1938)

In 1939, Patten responded to a call from his relatives at Cummeragunja to help support their struggle against management. Patten and his brother George were arrested for inciting the Aborigines to leave the reserve. He was then labelled a Nazi agent by the Sydney press. Once released from jail, Patten won another long battle as he convinced the government to overturn a ban preventing Aborigines from enlisting in the armed forces. Until then, Aborigines needed to lie about their aboriginality to be accepted. Patten was finally able to enlist and served in the Middle East with the 6th Division. He was wounded in 1942, and retired from active service. He returned to work in northern Australia, helping construct infrastructure as part of the effort to protect the area from invasion.

Stolen children

After the war, when Patten was clearing land where his family had settled in northern New South Wales, six of his own children were taken from him by the Aboriginal Protection Board. Patten was unable to secure the release of his five daughters, who were trained as domestic servants in Cootamundra, but he was able to find and release his son, John. Together they fled back to Cummeragunja.

His final years

Suffering depression from his war experience, Patten left his family and made a living as a labourer in Melbourne. He continued to be a powerful advocate for Indigenous issues, and spoke out against British atomic weapons testing at Maralinga in South Australia.

Patten was killed in a motor accident in Fitzroy in 1957. Unlike many of his contemporaries, he was not returned to a final resting place at Cummeragunja. He was buried at Fawkner Cemetery in an unmarked grave. That grave remains in much the same condition today.

Check your learning 5.4

Remember and understand

1. Which Indigenous nation was Jack Patten a member of?
2. Why was Patten unable to join the Australian Navy?
3. What was the first Aboriginal newspaper in Australia called?
4. What happened to Patten's children?

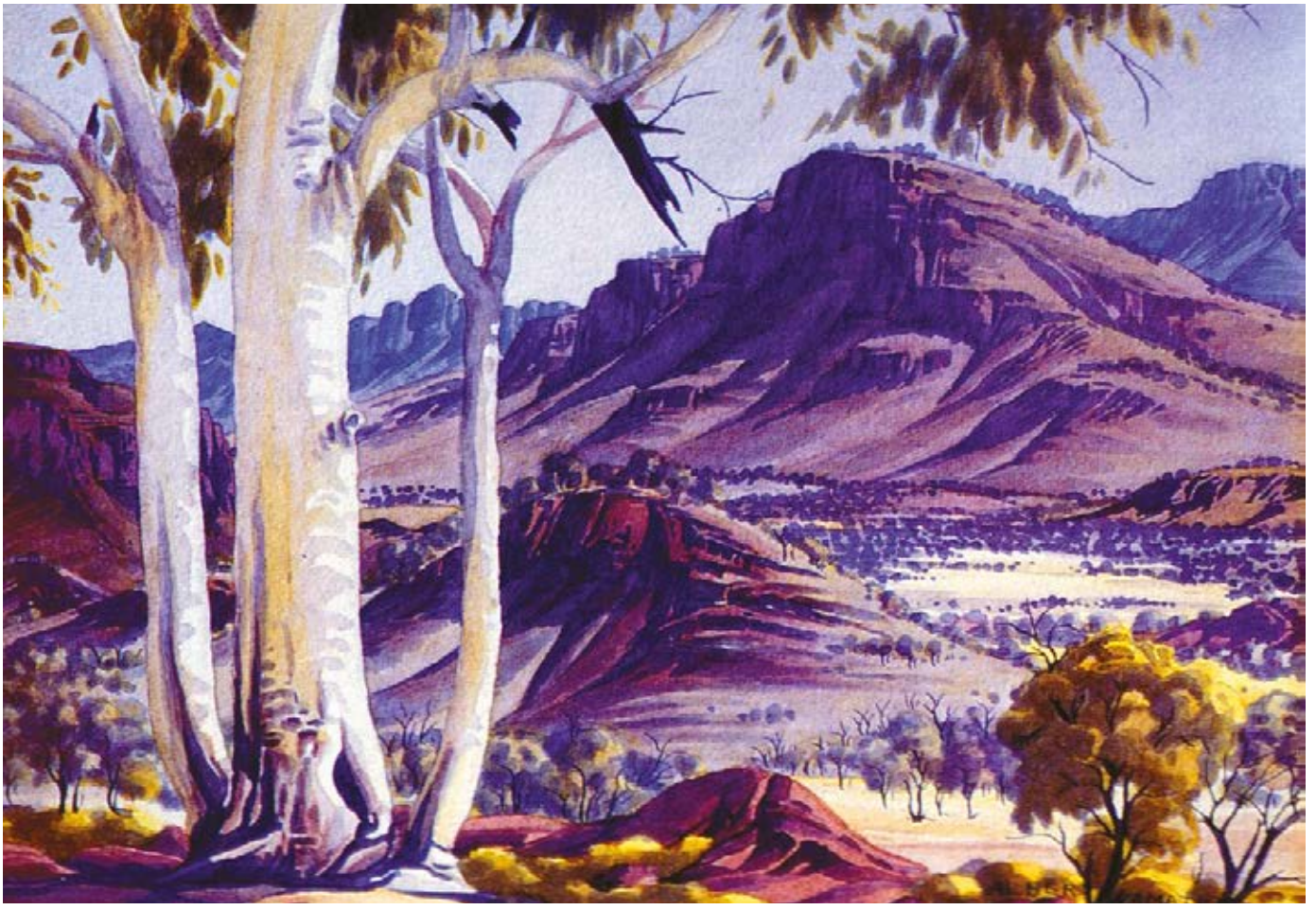
Apply and analyse

5. Read Jack Patten's Day of Mourning address in Source 2.
   - **a** What were some of the main concerns he was addressing?
   - **b** What was he asking for on behalf of Australia's Indigenous population?
6. Write a short paragraph of 150 words explaining Jack Patten's main contribution to the Indigenous civil rights movement.

Evaluate and create

7. Create an entry for Jack Patten in a 'Biography of Great Australians'. Think about his most significant achievements and key biographical information that you want to draw attention to.

5.5 Indigenous achievements and contributions during the 19th and 20th centuries



Source 1 Painting by Albert Namatjira, *Blue Haze over James Range*

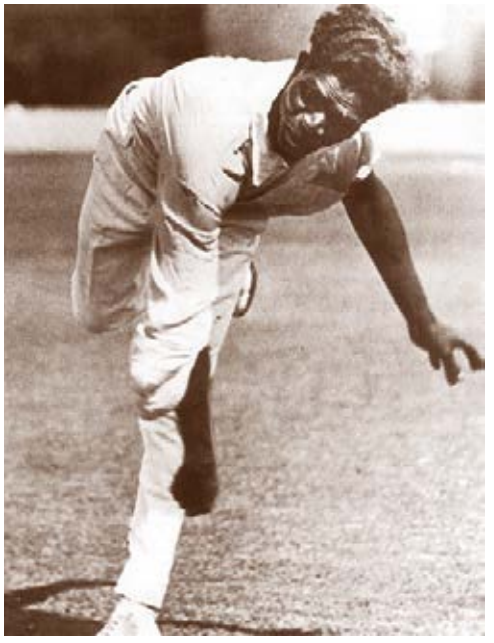
Despite the official government discrimination and control that affected most aspects of their lives, Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders participated in and contributed to Australian society in many ways during the 19th and 20th centuries. They were employed on cattle stations and other farms, and in other industries including fishing and timber milling. Despite discrimination and bans, many Indigenous Australians also fought in World War I and World War II. The period between these wars was particularly significant for Indigenous Australians, as it was during this time that many began to excel in areas of public life such as art and sport.

Achievements in art

In Melbourne in 1938, an Aboriginal artist by the name of Albert Namatjira held his first exhibition of European-style paintings. Namatjira was an Arrernte man living at the Hermannsburg Mission in southern central Northern Territory at the time. Over the next decade he sold hundreds of paintings and is still regarded as one of our most influential artists (see Source 1).



Source 2 Albert Namatjira



Source 3 Aboriginal test cricketer Eddie Gilbert

Achievements in sport

During this period, a number of outstanding Indigenous athletes achieved some significant successes in the field of sport. Sir Doug Nicholls, from the Cummeragunja mission in southern New South Wales, was first recruited by the Carlton Football Club and then went on to play for the Fitzroy Football Club in 1932. He was also eventually selected to play for Victoria in State of Origin football. Nicholls was a pioneering campaigner for reconciliation and was also the first Aboriginal person to receive a knighthood and the first to serve as a governor general.

In Queensland, Indigenous cricketer Eddie Gilbert had been taken from his home as a three-year-old. He grew up on the Barambah Aboriginal Reserve, north of Brisbane, where he learned to play cricket. With a flexible wrist, he was able to generate a fearsome pace in his bowling (see Source 3). He dismissed Don Bradman for a duck in a Sheffield Shield game in 1931. Bradman later described the balls he faced from Gilbert as the quickest of his career.

Living on a reserve, Gilbert had to receive written permission to leave every time he was to play first-class cricket. In the end, he played 23 first-class matches for Queensland, but was never selected for Australia. However, there were calls for his inclusion when Australia was being defeated by England during the 'Bodyline' series of 1932–33, but this did not happen. Gilbert received belated recognition of his achievements in 2008 when a statue commemorating him was unveiled at Brisbane's Allan Border Field.

Contributions to military service

Another key contribution by Aboriginal people was in war. In both world wars, Aboriginal men saw active service. This was in spite of the fact that in World War I, Aboriginal men were barred from enlisting until 1917, at which point part-Aboriginals were accepted. At least 500 still managed to serve.

In 1940, after the outbreak of war in Europe and the Pacific, William Cooper, an Aboriginal Rights activist who had lost a son in World War I, wrote to the prime minister urging him to introduce citizenship rights for Aboriginal people. To Cooper, this was a sensible request that would help Australia's war effort. Cooper's attempt was not successful. However, Jack Patten, another Aboriginal activist, successfully lobbied for Aboriginal enlistment bans to be lifted. The creation of the *Commonwealth Electoral (War-time) Act* (1940) even gave Aboriginal servicemen a vote – but only for the duration of the war and six months afterwards.

Check your learning 5.5

Remember and understand

1 What is significant about Albert Namatjira's career?
2 What did Sir Doug Nicholls achieve during his lifetime?
3 What barriers did Eddie Gilbert face as an Aboriginal cricketer?
4 Who was responsible for allowing Indigenous Australians to enlist in the armed forces?

Evaluate and create

5 'Australia has missed out on identifying significant talent because of government policies.' Create a written response of around 250 words in support of this statement. Use Sir Doug Nicholls, Albert Namatjira and Eddie Gilbert as examples to support your argument.

5.6 The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The *terra nullius* ruling made by Sir Richard Bourke in 1835 meant that Indigenous Australians were not legally able to sell or acquire land. This ruling placed Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples at a legal disadvantage that also affected other aspects of their lives. By the time Australia celebrated 150 years of British settlement in 1938, it was difficult for Indigenous Australians to identify any positive outcomes from British settlement. It would only be after Australia's championing of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 that attention gradually turned towards the situation and status of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

The legacy of World War II

Millions of people were massacred during World War II. Many millions more never saw their families or homes again as a result of the destruction. During the war, many world leaders started to develop an ambitious, global response to these atrocities. The commitment to form the United Nations, a 'world government' of sorts, was designed to ensure that such events would never happen again. Part of this work involved establishing a set of international laws and treaties to protect people. Immediately after the end of World War II, the United Nations was formed and work started on formalising a set of basic human rights.



Source 1 Attorney General Herbert 'Doc' Evatt

Australia's role

Because of the horrors brought about by World War II there was enthusiasm to begin the work of protecting certain human rights by law. Leaders of emerging powers, including Australia's Attorney General, Herbert 'Doc' Evatt (see Source 1), convinced traditional powers such as Britain and France that the General Assembly must be seen to take a leading role in the development of laws to protect human rights. The world could not afford to be caught up in another catastrophe such as World War II. Evatt was General Secretary of the United Nations in 1948 and 1949, during which time he led the drafting of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This landmark document has 30 articles and has informed many international and national treaties and covenants (agreements) relating to rights (some of which are outlined in Source 2). Most significantly, the declaration held that human rights are inalienable – meaning that they cannot be taken away from any one of us regardless of age, race, gender, religion, language or nationality.

Source 2

Article 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.

Article 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.

Article 3
Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4
No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5
No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6
Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

The first six articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

Evatt was supported by many other leaders including Eleanor Roosevelt, a US delegate and the widow of former US President Franklin D Roosevelt. Eleanor Roosevelt's speech to the United Nations General Assembly on 2 December 1948 impressed upon the world the need for action. Eight days later, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was ratified (endorsed) by the United Nations General Assembly.

The start of civil rights

Many historians argue that the Declaration of Human Rights set the scene for the civil rights struggles that would take place around the world in the coming decades. Germany was a developed economy with a functioning democracy before World War I, and yet, in less than a generation, it had become a fascist dictatorship where only the rights of certain people were protected. The fear was that unless action was taken in other places around the world to protect the human rights enshrined in the declaration, the same situation could once again develop elsewhere in the world.

The Australian context

Developments that took place in Australia from the 1960s can be seen as related to changes that were happening in a wider global context. Although Australia played a key role in arguing for the declaration on the world stage, the White Australia policy was still in force and was responsible for restricting the types of people arriving in Australia based on race and ethnicity.

At this time, there was only limited legal and public recognition of the rights of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. The acceptance of the rights contained in the Universal Declaration gave great encouragement to not only Indigenous Australians (see Source 3), but many other peoples whose access to basic human rights had been denied through war, conquest and colonisation.



Source 3 William Onus, President of the Australian Aborigines League, speaks at a meeting in the Domain, Sydney, 1949

Check your learning 5.6

Remember and understand

1 Why was it agreed a Universal Declaration of Human Rights was needed?
2 Who was General Secretary of the United Nations when the declaration was developed?
3 Who spoke in support of the declaration on 2 December 1948?
4 Which policy did Australia maintain despite the fact that it was against the spirit of the declaration?
5 What role did 'Doc' Evatt play in the creation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

Apply and analyse

6 Even though Australia had been involved in the development of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Australian government policy failed to reflect the principles within it. Explain how this was so.

Evaluate and create

7 Did Senator Alexander Matheson's comments (see Source 2 on page 121) support the need for the creation of a Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

5A rich task

The Stolen Generations

At different times during the last 200 years a range of laws, practices and policies in Australia have resulted in the forcible removal of Indigenous children from their families. Analysis of relevant primary sources reveals there were a range of justifications and motives for this tragic and unjust practice that had serious and long-term effects. The *Bringing Them Home* report has now ensured that the perspectives and stories of members of the Stolen Generations can be heard and understood by members of the Australian public.

In 1937, government representatives from each state and territory (except Tasmania) attended the first Commonwealth and State 'Aboriginal Welfare' Conference to discuss Indigenous issues. This was the first time such discussions were held at a national level. Source 1 is an extract from comments made by a Chief Protector at the conference.

Source 1

> If the coloured people of this country are to be absorbed into the general community they must be thoroughly fit and educated to at least the extent of the three R's. If they can read, write and count, and know what wages they should get, and how to enter into an agreement with an employer, that is all that should be necessary. Once that is accomplished there is no reason in the world why these coloured people should not be absorbed into the community. To achieve this end, however, we must have charge of the children at the age of six years; it is useless to wait until they are twelve or thirteen years of age. You cannot change a native after he has reached the age of puberty, but before that it is possible to mould him … In Western Australia we have power under the act to take any child from its mother at any stage of its life, no matter whether the mother be legally married or not … Although the children were illegitimate, the mothers were greatly attached to them, and did not wish to be parted from them. I adopted the practice of allowing the mothers to go to the institution with the children until they satisfied themselves that they were properly looked after. The mothers were then usually content to leave them there, and some eventually forgot all about them.
>
> Are we going to have a population of 1,000,000 blacks in the Commonwealth, or are we going to merge them into our white community and eventually forget that there ever were any aborigines in Australia?
>
> Extract from A O Neville, Chief Protector of Aborigines in Western Australia; taken from a speech delivered in 1937

Source 2

> It was winter 1957, seven o'clock in the morning. The sun was up and the sounds of birds drifted down into our small kitchen. My brother Lenny was sitting on the floor, eating toast; my brothers Murray and David and I, rubbing our eyes in a state of half sleep, were waiting for mum to smear Vegemite on our bread before we dressed for school. A routine day in the Simon household.
>
> Someone rapped loudly on the door. My mother didn't answer it. We hadn't heard anyone come up the path. The knocking got louder, and finally my mother, who was reluctant to answer any callers when my father wasn't home, opened the door and exchanged words with three people. We strained to hear what they were saying. Three men then entered the room.
>
> A man in a suit ordered my mother to pick up Lenny and give him to me. My mother started to scream. One of the policemen bent down and picked up my brother and handed him to me. My mother screamed and sobbed hysterically but the men took no notice, and forced my brothers and me into a car.
>
> My mother ran out onto the road, fell on her knees and belted her fists into the bitumen as she screamed. We looked back as the car drove off to see her hammering her fists into the road, the tears streaming down her face …
>
> An extract from the account of Bill Simon, an Aboriginal man who was forcibly removed from his family when he was 10 years old



Source 3 Crowds march down Bourke Street in Melbourne to mark Sorry Day on 26 May 2007. The first National Sorry Day was held on 26 May 1998 – one year after the tabling of the report *Bringing Them Home*, which was the result of an inquiry into the forced removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children, known as 'The Stolen Generations'.

skill**drill:** Continuity and change

Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different perspectives, points of view, attitudes and values. People who create sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs, their life experiences and the time in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when practising this skill:

Step 1 Identify a historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify the role or position of these people and/or groups in society.

Step 4 Locate primary sources that provide evidence about the point of view these people and/or groups had on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? Was it meant for one person's eyes, or for the public? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? What ideas were they trying to get across? Is the message explicit (obvious), or are there implicit (subtle) messages as well? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What about the silences – what does the author choose *not* to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? For example, do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? (Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology, etc). How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 Read Sources 1 and 2 and follow each of the steps outlined above to identify and analyse the perspectives of A O Neville and Bill Simon. Pay particular attention to the questions provided in Step 5 and make sure you consider these questions when analysing both of the written sources.

Extend your understanding

1 Look again at your list of individuals and/or groups involved in or affected by the practice of forcibly removing Indigenous children from their families and communities. Of these groups and individuals, whose perspectives are *not* represented within the three sources provided?

2 Conduct some research to locate additional primary source documents that help to illustrate the perspectives of these other groups or individuals. Identify and analyse these new perspectives, using the steps provided.

5.7 The US civil rights movement



Source 1 Martin Luther King Jnr waves to the crowd gathered for the March on Washington in 1963 in support of civil rights for African Americans

During the 1960s, the struggle for civil rights for African Americans gained worldwide attention. A series of events and significant individuals in the US civil rights movement would go on to inspire and influence civil rights campaigners in Australia. We will now explore some of these key events.

During World War II, considerable numbers of African Americans left the former slave-owning states in the south to work in war industries in California, Michigan and Pennsylvania. These states offered a better quality of life and more equality than the southern states. After the war, in 1948, **segregation** of black and white soldiers in the US army was officially abolished. Many African-American men had served in the war and many had died for their country. It was felt that they could no longer be denied their rightful place in their country and armed services.

In the southern states, segregation of the races had been legally enforced since the American Civil War ended in 1865. Following the action taken in the US



Source 2 A separate waiting area for African Americans at a bus station in the USA

army, the US Supreme Court began to rule against segregation generally. In 1954, the Supreme Court ruled that segregation in US schools was unconstitutional – meaning that it was illegal under US law. This ruling became famous as the *Brown vs the Board of Education* ruling. Although the Supreme Court found that segregation in schools was illegal, state governments, particularly in the south, continued to resist federal intervention.

The case of Emmett Till

In August 1955, a 14-year-old African-American boy called Emmett Till was murdered near the town of Money in Mississippi. He had been brutally beaten and shot after being accused of flirting with a white woman. His body was dumped in the Tallahatchie River. Before the funeral in his home city of Chicago, Till's mother displayed his body in an open casket. She wanted the world to see the brutality of his murder. The white men accused of his murder were found not guilty in a trial conducted before an all-white jury in Mississippi.

The two men charged later admitted to the murder in a magazine interview, knowing they could not be tried twice for the same crime. The death of Emmett Till became a major turning point for the civil rights movement. The 1957 *Civil Rights Act* came from the momentum generated by the Emmett Till case. The Act aimed to ensure that all African Americans could exercise their right to vote, as well as providing resources for ongoing monitoring of civil rights abuses. It also called for a government report on race relations.

The Emmett Till case became a symbol for the civil rights movement across the United States. Authors used the case in many books to challenge public racism, and in 1962 the famous musician Bob Dylan recorded a song called 'The Death of Emmett Till'. Till's death was a tragedy that inspired thousands to change American society.

Bus boycotts and segregation

At roughly the same time, African Americans across the country began to assert their demands for equality in a number of different ways. In 1955, Rosa Parks was arrested in Montgomery, Alabama, after refusing to give up her seat at the front of a bus for a white passenger. The arrest resulted in a boycott of the Montgomery bus service by African-American passengers, beginning in December 1955. One year later, the boycott ended when the City of Montgomery was ordered by the US Supreme Court to stop segregating black and white passengers on its bus services. This victory inspired further efforts to end segregation in America.



Source 3 Emmett Till's mother at his funeral in 1955



Source 4 Rosa Parks is fingerprinted following her arrest.

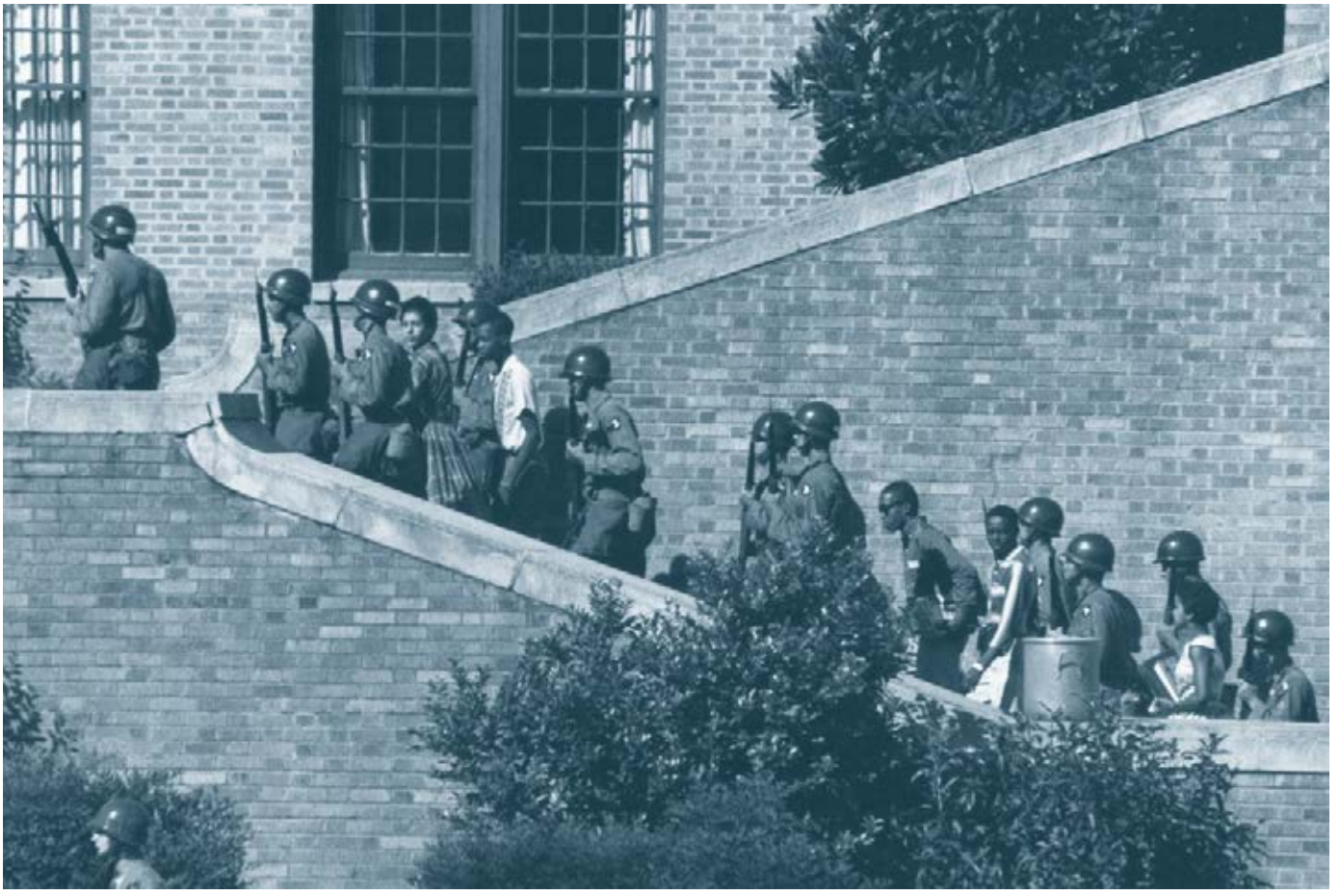
In 1957, nine African-American students tried to enrol in the all-white Little Rock Central High School in the state of Arkansas. Despite the 1954 Supreme Court ruling banning segregation of black and white children in schools, the Arkansas governor used armed officers to prevent the nine students from entering the school. They also had to face a white crowd threatening to hang them. President Dwight Eisenhower intervened, sending in the US army to allow the African-American students to enter the high school they were legally entitled to attend (see Source 5).

President John F Kennedy's inaugural address in 1961 inspired many African Americans. Among these was Mississippi student James Meredith who exercised his democratic right by attempting to enrol in the Oxford Campus of the University of Mississippi. This action prompted riots at the campus and threats from the **Ku Klux Klan**. The Ku Klux Klan is a group of white Protestants who have historically been opposed to rights for people of colour, Catholics, Jews and immigrants. The organisation has been responsible for many hate crimes. Eventually, President Kennedy was forced to bring in the US Marshals and the Mississippi National Guard to control the crowd. Two people were killed and hundreds of soldiers and protesters were injured. Despite these violent protests, James Meredith was eventually enrolled.

The Freedom Riders

The US Freedom Riders was a group of activists who wanted to test the effect of the US Supreme Court's 1960 decision to end racial discrimination on public transport. The first group of Freedom Riders (seven African Americans and six white Americans) boarded public buses from Washington to the southern states of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana. The riders' strategy was a simple one. They would sit side by side, black and white, and at least one black rider would sit in the front section, previously reserved for 'white' passengers. They ate in restaurants together and ignored segregation signs when using toilets and drinking fountains.

The Freedom Riders' journeys were interrupted by frequent mob attacks – usually organised by the Ku Klux Klan – and arrests by southern law enforcement officers on various charges. Once in jail, the riders would sing freedom songs as a continued protest and,



Source 5 The Little Rock Nine entering Little Rock Central High School under the protection of the US army

in some cases, were released simply because the police could not stand the singing. When the county jails were full, a number of Freedom Riders were transferred to the Mississippi State Penitentiary, put into maximum-security units and denied many basic rights.

The riders also faced difficulty seeking medical treatment after their frequent beatings by the mobs and law enforcement officers. This racist brutality was one of the reasons that many other Freedom Riders joined the campaign over the course of the summer of 1961. After pressure from Dr Martin Luther King Jnr and other leading activists, Attorney General Robert Kennedy intervened. In September 1961, he insisted that states comply with federal desegregation laws.



Source 6 Freedom Riders sitting on board an interstate bus escorted by Mississippi National Guardsmen (a reserve military force of the US army)

These victories resulted largely from the courage of ordinary US citizens, brave enough to participate in the civil rights struggle. They also helped to make leaders such as Martin Luther King household names. King went on to be acknowledged as the main leader of the American civil rights movement (see 5.8 Significant individual: Dr Martin Luther King Jnr).

In 1963, King led the March on Washington, which was attended by 250 000 people, many of whom demanded an end to segregation. King redefined the rights movement. While the US Supreme Court had delivered a legal plan for desegregation, King's famous 'I have a dream' speech delivered at the March on Washington was a moral plan for change.

After President Kennedy's assassination in November 1963, President Lyndon Johnson accepted the challenge that Martin Luther King's success had created. On 2 July 1964, the US Congress enacted the *Civil Rights Act*, which outlawed discrimination based on race or gender. It was landmark legislation, but the challenge of changing racist attitudes among members of the general public still remained.

Check your learning 5.7

Remember and understand

1 What was the *Brown vs Board of Education* case? Why was it so significant in the US?
2 What happened to Emmett Till?
3 In which state did the US army get called in to help African-American students attend an all-white high school?
4 In what year was the *Civil Rights Act* passed by US Congress?

Apply and analyse

5 Explain what the Freedom Riders hoped to achieve, and by what means.

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct research about Rosa Parks, and create a short PowerPoint presentation that provides information about her life, characteristics as a person and contribution she made to the American civil rights movement.

5.8 Significant individual: Dr Martin Luther King Jnr

Martin Luther King Jnr was born in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1929. As a student he engaged in civil rights debates and followed the peaceful resistance methods of Mahatma Gandhi with interest. By 1954, King was pastor of the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama.

After Rosa Parks was arrested for not giving up her bus seat to a white man, King became a leader of the Montgomery Bus Boycott, a significant and successful protest against segregation. King was arrested during this protest and his house was attacked. He used his success with the bus boycott to help establish the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, which became one of the most important groups of the growing civil rights movement.



Source 1 Dr Martin Luther King Jnr

King's book about the Montgomery Bus Boycott, *Stride toward Freedom,* gave direction to the civil rights movement. It inspired protests against segregation across the USA, including the sit-in at a Woolworth's lunch counter by black students and, more famously, the Freedom Riders. King also lobbied candidates for the 1960 presidential election and achieved significant political influence, despite many trying to accuse him of being a communist. The Director of the FBI, J Edgar Hoover, was particularly opposed to King, and used his influence to try and undermine him.

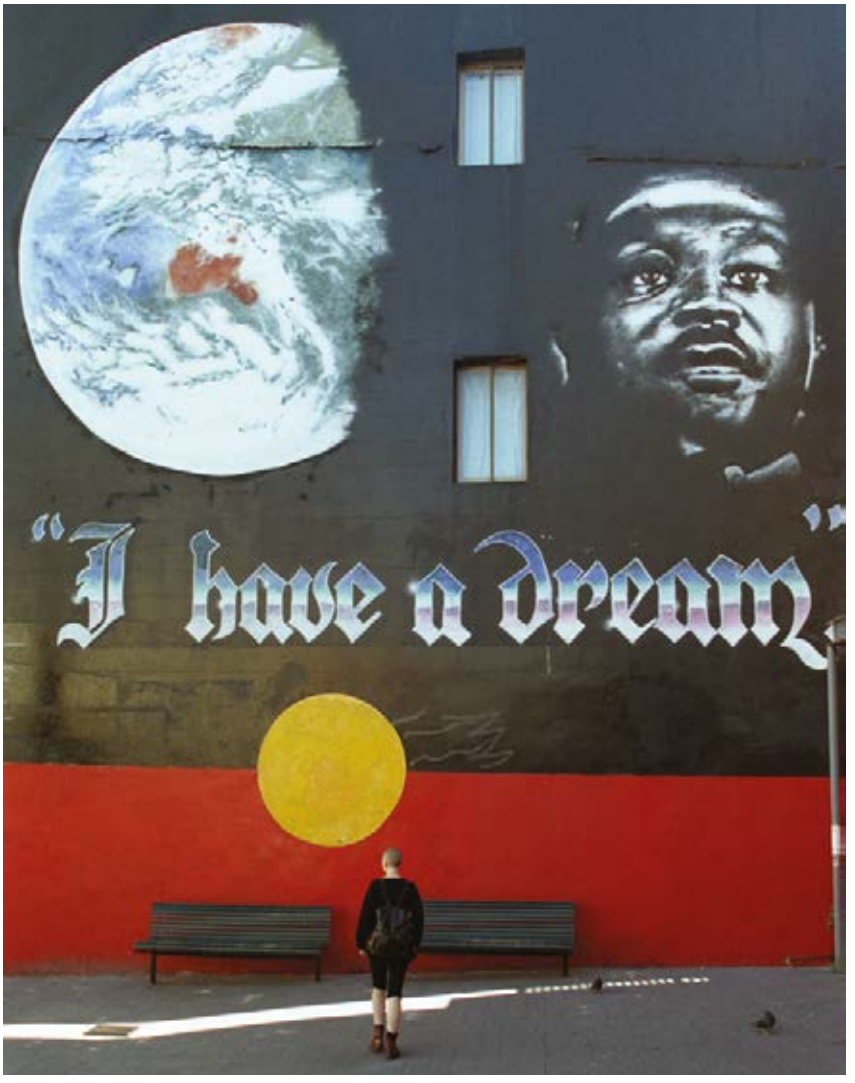
King's major impact was delivering his 'I have a dream' speech at the March on Washington rally on 28 August 1963. King was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for his work towards ending segregation in 1964, the same year that the US Congress passed the *Civil Rights Act*.

The *Civil Rights Act* was a turning point in race relations in the USA, but King felt there was still much to achieve. He worked to establish support among the poor African Americans in the north. Although equality may have been guaranteed by federal law, social and economic equality still had to be fought for. King also led opposition to the Vietnam War, arguing, 'we have been repeatedly faced with the cruel irony of watching Negro and white boys on TV screens as they kill and die together for a nation that has been unable to seat them in the same schools'.

King was campaigning for striking garbage workers in Memphis, Tennessee, when he was assassinated on 4 April 1968 at the age of 39. The assassin was a white man, James Earl Ray, who was arrested in London two months later, on his way to white-dominated Rhodesia (now known as Zimbabwe). President Johnson declared 7 April a national day of mourning.

After campaigning by activists, including singer Stevie Wonder, President Ronald Reagan created a public holiday for King in 1986. By 2000, every American state recognised the third Monday of January as Martin Luther King Day and a public holiday.

King's dream, as he explained in Washington in 1963, was 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."' King's legacy of non-violent resistance became an ongoing inspiration, not only for the American civil rights movement, but also Australia's. King's reputation was international, and activists such as Charles Perkins and the Australian Freedom Riders looked to him for inspiration.



Source 2 A mural in Newtown, Sydney, shows King alongside the Aboriginal flag. He has influenced civil rights groups worldwide, including here in Australia.

Check your learning 5.8

Remember and understand

1. Why was Rosa Parks' action in refusing to give up her bus seat to a white person significant in Martin Luther King's career?
2. Who was the Director of the FBI who was so opposed to King's views?
3. Where did the 'I have a dream' speech take place?
4. Why was King in Memphis when he was assassinated?

Apply and analyse

5. What actions and beliefs of King's do you think would inspire Indigenous Australians and their supporters?
6. Why was King such a significant figure in the US civil rights movement?

5.9 Australia's civil rights movement



Source 1 Vincent Lingiari

Australia's Aboriginal rights leaders in the 1960s inherited a movement that had evolved from the Day of Mourning protests a generation before. The success of the US civil rights movement also inspired many non-Indigenous Australians to fight for greater equality for Aborigines.

By the 1960s, Indigenous Australians had a life expectancy almost 20 years less than non-Indigenous Australians. In 1959, the government agreed to provide welfare payments to Aborigines under the *Social Services Act*, though the Act required that these payments be paid to a third party. In 1962, all Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders were given the right to vote in federal elections. In 1968, they achieved equal pay with other Australians. Unfortunately this had some unintended consequences. Until that time, most Aboriginal workers had only been receiving half the minimum wage paid to white Australians. In some areas, particularly in farming communities, some Aborigines were sacked because their bosses could not afford to pay the higher wages.

Despite these legislative changes, racist attitudes towards Aborigines were still prominent in society. As in the United States, the small steps of some brave individuals created a momentum for genuine change.

The Wave Hill walk-off

Arguably, one of the most significant turning points in the struggle for Indigenous rights was the Wave Hill Station walk-off. The walk-off on 23 August 1966 was initially in response to the British Vestey Company's refusal to pay the Gurindji farm workers wages of $25.00 per week. The Commonwealth had granted 'equal pay' to Aboriginal workers a year earlier, but there was little evidence that companies were complying with the new law, and the Wave Hill workers chose to take a stand.

The walk-off highlighted the entrenched discrimination that existed in Australian society. But it also brought attention to the issue that would become central to Aboriginal claims for the next two generations – land rights.

Vincent Lingiari, who entered public life dramatically when he led the Gurindji people in the walk-off, quickly ensured that this protest had a more fundamental goal – returning traditional lands. Lingiari and other Gurindji leaders petitioned the Governor General in 1967, arguing that morally the land was theirs and should be returned to them. This claim was refused by the Governor General.

In 1971, a song called 'The Gurindji Blues' was written and released by white folk artist Ted Egan. It was created in response to the Wave Hill walk-off. The lyrics of the song supported the fight for acceptance of the Gurindji people. It features the voice of Galarrwuy Yunupingu and is introduced by Vincent Lingiari.

Although the song received very little radio play due to racist attitudes of the time, it continued the battle for recognition of the rights of the Gurindji people.

The walk-off finally ended in 1973, and in 1975 one of the decisive moments in Indigenous Australian history took place. Prime Minister Gough Whitlam symbolically poured earth into Vincent Lingiari's hand as he handed over 3300 square kilometres of land to the Gurindji people (see Source 2). The *Aboriginal Land Rights* (Northern Territory) *Act 1976* granted the Gurindji and other Aboriginal tribes in the Northern Territory title to some of their traditional land. For the

first time, a specific group of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples had recognition of their connection to their land.

The story of the Wave Hill struggle has become a part of Australian popular culture. Indigenous singer Kev Carmody and white singer Paul Kelly wrote the song 'From Little Things Big Things Grow' as a tribute to the pioneering campaign of Vincent Lingiari.



Source 2 Lingiari and Gough Whitlam, 1975

The Australian Freedom Riders

The Australian Freedom Riders who toured regional New South Wales in early 1965 had a similar agenda to their American Freedom Rider comrades. The tour began as a fact-finding mission by a group officially known as Student Action for Aborigines, and ended as a genuine protest against segregation across Australia. The students were mostly non-Aboriginal and had been involved in organised protests in Sydney. Many of them probably did not know what to expect.

The Freedom Riders were led by a man called Charles Perkins. Perkins modelled the Australian rides on the 1961 American Freedom Rides. He took a bus into parts of rural New South Wales where racist attitudes were most prominent. The Australian Freedom Riders left Sydney on 12 February 1965 and headed initially for Wellington and Gulargambone (see Source 3).

Walgett and Moree

In Walgett, Aborigines were banned from entering the town's Returned and Services League (RSL) Club. This 'home' of the Anzac spirit was a symbolic target for the Freedom Riders who protested outside the club (see Source 4). The actions of the Freedom Riders angered some in the town and their bus was run off the road as they left.

In Moree, Aborigines were banned from swimming in the council swimming pool. The Freedom Riders staged protests at the Town Hall and the local swimming pool – ensuring that Aboriginal children could enter the swimming pool alongside their non-Aboriginal peers. Again, the Freedom Riders were attacked by up to 500 locals and were forced to leave town. By this stage, the Freedom Rides were being followed closely by journalists (including television reporters), and as a result their protests were known countrywide.

NEW SOUTH WALES: THE ROUTE TAKEN BY THE AUSTRALIAN FREEDOM RIDERS



Source 3 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 4 Freedom Riders protesting outside the RSL Club in Walgett

While the Australian Freedom Rides did not stop these racist actions, they highlighted the practice to millions of urban Australians who were not aware that this type of discrimination was common in many Australian country towns. The media coverage they attracted helped develop a movement for further change. As Australians moved towards a referendum to include Aboriginal people in the **census** and enable the Commonwealth to deliver direct services to Aboriginal people, the media played an important role in the Indigenous rights campaign.

The 1967 referendum

In 1967, the Liberal government of Harold Holt had rejected the land rights claim of the Gurindji people at Wave Hill in the Northern Territory. However, recognising that there were inequalities to address, Holt called a **referendum** seeking authority to count Aborigines in the Australian census that same year. The referendum would also allow the federal government to legislate for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples rather than leaving this to different state governments.

All major political parties supported the proposal. The referendum was the most successful ever passed, with more than 90 per cent of Australians agreeing to the proposal (see Source 6). (However, the 'Yes' vote was closer to 80 per cent in Queensland and far lower in some rural areas.) In Australian political history, this was an extraordinary result. Between 1901 and 2011 there have been 44 referendums, of which only eight have been carried.

As in all referendums, campaigns were organised and leaders mobilised to explain the reasons for and against change (see Source 5). By 1967, 87 per cent of households owned a television, so in addition to the traditional poster and newspaper campaigns of previous referendums, voters could actually watch the debate take place on their televisions.

During the lead-up to the referendum, both major political parties publicly endorsed the 'Yes' case and the Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI) arranged a number of public actions in Canberra and the capital cities to promote the cause. The churches were also big supporters.

One of the main issues of discrepancy was the confusion that was created by having different state laws. Indigenous Australians, who were acting within the law in New South Wales, could be arrested for doing the same thing in Queensland. Others voted 'Yes' because there was a view that resources for Aboriginal people, including welfare, would be more readily available if delivered by the Commonwealth. A more conservative argument related to the inclusion of Aboriginal people in the census – people simply thought it was fair that Aboriginal people be counted as human beings in the Commonwealth of Australia.

Contrary to popular belief, this referendum did not 'give Aborigines the vote'. That right had already been granted in all states by an Act of Parliament in 1962. In fact, between 8000 and 10000 Aboriginal people voted in the referendum.

Many Indigenous leaders today question the success of the referendum in changing attitudes. Mick Dodson, an Indigenous leader and member of the Yawuru people of north-west Australia, expressed concerns that when native title was being debated in federal parliament in the late 1990s, few Aboriginal leaders were even consulted – even after 30 years of public land rights campaigns.



Source 5 Campaigning for 'Yes' in the 1967 Referendum

Source 6 Referendum results by state

State	YES		NO		Informal (invalid votes)
	votes	%	votes	%	
New South Wales	1 949 036	91.46%	182 010	8.54%	3 461
Victoria	1 525 026	94.68%	85 611	5.32%	19 957
Queensland	748 612	89.21%	85 611	10.79%	9 529
South Australia	473 440	86.26%	75 383	13.74%	12 021
Western Australia	319 823	80.95%	75 282	19.05%	10 561
Tasmania	167 176	90.21%	18 134	9.79%	3 935
Total for Commonwealth	5 163 113	90.77%	527 007	9.23%	91 464

Check your learning 5.9

Remember and understand

1 On which Indigenous people's land was the Wave Hill Station?
2 Which prime minister ceremonially gave the land to its Indigenous inhabitants?
3 Who led the Australian Freedom Riders?
4 How were the Australian Freedom Riders received by rural Australians in 1965?
5 What did the 1967 Referendum achieve?

Apply and analyse

6 Search for the lyrics to 'From Little Things Big Things Grow' by Kev Carmody and Paul Kelly, and 'Gurindji Blues' by Ted Egan featuring Galarrwuy Yunupingu. Looking at the content of the songs, what do the two songs have in common?

Evaluate and create

7 Write a diary entry from the perspective of one of the students on the Freedom Ride of 1965. Make sure you describe:
   a your motivation for joining the Freedom Riders
   b what you hoped the Freedom Ride might achieve
   c some of your key experiences, for example in the Moree baths.

5.10 Land rights: a continuing struggle

The Indigenous struggle for land rights has a long and important history in Australia. Throughout the 19th century, the 'frontiers' of British settlement continued to expand onto Aboriginal land almost without restriction. The concept of *terra nullius* established at the time of British settlement, and reinforced by the declaration of Governor Bourke in 1835, ensured that there would be no recognition of Aboriginal rights to land. Early farmers leased large amounts of land, including traditional Aboriginal land, from the Crown (British government) and white occupation of the land equated to ownership.

However, there is some evidence that this situation was challenged from time to time. From the 1840s onwards, the British Colonial Office wanted the Australian colonies to give formal recognition to native title and to grant rights for Aborigines to share rural lands. Farmers and their allies rejected this. In the 1870s, Indigenous groups in parts of New South Wales petitioned for their right to own farming land.



Source 1 The Tent Embassy in 1972

The challenges faced by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples were immense. The 1970s offered some hope for activists. The Whitlam Government was elected in 1972 and announced **self-determination** as the framework for Aboriginal Affairs policy. This introduced the idea that Aboriginal people were best placed to determine what happened to them and their lands. This approach put an end to applications for mining licences on Commonwealth Aboriginal Reserves – but only for a short time. In 1976, after Gough Whitlam had left office, the Fraser Government passed the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act*, which officially granted land title to the Gurindji and other tribes in the Northern Territory. This represented the beginning of a powerful shift in the Indigenous rights movement.

While these power shifts provided some hope to Aboriginal people, Indigenous leaders knew they still had a long way to go. State governments continued to negotiate directly with mining companies to grant leases without consulting traditional land owners. The civil rights movement and land rights campaigns of the 1960s and 1970s laid the basis for great change, but many issues remained unresolved.

Tent embassy

Before Whitlam's election, an Aboriginal Tent Embassy was established on the lawn in front of the Australian Parliament in 1972 (see Source 1), where it has remained in order to keep the issue of Aboriginal rights in the public eye.

The embassy was erected in response to the slow progress being made on Aboriginal land rights. The 1967 referendum had delivered administrative responsibility for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander

peoples to the Commonwealth, but many felt that there still needed to be an acknowledgement of traditional ownership. In particular, radical 'black' groups, such as 'Black Power', considered militancy to be the next step. For a short time, an Australian branch of the Black Panthers (a militant activist group based in the United States) operated in Melbourne and Sydney.

Key figures of the embassy, including Roberta (Bobbi) Sykes, Gary Foley and Michael Anderson, established the Tent Embassy in the middle of the night on Australia Day in 1972. As well as highlighting significant symbolic goals, the embassy leaders had a list of practical demands that they wanted to negotiate. These included:

- legal and title rights to land currently being mined
- the preservation of all sacred sites
- compensation for lands not returnable – a $6 billion down payment plus an annual percentage of gross national income.

The demands were rejected and the police removed the tents and arrested a number of activists.

Over the next five years, the embassy was erected, demolished and re-erected several times until Charles Perkins negotiated its temporary removal on the promise of action on land rights. In that time, a number of commitments by the Commonwealth led many to believe that progress was being made. Whitlam established a significant bureaucracy to support Aboriginal welfare and land rights claims and Fraser passed the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976*.

The Tent Embassy was re-established on the grounds of Old Parliament House in 1992, where it continues to remind the nation of the ongoing issues relating to reconciliation.



Source 2 The Tent Embassy was re-established in 1992 and remains in place today.

key**concept:** Significance

The Aboriginal flag

In 1971, Aboriginal artist Harold Thomas designed the Aboriginal flag. The colours of the flag have been interpreted in different ways. The black is seen as either representing Aboriginal people or the night sky. The red is seen as either representing the red earth or the Aboriginal blood that was shed when the Europeans arrived. The yellow is usually interpreted as representing the sun.

The flag is one of the most significant symbols of Aboriginal rights because it is so powerful visually and provides a single banner under which all Aboriginal nations can unite. The flag was flown when the Tent Embassy was set up in Canberra on 26 January 1972. The embassy sought to draw attention to wrongs carried out against Aboriginal people and air their grievances. It did so successfully. One of its placards linked it to land rights, reading: 'White Australia you are living on stolen land'.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 3 The Aboriginal flag

Mabo decision and *Native Title Act*

In June 1992, a group of Torres Strait Islander people led by activist Eddie Mabo won a historic land rights case in the High Court of Australia. The judgment meant that the Islanders had a right to their traditional land because they had been the original owners before European settlement. The court ruled that **native title** may apply to all claims to land that had not been sold or given away; in other words, **Crown land** (land considered to belong to the state). The ruling stated that 'there may be other areas of Australia where an Aboriginal people maintaining their identity and their customs are entitled to enjoy their native title'.

In December 1993, the government passed the *Native Title Act* to place the *Mabo* decision in Australian law. The *Native Title Act* also addressed some concerns of non-Indigenous Australians who felt their ownership of property could be challenged as a result – it confirmed land ownership for those who had purchased property. It also declared that future native title claimants must prove that Indigenous people had an unbroken link with the land in question. The federal government established a National Native Title Tribunal and developed a research process that was necessary before a native title application could be made. This was done to reassure groups such as landowners and miners who feared that their titles or claims might be taken from them.

key concept: Significance

Eddie Mabo

Eddie Koiki Mabo was a Torres Strait Islander born in 1936 on Mer Island (known as Murray Island in the Torres Strait). His mother died shortly after his birth and he was adopted by his mother's brother, Benny Mabo, and his wife.

Mabo learned from a young age that he would inherit his father Benny's land and he knew exactly where the boundaries were by looking at land features, trees and rocks. After breaking Island law as a teenager, Eddie was exiled and it was many years before he returned to his land.

On the mainland, he worked on pearling boats and on the railways. He became involved in the trade union movement and began speaking out for Aboriginal people. A few years after marrying Bonita Neehow at 23, he secured a job as a gardener at James Cook University in Townsville, where he began to read and attend lectures.

When the 1981 Land Rights Conference was held at James Cook University, Eddie Mabo made an important speech about his ownership of land on Mer Island. He was immediately encouraged to test his ownership claims in the courts. When he told the people of Mer Island they were very supportive, and a 10-year legal battle began with Eddie as the leader. In particular, the Mer Islanders were challenging the legal concept of *terra nullius*.

The case was known as *Mabo v Queensland* and, in the course of proceedings, officials of the Queensland Supreme Court visited Mer Island to clarify details of Mabo's claim. He was able to show the judges (and the media) exactly where his land started and finished.



Source 4 Eddie Mabo on Mer Island

The legal battle took a toll on Eddie Mabo's health. In 1991, he became ill and in January 1992 he died of cancer. The High Court of Australia ruled in favour of Mabo five months later. His name has become linked with the most important legal judgment for Indigenous Australians in the 20th century. When his body was reburied on Mer Island after his grave in Townsville had been vandalised, he was given a chief's ceremony, which had not been seen in the islands for 80 years.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.

The Wik decision

In 1996, the question of native title on pastoral leases was raised and investigated in the High Court of Australia in the Wik case. Pastoral leases are unique to Australia as they allow publicly owned land to be used by farmers and graziers but do not grant them sole tenure. As these leases account for 42 per cent of the Australian land mass, it was a major issue in the land rights campaigns.

The Wik people of Cape York argued in court that native title could exist alongside a current or defunct pastoral lease. The court agreed but stressed that where pastoralists' rights and Indigenous rights were in conflict, the rights of the pastoralist would prevail. The court pointed out that pastoralists had the exclusive right to pasture but not exclusive rights to the possession of land.

Because of criticism and concern expressed by pastoralists and conservative leaders, the Howard Government introduced a Native Title Amendment Bill in 1997. This legislation effectively extinguished native title, not only on pastoral land but also on most other Crown land. The United Nations Committee for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination demanded that Australia explain its stance. Australia was the first Western nation to have to explain its human rights position to this UN committee.



Source 5 Mabo decision in 1992 – High Court celebrations

Check your learning 5.10

Remember and understand

1. Who was prime minister when the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act* was introduced in 1976? What did this Act mean for Indigenous people?
2. When was the Tent Embassy first established?
3. What was the purpose of the Tent Embassy? List the key demands.
4. Where was Eddie Mabo's traditional land?
5. What was the High Court's ruling in the Wik case?
6. What do the colours on the Aboriginal flag symbolise?

Evaluate and create

7. The Mabo case represents one of the most significant moments in Australian history. Explain why this is so.
8. Research the Torres Strait Islander flag and its history. Prepare a brief presentation for the class using PowerPoint or Prezi. Be sure to explain the origins of the flag, the symbolism in the design, and any significant individuals who had a role in the development of the flag, up to its final acceptance as a flag of Australia.

5.11 Towards reconciliation

The concept of **reconciliation** is best understood as a continuing process and not a single event. It is the way in which Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians can come together and share common goals as unified Australians. The acceptance of the 1967 referendum, a bipartisan commitment to land rights in the mid-1970s and the passage of the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976* saw the Gurundji people achieve land recognition. These events were seen as steps towards genuine reconciliation.

These small successes paved the way for more organised and consistent efforts to acknowledge the wrongs committed by governments and individuals against Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the past.

ATSIC and Indigenous rights movements

The Hawke Government established the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) in March 1990. ATSIC was an elected body selected by Indigenous Australians. It was designed to be an organisation through which all Indigenous peoples could be formally involved in government processes. It was also seen as a first step towards Aboriginal self-determination – that is, Aboriginal people taking control of their own affairs.

ATSIC was to have both representative and executive roles, with 35 regional offices and a budget. The Hawke Government saw it as an important vehicle for managing Aboriginal affairs.

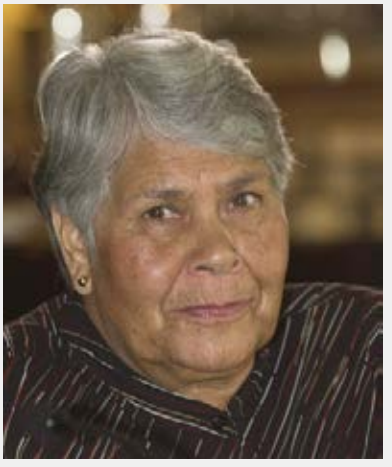
The *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission Act 1989* was passed by the Parliament in early November. Its objectives were designed to ensure full participation by Aboriginal people in decision making:

- to ensure maximum participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in government policy formulation and implementation
- to promote Indigenous self-management and self-sufficiency
- to further Indigenous economic, social and cultural development

key concept: Significance

Lowitja O'Donoghue

Lowitja O'Donoghue, who was born in 1932, was taken away from her mother at the age of two and did not see her again for 33 years. She never knew her father, who was white and of Irish descent. O'Donoghue grew up away from her community in Indulkana, South Australia (Granite Downs Station). She struggled to become a nurse after winning admission to the nursing school at the Royal Adelaide Hospital, where she was the first Indigenous Australian to qualify. She worked as a public servant in Aboriginal Affairs, first in South Australia and then for the Commonwealth. Since that time, she has been involved in various senior positions, gaining a voice for the Indigenous people of Australia. She was the founding chairperson of ATSIC and co-chairperson of the Australian Citizen's Parliament.



Source 1 Lowitja O'Donoghue

For her work, she was awarded an Order of Australia in 1976, when she became the first Indigenous woman to receive this award. She became a Commander of the Order of the British Empire in 1983. In 1984, she was named Australian of the Year. In 1992, at the launch of the United Nations International Year of Indigenous People, O'Donoghue was the first Australian Aboriginal person to address the UN General Assembly. Since then, she has been further honoured by awards of the Companion of the Order of Australia in 1999 and the Papal Award (Dame of the Order of St Gregory) in 2005. Prime Minister Kevin Rudd stood with O'Donoghue beside him as he made the nation's apology on Sorry Day, 13 February 2008.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 2 Aboriginal people protesting against the abolition of ATSIC

- to ensure coordination of Commonwealth, state, territory and local government policy affecting Indigenous people.

By the early 2000s, however, criticism was growing in regard to what was seen as a lack of achievements by ATSIC for Aboriginal communities. Some felt that there were problems due to the structure of ATSIC and that the Western democratic process did not sit easily with traditional Indigenous values, where family group relationships are most important.

Lowitja O'Donoghue, first chairperson of ATSIC (see Source 1), described the problems this way: 'You elect your own mob [and they] vote for funding for their own mob rather than those who have the greater need … What I've always said is, "We're dealing here with taxpayers' money. This is a white fella organisation, not a black fella one. And so we've got to operate in a different way." That's the dilemma.'

But ATSIC was also constrained in regard to its funding. In 2003–04, ATSIC only received 46 per cent of the total budgeted Commonwealth expenditure for Indigenous affairs. ATSIC was not given responsibility for the areas of health care, social security or education. This severely limited what ATSIC could achieve.

In its last few years, the majority of ATSIC's budget was spent on economic development programs, including the Community Development Employment Project (CDEP) scheme. Supporters saw it as providing genuine work for young Indigenous people who chose to live in traditional communities. Others were concerned that it could never deliver the skills training and economic benefits that it set out to.

Following continued concerns over mismanagement and funding discrepancies, ATSIC was abolished in 2004 by the Howard Government. The CDEP continued to operate, although a number of CDEP programs were abolished in 2007 as part of the Howard Government's 'intervention'.

Check your learning 5.11

Remember and understand

1 What was ATSIC? Who established it, and when?
2 What was the main objective of the *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission Act 1989*?
3 List some of Lowitja O'Donoghue's main achievements.

Apply and analyse

4 Explain what reconciliation means in an Australian political sense.
5 Explain why criticism of ATSIC began in the early 2000s. What other factors were responsible for limiting ATSIC's achievements?
6 Why do you think Kevin Rudd asked Lowitja O'Donoghue to stand next to him at the Sorry Day ceremony?

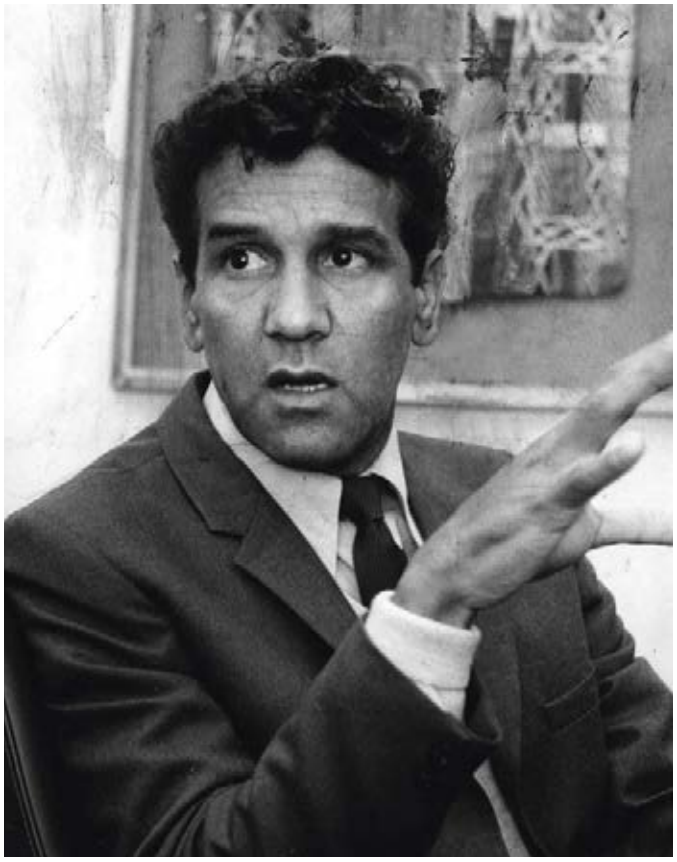
Evaluate and create

7 Did Kevin Rudd's apology in 2008 mean that reconciliation had been achieved in Australia? Explain your response.

5B rich task

Charles Perkins: a significant individual

In 1965, Charles Perkins was the first Aboriginal person to graduate from an Australian university, receiving a Bachelor of Arts from the University of Sydney. A former professional soccer player with a charismatic personality, he became one of the most important Australian Aboriginal activists and leaders. His involvement in the Australian Freedom Ride through New South Wales in the 1960s played a significant role in bringing to attention the racial discrimination that was so rife in rural Australia.



Source 1 Charles Perkins as a Commonwealth Public Servant in 1974

skill**drill:** Historical significance

Create and deliver an audiovisual presentation

It is likely that as part of your school work, you have already created many PowerPoint presentations. You may have also tried out some other audiovisual presentation software, such as Prezi, which is freely available on the Internet. Whichever program you choose, it is important to use it effectively, and avoid the common problems of these types of presentations. Use the following steps to help you avoid these typical problems.

Step 1 Design your presentation

- Plan your presentation carefully so it has a clear beginning, middle and end.
- Make sure you present the content in clear, concise bullet-point form, *not* huge slabs of information in paragraph form.
- Do not just fill up your PowerPoint with heaps of random pictures that are only loosely related to the content. Include visuals that relate to the content on that particular slide. Make sure each visual is accompanied by a caption that explains why it is relevant to the presentation.
- A common mistake is to have objects and texts moving on the screen in a way that distracts the audience. Use graphics, sound, video, animations and transitions *only* if they add value to the point being made, not just because you think it will look good.
- Use a design that ensures your audience can clearly see and read the slides. Make sure there is enough contrast between the text colour and the background colour on the slide, and make sure your font size is large enough.

Step 2 Deliver your presentation

- When delivering an audiovisual presentation to an audience, do not merely stand up and read out the text on each slide. Rather, talk in a way that develops and expands upon the points on each slide. Carefully plan in advance what you are going to talk about during each slide. Record this plan on cue cards, and refer to these cue cards during your speech to remind you of what to say.
- Remember: one thing at a time. At any moment, what is on the screen should be the thing that you are talking about. Your audience will quickly read every

slide as soon as it is displayed. If there are four points on the slide, they'll have read all four points while you are still talking about the first point. Plan your presentation so just one new point is displayed at any given moment. Click to go to the next point only when you are ready to talk about that next point.

- Speak clearly – not too fast, not too slow. Vary your tone and pitch to make your presentation more interesting.
- Make eye contact with different members of your audience. Do *not* just look down at your cue cards.

Apply the skill

1 Prepare and deliver an audiovisual presentation about Charles Perkins and his role in achieving change for Indigenous people in Australia.

Use the following questions to guide you:

- **a** What was Perkins' childhood like and how did this motivate him with regard to his later activism?
- **b** What were some of his sporting and academic achievements?
- **c** What was the Australian Freedom Ride and what was Perkins' role in it?
- **d** How was he influenced by the American Freedom Riders?
- **e** What were some key features of his political career in the years after the Freedom Ride?

2 Your presentation should be well researched and based on relevant and reliable sources. For detailed information on this skill, refer to Section 1.4 of 'The history toolkit'.

Extend your understanding

1 As you listen to the presentations of your classmates, complete a peer assessment. Use Source 2 as a guide. You could create a pro forma and ask your teacher to photocopy several copies so that you can complete one for each presentation you listen to.

2 Give each classmate your completed peer assessment. Collect the peer assessments that your classmates completed as they listened to your presentation. Read their feedback, and then complete a short self-assessment by responding to the following questions:

- **a** What did I do well in terms of my presentation design?
- **b** What could I improve in terms of my presentation design?
- **c** What did I do well in terms of my oral presentation?
- **d** What could I improve in terms of my oral presentation?

Source 2 Peer assessment form

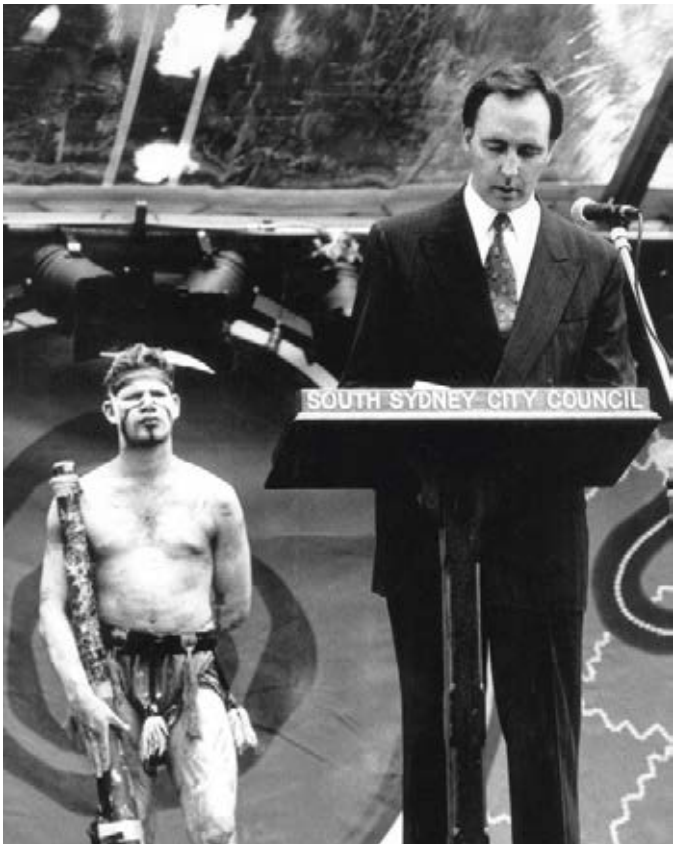
Name of presenter:	*Name of person completing peer assessment:*
Component of presentation:	*What did the presenter do well in this regard?*
	What could the presenter improve upon in this regard?
Presentation design	
Oral presentation	

5.12 Two speeches, two perspectives

Civil rights remains a divisive and contentious issue for some people to this day. This division, and the different positions taken by political parties in Australia over the years are clearly reflected in two major speeches made by two different prime ministers in Australia during the 1990s.

The Redfern Park speech

Six months after the Mabo decision – in December 1992 – Prime Minister Paul Keating launched Australia into what the United Nations had declared the 'International Year of the World's Indigenous People'. Keating spoke to a mainly Indigenous audience in the Sydney suburb of Redfern (see Source 1). Keating's speech is now seen as one of the most significant delivered by an Australian prime minister on Indigenous issues. It challenged Australians to imagine what it would have been like if they had experienced such injustices. It kept the reconciliation debate alive by keeping the issue in the public eye.



Source 1 Paul Keating giving his Redfern Park speech in December 1992

It was historic because it was the first time an Australian prime minister had publicly acknowledged the injustices Indigenous people had experienced because of past policies. The speech was written by one of Keating's main speechwriters, Don Watson. In 2007, Radio National listeners voted the Redfern Park speech as the third most unforgettable speech in history, behind those of Martin Luther King and Jesus.

Official recognition

Perhaps the most powerful moment of the speech was when Keating said: '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.'

They were the words many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples never thought they would hear from an Australian prime minister.

It was thought the Redfern Park speech heralded a major breakthrough on the path to reconciliation by honestly recognising the injustices of Australia's past.

Rejection of an official apology

In 1997, Prime Minister John Howard rejected the idea that an official apology to Indigenous people was needed. During his term as prime minister, John Howard made it clear that no apology would be made to Australia's Indigenous people for the past actions of non-Indigenous people or to groups such as the Stolen Generations.

Contrary to this view, a groundswell of opinion saw state premiers offering such apologies. Queensland started the process with a parliamentary apology on 26 May 1997. Western Australia followed on 27 May, South Australia on 28 May, the ACT on 17 June, New South Wales on 18 June, Tasmania on 13 August, Victoria on 17 August and the Northern Territory on 28 October 2001.



Source 2 John Howard's speech at the Reconciliation Convention upset some delegates who responded by turning their backs on him.

The federal government, however, did speak of reconciliation. On 26 August 1999, John Howard said that Parliament expressed '… its deep and sincere regret that Indigenous Australians suffered injustices under the practices of past generations, and for the hurt and trauma that many Indigenous people continue to feel as a consequence of those practices'.

The leader of the Opposition, Kim Beazley, spoke emotively of the need to '… unreservedly [apologise] to Indigenous Australians for the injustice they have suffered, and for the hurt and trauma that many Indigenous people continue to suffer as a consequence of this injustice'.

Prime Minister Howard and other conservative political and social leaders argued that previous generations were responsible for the experience of Australia's Aboriginal peoples. An apology was therefore not necessary from members of today's society and would place 'blame' on those who were not responsible. They also argued that the intent of those who initiated the actions or events was good, even if the result was damaging.

The Australian Reconciliation Convention

In May 1997, Howard gave a speech at the Australian Reconciliation Convention in Melbourne. This was designed to celebrate the 30 years since the famous referendum of 1967. The aim was to achieve reconciliation by 2001. As prime minister, Howard was to deliver the keynote address. His stance against a formal apology had angered delegates, and when he spoke some turned their backs on him, while others booed (see Source 2).

Howard made his position clear when he stated: '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.'

He also made it clear that, 'Australians of this generation should not be required to accept guilt and blame for past actions and policies over which they had no control'.

For those who saw such hope in Keating's Redfern Park speech, Howard's approach seemed a step backwards. As prime minister he controlled the political agenda, and Australia had to wait until he lost his seat in the 2007 election to move towards a formal apology to Indigenous Australians.

Check your learning 5.12

Remember and understand

1 Why did Prime Minister Keating make the Redfern Park speech?

2 How was Prime Minister Howard's Reconciliation Convention speech received?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain Prime Minister Howard's reasoning for not wanting to make an official apology. Do you agree or disagree? Why?

Evaluate and create

4 Use the Internet to locate the full text of both Prime Minister Paul Keating's Redfern Park speech and Martin Luther King's 'I have a dream' speech. Create a Venn diagram to identify the similarities and differences between these two speeches.

5.13 The reconciliation movement

Popular support for the Stolen Generations grew significantly around the end of the 1990s. Central to the claims of many Australians was the view that Australia would be strengthened by a formal acknowledgement of past wrongs. This idea was suggested by the Governor General, William Deane, in 1996 and featured as recommendation five in the *Bringing Them Home* report.

The first 'Sorry Day' was held on 26 May 1998, to mark the anniversary of the handing down of the *Bringing Them Home* report. Each year since then, events have been staged to commemorate the findings and consider the government's scorecard on responding to the recommendations in the report (see Source 1). In 2005, the day was temporarily renamed the National Day of Healing for All Australians – a gesture of goodwill from the National Sorry Day Committee who frequently acknowledged the support given to its movement by a wide range of Australians.



Source 1 Sorry Day March in Sydney, 2007

Popular culture and the 2000 Olympics

The reconciliation movement stimulated wide-ranging creative expression, from films such as *Rabbit-Proof Fence* to songs by Archie Roach and Ruby Hunter, and works by performance artists such as the Bangarra Dance Company. Roach's award-winning album, *Charcoal Lane*, contained the heartbreaking song, 'Took the Children Away'. Roach had been removed from his family as a young child and the honesty of his songwriting awoke a wide audience to the pain and trauma that would later surface in the *Bringing Them Home* report.

The 2000 Sydney Olympics also provided a stage for popular support of reconciliation. Cathy Freeman became one of the most popular individuals in Australia when she both lit the Olympic flame at the opening ceremony and then won the 400-metres final (see Source 2). Her victory lap, where she draped herself in both the Aboriginal and Australian flags, was seen as a decisive moment in the history of reconciliation.

The closing ceremony of the Sydney Olympics provided one further step towards reconciliation. The rock band Midnight Oil performed as part of the ceremony. The band chose to perform its song *Beds Are Burning*, a statement of support for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. To Prime Minister Howard's chagrin, the band also performed in specially designed 'Sorry suits' (see Source 3).



Source 2 Cathy Freeman lights the Olympic Torch at the opening ceremony of the 2000 Olympics in Sydney



Source 3 The rock band Midnight Oil performs a concert wearing 'Sorry suits' at the closing ceremony of the 2000 Olympics in Sydney

The international scene

The 2000s saw significant global interest in Indigenous rights. In New Zealand, Māori people had secured more historic rights than Indigenous Australians, yet problems linked to poverty within the Māori population remained significant throughout the 1990s. The film *Once Were Warriors* highlighted the degrading influence of alcohol and violence on poor Māori families.

Government efforts over the following decade saw some gains made, particularly with respect to cultural reconciliation and politics. A Māori Party was formed in 2004 and won five seats at the 2005 election. Māori television began broadcasting in Te Reo (Indigenous language) in 2004.

In Canada, formal recognition of First Nations, Inuit and Métis people was marked by a Statement of Reconciliation in 1998. In 2008, the Canadian government established the Truth and Reconciliation Commission to investigate the impacts and consequences of the Indian Residential Schools on Indigenous Canadian children during the 20th century.

The United Nations declared 2007 the International Year of Indigenous People. By 2010, most governments around the world endorsed the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous People.

The apology to the Stolen Generations

In his first week in parliament in 2008, the new Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, apologised to Indigenous Australians for poor or unwise treatment from the time of European settlement through to recent years. No offer of compensation was made but a nation recognised that Indigenous Australians had been wronged. This had been one of the key election promises, and a moment that many people had been waiting for. Brendan Nelson, the leader of the Opposition, affirmed Rudd's sentiment.

The parliament was packed as the apology was made, and many people gathered in public spaces, schools and offices, all over the country, to view the live telecast of the speeches.

Source 4

> We apologise especially for the removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children from their families, their communities and their country.
>
> For the pain, suffering and hurt of these Stolen Generations, their descendants and for their families left behind, we say sorry.
>
> To the mothers and the fathers, the brothers and the sisters, for the breaking up of families and communities, we say sorry.
>
> And for the indignity and degradation thus inflicted on a proud people and a proud culture, we say sorry.
>
> An extract from Rudd's speech

These were words that many Indigenous Australians had died without ever hearing. It was a turning point in our national history, and brought Australia into line with other Commonwealth countries, such as Canada, who had already dealt with this issue and moved on.

Many prominent Aboriginal Rights leaders were in Parliament, including Pat Dodson – sometimes described as the father of the reconciliation movement. Media coverage of the apology continued for many days, with the word 'Sorry' featuring prominently on all major newspapers on 14 February. Opinion polls showed that a significant number of Australians rated Rudd's apology as 'good', 'great' or 'excellent'.

The major criticism of the apology was the ambiguity over compensation. Many in the community still regarded this as a major challenge that the government would have to meet. Others saw the symbolism of the apology as meaningless unless it was immediately accompanied by practical measures to remove Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander disadvantage and implement true reconciliation.



Source 5 Kevin Rudd giving the Apology

Looking to the future

The path to reconciliation is a long one. It requires much effort to deal with the continuing misery, poverty, poor physical and mental health, low life-expectancy, and general social and political marginalisation of Australia's Indigenous peoples.

Following Prime Minister Rudd's address it was noted by Indigenous leaders that although an official apology is an important step, practical things need to be done as well. They argue that practical measures, rather than symbolic gestures, will be necessary for Aborigines to be in a position where they are on an equal footing with other Australians. Only once health, education and job opportunities are similar to those of non-Aboriginal Australians will it be possible to feel that a true reconciliation has come about and that Indigenous Australians have been recognised fully.



Source 6 Public support at the time of the Apology was high – the word 'sorry' appeared everywhere



Source 7 Aboriginal Australians at one of the camps in Alice Springs, Northern Territory, 2007

Source 8 Life expectancy and infant mortality in Australia (2014)

	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous
Male life expectancy (in years)	69	79
Female life expectancy (in years)	73	83
Infant mortality (per 1000 births)	6.2	3.7

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare

A sense of urgency

Unfortunately, the apology to the Stolen Generations and the Mabo victory were not accompanied by improvements in social outcomes for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. In fact, there has been significant worsening of social wellbeing in many communities. Disadvantage is particularly concentrated in rural Aboriginal communities around Australia.

This was certainly not expected by Aboriginal leaders who fought for improved rights from the 1960s onwards. In *The Politics of Suffering*, Peter Sutton chronicles how well-intentioned Aboriginal Affairs policies in Australia from the 1970s, including improved services and welfare, inadvertently resulted in increased child abuse, domestic violence, and drugs and alcohol use. Sutton's message has been difficult to comprehend by politicians and non-Indigenous Australians. How could self-determination, the opposite of the enforced assimilation of generations past, not deliver significant improvements?

Obviously the answers to this question are complicated. Fundamentally, while the policies provided some funding and other resources to Aboriginal communities, they did not provide lasting employment, effective education, adequate policing or regulations against the sale of alcohol – the cause of many of the problems.

The Intervention

In 2007, the Northern Territory Government's *Little Children Are Sacred* report was released. The report highlighted the extent of disadvantage, particularly among children. The Howard Government quickly intervened in this issue. The result was the Northern Territory National Emergency Response – or 'the Intervention'. This policy package included restrictions on welfare payments to ensure money was spent on food and other necessities rather than alcohol; immediate bans on the sale of alcohol and hard-core



Source 9 Noel Pearson (left) with politician Mal Brough



Source 10 Protesters in Alice Springs march against the Intervention

pornography in many Indigenous townships; medical checks for evidence of sexual abuse; and additional police assigned to investigate claims of sexual abuse of children.

While some people in the community expressed concern about the 'heavy-handed' nature of the Intervention, both sides of parliament and many Indigenous leaders ultimately supported it.

Noel Pearson, founder of the Cape York Land Council, was one of the first to give 'qualified' support for the Intervention, and had already argued for a decade that the so-called 'progressive' policies were failing young Aboriginal people. Pearson's 'Light on the Hill' speech, delivered in 2000 to a Labor Party audience, included a frank and honest assessment of the difference between white and black Australia.

The Intervention was not supported by all Aboriginal leaders. Some raised concerns that it would be a return to the **paternalism** of old and that it represented an infringement of the human rights of Aboriginal people, as the laws relating to welfare restrictions and the possession of alcohol applied only to Aboriginal people.

Closing the gap?

Supporters and critics alike have closely observed the progress of the Intervention. In 2010, Mal Brough, the Coalition minister originally responsible for the Intervention, complained bureaucracy and poor leadership had held up key work. Data released by the government at a similar time, in a *Closing the Gap* report, showed that reports of child sex abuse, alcohol-related violence and assault had increased in the three years.

In a more recent *Closing the Gap* report (2011), law-and-order data has been replaced by details of government investments and achievements in areas such as health, education and land rights. Many of these achievements are to be celebrated, but do they collectively amount to overall improvements for Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders in Australia?

Check your learning 5.13

Remember and understand

1 Who won the women's 400-metres event at the Sydney Olympics?
2 How did Midnight Oil upset John Howard at the Sydney Olympics?
3 When was the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous people?

Apply and analyse

4 Were the Sydney Olympics a significant landmark on the path to reconciliation? Provide evidence to support your view.
5 Look at the data in Source 8. What various reasons do you think would account for such a difference in life expectancy and infant mortality?

Evaluate and create

6 Do you think that we should try to record and teach all sides of our history, or only the parts we are proud of? Give reasons for your answer.
7 Create a closing ceremony for an Olympics held in Australia this year that shows the world the state of reconciliation in Australia.

5C rich task

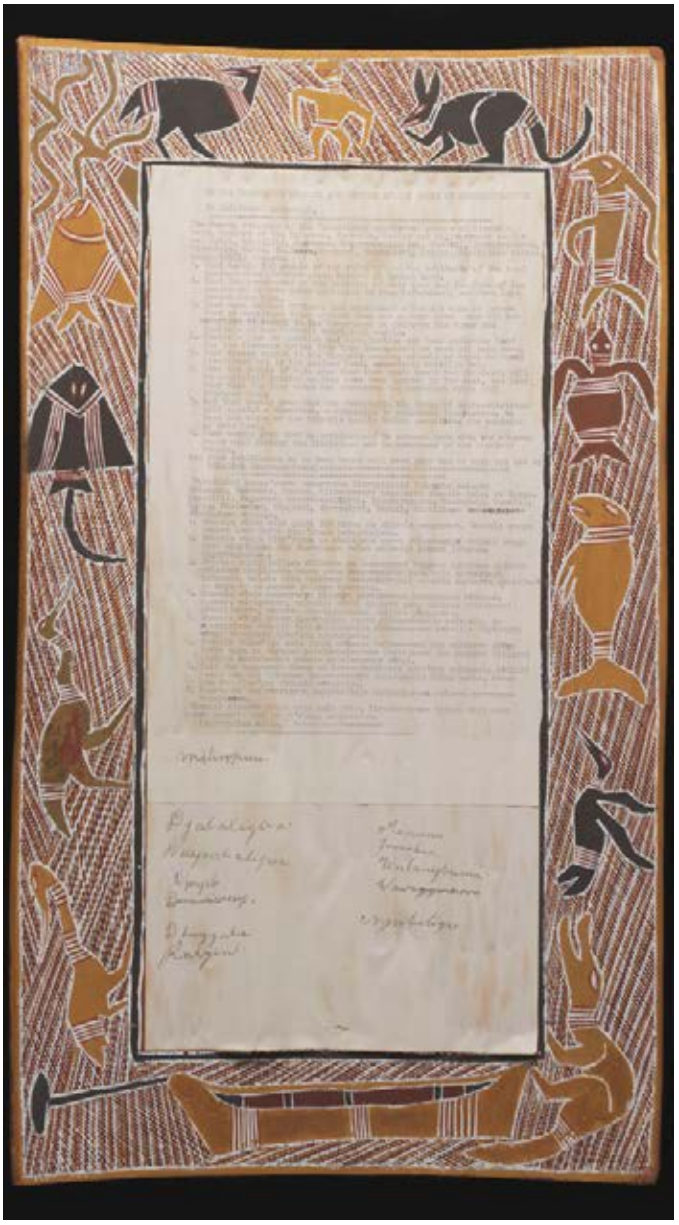
The Yirrkala Bark petitions

In the late 1950s, the Australian government removed more than 300 square kilometres of land from the Arnhem Land Aboriginal reserve in the Northern Territory so that mining company Gominco could extract bauxite. Requesting an inquiry and asserting their ownership of land, the Yolngu people created petitions framed by painted bark to demand that Yolngu rights be recognised. The petitions contained a typed document written in two Yolngu languages and translated into English, surrounded by clan designs of all that was threatened by the mining. They were signed by 12 clan leaders from the Yolngu region and submitted to the Australian Parliament in August 1963.

The Yirrkala bark petitions were the first traditional documents prepared by Indigenous Australians that were recognised by the Australian Parliament, and are therefore the first documentary recognition of Indigenous people in Australian law.

Politicians presented the two petitions to the House of Representatives on 14 and 28 August 1963. A parliamentary committee of inquiry acknowledged the rights of the Yolngu set out in the petitions. It recommended to Parliament on 29 October 1963 that compensation for loss of livelihood be paid, that sacred sites be protected and that an ongoing parliamentary committee monitor the mining project. Despite this, mining did go ahead near Yirrkala, and by 1968 a massive bauxite refinery was built at Gove, 20 kilometres to the north. Appeals to both Parliament and to the courts were also rejected. The petitions, however, led to wider awareness of the problems of Aboriginal people throughout Australia, and set off a debate that would eventually lead to the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act* in 1976 and, in 1992, to the High Court's *Mabo* decision. The petitions also paved the way for the 1967 referendum.

There have been a number of further bark petitions created by Indigenous Australians since the Yirrkala bark petitions of 1963, and all have contributed to a gradual but steady change in the Australian view of the significance of traditional culture and law. In July 2008, for example, Galarrwuy Yunupingu, the son of one of the painters and signatories of the 1963 petition, presented Prime Minister Kevin Rudd with another petition by various Yirrkala artists, requesting 'full recognition of Indigenous rights in the Australian Constitution'.



Source 1 The Yirrkala bark petition was made by the Yolgnu people to protest against mining on traditional land (Yirrkala artists, Dhuwa moiety: Museum of Australia).

skill**drill:** Historical significance

Generate different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry

One of the first and most important steps in conducting a historical inquiry is to generate or pose key questions. The questions that you generate will frame or direct the research that you then undertake.

Step 1 Usually, historians generate one broad, overarching question for their inquiry for example:

'What was the historical significance of the Yirrkala bark petitions in terms of past and present efforts to secure civil rights for Aboriginal Australians?'

After that, you need to generate more specific questions that are related to your overall inquiry question. You will need to generate a mixture of:

- closed or simple questions – for example, *when* did event X occur?
- open or probing questions – for example, *why* did event X occur?
- questions that relate to the process of historical inquiry – for example, *what* evidence is there?, *what* other sources might be needed?

Step 2 The next step in generating questions is to think about what you already know about the topic. Use this knowledge as a springboard for questions that will help you understand the topic in more depth.

- Use a table similar to Source 2 to brainstorm all the things you know in bullet-point form in one column.
- In the second column, use each dot point from the first column to generate related questions that will help to deepen or build your understanding. Remember to include a mix of the three question types described in Step 1.

Source 2

Overarching inquiry question	
What I already know	**Questions to help deepen or build my understanding**
Point 1	Question/s related to point 1
Point 2	Question/s related to point 2

Apply the skill

1 Use the process described above to generate a range of questions related to the overarching historical inquiry question:

'What was the historical significance of the Yirrkala bark petitions in terms of past and present efforts to secure civil rights of Aboriginal Australians?'

a Copy Source 3 into your notebook. Identify what you already know as a result of reading the information in this section. List these ideas in bullet points in the first column.

b In the second column, generate related questions that help to deepen or build your understanding. The first one has been done for you.

Source 3

Overarching inquiry question: What was the historical significance of the Yirrkala bark petitions in terms of past and present efforts to secure civil rights of Aboriginal Australians?	
What I already know	**Questions to help deepen or build my understanding**
• The Yirrkala bark petitions were created by Indigenous Australians to protest against the Australian government's decision to allow part of Arnhem land to be mined.	• Who were the signatories to the petition? (Simple or closed question) • Why did they decide to respond to the government's decision in this way? (Open or probing question) • What was written and drawn on the petitions and what evidence does this provide about Indigenous perspectives on native title? (Question related to the process of historical inquiry)
Point 2	
Point 3	
Point 4	

Extend your understanding

During July 2013, when Australia celebrated the 50th anniversary of the petitions, Prime Minister Kevin Rudd compared them with the 1215 Magna Carta, one of the founding documents of the British legal system:

> These bark petitions are the Magna Carta for the Indigenous peoples of this land. Both [are] an assertion of rights against the crown and both therefore profound symbols of justice for all peoples everywhere.
>
> Prime Minister Kevin Rudd, July 2013

1 Conduct some research into the Magna Carta and its significance to the British legal system. Write a short report comparing and contrasting the nature, impact and overall historical significance of the Magna Carta and the Yirrkala bark petitions.

Unit 3 The globalising world (1945–the present)

Introduction to the globalising world



Since the end of World War II in 1945, the world has changed immensely. Advances in technology, travel, communication and medicine have had a profound effect on the modern world. Many changes have revolutionised our daily lives. Appliances have replaced back-breaking work in the home, smartphones let us communicate with people all over the world, mass media provides us with entertainment, and aeroplanes make international travel faster and more comfortable. More than ever before, the seven billion human beings on Earth are part of a single global community.

All of these changes, however, come at a cost. The rapid increase in world population and unprecedented growth in the consumption of resources have put our planet under serious strain. In this unit, you will learn about one of the many aspects of our globalising world in more detail.

6A

How have changes in technology influenced the globalising world?

6B

How have changes in health and population influenced the globalising world?



chapter 6

Source 1 Since the end of World War II in 1945, the world has undergone rapid changes in the fields of technology, communication, transport and trade. These changes mean that we are now – more than ever before – part of a global community.

6C

How have conflicts influenced the world since 1945?

The globalising world (1945–the present)

This unit offers a choice of four topics:

- Popular culture
- The environment movement
- Migration experiences
- Political crisis: The Vietnam War

You must choose AT LEAST ONE of these topics for study.

6.1 Changes in technology since 1945

The 20th century was a time of extraordinary technological change and innovation. The first half of the century saw the first powered aeroplane flight, the expansion of industrialisation and mechanisation, the invention of penicillin and advances in theoretical physics that laid the groundwork for the nuclear age. By the second half of the century, people had orbited the Earth and walked on the Moon, developed new treatments for many medical conditions, eradicated diseases like smallpox and witnessed the birth of the Internet.



Source 1 An advertisement for Hoover vacuum cleaners from the 1940s

Technology in the home

Some of the technological innovations that had the most immediate impacts during the 20th century were designed for the home. From the 1920s, the growing availability of electricity in ordinary homes allowed people to change traditional housekeeping routines. Electric ovens and hot water services freed people from the need to burn wood and clean chimneys. Vacuum cleaners meant that rugs and carpets no longer had to be taken up and beaten by hand to remove dust (see Source 1).

By the 1950s, a wide range of appliances and whitegoods were available. Electric kettles, toasters and mixers transformed the kitchen, but the invention of the washing machine and the electric refrigerator were arguably the most important of the time. Before the washing machine, laundry was commonly washed by hand using a copper boiler, soap and a washboard. After that, it was wrung out in a hand-wringer and hung out to dry. The first washing machines had no spin or rinse cycles but still represented enormous savings in time and effort.

Various methods of refrigeration existed prior to 1950, but were far less effective than the type of refrigerators we are used to today. Before the 1950s, food could be stored in a Coolgardie safe, where it was kept cool by the evaporation of water from gauze covering. Alternatively it could be stored in an ice chest, but this method relied on a daily delivery of a slab of ice from the local ice-works. The invention of the electric refrigerator allowed people to store food for much longer periods than ever before. This changed their shopping and eating habits. Later, electric refrigerators were followed by electric freezers and microwaves that once again revolutionised food preparation in the home.

Home entertainment

Entertainment was transformed by the invention of radio and television. The first radio station to go to air in Australia was 2SB in Sydney, in November 1923.



Source 2 Television revolutionised home entertainment for families in Australia from the 1950s onwards.

Others quickly followed. Radio became increasingly popular from the 1920s to the 1940s as the technology improved. Radios became smaller and more portable, and more stations and types of shows were offered.

Television arrived in Australia in 1956. At first, TV was offered in black and white only. By 1975, colour TV became available. In the 1980s the VCR (or video cassette recorder) arrived, allowing people to record TV shows to watch at their leisure. Together, these technologies provided much greater opportunities for people to entertain themselves at home.

Travel and trade

Just a century ago, the world was a much less mobile place than it is today. Horse-drawn transport was still in use in Australia at the start of the 20th century, international travel and trade was only possible by sea, and most Australians spent their holidays much closer to home.

Road travel

In the post-war period, the motor car became much more affordable and more common. The first traffic lights in Australia were installed in Melbourne in 1928 and the first Australian-produced car, the Holden FX, went on sale in 1948 (see Source 3). Roads were sealed to reduce dust from the ever-growing volume of traffic, and highways expanded to connect cities and towns all over the country. By 2010, car registrations exceeded 12 million. While the growth of car ownership has meant greater freedom for many people and a boom to the tourism industry since World War II, many people are now questioning its broader impacts, including pollution and greater congestion in cities



Source 3 The Holden FX, the first Australian-produced car, went on sale in 1948.

Air travel

Passenger aviation arrived in Australia in the 1920s (see Source 4). Qantas was established in 1921 and by the 1950s other commercial airlines were operating domestically, including Trans Australian Airlines (TAA) and Australian National Airways (ANA). Up until the first jet aeroplane arrived in Australia, aeroplanes were propeller-driven. The jet age began in 1959 with the arrival of Qantas's first Boeing 707 and expanded during the 1970s. The arrival of the Boeing 747 (see Source 5) allowed larger planes to travel longer distances. Prices became more affordable and both domestic and international travel by air came within the reach of many Australians.

Trade

Even the nature of shipping has changed dramatically during the post-war period. Ships became far larger and more powerful, allowing for the bulk transport of vast quantities of resources. Containerisation of freight developed after World War II, allowing goods to be shipped all over the world in standard-sized metal containers. These containers can be loaded and unloaded from ships using heavy machinery, and can be easily transferred to trains or trucks for rail or road transport. Containerisation led to the loss of jobs for dock workers who had traditionally loaded and unloaded ships, but also reduced the costs of transport for many goods, helping to make them cheaper.



Source 4 In 1922, Alexander Kennedy, an 84-year-old cattleman, was the first paying passenger on Qantas.



Source 5 Today, Qantas operates around 5600 flights a week to over 182 destinations in 44 countries.

Communications

The way that Australians communicate with each other and the world has transformed entirely since 1900. At the start of the century, Australians often had to wait for significant lengths of time to receive news from interstate friends and relatives overseas. Mail was the main form of communication, transported by ship from overseas or by rail within the country. However, as aviation technology improved postal services began to use airmail.

The other main method of sending messages was the telegraph. Although instantaneous, a telegram still had to be delivered by a messenger to the recipient. Furthermore, messages tended to be short, as the technology was expensive.

Several advances contributed to a gradual reduction of Australian isolation. A telegraph line was connected to Britain by 1927, allowing instantaneous overseas news. Cinema newsreels also became more common. Though these had to travel in the same way as letters, people were now able to see what was happening elsewhere. Radio station broadcasts began in 1923 and, by the middle of the century, telephone use became widespread, with direct long-distance (STD) and overseas telephone services becoming available in the 1970s.

Then, in the last part of the 20th century, another communications revolution began with the invention of the microchip. Mobile phones, computers and the Internet changed personal correspondence and the way people conducted business. The number of emails and SMS messages sent around the world now far outnumber traditional letters. In addition, households are now shifting away from fixed lines ('landlines') in favour of mobile telephone and wireless Internet services. Satellite communication now allows the transfer of data, voice and images instantaneously around the globe. Together, these technologies have allowed people from all over the world to communicate and carry out a range of tasks in real time – something that could never have been imagined at the end of World War II.



Source 7 Early mobile phones



Source 6 The Port of Shanghai in China has been the world's busiest container port since 2010. Each year, over 700 million tonnes of cargo is processed through the port and shipped all around the world.

Check your learning 6.1

Remember and understand

1 Summarise some of the key developments in household technology that occurred in the first half of the 20th century.

2 What is meant by the term 'containerisation' and what impact did its introduction have on society?

Apply and analyse

3 Of the inventions discussed in this unit, select two that you believe are the most significant. Justify your decisions.

Evaluate and create

4 What do you consider to be the most serious problem raised by technology? Why is it a problem and how do you think it could be best addressed?

6.2 Changes in health and population since 1945

World population

At the end of World War II in 1945, the world's population stood at approximately 2.2 billion people and Australia had a population of around 7 million. Just 70 years later, the world's population has exceeded 7 billion and Australia's population has more than tripled to around 24 million. Based on current trends, experts believe that world population will reach 9 billion by 2050.

World population has increased so rapidly for many reasons. Advances in agricultural production (leading to better food supply), better sanitation and improvements in health and medicine have all played a role (see Source 1). Life expectancy has also increased in many parts of the world, meaning that many people (particularly in the developed world) are living longer than ever before.

While it is possible to regard the growth of human population as a reflection of human success, concerns have also been expressed in recent years that a large human population, coupled with increasing consumption of natural resources, is putting the natural environment at risk.

Changes in life expectancy across the globe

Australia has one of the highest life expectancies in the world. A non-Indigenous Australian boy born in 2006 can expect to live for 78.7 years, and a girl for 83.5 years. Unfortunately, the picture is not so good for Indigenous Australians. The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare estimated in 2007 that an Indigenous person born in the period 1996–2001 has a life expectancy that is 16–17 years shorter than that of a non-Indigenous person.



Source 1 The capital of Japan, Tokyo, has a population of around 38 million people. This makes it the most populated city on Earth. Since the end of World War II in 1945, the population of Tokyo has grown from around 9 million people. Improvements in health, sanitation and agricultural production have contributed to this growth.



Source 2 A child suffering from HIV in Africa. The spread of HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa has dramatically affected the life expectancy of people living there.

By contrast, the United Nations estimates that people living in Swaziland have the lowest life expectancy in the world. There, on average, men only live to the age of 40 and women only live to the age of 39.

Measures of life expectancy are not static, and many areas of the world have seen dramatic increases since the end of World War II. For example, life expectancy rates in developing countries such as China and Brazil have risen substantially over the past 60 years, almost doubling by some estimates. Sadly, life expectancy has also decreased in some places. The AIDS pandemic has been devastating for Sub-Saharan Africa (see Source 2). Botswana, Zimbabwe and South Africa all saw life expectancy drop significantly from the late 1980s as infection rates soared. By 2006, life expectancy in Zimbabwe was only 44 years for men and 43 years for women.

Improvements in public health and standards of living

In 1967, the World Health Organization declared its intention to eradicate smallpox, a disease that killed up to a third of all sufferers and disfigured many survivors. Through a vaccination program the target was achieved, with the last case of smallpox recorded in 1977.

Other diseases, although not eradicated, have been dramatically curbed through widespread vaccination. Polio and measles are two examples, with polio cases in the developed world reduced by 99 per cent.

In spite of these examples, many of the advances in public health have been due to simple factors like improved sanitation, better urban planning and better nutrition. The **Green Revolution**, beginning in the 1950s, vastly increased the food output of farms in all continents except Africa, leading to improved nutrition and food supply. The Green Revolution involved a combination of methods such as:

- increased mechanisation (e.g. the use of tractors and irrigation pumps)
- the development of new, higher-yield crops
- the invention of new fertilisers and pesticides.

World trade also intensified in the years after World War II, aided by improved communications and transport systems. By the end of the 20th century, the world had entered the era of **globalisation**, meaning that goods are now being traded more freely across many parts of the world. Commerce and banking has also become globally integrated, as the 2008 Global Financial Crisis (in which losses by banks in the United States led to worldwide shortages of financial credit) has demonstrated.



Source 3 The Gulf of Mexico oil spill in 2010 is one of the most significant environmental disasters ever recorded. The oil platform operated by BP gushed crude oil for 87 days before it could be capped. During this time it released around 800 million litres of crude oil into the Gulf of Mexico, devastating animal and plant populations and destroying many local businesses.

Many people believe that increased global trade has led to higher standards of living. Advocates of globalisation argue that poorer countries are able to sell their goods to a much greater market than before, and that people in the developing world have access to more jobs. However, critics point out that globalisation does not necessarily mean that any new wealth created will be shared. For Australia, globalisation has seen an increase in exports of mineral resources to overseas markets, but it has also brought with it the collapse of some manufacturing industries as companies have looked to source the skills of cheaper workers in other countries.

Environmental pressures

The 20th century has seen continued urbanisation and industrialisation. As a result of this change, more and more people are now engaged in the production of goods and services rather than the production of food. Urban populations drain energy resources, and create large amounts of waste and pollution. Industry, previously concentrated in Western countries, has become more global since the end of World War II, due to the growth of industries in Germany, Japan, South Korea, and more recently in China and India.

These trends have had serious ecological implications and over time, the environment has come into much sharper focus. By the end of the 20th century, there were clear differences between those who saw the planet as a resource to be exploited, and those who saw it as a unique biological system to be preserved. Development and conservation frequently clashed as a range of issues and campaigns made the environment movement a critical part of historical change.

The second half of the 20th century saw the emergence of environmental thinking. A major development in environmental thinking was the Gaia hypothesis. This proposed that life on Earth was interconnected and formed a self-contained system that allowed life to flourish. In other words, the Earth is a single, inter-dependent system. The idea of **sustainability** has also become increasingly important during the 20th century. It requires human beings to take a long-term view when it comes to the use of resources. It also requires the exploitation of natural resources to be measured and managed so they are safeguarded for future generations.

In the post-war period, environmental movements developed in response to the belief that governments were not dealing with environmental threats

appropriately. Individuals formed activist groups to focus attention on issues at a range of scales – local, regional, national, international and global. International non-government organisations like Greenpeace have brought a range of environmental issues to the world's attention, from nuclear testing in the Pacific to whaling in the Southern Ocean. Local conservation groups in Australia have also fought to protect endangered species and the natural environment against development.

Green politics has gradually made an impact on the international political scene and Green parties now participate at various levels of government in many countries. The environment is increasingly becoming a global issue as world governments recognise the need for coordinated efforts against threats like climate change. The Kyoto Protocol, signed by Australia in 2007, is an international commitment to reduce greenhouse gas emissions in an attempt to limit the potentially devastating effects of global warming.

Check your learning 6.2

Remember and understand

1 Give three reasons for the rapid growth in world population since 1945.
2 What is the estimated life expectancy of an Aboriginal person born in the period 1996–2001?
3 Which disease was eradicated by 1977?
4 In your own words, define the Gaia hypothesis.

Apply and analyse

5 Visit the website of the Australian Conservation Foundation.
   a What environmental issues does this organisation see as currently important to Australia's future?
   b What actions have they taken, are they taking, or do they intend to take, in order to address these concerns?



Source 4 'Greenies' in Melbourne protest against the logging of old-growth forests in Tasmania

6.3 Australia's role in global conflicts since 1945

The involvement of Australian troops in Europe and the Pacific during World War II (together with events such as the fall of Singapore and the bombing of Darwin by the Japanese) encouraged Australians to think more closely about issues of national security in the post-war world. In order to protect Australia from future attacks, Prime Minister Robert Menzies (who served in office from 1949 to 1966) set out to build stronger relationships with our neighbours in the Asia region and ally Australia more closely with the United States.

Communism in Asia and the domino theory

In 1949, after years of civil war, Mao Zedong became the communist leader of the People's Republic of China. This was the first powerful communist revolution to take place in Asia. Many people in Australia feared that a communist government in China would have an influence on other countries in the region. As a result, Australia's key foreign policy objective was to increase national security and stop the spread of communism in Asia by joining regional treaty organisations. In 1951, a treaty – known as the ANZUS Pact – was signed by Australia, New Zealand and the USA. The pact was a military alliance that committed the three nations to assisting each other in terms of defence. In September 1954, another alliance – known as the South-East Asian Treaty Organisation (SEATO) – was formed between the USA, Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Thailand and the Philippines. The members of SEATO were all anti-communist countries. Like ANZUS, SEATO was essentially a Cold War pact designed to limit or stop the spread of communism around the world. At this time, many leaders in the Western world believed that if one country fell to communism, neighbouring countries would follow. This became known as the **domino theory** because if one country was allowed to fall to communism the rest of South-East Asia would quickly follow, just like dominoes falling one after another.

The Australian government's belief in the domino theory encouraged them to support Britain and the USA in a number of conflicts across South-East Asia in the 1950s and 1960s, especially when communist rebels were attempting to seize power. The most significant of these were Australia's involvement in the Korean War and the Vietnam War.

The Korean War

When Japan surrendered at the end of World War II, the area of land it controlled on the Korean peninsula was divided into two halves – North Korea and South Korea. North Korea was occupied by the USSR, and South Korea was occupied by US-led UN forces.

In June 1950, the leader of the Soviet Union, Joseph Stalin, encouraged the leader of North Korea, Kim Il Sung, to invade South Korea. The US president, Harry Truman, immediately called on the United Nations to take action. The UN ordered the North Korean army to retreat, but they refused. In response, the UN sponsored a military intervention that was led by US troops under the command of General Douglas MacArthur. Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies, who was strongly anti-communist, believed that if communism was not stopped in Asia, it would eventually spread to Australia. Thousands of Australians enlisted and volunteered to fight in Korea (see Source 1).

The fighting eventually ended with a negotiated ceasefire on 27 July 1953, which left Korea a divided country, just as it had been before the Korean War broke out. It remains this way today.

The Vietnam War

Since the mid-19th century, a large section of Indochina (including modern-day Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia) had been part of the French Empire. During World War II, Japanese forces invaded this region and occupied it. A communist group, known as the Viet Minh, formed under the leadership of Ho Chi Minh to fight the Japanese.



Source 1 Australian troops fighting in the Korean War *c.* 1951

After Japan's surrender in 1945, the Viet Minh formed a government and declared Vietnam's independence. However, the French wanted to take Vietnam back as one of their colonies. By December 1946, the French and the Viet Minh were involved in a war that would last for nine years.

By 1952, Vietnam had become divided. The Viet Minh had control of the north, and the French had set up a rival government in the south under the Vietnamese Emperor Bao Dai. The Soviet Union and China offered support and recognition to the Viet Minh in the north, while the USA and Britain did the same for Bao Dai in the south. Bao Dai was ousted from power in the south by Ngo Dinh Diem, a corrupt landowner who had little support from within Vietnam. However, because he was anti-communist, he had the support of the USA. Diem's police tortured and killed peasants suspected of supporting the Viet Minh.

In 1957, the Viet Minh in North Vietnam began a guerrilla war (a war fought by small, independent groups of fighters) against South Vietnam in order to reunify their country. The United States, under President Kennedy, started sending American advisers to support the anti-communist government of South Vietnam.

In December 1960, the National Liberation Front for South Vietnam was formed in opposition to Diem's government in South Vietnam. It allied with North Vietnam and became known as the Viet Cong. North Vietnam dramatically increased its military assistance to the Viet Cong, which then began attacking South Vietnamese military units. The Viet Cong continued to use guerrilla warfare against the government of South Vietnam and the United States through the war.

US military involvement in the Vietnam War increased from 300 military advisers in 1955 to over 500 000 US troops by 1968. To justify this level of intervention, US President Eisenhower, and presidents following him, all declared their belief in the domino theory.

Australia's involvement in Vietnam

Australia's prime minister at the start of the Vietnam conflict was Robert Menzies. Menzies fully supported the United States' anti-communist policy, and was a committed ally throughout the war. Menzies was also a strong believer in the domino theory. In 1962, the Australian government committed its first military advisers to South Vietnam. The initial commitment of 30 men would grow to 60 000 over the next decade and would lead to the introduction of **conscription** in Australia for overseas military service. Public opinion polls at this time indicated that most Australians supported the government's decision. This would change



Source 2 The Viet Minh led by Ho Chi Minh fought for Vietnamese independence.



Source 3 Images of the Vietnam War such as this one of children fleeing a village bombed with napalm (a flammable sticky jelly used in bombs and flame-throwers) caused many Australians to turn against the war.

dramatically in the coming years (see Source 3). By 1970, there were mass demonstrations held in the major capitals of Australia to demand a suspension of the war to allow peace talks.

When the USA began withdrawing troops from Vietnam, Australia followed suit. Between 1970 and 1972, all Australian combat troops were withdrawn. On 27 December 1972, the newly elected Labor government ended all Australian military aid to South Vietnam.

Five hundred Australians died during the Vietnam War, including 185 National Servicemen who had been conscripted to fight. Until the deployment of Australian soldiers to Afghanistan in 2001, Vietnam had been Australia's longest war.

Australian involvement in the UN

Australia was a founding member of the UN and played an active role in the drafting of the Charter of the United Nations at the San Francisco Conference of 1945. The Australian delegation, led by Dr Herbert Evatt, actively promoted the rights of smaller nations. Since then, Australia has served five terms on the Security Council: 1946–1947, 1956–1957, 1973–1974, 1985–1986 and 2013–2015. During 1946, Labour politician Norman Makin served as the first Australian to act as President of the Security Council. Dr Evatt was also elected President of the General Assembly in 1948.

Australia has played an active role in the UN Commission on Human Rights and has been a strong supporter of the work of the expert UN bodies dealing with the implementation of international human rights conventions. Australia also has a long history of contributions to UN peacekeeping operations. Australia currently has peacekeeping forces in many places around the world, including the Persian Gulf and Timor-Leste (East Timor) (see Source 4).

Enduring allies

Despite the best efforts of the UN Security Council, the world remains an unpredictable and uncertain place. Since the end of the Cold War, the United States has served as the last superpower of the 20th century. On 11 September 2001, the world looked on as a series of deadly coordinated attacks on key targets in the United States took place, including the deliberate crashing of two passenger jets into the World Trade Center towers in New York and another into the Pentagon in the state of Virginia. The events of 11 September

marked the beginning of a new era in global conflict that became known as the 'War on Terror'. Military action since 2001 has centred on wars in both Iraq and Afghanistan. Throughout the War on Terror, Australia has continued to be a strong ally of the USA. Australian troops have served both in Iraq and Afghanistan and specialist military advisors and strategists have worked closely with US command. Australian troops were withdrawn from Iraq in 2008 but continued fighting in Afghanistan until 2013. During the 12 years of fighting there, 40 members of the Australian Defence Force were killed and 261 were seriously wounded.



Source 4 An Australian peacekeeping soldier patrols a street in Timor-Leste.

Source 5 Australia's peacekeeping missions, 1947–2011

Australia's involvement in peacekeeping missions, 1947–2011, including military and policing operations	
Indonesia	1947–1951
Kashmir	1950–1985
Middle East (Israel and surrounding areas)	1956–present day
Cyprus	1964–present day
Zimbabwe	1979–1980
Iran	1988–1990
Namibia	1989–1990
Pakistan–Afghanistan	1989–1993
Persian Gulf	1990–present day
Iraq	1991–1999
Western Sahara	1991–1994
Cambodia	1991–1998
Somalia	1993–1995
Rwanda	1994–1995
Bougainville (Papua New Guinea)	1994, 1998–2003
Timor-Leste	1999–present day

Check your learning 6.3

Remember and understand

1 What were the key motivators behind Australia's involvement in overseas conflicts during the Cold War period?
2 Why do you think the Soviet Union and China supported the Viet Minh during the Vietnam War?
3 Why did the USA support Ngo Dinh Diem during the Vietnam War?
4 Explain what is meant by the domino theory.

Apply and analyse

5 Describe the two treaties that Australia signed to help combat the spread of communism.
6 Examine Source 3.
   a What type of source is this?
   b Why do you think this source (and others like it) caused many Australians to reconsider their views on the war?

Evaluate and create

7 Do you think the Australian government made the correct decision to become involved in the Vietnam War? Conduct research and locate at least two reliable sources to support your view.
8 Design and create an anti-communism poster encouraging the Australian public to support the commitment of Australian troops to the conflict in Vietnam during the Menzies era.

Unit 3 The globalising world (1945–the present)

Popular culture

Popular culture includes a wide range of activities that a large number of people in a society engage in. Since World War II, Australia has developed strong industries in four key areas of popular culture: music, film, television and sport.

Television and rock'n'roll music both arrived in 1956 and have had a strong influence on all groups within Australian society – this continues today. Sport has retained an important role in Australian life and has become closely tied to our sense of identity. The Australian film industry has also emerged to tell uniquely Australian stories that entertain and inform.

While British, American and, more recently, European and Asian cultures have influenced us, Australia has developed its own distinct culture. Music, film, television and sport have not only become ways of reflecting who we are, but have also enabled Australia to engage with the rest of the world.



7A

How did developments in popular culture influence Australia after World War II?

1 In what ways do you think popular culture was different in 1946 compared to today?

2 The introduction of television and rock'n'roll changed Australian culture and society forever. Can you brainstorm some of the immediate effects that these changes would have had on people at the time?

7B

How have the music, film and television industries in Australia changed since World War II?

1 How have developments in the music, film and television industries during the last 60 years changed the way that Australians access popular culture?



chapter 7

Source 1 'Hello possums' – one of Australia's many contributions to international popular culture is Barry Humphries as Dame Edna Everage.

7C

What contributions has Australia made to international popular culture?

1 List as many Australian songs, bands, sporting teams, films or television shows you can think of that have made a significant contribution to popular culture around the world?

7.1 Popular culture: a timeline



Australia's Betty Cuthbert (third from left) crosses the finish line to win the Women's Final 100 metre event in the Melbourne Olympic Games

1946
England tours Australia to resume the Ashes cricket tests after World War II.

1955
The film *Jedda* is released.

1956
TV starts in Australia as the Olympic Games open in Melbourne.

1957
Bill Haley and the Comets headline the first rock'n'roll tour of Australia.

1964
The Beatles arrive in Australia.

1966
The Easybeats record 'Friday on My Mind' in London.

1967
ABC TV starts the first evening soapie, *Bellbird*.

1971
Walkabout and *Wake in Fright* released.

1972
The TV serial *Number 96* premieres.

1975
Colour TV arrives in Australia.

1977
The rock band The Go Betweens forms in Brisbane.

1940 1950 1960 1970



The Easybeats



A film still from *Walkabout*

Source 1 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to popular culture



Paul Hogan as "Crocodile" Dundee

Chris Lilley as identical twins Daniel and Nathan Sims



1980

1986
"Crocodile" Dundee released.

1988
BBC moves *Neighbours* to a late afternoon timeslot to counteract school truancy.

1990

1995
Pay TV introduced to Australia.

Ryan Moloney and Morgan Baker, two of the cast of *Neighbours*



2000

2009
Neighbours is the first Australian TV show to have characters with Twitter accounts.

2010
Australian women's national soccer team, the Matildas, wins the Asian Cup.

2010

2011
Angry Boys premieres on television.

2013

Check your learning 7.1

Remember and understand

1. When was the film *Jedda* released?
2. When was 'Friday on My Mind' recorded, and by whom?
3. When was the first soapie shown in Australia?

Apply and analyse

4. Consider the pictures of Paul Hogan as Mick Dundee in the film *"Crocodile" Dundee* and Chris Lilley as identical twins Daniel and Nathan Sims in the television series *Angry Boys*. Compare and contrast the personalities and traits of these fictional 'Australian' characters. Do you think they demonstrate a change in the way Australians see and portray themselves to the world? Explain your answer using examples from other popular Australian films and television series.

7.2 Defining popular culture



Source 1 Young men and women dancing in 1950s Sydney. American youth culture became popular in Australia after the end of World War II.

Culture is the 'glue' that binds any society together. The values, beliefs, ideas and artefacts that give meaning to any society are its culture. Culture takes in a wide variety of human activities including language, food, religion and art, as well as values such as a belief in democracy or equal rights.

By comparison, popular culture has a slightly narrower definition. The term was first used in the 19th century to describe the 'unofficial culture' of the lower classes in society as opposed to the 'official culture' of the higher classes. Over time, however, the meaning of the term evolved to describe more widely accepted ideas, attitudes and practices transmitted via mass media and aimed particularly at younger people.

People can access popular culture easily, and it lasts for a period of time. When defining popular culture it is important to not simply describe it as 'culture that is popular'. If that simplistic definition is used, it is difficult to tell the difference between cultural activities that are popular for a brief historical moment and those that have a major influence on a society.

Four distinguishing characteristics can be used to recognise an activity as popular culture:

- the activity moves from local to national to global significance
- the activity is associated with commercial products
- the activity continues to change and evolve over time
- the activity allows consumers easy and widespread access through mass media.

Check your learning 7.2

Remember and understand

1 Define the term 'popular culture' in your own words.

2 List four characteristics that distinguish popular culture activities from those that fall under a wider definition of culture.

7.3 Changes to radio and film

The link between technology and popular culture was clearly established in the 1920s. In the period before the arrival of television and rock'n'roll, radio and film were the main sources of popular culture. The impact of technology on popular culture became a consistent theme throughout the second half of the 20th century. Ongoing developments in technology also help to explain the ways in which popular culture is able to change and evolve.

Radio

By 1946, radio was established as the most accessible form of communication in Australia. All capital cities and most regional centres had one or more radio stations, which helped overcome the great distances involved in communicating across the country. Radio first took off during the 1930s, and was the perfect medium for introducing audiences to new forms of recorded music coming from the USA.

The increasing popularity and accessibility of radio led to change. Until World War II, pianos and pianolas (self-playing pianos) were the centrepieces of home entertainment. Sales of sheet music boomed as families gathered to entertain themselves at home. When radio station 2GF in Grafton, New South Wales, first went on air in December 1933, it was the 63rd radio station in the country. When World War II broke out, radio became a crucial means for Australian people to keep updated with military news from overseas and at home. Apart from war-time news and updates from the troops, radio stations broadcast music and drama programs which were important for entertaining the Australian public and keeping up morale.

By the 21st century, radio had split into AM and FM, community and digital broadcasting. Contrary to some expectations, the medium of radio continues to thrive as an important means of entertainment and information.



Source 1 This photograph was taken in the late 1940s and shows a group of young friends sunbaking at Bondi Beach, Sydney, while listening to the radio.

Film

In 1906, the world's first full-length feature film was produced in Australia, titled *The Story of the Kelly Gang*. Until governments banned bushranger films in 1912, Australia led the world in feature film production. The federal government set high import **tariffs** on films during World War I. When they lifted them in 1918, the Australian film industry was destroyed by American imports. There was a brief revival in Australian films in the 1930s, when the influence of Hollywood and the introduction of 'talkies' (films with sound) began to dominate the film industry.

A newsreel documentary, *Kokoda Front Line*, won Australia's first Academy Award in 1943, but the Australian film industry struggled in the years after World War II. Although major Australian stars such as Errol Flynn, Peter Finch and Chips Rafferty became famous in Australia and experienced success overseas, as a general rule American actors were far more successful internationally. American magazines played a major role in this. Around this time, magazines became a popular medium through which popular culture was transmitted and advertised. As a result, Australian actors began to travel to Hollywood to further their careers. Although films were made in Australia in the 1940s and 1950s, these were usually co-productions with American and British film companies. The 1955 film *Jedda* stands out as a significant milestone in Australian cinema because it had two Indigenous lead actors. It was also the first Australian film to be shot in colour (see Source 2). By introducing a mainstream audience to Indigenous issues, it also showed the potential of film to generate debate and stimulate social change.

The Disney studio became the main source of children's entertainment. The animated films *Dumbo* and *Bambi* had been major hits during the war, and by the 1950s Disney films were clearly established as 'must sees' for Australian children. American serials and cartoons also emerged as staples of Saturday afternoon picture shows, and ensured that Australian children in the post-war period were introduced to a constant diet of American popular culture.



Source 2 *Jedda* was the first Australian film to star Aboriginal actors in lead roles.



Source 3 *Smiley* was one of the films that featured the Australian star 'Chips' Rafferty. Like many films made in Australia around that time, it was a US–UK co-production.

These animated cartoons and serials merged different American popular culture influences. They frequently drew on printed comic strip heroes such as Batman, the Phantom and Green Hornet for ideas.

It must be remembered that before television, newsreels at picture theatres were the only way people could actually see major news events in moving pictures. Serials and newsreels were the main reasons why people in the post-war period kept coming to the cinema week after week. As a result, local picture theatres became major sources of popular culture. It also explains why newsreels remained popular even after the Australian film industry went into decline after World War II. In fact, newsreel production continued until television was introduced to Australia in the mid-1950s.

Check your learning 7.3

Remember and understand

1 When radios were introduced into Australian homes during the 1930s, what other forms of home entertainment did they replace?
2 How did Australians see news items before the arrival of television?
3 Why was *Jedda* such an important film?

Apply and analyse

4 Explain the significance of radio for Australian popular culture in the 1940s.
5 Why do you think older Australians in the 1950s would have worried about Disney films and serials becoming so popular with Australian children?

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct research on the Internet into the career of *one* of the following Australian actors: Errol Flynn, Peter Finch or Chips Rafferty. Write a 250-word historical description outlining the contributions your chosen person made to the film industry both in Australia and internationally. Include at least one primary source and reference it.

7.4 Changes to sport

Sport was very popular in Australia in the post-war period, much as it is today. Many historians argue that sport played a key role in restoring normality after the traumas of the war. Cricket was the most widely played sport at the time, perhaps because it provided a strong link with England. The Ashes series with England developed into one of our great sporting traditions. These contests had been disrupted by the war. Both England and Australia were keen to see the contest resume as a sign of life returning to normal.

An English team toured Australia in the summer of 1946–47 on a goodwill tour. Australia played with a determination to show the 'mother country' how strong they were. The result was a 4–1 series win to Australia, a superiority that was confirmed when Don Bradman led the team to England in 1948, and his team (which became known as the 'Invincibles') remained undefeated for the entire tour.

Rugby League was another form of popular culture drawn from Britain. It was popular in New South Wales and Queensland, and the most prestigious competition was the New South Wales Rugby League premiership. Unlike many sports, Rugby League continued throughout World War II. Balmain won the 1946 grand final against St George in a match marred by refereeing controversies.

Rugby League was matched in the southern states by Australian Rules football, a truly home-grown sport. Like Rugby League, it had been played throughout the war, providing some sense of normality, as many young men went off to fight. Unlike Rugby League, however, Australian Rules football at the time could not technically be classed as a form of popular culture due to the fact that it failed to gain popularity at a global level.



Source 1 Australian cricketer Sir Donald Bradman, 1930s



Source 2 The first Australia vs England Rugby League test, 12 June 1950

key**concept:** Continuity and change

The changing face of sport in Australia

Sport provides a strong cultural continuity in Australian society. Cricket, the football codes, tennis, golf and horse racing are all easily recognisable as cultural activities that continue to engage the Australian public to this day. Cricketers still play regularly for the Ashes, the MCG is still the venue for the Australian Rules grand final, and the Melbourne Cup remains the 'race that stops a nation'.

Beneath those continuities, however, are changes that reflect a more modern society. Professionalism has been a major change. In many sports today, playing at the top level is a full-time job. Time required for training and rehabilitation means that maintaining other work is no longer practical.

The racial and ethnic backgrounds of Australia's multicultural society are now also reflected by our sporting men and women.

Domestically, Australian Rules and Rugby League have moved towards national competitions that are financed by lucrative television and sponsorship deals. Rugby Union was the last football code to go fully professional, and has focused on international competition. In 2005, soccer (known as football in most other countries around the world) established a national competition known as the A-League. In addition to this national league, Australia has participated in FIFA World Cups for both women and men.

For more information on the key concept of continuity and change refer to page 7 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 3 Quarter-final match of the FIFA women's football World Cup in Canada, Japan *vs* Australia, on 28 June 2015

Check your learning 7.4

Remember and understand

1 Why did England send a cricket team to tour Australia so soon after the end of World War II?
2 What is the name of the cricket test series between Australia and England? Why do you think it became one of our greatest sporting traditions?
3 In which states was Rugby League most popular in the late 1940s?
4 In which states was Australian Rules football popular?
5 Why was Australian Rules football technically not regarded as a popular culture activity? Do you believe that this is still the case today? Justify your response.

Apply and analyse

6 Conduct research on the Internet to collect evidence on the role Don Bradman played during the immediate post-war period in Australia.
   a Use the information you have gathered to write a short response outlining the contributions he made to the sport of cricket as well as the importance he played in broader Australian society.
   b Prepare an argument for or against the case to name Don Bradman as the most important Australian sports person of the post-war period.

7.5 Changes to music

On the surface, Australian society in 1956 did not appear to be too different from Australian society 10 years earlier in 1946. Cricket, Rugby League, Australian Rules football, tennis and horse racing were all popular sports that showed the influence of our largely British cultural heritage. Radio continued to be the most popular and important medium for communication. In addition to this, most city suburbs and country towns had a picture theatre showing American and British films along with newsreels and serials. Then something changed – rock'n'roll arrived in Australia.

The Sun, a Sydney-based newspaper, reported on 21 June 1956 that 'rock and roll raised no more than a flutter' in Australia. Three weeks later, Elvis Presley's *Heartbreak Hotel* was released locally, and the same newspaper published the first rumour that Elvis was to tour Australia. By December, Bill Haley's *Rock Around the Clock* had established an Australian sales record of



Source 1 Saxophone player Len Austin and the Recaps band perform at a rock'n'roll dance in the Manly RSL Hall organised by the Salvation Army, in 1959

175 000 45s and 78s, and 12 000 LPs (all are types of vinyl records). On 20 December, a 'rock dance' was held at Sydney's Redfern Oval, and within six months rock'n'roll had become part of popular culture for good.

There is no doubt rock'n'roll brought about many changes in 1950s Australia. Teenagers had a different outlook from the generation that had experienced the **Great Depression** and World War II. Attending rock'n'roll concerts became a symbol of the fact that teenagers were different from earlier generations and signalled a break with their parents. It also showed how enthusiastically they adopted American popular culture. As Australian musicians such as John Manners and Johnny O'Keefe absorbed these influences, they also started practising playing rock'n'roll and developing their skills in this new form of popular culture. Eventually these artists would start writing and performing uniquely Australian rock songs to sell-out crowds, but in 1957 rock'n'roll was only just starting to bring about social change in Australia.

key**concept:** Significance

Bill Haley's tour

Rock'n'roll became one of the most distinct products designed specifically for teenagers. Radio, television and film all helped spread the music, and tours by live acts were the next step. Although Australia was geographically isolated in the 1950s, an American promoter living in Australia called Lee Gordon realised the potential of rock'n'roll. He organised the first rock'n'roll tour outside North America when he booked Bill Haley and the Comets, Big Joe Turner, The Platters, LaVern Baker and Freddie Bell and the Bell Boys on a package tour of Australia.

As an indication of just what a major undertaking this first tour was, in January 1957 it took Bill Haley six days to travel from the east coast of the United States to Sydney. There were three stops on the trans-Pacific flight for this first ever tour that included mixed races and genders – both certain to attract controversy in a 'white' Australia where women were yet to achieve any kind of equality.

The tour was a huge success, playing to 330 000 people at a time when Australia's population was still under 10 million. Teenagers danced in the aisles before ushers made them sit down. A reviewer called it 'the noisiest show to ever hit Sydney'. It was reported that 'plates rattled half a block away, dogs cringed in their kennels and the boxing stadium at Rushcutters Bay loosened its nails'.

A second tour including Little Richard, Eddie Cochran, Gene Vincent and Alis Lesley arrived in October 1957, and it was clear that rock'n'roll was creating a wide generation gap.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 2 A poster promoting the Bill Haley tour of 1957



Source 3 Police hold back Beatles fans at Sydney airport in June 1964, as Ringo Starr and Brian Epstein (manager of The Beatles) arrive – the pair missed the early part of the Australian tour because Ringo needed to have his tonsils removed.

The Beatles tour Australia

On 11 June 1964, The Beatles arrived in Australia for their first and only visit. By June 1964, The Beatles were the most famous people on the planet. Concerts in Adelaide had been added because of public demand, and 350000 people lined the entire drive from the airport to the centre of Adelaide. The crowds were repeated wherever The Beatles went. For two weeks, Australia was the centre of the popular culture universe.

The Beatles' tour had a direct impact on Australian society. Teenagers disobeyed authority for the first time in their lives, ignoring police instructions as they massed anywhere that The Beatles might appear. The mobilisation of so many teenagers was an early sign of the mass movement that went on to play an important role protesting against the Vietnam War.

The tour also showed that Australia retained very strong cultural links with Britain. The Beatles entered the Australian charts six months before the American charts. British migrants arriving in Australia would bring their records with them, ensuring that Australia was kept up to date with the pop boom that was exploding in England.

The Beatles' tour changed the face of Australian music. Groups replaced singers almost instantly, and pop music became the quickest way for many migrants to assimilate into Australian culture. The Easybeats in Sydney and The Twilights in Adelaide were two bands who formed in the aftermath of The Beatles tour, and both consisted mainly of migrants. These bands would go on to create original Australian music, as well as to tour England.

Check your learning 7.5

Remember and understand

1 What evidence is there to suggest that rock'n'roll became an almost instant success in Australia?

2 Who staged the first rock'n'roll concert tour of Australia? In what year was the tour staged?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain why Bill Haley's and The Beatles' tours of Australia were important developments in Australian popular culture.

4 In which ways did Australian teenagers during the 1950s adopt aspects of American culture? How different do you think this is from the way American popular culture influences Australian teenagers today?

Evaluate and create

5 Listen to the music of some of the artists who toured Australia in the 1950s. Create a line-up for a concert by some of these artists.
   - **a** Design a poster to advertise the concert.
   - **b** Write two reviews of the imaginary concert – one for a daily newspaper and one for a teenage magazine – demonstrating the different attitudes held by older and younger generations of Australians towards rock'n'roll.

6 Research an Australian pop group from the 1950s or 1960s and one current Australian pop artist. Write 2–3 paragraphs comparing their careers and impact on the international music scene.

7.6 The impact of changing technology on television and film

Television had proved critical in the United States in allowing rock'n'roll to develop from local to national acceptance. Regardless of distance, television meant that teenagers across the country could turn on their sets and see Elvis Presley on nationally broadcast shows such as *The Ed Sullivan Show* (originally called *Toast of the Town*) and *The Milton Berle Show*.

Television had the same potential in a country the size of Australia, especially because of its small population, vast distances and physical isolation from the rest of the world. Legal and political arguments in Australia about the ownership model of television stations delayed introduction of television here. After much discussion it was finally decided that Australia would have a joint government (based on the British model) and private (based on the American model) television station ownership model. This compromise between British and American influences was typical of Australian society in the 1950s.

The Melbourne Olympic Games in November 1956 were the main motivation for the introduction of television. Government and commercial stations were operating in Sydney and Melbourne in time to televise the games, and by 1960 Brisbane, Adelaide and Perth also had stations. As with many new technologies, television sets were expensive in the beginning. In 1956, a new set could cost more than $400; this at a time when the average weekly wage was around $30 a week. As a result, it is estimated that only about 5 per cent of households in Melbourne and 1 per cent of households in Sydney had television sets by 1960.

To encourage investment in television stations, the Menzies Government had decided not to have a local content **quota** for programming. As a result of this decision, the early years of television in Australia were dominated by American programs. There were few television studios and other facilities to produce local programs in Australia at the time and very little equipment to record and broadcast material. Therefore, most local content had to be broadcast live. It consisted mainly of quiz and game shows that had been popular on radio. When a Senate Committee reported on Australian television content in 1963, it estimated that 97 per cent of all television drama shown between 1956 and 1963 was American. These programs had a significant influence on Australian society over the period.

With rock'n'roll and television established in Australia by the end of the 1950s, they became major vehicles for social and cultural change around the country. Both enabled the transmission of American popular culture in a more immediate and direct way than either film or the visits of American troops during World War II had been able to achieve.



Source 1 A family watches a television in the television lounge at a department store in Sydney on 24 November 1956



Source 2 The Melbourne Olympics, held in 1956, were one of the main motivating factors for the introduction of television in Australia. The games were broadcast as a test transmission by all three television stations operating in Melbourne at the time.

key**concept:** Contestability

‘Welcome to television’?

For historians, one of the difficulties in studying the early years of Australian television is that so little primary source material survives. With no videotape or equipment to record television shows, live broadcasts were unique events lost to time. There is even controversy surrounding the historic first words spoken on Australian television.

On 16 September 1956, Bruce Gyngell greeted the Australian people in the first television broadcast from TCB 9 in Sydney: ‘Good evening and welcome to television.’ Although these are the first words spoken on Australian television, if you were to watch this footage today, the chances are you’d be watching a fake. According to Gerald Stone (a respected Australian television and radio journalist), the original kinescope film of the event was lost. The version we see today showing Gyngell standing in front of a world map (see Source 3) was recreated a year after the original broadcast. As a result, it probably looks quite a bit more rehearsed and professional than the image that originally went to air on 16 September 1956.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to page 12 of ‘The history toolkit’.



Source 3 Bruce Gyngell shown re-enacting his introduction to the first regular television broadcast service that aired in 1956

The great film revival

Australia has had a vibrant film industry at various times throughout its history, and film has become a significant way for Australians to reflect on their national identity and confront aspects of Australian life. The early 1970s saw the emergence of what has been called the ‘new wave’ of Australian film.

The timing of the new wave reflected a growing interest in Australian culture and had the political support of two Australian prime ministers. The Liberal MP John Gorton was prime minister from 1968 until 1971, and Labor’s Gough Whitlam from 1972 until 1975. These two politicians laid the groundwork for Australian film to emerge as a major contributor to a national popular culture in the early 1970s.

Gorton established the Australian Council for the Arts, the Australian Film Development Corporation, and the National Film and Television Training School. Whitlam continued the support by creating the Australian Film Commission to help finance and produce films that could reach an international market. This was the first time film had received such specific government support and the result was a boom in Australian films.

The 1970s saw films as diverse as *Walkabout* and *Wake in Fright* in 1971, *Alvin Purple* in 1973, *Picnic at Hanging Rock* in 1975 and *Mad Max* in 1979. Directors such as Peter Weir, Gillian Armstrong, George Miller and Bruce Beresford got their start during this period. Actors also thrived under the system. Future international stars such as Mel Gibson, Jacki Weaver and Judy Davis all got their start in the 1970s new wave.

The themes the films in this period covered also signalled a new confidence in Australian culture. *Stork*, *The Adventures of Barry McKenzie* and *Alvin Purple* celebrated the larrikin Australian spirit. Uniquely Australian stories such as *Picnic at Hanging Rock*, *Caddie* and *Sunday Too Far Away* all received overseas attention. The vastness of the Australian outback was captured in *Walkabout*, which introduced Australians to the Indigenous actor David Gulpilil. *Wake in Fright* focused on the darker side of country life. This theme was taken to apocalyptic lengths in the *Mad Max* series, which led to international success for the *Mad Max* films, actor Mel Gibson and director George Miller. The sinister depiction of the Australian countryside was a recurrent theme throughout the 1970s, and paved the way for 21st-century successes such as *Wolf Creek*.

Australian literature also became a rich source for film makers, and showed the capacity of Australian culture to change and evolve. *Walkabout*, *Picnic at Hanging Rock* (see Source 4), *The Chant of Jimmie Blacksmith* and *My Brilliant Career* were all 1970s films that were based on great Australian novels. Playwright David Williamson had two plays turned into successful 1970s films, *Don’s Party* and *The Removalists*, and continued that trend into the 1980s.

Since then, the Australian film industry has continued to build on this success – both at home and internationally. In 1986, the film *"Crocodile" Dund*ee became the highest-grossing Australian film of all time, banking US$328 million worldwide. In fact, the highest-earning Australian films have all been made since 1986, including *Strictly Ballroom*, *Babe, Red Dog* and *The Dressmaker*. All of these films have told distinctly Australian stories. In 2015, *"Crocodile" Dundee* was replaced by *Mad Max: Fury Road* as the highest-earning Australian film ever – taking home US$375 million at the box office (see Source 5).



Source 4 A film still from *Picnic at Hanging Rock*, 1975



Source 5 In 2015, the film *Mad Max: Fury Road* became the highest-earning Australian film ever made.

Check your learning 7.6

Remember and understand

1. Explain how television helped the development of rock'n'roll in America.
2. Why was the introduction of television in Australia delayed?
3. What event was the main motivating factor for the introduction of television in Australia in 1956?
4. Which Menzies Government decision allowed television to introduce American culture into Australia?

Apply and analyse

5. Select an Australian film that has been released since World War II. Analyse it to explain the image of Australia it portrays. Discuss the ways in which the film you have chosen has contributed to Australian popular culture.

7.7 The birth of Australian soapies and mini-series

The term 'soap opera' was originally used in reference to ongoing radio serials. They were called soap operas because they were usually sponsored by soap companies and featured commercials for soap throughout. Over time in Australia, soap operas simply became known as 'soapies'. These serials were aired during the day when housewives were the main audience. The idea transferred to television originally in the United States in the early 1950s. Television soapies are characterised by an ongoing storyline that runs across a number of episodes. Soapies often try to depict 'real life', but require viewers to suspend reality. Cliffhanger endings are frequently used to end individual episodes or seasons to encourage the audience to tune in again for the next instalment.

Australia's first television soapie was *Autumn Affair*, which ran on Channel 7 for 15 minutes a day in 1958 and 1959. In 1967, the ABC launched the first early evening soapie, *Bellbird*, dealing with life in a fictional rural town of the same name (see Source 1). The 15-minute episodes were the lead-in to the ABC news. *Bellbird* drew a large and loyal following at a time when the ABC was the only network to broadcast nationally. It was broadcast until 1977 when it ended abruptly as a result of government budget cuts to the ABC.



Source 1 The locals gather in a pub in *Bellbird.* From 1967 to 1977, Australians were glued to their television sets watching the first early evening soapie in Australia on the ABC.

Soapies in the 1970s

The 1970s can be seen as a time of social, political and cultural change in Australia. By this time, there had been 23 years of conservative government by the Liberal–Country Party coalition. Australia at the end of the 1970s was largely unrecognisable from Australia during the 1960s – the 1960s were a time of black-and-white televisions, conscription of young people to fight in Vietnam, and a refusal by the government to allow most Asians to settle here.

The sense of excitement and social change of early 1970s Australia was reflected in television programs at the time. *Number 96* was launched in 1972. The series explored the relationships of the residents of a small, inner-city apartment block named Number 96. It caused a sensation by dealing with issues that had previously been considered taboo (offensive and distasteful) and unsuitable for showing on television. Topics such as nudity, divorce, homosexuality, racism and drugs were explored in the storylines.

Number 96 brought previous cultural barriers crashing down (see Source 2), and it was followed in 1974 by *The Box*. Set in a television station, *The Box* tried to take the sexual themes and nudity of *Number 96* a step further.

The first soapie aimed at teenagers, *The Class of '74*, was launched in the same year, and attracted considerable attention. Set in a high school, it suggested that teenagers had an interest more in social activities than schoolwork. This meant that the program was subject to intense legal scrutiny. The Broadcasting Control Board would often demand script changes to make it more 'acceptable' for early evening viewing.

The first Australian soapie, *Bellbird*, had produced a film version as early as 1971, and films based on *Number 96* and *The Box* soon followed. Film versions of television soapies had several advantages – they could be filmed in colour and they were able to show more nudity than was allowed on television at the time. The arrival of colour television to Australia in 1975 took away some of the advantages held by movie theatres before then.

A new style of soapie was introduced in 1976 when *The Sullivans* was launched. Set in World War II-era Melbourne, it ran until 1982, and drew viewers into following the lives of its fictional family. *The Sullivans* echoed the success of Australian films in the 1970s, and reflected an interest in Australians exploring their own culture. Its success was echoed in the 1980s by *A Country Practice*, which revived a *Bellbird*-style of storytelling set in a country town. *Prisoner* and *Sons and Daughters* also found long-running success in the 1980s, and reinforced the dominant position of television in Australian popular culture.



Source 2 Actors Abigail and Joe Hasham in a scene from the television show *Number 96*

Mini-series in the 1980s

The election of Bob Hawke in 1983 returned the Labor Party to power. Hawke portrayed a down-to-earth Australian image. He had won a beer-drinking competition while a student at Oxford University, and was able to draw a wide following in the community. He still holds the record for the highest approval rating of any prime minister. He was re-elected in 1984, 1987 and 1990.

The Hawke years were characterised by economic reform and a confidence in Australian popular culture. Television launched a number of mini-series that showed aspects of Australian life. Mini-series were longer than traditional films, but limited to a single, self-contained story rather than an open-ended narrative that had previously been the basis of long-running television series.

Mini-series boomed during the 1980s as Australian history and culture became hot topics for the producers to explore. These included *Bodyline*, which looked at the events behind the 1932–33 cricket series between Australia and England; *The Dismissal*, which examined the sacking of the Whitlam Government; *The Cowra Breakout*, a famous incident from World War II; and *Vietnam*, which was a major examination of a war that was still a hotly debated topic in Australian society.



Source 3 A still from *Bangkok Hilton* starring Nicole Kidman which aired on Australian television in November 1989

Australian novels such as Ruth Park's *The Harp in the South* and *Poor Man's Orange*, memoirs such as Albert Facey's *A Fortunate Life*, and novels about Australia such as *A Town Like Alice* all provided material for successful mini-series. Indigenous issues were firmly placed on the television agenda with the acclaimed *Women of the Sun*, while *Bangkok Hilton* starring Nicole Kidman (see Source 3) fictionalised the experience of young Australians caught smuggling drugs from Asia.

Neighbours and *Home and Away*

Australia's interest in gathering around the television to share the lives of fictional soap characters culminated in two extraordinarily long-running shows that aired for the first time in the 1980s – *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* (see Sources 4 and 5). When *Neighbours* was first shown in 1985, Ronald Reagan was president of the United States, the Cold War still pitted the United States and Soviet Union against each other, and Bruce Springsteen was touring Australia for the first time. A 15-year-old who watched the debut episode of *Neighbours* turned 40 in 2010. *Home and Away* followed shortly after, premiering in January 1988 – the same year that Australia celebrated its bicentennial (200th anniversary) of British settlement.

These two television soapies have, between them, aired more than 14 000 episodes. As with the mini-series boom, they emerged from an Australia that was becoming increasingly confident in using popular culture to explore its own stories. As the bicentennial of Captain Cook's landing in Australia approached, there was a focus on national reflection, and a questioning of what being Australian meant. The lives of 'ordinary' Australians shown in fictionalised settings such as Erinsborough (*Neighbours*) and Summer Bay (*Home and Away*) were now seen as a valid source of entertainment. Teen audiences emerged as a major target for advertisers. This helped both soapies to dominate Australian and international ratings throughout the 1990s and early 2000s.

They have proved a rich training ground for aspiring actors and musicians. Among the talent to have emerged from *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* are Guy Pearce, Kylie Minogue, Jason Donovan, Natalie Imbruglia, Delta Goodrem, Melissa George and Julian McMahon. All played recurring roles in the soaps before moving on to major international success.

Although celebrating the life of average Australians, both shows have been criticised for focusing on a 'white' view of Australia. And while both series have dealt with controversial social issues such as drugs, sexuality and teen pregnancy, race and ethnicity have rarely featured. Token attempts at introducing minor characters have failed to challenge criticism that the racial composition of Erinsborough and Summer Bay fails to reflect that of modern Australia.

Both series project a vision of Australia that has proven extremely attractive to overseas viewers. *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* have had extraordinary success being sold internationally. The image of Australia as a country of sunshine, surf and white faces proved irresistible in many markets. *Neighbours* was so



Source 4 Morag Bellingham (Cornelia Francis), Alf Stewart (Ray Meagher) and Eric 'Ric' Dalby (Mark Furze) in the long-running Channel 7 soapie *Home and Away*

successful in Britain that, in 1988, programmers were forced to move it from early to late afternoon because so many school students were failing to return to school after going home at lunch. *Neighbours* has been shown in countries as diverse as Kenya, Barbados, Iceland and Ireland. In the 1990s it was even shown in the prized United States market. *Home and Away* has been popular throughout Europe, as well as Israel and Canada.

Each show has enthusiastically embraced social media as a way of interacting with a new audience, necessary to sustain such longevity. In 2009, *Neighbours* became the first Australian television show to establish Twitter accounts for its characters and, in 2011, was the first television show to be available on an iPhone app for an increasingly tech-savvy young audience. Both shows offer viewers the opportunity to catch up on missed episodes and preview forthcoming stories through their websites.



Source 5 Scott Robinson (Jason Donovan) and Charlene Robinson (Kylie Minogue) in a wedding scene from *Neighbours*, 1987. This episode remains one of the most watched in the history of the show. It aired to an audience of 20 million in the UK in November 1988.

Check your learning 7.7

Remember and understand

1. Explain where the term 'soap opera' comes from.
2. What are the main characteristics of soap operas?
3. What was the first Australian soapie?
4. How did Australian soapies change during the 1970s?

Apply and analyse

5. Why do you think Australian soapies have become so popular overseas?

Evaluate and create

6. Do you think Australian soapies such as *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* should include characters from a broader range of racial/ethnic backgrounds? Explain your response.

7A rich task

The influence of popular culture in Australia

Many of us today have a television in our bedroom and watch movies online. It's hard to believe that only 60 years ago radio was the main way Australians accessed news and entertainment. The nature of entertainment has evolved radically over that time. The growth of television and new forms of music reflect upheavals in values and culture that our society has undergone since the end of World War II.

For the generation who grew up before the 1950s, the only way to watch moving images was to visit a cinema. The arrival of television in Australia in the 1950s relocated the movie screen into people's living rooms and fundamentally changed the ways in which people accessed popular culture.

Source 1

> When television itself first started in 1956, because television sets were, I suppose, very expensive, most people didn't have one, and all of the major department stores would have a television set in their window … People would actually gather outside the department stores at night-time, children in their pyjamas and dressing gowns, adults would bring their own seats and sit there and watch the television in the store windows.
>
> Extract from a 2006 special episode of the *Science Show* on ABC Radio National, 'Celebrating 50 years of television'

With the birth of rock'n'roll around the same time, popular music was undergoing a revolution of its own. Rock'n'roll became more than just another music trend – it came to influence fashion, lifestyle, language and attitudes, especially among teenagers and young people.

Popular culture in the 1950s would come to exemplify the gap between the culture of youth and that of their parents. Older Australians were concerned that the popularity of rock'n'roll through television and radio was encouraging young people to challenge boundaries around taboo topics, such as sex.



Source 2 Bill Haley on tour in 1957 – this and other tours by famous rock'n'roll bands not only influenced music but also fashion, language and attitudes

This letter to the editor appeared in *The Sun* newspaper in January 1957, while Bill Haley was touring Australia. It was printed under the heading 'Menace of rock and roll':

Source 3

> It will be interesting to note the effects of the visit to Sydney of a band of American entertainers. Reports of the way 'rock and roll' has been received by overseas audiences, coupled with the almost unanimous acceptance of Elvis Presley who, despite his repulsive antics, is now the current idol of the younger set, lead one to believe that the arrival of Mr Haley could be regretted for years to come.
>
> We have only to glance through the daily papers to read the shocking manner in which teenagers of today, throughout the world, carry on.
>
> The morals of the modern generation, with the exception of a small minority, have nearly reached an all time low, and 'rock and roll' has done nothing to improve them.
>
> Already the general outlook of the Australian teenager has begun to deteriorate rapidly and to such an extent that something must be done to prevent the low level which they are gradually approaching, being attained.

> Strongly opposed by most leading musicians, both modern and classical, 'rock and roll' represents a serious threat to the community.
>
> In both Britain and the United States riots are prevalent where this form of entertainment is played. We must see that it is not given the same opportunity to take a grip on our own youth.
>
> Letter to the editor by John J Sutton, *The Sun*, Sydney, January 1957 (reprinted *in My Generation. Growing up in Australia 1950s to 1980s*, Bernie Howitt, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne, 1992, pp. 25–6)

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identify and analyse different historical interpretations

As explained earlier, historians use two types of sources to gather evidence about the past:

- primary sources – objects or materials created or written at the time being investigated, for example during an event or very soon after
- secondary sources – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

Much of the historical study and research you will complete in secondary school will involve you reading secondary sources (for example, textbooks and websites about the historical period you are studying). While these secondary sources at first glance may appear to provide an objective, unbiased and balanced view of the historical events or periods they are writing about, this is not always the case. All historians write from a particular perspective. There is no objective 'truth' that historians uncover; rather, all historians must interpret historical events and issues using their own perspective. Of course, historians must use evidence to justify their interpretations, but there is no absolutely 'correct' way of interpreting evidence, and historians can also use (or disregard) different sources of evidence to support many different interpretations. For example, many historians writing in the early 1900s about the British settlement of Australia presented it in a very positive light, and virtually ignored the negative experiences of Indigenous Australians.

It is therefore very important that you are able to identify and analyse different historical interpretations. To do this, ask yourself the following questions:

- What historical event is being interpreted?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as important in this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as positive in this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are ignored or left out of this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as negative in this interpretation?
- What motives or characteristics are being attributed to the humans involved in this interpretation?
- What primary sources are used to support the interpretation? How?
- What primary sources might have been left out or ignored by this interpretation?
- Does this interpretation involve a critique of other interpretations? If so, what is being said about other interpretations?

Apply the skill

1 Use the questions above as a guide to prepare a 250-word report explaining the changing nature of popular culture in Australia since the 1950s. Explain how each of the sources presented in this section offer different interpretations of the changes.

Extend your understanding

1 Consider how the sources in this section provide such different interpretations of the arrival of rock'n'roll in Australia. What technology or trends do you see in society today that might compare to the upheaval older generations of Australians faced when television and rock'n'roll emerged?

2 Prepare a presentation for your class on a modern trend or technology of your choice (such as Facebook or Twitter), describing:

a what benefits the trend is bringing to society

b what problems the trend could have for society

c what effects you believe the trend might have on society in 15 years' time.

7.8 Changes in the music industry



Source 1 Rock icon 'Molly' Meldrum, host of the influential television music show, *Countdown*, which screened from 1974 to 1987

From its earliest days in Australia, rock'n'roll was branded as rebellious music for teenagers. The link between rock'n'roll and teenage misbehaviour was established even before there were any rock'n'roll bands in Australia. The first rock'n'roll film, *Rock Around the Clock*, was released in Sydney on 14 September 1956. Ten days later two youths were fined for dancing in Pitt Street after viewing the film.

The origins of Australian rock

In the early years of the Australian rock industry most songs were covers of American artists and bands. The first original Australian song was probably 'Rock'n'Roll Washboard' by the Schneider Sisters, written in November 1956. The Schneider Sisters came from a country music background. This was typical of the early Australian rock acts, with established artists from other music genres attracted to rock'n'roll because of its novelty value and links to the emerging teenage market.

keyconcept: Contestability

George Assang – Australia's first rock'n'roll star?

To this day there is considerable debate about who released Australia's first rock'n'roll record. The unlikely pioneer of Australian rock'n'roll was an Indigenous Australian called George Assang. He was born on Thursday Island, and his smooth singing voice got him regular work fronting jazz and swing bands on the Australian circuit. On 12 July 1956, under his stage name of Vic Sabrino, he released a version of 'Heartbreak Hotel' simultaneously with Elvis Presley's version. There is still some debate about when he recorded an earlier cover of Bill Haley's 'Rock Around the Clock'. Whether it was 1955 or 1956, the Vic Sabrino jazz/swing version of 'Rock Around the Clock' could make a case for being Australia's earliest attempt at rock'n'roll.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to page 12 of 'The history toolkit'.

Johnny O'Keefe

Johnny O'Keefe is remembered as one of the most significant Australian rock'n'roll performers of all time. O'Keefe was born in 1935 and began his singing career in the 1950s. His life changed forever in 1955 after seeing and hearing Bill Haley singing 'Rock Around the Clock'. O'Keefe met Bill Haley at his 1957 tour and impressed Haley so much that Haley gave him a song to record. From that point onwards, O'Keefe knew that he wanted to perform this style of music and dedicated himself to becoming a rock'n'roll singer and star. From humble beginnings, O'Keefe went on to have national and international success with songs such as 'Wild One, Shout!' and 'She's My Baby'.



Source 2 Johnny O'Keefe performing on stage in 1963

One riotous night of partying was the inspiration for O'Keefe's 1958 release, 'Wild One'. This was the first genuinely Australian rock'n'roll hit record. After hearing it performed on tour with O'Keefe, Buddy Holly and the Crickets took it back to the United States where it was released as 'Real Wild Child'. It has subsequently been recorded by artists as diverse as Jerry Lee Lewis, Joan Jett, Status Quo and most famously Iggy Pop. In fact, the Iggy Pop version has been used as the theme to ABC TV's *Rage* for more than 25 years.

In his 20-year career, O'Keefe released more than 50 singles, 50 EPs (extended play records) and 100 albums. To this day he remains Australia's most successful chart performer, with 29 Top 40 hits to his credit in Australia between 1959 and 1974.

Surf music

The massive popularity of surf music that started around 1962 launched the next phase of Australian music. Sydney band The Atlantics created a huge local hit, 'Bombora', which was released internationally, even receiving the US *Cashbox Magazine*'s Record of the Week award. Suddenly surf bands were everywhere, playing suburban dances and sending teenage boys in search of guitars so they could imitate their favourite band and be 'cool'.

The classic rock line-up of guitars, bass and drums emerged at this point, and major international recording labels such as CBS and HMV began investing in the local Australian music industry. As The Beach Boys made the charts, vocals started to influence surf music. A 14-year-old Australian singer by the name of Little Pattie entered the charts with 'He's My Blonde Headed Stompie Wompie Real Gone Surfer Boy' late in 1963. The summer of 1963–64 was the highpoint of the surf music craze in Australia.

The beat boom

The 'beat boom' was a period during the early 1960s when a style known as beat music became popular in the charts. Put simply, beat music was a fusion of rock'n'roll and rhythm and blues (R&B) that developed in Britain at this time and led to a 'British invasion' of the music charts around the world. The overwhelming popularity and success of The Beatles was one example of the British invasion. Their Australian tour in June 1964 revolutionised the Australian music industry (see Source 3). Overnight it seemed as if instrumental groups and solo singers were out, and rock'n'roll bands were in. Smaller, independent recording companies such as W&G in Melbourne, Clarion in Perth and Alberts in Sydney prospered in the wake of Beatlemania. Teenagers across the country were hungry for new records and live concerts. As a result, many new Australian rock bands formed and the music industry in Australia boomed from 1964.



Source 3 The Beatles arrived in Adelaide on 12 June 1964.

A vibrant national scene made up of suburban dances in the major cities and concerts in country towns, gave a number of performers the opportunity to make a career in music. Some of these performers and bands were The Easybeats, and Ray Brown and the Whispers (from Sydney); The Twilights and Masters Apprentices (from Adelaide); Bobby and Laurie, The Loved Ones, and Normie Rowe and The Playboys (from Melbourne); Tony Worsley and The Blue Jays, and The Five (from Brisbane); and Johnny Young Kompany (from Perth).

By 1966, The Easybeats and Normie Rowe, two of the biggest names on the local scene, had moved to England in search of international fame and success. The Easybeats recorded 'Friday on My Mind' in London in 1966. It reached the Top 20 in the US and Top 10 in the UK, and would go on to be voted best Australian song of all time in 2001. Normie Rowe recorded a number of songs in London that were huge hits back in Australia.

The 1970s: *Countdown* and Double J

Australian music became much more diverse in the 1970s as a new range of acts replaced the bands popular during the beat boom. Experimental acts such as Tully, Tamam Shud and Levi Smith's Clefs reflected changes in society as drug use and alternative lifestyles mirrored similar trends overseas. Festivals such as Ourimbah and Sunbury were where the young gathered. Music was growing with the baby boomer generation (those born between 1946 and 1965). And then the ABC launched a television show that brought young people's music to an even wider audience.

Television had played a significant role in allowing access to rock music since Johnny O'Keefe was given a show called *Six O'Clock Rock* in 1959. Because the ABC was the only national broadcaster at the time, any show on the ABC was key in broadcasting information to the more remote areas of Australia.

When a new music program called *Countdown* started on 8 November 1974, its host, Ian 'Molly' Meldrum, became a household name – and he is still one of Australia's most famous television personalities. *Countdown* provided a national stage for promoting new Australian acts to young people. Sunday evenings became primetime viewing for teenagers wanting to know what was happening in Australian music. The show made stars of acts such as Skyhooks, Sherbet and John Paul Young. The show went to air from 1974 until 1987 and became the most popular music program in Australian television history.

In 1975, the Whitlam Government granted the ABC the first new radio licence in an Australian capital city since 1932. The ABC used the licence to set up Australia's first non-commercial rock radio station – known as Double J. Double J started broadcasting in January 1975. Committed to alternative music and challenging the commercial monopoly on rock, Double J started broadcasting with Skyhooks' 'You Just Like Me 'Cos I'm Good in Bed', which had been banned by commercial radio.

Double J changed its name to Triple J in 1980 when the FM band was opened for radio broadcasting. The dream of a national youth radio network was finally realised in 1989, when Triple J became a national network. Since its first broadcast, it has played a crucial role in championing Australian music, often



Source 4 Countdown provided a national stage for promoting new Australian acts to young people.



Source 5 Radio presenters Adam Spencer and Helen Razer in the Triple J studio in Ultimo, 1998 – both Spencer and Razer moved from Triple J to careers in more mainstream media and Triple J continues to give new young radio presenters an opportunity.

playing music that commercial radio programmers deemed unsuitable. The annual Triple J Hottest 100 has become a staple of Australian music. It gives Australian bands the opportunity to compete with international artists. The 2010 Hottest 100, for example, was topped by Australian acts Angus and Julia Stone and Little Red and the number one track in 2011 was by Gotye. Perhaps the greatest indicator of Triple J's contribution to the Australian music industry is its support for emerging independent Australian bands. Sydney band The Jezabels reached number 16 with 'Mace Spray' and number 49 with 'Easy to Love' in the 2010 Hottest 100. This was despite being a totally independent band without the backing of a major label. Providing opportunities for bands such as The Jezabels and thousands of others over the years indicates why the government's support for a youth radio network was such a critical decision in the development of the Australian music industry.

By harnessing new technological developments such as colour television (*Countdown*) and FM broadcasting (Triple J), Australian music was able to enter an era of genuine international acceptance.

Australian music goes global

From Johnny O'Keefe's attempt to get into the American market in 1959 to The Jezabels' independent assault on Europe and North America in 2011, Australian acts have always attempted to test themselves against the rest of the world. The 1980s saw an explosion of Australian acts that had a genuine global impact on the music scene. From the early 1980s, bands such as Brisbane's The Go-Betweens developed a cult following across Europe and North America. Following their path were bands such as INXS, Midnight Oil, AC/DC, Nick Cave and the Bad Seeds, Jet, The Vines and Savage Garden who have achieved global recognition representing a diversity of sounds. More recently Australian artists such as Gotye and Sia have achieved international fame and won a host of awards – an indication of the wider success and acceptance of Australian music on the world stage.

Australian popular music is critical for Australia's cultural life. It allows for a range of Australians to express views and opinions, and establishes an understanding of modern Australia on a global scale. It has also grown from a cultural form that was despised by an older generation into a major contributor to the Australian economy. It was estimated that music-related activities added $1.55 billion value to the Australian economy in 1984–85, and $6.82 billion in 2005–06.



Source 6 Australian singer and songwriter Sia Furler began her career in Adelaide in the 1990s. Today, she is one of the most internationally recognised recording artists in the world. In 2014, her single 'Chandelier' charted in the top 5 in more than 20 countries around the world and the video of the song has been viewed more than 1.2 billion times on YouTube.

That is an enormous change from the days when Vic Sabrino recorded a cover of 'Rock Around the Clock'.

The next step in securing the future of rock music as an Australian popular culture came on 5 October 2011, when Triple J launched Triple J Unearthed, a new station devoted entirely to promoting the music of unsigned Australian bands. The digital and online station was set up to help the next generation of musicians prepare to follow in the footsteps of artists ranging from Johnny O'Keefe to The Jezabels.

Check your learning 7.8

Remember and understand

1. When was surf music popular in Australia?
2. What impact did The Beatles' tour of Australia have on the local music industry?
3. How did the Whitlam Government help the Australian music industry?
4. Name at least three Australian acts that have achieved musical success overseas.

Apply and analyse

5. How do artists like Gotye and The Jezabels highlight the importance of Triple J to the Australian music scene?

Evaluate and create

6. Create a digital museum exhibition that highlights the changing nature of the Australian music industry since World War II.

7.9 Changes in the film industry

By the 1950s most Australian cities and suburbs had access to a picture theatre. Going to the 'flicks' was a popular pastime for people of all ages and generations. Signs of change were apparent in 1954 when the first drive-in cinema opened in Melbourne. This reflected the emergence of the private car as the main means of transport, as suburbs expanded in the post-war baby boom era. The most significant change for the Australian film industry at this stage was the emergence of television from 1956. With families able to stay at home to watch entertainment, many suburban theatres had closed by the end of the decade.

Liberal Prime Minister John Gorton was responsible for saving the Australian film industry. His introduction of a Film Development Corporation and National Film and Television Training School encouraged a new wave of film makers. The Whitlam Government built on Gorton's work with the Australian Film Commission, and these two prime ministers ensured that the 1970s would be a boom period of Australian film.

The 1970s generation of Australian film makers and actors repaid the government's investment in culture many times over by making a major impact on the international film industry. Directors such as Peter Weir, Gillian Armstrong and Bruce Beresford, and actors such as Mel Gibson, Judy Davis, David Gulpilil and Jack Thompson have gone on to win awards and attain international success.

The *"Crocodile" Dundee* phenomenon

On 30 April 1986, the film *"Crocodile" Dundee* premiered in Australia. It was produced on a budget of about $10 million and starred the Australian comic actor Paul Hogan, who had risen to prominence after winning on *New Faces* – a popular talent contest broadcast on television. Two versions of *"Crocodile" Dundee* were released at the time – an Australian version and an international version that replaced Australian slang with more easily understood words.

Hogan's Mick Dundee became a huge hit in Australia with his 'blokey' humour and 'no worries' attitude. The international appeal of such an obviously Australian character was put to the test when *"Crocodile" Dundee* was released in the USA on 26 September 1986. It proved a sensation, eventually becoming the second highest grossing film of the year in the United States, taking more than $174 million at the box office. Hogan also won a Golden Globe award for his performance, and the film was shown worldwide, from Argentina to Zimbabwe.



Source 1 Paul Hogan as Mick Dundee in *"Crocodile" Dundee*, 1986

It placed Australian film firmly on the world stage, and was arguably the greatest boost to the Australian tourist industry ever. Hogan became the face of Australian tourism with his 'put another shrimp on the barbie' campaign. *"Crocodile" Dundee* remained the highest grossing Australian film of all time until 2015, when it was eclipsed by *Mad Max: Fury Road*. Even though the two sequels, *Crocodile Dundee II* and *Crocodile Dundee in Los Angeles*, failed to achieve anything like the success of the original film, it remains the most popular Australian film series of all time in terms of international success.

Towards a global film industry

The American film industry – often referred to simply as 'Hollywood' after the Los Angeles suburb where their modern film industry started – is the most dominant force in world film. Its sheer financial power and deals with distributors mean that independent theatre owners in Australia are often disadvantaged financially if they do not show major Hollywood films. The power exerted by Hollywood has meant that government support and financial assistance has become essential for the Australian film industry to survive.

The success of small-scale films such as *Animal Kingdom* prove that this ongoing support for the Australian film industry is not wasted. *Animal Kingdom* won the 2010 AFI award for best film, and saw Jacki Weaver receive an Academy Award nomination for best supporting actress. Government support has allowed Australia to retain a viable and relevant film industry, essential for genuine cultural expression in the 21st century.

An alternative to Hollywood domination has emerged in the 21st century with the development of Australian links with India's thriving Bollywood film industry. The term Bollywood is a combination of two words: **B**ombay (the city at the heart of the Indian Hindi film industry – now known as Mumbai) and H**ollywood** (a reference to the similarities between the industries in India and the USA). Indian film producers have prepared a handbook for working with Australian film producers and media, and many Bollywood films have started using Australia as an exotic backdrop during filming. By late 2006, major Indian films such as *Love Story 2050*, *Heyy Babyy* and *Chak De! India* were being filmed in Australia, and crews were routinely moving between Australia and India.

The development of major film production studios in Sydney, Melbourne and Queensland has meant that Australian studios have developed a high skill level, and major blockbusters such as *The Matrix* series and *Star Wars* episodes 2 and 3 have been made in Australian studios.



Source 2 A still from Bollywood movie *Love Story 2050*, shot in Australia in 2008

Australia's increasing cultural links with Asia have also seen *anime* (Japanese animated cartoons) emerge as an important element of the film scene. The Japanese *anime* film *Akira* (1988), became a cult hit in Australia, and was the predecessor of an art form that has gained increasing attraction in popular culture through the rise of video and computer games.

Check your learning 7.9

Remember and understand

1. What caused the slump in the Australian film industry from the 1950s?
2. What roles did John Gorton and Gough Whitlam play in changing the Australian film industry?
3. What is Australia's most successful film? How successful was it?
4. Why has government support been so important for Australian film makers?

Apply and analyse

5. What evidence is there from the film industry that Australia is moving closer to Asia?
6. How important is film in promoting Australia as a tourist destination? What films would you show overseas to promote Australia?

7.10 Changes in the television industry

The arrival of television in Australia in 1956 was a major catalyst for change. It ensured easy access to American popular culture, and the Menzies Government's decision not to apply any local content requirements meant that early television was dominated by American shows. Australian children grew up with the *Mickey Mouse Club* and *The Wonderful World of Disney*, while cowboys such as Roy Rogers and Hopalong Cassidy meant Australians became more familiar with the Wild West than with the outback. Crime-based shows such as *Perry Mason* and *Dragnet* were popular adult fare, and situation comedies (**sitcoms**) such as *Father Knows Best* and *I Love Lucy* also attracted large audiences.

Television expands

The early 1960s saw the expansion of television into more markets with the introduction of regional stations in places such as Gippsland in Victoria in 1961, and Newcastle in New South Wales the following year. The ABC also continued to expand nationally, and in 1964 a new commercial station 0 (Melbourne) and 10 (Sydney) commenced broadcasting. The introduction of a coaxial cable between Sydney and Melbourne paved the way for closer networking between stations in the two major Australian markets. This allowed for such innovations as a split screen that would allow Graham Kennedy in Melbourne and Don Lane in Sydney to appear simultaneously on the Nine network's *In Melbourne Tonight* (see Source 2).

The other major change to television in the 1960s was the development of satellite broadcasts. Perhaps more than any other technological development, this helped bring the world to Australia. In 1964, *Everybody's Magazine* had boldly predicted that Australians would be able to watch the 2000 Ashes series live on television from England. By 1967, they were watching The Beatles recording 'All You Need is Love' live from Abbey Road studios as part of the historic *Our World* broadcast. Broadcast to the largest worldwide audience of the time (400 million) on 25 June, it linked the world by satellite, with contributing countries showing the world an aspect of life in their country. While Britain gave The Beatles, and Italy had Franco Zeffirelli directing his groundbreaking film version of *Romeo and Juliet*, Australia's contribution was a shot of trams leaving their Melbourne depot in the pre-dawn.



Source 1 A still from *Father Knows Best*, a 1950s US television program shown in Australia

Television and sport join forces

The 1967 Sydney Rugby League Grand Final between South Sydney and Canterbury Bankstown was the first sporting event to be broadcast live in Australia. Channel Nine paid $5000 for the rights to a game that was won by Bobby McCarthy's famous intercept try. This telecast proved that sport was the perfect product for television.

By the 1970s, major sports events were regularly televised. The importance of the link between television and sport was shown in 1977 when Kerry Packer launched a raid on the sport of cricket, creating a private



Source 2 Graham Kennedy hosting the television show *In Melbourne Tonight,* 1973



Source 3 The late Kerry Packer

World Series competition in a successful bid to force the Australian Cricket Board to allow him the right to broadcast test matches. The 1976 Olympic Games from Montreal had its opening and closing ceremonies broadcast live, and by the 1984 Los Angeles Games, a wide range of popular events were being broadcast live into Australian homes. The 1977 Australian Rules grand final between Collingwood and North Melbourne was the first shown live in Melbourne. The exciting draw showed that all football codes could be major drawcards in attracting viewers.

Multicultural programming

The composition of the Australian population had changed significantly since World War II, and the establishment of the Special Broadcasting Services (SBS) in Melbourne and Sydney in 1980 under the Fraser Government was the first real mainstream media recognition of this. Broadcasting in a wide range of languages, it played a crucial role in helping immigrants adjust to Australian life. By the mid-1980s, SBS had expanded throughout most of the country.

Children growing up in 1960s Australia had been watching **multicultural** television without the term ever being used. Channel Nine had started showing a Japanese series called *The Samurai* in 1964 to cash in on the interest generated by the forthcoming Olympic Games in Tokyo. They invited viewers to write in if they wished to see more episodes and were deluged with positive replies. *The Samurai* became a massive hit in Australia.

The sight of children jumping from trees while flinging imaginary star knives became commonplace, as Australian viewers were introduced to the intricacies of medieval Japanese society. The success of *The Samurai* revealed the generation gap as vividly as had rock music. For the older people in Australian society, World War II had finished fewer than 20 years earlier, and inviting Japanese culture onto Australian television was unimaginable. For children brought up in the **Cold War**, the communist Russians were a more logical enemy than the Japanese; and Shintaro, hero of *The Samurai*, became a major popular culture figure in Australia.

Japanese *anime* was also introduced to Australian television viewers in the 1960s. *Astro Boy* was a mid-1960s favourite, and the Japanese-style drawing marked it as significantly different from the traditional American cartoons that were the staple of most afternoon television (see Source 4). Its futuristic plot where robots and humans coexist peacefully had resonance with the post-Cuba Cold War-influenced world Australian children were growing up in. The cooperation theme was echoed in the other Japanese cartoon series to be a 1960s hit in Australia, *The Adventures of Kimba the White Lion*. By the time *Sailor Moon* arrived on Australian television screens in the 1990s, Australian viewers had long accepted *anime* as a form of television popular culture.



Source 4 A scene from *Astro Boy* (*Tetsuwan Atomu* or 'Iron Arm Atom'), 1963

Pay TV

The early 1990s saw two major changes to the Australian television landscape. A policy introduced by the Hawke Government meant that regional areas suddenly had access to three commercial channels rather than one. This meant that for the first time regional Australia was able to view virtually the same programs as people living in major cities.

The other change was the introduction of subscription (pay) television. The idea of paying for extra services was a major change to the way Australians viewed television. Paying for something that had always been free (except for television licenses, which had been removed in 1974 by the Whitlam Government), went against the general Australian understanding of the medium.

The first pay TV provider was Galaxy, which commenced operation in 1995. Foxtel, Optus and Austar were introduced to the market in 1995, and by 1998 Foxtel had absorbed Galaxy. The first major impact of pay TV was the Super League Rugby League war. Rugby League had proved a popular sport on television, and Rupert Murdoch's News Ltd realised it would be a key to their investment in Foxtel being profitable. In an attempt to secure exclusive broadcast rights, News Ltd secretly signed clubs and players to create a breakaway competition. Court action during 1995 and 1996 failed to resolve the dispute, and two competitions existed in 1997. The warring parties came together in 1998, with News Ltd gaining a 50 per cent partnership in the running of Rugby League as well as obtaining broadcast rights for most games for their Foxtel network.

Sport has been the main driver in encouraging people to sign up for pay TV, but numbers have stabilised. By the end of 2010, Foxtel had 1.63 million subscribers. The desire of pay TV companies to monopolise sports broadcasting to drive up the purchase of subscriptions has led to heated debate over which sporting events should be guaranteed access to free-to-air television.

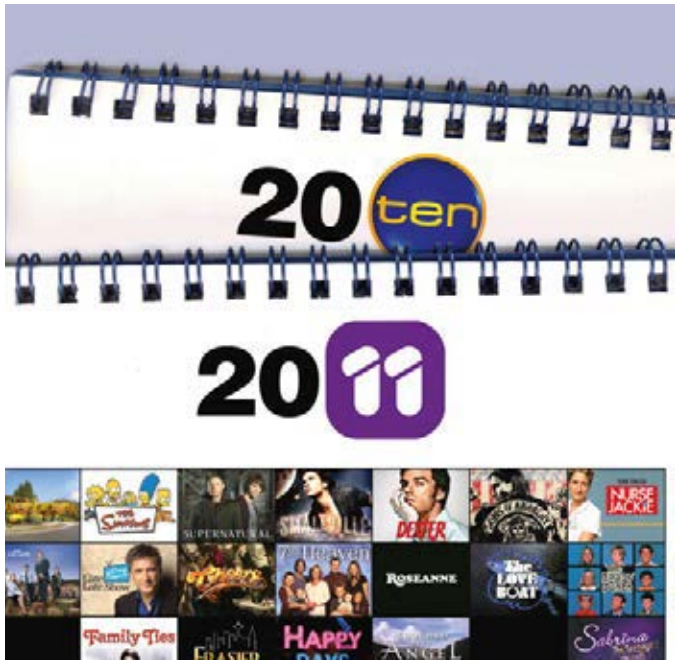
Online streaming TV and movie services

In 2015, a number of new video-on-demand services launched in Australia – once again changing the media landscape. Providers such as Netflix, Quickflix, Stan, YouTube Red, and Foxtel Play offer a different kind of pay TV experience to more established pay TV models. These services enable viewers to stream video content via TV and a range of other devices (like tablets and mobile phone) and access a large bank of content for a single monthly fee. Many of these services also do not require customers to sign up for a minimum contract period.

The introduction of streaming TV and movie services in Australia has been extremely popular and is beginning to challenge existing pay TV services. For example, between April and December 2015, 2.7 million Australians had signed up to Netflix – a greater number of subscribers than established services like Foxtel had managed to build up over more than 15 years. Demand and competition in this area is predicted to grow rapidly, with many similar services set to launch over the coming years.



Source 5 Sport has been the main driver in encouraging people to sign up for pay TV.



Source 6 In Australia there are five major networks that broadcast digital television.

The free-to-air TV revolution

The Australian government committed the country to a digital-only television platform by mid-2010. This was a new means of broadcasting which was slowly implemented across the country from 1 January 2001. Digital broadcasting meant higher quality of image and sound, as well as additional channels. Free-to-air stations were given the opportunity to broadcast smaller niche channels, and each commercial network has developed a number of spinoff channels. The Ten network, for example, launched One (a lifestyle channel), Eleven (a comedy channel) and TVSN (a shopping channel). At the same time, the Seven network launched 7mate (aimed at males aged from 16 to 49), as well as 7TWO and 7flix (a movie channel). The ABC launched a 24-hour news channel, and ABC Kids (a channel aimed purely at children).

The impact of the variety of free-to-air options on pay TV is one of the big questions facing Australian television.

Check your learning 7.10

Remember and understand

1. Why was the development of communication satellites so important for Australian television?
2. What was the first sporting event broadcast live in Australia?
3. What was the 1960s television show that looked at Japanese medieval history?
4. Name the two sports that had major splits over the purchase of television rights.

Apply and analyse

5. Why is sport so important to Australian television? What examples could you use to prove this?
6. Explain why 1960s Australian children's television indicates that there was a generation gap in Australian society.

Evaluate and create

7. Which events do you think should be guaranteed free-to-air television broadcasting?

7B rich task

Singles charts

Singles charts have been around for almost as long as there has been recorded music. Rock'n'roll record charts are a valuable primary source for historians. They can give a valuable insight into what was popular at a particular time, the origin of popular culture influences, and names of significant individuals and groups that had an impact in a specific time and place. Like all sources, they then have to be interpreted.

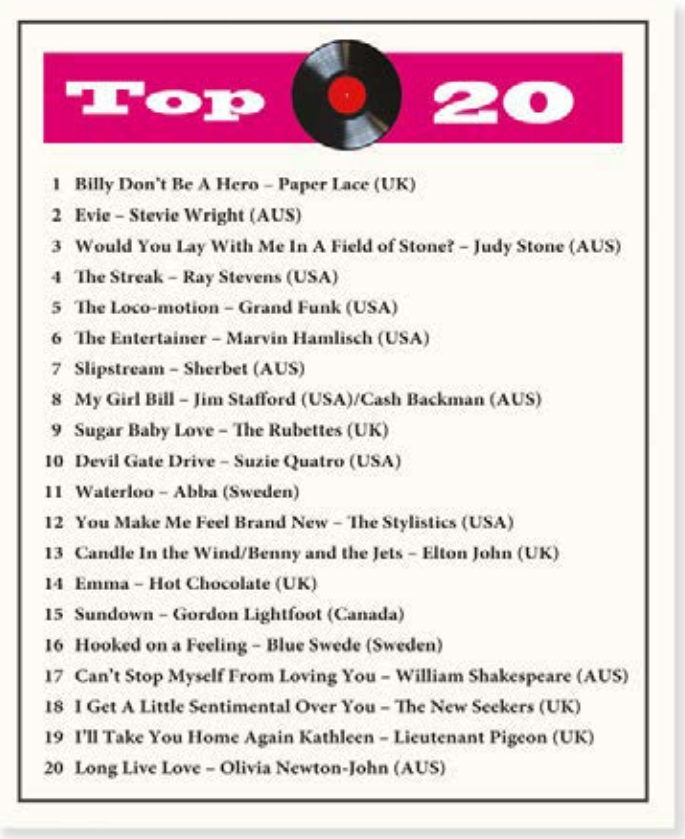
In 1966 the Melbourne pop music newspaper, *Go-Set*, introduced the first national Top 40 song charts in Australia. By doing so, *Go-Set* helped young people stay entertained and informed about the latest news in the pop culture scene.

The *Go-Set* charts were succeeded in 1974 by the Kent Music Report, which published national top 100 charts. In 1988 these charts were taken on by the Australian Recording Industry Association (ARIA), which continues to publish today.

By using sales data from radio stations and retail stores, singles charts are an accurate way of keeping track of the most popular music from a particular time in history. However, songs that were extremely popular in their time do not always seem so significant years later.

In 1980, Australian singer Joe Dolce's single, 'Shaddap You Face', went to Number 1 on the Australian pop charts. It eventually sold more than 350 000 copies Australia-wide and was the most successful Australian-produced single for 33 years. Despite this, many people born in the years since 'Shaddap You Face' was released have never heard it played.

By contrast, rock band Cold Chisel's song, 'Khe Sanh', peaked at 41 on the national charts when it was released in 1978. In the decades since, *'Khe Sanh's'* significance as a song about a Vietnam War veteran trying to cope with Australian life has been increasingly recognised. In 2001 the Australian Performing Rights Association ranked 'Khe Sanh' eighth in its Top 10 Australian Songs of All Time. It is commonly heard in music venues and on the radio.



Source 1 *Go-Set* Australian Top 20, 17 August 1974

1	This Is What You Came For—Calvin Harris Feat. Rihanna	(USA)
2	One Dance—Drake Feat. Wizkid & Kyla	(USA)
3	Can't Stop The Feeling!—Justin Timberlake	(USA)
4	Just Like Fire—P!nk	(USA)
5	Me Too—Meghan Trainor	(USA)
6	Say It—Flume Feat. Tove Lo	(AUS)
7	Don't Let Me Down—The Chainsmokers Feat. Daya	(USA)
8	Cake By The Ocean—DNCE	(USA)
9	Panda—Desiigner	(USA)
10	No Money—Galantis	(SWE)
11	Too Good—Drake Feat. Rihanna	(USA)
12	I Hate U, I Love U—Gnash Feat. Olivia O'Brien	(USA)
13	Home—Topic Feat. Nico Santos	(GER)
14	Work From Home—Fifth Harmony Feat. Ty Dolla $ign	(USA)
15	I Took A Pill In Ibiza—Mike Posner	(USA)
16	Into You—Ariana Grande	(USA)
17	Sex—Cheat Codes Feat. Kris Kross Amsterdam	(USA)
18	Faded—Alan Walker	(UK)
19	Be The One—Dua Lipa	(UK)
20	Secret Love Song—Little Mix Feat. Jason Derulo	(UK)

Source 2 ARIA Australian Top 20, June 2014



Source 3 Joe Dolce's 1980 single, 'Shaddap You Face' went to number 1 on the Australian pop charts.

skill**drill:** Continuity and change

Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different perspectives, points of view, attitudes and values. People who create sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs, their life experiences and the time in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when applying this skill:

Step 1 Identify the historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify their role or position in society.

Step 4 Locate some primary sources that provide evidence about their point of view or opinion on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? Was it meant for one person's eyes, or for the public? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? What were they trying to get across? Is the message explicit (obvious), or are there implicit (subtle) messages as well? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What about the silences – what does the author choose *not* to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? For example, do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? (Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology etc.) How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 In one paragraph, explain why the Top 20 charts are primary sources.

2 Select and listen to three songs from each of the two Top 20 charts provided in Sources 1 and 2. In one or two paragraphs for each question, use the steps shown above to answer the following:

a How can music charts help us to learn more about the perspectives of people from the past?

b What limitations do music charts present to anyone seeking to make conclusions about cultural perspectives?

Extend your understanding

Refer once again to the two Top 20 charts provided in Sources 1 and 2 and use the information you have learned in this chapter to complete the following:

1 Identify the elements of continuity and the elements of cultural change that have occurred between the two charts.

2 Explain how a historian investigating the impact of American and British popular culture on Australia could use these sources.

7.11 Australian music goes global

Rock'n'roll established itself as a significant part of Australian popular culture by the late 1950s. Rock'n'roll quickly became associated with teenagers, and the challenge would be whether it could change and adapt as these teenagers grew older.

The first wave of Australian rock'n'rollers, who followed Johnny O'Keefe's example in the 1957–63 period, stayed in Australia. Rock'n'roll was still considered a novelty, and many musicians were amazed they could get paid for having such fun. The Beatles and other bands made famous during the beat boom of the 1960s made rock'n'roll an international business and broke the American monopoly on originality. The explosion of Australian acts after The Beatles' tour of Australia in 1964 developed a uniquely Australian take on rock'n'roll.

Widespread success

The significant contribution that Australian music has made to international popular culture could not always be measured in record sales. Brisbane band The Go-Betweens became the favourite band of music lovers across three continents without ever having a major hit record. Bands such as Men at Work, INXS and Midnight Oil certainly sold more records internationally, but The Go-Betweens, whose music was described as 'striped sunlight sound', took Brisbane to the world.

Despite this, the desire to achieve overseas success has continued to drive Australian acts to this day.

This type of success can be measured in record sales, as was the case with Savage Garden, who dominated



Source 1 Melbourne singer-songwriter Courtney Barnett – artists such as Barnett are taking Australian popular music to the world

key**concept:** Significance



Source 2 Australian rock band The Easybeats photographed on 17 November 1966

The Easybeats

The Easybeats are regarded by many as the greatest Australian rock'n'roll band of the 1960s. The band formed at Villawood Migrant Hostel in Sydney. After becoming the biggest band in Australia in 1965, they travelled to England in search of international success. They recorded their song 'Friday on My Mind' in London in 1966. Not only did the song reach the Top 10 in England and Top 20 in the USA, but it made The Easybeats major European stars. The song is still played regularly on many classic hits radio stations across America, and was a feature of the 2009 British film, *The Boat that Rocked* about a pirate radio station in the 1960s. Arguably the greatest recognition of the song's impact on a global stage was a tribute found on Bruce Springsteen's 1980 album *The River*. At the end of the second verse of the popular song 'Out in the Street', Springsteen sings, 'I've already got Friday on my mind'. For an artist with Springsteen's deep understanding of rock'n'roll history, this showed just what a major contribution The Easybeats made to international popular culture.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.

late 1990s charts in the USA and Britain. A sell-out concert at a key venue is another measure of cultural achievement. INXS at Wembley Stadium in London in 1991 and the John Butler Trio in 2010 at Red Rocks in Colorado are two examples. It has been a continuity in Australian cultural life that overseas success is widely regarded as the measure of 'making it'. A study of the tour itinerary of Melbourne singer-songwriter Courtney Barnett to launch her debut album in 2015 reveals how strongly that desire still burns. Between March and July 2015 she toured extensively in the UK, Europe and North America and well as in Australia.

Australian music continues to make a significant international contribution to the popular culture of rock'n'roll.



Source 3 Daniel Jones and Darren Hayes of Savage Garden perform on stage at the Melbourne Glasshouse in 1998

Check your learning 7.11

Remember and understand

1. What evidence is there that Australian musicians achieved international success in the 1960s?
2. Which Bruce Springsteen song is linked to The Easybeats' 'Friday on My Mind'?
3. In what ways can international success for Australian musicians be measured?

Evaluate and create

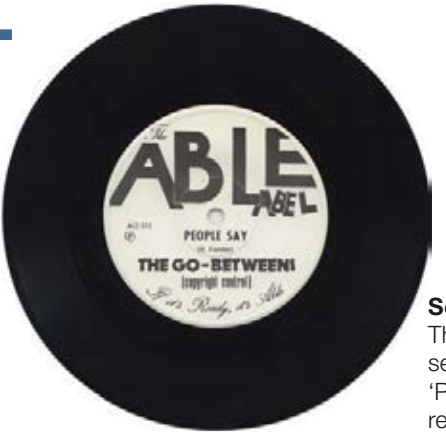
4. Research the career of *one* of the following: The Easybeats, The Twilights or Normie Rowe. How important do you think your chosen subject is in Australian cultural history?
5. With a partner, debate the suggestion that music is Australia's most significant cultural export since World War II.

7.12 Significant individuals: The Go-Betweens

The Go-Betweens' story started in Brisbane when university students Robert Forster and Grant McLennan met in 1977. A shared interest in popular culture, particularly American music and film, led to the formation of a band in 1978. Brisbane at this time was quite conservative. The atmosphere contributed to the band's decision to move overseas.

Political climate in Brisbane

The Queensland government of Joh Bjelke-Petersen (Premier from 1968 to 1987) was well-known for suppressing opposition political activity. As Premier, Bjelke-Petersen extended the rights of police to deal with any dissent. Youth and Indigenous Australians were specific targets, and creative artists such as The Go-Betweens found it easier and safer to leave Brisbane.



Source 2 The Go-Between's second single, 'People Say', released in 1979

(A number of police and government ministers were later found to be corrupt in the Fitzgerald Inquiry.)

Early successes

In 1980, The Go-Betweens were joined by Lindy Morrison on drums, Robert Vickers on bass guitar and



Source 1 The Go-Betweens in 1988 – from left to right Amanda Brown, John Wilsteed, Grant McLennan, Robert Forster and Lindy Morrison

Amanda Brown on oboe, violin and guitar. The group initially moved to Melbourne, and then England, where their second album, *Before Hollywood*, was recorded in 1983. A series of critically acclaimed albums followed in the 1980s. Based in London for most of the decade, the band toured constantly, expanding their base of supporters from Europe to include North America. The final album of the original band was *16 Lovers Lane*, released in 1988, which saw their greatest commercial success with the single 'Streets of Your Town'.

The group disbanded in 1989, but Forster and McLennan continued to occasionally perform together at a variety of venues around the world. A new line-up of The Go-Betweens emerged in 2000, and a further three albums were released. *Oceans Apart* finally won mainstream recognition with an ARIA award in 2005. The band formally disbanded after Grant McLennan died in 2006 in Brisbane.

Impact of The Go-Betweens

In terms of record sales, The Go-Betweens had minimal impact on world popular culture. Yet there were messages from 18 different countries on the band's website after the death of McLennan. That alone shows the impact they had on the lives of individuals on a global scale.

To understand the true impact of The Go-Betweens, however, it is important to consider their influence on artists. Obvious tributes included a Swedish rock band called Kent playing 'Quiet Heart' as a tribute to McLennan at a Swedish festival, the Splendour in the Grass Festival naming one of its performance sites the GW McLennan tent, and a new bridge opened in 2010 across the Brisbane River being named the Go-Between Bridge after a public competition.

All these examples indicate a band that had a major effect. However, Robert Christgau's proclamation in New York's influential *Village Voice* that 'Robert Forster and Grant McLennan are the greatest song writing partnership working today' indicated their ongoing contribution at the highest level. Christgau is widely regarded as an important rock critic, and no Australian musical act had ever received such extravagant praise in such an important publication. Even the American television show *24* included a company called McLennan-Forster as a tribute to the band.

When U2 started the final leg of their *Vertigo* tour in Brisbane in 2006, they dedicated the show to Grant McLennan. Bono sang 'Streets of Your Town' twice during the band's concert, moving smoothly into the song during both 'Elevation' and 'Where the Streets Have No Name'. U2 have also named The Go-Betweens' 1982 song 'Cattle and Cane' on their list of the greatest rock'n'roll songs of all time.

As a popular culture, rock'n'roll has to change and evolve to survive. U2 have been able to do that, and the contribution of bands such as The Go-Betweens to inspire U2 is part of the global evolution of rock'n'roll as a popular culture.



Source 3 Surviving members of The Go-Betweens with Brisbane Mayor Campbell Newman (second from left) in 2010 walking across the Go-Between Bridge in inner-city Brisbane, named in their honour

Check your learning 7.12

Remember and understand

1. What did Robert Forster and Grant McLennan have in common?
2. What made The Go-Betweens leave Brisbane?
3. With which song did they have the greatest success?
4. Explain why U2 dedicated their 2006 show in Brisbane to Grant McLennan.

Apply and analyse

5. What evidence is there to support the view that The Go-Betweens had a major impact on popular culture on an international level?

Evaluate and create

6. What makes The Go-Betweens significant?

7.13 Australian film goes global

Australian film since the new wave of the 1970s has helped establish a vision of Australia for many people overseas. The use of *"Crocodile" Dundee* star Paul Hogan in tourism ads ensured the connection between film and a national image.

As discussed, in 1986 *"Crocodile" Dundee* became the highest grossing Australian film of all time because of its international success. Its celebration of Australia as a laid-back culture with a vast outback full of strange wildlife and interesting characters became a highly marketable vision of Australia. This was followed up with 1994's *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert* (see Source 1). Although also bringing Australia's outback scenery onto the screen, the film has been both praised and condemned for its presentation of a variety of sexual preferences and approaches. Its positive depiction of cross-dressing entertainers certainly helped to make it a significant film, and contributed to its international success.

The film gave rise to a musical version, *Priscilla Queen of the Desert* in 2006. This was another example of popular culture changing and evolving over time, and marked a further Australian contribution to international popular culture. The show, based on the film, has mounted successful productions in London, Toronto and New York, with plans for a further American and an Italian tour. The film won an Academy Award for costume design, and the stage versions won a further award on New York's Broadway in 2011.



Source 1 A still from *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert*, 1994, starring Hugo Weaving, Terence Stamp and Guy Pearce

Check your learning 7.13

Remember and understand

1 What image of Australia have the films mentioned here portrayed?

Apply and analyse

2 Argue whether you think the film *Gallipoli* did or did not change attitudes to the Gallipoli campaign.

Evaluate and create

3 Is historical accuracy important for a film such as *Gallipoli*?

4 Develop an advertising campaign to attract visitors to Australia using images from *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert.*

key**concept:** Contestability

Gallipoli (1981)

The 1981 film *Gallipoli* was a major example of the revival of the Australian film industry. Directed by Peter Weir, and starring Mark Lee and Mel Gibson, it not only dramatised the role of Australian troops at Gallipoli, but also linked the Australian soldiers to Australian cultural values such as mateship, larrikinism and a disdain of authority.



Source 2 A still from *Gallipoli,* 1981, starring Mel Gibson

The film focused on Western Australian members of the Australian Light Horse enlisting, training in Egypt and finally participating in World War I. The film shows the attempt to capture The Nek on the Gallipoli Peninsula from the Turks. Written by playwright David Williamson, it placed the blame for the needless slaughter of Australian troops firmly on the shoulders of the British leadership. Criticisms of the factual content of the film have been made. These include: The Nek was a diversion for New Zealand troops, not the British; other groups such as the Royal Welsh Fusiliers also suffered losses trying to support the Australians at The Nek; the failure to call off the attack was an Australian, not a British decision.

The film has proved just how influential popular culture can be. Historical inaccuracies have been shrugged off, and it has become a staple of high school history lessons since its release. It has contributed to the elevation of Gallipoli to almost mythical status in Australian history. Since 1981, successive curriculums have focused on Gallipoli as the most significant campaign of World War I for Australia. This is despite its unsuccessful outcome and the far greater losses and higher stakes on the Western Front in France.

By linking the Gallipoli campaign so closely to Australian identity and values such as 'mateship', the film also fostered the politicisation of the Gallipoli campaign. Before 1981, it was an important part of Australia's historical story, but was not politicised or mythologised. In 1990, Prime Minister Bob Hawke travelled to Gallipoli for a Dawn Service with veterans and called the site 'a part of Australia'. John Howard visited there in 2000 and 2005, although his 2005 visit attracted criticism because of his decision to attend a barbecue with Australian soldiers on the beach rather than attend the New Zealand service. The downplaying of the New Zealand contribution to the Anzac legend and the criticism of British leaders have been two aspects of the politicisation of the Gallipoli campaign since the release of the film in 1981. Former Prime Minister Paul Keating ignited further controversy in 2008 when he said, 'the truth is that Gallipoli was shocking for us. Dragged into service by the imperial government in an ill-conceived and poorly executed campaign, we were cut to ribbons and dispatched – and none of it in the defence of Australia'. Keating was roundly condemned for expressing a sentiment that was common in the 1970s.

Perhaps the best evidence of the lasting impact of the film is that it was denied government funding because it was seen as 'uncommercial'. A decade later the Australian government started the process of linking Gallipoli, Anzac Day and Australian identity tightly together with the Dawn Service.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to page 12 of 'The history toolkit'.

7.14 Australian television goes global

Australian television suffered initially because of the Menzies Government's decision to not require a **quota** of locally produced shows when television was launched in 1956. As a result, Australian television was filled by American, and to a lesser extent, British popular culture. Despite occasional hit shows, and moments of real originality, such as *The Mavis Bramston Show*, it is difficult to talk about an Australian industry with the potential to contribute globally until the 1980s.

Skippy the Bush Kangaroo

Australians had finally accepted Australian stories on television with the success of *Bellbird* from 1967, and the great soapie boom of the 1970s with *Number 96*, *The Box*, *The Sullivans* and *The Restless Years*. *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo*, which had been made in Sydney between 1966 and 1968, went international. The stories of the adventures of an incredibly perceptive kangaroo that guided his human friends to safety and captured baddies with ease presented a distinctly Australian vision to the world.



Source 1 Actor Garry Pankhurst as Sonny Hammond with Skippy in a scene from the television show *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo*

Skippy's international success was unique at the time. It was sold to the United States and Canada, was translated into Spanish and sold throughout Latin America, where it gave many people their only knowledge of Australia. It was sold in countries as culturally diverse as Spain and Iran. The one country *Skippy* could not get into was Sweden, where authorities refused to show it because they were afraid it would give children false ideas about the capabilities of animals.

From *Prisoner* to *Wilfred*

While Australian music and film had made inroads into the American market, Australian television had traditionally been more closely linked to Britain. Culturally the links to Britain had always been strong, and a shared sense of humour often meant that British and Australian shows were incomprehensible to American audiences.

The premiere of *Prisoner* in 1979 was the start of Australia producing shows that had some potential to influence the global marketplace. *Prisoner* ran from 1979 to 1986 in Australia, but developed strong audiences in Britain and Sweden particularly. By being set in a women's prison it often dealt with controversial social topics such as sexuality, drugs and domestic violence. Despite its often grim content, *Prisoner* generated at least two different stage productions in Britain, and provided employment for many of its actors on the British theatre circuit.

The success of *Prisoner* paved the way for the *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* phenomenon that began in the 1980s. The attractiveness of the Australian lifestyle depicted in these two shows helped boost their popularity in the gloomier climates of northern Europe.

At the start of the 21st century, the hit comedy *Kath and Kim* was remade for American audiences. The show's success in European markets had alerted the Americans to its potential, but they felt the Australian slang and humour would make it incomprehensible in the United States. The American version lasted only a

season, and was a failure both in the USA and when shown on Australian television.

A more recent Australian export to the United States is *Wilfred* (see Source 2). An American version of the SBS comedy series premiered on American television in June 2011. Unusually, its Australian creator, Jason Gann, also starred in the American version, which debuted to strong ratings on the cable channel FX. *Wilfred* had a successful first season in the USA, exporting Australian humour to the most important television market in the world.



Source 2 A still from the television program *Wilfred*

key**concept:** Significance

Chris Lilley

Chris Lilley started parodying Australian life in 2005 when *We Can Be Heroes* appeared on Australian television. It was followed in 2007 with *Summer Heights High*. Both shows created controversial but memorable characters that reflected aspects of the Australian character. Both shows were also sold to overseas markets, including the USA and UK, and *Summer Heights High* reached markets as far afield as Togo and Kenya.



Source 3 Actor comedian Chris Lilley as character Ja'mie King from the television program *We Can Be Heroes*

The internationally financed third program *Angry Boys* premiered in Australia in 2011. The Sims twins from *We Can Be Heroes* returned along with new characters such as their Gran, a warden in a young men's correctional institution. Never one to shy away from controversy, Lilley tackled race, localism, sexuality, exploitation and juvenile incarceration in the 12-part series. Even the size of the viewing audience was controversial, with the ABC arguing that new technologies such as iView and ABC2 meant that repeat showings should be included in ratings figures.

The sense of anticipation for the show was highlighted by the emergence of *Angry Boys* and 'Gran' as worldwide trending topics on social media network Twitter as the first episode went to air. With guaranteed airplay in the major markets of the United States and Britain, as well as New Zealand, *Angry Boys* was an important contributor to international popular culture. Lilley has since created two more shows featuring characters from *Summer Heights High*. The rich characterisations ensured that Lilley will continue to be a pivotal figure in the contribution of Australian television at an international level.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.

Check your learning 7.14

Remember and understand

1 What was the first Australian television show to have any real impact internationally?
2 Why did Sweden refuse to show *Skippy*?
3 Which two Australian shows have been remade in the United States in the 21st century?
4 How have the settings of Chris Lilley's series changed as he has moved from *We Can Be Heroes* to *Angry Boys*?

Apply and analyse

5 Why would *Summer Heights High* sell in Togo and Kenya?

Evaluate and create

6 What do you think Chris Lilley has contributed to international popular culture?
7 Select one of Chris Lilley's characters and prepare a Facebook page for them.

7.15 Australian sport goes global

Sport has often been seen as one way Australia can 'make a splash' on the world stage. It has been suggested that Australians are much more interested in sport than politics, and Indigenous sportsmen such as Doug Nicholls (Australian rules) and Charles Perkins (soccer) used sport as an entry into broader public life.

The Australian cricket team dominated international cricket for much of the 1990s and 2000s, and contributed a great deal to the sport in terms of preparation, professionalism and developing technology. After the television-driven split of the late 1970s, Australia has led the world in presenting cricket as a television sport to a mass audience. These innovations had a particular influence in South Asia, where the broadcasting of cricket is a highly valued marketing opportunity.

The major football codes have all struggled to establish a strong national foothold in Australia. State rivalries have seen different codes have stronger appeal in specific states. Australian Rules has its heartland in the southern and western states, while the two rugby codes have traditionally been strongest in New South Wales and Queensland. Australian Rules has proved particularly popular with Indigenous Australians, with such illustrious names as Doug Nicholls, Graham 'Polly' Farmer, Adam Goodes and Lance 'Buddy' Franklin establishing outstanding reputations as footballers.

Australia plays 'the world game'

Football (traditionally known in Australia as soccer) is often referred to as 'the world game', and for good reason. The Fédération Internationale de Football (FIFA) has more than 200 member associations. Football's World Cup is only rivalled by the Olympics for global interest, and estimates of more than 3 billion followers worldwide allow it to claim the title of the 'world game'.

Football in Australia has a long history, with the first recorded game being played in 1879. This was only 20 years after Australian Rules football became organised in Melbourne, and 15 years after Sydney University established the first rugby union club in Australia. Rugby League, in contrast, did not start until 1908.



Source 1 Members of the Australian Cricket team celebrate their victory in the ICC Cricket World Cup in 2015 – once again proving Australia's dominance in international cricket

Football in the 20th century has largely been regarded as a 'migrant sport', meaning that only people from overseas played it. Former Australian football captain Johnny Warren, who played in Australia's first World Cup finals team in 1974, called his memoir *Sheilas, Wogs and Poofters*. This reflected the way many mainstream Australians mocked football for most of the 20th century.

The irony of football being perceived as mainly a game for migrants in the 20th century was that the composition of the various football leagues was a much more accurate reflection of post-World War II Australia than any other sport. As a nation built on migration, football represented the greatest opportunity for any single sport to truly represent modern Australia.

World Cup finals qualification has traditionally been the greatest prize in world football, and Australia qualified only once in the 20th century – in 1974 in West Germany. The team failed to score a goal during those finals, with a draw against Chile providing its only point. Subsequent campaigns promised much, but ultimately failed as Australia was drawn to play against teams in Europe, Asia and South America in the final stages of qualifying.

The Socceroos

In 2005, a new national competition, the A-League, was launched as part of a rebranding of Australian football. 'Old soccer' became 'new football', and even the term 'Socceroos' was briefly abandoned. However, the public refused to let the name go and it was as the Socceroos that Australia attempted qualification for the 2006 World Cup finals – again held in Germany.

To reach the World Cup finals, Australia had to defeat Uruguay in a two-legged qualification final. As two-time World Cup winners, Uruguay had a proud footballing heritage, and had knocked Australia out at the same stage of qualification in 2001.

Australia lost the first leg in Montevideo 1–0. The team flew back to Australia to play the game that would decide the final qualification spot for the 2006 World Cup. In front of more than 82000 fans at Sydney's Olympic Stadium, Australia took an early lead with a goal to Mark Bresciano. After extra time, a penalty shootout saw John Aloisi score the most famous goal in Australian football history. It secured Australia a spot in the World Cup finals.

The squad that represented Australia against Uruguay mirrored the audience that cheered them on in the stadium and on television. Although all proudly Australian, the team represented the post-war Australian migration boom. There were Australians of Croatian, German, Slovenian, Italian, Samoan, English, Greek and New Zealand heritage.

The joy that greeted Australia's qualification represented recognition of the unique role football plays in Australian society. As the most popular sport to play, it also captured the aspirations of a multicultural Australia in a way no other component of Australian society has.

In 2015, Australian football came of age as the Socceroos became Asian Cup champions beating South Korea 2–1 in the final at Stadium Australia in Sydney.

The Matildas

The Matildas is the name given to the Australian women's football (soccer) team. Formed in 1978, it was named after the famous Banjo Patterson lyric 'Waltzing Matilda'. Like many women's sporting teams, it has struggled for mainstream media attention. This was highlighted by the decision of the 1998 Matildas to compile a nude calendar as an attempt to raise funds and lift the team's profile. Although it did generate media coverage to support its qualification for the 1999 World Cup, in some circles it was seen as demeaning and a setback for women's sport.

The World Cup has been a much more achievable target for the Matildas than it has for the Socceroos. The team has qualified for each World Cup since 1995, and in 2015 they ranked 7th in the FIFA Women's World Cup. This followed its success in winning Australia's first major international football trophy, when the team won the 2010 Asian Cup. In 2014, they also placed second in the Women's Asian Cup in Vietnam (see Source 3). In the one genuine world team sport, the Matildas were the first Australian team to make such a significant impact by winning a major trophy.

Like their male counterparts, the Matildas reflect a modern, multicultural Australia. With exciting young players such as Servet Unzular, Leena Khamis and Samantha Kerr taking Australia onto the world stage in the world's game, it is a very different Australia to the one commonly portrayed in soapies. The heritage of these players represents the Australian story of migration, opportunity and achievement that our commitment to migration and multiculturalism has produced.



Source 2 Members of the Socceroos celebrate their first victory in the 2015 AFC Asian Cup



Source 3 Members of the Matildas playing against Japan in the final of the Women's Asian cup in 2014

Check your learning 7.15

Remember and understand

1. What has Australian cricket contributed to the sport internationally?
2. When did Australia first qualify for football's World Cup? How long did it take to qualify again?
3. Name some of the backgrounds represented in the Socceroos team that defeated Uruguay in 2005.

Apply and analyse

4. In what ways do the Socceroos and Matildas represent a modern Australia?
5. Explain why Johnny Warren called his memoir *Sheilas, Wogs and Poofters.*

Evaluate and create

6. Design a campaign that could convince FIFA to award a future Women's or Men's World Cup to Australia to host.

7C rich task

‘Ozploitation’

The Australian New Wave movement of the early 1970s through to the mid-1980s marked the revival of Australian cinema. Nearly 400 movies were produced during these years, more than had ever been made in the history of the Australian film industry. The Australian New Wave movement is best remembered for critically acclaimed movies such as *Picnic at Hanging Rock* (1975) and *Gallipoli* (1981). However, at the same time, a series of low-budget B-grade movies were being produced.

These films exploited controversial themes such as sex, horror, adrenalin-fuelled action and ocker comedy in order to excite audiences and become hits at the box office. Hollywood director Quentin Tarantino became a fan of these Australian ‘exploitation films’ like *Patrick* (1978) and *Mad Max* (1979). In a 2008 documentary, *Not Quite Hollywood*, Tarantino used the term ‘Aussiesploitation’ to describe these films. This was later shortened to ‘Ozploitation’. Tarantino even cited *Patrick*, the 1978 Australian horror film about a coma patient with psychic powers, as influencing his own blockbuster *Kill Bill* films (2003–04).

Today, ‘Ozploitation films’ are remembered as some of the most defining artefacts of Australian popular culture.

Violence, car chases and nudity were common themes in these films. The films were frequently R-rated. Many critics also viewed them as having less ‘artistic merit’ than other mainstream Australian films being made at the same time. In a 1979 article titled ‘The Pornography of Violence’, film maker and commentator Phillip Adams expressed his reaction to the new post-apocalyptic road movie, *Mad Max*.

Source 1

> I saw a preview of *Mad Max* one Friday morning and was still feeling shaken with revulsion 12 hours later. My first reaction was to ring Ken Watts at the Australian Film Commission for fear there may have been government money in this diabolical opus.

The *Bulletin*, 1 May 1979, pages 38–41

Source 2

> I always remember that actor. I thought he was amazing looking, with his eyes wide open and everything, and in the original script I had it written like that. I showed it to Uma, and she goes ‘I’m not gonna do that’, and I go ‘Why?’ She goes ‘You wouldn’t have your eyes wide open like that if you were in a coma. That’s not realistic.’
>
> And I go ‘Actually, I never thought was it realistic or not, it’s just Patrick did it, and it looked really cool!’

An extract of an interview with Quentin Tarantino from the documentary *Not Quite Hollywood*, 2008

Despite their often poor reputation at home, many Australian action films did well overseas. *Mad Max* was immensely successful, earning $100 million worldwide and spawning a trilogy of high-budget films. It also launched the international careers of lead actor Mel Gibson and director George Miller.



Source 3 Director Quentin Tarantino was heavily influenced by 'Ozploitation' films like *Patrick* (1978) when writing and filming the blockbuster *Kill Bill* films (2003–04).

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identify and locate relevant sources using ICT and other methods

Being able to locate relevant primary and secondary sources using the Internet is an important historical skill. However, you need to keep in mind that not all information you find on the Internet is necessarily true, accurate, reliable or credible. So, in addition to being able to find source material online, you need to be able to evaluate the reliability and credibility of the information you find. Use the following steps to apply this skill:

Step 1 Identify key words related to your topic and type these into a search engine such as Google. (Use only key words – do not type in whole sentences or questions.)

Step 2 Add further relevant key words to refine your search if you cannot find what you want on your first attempts.

Step 3 Look beyond the first page of results. The best results do not always appear first.

Step 4 Assess the reliability of each site by asking yourself the following questions:

- Who is the author or creator? If it is an individual, does this person have credentials listed (for example, a degree, title?) If it is an organisation, is it a reputable organisation such as a government or university department?
- What is the purpose of the website? Is it trying to inform, persuade or sell?
- Is the site objective? Is the author's point of view biased?
- Is the information accurate? Can the information be verified if you cross-check it with other sources of information?
- Does the site contain spelling mistakes or grammatical errors? (If so, this is usually an indication that the site is not particularly reliable.)
- Is the information current? Can you find evidence of recent updates?

Apply the skill

1 Using the steps outlined above, conduct an Internet search to find relevant, credible and reliable source material about the making and reception of:
   - **a** three Australian action or thriller films created and released between 1971 and 1985
   - **b** three other more famous Australian films of the new wave era.

2 Copy the data chart in Source 4 into your notebook. Read the source material you have located and record the key points in the appropriate column. Make sure you also record the URLs of the sites you have used.

Source 4

Action films						
	URL	**Title**	**Budget**	**Distribution**	**Reception**	**Earnings**
Source 1						
Source 2						
Source 3						
Mainstream new wave films						
Source 1						
Source 2						
Source 3						

Extend your understanding

Refer to the information about Australian New Wave cinema in this chapter and use the Internet to find posters of two highly acclaimed films from this era (for example, *Picnic at Hanging Rock* or *My Brilliant Career*).

1 Write a report explaining how the different ways the films were promoted can help historians draw conclusions about the different perspectives of audiences at the time.

Unit 3 The globalising world (1945–the present)

The environment movement

Ever since people realised that the **Industrial Revolution** had caused changes to air quality in cities, we have slowly become aware of the delicate environmental balance on Earth. This awareness, together with a desire to preserve natural areas for future generations, was behind the first attempts to protect the environment in the 1800s.

Over time, the world's growing dependence on fossil fuels also contributed to a phenomenon called **climate change**. By the twenty-first century, governments and businesses were being pressured to adopt policies that promote environmentally friendly products and procedures.



8A

How and why did the environment movement develop?

1 Suggest why the 'Earthrise' image taken from the Moon affected people's perception of the Earth and environmental issues.

8B

What events led to growing environmental awareness?

1 Brainstorm significant events and developments in the 20th century and discuss the impact they have had on the global environment.



chapter 8

Source 1 This photograph of an 'Earthrise', taken by the Apollo 8 crew from the Moon on 24 December 1968, changed the way people perceived planet Earth.

8C

How have governments and activists around the world responded to environmental threats?

1 Significant campaigns in Australia include Franklin Dam, Save the Whale and Jabiluka. Outline what you know about these campaigns and suggest their effect on green politics in Australia.

8.1 The environment movement – a timeline



1824
Theory about a greenhouse effect first suggested by French physicist Joseph Fourier. His work is extended by British physicist John Tyndall, who proves its existence in 1858.

1900
World population reaches 1.6 billion

1945
The first atomic bombs are dropped on Japan at the end of World War II

1820 | 1870 | 1900 | 1940 | 1950

1852
Acid rain first identified as a result of manufacturing processes

1872
Yellowstone National Park, the first national park in the world, is established in the United States. The second, the Royal National Park south of Sydney, is proclaimed in 1879.





A group of Greenpeace activists protesting against the nuclear testing in Amchitka, Alaska



Protesters form a blockade to stop machinery getting to the proposed dam site on the Franklin River.



Workers recover and clean birds covered by crude oil after the Exxon Valdez oil spill.

1956
Britain begins to conduct nuclear testing in Maralinga in South Australia, to 1957

1962
The influential book *Silent Spring* is published, highlighting the damaging effects of pesticides in the environment

1968
Crew of Apollo 8 orbit the Moon and take the first photo of an 'Earthrise'

1971
Greenpeace is established to protest nuclear testing in Alaska. Australia's first environment ministry created.

1972
Lake Pedder, part of a national park, is destroyed after the building of several dams in south-western Tasmania. This leads to the formation of the world's first 'green' political party.

1983
People power saves the Lower Franklin River in Tasmania

1986
The Chernobyl nuclear power plant goes into meltdown in Ukraine. The world's worst nuclear accident contaminates 24 000 square kilometres around the plant.

1989
The tanker Exxon Valdez spills 11 million gallons of oil into the northern Pacific Ocean near Alaska, destroying local wildlife

1997
The Kyoto Protocol developed at a UN Framework Convention on Climate Change

2014
The total world population rises to 7.2 billion

1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 | 2014



Check your learning 8.1

Remember and understand

1 Where and when was the world's first national park proclaimed?
2 Which event led to the formation of the world's first 'green' political party?
3 What was the site of the world's worst nuclear disaster?

Apply and analyse

4 When was the existence of the greenhouse effect first proven?
5 By what percentage has the world's population increased between 1900 and 2014?

8.2 The birth of the environment movement

On Christmas Eve in 1968, the three-man crew of *Apollo 8* became the first people to orbit the Moon. When they came around from the dark side of the Moon, they saw Earth rise as a single, fragile ball in space, just as we see the Moon. William Anders, the pilot of the Lunar Module, took a photograph of an 'Earthrise' (see Source 1). That image impressed upon many people the idea that the Earth was a small and vulnerable part of the universe.



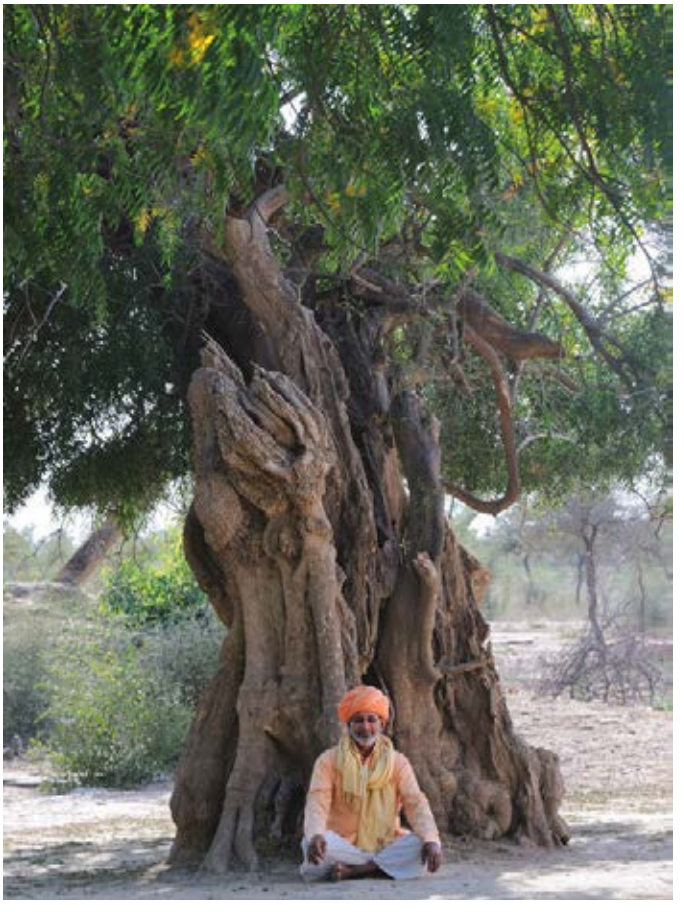
Source 1 This well-known photograph of the Earth taken from space in 1968 changed the way people perceived the planet.

The *Apollo 8* mission really emphasised to people how precarious and unique Earth's continued existence was. *Life* magazine commented on the earthrise photo, saying that it 'inspired contemplation of our fragile existence'. Much of what we would regard as **environmentalism** originated in the 1960s. A study of the historical roots of environmental thought and action is essential to really understand what happened in the 1960s.

However, concerns about the human impact on the environment are not new. There is evidence that as early as 6000 BCE, **deforestation** was contributing to the collapse of societies in the Middle East. By 200 BCE, the Greek physician Galen observed copper miners and noted the danger of acid mists.

Throughout history there have been individuals and groups determined to protect their environment. One example is the Bishnois tribe in the eighteenth century. The Bishnois tribe of Rajasthan, a region in modern-day India, linked environmental activism with strong spiritual beliefs. The Bishnois worshiped nature, and their warrior heritage led to their aggressive protection of all living things.

In 1730, more than 300 Bishnois were massacred while protecting a grove of Khejri trees. A local king needed wood to build a palace. He sent officials into Bishnois territory to remove a forest of Khejri trees. A Bishnois woman hugged a tree to protect it, saying that she would rather die than give up her beliefs, so a soldier cut her head off. Eventually, the king gave way to the Bishnois protesters, and today the Bishnois territory is a green oasis in a largely desert area.



Source 2 A Bishnois man meditating under a Jal tree. The tree is estimated to be 1000 years old.

The Industrial Revolution and environmental awareness

From the mid-18th century, the world underwent dramatic and rapid changes that we now refer to as the Industrial Revolution. Britain, and then other countries in Europe, began to **industrialise** quickly. Agricultural changes – in the way crops were produced and the introduction of labour-saving machinery – meant that fewer farm labourers were needed. People had to change their living situations when they moved to cities in search of jobs at the fast-growing factories. The demand for coal increased as it became the fuel to drive the machinery of the Industrial Revolution. The invention of the **internal combustion engine** was the final step in the revolution that saw the increasing use of **fossil fuels** such as petroleum to produce energy. People at this time considered themselves to have gained control over nature.

Early impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Historians have argued about the impact of the changes, but it has become clear that major environmental degradation began in this period. Smoke spewed out of factory chimneys day and night, and the worsening air quality became obvious. The year 1816 has become known as the Year Without a Summer, when a variety of environmental problems – including a major volcanic eruption in Indonesia – caused average temperatures to drop. The result was severe food shortages and mass starvation across the entire northern hemisphere. This event showed that if the environmental balance were disturbed, whether by nature or human action, the consequences could be disastrous.

The burning of coal polluted the air in cities smoke and other by-products of manufacturing. **Acid rain** – which forms when sulphur dioxide and nitrogen oxide mix in the atmosphere – was first identified in 1852 as a result of manufacturing processes. With populations concentrating in cities, the disposal of waste also became a problem. Advanced farming techniques contributed to the rapid degradation of soil, and the deforestation of previously untouched land began in many of the colonised countries of the world.

The demand for fuel resources meant mining expanded rapidly, as did international trade. Steamships required massive amounts of coal – thousands of tonnes for one transatlantic crossing. For the first time in history, large-scale burning of coal, and later oil, was pouring pollution into the atmosphere.



Source 3 The Industrial Revolution saw working people move off the land and into factories. Coal was burned to drive steam-powered engines, causing the first examples of industrial pollution.

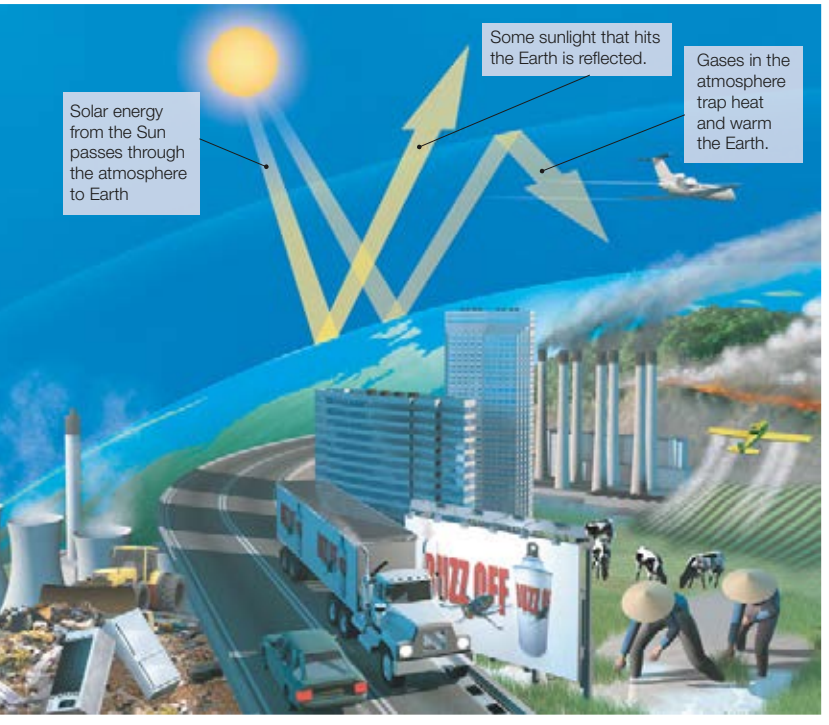
The greenhouse effect

The **greenhouse effect** is a term that has come into common use since the late twentieth century. When gases in the Earth's atmosphere hold onto the heat from the Sun and redirect it back to Earth, the resulting warmth is similar to that of a greenhouse. In its natural state, the greenhouse effect makes life on Earth possible because it allows the Sun's warmth to be retained in the atmosphere and the surface of the Earth.

Since the Industrial Revolution, however, the burning of fossil fuels and clearing of forests has made the greenhouse effect more severe. This is called the enhanced greenhouse effect. Scientists have shown that when we burn fossil fuels, there is an increase in carbon dioxide. This means that less infrared radiation can escape from the atmosphere, which leads to the warming of the planet. Because Earth is warming too much now, sea levels are higher. Higher sea levels have led to the destruction of many island and coastal habitats.

French mathematician and physicist Joseph Fourier first introduced the theory of a greenhouse effect. In 1824, he calculated that the Earth should be significantly colder than it is because of its distance from the Sun. His research suggested that the Earth's atmosphere may act as an insulator, helping it retain warmth. Fourier's work was expanded by British physicist John Tyndall in 1858. Tyndall developed technology that measured the ability of various gases to absorb infrared heat. His experiments proved that water vapour absorbed large amounts of infrared radiation, and was the major controller of air temperature. He was the first to accurately measure the capacity of gases such as nitrogen, oxygen, carbon dioxide and ozone to absorb infrared radiation. This work proved the existence of the greenhouse effect.

Despite the pioneering work of Fourier and Tyndall, there are still arguments among scientists and politicians. There is considerable debate about whether human activity (such as in large-scale manufacturing and the use of fossil-fuelled cars) is responsible for or contributes to global warming and climate change.



Source 4 The greenhouse effect causes the Sun's warmth to become trapped in the Earth's atmosphere.

Check your learning 8.2

Remember and understand

1 What was the contribution of the Bishnois to early environmentalism?
2 What impact did the Industrial Revolution have on the environment?
3 Who first developed a theory about the greenhouse effect?
4 Explain why increasing levels of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere would cause the Earth to become warmer.

Apply and analyse

5 Conduct a survey to find out the percentage of students who believe that human activity contributes to climate change. Write a statement that summarises the results.

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct research on current arguments for and against the concept of the enhanced greenhouse effect. Create a table that briefly outlines these arguments.

8.3 The national parks movement of the 19th century

The national parks movement of the 19th century reflected an emerging awareness of the need to preserve natural landscapes for future generations. At a time when the Industrial Revolution was changing the world forever, national parks represented a vision for the future.

Yellowstone National Park

When US President Ulysses S Grant signed into law the creation of Yellowstone National Park in 1872, he protected nearly 9000 square kilometres of wilderness for future generations. This decision created a tourist site that has continued to attract visitors from around the world. A geological survey conducted in 1871 included both a photographer and artist, and their images helped to convince Congress of the value of preserving the area.

The leader of the geological expedition, Ferdinand Hayden, was the main force behind the area's protection. As well as preserving the area for the future, Hayden believed the area would become a place that people in his own time could visit for recreation. The development of the railway and car eventually allowed that to happen.

In 1978, Yellowstone was included on the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) World Heritage list.



Source 1 Members of the Hayden survey team, Yellowstone National Park, 1871



Source 2 'Old Faithful' is Yellowstone's most famous geyser, which shoots boiling water up to 55 metres about every 90 minutes.

Its particular significance was that it contained half of the world's known geothermal features. It contains two-thirds of the world's known geysers (see Source 2). It is also a storehouse of information about the history and functioning of the Earth, and has been preserved rather than commercialised. The foresight of those early pioneers ensured that both scientists and tourists could continue to benefit from Yellowstone National Park.

Royal National Park

The National Park in New South Wales was formally opened in 1879, which made it the second national park in the world, after Yellowstone. In nineteenth-century Sydney, which was the first urbanised part of Australia, it was felt that city dwellers needed an outdoor place for recreation and fresh air. Initially, it was this role rather than preservation for future generations that drove the formation of the park.

In keeping with the British influences of the time, the park was seen as a recreational area, and native flora was replaced with imported species. The intention was to try and reproduce the rolling parks of England. Native trees were logged, and deer, rabbits and foxes were imported for hunting. These introduced species remain a major problem in the park.

The park became more popular when a branch line from the Illawarra railway was built in 1886, making direct access from Sydney easier. The park eventually became the Royal National Park in 1955, after a brief visit from Queen Elizabeth. In 1967, the management of the park was taken over by the newly formed National Parks and Wildlife Service, in recognition of the park's increasing importance as an area of conservation and preservation. In 2006, the Royal National Park was added to Australia's National Heritage List.



Source 3 Bushwalkers can enjoy spectacular natural scenery in the Royal National Park, south of Sydney.

Rocky Mountain Parks

The construction of a railway across Canada led to the discovery of hot springs in the Banff area of the Rocky Mountains. A dispute between companies who wanted the rights to exploit them was settled by the prime minister, John Macdonald, with the creation of a 26-square-kilometre public park in 1885. To protect one of Canada's most beautiful mountain regions, four adjoining national parks were added, until it measured 6697 square kilometres. In 1984, the entire area was proclaimed a World Heritage Area by UNESCO because of its natural beauty and the information its geological features provide about the evolution of Earth.

Tongariro National Park

New Zealand also became part of the emerging movement to conserve natural areas for the future when Tongariro National Park on the North Island was set aside as a reserve in 1886. The local Indigenous people (Māori) used a Native Land Court to have the area, based around three sacred volcanoes, set aside in the names of local chiefs. This secured the area against exploitation by European settlers. Like other early national parks, the coming of the railway in 1908 made the area more accessible, and like the Royal National Park in Sydney, an introduced species – heather – was planted to reproduce the landscape of the Scottish highlands. Heather has rapidly spread and still remains a threat to the ecosystem. In 1993, Tongariro National Park was added to the UNESCO World Heritage list because of its cultural significance to the Māori people.

Arbor Day

The national parks movement reflected the emergence of a struggle between the interests of development and preservation. As populations grew in many countries during the nineteenth century, areas for natural recreation became increasingly valued. National parks were a government response to this, but Arbor Day showed the role individuals could play.

Arbor Day was started by a journalist, Julius Morton, in Nebraska in the United States. The first one was held on 10 April 1872. Morton believed that Nebraska's environment would benefit from more trees. As well as modelling tree planting, he decided to involve the public. He advertised a day where everyone should plant a tree, and on the first Arbor Day, a million trees were planted.

From that simple idea, an appreciation of the key role trees play in the ecosystem has developed. Arbor Day spread to Japan in 1883 and, since then, has become a global institution. Today, a diverse range of countries, including Australia, Costa Rica, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, China, Sri Lanka and Venezuela, all celebrate Arbor Day. Millions of trees have been planted across the planet as a result of a simple idea started in Nebraska in 1872.



Source 4 Planting a tree for Arbor Day

Check your learning 8.3

Remember and understand

1 What was the world's first national park? Why was it established?
2 Explain how Sydney's Royal National Park reflected a British rather than an American view of a national park.
3 What animals were introduced into the Royal National Park in its early days?
4 What do the Royal National Park and Tongariro National Park have in common?
5 What is Arbor Day?

Apply and analyse

6 As a class, discuss the value of national parks for preserving the natural environment for future generations. Do you think this is a worthwhile goal? Give reasons for your answer.

Evaluate and create

7 Select a national park you are familiar with and find out why and when it was created. How effective has the preservation and management of the natural environment in this area been? Summarise your findings in a table.
8 Henry David Thoreau was an early advocate of what would today be called environmentalism. Thoreau wrote about living a life closer to nature from his experiences in the woods of Walden Pond in Massachusetts in 1845–47. Thoreau was often cited as the inspiration for people who created alternative communities in the 1960s and 1970s. Research the life of Thoreau and write a report about his beliefs, and why he is considered to be a significant individual in the development of the environment movement.

8A rich task

The impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Written and visual sources provide historians with an understanding of the impact of the Industrial Revolution on society and the environment.

Charles Dickens (1812–70) is regarded as one of the great novelists of 19th-century Britain. Dickens' experience of poverty during his childhood, during which he worked in a blacking (shoe polish) factory, influenced much of his writing. In his novels, Dickens wrote about the impact that the growth in industry had on people's lives, including the growth of urban slums. His detailed descriptions of life in 19th century London have become a valuable primary source for historians examining the impact of the Industrial Revolution on the environment.



Source 1 Throughout his lifetime, Charles Dickens was often referred to as a literary genius. He wrote a great deal about the impacts of industrialisation on people's lives in Britain.

Source 2

> Smoke lowering down from chimney-pots, making a soft black drizzle, with flakes of soot in it as big as full-grown snowflakes – gone into mourning, one might imagine, for the death of the sun.
>
> Charles Dickens, *Bleak House* (1852–53)

Source 3

> Time went on in Coketown like its own machinery: so much material wrought up, so much fuel consumed, so many powers worn out, so much money made. But, less inexorable than iron, steel, and brass, it brought its varying seasons even into that wilderness of smoke and brick …
>
> Charles Dickens, *Hard Times* (1854)



Source 4 Smoking steel mills in Sheffield, England, in the late 19th century.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identify the origin, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources

Historians use primary and secondary sources to gather evidence about the past. Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but sources will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of the time when they were created. All sources are affected by the author's own point of view, and in some cases an author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or encouraged to ignore certain facts. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate sources. Historians need to identify:

- what a source is and where it came from (origin)
- what life was like when the source was created (context)
- why the source was created (purpose).

Follow these steps when identifying the origin, context and purpose of a source:

Step 1 Identify the origin by asking these questions:

- What type of source is it?
- Who wrote, produced or made the source? What do you know about their age, gender, occupation, position in society or religious background?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
- How old is the source?
- Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
- Is the source complete?

Step 2 Identify the context by asking these questions:

- What was life like when this source was created?
- What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?
- What was the political environment like at the time the source was created?
- What sort of common prejudices and social standards existed at the time that may have influenced the author or the source?

Step 3 Identify the purpose by asking these questions:

- Why was the source written or created?
- Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
- Does the author have anything to gain personally from the source?
- Does it give a detached, balanced account?
- Were there political reasons for the creation of the source?
- Is it propaganda?

Apply the skill

1 Choose any two of the sources that appear in this section. For each source, write a 150-word summary outlining:

- what the source is and who was responsible for creating it
- what life was like in Britain at the time the source was created
- the reason why the source was created.

Be sure to consider each of the questions that appear under the steps to identify their origin, context and purpose.

Extend your understanding

1 Research to locate written and visual sources that provide evidence of the impact of industrialisation in Australia around 1900.

a Choose one of these sources and use the steps to identify its origin, context and purpose.

b How do these sources add to your understanding of the impact of industrialisation on Australia's environment?

8.4 The 20th century – a rapidly changing world

By the start of the 20th century, improvements in areas such as agriculture, transport, communications and health were some of the positive consequences of the Industrial Revolution. Industrialisation meant that mass-produced goods were more affordable. Reforms in cities that replaced slums with new settlements led to some improvement in living conditions. However, for many urban dwellers, cities were still places where disease thrived and the environmental risks from the ongoing effects of air pollution were starting to emerge.

Threats to the environments

Two world wars in the 20th century also had an impact on the environment. The development of nuclear weapons – and their first military use on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki – meant that the future of the entire planet seemed doubtful, as people now had the power to destroy their world for the first time in history. The traumas of war and rising tensions brought on by the arms race of the **Cold War** helped create growing environmental awareness. The use of chemical weapons, such as Agent Orange in the Vietnam War, also contributed to widespread environmental degradation.

A technological revolution that called for increasing reliance on fossil fuels, rapid urbanisation, and the increasing use of substances such as fluorocarbons (an artificial chemical compound) and pesticides all emerged as environmental threats during the 20th century.

Population pressures also developed dramatically during the 20th century. This meant greater demand on land and resources, and helps explain the growing awareness of environmental issues. In the following units, we explore how population increase, urbanisation, increasing industrial production and trade has affected the environment in the 20th century.



Source 1 A devastated environment on the Western Front during World War I



Source 2 An aerial view of Nagasaki, one of the two cities that were levelled by atomic bombs in World War II



Source 3 A plane sprays pesticide over crops



Source 4 Cars travelling on a freeway in Los Angeles in the United States



Source 5 A street scene in Shanghai, China

Check your learning 8.4

Remember and understand

1 Name two impacts of war on the environment during the 20th century.

2 List three environmental threats that emerged during the 20th century.

3 On which two Japanese cities were the first atomic bombs dropped?

Apply and analyse

4 Create a graphic organiser to describe all the possible threats to the environment, based on your examination of Sources 1 to 5. What evidence do the sources provide about the intensification of environmental threats during the twentieth century?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct research to find out how fluorocarbons are used in products. Create a poster to summarise the effect they have on the environment.

8.5 The impact of population increase and urbanisation

Since the beginning of the 20th century, the population of the world has grown immensely and people have become increasingly urbanised. Where once most people lived in rural communities as farmers and small tradespeople, now half the world lives in urban centres.

Population increase in the 20th century

Over the past century, our planet has sustained a rapidly growing population. The total world population in 1900 was estimated to be 1.6 billion. In 2014, it had reached 7.2 billion. In 1901, the first census of the newly federated Australia revealed a population of 3 773 801. At the end of December 2015, the Australian Bureau of Statistics estimated the population of Australia to be 23 940 300.

Malthus and overpopulation

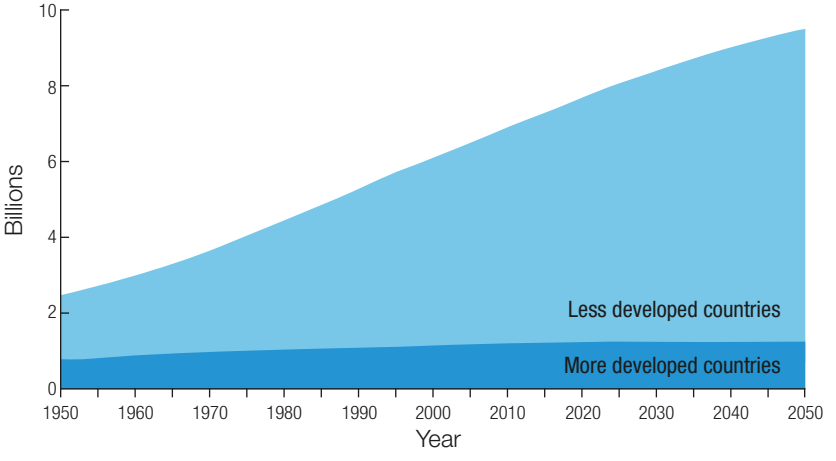
Thomas Malthus (1766–1834) was an English clergyman and scholar. Unlike most people of his time, he did not think that society would endlessly progress. He developed a theory that linked population growth with the ability of the environment to sustain that growth. He believed that population growth is eventually stopped by famine or disease. In 1798 he wrote that 'the power of population is infinitely greater than the power in the earth to provide subsistence for man'.

In 2007, it was suggested that the Industrial Revolution meant the world had broken free of the Malthusian cycles of growth and decline. The following year, it was argued that Malthus was right because of the pressure that rising consumption and industrialisation in developing economies, such as China and India, was placing on the environment.

Future population predictions

According to the United Nations' publication *World Population Prospects: the 2012 Revision*, by 2050 the world will have a population of 9.6 billion. It is expected that India will have the largest population of any country. India and China will both have populations of 1.45 billion by 2028, but China's population will decrease after that date, while India's will continue to grow. Many African countries will continue to see increased populations. For example, the report states that Nigeria's population will be double that of the USA; it is currently about half that of the USA. The population of Europe, in contrast, will decrease by 14 per cent.

UN predictions have historically had to be updated regularly, but they can give us a general idea of what the world can expect in the future. We know that the population of the world will be considerably greater than it is now. It is obvious that there will be major decisions to be made regarding distribution of resources. We also must recognise the impact that providing resources for that population will have on the environment.



Source 1 The United Nations' predicted world population growth to 2050

Urbanisation

The United Nations' World Urbanization report showed that the world's urban (city) population had increased from 13 per cent in 1900 to 49 per cent in 2005. It showed that 2007 was the 'tipping point' year when more people on Earth lived in urban areas than rural areas. The move from rural to urban areas increased quickly after World War II, when increasing industrialisation spread across the globe. Cities became the major source of employment in most countries.

In the early years of the 21st century, city centres that had previously become neglected as people had moved to suburbs started to once again attract people to live as well as work. Australian cities were part of this trend as high-rise living in city centres such as Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane became more popular.

The growth of cities has major ecological implications. Most of an urban population is engaged in producing goods and services rather than food. Cities are a major drain on energy resources, and they concentrate problems such as waste disposal. If there are industries within cities, pollution increases. It takes energy to process and transport food to urban areas, and cities are built over the natural environment. It is predicted that cities could contain five billion people by 2030, with the greatest growth coming in Asia and Africa. There is no general agreement on what numbers the Earth can sustain.



Source 2 High-density living in large apartment buildings, such as these in Hong Kong, is becoming an increasingly common urban experience.

Source 3 The world's most populous cities through time

Year (CE)	Most populous city	Population
100	Rome, Italy	450 000
1000	Cordova, Spain	450 000
1500	Beijing, China	672 000
1900	London, UK	6 480 000
1950	New York, USA	> 12 000 000
2017	Tokyo, Japan	37 833 000

Check your learning 8.5

Remember and understand

1 Outline the view of Thomas Malthus on population growth.
2 How much did the world's population increase between 1901 and 2014?
3 What does the United Nations predict will be the world's population in 2050?
4 Outline some of the environmental problems associated with cities.
5 What is the predicted population of cities for 2030?

Apply and analyse

6 Use the data provided in the text to calculate the percentage growth in the Australian population between 1901 and 2015, and the world population from 1900 to 2014. Write a statement based on your observations of Source 1.

Evaluate and create

7 In 1987, a historian named Tertius Chandler did the first serious study of urban population through history. Source 3 summarises his findings on the world's most populous cities over time. In 2010, Karachi in Pakistan was the world's largest city (excluding the wider metropolitan area) with 15.5 million people. Conduct research to find out what the world's most populous city is today. What impact is that city having on the environment?

8.6 The impact of increasing industrial production and trade

Industrial powers in the 20th century

At the start of the 20th century, Britain dominated industrial production. It had been the first country to adopt new technologies and systems in the Industrial Revolution. Its empire had grown because of its industrial and military strength.

After World War II, the United States emerged as the world's strongest economy. The war had helped the United States recover from the economic impact of the **Great Depression**, and the Cold War with the Soviet Union helped fuel an economic boom in the 1950s and 1960s. The first major shock to the economic dominance of the United States came with the oil crisis. This crisis resulted when oil-producing Arab nations, such as Saudi Arabia, refused to supply the United States with oil in 1973 and 1974 because of its support for Israel in the 1973 Yom Kippur war. The shortage of oil had a significant impact on the American economy.

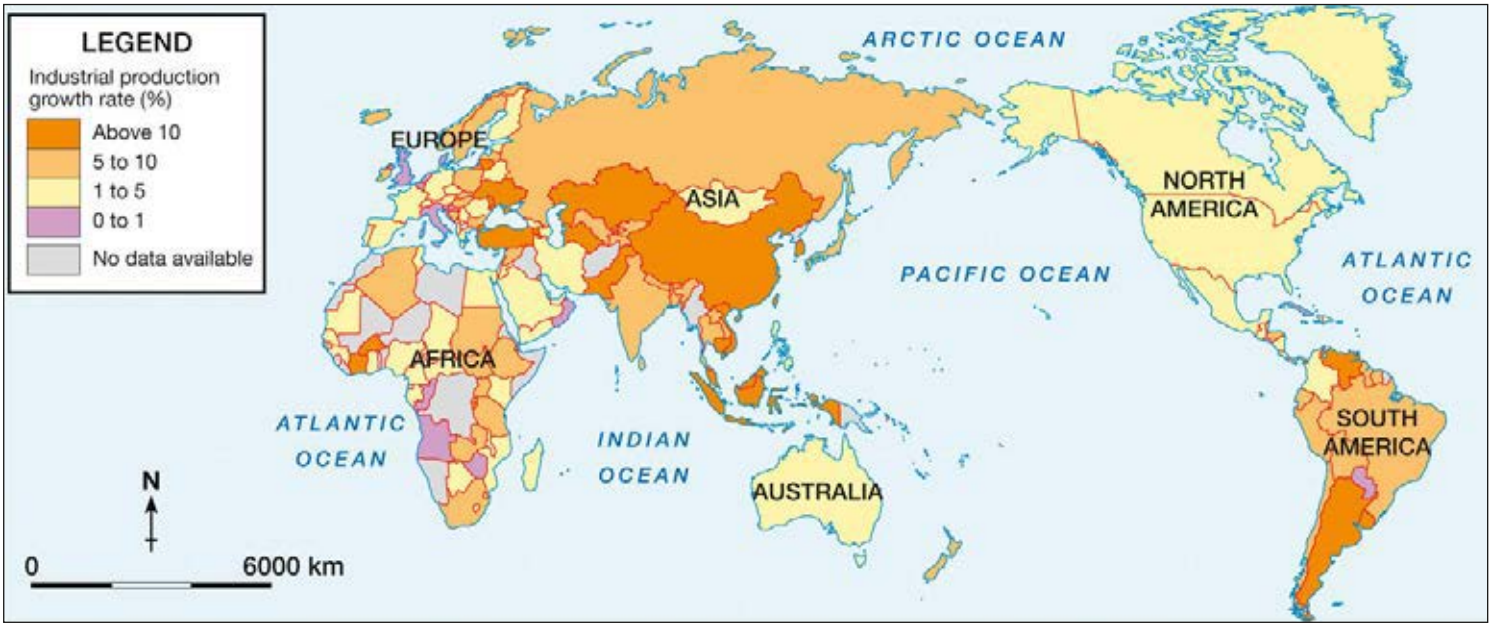
Oil became a major commodity in the world after the Second World War. Oil is a limited, **non-renewable resource**, but the world is still largely dependent on it as an energy source. The environmental impact of the reliance on oil became more obvious as East Asian nations started to industrialise.

By the 21st century, the United States was the industrial leader of the world. But as the world began to globalise at this time, East Asia became the most rapidly industrialising region in the world. China, India, South Korea and Japan now represent a huge international industrial power. In 2010, China officially became the world's largest manufacturer with an output of $1.995 trillion dollars, or 19.8 per cent of the worldwide output. It passed the United States, which accounted for 19.4 per cent, worth $1.952 trillion dollars.

Environmental impacts of China's industrialisation

Increasing industrial production, and the trade that goes with it, brings massive rises in energy consumption. With its huge demands for coal, China's industrialisation is now having severe environmental effects. It is estimated that uncontrolled fires in Chinese mines burn 20 million tons of coal each year. The huge

WORLD: GLOBAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION



Source 1

Source: Oxford University Press

industrial output of China, which is largely fuelled by coal, is causing major environmental problems. Already large clouds of pollutants from northern China's industrial region have blown into Korea. It is estimated that the increase in global-warming gases from China's coal use will exceed that for all industrialised countries combined over the next 25 years.



Source 2 An assembly line at an electronics factory in Guangdong Province, China



Source 3 Air pollution in Beijing, China

Environmental impacts of global trade

Shipping has increased throughout the 20th century. It is the main means of transporting industrially manufactured products around the globe. However, shipping brings with it a range of environmental issues.

In 2009, Britain's *Guardian* newspaper reported that the world's 15 largest ships emit as much pollution as all the cars in the world combined. It was found that one giant container ship can emit almost the same amount of cancer- and asthma-causing chemicals as 50 million cars. Other research indicated that pollution from the world's 90 000 cargo ships leads to 60 000 deaths each year in the United States alone, and costs up to $330 billion a year from lung and heart diseases.

The discharging of ballast water (water that has been loaded onto ships for stability) from one port to another affects marine environments. This has led to the transfer of bacteria and species from one ecosystem to another. These introduced species can bring in diseases that affect native species or compete with native species for food and habitat.

The northern Pacific sea star is one example of a pest that has been introduced into Australia's marine environment in this way. Marine experts believe that sea-star larvae were introduced into Tasmanian and Victorian ports in ballast water. The natural habitat of the sea star is coastal China, Korea, Russia and Japan. In Australian waters, it has no natural predators but is itself a predator, forcing open the shells of oysters, mussels and other shellfish. Marine authorities consider it a threat to native species and shellfish fisheries. The only way, at present, to control its numbers is to physically remove it.



Source 4 Ballast water is discharged from a container ship.



Source 5 The northern Pacific sea star



Source 6 Workers spray oil-covered rocks on the shore of an Alaskan island after the Exxon Valdez oil spill.



Source 7 Recovery crews collect dead sea otters along Green Island, Alaska, following the Exxon Valdez oil spill.

Transporting oil by sea poses additional risks. The *Exxon Valdez* oil spill showed the devastating impact of oil spills in pristine areas. On 24 March 1989, the American oil tanker the *Exxon Valdez* struck a reef off the Alaskan coast. Although the actual figure is still disputed, it is estimated that around 41.6 million litres of oil spilt into the pristine waters surrounding Prince William Sound. It had a major impact on the environment.

A wide range of wildlife populations such as seabirds, otters, seals, eagles and orcas were all devastated.

Long-term monitoring of the area has indicated that some species have still not fully recovered, almost 30 years later. The destruction of Alaskan wildlife and environments was a graphic reminder of the impact oil spills can have. Unfortunately, *Exxon Valdez* was simply one of many similar incidents that have occurred since the mass transportation of oil began in the late 1960s. The *Exxon Valdez* spill was neither the first nor the largest, nor will it be the last.

Check your learning 8.6

Remember and understand

1. Which country is now the world's largest manufacturer?
2. How much coal is China burning in mine fires each year?
3. How much pollution do the world's 15 largest ships produce each year?
4. What was the name of the ship that spilt oil in Alaska in 1989?

Apply and analyse

5. Examine Source 1 Write a statement that summarises the information provided in this map.

Evaluate and create

6. Conduct research on marine pests that have been introduced into Australian waters from the discharge of ballast water from container ships. Select one example and evaluate its impact on the environment.
7. Conduct research on the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill or the marine oil spill from BP's *Deepwater Horizon* drilling site in the Gulf of Mexico. Create a presentation to evaluate its impact on the environment, including written and image sources.

8.7 The influence of popular culture

As has been shown, environmental concerns aren't new. During the 20th century, however, awareness rapidly grew. Science was important, but popular culture played a critical role in boosting both awareness and understanding of environmental concerns. Books, magazines and music all helped to bring people together and provide a focus for shared ideas. This, in turn, helped spur the mass movements that have pressured governments over environmental concerns in the 20th and 21st centuries.

Silent Spring

One of the most influential books that helped to increase awareness of the environment was *Silent Spring* by Rachel Carson, published in 1962. At this time, technological developments had led to increasingly effective pesticides that removed pests and allowed larger crop production. In *Silent Spring*, Carson condemned the use of pesticides and their impact on the environment. She explained how the powerful pesticide DDT not only killed insects but also entered the food chain, and accumulated in the tissues of animals, including people.

Carson's willingness to challenge the chemical industry was also controversial, accusing it of spreading misinformation. Her accusations that public officials often failed to critically and objectively analyse chemical industry claims became a blueprint for environmentalists who followed. *Silent Spring* is now seen as one of the foundation stones of the modern environmental movement.

Impact of *Silent Spring*

A year after the book appeared, President Kennedy asked his Science Advisory Committee to investigate Carson's claims. This led to greater regulation of the use of pesticides. The banning of the pesticide DDT – now known to be toxic to birds and fish, and thought to cause cancer in humans – in the United States, in 1972, was hailed as a vindication of Carson's work. Despite these acknowledgements relating to the danger of DDT, it wasn't banned in Britain until 1984, and is still used today in countries such as India and North Korea.



Source 1 Marine biologist and author of *Silent Spring*, Rachel Carson (1907–1964)

A legacy of *Silent Spring* has been its use of scientific evidence to challenge official complacency. By using evidence, Rachel Carson created a strong argument that reached a mass audience and was able to force politicians and public officials to take action. The book also encouraged the public to question the claims of companies who profited from products that affected the environment.

Increased awareness of the effects of pesticides led the development of an organic farming approach. This entailed a reversion to natural methods of fertilisation and pest control. Its popularity increased with the introduction of genetically modified crops. The Organic Federation of Australia was formed in 1998 to draw together all areas of what was an emerging contributor to Australian agriculture. The organic food industry in Australia has now reached mainstream supermarkets; cruelty-free, free-range animal farming has become normalised. The contamination of organic crops by genetically modified crops has also emerged as a significant issue in Australian agriculture.

The Mother Earth News

Two American publications found their way into Australia by the early 1970s, and influenced a movement usually referred to as 'back to the land'. *The Whole Earth Catalogue* and *The Mother Earth News* were influential, initially in the United States, and eventually globally. They encouraged a more sustainable, and often communal, living style that coincided with the social changes of the late 1960s that are associated with the hippie movement.

First published in January 1970 by John and Jane Shuttleworth, from the outset *The Mother Earth News* contained practical advice about 'getting back to nature'. It gave advice on how to build sustainable housing, self-supporting gardens and effective methods of recycling. Although many of these approaches have been incorporated into mainstream thinking since then, at the time, *The Mother Earth News* was revolutionary.

In Australia, the Aquarius Arts Festival of 1973 was held at Nimbin, on the northern coast of New South Wales (see Source 3). At the conclusion, a number of festival-goers remained in the town. An alternative community developed that embraced many of the ideals of the back-to-the-land movement: communal living, sustainable food production and people removing themselves from what they regarded as the commercial rat race.



Source 2 The first issue of the magazine *The Mother Earth News*

The influence of music

From the birth of rock 'n' roll in the 1950s, music was a common form of popular culture for young people. Environmental concerns grew rapidly at the same time as rock 'n' roll, and music became a powerful means of raising consciousness about social and political issues. Protests against the Vietnam War are well known in music, but rock 'n' roll also played a major role in spreading awareness about the fragility of our environment. Well before political campaigns, a range of artists had hits warning about the potential destruction of the Earth. These songs and artists were major hits globally and, as the music spread, countries such as Australia were heavily influenced. Artists who expressed their concern about environmental issues from the 1960s to the 1990s are summarised in Source 4.



Source 3 Festival-goers at the Aquarius Arts Festival, Nimbin, 1973

Source 4 Artists concerned about environmental issues from the 1960s to the 1990s

Artists and year	Song and theme
Verdelle Smith, 1965	'Tar and Cement', an early warning about urbanisation
Joe South, 1969	'Don't It Make You Want to Go Home', describes the changes around Atlanta, Georgia
Zager and Evans, 1969	'In the Year 2525', a look into the future and what it holds
Joni Mitchell, 1970	'Big Yellow Taxi', a song about urbanisation and loss of nature
Marvin Gaye, 1971	'Mercy, Mercy Me (the Ecology)', a song about the spoiling of the natural environment
The Beach Boys, 1971	'Don't Go Near the Water', a song about water quality
Randy Newman, 1972	'Burn On', recounts the Cuyahoga River fire of 1969
Midnight Oil, 1990	'Blue Sky Mine', a song about the experiences of workers who were contaminated at the Wittenoom asbestos mine in Western Australia



Source 5 Soul artist Marvin Gaye

Check your learning 8.7

Remember and understand

1 Why is *Silent Spring* regarded as a significant environmental text?

2 Which environmental issues were highlighted by artists from the 1960s to the 1990s?

Apply and analyse

3 Use a search engine to find the lyrics for Joni Mitchell's 'Big Yellow Taxi', then respond to the following questions.
   - **a** What environmental perspective does Joni Mitchell present in this song?
   - **b** Identify the environmental changes Mitchell comments on.
   - **c** Why might the song have been successful in 1970?
   - **d** What issues raised by the song are still relevant today?
   - **e** How valid are song lyrics as primary sources for historical study?

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct research on genetically modified crops. Create a table comparing the advantages and risks of such products.

5 Over the last few years, scientists have noticed a severe reduction in the number of honey bees worldwide. Alarms were raised and fingers were pointed at agriculturalists using pesticides to control a variety of insects that are harmful to crops. However, one set of pesticides – known as neonicotinoids – is killing animals, including honey bees, that are vital to the life cycle on Earth.

   Conduct research to find out more about honey bees and the use of neonicotinoids for pest control. In a brief report, answer the following questions:
   - **a** What are neonicotinoids?
   - **b** What do they do to honey bees?
   - **c** What function to honey bees perform that is of benefit to farmers and people in general?
   - **d** What do you think would happen if honey bees were killed off?

8.8 The influence of environmental ideas

As the 20th century progressed, the emergence of theories about the interconnectedness of life and the importance of nature clashed with mainstream beliefs about the necessity of growth and development. Some of the key environmental ideas are explored in this unit.

Gaia hypothesis

One of the developments in environmental thinking was the **Gaia hypothesis**. This proposed that life on Earth was interconnected and formed a self-contained system that allowed life to flourish. In other words, the Earth is a single, interconnected system.

The original theory was developed by a chemist, James Lovelock, and a microbiologist, Lynn Margulis. Their work suggested that the Earth was self-regulating, and organisms adapted the environment in their favour. It has inspired scientific investigation, and is winning acceptance as more evidence is found. Its idea of interconnectedness has had significant impact on environmental thinking.



Source 1 The Gaia hypothesis sees Earth as a self-regulating organism, supporting life.

Limits to Growth

In 1972, a book entitled *Limits to Growth* was published. It was written by a group of economists who used computer modelling to predict the effects of uncontrolled economic and population growth on the Earth's finite resources. They looked at five variables for their modelling: world population, industrialisation, pollution, food production and resource depletion. The authors came to the conclusion that if the average rate of consumption growth continued, virtually all major minerals and energy resources would be used up by 2070.

Critics of the book at the time argued that the authors could not make any accurate predictions as there was no way of knowing the amount of resource supplies available or what new technologies might become available. They also argued that restricting growth levels to conserve resources, as the authors suggested, would create new problems and keep millions of people in poverty.

In 2008, however, Graham Turner at the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO) in Australia published a paper comparing figures from the past 30 years with the predictions made in 1972. He found that the actual changes in industrial production, food production and pollution matched the predictions made by the authors.

Sustainability

The idea of **sustainability** has become increasingly important during the twentieth century. It takes a long-term view of environmental impacts and use of resources. The exploitation of natural resources needs to be measured and managed so that those resources are still available to be used by future generations.

An example of what happens when sustainable management of the environment is ignored is found in the history of Easter Island. There is evidence that Easter Island once contained giant palms, but that the inhabitants of the island cut them all down until they were extinct. As a result, Easter Island society collapsed when its environment was destroyed. Today it can no longer sustain a large population and relies on tourism for its economy.

Countries today are caught between the need to develop economically and the necessity of doing this without ruining the natural environment. If we want to sustain the natural resources we need, we have to take a long-term view of how we will live in our world. In Australia, we are moving towards a more sustainable way of living and working.

An increased emphasis on recycling is an example of sustainability. The planting of forests specifically for paper production, rather than exploiting natural forests, is another. Water restrictions in many Australian cities have become part of life, as governments seek ways to make our use of water more sustainable. Calls for 'paperless' offices tap into a similar demand for more sustainable practices in business. The annual Earth Hour campaign, which asks that lights be turned off between 8.30pm and 9.30pm on the last Saturday in March, is an example of a global movement for sustainability. Earth Hour started as a lights-off campaign in Sydney in 2007 to raise awareness of environmental issues. It has now spread to more than 7000 towns and cities worldwide.



Source 2 Recycling bottles, papers and cans has become common practice in Australia.

The rights of nature

There has been a growing acceptance of the idea that nature has rights. It picks up on Indigenous people's relationships with the Earth, and recognises that **ecosystems** – plants, oceans and mountains – deserve recognition, as do animals. This has always been a component of many traditional beliefs, and has become increasingly influential. An acceptance of this idea is regarded as essential to the continuation of successful life on the planet.

The rights of nature, however, are frequently in conflict with development and are therefore regarded as a restriction on progress by opponents. It is this division that will prove significant in environmental discussions in the 21st century.



Source 3 A sustainable forest is managed so that older trees, felled to produce paper and other products, will be replaced by younger plants that will grow into mature trees.

Check your learning 8.8

Remember and understand

1 Who developed the Gaia theory?
2 What did the 2008 CSIRO research discover regarding the 1972 predictions about Earth's future in *Limits to Growth*?
3 Why is Easter Island an example of unsustainable living?
4 What are some examples of sustainability that have started to become accepted?
5 What is the key idea behind the rights of nature?

Apply and analyse

6 Are songs such as 'Mercy, Mercy Me (the Ecology)' useful and reliable sources for a historian? Justify your response.

Evaluate and create

7 Find out about the sustainability practices in place at your school and create a brochure or poster to highlight one or more of these practices.

8B rich task

Sustainability in business

Today, many companies incorporate the ideas of sustainability into their business practices, and in the design and manufacture of their products. Many individuals also make purchasing decisions or include sustainable practices in their daily lives to reduce their use of natural resources.

Two examples of sustainable practices put in place by multinational companies are outlined below.

Marriott hotels

This company:

- encourage guests to reuse linen and towels to save water, detergents and energy
- replaced all outdoor signs with light-emitting diodes (LED) to reduce electricity consumption
- installed energy-saving shower heads to reduce hot water consumption.

IKEA

This company:

- operates wind farms and installs solar panels on stores and distribution centres to produces more than half of the company's energy requirements
- replaced entire lighting range with products that use LED
- introduced a sustainability assessment tool for its suppliers to help them become more energy efficient
- took part in a campaign to commit 50 of the world's largest companies to move to 100% renewable electricity

Individuals and families can include sustainable practices in their homes, such as:

- recycling papers and plastics
- using energy-efficient light bulbs such as LED
- installing solar power and insulation
- installing water tanks to collect rainwater, and reusing grey water
- composting waste
- keeping poultry and growing fruit and vegetables



Source 1 IKEA is the world's largest furniture retailer. It has a number of sustainable practices in place to help protect the environment.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Create and deliver an audiovisual presentation

It is likely that as part of your school work, you have already created many PowerPoint presentations. You may have also tried out some other audiovisual presentation software, such as Prezi, which is freely available on the internet. Whichever program you choose, it is important to use it effectively, and avoid the common problems of these types of presentations. Use the following steps to help you avoid these typical problems.

Step 1 Design your presentation

- Plan your presentation carefully so it has a clear beginning, middle and end.
- Make sure you present the content in clear, concise bullet-point form, not huge slabs of information in paragraph form.
- Do not just fill up your PowerPoint with a collection of images that are only loosely related to the content. Include visuals that relate to the content on that particular slide. Make sure each visual is accompanied by a caption that explains why it is relevant to the presentation.
- A common mistake is to have objects and texts moving on the screen in a way that distracts the audience. Use graphics, sound, video, animations and

transitions only if they add value to the point being made, not just because you think it will look good.

- Use a design that ensures your audience can clearly see and read the slides. Make sure there is enough contrast between the text colour and the background colour on the slide, and make sure your font size is large enough.

Step 2 Deliver your presentation

- When delivering an audiovisual presentation to an audience, do not merely stand up and read out the text on each slide. Rather, talk in a way that develops and expands upon the points on each slide. Carefully plan in advance what you are going to talk about during each slide. Record this plan on cue cards, and refer to these cue cards during your speech to remind you of what to say.
- At any moment, what is on the screen should be the thing that you are talking about. Your audience will quickly read every slide as soon as it is displayed. If there are four points on the slide, they'll have read all four points while you are still talking about the first point. Plan your presentation so just one new point is displayed at any given moment. Click to go to the next point only when you are ready to talk about that next point.
- Speak clearly – not too fast, not too slow. Vary your tone and pitch to make your presentation more interesting.
- Make eye contact with different members of your audience. Do not just look down at your cue cards.

Apply the skill

1 Prepare and deliver an audiovisual presentation about sustainable practices that have been put into action by a community, business or individual.

2 Your presentation should be well researched and based on relevant and reliable sources. For detailed information on this skill, 'refer to pages 17–9 of 'The history toolkit'.

Extend your understanding

1 As you listen to your classmates deliver their presentations, complete a peer assessment. Use Source 1 as a guide. You could create a pro forma and ask your teacher to photocopy it so that you can complete one for each presentation.

2 Give each classmate your completed peer assessment. Collect the peer assessments that your classmates completed as they listened to your presentation.

Read their feedback, and then complete a short self-assessment by responding to the following questions:

a What did I do well in terms of my presentation design?

b What could I improve in terms of my presentation design?

c What did I do well in terms of my oral presentation?

d What could I improve in terms of my oral presentation?

Name of presenter:	Name of person completing peer assessment:
Component of presentation:	What did the presenter do well in this regard?
	What could the presenter improve upon in this regard?
Presentation design	
Oral presentation	

Source 2 A sample peer assessment form

8.9 Key campaigns and events 1945 to 1975

The introduction and use of nuclear weapons in World War II terrified many, and also helped lead people to seriously consider the environmental consequences of human actions. As the world recovered from World War II, the increasing pressure on economic development also had environmental consequences. As countries in Asia and Africa decolonised, they found the exploitation of their own natural resources was the key to economic and social progress. Environmental groups developed around the world as a response to business and government indifference to environmental threats.

Environmental activists became increasingly militant as threats to the Earth grew during the last half of the 20th century. Just as social activism in areas such as civil rights, conscription and the anti-war movement became increasingly accepted, so did environmental campaigns. People who had previously been dismissed as crackpots and 'tree-huggers' began to be taken seriously. Caring for the environment was becoming normalised.

As the end of the 20th century approached, there were clear differences between those who saw the planet as a resource to be exploited, and those who saw it as a unique **biosphere** to be preserved. Development and conservation frequently became opponents at this time in history.

Smog incidents after World War II

As the world settled into postwar prosperity and industrial expansion after World War II, there were clear warning signs that the environment was suffering. In 1948, in Donora, Pennsylvania, 20 people and 800 animals died, and 7000 of the town's 14000-strong population became ill when a wall of poisonous smog descended on the mill town. A temperature inversion (in which cold air is trapped beneath a warmer airflow) prevented the escape of emissions of hydrogen fluoride and sulphur dioxide from nearby factories. The situation continued for five days until rain helped clear the poisons from the air. The factories didn't begin shutting down until the fifth day, and reopened the next morning after rain fell. About 200 more people died in the days after the smog lifted, and many people were left with permanently damaged lungs and hearts.

The Donora smog incident is credited with starting the campaign for clean air. Around 200 more people died in another major smog incident in New York City in November 1953. These incidents led to campaigns for cleaner air. In 1955, the US Congress passed the Air Pollution Control Act, and finally, the Clean Air Act in 1970.

This movement was echoed in Great Britain after the Great Smog of 1952 in London. In similar conditions to Donora, the smog lasted five days, and it is now thought that up to 12 000 people may have died as a result of the pollution. Britain enacted a Clean Air Act in 1956.



Source 1 London smog in 1952

Other key events

The Minimata Bay incident, 1956

Minimata Bay in Japan was heavily contaminated by mercury during the 1950s. Mercury – which is highly toxic – was a waste product that had been pumped into the bay from a chemical and plastics factory. Fish caught in the bay were contaminated, as were the residents, who regularly ate the fish from the bay. In 1956, mercury poisoning led to the deaths of 9000 people, and an estimated two million others suffered permanent health problems, such as blindness and paralysis.

Maralinga nuclear tests, 1956–57

In Australia, the Maralinga nuclear tests conducted in South Australia by Great Britain in 1956 and 1957 contaminated the food chain, with radioactivity being found in cows' milk far from Maralinga. At the time of the Cold War, Australians tended to broadly accept nuclear tests as necessary for their survival. The anti-nuclear campaign really started to develop as Australia was dragged more deeply into the Vietnam War in the 1960s. Anti-nuclear campaigns are discussed further in Unit 8.14.

Earthrise photo, 1968

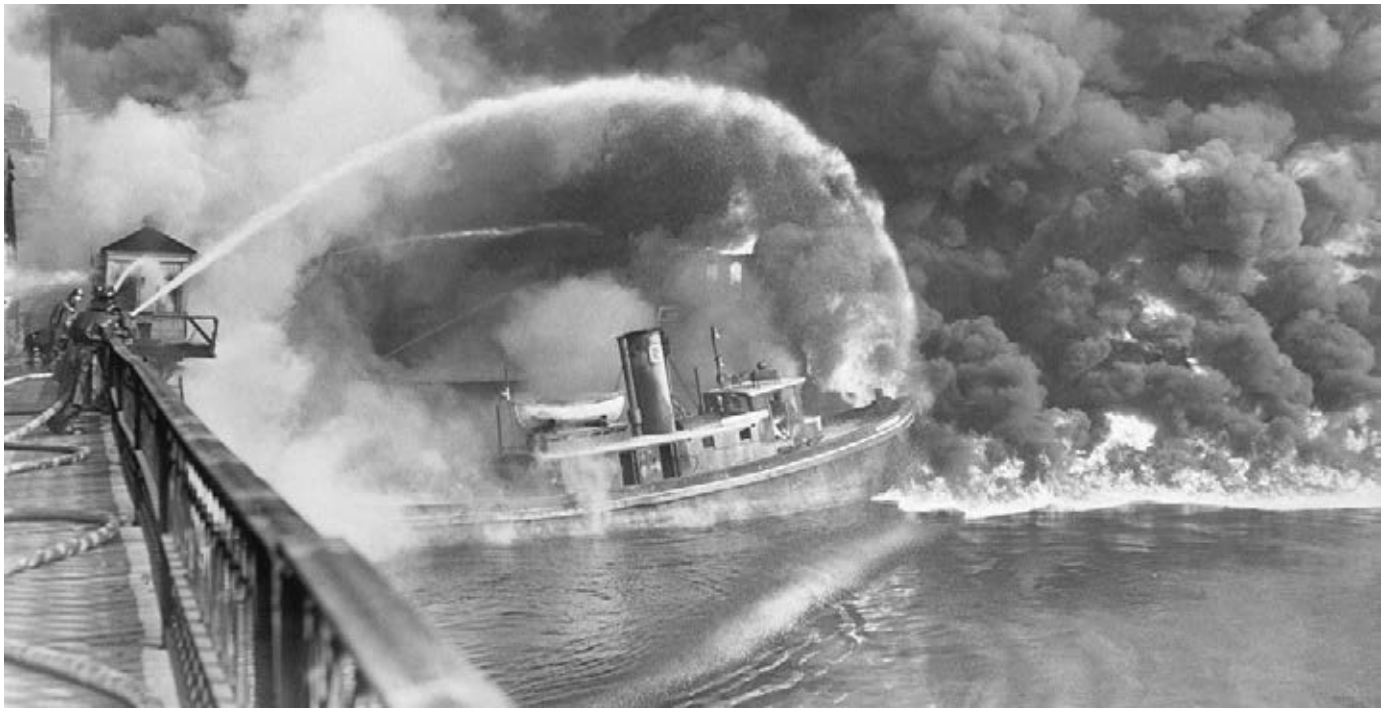
As discussed earlier, the circulation of this single image – which revealed the Earth as a single, fragile biosphere floating in space – was a profound moment in history. It revealed the interconnected nature of all life on the planet, and started movements such as the back-to-the-land movement.

Cuyahoga River Fire, 1969

The Cuyahoga River in northern Ohio was renowned as one of the most polluted rivers in the USA. For many years, industrial waste had been dumped into the river. The first fire on the river was in 1868, and the largest was in 1952, which caused millions of dollars' worth of damage to bridges and other structures. It was not until 1969, however, after there had been several *more* fires on the river, that one fire was reported in *Time* magazine. The incident caught national attention, and stimulated a campaign that culminated in the Clean Water Act of 1972. It showed that people were starting to effectively organise themselves to oppose unrestricted expansion of industry at the planet's expense.

The flooding of Lake Pedder, Tasmania, 1972

In the 1960s, the Tasmanian government cancelled the national parks listing of Lake Pedder and flooded the region as part of a dam system to provide cheap electricity for industry. The environmental and political consequences of Lake Pedder are discussed in Unit 8.12.



Source 2 Fireman spray water at the fire on the Cuyahoga River in 1952.

Karen Silkwood and the Kerr-McGee company, 1974

Karen Silkwood was a chemical technician at the Kerr-McGee nuclear fuel production plant in Oklahoma in the United States. The company was a major employer in the region, producing plutonium pellets for nuclear-reactor fuel rods. As part of her union activities, Silkwood was responsible for investigating health and safety issues. At an Atomic Energy Commission hearing in August 1974, she revealed employee safety risks such as exposure of workers to contamination, faulty respiratory equipment and improper storage of samples.

Karen Silkwood was herself tested for contamination on 5 November 1974, where it was found that she was 400 times over the safe limit for exposure to plutonium. There has been considerable debate over how Silkwood became so contaminated at this time. Kerr-McGee later suggested she was deliberately poisoning herself to make the company look negligent. There has been other evidence to suggest the source of the contamination may have been from within her house.

On 13 November 1974, Silkwood had decided to go public with her investigations of safety breaches at Kerr-McGee. According to a witness, she had left a union meeting with a folder of documents to meet a *New York Times* reporter and a union official.

On the way to that meeting, Silkwood's car ran off the road and she was killed. Local police investigations called it a single-car accident in which Silkwood fell asleep at the wheel. Later investigations raised doubts about the circumstances of her death. The documents she was supposedly carrying to her meeting were never found in the car. There was evidence that her car may have been rammed from the back and forced off the road.

Impact of Karen Silkwood's campaign

Karen Silkwood's death led to a number of inquiries into the nuclear-fuel industry. One of the revelations was that more than 40 pounds of plutonium went missing from the Kerr-McGee plant where Karen Silkwood worked. In 1975, Kerr-McGee closed all its nuclear plants. Twenty-five years later, the plant where Silkwood worked was still being decontaminated. The film *Silkwood* (1983) tells the story of Silkwood's time at Kerr-McGee and her death. She has become a symbol of the struggle for regulation of the nuclear-power industry.



Source 3 Karen Silkwood

Check your learning 8.9

Remember and understand

1 Create a timeline to summarise key environmental events and campaigns from the end of the Second World War to 1975, based on the information in the text.

Apply and analyse

2 Use the information in your timeline to label a world map showing the events and dates in the timeline. Conduct some research to add details for other significant environmental events and campaigns in this period.

Evaluate and create

3 Choose one environmental event to research further, and write a short story or news article based on the event.

8.10 Nuclear weapons testing

A weapon as powerful as the atomic bomb has to be tested, with each test releasing radioactive material into the atmosphere. The first test of a nuclear weapon came within a month of its use in the Second World War. On 16 July 1945, the United States tested a nuclear weapon in the state of New Mexico. Weapons were also tested above ground in the state of Nevada during the 1950s.

US nuclear tests in the Marshall Islands, 1946–58

As the Soviet Union, Britain and France – and later China, India and Pakistan – acquired nuclear weapons, testing increased. The United States conducted tests in the Marshall Islands in the Pacific between 1946 and 1958. This included the testing of the first hydrogen bomb, codenamed Castle Bravo, on Bikini Atoll in 1954. Its blast was more powerful than scientists expected, contaminating the entire area and fishing boats after the wind changed.

The United States seemed unconcerned about the effects on soldiers and locals who would be exposed to nuclear fallout after the Bikini Atoll nuclear tests. Although the locals were removed from the region before the blasts, they returned within three years. Many people developed symptoms of radiation sickness, so they were removed once again. In 1956, the Marshall Islands were declared the most contaminated place on Earth by the Atomic Energy Commission. The area is still unliveable, 60 years after the test.

Source 1 A view of the 'Baker' atomic bomb explosion at Bikini Atoll on 25 July 1946



Source 2

> It would very interesting to go back and get good environmental data … so as to get a measure of the human uptake, when people live in a contaminated environment … Now, data of this type has never been available … While it is true that these people do not live, I would say, the way Westerners do, civilized people, it is nevertheless also true that they are more like us than the mice.

A statement by a scientist in a secret meeting held before Marshall Islanders were returned to live on the island – temporarily – in 1957.

British nuclear testing in Australia

Britain tested its nuclear weapons in Australia. Weapons were exploded at the Monte Bello Islands just off the Western Australian coast, on Christmas Island in the central Pacific, and in Maralinga and Emu Field in South Australia. Australian newspapers reported air force pilots flying through the aftermath of the nuclear cloud to gather dust samples during the 1950s tests. In spite of British assurances that limited radiation would be released by the tests, there is clear scientific evidence of radioactive material entering the food chain in Australia in the 1950s.

The formation of Greenpeace

In 1970, the United States announced its intentions to continue nuclear testing on the Alaskan island of Amchitka, at the western end of the Aleutian Islands. Knowing that the testing would take place despite the risks of a major tectonic fault in the region, a group of Canadians and Americans formed in British Columbia, Canada, to oppose the tests and sail into the testing area. To raise the funds needed to hire a ship, they organised a fundraising concert in in Vancouver, British Columbia with Joni Mitchell, James Taylor and Phil Ochs.

The protesters, who would soon be known as Greenpeace, sailed to Amchitka for the first, and ultimately successful, direct action campaign. Although the United States navy forced them to turn back, the publicity and public exposure of the dangers of the weapons testing meant that this was the last weapon tested at Amchitka.

Greenpeace established itself with the aim of ensuring 'the ability of the Earth to nurture life in all its diversity'. Since its formation, Greenpeace has successfully campaigned against many environmental abuses, including French testing of nuclear weapons in the Pacific, whaling, mining in Antarctica and the illegal dumping of nuclear waste.

In 2011, Greenpeace celebrated its fortieth anniversary. It remains one of the most significant environment activist groups, with branches in 40 countries around the world. On the official Greenpeace website, they describe themselves as 'ordinary people willing to do extraordinary things to protect the environment'. They also acknowledge that after forty years of activism, 'there is still a lot to do'.



Source 3 Activists from Greenpeace Africa place lookalike radioactive barrels on the beach in Cape Town, South Africa, in 2012 to highlight the risks associated with nuclear power.

Sinking of the Rainbow warrior

Rainbow Warrior was the name given to Greenpeace's flagship. In July 1985, the *Rainbow Warrior* was berthed in Auckland Harbour on its way to another protest against French nuclear testing at Mururoa Atoll in the South Pacific. Greenpeace had been sailing into the French nuclear testing zone since 1972, and had embarrassed the French government by exposing the massive environmental degradation the tests had caused in the region.

France's reputation in the Pacific was suffering as protests increased against their nuclear tests. French Intelligence developed a plan to prevent the *Rainbow Warrior* from reaching Mururoa Atoll. On 10 July 1985, an explosion rocked the *Rainbow Warrior*. It was designed to blow a hole in the ship and start it sinking, giving people on board time to leave. A second explosion was triggered to complete the sinking. A Greenpeace cameraman, Fernando Pereira, had gone back into his quarters to retrieve camera gear when the second explosion occurred. He was killed instantly.

Investigations in New Zealand ultimately revealed the involvement of the French secret agents Alain Mafart and Dominique Prieur. They were arrested and jailed but were later released into French custody, after France had instigated an economic boycott of New Zealand.

Many have called the sinking of the protest vessel and the murder of a person on board, in the harbour of an ally, an act of terrorism. It was designed to deflect attention away from France's nuclear testing in the Pacific. Instead, it highlighted the narrow self-interest that can guide the actions of governments, and further consolidated a determination in many ordinary citizens across the world to achieve change.



Source 4 The Greenpeace ship the *Rainbow Warrior* after it had been bombed in Auckland Harbour

Nuclear-testing bans

The impact of nuclear testing in the South Pacific is still being felt. Nuclear contamination will remain for an undetermined number of years. France continued its above-ground testing in the Pacific until 1974, and China tested above ground until 1980. A ban on nuclear weapons testing was signed by most nuclear countries in 1996, when France finally ceased its underground nuclear tests in the South Pacific. India and Pakistan, who did not sign the ban, last tested weapons in 1998. The most recent nuclear weapons test was by North Korea in 2016.

Check your learning 8.10

Remember and understand

1 At which sites did the British test their nuclear weapons?
2 Why was Greenpeace established?
3 What sort of activities have Greenpeace campaigned against?

Apply and analyse

4 Read the statement in Source 2.
a How long after the hydrogen bomb test on the Bikini Atoll were islanders returned?
b What evidence do these sources provide about the knowledge, among scientists and the general public, of the effects of nuclear contamination during the 1950s?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct in-depth research about what actually happened in the Castle Bravo test at Bikini Atoll in the Marshall Islands. List the ongoing effect on the environment and the Marshall Islanders.
6 Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies readily agreed to Britain's request for a permanent nuclear-testing site at Maralinga. Write a letter to the editor that supports this decision, from the perspective of an Australian veteran of World War II.

8.11 Nuclear disasters

Since the first commercial nuclear power plant was built in the Soviet Union in 1954, nuclear power has been championed by supporters as a cleaner and more sustainable source than coal-generated power, but it comes with significant risks.

Since the late 1970s, three nuclear disasters, in particular, have had a significant impact on the way people view nuclear power, highlighting the dangers inherently involved with its production.

Three Mile Island, 1979

On 28 March 1979, the Three Mile Island power plant in the state of Pennsylvania (north of New York) experienced a core meltdown. Prior to this event, fears about the safety of nuclear power plants were largely dismissed as alarmist. Three Mile Island changed that complacency forever.

Leading up to the accident, a stuck open valve in one of the reactors released a significant amount of coolant from the reactor. An operator, unable to see a hidden indicator light, misread the situation and thought there was too much coolant in the reactor. He overrode the automatic system and released more steam into the reactor, raising the temperature and causing a partial nuclear core meltdown.

A couple of days after this initial accident, radioactive gas was released into the atmosphere. A state of emergency was declared and contradictory reports from officials at the plant about the amount of radiation released had locals hiding in their houses for fear of contamination. The Nuclear Regulatory Commission then authorised the release of 40 000 gallons of radioactive waste water into the Susquehanna River.

A clean-up of the area commenced in August 1979 and public enquiries were held to try to understand the causes of the disaster. By 1993, after a cost of US$1 billion, the clean-up was complete. Although studies have found that residents have not reported increased levels of cancer as a result of any exposure to radiation from the Three Mile Island meltdown, the incident affected public trust in the nuclear-power industry.



Source 1 Anti-nuclear power protestors near Three Mile Island, 1979

Chernobyl, 1986

On 26 April 1986, the Chernobyl nuclear power plant in Ukraine (then a part of the Soviet Union) exploded. Large quantities of radioactive material were released into the atmosphere – more than 400 times the amount that was released when the atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima. For several weeks, weather reports included the location of the cloud of radioactive material as it made its way west across Europe, and eventually spread across Greenland, Canada and the USA. Chernobyl is considered the world's worst nuclear disaster.

The safety of the entire Soviet nuclear industry was questioned following the incident, which led to the establishment of several enquiries. After initially attempting to cover up the incident, Soviet authorities realised that it was simply too large to be hidden. The acknowledgement of the accident at Chernobyl became part of the opening of the Soviet government that ultimately paved the way to the end of the Cold War.

In the months after the accident, more than 100 000 people were evacuated from within a 30-kilometre radius of the nuclear plant. A further 230 000 people would eventually be relocated. The number of deaths that can be attributed to Chernobyl varies widely. There is agreement that 31 workers died as a direct result of the explosion. The problem with a nuclear accident, however, is in accounting for the later deaths from radiation and related cancers. Estimates ranged from 4000 to 200 000. A Russian publication from 2007 conducted major research into the question, and came to the stunning and verifiable conclusion that 985 000 people worldwide had died prematurely from exposure to radiation and fallout from Chernobyl.



Source 2 The abandoned town of Pripyat, near Chernobyl

Regardless of the number of direct and indirect victims, Chernobyl exposed the realities of the world's reliance on nuclear power. Orders for nuclear power plants dropped rapidly after Chernobyl. Supporters of nuclear power still argue that it is the most environmentally safe option for power generation. As Chernobyl showed, however, if it goes wrong, the consequences can be catastrophic.

Fukushima Daiichi, 2011

The Fukushima nuclear power plant suffered major damage when an earthquake and subsequent tsunami hit Japan on 11 March 2011. The earthquake disabled the reactor cooling systems, leading to nuclear radiation leaks and closing the plant. A 30-kilometre evacuation zone was put in place around the plant and 100 000 people were evacuated from their homes. Some areas are expected to stay within an exclusion zone for decades.

The accident is the second-biggest nuclear accident, after the Chernobyl disaster. It is still too early to assess the full environmental impact of this disaster. One thing is clear, the Japanese people no longer feel safe with nuclear power. All but two nuclear reactors across the country have been closed down since the accident because of local opposition to them. Japan currently looks to be moving away from reliance on nuclear power and towards alternative renewable power sources for the future.

Check your learning 8.11

Remember and understand

1 What were the impacts of the Three Mile Island accident?

2 Why is it hard to count the number of victims in a nuclear accident?

Apply and analyse

3 The Fukushima nuclear disaster and Chernobyl both rank as Level 7 nuclear incidents. Analyse the causes, effects and outcomes of each incident.

Evaluate and create

4 As a class, discuss the lessons to be learned from the Chernobyl and Fukushima incidents. Then, individually write a letter to the United Nations explaining how you think the world should move forward in light of what we know about both incidents.

8.12 Significant events and campaigns in Australia

From the late 1970s to the 1990s, significant events and campaigns led to a growing awareness of environmental issues in Australia and the world. In Australia, Tasmania was again the battleground between developers and environmentalists.

Lake Pedder

The area around Lake Pedder had been a national park since 1955, but in 1967 the Tasmanian government withdrew the national park listing so that the region could be flooded by damming the Gordon, Serpentine and Huon Rivers. The damming was regarded as necessary because Tasmania planned to attract industry to the island with the lure of cheap, renewable electricity. The Hydro Electric Commission was going to provide that cheap electricity.

Both the state government and the Hydro Electric Commission rejected opposition to the damming, and dismissed any environmental issues that were raised. The premier of Tasmania, Eric Reece, even refused an offer from future Prime Minister Gough Whitlam to pay whatever was necessary to save Lake Pedder.

Opposition to the proposal became widespread as awareness of the ecological significance of the region started to grow. Supporters came from around the world to see such unique features as the pink quartzite beach, and demand recognition of the precious nature of the region.

In spite of opposition, the damming took place in 1972. The original, natural Lake Pedder was completely submerged by the new and much larger artificial lake. Three species appear to have been made extinct by the flooding: an earthworm, a flatworm and a fish.

Source 1 A view of Lake Pedder in the Southwest National Park in Tasmania



The growth of green politics

Although the flooding of Lake Pedder was a significant loss for the emerging environmental movement, it encouraged further resistance. The United Tasmania Group, the world's first 'green' party, was formed and it paved the way for green issues to become political. Proper political organisation developed to fight further plans for destruction of the south-western wilderness. In many ways, the loss of Lake Pedder created the modern Greens movement.

The Franklin Dam campaign, 1978–83

The Lake Pedder campaign had been a failure for the Tasmanian environmental movement, but the activists were determined to learn from that failure. When the Tasmanian Hydro Electricity Commission announced plans to dam the Franklin River in 1978, there was immediate and planned opposition. The Tasmanian Wilderness Society had emerged from the United Tasmania Group. They were to emerge as a significant political force.

If completed, the proposed Franklin Dam would destroy even more of the pristine south-western Tasmanian wilderness. Tasmania already had 39 dams and 26 hydroelectricity stations in 1980. The area was being considered for listing as a World Heritage Area, and the decision to build a dam while that process was underway was seen as particularly provocative.

The Tasmanian government tried to negotiate compromises. A referendum to give people the choice of two dam locations or no dam at all suddenly changed to become a vote for one of two dams. Opponents were outraged and almost 45 per cent of the Tasmanian electorate cast informal votes (that is, they spoiled their ballots so they would not be counted) as a protest against the 'no dam' option being removed from the ballot paper. The state Labor government was defeated in the May 1982 election, and a new Liberal government tried to force the dam through.

A national campaign

Under the leadership of a young doctor, Bob Brown, the Tasmanian Wilderness Society's political organisation was supported by a publicity campaign that made the south-western Tasmanian wilderness a national issue. Men and women from all walks of life held public meetings, distributed pamphlets, wrote letters to the media, appeared on television, spoke to politicians and hosted trips up the Franklin.

By mid-1980, Wilderness Society membership had risen to almost 2000. People flocked in their thousands to Tasmania to join a huge blockade. Arrests became common as a wide range of people decided that the Franklin Dam was the issue on which they would make a stand. As Bob Brown says in the foreword to Alice Hungerford's book *UpRiver*, 'All up, some 6000 people registered to help, nearly 1500 protectors of the wilderness were arrested and 600 went in paddy wagons [police vans] across the island, overnight, to Risdon Prison'. For almost a year, this non-violent blockade continued, drawing international attention.



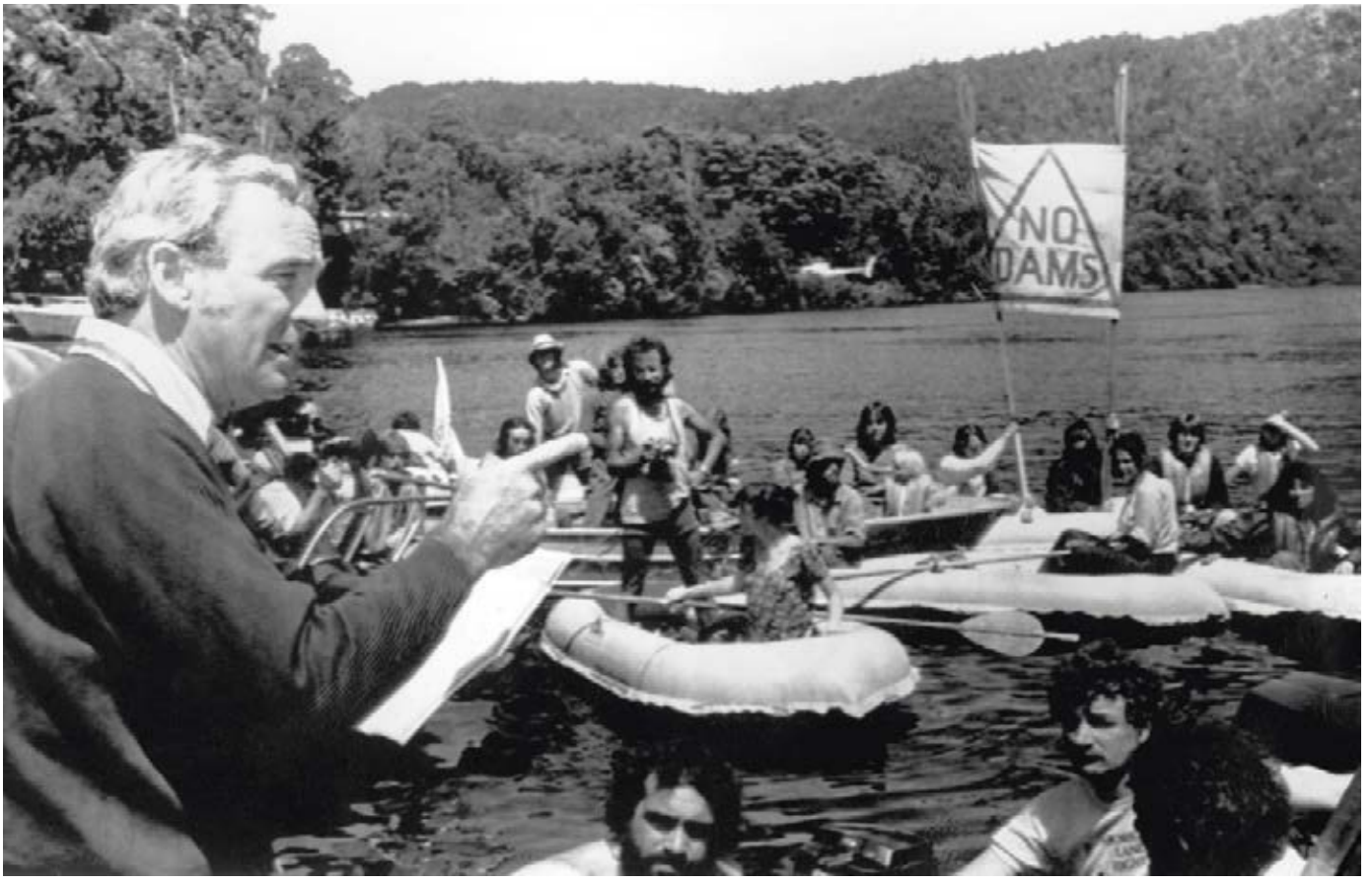
Source 2 Lake Pedder protests were the start of a continued campaign to save Australia's natural environment.

In January 1983, Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser tried to negotiate a compromise by offering the Tasmanian government $500 million in compensation. After Fraser called an election in February 1983, the Labor Opposition, led by Bob Hawke, promised to stop the dam. When Labor won the election, it meant the issue was headed for the courts. The decision of the Australian High Court (by a vote of 4 to 3) on 1 July 1983, that the Federal Government had the power to stop the dam, finally resolved the issue.

The Australian environmental movement took a huge step forward with the Franklin Dam campaign. The lessons of Lake Pedder had been learnt. The combination of political activism, non-violent direct action and effective publicity created a large amount of support. For the first time in Australian politics, the environment had been a major political issue.



Source 3 Bob Brown leading protests against the Franklin Dam in the early 1980s. He would later become the leader of the Australian Greens and a senator in the Federal Parliament.



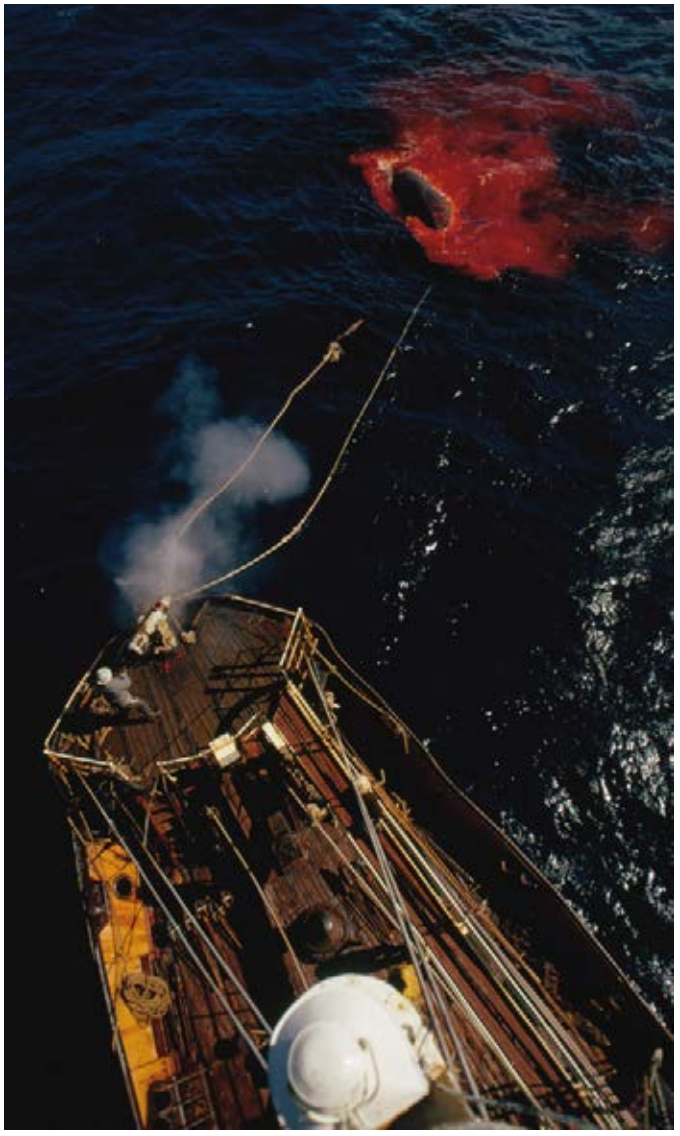
Source 4 Protestors blockade the Franklin River.

Save the Whale

Whaling was one of Australia's earliest export industries, with whale products earning more than land produce for the first 40 years of the colony. The demand for whale oil for lighting and heating dropped as petroleum became increasingly available in the early twentieth century.

A whaling station operated on Moreton Island in Queensland between 1952 and 1962. In that time, it processed more than 6000 humpback whales. Also, more than 1000 whales were processed in a whale factory at Byron Bay in New South Wales at the same time. In 1977, Australia still had one whaling station at Frenchman's Beach near Albany in Western Australia.

As technology improved, exploding harpoons and faster ships meant that the whaling industry hunted many whale species almost to extinction.



Source 5 Whalers using explosive harpoon heads

The movement against whaling in Australia

The movement against whaling grew in the 1970s as science and popular culture combined to create an awareness of the significance of some of the largest marine mammals. Musicians such as David Crosby and Graham Nash, bands such as Yes, and novels such as *Musco: Blue Whale* by Vincent Smith all helped raise awareness of the disappearance of whale species. Biologists documented the details of whales' family relationships, their communication systems, the cruelty of their slaughter, and their rapidly declining numbers.

Greenpeace started a major campaign in the 1970s to draw attention to the nature of the whaling industry. The formation of the activist group Project Jonah gave a specific focus to moves to ban whaling in Australia. Through direct action and publicity campaigns Project Jonah made whaling an important environmental issue in Australia. Protestors travelled to Albany, taking direct action by riding out to sea in rubber dinghies and placing themselves between whales and the whaling ships' explosive harpoons.

When Phoebe Fraser, daughter of Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser, wore a Save the Whales badge during the 1977 federal election campaign, the campaign to save whales took off. After Fraser won the election, he instigated an inquiry that recommended the end of whaling and a ban on all whale-related products. Australia moved from being a supporter of whaling to a major opponent in the deliberations of the International Whaling Commission.

The legacy of Fraser's decision is seen in the growth in tourism associated with whale-watching cruises, and the public excitement when previously endangered species come close to human habitats, such as Sydney's waterways. There has also been rising hostility towards nations that still participate in whaling, such as Japan.



Source 6 Protestors at Cheynes Beach, Albany, Western Australia

The Jabiluka mine protests, 1990s

Jabiluka is a uranium deposit *within* (but not part of) the World Heritage–listed Kakadu National Park in the Northern Territory. Because uranium is a key ingredient in the nuclear industry, any mining of it has significant economic implications for Australia. The mining of uranium at Jabiluka has been further compromised by the deposit being on land belonging to the Indigenous Mirarr people.

Uranium was discovered in the Northern Territory in the 1960s, and there was a move to mine it at the time of the 1983 federal election. The Hawke government had made it clear it would resist the granting of export licences for uranium, so work on the mine stopped.

There was renewed interest in the project in 1996 when John Howard was elected as prime minister. In 1998, the Mirarr people called for volunteers to join a blockade to prevent the mine's development. In a campaign that was similar to the Franklin Dam confrontation, more than 5000 people took part in an eight-month blockade. More than 500 people were arrested as part of the blockade. Indigenous concerns were largely ignored as work was started.

In 1998, falling uranium prices put an end to the further development of the mine. A further sale of the lease saw the project shelved. The Mirarr people have been given the right to reject any future project, and successfully campaigned for work to begin on restoring the site. Rehabilitation work began in 2003 and involved returning 50 000 tonnes of unprocessed uranium ore back into the mine.

Green parties in Australia and the world

Shortly after the United Tasmania Group contested the 1972 state election, similar parties formed in New Zealand, Switzerland and Britain. Western Europe has been the major centre of green politics. Germany's Green Party was part of a governing coalition between 1998 and 2005.



Source 7 The Jabiluka mine protest in the late 1990s

Today, green participation in various levels of government has become a regular part of political life. The Australian green movement formally organised into the Australian Green political party in 1992, with four core values standing with their broad environmental aims: ecological sustainability, social justice, grassroots democracy, and peace and non-violence.

Since 1992, the Greens have become politically successful, having members elected at state and federal level. In the 2010 election, they had their first member elected to the House of Representatives, when Adam Bandt won the seat of Melbourne. He retained it in the 2013 and 2016 elections.

The European Parliament became a key source of influence for green parties after it elected green representatives from Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands in 1984. They combined with other small groups to form a coalition to push for environmental and animal protection, and safeguards against nuclear power and urban heritage destruction.



Source 8 Adam Bandt was the first Greens candidate elected to the House of Representatives, in the 2010 Federal election.

Check your learning 8.12

Remember and understand

1 What were the environmental costs of damming Lake Pedder?
2 How did the damming of Lake Pedder in Tasmania contribute to green politics?
3 Who led the opposition against the Franklin Dam project?
4 Which government ultimately saved the Franklin River?
5 List the methods used to oppose the building of the Franklin Dam.
6 On whose land does the Jabiluka uranium deposit lie?
7 Who was the Australian prime minister who ended whaling in Australia?

Apply and analyse

8 The issue of whale conservation emerged again in the 1980s when Japan issued themselves licenses to hunt whales for 'scientific purposes', despite increasing opposition. Conduct research to find out about the direct action campaign against Japanese whaling by Sea Shepherd. Sea Shepherd activists have been involved in violent confrontations with sealers and whalers, using tactics such as hurling stink bombs at the whalers, and using ropes to tangle their propellers.
9 Have a class discussion about whether you think these tactics are successful because they focus media and public attention on the sustainability of marine life, or are more likely to lose mainstream environmental support because of the use of violence.

Evaluate and create

10 On 31 March 2014, the United Nation's International Court of Justice ruled that Japan should halt its annual whale hunt in the Antarctic. Conduct research then write a brief report on the part that Australia played in this court case and the reason for the ruling.
11 Write two diary entries that describe the activity shown in Source 4:
a one from the perspective of a protestor blockading the river to physically stop the building of the dam
b one from the perspective of a dam worker on a barge in the river, whose work is being stopped by protestors.

8.13 Australian government responses

Australian governments have rarely become involved in environmental matters until forced to. Jobs and development have usually been their stronger priorities, and most Australian governments have been followers rather than leaders on the environment.

The first environment ministry, 1971

In 1971, Liberal Prime Minister William McMahon created a Ministry for Environment, Arts and Aboriginal Affairs and appointed Peter Howson as its first minister. Howson had previously been defence minister, and was known to have been angry about his new appointment, complaining: '[McMahon] gave me trees'. Howson's attitude was an indication of the low opinion many politicians had of the environment.

Very little was achieved in Howson's ministry. However, the government's recognition of the need for an environment ministry reflected the changes that were taking place in Australian society. In Sydney, the Builder's Labourers Union started a direct action plan to preserve significant buildings, bush and landmarks. These actions – called 'green bans' – were a refusal to work on sites where development threatened important sites. This movement saved many significant Sydney buildings.

The Whitlam government, 1972–75

When the Whitlam government came to power in December 1972, Gough Whitlam kept the environment ministry. He appointed Moss Cass as Minister for the Environment and Conservation. By allowing his minister to focus completely on environmental issues in his portfolio, Whitlam gave much greater importance to environmental issues.



Source 1 Protestors in 1970s opposing the development of parkland in Hunter's Hill were part of the green bans movement

Although Cass was unable to prevent the flooding of Lake Pedder, he did end sand mining on Fraser Island off the Queensland coast, and helped protect and preserve the Great Barrier Reef. His actions ensured that two significant natural attractions are still available for the current generation of Australians to visit. Cass continued to work in environmental areas after his retirement from parliament in 1983.

The Fraser government, 1975–83

While Malcolm Fraser was prime minister, he had 10 environment ministers. The Fraser government built on some of the achievements of Moss Cass. They actually implemented the recommendation to end sand mining on Fraser Island, and prohibited oil exploration and drilling on the Great Barrier Reef. Fraser also banned whaling and trading in endangered species. However, the Fraser government did allow the development of limited uranium mining in the Northern Territory, and Fraser's conviction about states' rights meant that he refused to intervene meaningfully in the Franklin Dam issue.

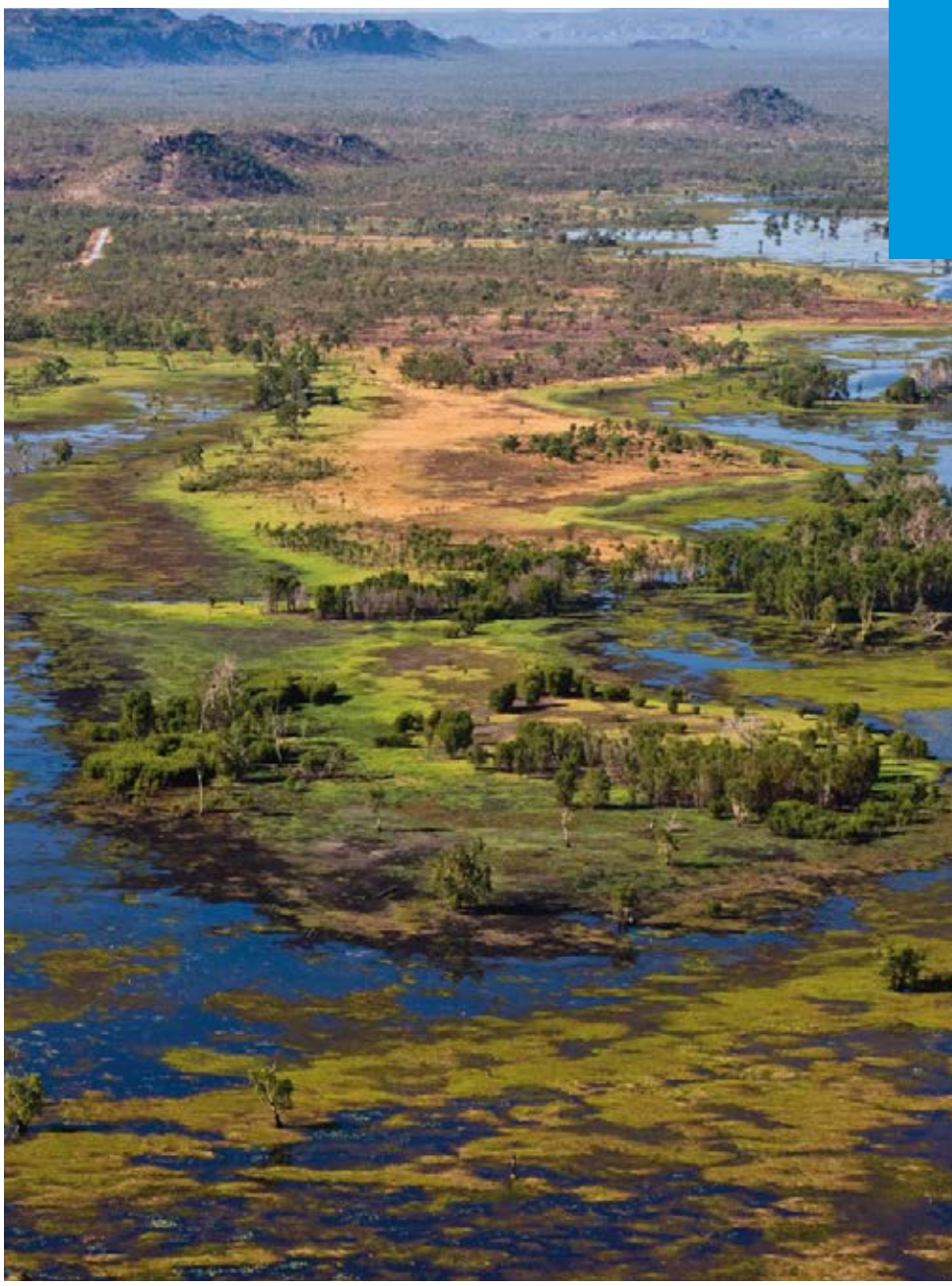
The Hawke and Keating governments, 1983–96

When Bob Hawke replaced Fraser in 1983, he arrived in government with a clear understanding of the importance of environmental issues. At least in part, he owed his election to his pre-election promise to stop the Franklin Dam in Tasmania. He used legislation and the courts to ensure the Franklin was saved. He introduced the *World Heritage Properties Conservation Act 1983* to give the Commonwealth government responsibility for World Heritage areas. This was important in battles with pro-development governments such as the Bjelke-Petersen government in Queensland. He also prioritised the selection of Kakadu National Park as a World Heritage site.

Hawke's successor, Paul Keating, confirmed legislation protecting the Antarctic's environment, and endangered species and ecological communities.

The Howard government, 1996–2007

Although the Howard government established a reputation for hard-line conservatism on environmental matters, it must be remembered that Howard did introduce an environmental act: the *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999*. This Act was introduced as part of the negotiations with the Australian Democrats to win support for the introduction of the goods and services tax.



Source 2 The selection of Kakadu National Park was prioritised by the Hawke government.

The *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* was the centrepiece of Howard's environmental legislation. The Act outlined the following aims:

- provide for the protection of the environment, especially matters of national environmental significance
- conserve Australia's biodiversity
- protect biodiversity internationally by controlling the international movement of wildlife
- provide a streamlined environmental assessment and approvals process where matters of national environmental significance are involved
- protect our world and national heritage
- promote ecologically sustainable development.

With the goal of achieving these aims, the Act ensured that the Howard government was keeping step with the major demands of the environmental movement. The biggest block to environmental progress under Howard was the refusal to compromise on Australia's economic development. For Howard, this was always the priority, and meant that environmental matters could only be considered if they didn't compromise economic development and advancement.

The Rudd and Gillard governments, 2007–13

While still Opposition leader in 2007, Kevin Rudd commissioned a study by Dr Ross Garnaut, a prominent economist, on the impact of climate change on the Australian economy. It was recognition that environmental decisions were becoming more pressing. The link between climate change and the economy was controversial, and the Garnaut report was an attempt to actually examine the evidence.

By the time the final report was delivered in 2008, Rudd was prime minister. The key findings of Garnaut's report were that Australia should commit to reducing greenhouse gases and implement an **emissions trading scheme**. This would require major polluters to pay for the emissions they were producing. Garnaut also found that Australia could cope economically with the costs of dealing with climate change. Perhaps more crucially, he recognised that the cost of doing nothing would be higher than any action.

In 2010, Garnaut was asked for an update on the 2008 report. The update, which was delivered to the Gillard government in 2011, examined the evidence for climate change. According to Garnaut, 'new data and analysis generally are confirming the likelihood that outcomes will be near the midpoints or closer to the bad end of what had earlier been identified as the range of possibilities for human-induced climate change'.

The Gillard government introduced an emissions trading scheme in 2011 that placed a price on carbon emissions. This basically required a price to be placed on all carbon that was emitted by industry, and that industry would be responsible for paying for their emissions. Businesses could offset the costs by purchasing credits against future emissions.

The Abbott and Turnbull governments, 2013–

The Leader of the Opposition in 2011, Tony Abbott, opposed the emissions trading scheme, and it became a divisive political issue. Abbott's view has been that Australia should not act on its own because it risks losing jobs to countries that do *not* place a price on carbon. Removal of the emissions trading scheme became Abbott's first priority after winning the 2013 federal election. It was finally abolished in July 2014.

Other issues involving climate change and the development and exploitation of resources ensured that the environment would continue to be a matter of political debate. The 2009 Outlook Report into the future of the Great Barrier Reef concluded that the long-term outlook for the reef was poor because of the impacts of climate change.

After the Abbott government's election in 2013, permission was given for the expansion of the Abbot Point coal terminal, which is located near the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park. The expansion requires the dredging of 1.1 million cubic metres of spoil from the sea floor. This expansion was approved following a report by the World Heritage Committee in 2015, which decided not to include the Great Barrier Reef on the World Heritage 'in danger' list.

The election of the Abbott government appeared to tilt the balance in favour of development over environmental protection. Many of the government's first actions in office involved winding back legislation such as the emissions trading scheme and mining tax, and removing advisory or research bodies investigating the impact of climate change. When the Minister for the Environment, Greg Hunt, proposed removing World Heritage listing from 74 000 hectares of Tasmanian wilderness area that had been listed in 2012, it appeared that environmental protection would once again become a major issue in Australian politics.

In his first months as prime minister, Malcolm Turnbull signalled a new approach to climate policy. He announced the government would retain two clean energy funds that Abbott had planned to abolish, but made no substantial changes to government policy.



Source 3 The conservation of the Great Barrier Reef continues to be the subject of political debate.

Check your learning 8.13

Remember and understand

1 Who was Australia's first Minister for the Environment?
2 What were the Hawke government's main environmental achievements?
3 Why did the Howard government introduce the Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act?
4 What were the main findings of the Garnaut Report?
5 What were some of the initial environmental actions of the Abbott government?

Apply and analyse

6 As a class, debate the competing priorities of economic development and environmental protection.

Evaluate and create

7 In this section, you have examined the development (and rejection) of policies to deal with threats to the environment in Australia and globally. You have been given the opportunity to investigate this important issue that concerns your future. Using the historical knowledge you have gained, prepare a recommendation for politicians, giving your assessment about the important environmental issues facing Australia and the world.
   a Review the material in this chapter and create two lists: one that lists the most significant environmental issues facing Australia in the immediate future, and another that lists global issues. You should expect to have issues that appear on both lists.
   b Conduct further research on those issues, and list them in priority order from the most urgent to least urgent.
   c Discuss your initial lists in groups. How different is your perception from the ideas of others? Adjust your priorities if necessary after the discussion.
   d Drawing on your research and discussion, create a recommendation for the federal environment minister. In the recommendation, explain what the government's environmental priorities should be, and provide the evidence to show why your recommendations should be implemented.
   e As a class, discuss your ideas and how you view the future. See if you can come to an agreement about the single greatest environmental priority facing Australia and the world. Discuss solutions and ways in which your findings could be made available to a wider audience.

8.14 International responses

Environmental concern has become an international phenomenon. Established political parties have been reluctant to address environmental concerns. They have valued traditional links between industrialisation, economic wealth and political power. As a consequence, new groups have emerged, particularly the green political parties mentioned earlier, to challenge existing values. Two examples when governments have taken action in response to environmental threats are the United States' Superfund and New Zealand's nuclear ban.

The United States' Comprehensive Environmental Response Compensation Liability Act

The Comprehensive Environmental Response Compensation Liability Act (CERCLA) was passed in 1980 in response to widespread dumping and mismanagement of hazardous waste by industrial companies in the 1970s. Two significant environmental threats from the dumping of toxic waste that spurred the US government to pass this legislation happened in the Valley of the Drums in Kentucky, and in Love Canal, New York. Love Canal was a community in Niagara Falls that was built near a dumping ground for toxic wastes (see Source 1). Toxic chemicals leached into the soil, and surfaced in backyards and the school playground. The entire community was evacuated after health authorities found an increase in miscarriages and birth defects.

CERCLA authorises the Environmental Protection Authority (EPA) to identify sites where the environment or public health are threatened. They are able to take action to remove hazardous materials and clean up contaminated sites if the companies responsible cannot be identified or do not comply with requests to clean up these waste sites.



Source 1 Tanks of toxic waste near houses in Love Canal, New York, USA

New Zealand's anti-nuclear policy, 1984

New Zealand's former prime minister David Lange made international news in 1984, when he barred nuclear-powered or armed ships from entering New Zealand's waters. He effectively created a nuclear-free zone around New Zealand that became enshrined in legislation in 1987. It allowed New Zealand to emerge as a strong, forward-thinking and independent nation.

The roots of Lange's decision were in New Zealand's vulnerability as a Pacific island while Britain, France and the United States tested nuclear devices in the region. The ongoing French testing on Mururoa Atoll, in French Polynesia, caused widespread resentment in New Zealand. France was never able to explain why nuclear testing was not carried out closer to mainland Europe if the testing was as safe as was claimed.

New Zealand's anti-nuclear policy made it the champion of the French South Pacific territories in the South Pacific. The sinking of the Greenpeace ship *Rainbow Warrior* by French secret agents also hardened New Zealand attitudes towards the French. The French agents were responsible for two explosions in July 1985 that sank the ship while it was berthed in Auckland Harbour, killing a Greenpeace cameraman. France's decision to continue testing until 1996 created a strong anti-French movement in many French Pacific territories.



Source 2 Prime Minister David Lange was instrumental in creating a nuclear-free New Zealand.

Global initiatives

Another aspect of international environmental action has been through the United Nations and its associated organisations.

World Heritage listings

The role of UNESCO in preserving significant natural areas through World Heritage listing is well known. World Heritage listings have raised the status of many national parks and other special natural areas to international importance, worthy of preservation for future generations.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

In 1992, countries joined an international treaty, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. This was to cooperatively consider what they could do to limit average global temperature increases and resulting climate change. It was also to consider the potential impacts of climate change, which were emerging as a major political topic.

By 1995, countries realised that emission reduction provisions in the Convention were not sufficient to make any meaningful change. They launched negotiations to strengthen the global response to climate change, and two years later adopted the Kyoto Protocol.

Kyoto Protocol

The signing of the Kyoto Protocol became a major political issue in Australia during the first decade of the twenty-first century. The Protocol was developed at the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in 1997 in Kyoto, Japan. It was an international meeting to develop an environmental treaty that would attempt to limit the production of greenhouse gases. It was argued that these greenhouse gases were damaging the ozone layer that surrounded the Earth and contributing to global warming.

Australia refused to sign the protocol, along with the United States. It became a consistent element of the Liberal government's response to environmental issues. It became one of the first actions of the Rudd Labor government after it won power in November 2007. The United States remained the only major country to refuse to sign the protocol.

The main aim of the protocol was to have nations who were members of the UN commit themselves to reducing greenhouse gas emissions from their 1990 levels by 5.2 per cent. It was not radical, but allowed climate change deniers the opportunity to resist potential change. It made the conflict between unrestricted development and environmental protection more obvious.

While Kyoto allowed a number of flexible approaches, the Liberal government consistently argued that they would not compromise economic growth for the sake of cutting greenhouse gas emissions. This stance contributed to the Liberal Party's loss at the 2007 election, as well as Howard's loss of his own seat in parliament.

Following the Kyoto Protocol, delegates from the G8 countries (the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy and Japan) as well as delegates from Brazil, China, India, Mexico and South Africa met in Washington in 2007. This climate-change summit resulted in a non-binding agreement that developing countries would also have to meet greenhouse-gas-emission targets.

Copenhagen

The major follow-up to Kyoto was the 2009 United Nations Climate Change Conference held at Copenhagen in Denmark. The major aim of the conference (commonly known as the Copenhagen Summit) was to develop a plan for action on climate change that would operate beyond 2012. Ultimately, the Copenhagen Summit reflected all the challenges involved in dealing with environmental issues at a global level. However, countries find it very difficult to move beyond their own narrow interests. Disputes about the validity of scientific evidence give governments an excuse to do very little.

After reports that the conference was not accomplishing its goals, a Copenhagen Accord was drafted by the United States, China, India, Brazil and South Africa. The Accord was never officially adopted, but was merely taken note of. It simply recognised that climate change was one of the greatest challenges of the present day and that actions should be taken to keep any temperature increases to less than 2°C. The document was not legally binding and failed to contain any formal commitments for reducing carbon dioxide emissions.

Source 3 The Kyoto Protocol is an international agreement to limit the emission of greenhouse gases.



As a useful plan for the world, the Accord provided very little positive action. As climate change and global warming continue to be a threat to our world, very little has been achieved at a global level to guarantee that the Earth will be a functioning planet for future generations. The United Nations has continued to host climate change conferences, which have been held annually since 2011. There still remains no fundamental global agreement on how to tackle the world's most pressing environmental issues.



Source 4 Climate-change activists protest on the final day of the UN climate summit in Copenhagen, Denmark.

Check your learning 8.14

Remember and understand

1 Who was the New Zealand prime minister who introduced the anti-nuclear policy?
2 When was the Kyoto climate change conference held?
3 When did Australia sign the Kyoto Protocol?
4 What did the 2009 Copenhagen Summit recognise?

Apply and analyse

5 In your opinion, was the 2009 Copenhagen conference a success in reaching an agreement to limit climate change?
6 Find out about the follow-up meeting to the 2009 Copenhagen conference that took place in Cancun, Mexico, in 2010. What did it achieve and do you think it was more successful?
7 Do some research on carbon emissions trading as a way to tackle climate change. As a class, discuss the arguments for and against the introduction of an emissions trading scheme.

Evaluate and create

8 Explain how Australian governments from the 1960s to the present day have acted on environmental matters, and assess the effectiveness of their policies and actions.
9 Use this chapter and conduct your own research to compile a fact file on a range of Australian Ministers for the Environment. Overall, how effective do you think their contributions have been? Support your position with examples from your research.
10 Create a folio of evidence that shows a range of projects that have taken place in your local area over the past 50 years and how these have positively or negatively affected the environment. Based on your research, what do you think your area will look like in another 50 years? Why? Present your findings to the class as a PowerPoint or poster.

8C rich task

Environmental threats to the Great Barrier Reef

In July 2015, the United Nation's World Heritage Committee decided it would not declare the Great Barrier Reef as 'in danger'. However, it will closely monitor how the Australian government addresses threats to the reef over the next four years.



Source 1

According to Adam Markham, the deputy director of climate and energy at the Union of Concerned Scientists, the Great Barrier Reef's most serious threat is climate change. Aspects of climate change that affect the Reef are rising sea temperatures, accelerating rates of sea level rise, changing weather patterns and ocean acidification. Other significant threats to the reef are 'coastal development, agricultural run-off pollution, port-based shipping activities, illegal fishing and outbreaks of coral-eating crown-of-thorns starfish'. In a draft report for the United Nation's climate change report, Markham assessed the Great Barrier Reef as being 'poor and deteriorating' with half of its coral cover lost over the last three decades.

Source: Adam Markham, 'Australia's iconic Great Barrier Reef World Heritage site at risk from global warming', 26 May 2016

Source 2

The federal environment minister, Greg Hunt, has given the green light to expanding the Abbot Point coal terminal in northern Queensland, on the condition that the dredge spoils are properly disposed of.

About 1.1m cubic metres of dredge spoil from the project would be dumped in nearby industrial land, rather than in the Great Barrier Reef marine park as originally proposed.

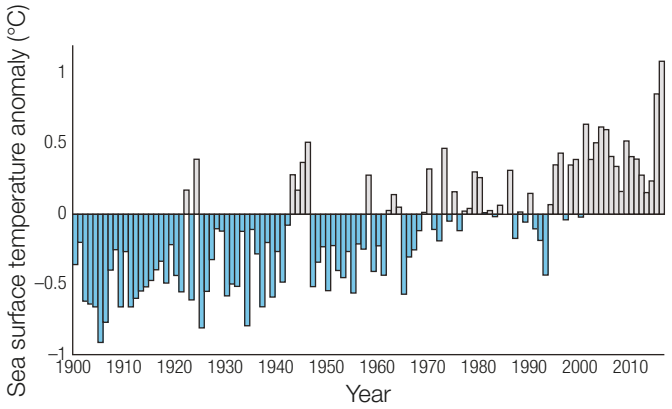
'All dredge material will be placed onshore on existing industrial land. No dredge material will be placed in the World Heritage Area or the Caley Valley Wetlands,' a spokeswoman for Hunt said. 'The port area is at least 20kms from any coral reef and no coral reef will be impacted.'

The Greens said the project was dangerous to the environment and a waste of money.

Conservationists have also condemned the decision to let the project go ahead.

'Thousands of tonnes of seafloor will be torn up and dumped next to the internationally significant Caley Valley wetlands. Sea grasses which feed dugongs and turtles will be torn up for the coal industry,' Imogen Zethoven from the Australian Maritime Conservation Society, said. 'Hundreds more coal ships will plough through the reef every year.'

Source: Shalailah Medhora, 'Abbot Point coal terminal expansion given approval by Greg Hunt', *The Guardian*, 22 December 2015



Based on a 30-year climatology (1961–1990)
March sea surface temperatures were the highest on record this year in the Coral Sea, beating the previous 2015 record.
Source: Bureau of Meteorology.

Source 3 Sea-surface temperatures of the Coral Sea over time

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identify and locate relevant sources using ICT and other methods

Being able to locate relevant primary and secondary sources using the internet is an important historical skill. However, you need to keep in mind that not all information you find on the internet is necessarily true, accurate, reliable or credible. So, in addition to being able to find source material online, you need to be able to evaluate the reliability and credibility of the information you find. Use the following steps to apply this skill:

Step 1 Identify key words related to your topic and type these into a search engine such as Google. (Use only key words – do not type in whole sentences or questions.)

Step 2 Add further relevant key words to refine your search if you cannot find what you want on your first attempts.

Step 3 Look beyond the first page of results. The best results do not always appear first.

Step 4 Assess the reliability of each site by asking yourself the following questions:

- Who is the author or creator? If it is an individual, does this person have credentials listed (for example, a degree or title)? If it is an organisation, is it a reputable organisation, such as a government or university department?
- What is the purpose of the website? Is it trying to inform, persuade or sell?
- Is the site objective? Is the author's point of view biased?
- Is the information accurate? Can the information be verified if you check it with other sources of information?
- Does the site contain spelling mistakes or grammatical errors? (If so, this is usually an indication that the site is not particularly reliable.)
- Is the information current? Can you find evidence of recent updates?

Apply the skill

1 Using the steps outlined above, conduct an internet search to find relevant, credible and reliable source material about:
   - **a** the impact of climate change on the Great Barrier Reef
   - **b** the impact of agricultural, industrial and shipping activities on the Great Barrier Reef.

2 Copy the data chart in Source 3 into your notebook. Read the source material you have located and record the key points in the appropriate column. Make sure you also record the URLs of the sites you have used.

Extend your understanding

1 Conduct research to write a report on the Australian government's responses to environmental threats to the Great Barrier Reef as well as government decisions that may negatively impact its future.

Impact of climate change on the Great Barrier Reef			
	URL	**Paragraph summary of key points**	**Is the information in the source relevant, credible, reliable? Why/ why not?**
Source 1			
Source 2			
Source 3			

Impact of agricultural, industrial and shipping activities on the Great Barrier Reef			
	URL	**Paragraph summary of key points**	**Is the information in the source relevant, credible, reliable? Why/ why not?**
Source 1			
Source 2			
Source 3			

Unit 3 The globalising world (1945–the present)

Migration experiences

Australia is a nation built on migration. Since the end of World War II, more than seven million new migrants have settled here. Some have come seeking better opportunities. Others have come to escape conflicts, disasters or persecution elsewhere. Major world events, such as the Vietnam War, have influenced the range and number of people arriving in Australia. As a result, government policies have evolved under successive leaders to manage the numbers and types of people wishing to settle here. With time, policies that discriminated on the basis of race have been replaced by a system based on skills and eligibility. With one in four Australians born overseas, migration has made Australia the culturally and ethnically diverse nation it is today.



9A

How have world events influenced migration to Australia since World War II?

1 Brainstorm three important world events that have taken place since 1945 and discuss how these events might have affected migration to Australia. Do you know anyone who came to Australia as a result of these events?

9B

How have government policies influenced migration to Australia since World War II?

1 At the end of World War II, most Australians supported immigration policies that restricted people's entry based on their race. Today, people from all over the world are accepted. What factors do you think led to this change?



chapter 9

Source 1 Refugees fleeing the war in Vietnam for the safety of Australia during the 1970s often had to escape on cargo boats. Many were forced to wait at sea before disembarking and being sent to refugee camps.

9C

How did the Vietnam War affect migration to Australia?

1 What affect do you think the Vietnam War had on the types of people coming to Australia?

2 Why do you think so many Vietnamese people risked their lives by travelling on boats to Australia during the Vietnam War?

9D

How has migration shaped Australia's identity and global relationships?

1 Australia is now a culturally diverse society made up of people from many different cultural, religious and ethnic groups. List some of these groups and think about the contributions they have made to Australian culture in terms of food, art, sport, entertainment and so on

9.1 Migration experiences: a timeline

Arthur Calwell was appointed Australia's first Minister for Immigration in 1945.



1939–1945
World War II; migration to Australia effectively stops.

1945
Chifley Government begins post-war 'populate or perish' program to boost migration; Australia's first federal Minister for Immigration is appointed.

1947
'Ten Pound Pom' scheme begins; Big Brother Movement and child migration increased.

1955–1975
The Vietnam War lasts for 20 years.

1958
Revised *Migration Act* passed, introducing a simpler system of entry permits and as a result the dictation test is abolished – this had been a barrier for many non-Europeans attempting to migrate to Australia.

1975
Racial Discrimination Act passed.

1900 | 1940 | 1950 | 1970

1901
Australia federates; Commonwealth Parliament passes the *Immigration Restriction Act* limiting immigration to Australia based on race; this policy together with others forms the basis of the White Australia policy (which included a dictation test to prevent non-whites from gaining entry to Australia).

1946
International Refugee Organization founded; Australia seeks displaced persons from post-war Europe.

1949
Construction begins on Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme employing thousands of migrant workers.

1950
Colombo Plan to assist regional development in Asia begins.

1955
Australia joins SEATO (Southeast Asia Treaty Organization), an organisation that aimed to contain the spread of communism.

1973
Whitlam Government formally abolishes White Australia policy.

1976–1982
First wave of 2000 Vietnamese refugees arrives in Australia by boat.



This badge from 1910 was produced by the Australian Natives' Association, a group made up of Australian-born whites – the prime minister at the time, Alfred Deakin, was a member.



Vietnamese refugees aboard the fishing vessel *Song Saigon* arriving in Darwin in 1979

Source 1 A timeline of some key events and developments regarding migration in Australia

Crowds at North Cronulla on the day of the Cronulla riots



In 2013, Tony Abbott was elected Prime Minister of Australia after a campaign that focused heavily on stopping the flow of asylum seeker boats to Australia.



1977
Multiculturalism becomes the official Australian government policy.

1989
Second wave of boat arrivals, from Cambodia, Vietnam and Southern China.

1992
Keating Government introduces mandatory detention of asylum seekers.

1997
One Nation Party launched on anti-immigration platform.

1999
Third wave of boat arrivals, predominantly from the Middle East.

2001
Yearly asylum seeker boat arrivals exceed 5000 people; the Howard Government's handling of Tampa and 'children overboard' affairs spark local and international condemnation.

2001–2007
Howard Government implements Pacific Solution (offshore processing of asylum seekers in Nauru and Manus Island, Papua New Guinea).

2005
Cronulla riots in Sydney cause racially-motivated violence.

2009–2013
Huge spike in asylum seeker boat arrivals to Australia during this period; more than 17000 arrivals in 2012 alone.

2013
Rudd Government implements the PNG Solution, resettling all new boat arrivals in Papua New Guinea; Tony Abbott elected to government after a campaign focused on 'stopping the boats'.

1990 2000 2010

Check your learning 9.1

Remember and understand

1 How did Australia's migration policies change in the five years following World War II?
2 When did the White Australia policy begin and when was it formally abolished?
3 Identify some of the military conflicts Australian troops have fought in during the 20th century. How did these conflicts affect migration to Australia?

Apply and analyse

4 A number of events are highlighted in the timeline relating to asylum seekers arriving in Australia by boat. Using the timeline, identify how patterns of boat arrivals have changed since the 1970s. How do you think these patterns have affected government policy?
5 Use the timeline to determine the number of years the White Australia policy was enforced in Australia.

9.2 Australia: an immigration nation

Modern Australia has been created and shaped by national and international population movements. From the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788 – loaded with almost 1500 convicts, sailors and soldiers – Australia has been populated by waves of immigrants. First, penal colonies at Sydney, Port Arthur and Fremantle were established. Then large numbers of migrants from Great Britain and Ireland came to establish towns and farms. By the 1860s more than 75 per cent of the population was of Anglo–Celtic origin. This figure remains at about 70 per cent to this day. From the middle of the 19th century, immigrants arrived from across Asia and the Pacific, and new settlers continued to flow from Europe.

During the 1900s, immigrants from Britain continued to dominate. An immigration policy that discriminated against all non-white migrants – known as the **White Australia policy** – was enacted in the first days of the new nation in 1901 and remained in place until the 1970s.

The end of World War II in 1945 saw waves of migrants come to Australia from southern European countries such as Italy and Greece. As immigration policies evolved, these waves were followed by others from the Middle East, Asia and South America.

Because of our history, the Australian population is much more racially and ethnically diverse than other long-established countries in Europe and Asia such as France and Japan. Just like the United States, Canada, New Zealand and Argentina, modern Australia is a nation of immigrants.

Today, Australia is considered by many to be a **multicultural** country. In fact, Australia has one of the highest rates of immigration in the developed world (see Sources 2 and 3). This description acknowledges that the people of Australia come from a wide range of ethnic and cultural backgrounds. In *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, released in 2011, the Australian government states that 'multiculturalism is in Australia's national interest and speaks to fairness and inclusion. It enhances respect and support for cultural, religious and linguistic diversity'. Although this view is shared by the majority of Australians today, it was not always the case. Since the end of World War II in 1945, Australia's immigration policies have changed in response to major world events. In particular, we will consider the impact that World War II and the Vietnam War had on Australian migration and modern culture. Finally, we will look at how migration has helped shape Australia's global relationships and the contributions migrants of all backgrounds have made to our country and modern cultural identity.

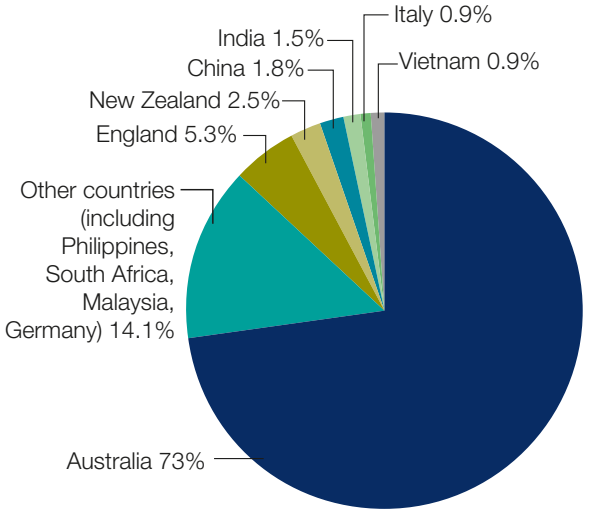


Source 1 Today, Australians speak more than 260 languages and identify with more than 270 ancestry groups.

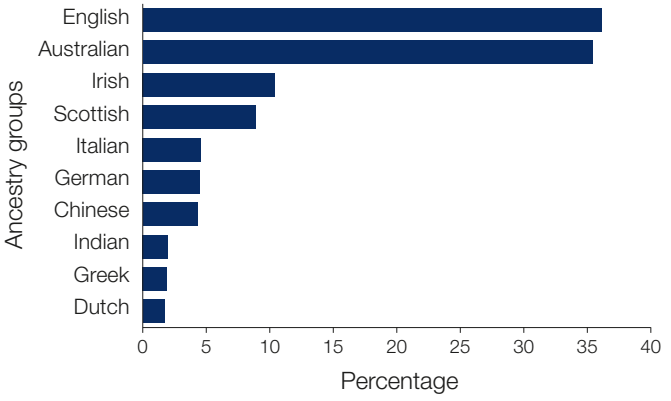
Early migration

The earliest people arrived on the Australian continent around 40 000 years ago. By the time the First Fleet arrived in 1788, Australia's population had reached between 350 000 and 1 million.

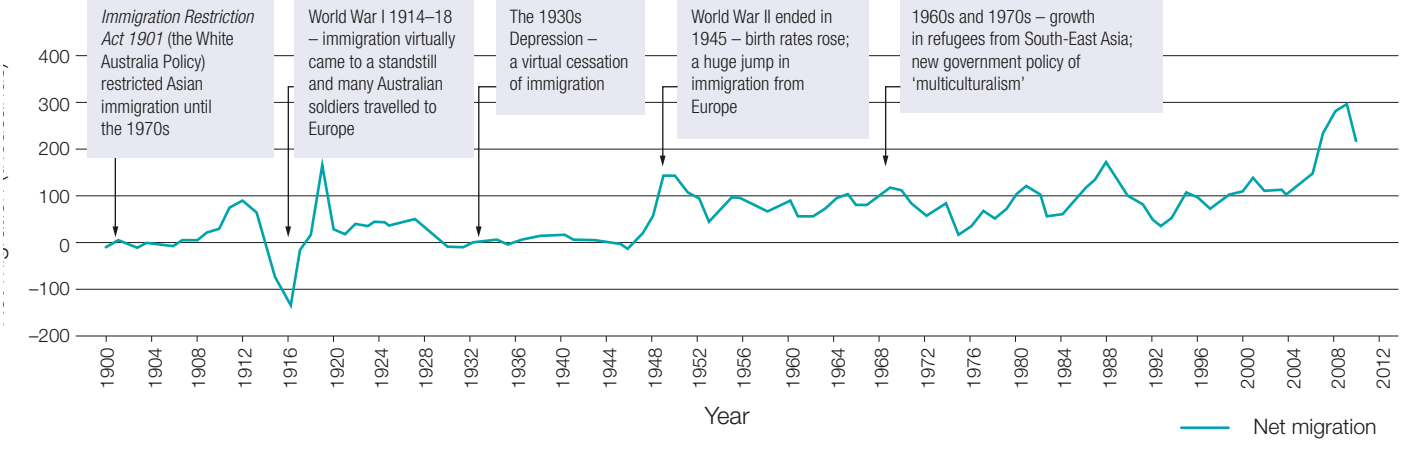
After the British established the first Australian colonies, migration was dominated by arrivals from Britain – both **convicts** and **free settlers**. Migration increased with growth of the wool industry in the 1820s and again during the gold rushes of the 1850s, which saw a major influx of new arrivals. Many people chose to migrate to Australia in search of a better life and greater opportunities. Other events also encouraged people to settle in Australia, such as social changes in Britain brought about by the **Industrial Revolution**, or the disaster of the Irish famine of the 1840s.



Source 2 Australian citizens by country of birth, 2011: Australia's population today is culturally and linguistically diverse – more than one in four Australian residents were born overseas, with people born in the United Kingdom making up the largest group of overseas-born residents, followed by New Zealand, China, India, Italy and Vietnam



Source 4 Graph showing ancestry groups that Australians most commonly identify with, 2011



Source 3 Net migration (total arrivals less total departures) to Australia during the period 1900–2010

key**concept:** Perspectives

Defining different types of migration

When discussing migration, there are a number of key perspectives that need to be considered. These perspectives are influenced by how different people view different events. In order to appreciate these perspectives it is first necessary to define some key terms:

- **Migrant:** a person who moves from one country or region to another to settle there; includes both **emigrants** (people leaving a country) and **immigrants** (people entering a country)
- **Economic migrant:** a person who migrates for reasons such as seeking employment or an improved financial position
- **Assisted migrant:** a person who migrates under a targeted government assistance program
- **Skilled migrant:** a migrant granted preferential treatment for their skill or profession
- **Illegal migrant:** a person who enters or remains in a country without a legal right to do so; does not include asylum seekers and refugees
- **Displaced person:** a person forced to leave their home region or country due to war, persecution or natural disaster
- **Refugee:** a person who has fled their home country to another country due to a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons recognised by law
- **Asylum seeker:** a person who has applied for recognition (or sought protection) as a refugee
- **Boat people:** a common term used to describe people who travel by sea to seek asylum, rather than by land, air or via local processing centres.

For more information on the key concept of perspectives, refer to page 6 of 'The history toolkit'.

Although the majority of early migrants came from Britain, migrants did arrive from other parts of the world, including Asia. For example, during the gold rush immigrants from China were the largest non-British group. Labourers were also recruited from Melanesia to work on plantations in Queensland in the 1860s. In the later part of the 19th century, divers from Japan assisted in establishing Australia's pearling industry. Another important contribution was made by Afghani, Pakistani and Turkish camel handlers in the construction of telegraph and railway lines in central Australia in the early 1900s (see Source 5).

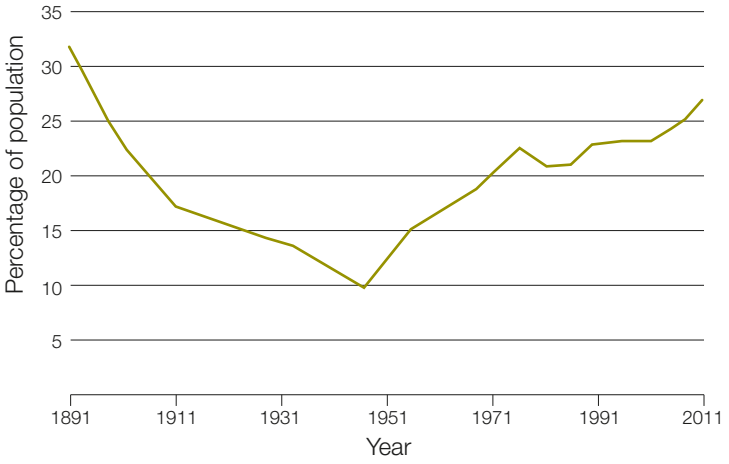


Source 5 Afghan cameleers transporting timber during the construction of the Trans-Australian railway from Port Augusta in South Australia to Kalgoorlie in Western Australia in 1912

Pre-World War II migration

The number of Australians born overseas declined dramatically at the end of the 1800s. This trend continued until the end of World War II in 1945 (see Source 6). After this, immigration rates increased dramatically.

Many factors had contributed to this decline. For example, at the end of the 19th century Australia experienced a major economic depression. Hostility towards Chinese labourers grew because people believed that cheaper labour would decrease jobs and wages for British Australians. This resulted in colonial governments introducing legislation to restrict entry and impose high taxes on any Chinese people arriving in the colonies. More restrictive legislation was introduced upon Australia's Federation in 1901 with the *Immigration Restriction Act*. This Act formed the basis of a number of policies referred to as the White Australia policy. These will be discussed in detail later in the chapter.



Source 6 Graph showing the percentage of Australians born overseas 1891–2011. Migration to Australia increased sharply after the end of World War II and continues to do so today (Source: ABS)



Source 7 The Great Depression of the 1930s saw an end to assisted migration programs in Australia and a downturn in migration that would continue until 1945.

When World War I broke out in 1914, migration to Australia came to a standstill. After the war, the government offered assisted migration programs so British ex-servicemen could immigrate to Australia in large numbers. In the 1920s and 1930s there was an increase in migrants from Italy and Greece seeking to establish lives in Australia, as well as a rise in Jewish people seeking to escape persecution in Europe. However, the **Great Depression** in the 1930s saw an end to government assistance programs (see Source 7) and when World War II broke out in 1939, migration effectively came to a standstill again as travel became difficult, if not impossible.

Post-war migration

The end of World War II marked a turning point in migration in Australia. In the aftermath of World War II, Australians reflected on their role in the new world order. The Australian government reassessed its policies on immigration and began to introduce major policy changes that still influence Australian society and culture to this day. The government opened Australia up to a much broader program of immigration – introducing massive increases in assistance packages, establishing Australia's first immigration department, signing international agreements to begin a regular humanitarian intake program, and accepting displaced persons and refugees from other countries and regions. These changes will be discussed in detail later in the chapter.

Over time and through successive governments, these changes were gradually introduced. Often, they came in response to major world events and as a result of changing needs and attitudes in Australia. As a result of these changes, since the end of the war in 1945 more than 7 million new permanent migrants have settled in Australia, from regions all around the world. Australia's population has since increased from about 7 million people in 1945, to around 24 million people today.

Check your learning 9.2

Remember and understand

1 According to latest Australian Census statistics, what are the largest groups of overseas immigrants in Australia?

2 What were the main factors driving early migration to Australia? How is this different to today?

Apply and analyse

3 Using Source 6, comment on how the rate of Australia's overseas-born population has changed since 1891, 1945 and 2011.

Evaluate and create

4 Terms relating to migration are sometimes confused or misused in everyday conversation and in the media. In groups, use the timeline in Source 1 on pages 272–3 and the terms listed in the key concepts box to evaluate how world events and government policies have influenced the types of migrants arriving in Australia.

9.3 The influence of world events

World events have had a lasting effect on the types and numbers of people arriving in Australia. World War II had a profound effect on people in Europe and Asia, resulting in large numbers of displaced persons fleeing from conflict, persecution and poverty in the post-war period. This in turn affected migration to Australia in the post-war years, as it combined with a shift in Australia's immigration policies and plans to create a larger Australia.

War and conflict, natural disasters, changing economic and political conditions and other **push factors** have historically driven people to seek a better or safer life elsewhere. Australia's migration programs, including assisted migration and refugee programs, have adapted in response to these events and, together with other **pull factors**, have helped to draw migration to Australia.

Since the end of World War II, there have been many significant world events that have influenced the types of new migrants coming to Australia and the places from which they have come. Some of these major events include the **Cold War** (including the Korean War, the Vietnam War and the fear of communism spreading across parts of Asia in the mid-20th century), conflict and famine in parts of Africa in the 1980s, and the Yugoslav conflicts in the 1990s. All of these events saw a large influx of new migrants from these regions. In more recent years, major events influencing migration have included the US-led 'War on Terror' in Iraq, Afghanistan and Pakistan, the global financial crisis in 2008 (which has created a new wave of economic migrants) and civil uprisings in the Middle East from 2010 (collectively called the 'Arab Spring'). Again, these events have all resulted in different groups of people seeking to migrate to Australia for a variety of reasons.

The key concept box on page 280 sets out some of the main push and pull factors that can affect people's decisions to migrate. Source 4 highlights some of the key world events and changes in Australian government policy affecting migration since 1945.



Source 1 Following the Chinese government's suppression of pro-democracy demonstrators in Tiananmen Square, 1989, the Australian government granted permanent residency to 2000 Chinese students studying in Australia at the time.



Source 2 Refugees fleeing conflict in Afghanistan seek asylum in Australia *c.* 2001



Source 3 100 000 people protest in Ireland during the Irish recession of 2009–13, following the global financial crisis – the recession has resulted in an unprecedented influx of Irish economic migrants to Australia, with 40 000 arriving in 2011 alone.

Source 4 Table of significant world events and Australian government policies influencing migration since World War II

Significant world events	Key immigration legislation	Key government policies and programs	Prime ministers
1945 World War II ends **1947** Cold War begins (fear of communist threat in the West) **1949** People's Republic of China founded **1950–53** Korean War **1950–60** Malayan Emergency **1955–75** Vietnam War **1956** Unrest in Eastern Europe – Hungary **1968** Unrest in Eastern Europe – Czechoslovakia **1973** Unrest in South America – Chile **1979** Unrest in South America – El Salvador **1975** Indonesian take-over of East Timor **1975–90** Civil war in Lebanon **1980** Robert Mugabe Prime Minister of Zimbabwe **1983–2009** Sri Lankan Civil War **1989** Tiananmen Square protests, China **1990–91** Gulf War **1991–99** Yugoslav conflicts **2001–** 'War on Terror' **2003–11** Iraq War **2008** Global financial crisis **2010–2012** 'Arab Spring' **2012–** Civil war in Syria	**1901** *Immigration Restriction Act* (forms the basis of White Australia policy) **1958** *Revised Migration Act* (introduced a simpler system of entry permits and abolished the dictation test that had been a barrier for many non-Europeans attempting to migrate to Australia) **1975** *Racial Discrimination Act* (making racial discrimination illegal) **1992** *Migration Reform Act* (allowing all people not holding valid visas to be held in mandatory detention)	**1945 onwards** • 'Populate or perish program' • Assisted migration for British citizens • Displaced persons program • Most non-Europeans refused entry **1966** • Holt Government changes migrant entry conditions, effectively ending White Australia policy • Abolition of dictation test • Increasing acceptance of non-Europeans **1973** • White Australia policy officially abolished **1976** • Acceptance of Vietnamese refugees arriving by boat and refugee intake program **1989** • Reinforcement of multicultural policy by Bob Hawke **1992** • Mandatory detention of illegal migrants **2001** • The Pacific Solution **2008** • Offshore processing centres closed **2011** • The Malaysia Solution **2013** • Offshore processing centres reopened **2013** • The PNG Solution • Operation Sovereign Borders	**1945–49** Ben Chifley (Labor) **1949–66** Sir Robert Menzies (Liberal coalition) **1966–67** Harold Holt (Liberal coalition) **1967–68** John McEwen (Country coalition) **1968–71** John Gorton (Liberal coalition) **1971–72** William McMahon (Liberal coalition) **1972–75** Gough Whitlam (Labor) **1975–83** Malcolm Fraser (Liberal coalition) **1983–91** Bob Hawke (Labor) **1991–96** Paul Keating (Labor) **1996–2007** John Howard (Liberal coalition) **2007–10** Kevin Rudd (Labor) **2010–13** Julia Gillard (Labor) **2013** Kevin Rudd (Labor) **2013–2015** Tony Abbott (Liberal coalition) **2015–** Malcolm Turnball (Liberal coalition)

key**concept:** Cause and effect

Push and pull factors

Migration is influenced by a combination of factors that cause people to leave their home country or region (push factors) and factors that draw people to a new location (pull factors). When analysing historical migrations, the historian needs to be able to understand these reasons in context at the relevant time. Some of the main factors are listed in Source 8'.

For more information on the key concept of cause and effect, refer to page 8 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 5 The effects of famine or drought can be a strong push factor for migration.

Source 6 Main push and pull factors that can affect migration.

Push factors	Pull factors
Lack of opportunities	Safety and security
War and conflict	Family links
Famine or drought	Government incentives
Fear of persecution	Hope of better employment
Unemployment	Shelter, food and money
Lack of political or religious freedom	Better living standards
Natural disasters (earthquakes, floods)	Better medical care
Poor medical care or education	Educational opportunities
Lower standard of living	Political or religious freedom



Source 7 The prospect of better employment opportunities can be a strong pull factor for migration.

Check your learning 9.3

Remember and understand

1 How do push factors connect with pull factors to influence migration?

2 Looking at the lists of push and pull factors, why do you think the events of World War II so heavily influenced migration to Australia?

3 Which world events have created refugees since the end of World War II?

Apply and analyse

4 In pairs and using the table in Source 4, research three major world events since 1945. What push and pull factors, including migration policies, were present at the time? How do you think these events would have shaped migration to Australia?

Evaluate and create

5 'Australia's immigration policy has responded fairly to world events.' Write a short argument outlining why you agree or disagree with this statement. To assist, you can use the table of events in Source 4 and the timeline in Source 1 on page 272–3.

9.4 Migration to Australia after World War II

In the years following World War II, the Australian government introduced bold new policies and programs designed to boost Australia's population. These changes would transform the face of Australian society forever. The period saw a massive boost in immigration from Britain and Europe, particularly countries such as the Netherlands, Italy, Greece, Latvia and Estonia. Government policies began to actively encourage and assist migrants wishing to make the journey from Europe, and sought to recruit the skills of migrant workers to begin a number of large-scale construction projects. Despite this increase in migrant numbers, restrictions on migrants from non-European backgrounds remained strictly enforced.

Australia after World War II

The threat of Japanese invasion during World War II came as a shock to Australia. Never before had the government and the Australian people felt so vulnerable to a foreign attack. As part of the government's strategy to strengthen the country and recover from the loss and devastation of World War II, it proposed to increase the size of the population and improve military defences. By following a 'safety in numbers' approach, it was believed that Australia would be less vulnerable to any future attacks. As Australia's population was still relatively small, the quickest means of achieving this was to increase Australia's intake of new migrants. Prime Minister Ben Chifley took over as Labor leader in 1945, soon after the death of Australia's war-time Prime Minister John Curtin. In 1946 Chifley was re-elected to lead Australia's post-war recovery. His government decided that a larger population was necessary in order to protect Australia's security and economic future. It developed a slogan to describe this new policy on immigration – 'populate or perish'.

The Chifley Government created Australia's first Department of Immigration in 1945. The first immigration minister was Arthur Calwell who, in his first months as minister, made the government's intentions regarding the size of Australia's population clear (see Source 2). These beliefs were shared by ministers on both sides of politics. As a result, new policies were implemented by the Labor government in the immediate post-war period and continued under the Liberal Menzies Government from 1949.



Source 1 The Habets and their eight children, who came out from Holland aboard the HMS *Otranto* on an assisted passage scheme to Australia in 1954, are seen here having lunch in one of the immigrants' hostels.

Source 2

> If Australians have learned one lesson from the Pacific War, now moving to a successful conclusion, it is surely that we cannot continue to hold our island continent for ourselves and our descendants unless we greatly increase our numbers.
>
> Minister for Immigration Arthur Calwell, extract from *Hansard House of Representatives*, 2 August 1945, pages 4911–15

The government began to actively promote Australia as an attractive destination to resettle for people affected by World War II (see Source 3). As part of this plan, the government began offering new incentives for those looking to make a new start away from the difficulties and challenges facing post-war Europe.



Source 3 This 1948 poster encouraging Europeans to relocate to Australia – the 'land of tomorrow' – was displayed in migration and refugee camps across Europe at the end of World War II.



Source 4 A family gets information about emigrating to Australia from an official at the Department of Immigration at Australia House, 1953.

'Bring out a Briton'

By the end of World War II, the Australian government had made its intentions for a larger Australia known. Tens of thousands of displaced persons across Europe had lost their homes and livelihoods during the turmoil of World War II. While resources and services were overstretched in Britain and Europe, Australia was looking to rapidly grow its population and economy. Even before the end of the war, discussions began between Britain and Australia to establish a large-scale migration program to Australia. Australia's close ties with Britain made this an obvious first choice for immigrants to boost the population. Immediately after the war, large numbers of people from across Britain set sail for Australia. After the wide-scale devastation of World War II, reconstruction in Europe was a massive task and, in Britain, many felt a fresh start in Australia was the best option for their families.

In 1947, the British and Australian governments launched large programs to subsidise the cost of British migrants' voyages to Australia – a process known as assisted migration. Travel for children was free and for adults the fare was reduced to just ten pounds (£10), giving rise to the label 'Ten Pound Pom'. This became a common way of describing British migrants coming to Australia during this period. Assisted migrants were expected to stay for two years. If they did not, they were required to repay their fare and fund their own return home (costing about £120). Although migrants were promised employment and high-quality housing, often the circumstances did not meet expectations.



Source 5 A British family of 15 disembark from their ship as they arrive in Australia, 2 July 1957

In 1957 the government also launched a popular campaign called 'Bring Out a Briton' (see Source 7). This campaign encouraged Australians to nominate British friends and families to come to Australia. Local committees were formed to sponsor and recommend new migrants to the Department of Immigration for assisted passage. The successful campaign continued into the 1960s.

Child migrants

Children and young people were also encouraged to migrate to Australia after World War II. Although most children would arrive with their families under the assisted migration schemes, there were many who emigrated alone. This included children who were orphaned or deprived after the war. In some cases these children were taken from families and communities against their will.

Younger migrants were attractive to the government. They were seen as more adaptable and able to provide a long-term contribution to the country. They were also seen as a source of cheap labour. The best interests of the children were often not the first priority.

The emigration of children was controversial and had occurred for years in the former British colonies, including in the US, Australia and New Zealand. It was revived in Australia following the war. In 1944 the acting prime minister proposed to seek out 50 000 children from Britain and Europe in the first three years after the war. This figure proved impossible, with many countries refusing. Nevertheless, thousands of child migrants did arrive from Britain and Malta between 1947 and the end of the scheme in 1967. Although many had positive experiences, there are reports that many others suffered terrible living and working conditions. In a few cases conditions were reportedly worse that those they had left behind. The governments of Australia and Britain recently gave an official apology to children and families affected by these child migration schemes.

Big Brothers and Little Brothers

The migration of teenagers also boomed after the war. One significant government scheme to encourage this was called the 'Big Brother Movement'. This was based on a similar scheme from the 1920s and 1930s. The scheme allocated boys emigrating from Britain ('Little Brothers') with a responsible adult in Australia ('Big Brothers') who would provide support and advice to help them adjust to their new life in Australia. This provided reassurance and encouragement to youth migrants and their parents who were reluctant to let them go. The scheme was very successful and saw about 500 youths a year arriving under this arrangement throughout the 1950s and 1960s.



Source 6 Arthur Calwell, Minister for Immigration (1945–49), welcoming the one hundred thousandth British immigrant to Australia in 1949



Source 7 The government's 'Bring Out a Briton' campaign urged Australians to nominate British friends for assisted migration to Australia.



Source 8 A group of migrant children from the 'Bring Out a Briton' scheme aboard the SS *Oronsay*, 1957

Europe: a new source of migrants

As well as attracting new migrants from post-war Britain, the government decided to look toward other areas of post-war Europe to target with new programs of assisted migration for displaced persons affected by the war. The government entered into agreements with many European countries, including the Netherlands, Italy and Greece, to accept post-war migrants. In 1946 the International Refugee Organization (IRO) was also founded as a specialised agency of the new United Nations, with Australia one of its founding members. Part of the IRO's work was to deal with the vast number of displaced persons that had been affected by the war, and Australia's membership enabled it to select displaced persons from camps in Europe and offer them passage to Australia. The government would assess and accept people from camps of displaced persons from across Europe if they were deemed suitable for migration to Australia. The Australian government agreed to accept at least 12000 refugees per year from the European camps.

In particular, the government viewed people from the Baltic states of Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia as a suitable source of new migrants. These countries had suffered invasion from both Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union during the war, so were viewed kindly by Australians. In addition to filling much needed labour shortages, people from these regions were seen as appealing because, according to Minister Calwell, they 'were red-headed and blue-eyed [and] there were also a number of natural platinum blondes of both sexes'. These physical characteristics earned them the nickname 'Beautiful Balts' (see Source 9). As these groups were Caucasian and often wanted to escape communism, they were the perfect candidates for Calwell's 'new Australia'. The government believed these people would more easily fit into the British culture and values of Australia at the time.



Source 9 This photograph, taken in 1948, shows a group of 'Beautiful Balts', some of the first displaced persons from Europe to arrive in Australia. Albury's *Border Morning Mail* described the new arrivals as 'attractive, cheery, eager to work and neatly clad'; the women had 'surprisingly good complexions and figures' with 'splendidly formed white teeth'.



Source 10 Snowy Mountains Scheme labourers in 1968 – many of these workers had migrated from countries across war-torn Europe

In addition to migrants from the Baltic states, large numbers of refugees arrived from Poland, Yugoslavia, Ukraine, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. There was also a large wave of post-war economic migrants from Italy, Greece, Malta, Croatia and Turkey seeking employment and better living conditions. These new migrants were placed in migrant camps across Australia, with allocated huts and often crowded conditions, to undergo training and resettlement. Although circumstances were sometimes difficult, many of these migrants would go on to make significant contributions to post-war Australia.

Post-war construction

As well as being motivated by a fear of invasion, the Australian government was keen to increase the population in order to meet an ambitious post-war building and construction program. Projects proposed by the Australian government required a much larger workforce than was available and the way to increase the workforce and fill the labour shortages was to increase the population. One of these major building projects was the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme, which alone required 10000 new workers. New immigrants from migration camps could be required to work for a period of two years wherever the Australian government decided. As a result, many were sent to work on the large Snowy Mountains scheme and similar projects.

key**concept:** Significance

The Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme

As part of the post-war development of Australia, the nation's most ambitious infrastructure project was proposed. The Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme proposed the development of a complex series of tunnels and dams to divert the Snowy River in south-east Australia. Hydro-electric power stations would provide electricity from the water flow, and the water would then be used to irrigate inland Australia. This project would require about 100 000 new workers, and the huge amount of labour required would mainly come from the wave of European immigrants the government was proposing to bring to Australia.

In Source 11, journalist, commentator and broadcaster Glenn A Baker gives his perspective on why the scheme, and the people who worked on it, were so important in shaping post-war Australia.

Source 11

> Not that many years ago we marked the 50th anniversary of what was the largest engineering project in the world – the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme – which, in ways that had nothing at all to do with power generation, changed the face of this country.
>
> The almost exclusively white Anglo-Saxon character of society was opened up to new ideas, customs, cuisines and celebrations by the men and their families who came from all over the world.
>
> I am, I suppose, a **baby boomer** and, for my generation, the post-war migration surge provided a defining dimension.
>
> Extract from Australia Day ambassador Glenn A Baker, speech given at Lithgow, 2010

Today, the scheme is considered significant not only because it remains one of Australia's largest-ever construction projects, but also because those who worked on it came from a range of different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. These men, their families and their descendants continue to have a significant impact on the cultural diversity of Australian society to this day.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.

Check your learning 9.4

Remember and understand

1 Who was Australia's first Minister for Immigration? Which political party did he represent?
2 Where did most migrants come from in the immediate post-war period?
3 What were the two main requirements to be accepted as a migrant to Australia in the period after World War II?
4 In your own words, explain what was meant by the term 'populate or perish'.

Apply and analyse

5 Former Prime Minister Julia Gillard arrived in Australia with her family in the 1960s under the assisted migration scheme. Research some well-known Australians whose families arrived under the 'Ten Pound Pom' assisted migration scheme from Britain. Discuss the impact of this scheme on Australia today.
6 What does Arthur Calwell's speech (Source 2) tell you about immigration policy after World War II? What limits were there on the types of people Australia was willing to accept?
7 Explain what you think Glenn A Baker (Source 11) meant when he said that the Snowy Mountains Scheme 'changed the face of this country'.

Evaluate and create

8 Design a poster similar to Source 3 encouraging displaced persons in Europe to emigrate to Australia at the end of World War II. Your poster should include a slogan and use iconic imagery to portray Australia as a land of opportunity.

9A rich task

The census

A census collects evidence about the population of a country. Governments have used censuses since ancient times. Census information is collected for a variety of reasons, including allowing governments to determine taxation amounts and more accurately distribute services. The Australian government conducts the Australian Census every five years. A census can reveal the origins of a population, occupations, beliefs, age and gender. As such, it contains a wealth of detailed information for historians, but this information must be interpreted.

The following evidence allows us to look for continuities and changes in the birthplace of the Australian population during the 20th century.

As an official record collected at a specific time, a census is a primary source. Interpreting the results of a census is always a challenge, however, as two historians can examine the same statistics and come to very different conclusions. The data found in a census also needs to be placed in its historical context in order to interpret it fairly and correctly. For example, the 1901 census indicates that 3.5 per cent of Australian citizens who were born overseas came from China. A historian using only those figures might take this to show that the White Australia policy did not exist. Therefore, we also need an understanding of the new immigration laws that emerged at the time of Federation to be able to view that statistic in its proper context.

Source 1 gives statistics on the birthplace of immigrants living in Australia at three distinct points in 20th-century Australian history: at Federation (1901), post-World War II (1947) and at the end of the 20th century (1996). Since other censuses were also held between these events, the material shown here would only be a starting point for a historian. Nevertheless, it provides an interesting opportunity to take a brief look at the changes in immigration to Australia during the 20th century.

Source 1 Top 10 countries of birth at selected Australian censuses of the 20th century

1901 census				1947 census			1996 census		
Ranking	**Birthplace**	**Number**	**Percentage**	**Birthplace**	**Number**	**Percentage**	**Birthplace**	**Number**	**Percentage**
1	United Kingdom	495 074	57.7	United Kingdom	496 454	66.7	United Kingdom	1 072 562	27.4
2	Ireland	184 085	21.5	Ireland	44 813	6.0	New Zealand	291 388	7.2
3	Germany	38 352	4.5	New Zealand	43 610	5.9	Italy	238 246	5.9
4	China	29 907	3.5	Italy	33 632	4.5	Vietnam	151 053	4.5
5	New Zealand	25 788	3.0	Germany	12 291	1.7	Greece	126 520	3.2
6	Sweden and Norway	9 863	1.2	Greece	9 863	1.2	China	111 009	2.8
7	India	7 637	0.9	India and Sri Lanka (Ceylon)	8 160	1.1	Germany	110 331	2.8
8	USA	7 448	0.9	Poland	6 573	0.9	Philippines	92 949	2.4
9	Denmark	6 281	0.7	China	6 404	0.9	Netherlands	87 898	2.2
10	Italy	5 678	0.7	USA	6 232	0.8	India	77 551	2.0
	Top 10 total	810 113	94.5	Top 10 total	672 736	90.4	Top 10 total	2 359 507	60.4
	Other	47 463	5.5	Other	71 451	9.6	Other	1 548 875	39.6
	Total overseas born	857 576	100.00	Total overseas born	744 187	100	Total overseas born	3 908 382	100.00

1901, 1947 and 1996 census statistics from the Australian Government, Department of Immigration and Citizenship website

skill**drill:** Continuity and change

Generating questions about the past to inform a historical inquiry

One of the first and most important steps in conducting a historical inquiry is to generate or pose key questions. The questions that you generate will frame or direct the research that you then undertake.

Usually, historians generate one broad, overarching question for their inquiry, for example: 'What do census results from different times tell us about Australia's migration policies?' After that, you need to generate more specific questions that are related to your overall inquiry question. You will need to generate a mixture of:

- **closed** (or simple) questions – for example, 'When did event X occur?'
- **open** (or probing) questions – for example, 'Why did event X occur?'
- questions that relate to the *process* of historical inquiry – for example, 'What evidence is there?' and 'What other sources might be needed?'

The first step in generating questions is to think about what you already know about the topic. Use this knowledge as a springboard for questions that will help you understand the topic in more depth. Use a table, similar to Source 2, to brainstorm all the things you know in dot-point form in one column. In the second column, use each dot point in the first column to generate related questions that will help to deepen or build your understanding. Remember to include a mix of the three question types described above.

Source 2

Overarching inquiry question:	
What I already know:	**Questions to help me deepen my understanding:**
Point 1	Question/s related to point 1
Point 2	Question/s related to point 2
Point 3	Question/s related to point 3

Apply the skill

1 Use the process described above and the census data in Source 1 to generate a range of questions related to the overarching historical inquiry question: 'How does the census reflect key events in the history of migration to Australia?'

a Copy Source 3 into your notebook.

b Identify what you already know as a result of reading this chapter and the information in this section. List these ideas in dot points in the first column.

c In the second column, generate related questions that help to deepen or build your understanding. The first one has been done for you.

Source 3

Overarching inquiry question: 'How does the census reflect key events in the history of migration to Australia?'	
What I already know:	**Questions to help me deepen or build my understanding:**
Australia sought to attract more migrants from war-ravaged Europe during the post-World War II recovery.	What countries were the biggest source of migrants in 1901, 1947 and 1996? (Simple or closed question) How did the countries of origin for migrants change from 1901 to 1996? (Open or probing question) What evidence can be applied to the census data to produce an alternative interpretation? (Question related to the process of historical inquiry)
Point 2	
Point 3	

Extend your understanding

1 Conduct some research online to find the latest census statistics and use the results to make a table of the top 10 countries of origin for new Australian migrants. Next, use one or two paragraphs to answer the following questions:

a What are the major changes in migration that have occurred since the 1996 census?

b What continuities does your table reveal about migration to Australia since Federation in 1901?

c Which world events of the 21st century can you see reflected in your table?

2 Using what you have learned in this chapter, make a new table that features your forecasts of the top 10 countries of origin for new Australians in the next census.

9.5 White Australia policy

The White Australia policy was not a single policy – the term refers to a series of migration policies in Australia that gave favourable treatment to immigrants from Europe (predominantly Britain) and discriminated against those from other parts of the world. The *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*, along with other pieces of legislation, became the basis of the White Australia policy after Federation. Although the original Act did not specifically ban people based on race, it was designed to exclude migrants who were considered 'undesirable'.

Since the British colonised Australia in the late 1700s, Australia's relationship with its Asian and Pacific neighbours had at times been tense. The large numbers of Chinese migrants who arrived during the gold rushes of the 1850s often clashed with the British majority over access to resources and competing claims. A period of severe economic depression in Australia during the 1890s also saw a rise in anti-Asian sentiment. Many in Australia feared that cheap immigrant labour would take jobs away from British Australian workers. Sources from the time provide many examples of the kind of racial prejudice and fear held by many Australians towards foreigners (see Source 1).

This ethnic tension combined with a new sense of **nationalism** that grew in the lead up to Australia's Federation. One of the first acts of the new federal government in 1901 was to create laws that could grant access to European migrants, mainly British, and exclude all others. Australia's first Prime Minister, Edmund Barton, expressed this sentiment at a speech in 1902: 'We can bring in, without delay, our kinsmen from Britain and, if the numbers be insufficient, such other white races as will assimilate with our own. Or we can … see the doors of our house forced, and streams of people from the lands where there is hardly standing room pour in and submerge us.'

The dictation test

The *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* did not mention race or include any reference to excluding migrants based on their ethnic or racial background. This type of openly discriminatory behaviour was frowned upon by Britain and its allies at the time. Instead, the Act included a less obvious legal mechanism to ensure immigration officials could exclude migrants they considered 'undesirable'. A simple 'dictation test' allowed officials to dictate a 50-word passage in any language they chose for potential migrants to write down. Initially this was any European language, but later it could be given in any language at all.



Source 1 'The Mongolian Octopus – His Grip on Australia', cartoon by Phillip May in *The Bulletin*, 1886, showing some of the fears Australians had about Chinese migration

To restrict access to potential migrants, Australian officials simply chose languages that they knew would be unfamiliar – guaranteeing failure. This was particularly used against Chinese migrants, but other Asian and African migrants were also targeted.

The White Australia policy after World War II

As we have learned, at the end of the World War II Australia began to actively pursue a policy of population expansion under the slogan 'populate or perish'. New migration policies focused almost exclusively on new migration from Britain and elsewhere in Europe. In line with the White Australia policy, the government's approach was to target whites from European countries that it believed could assimilate easily into Australian society. In particular, the new program of accepting displaced persons focused on Europe, particularly the Baltic States and Eastern Europe. It deliberately excluded those displaced by the conflict in Asia, Africa or the Middle East.

The threat of Japanese invasion during World War II, together with the threat of communism spreading across Asia, added to the fears of many Australians. The harsh effects of these fears were felt particularly by migrant families who had been granted permission to live and work in Australia during the war as displaced persons or refugees or to assist with the war effort. These included thousands of migrants from Asia, including Malays, Indonesians and Filipinos. Once the war was over, Immigration Minister Arthur Calwell controversially sought to eject migrants who did not meet the strict requirements of the White Australia policy.

In a speech to the House of Representatives on 2 December 1947, Calwell made clear the government's views on continuing the White Australia policy.

Source 2

> The government has decided that all persons who came to Australia as evacuees or refugees during the war and who, under our immigration laws, are not eligible to become permanent residents of this country, must leave. We have been very tolerant of these people. We could have asked them all to go immediately the war ended, but we have allowed them to stay for a certain period, in some cases so that they may wind up their affairs here and in other cases so that they might get decent shipping facilities to take them back to their own countries. In all 15 000 evacuees of all nationalities came to Australia during the war. Of that number, 4400 were Asiatics. Most of the evacuees, including the Asiatics, have gone. There are about 500 Chinese, mostly seamen, and about fifty Malays left. All of these people will have to leave Australia … What this government proposes to do is not unusual. I am carrying out the policy of every Australian government since Federation, and, as far as I am concerned, it will not be altered …
>
> Cited in *Well May We Say … The Speeches That Made Australia*, Sally Warhaft (ed.), Black Inc., Melbourne, 2004, pages 245–6

It was not until the second half of the 20th century that the White Australia policy finally began to unravel and Australia's modern immigration policies began to take shape. This will be discussed in the following sections.



Source 3 A poster from King's Theatre *c.* 1909, promoting the play 'White Australia or the Empty North' – the play illustrated the role that race had in creating a national identity after Federation.

Check your learning 9.5

Remember and understand

1. In your own words, describe the impact of the *Immigration Restriction Act.*
2. What was the legal mechanism used by immigration officials to exclude non-Europeans from entering Australia?
3. What reason does Arthur Calwell give for deporting Asian migrants in Australia in Source 2? How does he justify the decision?

Evaluate and create

4. Use the Internet to research the well-known story of Egon Kisch and the dictation test. Write a 300-word explanation describing the events and explaining how the dictation test was used by the Australian government to deny entry to 'undesirable' migrants. Outline the relevant background, describe how the test was applied (and challenged) and discuss the implications for other migrants.

9.6 The end of White Australia

During World War II and in the years after it ended, the Australian government made its intentions regarding the White Australia policy clear – the policy was and would continue to be central to Australia's migration program. But as time moved on, this position became increasingly difficult to maintain. Dissatisfaction with the policy was growing in parts of Australian society and the international community. The government's attempts to expel displaced persons after the end of the war were not well received and Australia's growing involvement in Asia was in direct conflict with its policies at home. The years that followed saw the policy gradually dismantled, before finally being abolished in 1973.



Source 2 Japanese war brides and their husbands in the garden of the Parker family home, Ringwood, 1953

Initial steps

In 1949 a new Liberal government was elected under Prime Minister Robert Menzies. Menzies appointed Harold Holt as Minister for Immigration, replacing Arthur Calwell. The new Minister for Immigration would oversee a period of change. Shortly after taking office Holt made the historic decision to allow the remaining 800 non-European refugees to stay in Australia. Assisted migration schemes were expanded in parts of Europe including Italy, West Germany, Belgium, Greece and Spain.



Source 1 Prime Minister Robert Menzies making a radio announcement *c.* 1950

Holt also made the historic decision to grant permission to a number of Japanese wives of returned Australian soldiers to settle in Australia. By the end of 1956, more than 650 Japanese women had migrated to Australia as wives and fiancées of Australian soldiers. In 1957, rules were changed to allow non-European residents over 15 years of age to become Australian citizens.

In the following year, the government passed the *Migration Act 1958*. This Act introduced the most significant changes to Australia's migration laws since Federation, replacing the longstanding *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*. Importantly, the Act abolished the dictation test, for so long used as a way of restricting immigration of non-European migrants. The revised Act removed questions of race, instead focusing on qualifications as a primary criterion for selection. This opened the door to highly skilled Asian migrants. As then Immigration Minister, Sir Alec Downer, stated 'distinguished and highly qualified Asians' could begin to immigrate. In 1959, Australian citizens were also allowed to sponsor Asian spouses for citizenship.

Increasing ties with Asia

In 1950, the government set up a fund with other countries in the Asian region to help improve the economic and social development of people in need of assistance. This fund became known as the Colombo Plan. The Colombo Plan was an important step towards increasing Australia's ties with Asia and improving stability in the region. The original signatories to the Colombo Plan were Australia, Ceylon (Sri Lanka), India, Canada, New Zealand, Pakistan, the United Kingdom, North Borneo and Malaya. Australia would donate more than $300 million to the scheme, in expertise, food and equipment. The scheme also provided funding for thousands of Asian students to study or train in Australian universities. Although students were supposed to leave Australia after their studies, many would end up settling in Australia permanently.

Domino theory and the fear of communism

One of the reasons Australia and other countries gave support to the Colombo Plan was the belief that improving development and stability would help stop the rising spread of communism in the Asian region. The spread of communism was of particular concern to Australia. Many Australians feared that a communist victory in one country would lead to a chain reaction of communist takeovers in neighbouring states, including Australia. This became known as the **domino theory**. It was highly influential on US and Australian foreign policy in the 1950s.

In 1949, fear of China grew when the Chinese Communist Party under Mao Zedong claimed victory after a long civil war, founding the People's Republic of China. The Menzies Government came to power just two months later and its response was to follow the lead of the American government by refusing to officially recognise the existence of China. This was a policy that continued for decades, until Richard Nixon in the US and Gough Whitlam in Australia finally gave formal recognition to communist China in 1972. The Australian government exploited the fear of communism, with post-war propaganda portraying communism as a disease spreading through Asia (see Source 3). Australia's fear of communism was not just confined to events occurring overseas. During the 1950s within Australia, there was a growing fear of communist spies infiltrating the government and union movement. This fear of 'Reds under the bed' resulted in the government attempting to ban the Communist Party of Australia in 1951.



Source 3 The Australian government exploited the fear of communism, with post-war propaganda portraying communism as a disease spreading through Asia.

Communism and conflict in Asia

As the fear of communism spread in the 1950s, Australia became increasingly involved in conflicts across Asia. This would have a significant influence on domestic migration policies as ties across the region increased, leading to the eventual abolition of the White Australia policy in the 1960s and 1970s.

Conflict broke out on the Korean Peninsula in 1950 as tensions boiled over between the capitalist south (which had been aligned with the West since the end of World War II) and the communist north (which was aligned with the Soviet Union). This was the first major war of the larger worldwide conflict known as the Cold War. The Cold War was a political, economic and military contest between the two post-war superpowers, the USA and the Soviet Union. Australia quickly offered military assistance after the United Nations resolved to protect the south from invasion by the north. About 17 000 Australians served in the Korean War from its beginning in 1950 to the ceasefire of 1953, with 339 Australian casualties. At the time, this was Australia's largest military involvement since World War II.

Australia also became involved in a regional conflict known as the Malayan Emergency. This was a **guerrilla war** (a war fought by small, independent groups of fighters) fought between British armed forces and the Malayan National Liberation Army, the military arm of the Malayan Communist Party. Australian military forces were sent to Malaya from 1950 until 1960, to support the British and Malayan governments in

opposing communists, with dozens of Australians killed and wounded.

In 1955, as part of regional efforts to stem the spread of communism, Australia joined the Southeast Asian Treaty Organization (SEATO). This was an alignment of Western powers and Asian countries intending to block communist gains in South-East Asia. The alliance lasted 20 years but achieved very little in practical terms due to internal conflicts, except for its educational programs, which had a lasting effect in the region.

The fear of communism culminated in the Vietnam War, a conflict in Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia lasting from 1955 to 1975. Strongly influenced by the domino theory and intending to contain the threat of communism, the US increased its involvement in the war throughout the 1960s. Australia became heavily involved in the conflict between 1962 and 1975, sending about 60 000 troops. In total, 521 Australian soldiers were killed and more than 300 wounded. The war was ultimately unsuccessful and, after 1975, communism arose in Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia, but failed to spread any further as had been suggested by the domino theory. The Vietnam War and its effect on Australian migration is discussed in detail later in this chapter.



Source 4 Korea, 9 June 1953. Men of C company, 2nd Battalion, The Royal Australian Regiment (2RAR), at Majon'ni in the trenches of left forward Company position on The Hook after relieving the 1st Battalion King's Regiment



Source 5 Members of 5 Platoon, B Company, 7th Battalion, The Royal Australian Regiment (7RAR) preparing to be airlifted by US helicopters after completing a military operation during the Vietnam War, 1967

Abolishing the White Australia policy

Australia's increased ties with the local region and involvement in successive wars inevitably led to the removal of the White Australia policy. After the gradual relaxing of restrictions following the *Revised Migration Act 1958*, the Holt Liberal Government in 1966 introduced major changes to the system of non-European immigration. This changed the criteria for migration to that of suitability as settlers, ability to integrate into Australian life, and possession of qualifications useful to Australia. This was a critical breakthrough because it finally removed race as a determinant when assessing the suitability of a migrant to enter Australia. As a result, non-European settler arrivals rose from 746 in 1966 to 2696 in 1971.

In October 1971, Gough Whitlam made an address to the press in which he outlined three changes he would be making to the Labor Party's immigration platform ahead of the 1972 federal election (see Source 8).

After winning the election and becoming prime minister in 1972, Whitlam and the Labor government formally removed the last remnants of the White Australia policy in 1973 when it issued new instructions to totally disregard race as a factor in selecting migrants. This was supported with legislation that all migrants, regardless of origin, could apply for citizenship after three years' permanent residence. In addition to this, the government ratified (signed) all international agreements relating to race and immigration. In 1975, this was followed by the introduction of the *Racial Discrimination Act* which made the use of racial criteria for official purposes illegal.



Source 6
Mitsuru and Keiko Maeda and their son were among the first Japanese migrants to settle in Australia after changes to immigration laws in 1966.

Source 8

> We removed the assertion that a primary national objective must be to increase population. We removed the commitment to expand the immigration program. We related our immigration needs simply to the capacity of Australia to provide 'employment, housing, education and social services' – in other words a very specific instruction to the incoming Labor Government that people, the welfare of people, the people already here and the people who may come, must be the prime consideration, not mere numbers. And thirdly we said unequivocally that there must be no discrimination on grounds of race or colour or nationality.
>
> G. Whitlam, *The Whitlam Government 1972–1975*, Penguin Books Australia Ltd, Melbourne, 1985, pages 497–500



Source 7 The Australian Prime Minister, Gough Whitlam (third from right) meets the Chinese Premier, Chairman Mao Zedong, 3 November 1973

Check your learning 9.6

Remember and understand

1. Explain the term 'Cold War'.
2. What was the name of the Minister for Immigration who allowed the first non-European immigrants to remain in Australia after World War II?
3. What changes did the *Revised Migration Act 1958* introduce to Australia's immigration policy?
4. What was the Colombo Plan and how did it affect migration?
5. In what year was the White Australia policy officially abolished? What did the Whitlam Government do to formally end the policy?

Apply and analyse

6. Communism played a major role in Australia's involvement in the region and its immigration policies between the 1950s and 1970s. Discuss how the domino theory, fear of communism and Australia's military engagements might have affected the development of Australia's immigration policies at the time.

Evaluate and create

7. Write a 500-word response arguing for or against the following statement:

   'The abolition of the White Australia policy in 1973 is one of the most significant events in Australia's history.'

   Your response should include the following:

   - **a** a brief account of how and why the policy was first introduced
   - **b** arguments raised at the time for its continuation
   - **c** arguments raised at the time against its continuation
   - **d** at least two primary or secondary sources referenced appropriately.

9.7 Towards a multicultural Australia

As the White Australia policy was gradually dismantled during the 1950s and 1960s, new policies began to take its place. Initially, a policy of **assimilation** was introduced, followed by one of **integration**. These policies were based around the idea that new migrants should conform to the attitudes, values and beliefs of the wider population and abandon or hide their traditional customs and languages. Over time, it became clear that these approaches were neither possible nor appropriate. As a result, the current policy of **multiculturalism** was adopted. Multicultural policies aim to recognise and embrace different cultures and traditions.



Source 1 Sydney's Indian community celebrates the Diwali festival at Parramatta Stadium as part of the Parramasala Festival, 2011

Monoculturalism, assimilation and integration

Immigration policy in the 1950s was based on the concept of assimilation. Broadly, this meant migrants were expected to give up their old culture and adopt Australian culture and customs. Assimilation was part of a push to preserve a single Australian culture by excluding the influence of other cultures and traditions – a practice known as **monoculturalism**. By the 1960s, assimilation gave way to a policy of integration. Under this policy, migrants were encouraged to celebrate their own cultures at home but to adopt mainstream Australian values and customs while in public.

The problem with assimilation as a policy was that it demanded people deny the culture, beliefs and values they had grown up with. This is an inherent part of an individual's identity, not easily changed by government policies that discourage cultural and ethnic diversity. The advantages of a monocultural society over one made up of diverse cultures were also unclear.

Even British arrivals, with similar language and culture, would experience a type of culture shock on arrival in Australia, and could often find it difficult to adapt to new life here. When language and cultural difficulties were added to the mix, it is easy to understand why many migrants struggled to assimilate and integrate. Italian migrant and musician Mario Millo provides a view of assimilation in Source 2. In an interview, he shares some of the difficulties he encountered as a new migrant in the school playground in the early 1960s.

Source 2

> For me, growing up with the name 'Mario' was a hassle most of the time. I remember my first horrific day at school barely knowing how to speak English, I only knew a few words here and there taught to me by my older sister Rosanna, who must have been through the same ordeal. I was in fourth class primary school (guess I was about 9 years old) – we lived very close to the public school and one day I invited one of my best friends home for some lunch. It was my mum's day off and she prepared spaghetti and also an Italian native lettuce (radicchio) which looks like leaves. He thoroughly enjoyed the food but a few days later the gossip in the playground was, Mario Ovaltine eats worms and grass'. From that point on we were no longer friends.
>
> From an interview with musician Mario Millo, whose family emigrated from Italy in 1954

Even integration was difficult where appropriate support was not available. Migrants would often find that their education, skills and qualifications were not officially recognised in Australia. Instead, they had to work in physically demanding labouring jobs in order to earn money. Mario Millo remembered the experience

of his Italian father, who had emigrated to Australia after border changes in Europe after World War II had meant that his home town was no longer in Italy but had become part of Yugoslavia. 'My father was a qualified diesel mechanic, but as a result of not being able to read or write English, spent his working years in Australia as a factory hand, on the lowest of wages.' This was the reality of assimilation and integration for many migrants in the 1950s and 1960s

The beginnings of multiculturalism

By the mid-1960s there was an increasing awareness of the difficulties migrants faced when adjusting to a new life, new language and new culture in Australia. The end of the White Australia policy and the influx of new migrants to Australia from all parts of the world meant Australians were increasingly exposed to new cultures, traditions and beliefs that challenged the concept of a monocultural Australia.

Multiculturalism involved accepting and embracing the cultural practices and traditions that migrants brought with them to Australia. It was a natural transition from the White Australia and assimilation policies that had rejected other cultures and ignored the importance of culture to individuals and social groups. Multiculturalism allowed Australians to accept diversity and cultural uniqueness, and the benefits of interaction between people of different backgrounds. For migrants, it allowed them to celebrate their cultural origins while still embracing their adopted country.

Multiculturalism was officially recognised by the government in 1973 when the Whitlam Labor Government's Minister for Immigration, Al Grassby (see Source 3), issued a reference paper called 'A multi-cultural society for the future'. Grassby had been instrumental in formalising the end of the White Australia policy and calling for increased migration



Source 3 Al Grassby speaking at the Griffith Wine Festival in 1973

from non-English speaking countries. Although Grassby's seat was targeted by anti-immigration groups in 1974, causing him to lose his seat, Whitlam appointed him the first federal Commissioner for Community Relations, responsible for administering the new *Racial Discrimination Act 1975*.

Both Prime Minister Whitlam and Opposition Liberal leader Malcolm Fraser embraced the vision of a multicultural Australia in a **bipartisan** manner. This cooperation was significant during one of the most divisive periods in Australian politics and, when the Fraser Government replaced the Whitlam Government in 1975, this approach continued. In 1977 the Ethnic Affairs Council, set up by the Fraser Government, recommended multiculturalism become official public policy. The first official programs were implemented the following year, and in 1979 the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs was established by an act of parliament to raise awareness of cultural diversity and promote social cohesion, understanding and tolerance.

Check your learning 9.7

Remember and understand

1 Describe the difference between monoculturalism and multiculturalism.
2 Who was Al Grassby, and what role did he play in developing a multicultural Australia?
3 What evidence does Source 2 provide that the policy of assimilation adopted in 1950s Australia was difficult for new migrants?

Apply and analyse

4 Why do you think the Whitlam and Fraser governments introduced and supported a multicultural policy for Australia?
5 Create a flowchart to illustrate the different immigration policies implemented in Australia since the 1950s. Include the dates for each and a brief description of what ideas the policies were based around.

9.8 The migration debate since 1980

After the government's acceptance of multiculturalism in the 1970s, migrants of different backgrounds had largely become accepted in Australian life. Officially Australia continued to support a migration policy based on skills and not race, and Australia significantly expanded its intake of refugees and displaced persons from around the world.

The arrival of the first Vietnamese refugees by boat in the late 1970s, following the end of the Vietnam War, marked a turning point in Australia's humanitarian migrant intake. By the mid-1980s Australia was accepting tens of thousands of Vietnamese refugees under international arrangements (refer to section 9C of this chapter on the Vietnam War), and migration from ordinary channels was still increasing. Over the next two decades, the number of asylum seekers arriving by boat each year would also increase as conflicts broke out around the world, reaching 5500 in 2001 and sparking heated public debate in government, the media and society. This would set the scene for a new Australian debate on immigration relating to refugees and asylum seekers that continues to this day.

New political debate

In 1983, Bob Hawke was elected prime minister. The Hawke Labor Government remained in power from 1983 to 1991 and maintained the political and legislative support it needed to keep multiculturalism as a central immigration policy. In 1984, historian Geoffrey Blainey delivered a speech in which he argued that the rates of Asian immigration to Australia were too high, threatening the social cohesion of Australian society. This helped spark a media and political debate that broke the bipartisan support on migration levels that had characterised much of the previous decade. Although the White Australia policy had long since been abolished, the debate on levels of Asian immigration continued. Increasingly it became linked to debate on the acceptance of refugees.

The debate reached its peak at the end of the 1980s, when then Opposition leader John Howard developed a new Liberal Party policy on immigration and ethnic affairs called 'One Australia'. When discussing it on radio in 1988, Howard suggested the rate of Asian immigration should be slowed. He questioned multiculturalism, arguing it meant that it was impossible to have an Australian ethos or common Australian culture under the policy. He also commented that 'multiculturalism suggests that we can't make up our minds who we are or what we believe in'.

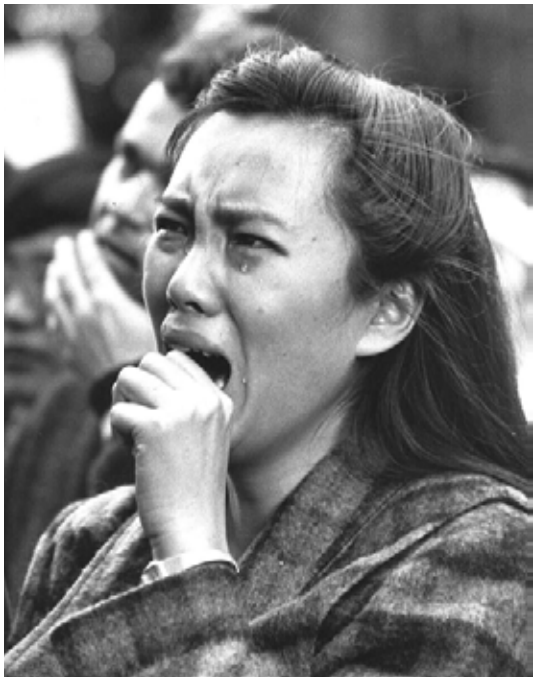


Source 1 Australian Prime Minister Bob Hawke in 1983



Source 2 John Howard in 1988, as Leader of the Opposition

The Hawke Labor Government quickly reacted to this, introducing a parliamentary motion rejecting the use of race to select immigrants. In 1989 the government released a statement titled *National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia*, which defined the principles of multiculturalism based on three rights and three obligations (see Source 4). New initiatives also included a National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition, improved access to government services for all groups, greater support for English language teaching and second language learning, and stronger relationships between government and ethnic communities through a community relations campaign.



Source 3 A Chinese student in Sydney in tears on hearing of the pro-democracy uprising taking place in Tiananmen Square, 1989

Source 4

> 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); and economic efficiency (the need to maintain, develop and utilise effectively the skills and talents of all Australians).
>
> 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; and 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.
>
> Australian Government (Office of Multicultural Affairs), *National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia*, Australian Government Publishing Service, July 1989

In 1989, after the Chinese government's brutal suppression of pro-democracy demonstrators in Tiananmen Square, Beijing, Prime Minister Hawke granted permanent residency to 2000 Chinese students in Australia at the time, and refused China's request to force the students to return home.

Mandatory detention

In 1991, Prime Minister Paul Keating took over as leader of the Labor Government and introduced the next major policy change for migration. In response to the increasing number of Vietnamese, Chinese and Cambodian refugees seeking asylum in Australia and the apparent levels of community concern, the Keating Government in 1992 introduced a system of **mandatory detention** of asylum seekers. This meant anyone arriving in Australia without a valid visa would be detained immediately on arrival until they underwent relevant checks and assessments. The government wished to signal that 'migration to Australia may not be achieved by simply arriving in this country and expecting to be allowed into the community'. In 1994, the initial time limit on detention was also removed, meaning asylum seekers could be detained indefinitely.

One Nation

Despite the government's attempts to control the migration debate, the issue continued to grow. It became central to the 1996 federal election, when the Howard Liberal Government was voted into power. Queensland member Pauline Hanson was also elected to federal parliament. Initially a Liberal candidate, she became an Independent after being disendorsed (no longer supported by the party) due to comments she made about the 'special treatment' of Indigenous Australians. In her maiden speech after being elected as the Member for Oxley, Hanson said, 'I and most Australians want our immigration policy radically reviewed and that of multiculturalism abolished. I believe we are in danger of being swamped by Asians'. Hanson went on to form her own political



Source 5 Pauline Hanson and One Nation, 1996

party, One Nation, which attracted support in the late 1990s in her native Queensland. Her divisive policies on immigration and ability to play on the fears of some voters permanently affected the political landscape. After more than a decade away from politics, in 2016 Hanson was elected to the Senate representing Queensland.

Migration during the Howard years

Since his time as opposition leader in the 1980s, Liberal politician John Howard had rejected multiculturalism. Howard saw an 'Australian tradition' at the centre of national identity and argued that migrants should embrace that tradition. In 1996, Howard was elected prime minister of Australia. He remained in power until 2007. During his time in office he attempted to implement a citizenship test that required migrants to demonstrate an understanding of Australian history and sport. He also argued for a new preamble to the Australian Constitution that recognised God and 'mateship'. Howard summarised his beliefs on multiculturalism in a 2006 Australia Day address to the National Press Club (see Source 7).

Source 7

> Most nations experience some level of cultural diversity while also having a dominant cultural pattern running through them. In Australia's case, that dominant pattern comprises Judeo-Christian ethics, the progressive spirit of the Enlightenment and the institutions and values of British political culture. Its democratic and egalitarian temper also bears the imprint of distinct Irish and non-conformist traditions.
>
> John Howard, excerpt from address to the National Press Club, 26 January 2006



Source 6 A Nicholson cartoon reflecting on the Howard Government's immigration policies, *The Australian*, 11 June 2000

key**concept:** Contestability

The 'Children overboard' affair

On 6 October 2001, the HMAS *Adelaide* intercepted a boat, the *Olong*, carrying Iraqi asylum seekers towards Australia. This event took place the day after Prime Minister Howard had called a federal election in which the question of asylum seekers was to be a key issue.

Two days later the *Olong* started to sink, and some of the *Adelaide*'s crew dived into the water to help rescue the passengers. Confused reports meant that Canberra was originally told that parents on the *Olong* had threatened to throw or actually had thrown their children overboard so they would be rescued by the *Adelaide*.

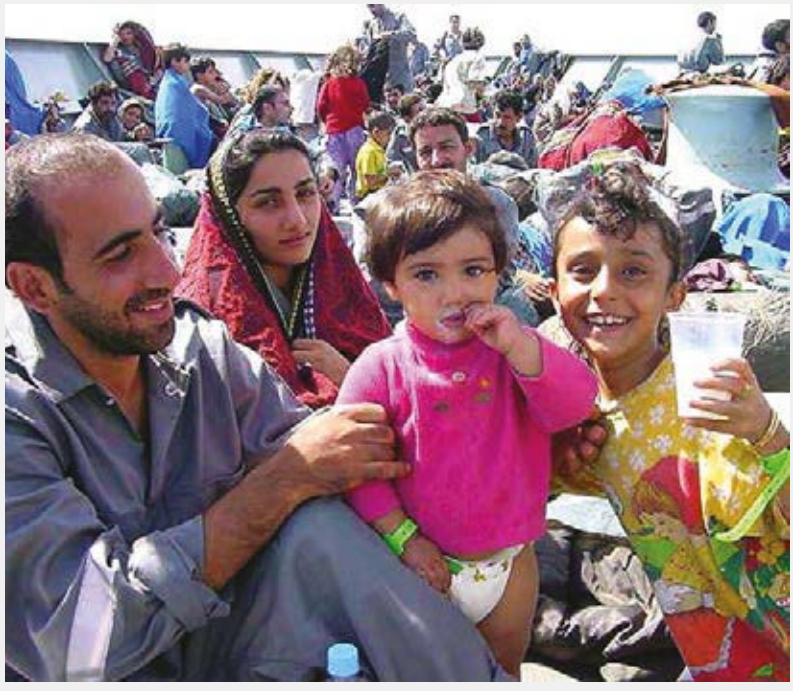
Prime Minister Howard, Minister for Immigration Ruddock and Minister for Defence Reith all condemned the asylum seekers for such cruel treatment, and used this as a reason to be harsh on all asylum seekers. Investigations indicated that there was real doubt about whether children had been thrown overboard, but the government continued to insist they had. The government also refused to release most photographs from the *Adelaide*, other than those that showed the crew of the *Adelaide* in the water with children.

A Senate committee later found no children had been at risk of being thrown overboard and that the government had known this prior to the election. The government was criticised in the media for misleading the public and cynically exploiting voters' fears of a wave of illegal immigrants. The sailor shown in Source 8 later had her aunt tell ABC News, 'at no stage was anybody throwing anyone overboard'.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to page 12 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 8 This picture, taken with a mobile phone, shows Able Seaman Laura Whittle rescuing a mother and son from the water – they were among those who had been on the *Olong* on 8 October 2001.



Source 9 Photograph taken by a naval officer of rescued asylum seekers on board the HMAS *Adelaide* after the so-called 'Children overboard' incident – West Australian-based Project SafeCom acquired this and other photographs anonymously several weeks after the sinking of the *Olong* on 8 October 2001, and the rescue of the vessel's 219 passengers (AAP Image/SafeCom)

During Howard's time as prime minister, asylum seekers and refugees became the main focus of Australia's migration debate because the numbers of arrivals continued to rise. During his 2001 campaign for re-election, Howard famously stated 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come' in reference to boat people arrivals. Later that year, the issue of asylum seekers became highly controversial during the *Tampa* and 'Children overboard' affairs.

During his first term in office, Howard continued the mandatory detention policy introduced by the Keating Government. The Howard Government took this one step further by also introducing a tough new approach to 'deter and deny'. Central to this approach was the 'Pacific Solution' – a policy that involved transporting asylum seekers to offshore detention centres set up on the Pacific islands of Nauru and Manus Island (in Papua New Guinea) where their refugee status would be determined. The government also increased border surveillance and patrols. Islands where boat arrivals usually attempted to land (such as Christmas Island) were also legally excluded from Australia's migration zone. This allowed the Australian government to avoid being subject to ordinary legal processes that refugees would otherwise be entitled to by law.



Source 10 This cartoon by Bill Leak represents John Howard as Captain Cook arriving in Australia.

Check your learning 9.8

Remember and understand

1. How did the Hawke Government respond to the 1989 Tiananmen Square protests?
2. What was the main argument of One Nation's Pauline Hanson in her maiden speech to parliament? How does this relate to the White Australia policy of the mid-20th century?
3. How did the Howard Government react to the increased number of asylum seekers arriving by boat? Why was the government's reaction to the 'Children overboard' affair controversial?

Apply and analyse

4. In pairs, consider how the debate about multiculturalism changed between its acceptance in the 1970s to the position held by the Howard Government. Debate the advantages and disadvantages of the approach promoted by the Hawke Government and the Howard Government.

Evaluate and create

5. What was the significance of John Howard's 2001 election statement: 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come'? Write a short paper evaluating whether this statement reflected any significant change in Australia's approach to immigration since the time of Federation.

9.9 The ongoing migration debate

Since the Howard years, 'boat people' and refugees have become the defining feature of the Australian political debate around migration. This is largely because the number of boat arrivals has continued to rise. Discussions around the reintroduction of the White Australia policy – although briefly revived by the One Nation party in the 1990s – have now been consigned to history. In its place is a policy of multiculturalism established in the 1970s by the Whitlam (Labor) and Fraser (Liberal coalition) governments. Despite the commitment to multiculturalism in Australia, debate still continues about the best ways in which to manage the numbers of new migrants arriving each year.

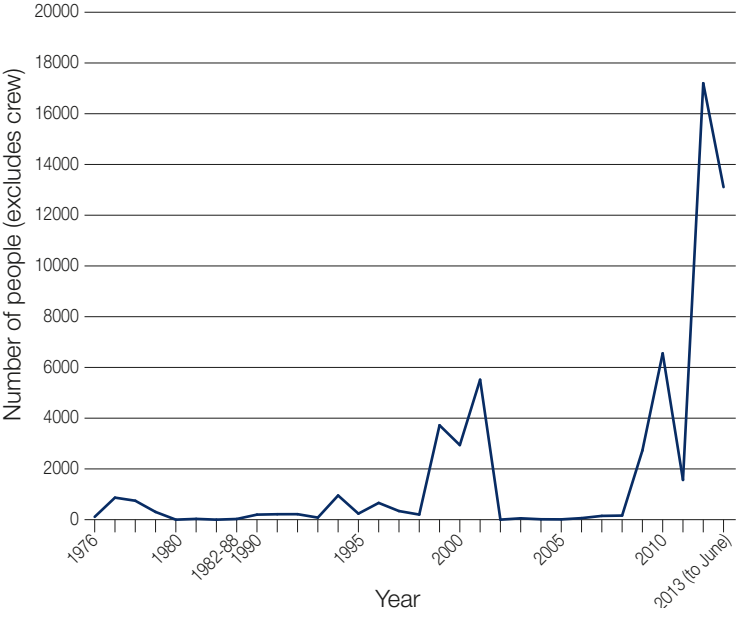
Boat people

The term **'boat people'** was introduced with the arrival of the first wave of Vietnamese refugees in the late 1970s and early 1980s, fleeing Vietnam through neighbouring Asian countries after the end of the Vietnam War. A second wave of asylum seekers arrived in 1989 and in the early 1990s, mainly from Cambodia, Vietnam and Southern China, at the time the Keating Government introduced its policy of mandatory detention. This was followed by a third wave in 1999 and in the early 2000s, mainly from the Middle East. The numbers of arrivals were larger than ever before, triggering the Howard Government's tough response – the Pacific Solution and 'deter and deny' policy described in the previous section. A fourth wave would soon arrive, bigger than any before, reaching 17 000 people in 2012 alone, and triggering another intense political debate. Source 2 illustrates this pattern of boat arrivals and the increase since 1976.

A noticeable difference with the recent waves is that asylum seekers often arrive with the help of intermediary 'people smugglers', people who arrange for refugees to make the voyage in return for a fee. These voyages are extremely dangerous, with overcrowded boats and equipment in terrible condition not fit for high seas, and trips often result in many people drowning. During the third and fourth waves, regular stories arose of tens or even hundreds of people dying from the sinking of a single ship at sea. Many of these boats sank near the shore of Australia's Christmas Island, close to Australia's maritime border with Indonesia and the most common destination. As these drownings became increasingly visible to the public via the media, the political debate became one of deterrence for reasons of safety, as much as slowing the number of arrivals.



Source 1 Children and women on a boat from Vietnam arrive in Darwin, November 1977



Source 2 Boat arrivals in selected years since 1976 (adapted from information at the Australian Parliamentary Library)

Despite regular changes in Australian government policy and repeated attempts to deter arrivals, the issue of boat arrivals is hugely complex. Push factors from source countries are outside the control of Australian policy, and for many people outweigh the risks and dangers of attempting the voyage. Although the number of arrivals has increased significantly since 1976, relative to the rest of the world the number remains comparatively small. The increase in people seeking asylum has raised concerns globally, with many destination countries facing much larger numbers. For example, in 2011 in Italy alone there were more than 61000 irregular boat arrivals, via North Africa, Greece and Turkey. The number of asylum seekers arriving by land, a problem that does not affect Australia, is even higher and often falls on the world's poorest countries. For example, in 2011, Pakistan hosted 1.7 million refugees and Iran almost 900000.

The Malaysia Solution

Successive Australian governments since the Howard years have attempted to address the issue. In 2007, the newly elected Labor government led by Prime Minister Kevin Rudd set about softening Australia's policies. Soon after taking office, Rudd closed offshore processing centres in Nauru and Manus Island (Papua New Guinea).

As new waves of boat arrivals increased, the Australian government (now under the leadership of Prime Minister Julia Gillard) set about toughening these policies again. In 2011, the government reached a deal with Malaysia to send a quota of boat arrivals to resettle in Malaysia, in exchange for Australia accepting a much larger number from Malaysia through normal refugee processing centres. The 'Malaysia Solution' was soon challenged by refugee advocates in the High Court of Australia. The court ruled by a large majority that the proposed arrangement was legally invalid. In response, the Gillard Government soon reopened detention centres in Nauru and Manus Island and introduced a new 'No advantage' policy in an attempt to deter people from making the voyage.

The PNG Solution

After Kevin Rudd took over from Julia Gillard as Prime Minister in 2013, one of the government's first actions was to announce a new refugee resettlement plan. The plan, which was developed in agreement with the Papua New Guinean Prime Minister Peter O'Neill, was called the 'Regional Resettlement Arrangement between Australia and Papua New Guinea'. This new plan became known simply as the 'PNG Solution'. Under the PNG Solution, any asylum seeker arriving by boat without a valid visa would be refused settlement in Australia, even if found to be a refugee. Instead the asylum seeker would be resettled in Papua New Guinea. The intent of this plan was to remove any attraction or pull factor for asylum seekers to make the voyage to Australia, and in turn dismantle the business of people smugglers offering voyages.

Both major parties welcomed the PNG Solution in an effort to appear tough on boat people, but the policy was strongly opposed by the Greens and there were several public demonstrations in major cities.

Operation Sovereign Borders

Boat arrivals and refugees were central to the 2013 federal election campaign between the Rudd Labor Government and Liberal Opposition, led by Tony Abbott. During the election campaign, the Liberal Party proposed a range of policies that were even 'tougher' than the PNG Solution. Central to the policy was a promise to 'Stop the boats'. The policy proposed a military-led response, similar to the one proposed by the Howard Government in 2001. It involved either 'towing' or 'turning' back any boats discovered on course for Australia, and included new proposals to buy any boats from people smugglers in Indonesia.

After being elected prime minister in 2013, Tony Abbott set about implementing these new policies under the name 'Operation Sovereign Borders'. During his first days in office, the policy created some diplomatic tensions with Indonesia. Indonesian officials complained publicly that their government had not been consulted on the policy and argued that the plan could interfere with Indonesia's sovereignty as a country.

Commitment to multiculturalism

Even though the political debate on migration in recent years has focused almost exclusively on boat people, Australia's commitment to a policy of multiculturalism has remained strong and is widely seen by Australians as successful. Despite some attempts by the Howard Government to revert to a policy of integration, multiculturalism has remained the dominant migration policy for almost 40 years and has been reinforced by successive governments.

In 2008 the Rudd Government announced the creation of the Australian Multicultural Advisory Council (AMAC). The council's purpose was to advise the government on 'practical approaches' to overcoming



Source 3 People from all over the world have chosen to become Australian citizens.

racism and intolerance and promoting diversity. The Gillard Government reaffirmed its commitment to multicultural policy in 2011, as illustrated by the quote in Source 4. It remains to be seen how future governments will approach the issue, but the success of multiculturalism in Australia today suggests any going back to the historical policies of the 20th century is unlikely.

Source 4

> Australia's multicultural policy embraces our shared values and cultural traditions. It also allows those who choose to call Australia home the right to practise and share in their cultural traditions and languages within the law and free from discrimination.
>
> Australia is a multicultural nation. In all, since 1945, seven million people have migrated to Australia. Today, one in four of Australia's 22 million people were born overseas, 44 per cent were born overseas or have a parent who was, and four million speak a language other than English. We speak [more than] 260 languages and identify with more than 270 ancestries. Australia is and will remain a multicultural society.
>
> From *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, Australian Government, 2011

Check your learning 9.9

Remember and understand

1 What was the Malaysia Solution and why did it fail?

2 Explain the differences between the Pacific Solution, the PNG Solution and the policy of 'Stop the boats'.

Apply and analyse

3 Look at the information provided in Source 2 showing boat arrivals. How does your study of history help you explain the variations in boat arrivals in Australia between 1976 and 2010?

4 Looking at this section and the last section, analyse how successive governments since the 1970s have viewed multiculturalism.

Evaluate and create

5 Governments since the early 1990s starting with the Keating Government have proposed tougher and tougher measures to deter asylum seekers arriving by sea. Looking at the graph of boat arrivals in Source 2, and considering the push and pull factors looked at earlier in this chapter, evaluate how effective you think these policies have been.

9B rich task

The *Tampa* crisis

On 23 August 2001, two vessels set sail from different ports. A Norwegian freighter called the *Tampa* left Fremantle headed towards Singapore. The *Palapa* left Java, heading towards Australia. On board the *Palapa* were 438 asylum seekers, most of whom were fleeing the Taliban regime in Afghanistan. The paths of the two vessels would cross in the Indian Ocean, creating an incident that would see Australia attract international criticism for the way it was handled.

On 25 August, the *Palapa* was spotted drifting without power, and the Australian Coastwatch called for shipping to help rescue its passengers. Captain Arne Rinnan on board the *Tampa* diverted his ship to assist the *Palapa*. Australian authorities told Rinnan to take those he had rescued to Indonesia. They informed him he would be prosecuted if he attempted to take the asylum seekers to Australian territory.

Rinnan attempted to turn towards Indonesia, despite Christmas Island being the closest land. However, the asylum seekers on board the *Tampa* became distressed and demanded to be taken to Australia. Responsible for ensuring the safety of his vessel, and with several asylum seekers becoming increasingly ill, Rinnan turned for Christmas Island.

The context of the incident was an impending federal election in Australia. To show firm leadership against asylum seekers arriving by boat, Prime Minister Howard rejected Rinnan's request to land the refugees. When the *Tampa* refused to leave, the Howard Government ordered troops from the Australian Army's Special Air Services Regiment to board the vessel. Norway responded by condemning Australia in the United Nations as 'inhumane and contravening international law'.

Source 1

> I have seen most of what there is to see in this profession, but what I experienced on this trip is the worst. When we asked for food and medicine for the refugees, the Australians sent commando troops onboard. This created a very high tension among the refugees. After an hour of checking the refugees, the troops agreed to give medical assistance to some of them … The soldiers obviously didn't like their mission.
>
> Excerpt of an interview with the *Tampa*'s captain, Arne Rinnan, in *Norway Today*



Source 2 Many of the asylum seekers on board the *Tampa* feared returning to Afghanistan.

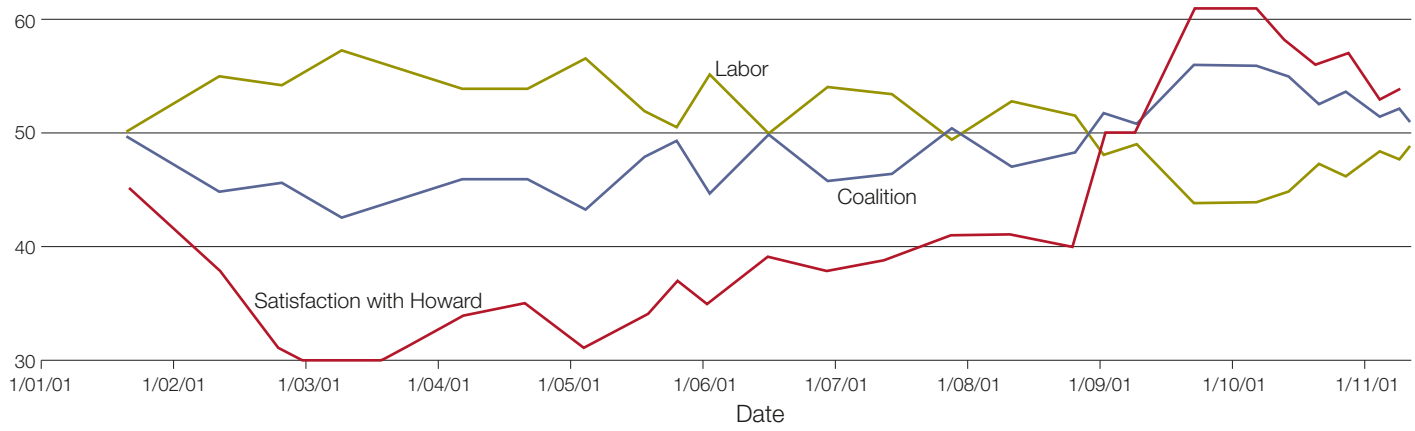
After frantic negotiations, Howard organised a $16.5 million deal to allow the asylum seekers to land on the tiny Pacific island of Nauru, his 'Pacific Solution'. A Nielsen poll showed that 74 per cent of Australians approved of Howard's handling of the *Tampa* affair (see Source 3). On 5 October, Howard called an election for 10 November, and ran on the slogan, 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come'.

From Nauru, New Zealand took 208 asylum seekers. Sweden, Canada and Norway each took 10; a further 179 Afghans, four Sri Lankans and three Pakistanis were convinced to return home. Australia ended up accepting just 28 of the 438 asylum seekers from the *Palapa*.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Process and synthesise information from a range of sources for use as evidence in a historical argument

The primary sources that historians use to form opinions and arguments about the *Tampa* crisis can tell different stories. It is the job of historians to analyse these sources,



Source 3 Newspoll showing Prime Minister John Howard's approval ratings in 2001 – approval increased significantly around the time of the *Tampa* incident (the *Australian*, November 2001)

identify what evidence they provide to support or refute particular arguments, and come to a conclusion about their usefulness and reliability. It is important to identify who created each source and the reason why it was created. That way you can identify any potential bias. Once you have done this, you can write your argument, using the sources as evidence. You should explain why particular sources support your argument, and give reasons why the sources that disagree with you are not as important or valid.

Apply the skill

1 Examine Sources 1, 2, and 3 carefully. Copy the table in Source 4 into your notebook.

Source 4

	Source 1	Source 2	Source 3
What evidence does this source provide about the *Tampa* crisis?			
Who wrote or created it?			
Why was the source created?			
Is the source reliable?			

2 Once you have completed the table, use the information you have gathered to write a historical argument about the *Tampa* incident, using the plan provided below.

Title: Was Australia's treatment of asylum seekers aboard the *Tampa* justified?

Introduction: The *Tampa* crisis occurred when … (introduce the context of your piece and focus on the origins of the asylum seekers and the political situation in Australia at the time).

Paragraph 1: Some sources say … (explain which sources describe the asylum seekers' background and give examples of some of the conditions they were fleeing in Afghanistan).

Paragraph 2: However, other sources say … (explain which sources indicate that Australia's response to the situation was acceptable or necessary and give examples of some of the arguments provided).

Paragraph 3: We have to be careful about which sources we use because … (explain the problems with some of the sources in terms of reliability and bias).

Conclusion: Overall, the evidence suggests … (summarise the evidence and give your informed opinion about Australia's response to the *Tampa* incident).

Extend your understanding

1 The treatment of asylum seekers who reach Australia by boat continues to provoke debate and divide public opinion today. Do some research on the Internet to find out more about:

a how and why the countries of origin for asylum seekers have changed since 2001

b how Australian government policy towards asylum seekers has changed during this period.

Present a report of your findings in class.

9.10 The impact of the Vietnam War on migration

Before the end of the Vietnam War there were less than 2000 Vietnamese-born people living in Australia. These people were mainly tertiary students, the wives of Australian servicemen or orphans of the war. After the end of the war, when US and Australian troops withdrew and South Vietnam was overtaken by the communist North, people fleeing through neighbouring Asian countries began to arrive in Australia by boat after perilous voyages by sea.

During the war years it is estimated more than half the Vietnamese population was displaced. Huge numbers of Vietnamese would leave Vietnam to seek asylum in countries around the world and Australia would enter international agreements to accept refugees in large numbers not seen before. Most of the people would remain in Australia and begin new lives here, leaving a permanent impression on Australian culture and making positive contributions to the country. This section will proved a detailed case study of the Vietnam War and how if affected migration to Australia. We will look briefly at the background and how it unfolded, and its affect on Vietnamese migration to Australia. It will also look at some important Vietnamese and the contributions they have made to Australian culture and society today.



Source 1 Refugees from Vietnam land safely at Darwin Harbour, November 1977

Background to the Vietnam War

The Vietnam War was a military conflict fought between North Vietnam and South Vietnam. The conflict broke out in 1955 between pro-communist and pro-capitalist countries and was part of the Cold War. North Vietnam was supported by the USSR, China and North Korea, while South Vietnam was supported by the United States with its allies: Thailand, Australia, New Zealand, and the Philippines. The war was part of the American effort to prevent the spread of communism in Asia. Australia strongly supported this anti-communist stance and became involved in the war in 1962. During the Vietnam War – referred to in Vietnam as the American War – Australia fought alongside the United States, intervening in what was an internal conflict in Vietnam.

Historians have traced the beginnings of Vietnamese society back to as early as 2879 BCE. Since then, the Vietnamese have fought to preserve their independence. A failure of other countries to understand this fundamental element of Vietnamese society was at the root of the Vietnam War. Since the mid-19th century, Vietnam had been part of the French Empire. During World War II, however, Japan invaded Vietnam and treated the Vietnamese very badly. During this time, a Vietnamese communist revolutionary by the name of Ho Chi Minh led a resistance group to fight both the Japanese and the French occupation. In May 1941, Ho Chi Minh founded a communist coalition (known as the Viet Minh) to fight for Vietnamese independence from Japan.

After Japan's surrender in 1945, the Viet Minh formed a government and declared Vietnam's independence. However, British forces sent to Vietnam to accept the Japanese surrender were ordered by the Allies to restore French rule. The Viet Minh saw this as a betrayal, as they had supported the Allies during World War II and now expected to have independence recognised. By December 1946, the French and the Viet Minh were involved in a war that would last for another nine years.

By 1952, Vietnam had become divided. The Viet Minh had control of the north, and the French had set up a rival government in the south under the Vietnamese Emperor Bao Dai. The Soviet Union and China offered support and recognition to the Viet Minh in the north, while the USA and Britain did the same for Bao Dai in the south. With the election of Eisenhower in the USA in November 1952, the war was no longer regarded as a colonial war by the USA. Instead it became seen as a war between the free world and communism.



Source 2 Captured Viet Cong member, 27 January 1967

Bao Dai was ousted from power in the south by a man named Ngo Dinh Diem in 1955. Ngo Dinh Diem was a corrupt landowner who had little support from the Vietnamese people. However, because he was against communism, he had the support of the USA. Diem's police tortured and killed peasants suspected of supporting the Viet Minh.

In 1957, the Viet Minh in North Vietnam began a guerrilla war (a war fought by small, independent groups of fighters) against South Vietnam in order to reunify their country. The United States, under President Kennedy, sent American advisers to support the anti-communist government of South Vietnam. It also sent military advisers to help train and support the South Vietnamese army.

In December 1960, the National Liberation Front for South Vietnam was formed in opposition to Diem's government in South Vietnam. It allied with North Vietnam and became known as the Viet Cong. North Vietnam dramatically increased its military assistance to the Viet Cong, which then began attacking South Vietnamese military units. The Viet Cong continued to use guerrilla warfare against the government of South Vietnam and the United States through the war.

Australian involvement in the war

Australia's prime minister at the start of the Vietnam conflict was Robert Menzies. He fully supported the United States' anti-communist policy, and was a committed ally throughout the war. Menzies was a strong believer in the domino theory – the belief that, if Vietnam was allowed to fall to communism, then the rest of South-East Asia would quickly follow, just like dominoes falling one after another. In 1962, the Australian government committed its first military advisers to South Vietnam. That initial commitment of



Source 3 Australian troops during the Vietnam War, 8 June 1965

30 men would grow to 60 000 over the next decade. It would also lead to the reintroduction of **conscription** for overseas military service, an issue that divided Australian society.

Five hundred Australians died during the Vietnam War, including 185 National Servicemen who had been conscripted to fight. By fighting for the South Vietnamese, the Australian military worked closely with many Vietnamese. Until the deployment of Australian soldiers to Afghanistan in 2001, Vietnam had been Australia's longest war.

How the war ended

Over the years, the Vietnam War became increasingly drawn out. Although it was a guerrilla war, all levels of the armed forces were involved. The conflict is referred to as the 'first television war' because television news crews accompanied soldiers into the field. News bulletins reported ever-increasing death tolls. Politicians continued to speak of a 'light at the end of the tunnel', while television viewers were becoming depressingly familiar with the sight of body bags and coffins.

In 1968, North Vietnamese and Viet Cong troops launched one of the largest military campaigns of the war against South Vietnam, the United States and its allies. It was known as the Tet Offensive and involved a series of surprise attacks on cities in the south. Although the offensive was eventually repelled, many troops were killed and any illusions that the war effort was going well for the United States and its allies were shattered. With public confidence and support dwindling in both the United States and Australia, politicians looked for ways to remove themselves from a conflict that looked to have no end.

Australia pulled out of the war in 1972, and the United States followed in 1973. All foreign support personnel and advisers pulled out in 1975 as the North Vietnamese approached Saigon. As the tanks rolled into the former Presidential Palace in Saigon, the USA calculated the cost of involvement in the conflict. More than 58 000 Americans had died.

The final result of the conflict was the collapse of the South Vietnamese government in 1975. That year, North Vietnamese troops gained control of South Vietnam and the country was reunified. In the aftermath of the war, both the United States and Australia opened their doors to refugees from the conflict. As a result, the Vietnam War changed the nature of migration to Australia.

Check your learning 9.10

Remember and understand

1 Who did the Vietnamese side with during World War II?
2 When did Australia pull out of Vietnam?
3 In what ways did the South Vietnamese provide support to the Americans and Australians during the Vietnam War?
4 In what year did the North finally overtake the South?

Apply and analyse

5 Why was the Tet Offensive of 1968 so important in the Vietnam War?
6 What was the 'domino theory'? Do you think it provides an appropriate justification for Australian involvement in the Vietnam War?

9.11 Vietnamese emigration: moral obligations

While fighting in Vietnam, the US and Australian troops had relied heavily on the South Vietnamese people for supplies and support. They required translators, administrative support staff and guides simply to function as an armed force. There were also a range of support services used to maintain the army in the field, such as shopkeepers, bar owners, taxi drivers and owners of accommodation used by soldiers. When the war ended, many people in the United States and Australia felt they owed a debt to these people and wanted to help them.

Re-education camps

At the end of the war, anyone who had worked with the United States was regarded as a traitor by North Vietnamese and Viet Cong troops. The victorious communists set up re-education camps to force those influenced by the West to change their previous loyalties. Investigations in the USA have concluded that about one million Vietnamese were imprisoned in re-education camps after the end of the war in April 1975, but there are many debates about the actual statistics. It is thought that about 165 000 people died in these camps, and that torture and ill treatment did take place. Generally, people were held in these camps from 3 to 10 years, but some people were locked up for up to 17 years. About 150 camps were built, and in the years following the war around one in three Vietnamese families had a relative in a prison.

As the re-education camps were set up, it appeared to many in the former South Vietnam that the West had simply abandoned them. The lucky ones had managed to secure passage with the Americans during the frantic final hours of the evacuation of Saigon. It was the million left behind who were to be the greatest test of moral obligation for the West.

Vietnamese displaced persons, refugees and asylum seekers

Given the horrors of war and the fear of imprisonment in re-education camps after reunification, many Vietnamese became desperate to leave the country. Some chose to leave because they feared political persecution because of their pro-American beliefs. Others felt their opportunities to prosper in a communist Vietnam would be limited by the new political system.

The United Nations Human Rights Commission (UNHCR) places people who flee from their country in various categories. Internally displaced persons are those who have been forced to flee their residence because of armed conflicts while they were still living within their country. Stateless people are those who are not considered a citizen of a particular state. Vietnam in the late 1970s had people in both these situations.

The greatest number who fled, however, were refugees (see Source 1) and asylum seekers (see Source 2). The UNHCR is regarded as the authority in determining the status of people after armed conflicts. These two definitions are still used today when assessing the victims of conflicts throughout the world who seek safer lives and more secure futures for their families.

Source 1

> [A refugee is someone who] owing to 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; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.
>
> UNHCR guidelines

Source 2

> [An asylum seeker is] an individual who is seeking international protection. In countries with individualized refugee status determination procedures, an asylum-seeker is someone whose claim has not yet been finally decided on by the country in which he or she has submitted it. Not every asylum-seeker will ultimately be recognized as a refugee, but every refugee is initially an asylum-seeker.
>
> UNHCR guidelines

Boat people

As discussed earlier, the term boat people, has become highly politicised in Australian society since the 1970s. Border security has long been a concern for our island nation with a relatively small population. Boats have been arriving in Australia since first settlement, but the arrival of Vietnamese refugees began a new era of foreign migration.

The first boat refugees from Vietnam to arrive in Australia landed in Darwin in April 1976. This was a year after the end of the Vietnam War, and these new arrivals were driven by fear and desperation. According to government figures, the initial boat was followed by a further 2058 boats from Vietnam, with the final boat arriving in August 1981. The composition of the Australian population was changing, and the stereotype of a 'real Australian' was being challenged.

The journey to Australia

For most Vietnamese boat people the journey was horrendous. After bribing local officials, they took to dangerous seas, often on makeshift boats and rafts. The main hope was to drift into open sea lanes, and be picked up by a vessel that could take them to a safe destination. Sturdier vessels did make it as far as Australia, but many only made it as far as neighbouring countries such as Thailand.

Before leaving Vietnam, families had to sell all their belongings, and any money was usually converted to gold, which was easier to carry. Unfortunately, that made the boats prime targets for pirates, particularly along the coast of Thailand. Pirates became a major risk for potential refugees, and added further danger to a voyage that was already risky with storms and rough seas.



Source 3 This boat containing Vietnamese refugees was moored in Darwin Harbour on 5 October 1981.



Source 4 A refugee camp in Asia for Vietnamese refugees

There are no clear statistics, but estimates suggest 250000 to 500000 refugees perished in their attempts to leave Vietnam. There are graphic accounts by survivors of robbery, rape and murder by Thai pirates. Families were typically split before leaving Vietnam in the hope that at least one would survive and reach safety. Those fleeing survived on very little food and water, and with a voyage to Darwin lasting four weeks, many arrived in Australia in an emaciated condition.

Refugee camps

The UNHCR recognised the scope of the tragedy that was unfolding and established refugee camps in Malaysia, Hong Kong, Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia to try and process the claims of the fleeing Vietnamese. Their work won the UNHCR the Nobel Peace Prize for 1981. From these camps, refugees were processed and resettled in countries willing to accept them.

The main countries to accept Vietnamese refugees were the United States (823000), Australia and Canada (137000 each), France (96000), Germany (40000), the United Kingdom (19000) and Japan (11000).

Check your learning 9.11

Remember and understand

1 When did the first boat refugees from Vietnam arrive in Australia?
2 Why might it be so difficult to get accurate historical information on the 're-education' period in Vietnamese history?
3 In what countries did the UNHCR establish camps for the Vietnamese who were fleeing?

Apply and analyse

4 In what ways can Australia be seen to have had a moral obligation to accept Vietnamese refugees at the end of the war?
5 What is the difference between a refugee and an asylum seeker? How are they similar? How are they different? Use a Venn diagram to organise your ideas.

9.12 Significant individuals: the contribution of immigrants to Australia

One of the great achievements of Australia's acceptance of Vietnamese boat people has been the number of outstanding young Australians of Vietnamese heritage that have gone on to contribute to Australian life. Two Young Australians of the Year were Vietnamese refugees, and Vietnamese Australians have made major contributions to Australian culture.

Vietnamese immigrants have spread throughout Australia, enriching local communities when they start businesses. They have introduced new flavours with traditional Vietnamese cooking and brought new ideas to Australian thinking. The Vietnamese immigrants have established a reputation for hard work and an enthusiasm for community life.

A study of the significant contributions that talented young Australians of Vietnamese background have made reveal the true value Australia has gained from accepting the first 'boat people'.

Tan Le

Tan Le was named Young Australian of the Year in 1998 for her work in the community as well as outstanding contributions to telecommunications and business. Born in Vietnam in 1977, she arrived in Australia as a refugee in 1982. By the time she was 18 she was president of the Vietnamese Community of Footscray, finding jobs for Vietnamese Australians. In 2000 she was admitted as a barrister and lawyer, and in 2003 co-founded Emotiv, the neuro-engineering company that developed a breakthrough interface technology for digital media, taking inputs directly from the brain. It is regarded as technology that utterly transforms the way we interact with computers. By 2011 Tan Le was named by *Forbes Magazine* as one of 50 names to watch because of her work on a headset that takes orders directly from the brain.

Anh Do

Anh Do was born in Vietnam in 1977 and arrived in Australia in 1980 after leaving Vietnam on a fishing boat and reaching a refugee camp in Malaysia. Do chronicled the family's journey from Vietnam to Malaysia crammed aboard a fishing boat in his award-winning memoir *The Happiest Refugee*. After a degree in Business/Law, Anh Do decided that life as a stand-up comedian was preferable to the corporate world, and he developed a reputation on Sydney's comedy circuit as a witty observer of life as an immigrant. His acceptance into mainstream Australia is reflected by his popularity. He has made appearances on television shows such as *Dancing with the Stars* and *The Footy Show*. The popular and critical success of *The Happiest Refugee* showed the Australian public's willingness to engage with refugee stories.



Source 1 Tan Le was named Young Australian of the Year in 1998.



Source 2 Anh Do and Khoa Do



Source 3 Nam Le at the Melbourne Writer's Festival, 24 August 2008

Khoa Do

Khoa Do is Anh Do's brother, and was born in Ho Chi Minh City in 1979. He has a passion for drama, and this was the vehicle he used to reach other Vietnamese youths in Sydney's western suburbs. His first short film, *Delivery Day*, looked at the problems for a Vietnamese girl of balancing demands in Australian society. It was nominated for an AFI award in 2001. He was named Young Australian of the Year in 2005 for showing 'leadership, compassion, a will to inspire and inform Australians on issues that affect our communities'. In 2006, his film *Footy Legends* used his experience of Rugby League as a comedic bridge across cultures and featured his brother in the starring role. He has continued to use film to focus on Australian life, and his 2011 film *Falling for Sahara* details the lives of Ethiopian and Somali refugees in Melbourne.

Nam Le

Nam Le was born in Vietnam in 1977, and came to Australia by boat as a refugee when he was less than a year old. He grew up in Melbourne, graduating from the University of Melbourne with Honours in Arts and Law. He worked briefly in law, but discovered his passion for writing. In 2004, he attended a writing workshop in Iowa, and completed a Masters degree in Creative Writing. His first book, *The Boat*, dominated literary awards in 2008. It is a collection of short stories, ranging from material that echoes his memories of Vietnam to stories of a Hiroshima orphan and a 14-year-old Colombian assassin. Among the host of international awards Le received was the Dylan Thomas Award for writers under 30. It confirmed his arrival as one of the most exciting writers of his generation.

Check your learning 9.12

Remember and understand

1 How did each of these four people reach Australia?
2 What contribution has each made to Australia?

Apply and analyse

3 What do you think would happen to each of these people if they arrived in Australia the same way today?
4 Watch Khoa Do's film *Footy Legends*. How does it help you understand the experiences of migrant groups when they come to Australia?

Evaluate and create

5 Do you think these successes justify the post-Vietnam War immigration policy?
6 Undertake some further research and do some reading on the Internet about other significant Vietnamese Australians. Prepare a one-page profile including a photograph, outlining this person's achievements and contribution to society.

9C rich task

SBS and the *Thoi Su* controversy

A large proportion of Vietnamese Australians are either refugees or related to the refugees who fled to Australia after the collapse of the South Vietnamese government. Many of them are still haunted by the ill treatment and persecution they received from the communist government before they escaped. This issue came back into public attention in October 2003 when Australian multicultural broadcaster SBS began screening a Vietnamese-language news service, *Thoi Su* (which translates as Current Affairs).

The 35-minute bulletin was produced by the state-controlled VTV4 and broadcast by SBS as part of its WorldWatch line-up of news and current affairs from around the world. On 16 October 2003 the Melbourne *Herald Sun* published an opinion piece by Vietnamese Community in Australia (VCA) national president, Trung Doan, who criticised SBS for acting as a mouthpiece for state propaganda.

Source 1

> SBS TV's target audience are Vietnamese Australians, the great majority refugees or their reunited relatives. Many were among the one million put into labour camps when Saigon fell, or the millions whose houses and other properties were confiscated by the regime. They do not have to go far to see their former tormentors' faces and propaganda – it's right there, in their home.
>
> … I have met and heard of scores of non-viewers around Australia who have lost sleep or had nightmarish flashbacks just because they know the program is there.

Extract from 'Every Day SBS Twists the Knife', Trung Doan, *Herald Sun*, 16 October 2003

Over the following two months, thousands of Vietnamese Australians protested outside SBS's offices in Melbourne and Sydney to demand an end to the *Thoi Su* broadcasts.



Source 2 Members of the Vietnamese community protesting outside the SBS office in Sydney, 2003

SBS Television initially resisted the complaints. Appearing before a Senate estimates committee, SBS managing director Nigel Milan argued for editorial independence and suggested that VCA did not represent the majority of the Vietnamese community.

Source 3

> Mr Milan: It is a bit hard to say in terms of individuals because the no campaign is highly organised. There are coupons to cut out on the front of the Vietnamese language newspapers and send in to SBS, whereas the yes campaign is –
>
> Senator Conroy: Are you suggesting that this is like TV Week – one person is cutting out 10 coupons and sending them in? Is that what you think is happening?
>
> Mr Milan: Yes. The switchboard identified 23 calls from the same person on one evening. So it is quite an organised campaign. Up until this week, the numbers have been running substantially in favour of the no vote, probably on a 10 to one ratio, but since the demonstration and the issue getting broader community awareness, the yes vote is beginning to increase.

Extract from a meeting of the Senate Environment Communications Information Technology and the Arts Legislation Committee, 3 November 2003

The campaign against *Thoi Su* was well organised and had the support of high profile media commentators, including Alan Jones and Andrew Bolt. VCA delegations visited the offices of at least 20 MPs, including Communications Minister Daryl Williams and Labor's spokesman Lindsay Tanner.

In December 2003 SBS conceded to pressure and withdrew *Thoi Su* from broadcast. It also amended its code of practice 'to provide guidance for future additions to the WorldWatch line-up'.

Source 4

> [SBS] Television really acted very much as a broadcaster, you know: 'We will determine what goes to air based on quality and our charter', and they never really talked directly to people. What the Vietnamese were trying to say was, 'We'd really like to talk before you put something like that on the air!' They're not saying, 'Never, ever put this on, or else!' They were trying to have a conversation with us.

SBS Radio presenter Olya Booyar. Quotation from *The SBS Story: The Challenge of Cultural Diversity*, Ien Ang, Gay Hawkins and Lamia Dabboussy, 2008, page 43

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identify the origin, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources

Historians use primary and secondary sources to gather evidence about the past. Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but sources will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of the time in which they were created. All sources are affected by the author's own point of view, and in some cases an author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or persuaded to ignore certain facts. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate sources. Historians need to identify:

- **origin** – what a source is and where it came from
- **context** – what life was like when the source was created
- **purpose** – why the source was created.

Follow these steps to identify the origin, context and purpose of a source:

Step 1: Identify the origin

To identify the origin of a source, ask yourself:

- What type of source is it?
- Who wrote, produced or made the source? What do I know about their age, gender, occupation, position in society or religious background?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
  - How old is the source?
  - Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
  - Is the source complete?

Step 2: Identify the context

To identify the context of a source, ask yourself:

- What was life like when this source was created?
- What other events may have been happening at the time that might have influenced the author or source?
- What was the political environment like at the time the source was created?
- What sort of common prejudices and social norms existed at the time which may have influenced the author or the source?

Step 3: Identify the purpose

To identify the purpose of a source, ask yourself:

- Why was the source written or created?
- Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
- Does the author have anything to gain personally from the source?
- Does it give a detached, balanced account?
- Were there political reasons for the creation of the source?

Apply the skill

1 Write a 400-word report analysing two of the sources that appear in this section. For each source, make sure you explain:
   - **a** what the source is and who was responsible for creating it
   - **b** the political environment in Australia at the time the source was created
   - **c** the reason why the source was created.

   Be sure to work through each of the questions listed above while conducting your research.

2 Conduct some further research into the history of Australia's relationship with Vietnam since the end of the Vietnam War and add anything you consider relevant to your original report.

Extend your understanding

1 The *Thoi Su* controversy spread outside the Vietnamese–Australian community and led to arguments within the public at large both for and against its continued broadcast. Write a letter to the editor presenting your opinion on the issue. Your argument should take into account the perspectives presented by both sides.

9.13 The changing face of Australia

Australia has always been a culturally diverse continent. Before the arrival of the British, it is estimated that there were around 700 Indigenous cultural groups speaking more than 250 different languages across Australia. When the First Fleet arrived in Sydney Cove in 1788, there were around 60 different nationalities among the crew and convicts. Although the White Australia policy of the early 20th century sought to promote a monocultural Australia by restricting entry to non-Europeans, this was ultimately unsuccessful. Over time, Australia opened up and embraced a diverse society made up of many cultures, backgrounds and traditions.



Source 1 Australian cricketer Usman Khawaja – one of many Australian sporting personalities born overseas

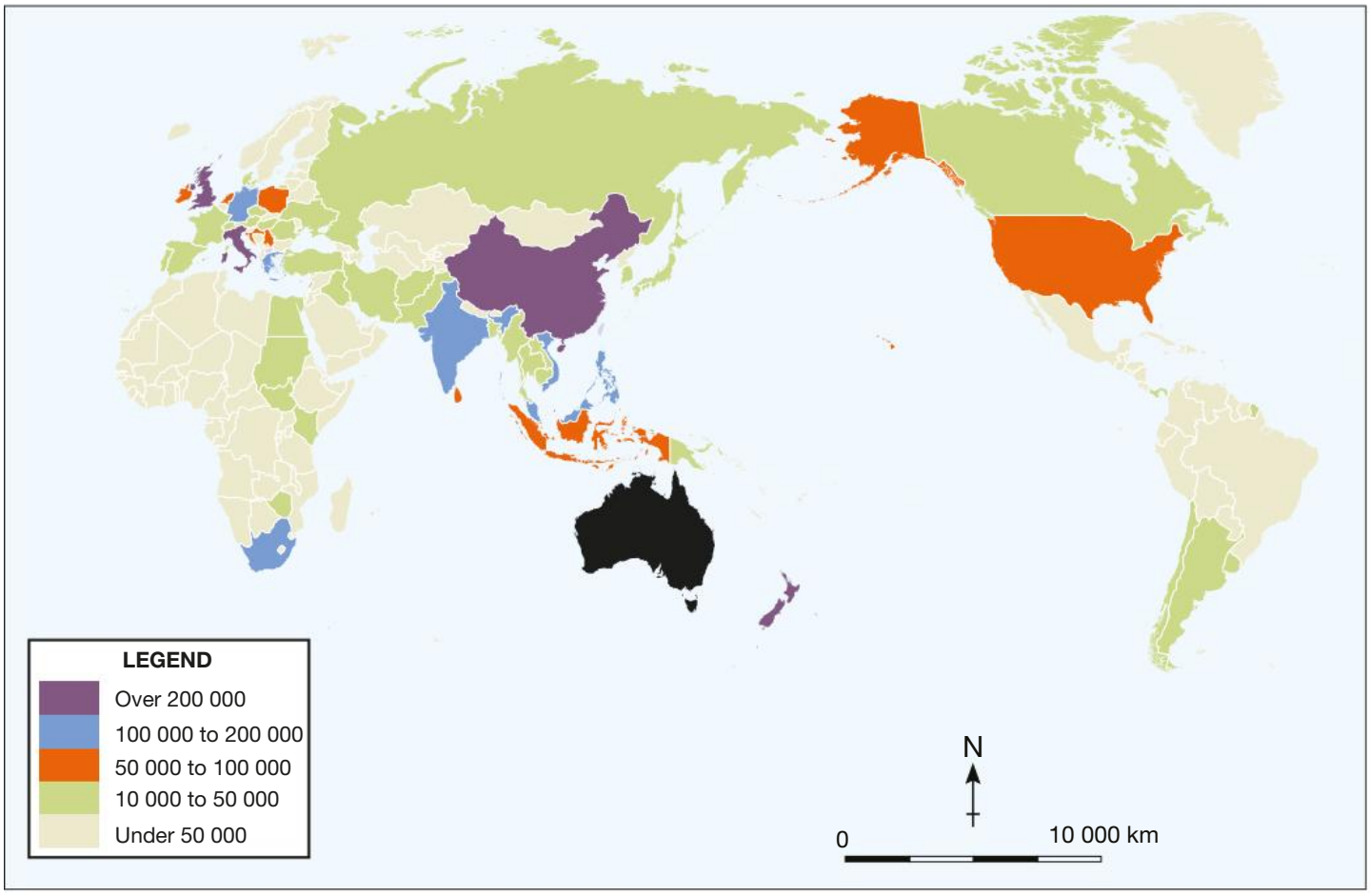
Multiculturalism at work

Source 2 shows the origins of people who make up the population of modern Australia. As we have seen, the countries of origin of Australia's migrants have changed continuously since the time of Federation in response to world events and changes in government policies. For example, in the 1960s around 45 per cent of all immigrants to Australia were born in Great Britain and Ireland. Although British-born immigrants were still the largest group in 2011, this number had declined to about 19 per cent. In addition to people from Britain, significant numbers of migrants now also come from New Zealand, China, India, Italy and Vietnam to settle in Australia. More recently, the Philippines, South Africa, Malaysia and Germany have also become major sources of migrants to Australia. These changes represent a significant departure from previous eras of Australian immigration history. As the White Australia policy was dismantled, other groups of non-European migrants increased. For example, Vietnamese immigration after the Vietnam War increased and Chinese and Indian immigrants also began to arrive. After the migration reforms of the 20th century and the establishment of multiculturalism, refugees from various trouble spots around the world, including Lebanon, Somalia, Sudan, Iraq and Afghanistan, began to arrive, making Australia their home.

Embracing diversity

In 2011, the Labor government launched a new policy called *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*. The policy was designed to reaffirm the importance of a culturally diverse and socially cohesive nation. As an indication of the changes in Australia since 1945, it was released in 11 different languages: Arabic, Chinese (simplified and

NUMBERS OF AUSTRALIAN PERMANENT RESIDENTS IN 2011 BY COUNTRY OF BIRTH



Source 2

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics

traditional scripts), Dinka, French, German, Greek, Hindi, Italian, Spanish and Vietnamese. The geographical and cultural spread of these languages represents the history of Australian post-war immigration. In a speech at the time, Prime Minister Julia Gillard acknowledged her own immigrant roots. Gillard was the sixth Australian prime minister to have been born overseas:

Source 3

> Australia is a multicultural country. We sing 'Australians all' because we are. Our country's story is the story of our people in this place. Australia has provided a new home and a chance at a better life for millions of people. I am a migrant. My family embraced the sense of opportunity and community that they found in Australia and the possibilities for their children that this multicultural country offered them. I remember the debates in the family home as my parents decided to become citizens of this nation. And having chosen this country, my family have loved it with a fierce determination and passion ever since.
>
> Prime Minister Julia Gillard in the foreword to *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, Australian Government, 2011



Source 4 As a young girl, Julia Gillard came to Australia with her family from Wales.

Migration and global relations

Throughout Australian history, migration has been closely tied to its relationships with other countries around the world. Australia's history as a British colony and maintenance of close political ties has seen Britain retain its position as Australia's dominant source of migrants. Australia's close historical, political and cultural links to New Zealand, together with its close proximity, has seen a rise in the number of New Zealand immigrants – now second only to Britain as a source of Australia's migrants. Australia's historical relationships with countries in the Asian region such as Vietnam and China have also influenced the numbers of migrants choosing to settle here.

The influence of migration on foreign relations has also been two-way – close foreign relations have encouraged certain groups of migrants to travel to Australia, but the arrival of certain migrant groups has had the effect of strengthening ties between the two countries. For example, Australia's close ties with Britain have enabled it to take advantage of its membership of the Commonwealth of Nations, an international organisation of 53 countries with ties to the former British Empire. This relationship has permitted close links on trade, travel, foreign policy and encouraged other cooperation.

The arrival of large numbers of migrants has also improved Australia's relations with other countries around the world. The close familial and community bonds between people in Italy, Greece, China and Vietnam and migrant families from those countries in Australia have led to closer trade ties, cultural understanding and international cooperation. Informal estimates quoted by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade suggest Australia's Greek community could be as large as 600000, with Melbourne often described as the third largest Greek 'city' in the world after Athens and Thessaloniki.



Source 5 Close familial ties between people in Italy, Greece and other countries with migrants who live in Australia have led to deeper understanding and better international cooperation.

key**concept:** Significance

The Indian student controversy

Although Australia's international ties have been strengthened through migration, these ties can also result in new challenges. In 2009 the Australian and Indian media published reports of crimes and robberies against Indians living in Australia (particularly in Melbourne and Sydney). Australia has close ties with India and a significant Indian population (more than 1.5 per cent of all Australians). India is also the second largest source of international students for Australian institutions, and in 2009 there were more than 120 000 Indian students enrolled to study in Australia.

Although police evidence suggested that a number of crimes may have been racially motivated, a number were also opportunistic. Although it does not appear that any of the crimes were linked, the Australian and Indian media reported them all as racially motivated. This led to an Indian government investigation into the attacks. The investigation concluded that out of the 152 reported assaults against Indian students in Australia that year, 23 incidents had involved 'racial overtones'.

The findings received widespread media coverage and resulted in a strong negative reaction in India against Australia. As a direct result of these events, there was a 46 per cent drop in Indian students applying to study in Australia. As international education is Australia's second largest export after mining, the events had significant consequences for the Australian government and Australian educational institutions.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 6
There were 152 assaults against Indian students reported in Australia in 2009. Of those, 23 were believed to have 'racial overtones'.

Check your learning 9.13

Remember and understand

1 How many different Indigenous cultural groups are estimated to have lived in Australia before the arrival of the British in 1788?
2 Which countries are the largest sources of migrants to Australia today?
3 How did Australia's close immigration ties affect the Indian student controversy of 2009? What effect did the incident have on Australia's economy?

Apply and analyse

4 Research the background of one wave of migrants arriving in Australia since 1975. What are the push factors that caused the group to leave their homes for Australia? How were they received in Australia and what influences has the group had on Australia's culture today?

9.14 Challenges and positive developments

Any migrant attempting to build a new life in an unfamiliar country will inevitably face challenges. Trying to adapt to a new language, culture, laws, values, food and other ways of life can be difficult. But the reverse can also present challenges – the arrival of new or unfamiliar people and customs into another group's culture can lead to misunderstandings, or in some cases suspicion and tension. While multiculturalism aims to embrace these differences, sometimes community tensions can arise and increase. While some see such tensions as a sign of failure on the part of multicultural policy, others see these problems as an opportunity to look closely at ourselves and draw strength from our differences.

One such event that drew widespread media attention and polarised certain sections of the community took place in the Sydney suburb of Cronulla in 2005.

Embracing diversity

The ability of Australia to openly discuss issues and adapt to the changing cultural mix of its citizens is a sign of its success as a multicultural nation. The following examples show how two of Australia's well-known institutions are making concerted efforts to be inclusive of other cultures and more representative of their communities.

After the Cronulla riots a program called 'On the same wave' was established to encourage Muslims to train as lifesavers. It was run by Surf Life Saving Australia in partnership with Sutherland Council (where Cronulla is located) and the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs. Lifesavers are an iconic part of Australian beach culture and this program was designed to make surf lifesaving clubs more inclusive and multicultural.

Surf Life Saving Australia has more than 300 clubs and around 115 000 lifesavers patrolling the country's beaches. Young volunteers from the Muslim community were asked to complete a three-month training course in summer before obtaining bronze medallions and commencing patrols.

key concept: Significance

The Cronulla riots

In December 2005, Australia was shocked by a series of riots that erupted in the Sydney beachside suburb of Cronulla.

Conflict broke out on 4 December mainly as a result of a large influx of visitors to Cronulla beach. The riots first began as a result of a dispute between a group of young men of 'Middle Eastern appearance' and volunteer lifesavers patrolling Cronulla beach. The week after the 4 December incident saw increasing tensions, partially fuelled by talkback radio programs in Sydney.

A series of SMS texts was widely circulated during the week calling on 'Aussie pride' to come to a 'Leb and wog bashing day' at North Cronulla on Sunday 11 December. A crowd of about 5000 assembled at North Cronulla beach chanting slogans and wearing clothing with racially offensive messages. A number of people were injured in violent attacks and beer bottles smashed, as police moved to restore order.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 1 A police officer trying to separate two men fighting at Cronulla



Source 2 Mecca Laalaa on Cronulla Beach in 2007 wearing a 'burqini'



Source 3 Constable Singh in his adapted police uniform

But for Muslim girls, there was an additional barrier. The outfits worn by female lifesavers were too revealing and were against traditional Muslim beliefs. So a local designer, who is of Lebanese background, came up with the 'burqini'. It is a full-length lycra suit, which is loose enough to fulfil Muslim dress requirements and light enough to enable Muslim lifesavers to swim. It comes with a built-in hijab (headscarf).

Mecca Laalaa is one of the female volunteers who completed her training to qualify as a lifesaver. Like many others, she grew up hanging out at the beach with her friends and wanted to contribute by becoming a lifesaver. She received worldwide attention when she went on patrol in her burqini (see Source 2).

Victoria Police is also actively looking at ways to attract recruits from a range of cultural backgrounds into the police force. The state of Victoria is one of Australia's most multicultural, and Victoria Police is keen for its recruits to reflect the mix of groups in the community. In 2011, the first officer of the Sikh faith was inducted into Victoria Police.

Constable Amitoj Singh wears a newly designed police-issue turban, featuring the service's checkerboard pattern (see Source 3).

Multicultural broadcasting

In 1975, the government launched two multilingual radio stations (2EA in Sydney and 3EA in Melbourne). Following their success, the government announced a new television channel that would provide programs aimed specifically at the growing number of Australian citizens for whom English was not their first or native language. This new television channel, operated by the Special Broadcasting Service (SBS), would also be a reflection of Australia's multicultural society.

The new television service made its first broadcast in April 1979 with a test transmission broadcasting a compilation of special multicultural programs on the ABC. On 24 October 1980, SBS (then called Network 0/28), made its debut with its first program, a documentary called *Who are we?*

SBS's charter is to 'provide multilingual and multicultural radio and television services that inform, educate and entertain all Australians and, in doing so, reflect Australia's multicultural society'. Since its launch, SBS has provided news programs and other shows in many different languages as well as special interest programs, including sports telecasts, for cultural minority groups.

SBS now broadcasts in more languages than any other broadcaster in the world: more than 68 on radio, more than 60 on television, and more than 50 online.

Check your learning 9.14

Remember and understand

1 What evidence is there that the Cronulla riots were motivated by racism?
2 What program was started after the Cronulla riots to promote multiculturalism on Cronulla beach?
3 How is Victoria Police attempting to ensure a police force that is representative of multicultural Australia?
4 In what year did SBS start broadcasting?

Apply and analyse

5 What evidence is there that technology played a role in the Cronulla riots? What problems does this pose for future historians researching the riots?

9D rich task

Big Australia

Australia has undergone tremendous change since the Chifley Government announced its 'populate or perish' immigration policy at the end of World War II. Our population has grown from less than 8 million in 1947 to nearly 22 million by the time of the 2011 census. As the first 'baby boomers' born in the decade after World War II enter retirement, Australia has relied on an influx of younger skilled migrants to help replace the ageing workforce. An increasing proportion of these migrants are from China and India.

In 2009, Treasury forecasts showed that Australia's population was likely to increase to more than 35 million by 2050. Much of this growth was expected to come from high rates of immigration. Labor Prime Minister Kevin Rudd stated his support for high immigration and population growth and used the term 'Big Australia' to describe the policies needed to react to it.

Rudd's support for high population growth built on high immigration was controversial. Many agreed that support for Big Australia was vital to drive innovation and the economy. However, some high profile Australians, including Greens leader Bob Brown and entrepreneur Dick Smith, questioned the sustainability of a big Australia. Others believed high immigration would damage Australian culture.

Source 1

> One in two exporters are born overseas, two thirds of our entrepreneurs, one in four Australians. Just look at a city skyline and you see Westfield, Myer, Bing Lee. Everyone who's come here has been a migrant who's created great jobs for everyone.

Excerpt of an interview with UNSW economist Tim Harcourt, on ABC's Radio National's 'Mongrel Nation' program, 4 August 2013

Source 2

> [M]uch of southwest Sydney and the suburbs of Dandenong, Sunshine and Broadmeadows in Melbourne, are now dominated by low-income NESB (non-English speaking background) migrant communities.
>
> This is not a pretty picture. Social divisions are becoming more obvious and geographically concentrated. NESB areas are being overlain by an ethnic identification …
>
> Australia is being transformed. We are losing core elements of what was once shared. Almost all could once aspire to a house and land – living in gardencity settings different only in scale from their better-off counterparts, and sharing a common language, sporting culture, and heritage.
>
> Once we go down the high-migration pathway, there may be no going back.

Sociologist Bob Birrell in an article, 'The Risks of High Migration', *Policy*, Autumn 2010

After winning the Labor leadership in June 2010, Prime Minister Julia Gillard publicly distanced Labor from Rudd's endorsement of a high migration intake. However, the government resumed its support for rapid population growth after the 2011 election.

Source 3

> [Dry Liberal says: 03:32pm | 28/09/12]
>
> I'm sick of this xenophobia masquerading as Chicken-little doomsday-ism. Whenever this topic gets raised, we have all the negative-nellies coming out of their crank-hovels to shake their heads and tut-tut about the 'dire predicament' of having a larger population in our country …
>
> We ought to be proud our Country is growing healthily like it is! What these negative-nellie chicken-little dooms-day shriekster inexplicably fail to understand is that every new addition to our population adds net potential to our wealth and power …
>
> So we'll have more migrant workers … Awesome! Now we can undertake big projects like the Snowy river hydro scheme again, perhaps a network of Dams in the tropical north and a series of pipes running inland into the interior to create a huge inland sea and irrigate the desert.

Online comment responding to an article titled 'We're Hurtling Down the Track to a Big Australia'

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Writing historical discussions that use evidence from a range of sources

Historians study the past to figure out what happened, why things happened, and how specific events and developments affected individuals and societies. The more we know about the past, the better we can understand how societies have evolved into what they are today.

The answers historians offer are all more or less educated guesses about the past, based on interpretations of various primary and secondary sources of information. Historians also revise earlier explanations of the past, adding new information.

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. They consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence. This involves considering not only various primary sources (such as newspapers, photographs or political and legal documents from the period being studied), but the ideas of other historians, presented in secondary sources such as textbooks and on websites. Historical discussions conclude with the writer's own point of view on the question or issue, and include a bibliography which references all sources used in the discussion.

Source 4 Summary of the structure of a written discussion

Introduction	Introduces the topic, question or issue Outlines why the topic, question or issue is important
Main body	A series of paragraphs that outline different arguments or opinions about the topic, question or issue Each opinion or argument that is presented should also refer to the evidence which supports it.
Conclusion	Sums up the issue and gives the writer's opinion

Any sources that you have used in your written discussion must be referenced. First, you need to mention in your writing where information is coming from. Some examples of how you can do this include:

'According to the economist Tim Harcourt …'

'The depiction of migrants from non-English speaking backgrounds in the article 'The Risks of High Migration' shows that …'

You then need to include any sources you have referred to in your discussion in a bibliography. When citing a book in a bibliography, include the following information, in this order:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s)
2 year of publication
3 title of book (in italics)
- edition (if relevant)
- publisher
- place of publication
- page number(s).

Example: Easton, M and Saldais, M, 2011, *Oxford Big Ideas Geography/History 9 Australian Curriculum*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19

When citing an online source in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
2 year of publication or date of web page (last update)
3 title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
- date of posting
- organisation name (if different from above)
- date you accessed the site
- URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets.

Example: Birrell, B, 2010, 'The Risks of High Migration', accessed 30 March 2016, <http://www.cis.org.au/images/stories/policy-magazine/2010-autumn/26-1-10-bob-birrell.pdf>

Apply the skill

1 Write a 500-word discussion tracking the history of arguments for and against high immigration and population policies in Australia. Some points to consider:
   - **a** When planning your essay you should use the information and sources included in this section.
   - **b** You will also need to conduct your own research to locate a range of primary and secondary sources of information that provide evidence about other factors, events and attitudes that contribute to the debate.
   - **c** Make sure you include a bibliography that references all your sources using the conventions outlined above.

Extend your understanding

1 Consider how Sources 1, 2 and 3 in this section present quite different perspectives on the contribution that migrants have made to Australian society. Does one of the perspectives seem more reliable to you than the others?
   - **a** Write a paragraph explaining what evidence would be needed to support the source you have chosen.
   - **b** Prepare a presentation for your class in which you defend the source you identify with. Your presentation should take into account the points raised by the competing perspectives included in this section.

Unit 3 The globalising world (1945–the present)

Political crisis: The Vietnam War



The Vietnam War erupted as tensions over the conflicting political ideals of **communism** and **capitalism** reached their peak. The global political crisis surrounding the Vietnam War would lead Australia to become involved in one of its longest military commitments, stretching from 1962 until 1973. The political impact of this war was felt not just in Vietnam where the fighting took place but all over the world. For those who experienced the war and its aftermath, the effects can still be felt today.

Differing views on Australia's involvement in the Vietnam War divided families and communities, and many expressed their opposition through mass anti-war rallies and marches. The legacy of the Vietnam War was Australia's recognition of its place in Asia and its need to foster closer relationships with its Asian neighbours.

10A

Why did Australia become involved in the Vietnam War between 1965 and 1973?

1 In the six years after the end of World War II (1945–1951) many of the countries of Eastern Europe and closer to Australia in Asia fell under the control of communism. Suggest why in the 1960s the Australian government and people may have feared that communism would take over Australia as well.

10B

What was the nature of Australia's involvement in the Vietnam War?

1 Between 1965 and 1973, approximately 60 000 Australian troops and support staff served in Vietnam. Just over 500 were killed and about 3000 suffered injuries.

2 Over the same period, nearly 10 million US soldiers served in the Vietnam conflict and nearly 60 000 died. How would you explain the different loss of life between the two nations?



chapter 10

Source 1 The seventh battalion of the Royal Australian Regiment waiting to be picked up by US helicopters. Australia and the US were allies during the Vietnam War.

10C

How was Australia changed as a result of involvement in the Vietnam War?

1 The Vietnam War caused great divisions in Australia. Some supported the war throughout the period while some opposed it all along. A further group changed their attitudes as the war continued. Suggest two influences that could have caused some people to change their minds over the course of the war.

10.1 Australia in the Vietnam War era: a timeline



Chinese Communist leader Mao Zedong in 1949



Australian soldiers board a troop carrier at Garden Island, Sydney, prior to their departure for Vietnam (AWM CUN/68/0129/EC)

1945
Independent communist republic proclaimed in Vietnam. Only three weeks later it is terminated and the French return as colonial overlords.

1949
China adopts a communist government under Mao Zedong

1954
The French withdraw from Vietnam and the country is divided at the 17th parallel; the SEATO Alliance is formed; the Soviet official Vladimir Petrov defects to Australia

1962
Australian Government sends advisors to assist the Government of South Vietnam

1940 — 1950 — 1960

1946
The beginning to the Cold War as World War II allies the United States and the Soviet Union compete for political domination

1951
ANZUS Treaty signed by Australia, New Zealand and the USA

1950
Start of the Korean War, which ends in 1953; start of the Malayan Emergency, which ends in 1960; Menzies government attempts to ban the Communist Party of Australia

Check your learning 10.1

Remember and understand

1 When did the number of Australian soldiers reach its peak in Vietnam?

Apply and analyse

2 Look at the points on the timeline up to 1965. What do these points have in common that suggests a motivation for Australia's entry into the Vietnam War?

Evaluate and create

3 How important was Australia's geographical position in explaining many of the events on this timeline?



1963
Indonesian Confrontation, which ends in 1966

1964
National Service Scheme commences under the Menzies government

1965
First US ground forces arrive in Vietnam in March; Australia's first combat troops arrive in May; intensive bombing campaign 'Operation Rolling Thunder' begins

1966
On 18 August, Australian troops defeat North Vietnamese army units in the Battle of Long Tan; in November conscientious objector Bill White is arrested

1969
Number of Australian personnel in Vietnam reaches a peak level of over 8300 troops and support personnel

1970
In April, the government announces Australian forces will be reduced; in May the first Vietnam Moratorium march takes place in Melbourne

1970

1972
Conscription ends in Australia under the Whitlam government

1973
In January, a ceasefire agreement ends the Vietnam War; in November the last Australian personnel leave Vietnam following the withdrawal of combat troops in December the year before

1975
Saigon falls to North Vietnamese forces and Vietnam is unified under a communist government; South Vietnamese refugees fleeing the country start arriving in Australia

1980

Protestors at a Vietnam Moratorium march, Sydney, April 1972



A commemorative service on the site of the Battle of Long Tan (AWM EKN/69/0081/VN)



South Vietnamese flee the country and become refugees after Vietnam's unification in 1975.



Source 1 A timeline of the key events of the Vietnam War

10.2 French Indochina

Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia were gradually colonised by France in the late 19th century. By 1898, the area was known as French Indochina. The colonies provided France with a steady supply of rubber, coal, silk and rice. However, the rights and wellbeing of the Indochinese people suffered under the French.

The French Legacy

The influence of the French undermined the social system of Vietnam. Large plantations replaced peasant farms and many former peasants were forced to work in dangerous and unhealthy factories and mines. The French promoted the Catholic religion over the local beliefs of Buddhism and Confucianism. They also encouraged the Chinese to take over merchant and shopkeeper roles from the Vietnamese in the towns and cities.

However, the French claimed to have made some positive contributions to Vietnam. These included the development of **infrastructure**, a Western education system and Western-style medical care. Unfortunately, access to these modern developments was denied to most Vietnamese.



Source 1 Ho Chi Minh



Source 2 The capture of Nam Dinh, 1883, was one of the earliest conflicts that helped the French take control of Tonkin (northern Vietnam). The French colonised Vietnam as part of Indochina from the late 19th century up until 1954.

Ho Chi Minh

Ho Chi Minh (see Source 1) is Vietnam's greatest national hero. Ho was from a middle-class family and educated in French schools in Vietnam. In 1917, he went to Paris to continue his studies. Here, Ho Chi Minh learned about nationalist and communist ideas. By the time he returned to Vietnam, in 1940, he had developed a plan for Vietnam's independence. During the Second World War, Ho Chi Minh founded the Vietnamese Independence League, or **Vietminh**. This communist group organised the resistance against French colonisation and Japanese occupation.

The Second World War

Following the German occupation of France in May 1940, the French position in Vietnam was weakened. In the same month, the Japanese invaded Vietnam, wanting to use its rich natural resources for their war effort. Throughout the Japanese occupation, the Vietminh used their members to perform organised military attacks, or **guerrilla warfare**, on the Japanese to undermine their control and assist the allies to defeat Japan in the Pacific war.

The fight against the Japanese also made the Vietminh more and more popular among the Vietnamese people. By 1945, the Vietminh

was strong in the north and was gaining increasing support in the south. When the war ended in August 1945, Ho Chi Minh believed that the USA, Britain and France would support Vietnamese independence. After all, the Vietnamese had helped them to win a war against Japanese oppression. On 2 September 1945 Ho Chi Minh declared the Independent Republic of Vietnam.

Unfortunately, this declaration came at the beginning of the **Cold War**, a period of political crisis between the USA and the Soviet Union after World War II. Neither side actually fought each other, but there was extreme tension over their conflicting political ideals, specifically that of communism and capitalism (see Source 3).

Source 3 Comparison of the key features of capitalist and communist economic systems

	Capitalism	Communism
Government control	Belief that government should not interfere in the economy any more than necessary.	Belief that the government should control the economy for the benefit of all citizens.
Competition	Competition is healthy and encourages individuals to be the best that they can be.	Competition puts people against each other. All should work together for the common good.
Profit	Profits are a fair reward for owners of business. Different wages and salaries for different jobs are fair and encourage people to aim higher.	Profits kept in the hands of a few represents the exploitation of workers.

Fear of communism among the Western powers was strong. As the Vietnamese nationalists were also communist, Western powers felt their republic could not continue without threatening Western political stability. Just three weeks after Vietnam's declaration of independence, French forces, with the support of the USA, returned to Vietnam to re-establish control.

For eight years a war was fought between the French and the Vietminh. The French fought a traditional war but were no match for the guerrilla tactics of the Vietminh. This war ended with the defeat and humiliation of the French at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu in May 1954. For the second time in nine years, the Vietnamese declared their independence.

The partition of Vietnam

In July 1954, at peace talks in Geneva, Vietnam was officially divided from Indochina and given its borders (see Source 4). Both North and South Vietnam agreed to hold elections to form one government that would reunify Vietnam. However, once again the plans for an independent Vietnam were crushed. The elections were never held. The idea was opposed by the USA, as it feared a victory by the communists, led by Ho Chi Minh. The country remained divided and the conflict continued.

VIETNAM IN 1954



Source 4 Vietnam was officially divided at peace talks in 1954.

Check your learning 10.2

Remember and understand

1 Identify the two occasions on which the Vietnamese people had reason to believe they had gained independence.

2 Look at Source 3 and explain why you think that Vietnam was divided at the 17th parallel and not at some other place.

Apply and analyse

3 Conduct some further research into the Battle of Dien Bien Phu and explain why the Vietnamese forces were so successful.

4 What conclusions can you draw from the fact that Ho Chi Minh was not educated in Indochina?

Evaluate and create

5 Construct a diagram that shows the negative and positive consequences of French colonisation for the Vietnamese people. You may include consequences not mentioned here.

10.3 Fear of communism in Australia

The rapid spread of communism after the Second World War was the backdrop to many of the tensions and conflicts of the 1950s and 1960s. It was an important factor in Australia's decision to become involved in the Vietnam War. Communism was seen as a threat to the Australian way of life and to have the potential to destabilise the whole country.

The spread of communism in Asia

After the Second World War, the focus of Australia's foreign policy had shifted. Despite a continued connection to Europe, there was an increasing awareness of Asia. The establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949 and communist threats in Korea, Malaya (Malaysia) and Vietnam were thought to pose a real threat to Australia.

These fears led to the **domino theory** – the idea that if one country in South-East Asia fell to communism, others in the region would follow. This theory was readily accepted by many Australians because of the Second World War experience. They had witnessed the Japanese 'island hopping' through China, Indochina, Malaysia, Indonesia and to Australia's northern shores between 1940 and 1942. If the Japanese could achieve this within a few years, then many assumed that Chinese communists would be able to do the same.

Australian responses to the threat of communism

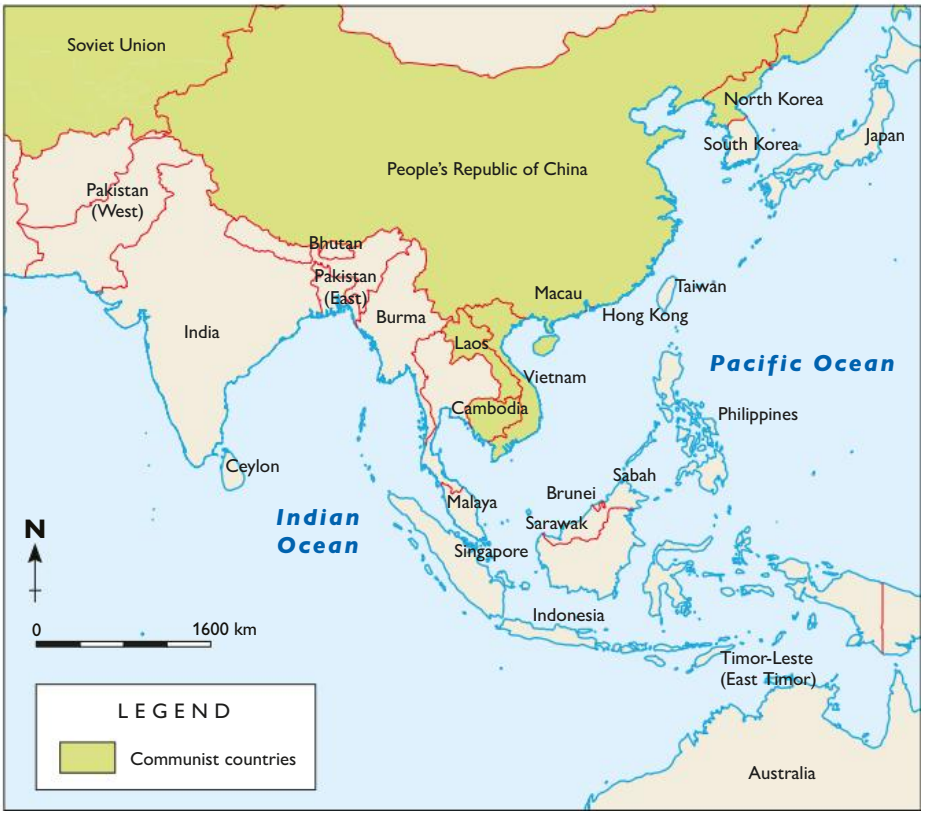
The Australian government's response to the domino theory was 'forward defence'. This meant that they would send troops into conflicts, to meet any possible communist threat before it came too close to Australian shores. This strategy was followed by the Menzies Government in its decisions to send forces to the conflicts in Korea (1950–53) and Malaya (1950–60).

The Menzies Government also responded to the fear of communism by establishing the Australian Security Intelligence Organisation (ASIO) in 1949. Its main purpose was to watch and report on people suspected of being communists.

The government also attempted to ban the Communist Party of Australia (CPA). The party had been formed in Australia in the 1920s but it had never really been popular. By the early 1950s, the party had fewer than 7000 members. Nevertheless, many people still believed the CPA was a real threat that might take over Australia.

In April 1950, the Australian Parliament, under the leadership of Prime Minister Robert Menzies,

ASIA: COMMUNISM AFTER WORLD WAR II



Source 1 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 2 'All I want is the power to deal with these reds!', Ambrose Dyson, published in The Guardian, 2 August 1951 (Reds was the term used to describe communists)

passed the **Communist Party Dissolution Bill**, to outlaw the Communist Party. When the bill was declared unconstitutional by the High Court, Menzies introduced a referendum for everyone in Australia to vote on the issue. The idea was again defeated by a narrow margin. While many Australians opposed and feared communism, they were also uncomfortable with the idea of banning a political party or limiting the freedom to hold an opinion.

The Petrov case

In 1954, fear of communism was again brought to public attention by the Petrov case. An official at the Soviet Embassy, Vladimir Petrov, defected (changed his allegiance to Australia) and asked to stay in Australia. In return, Petrov provided the Australian government with information about Soviet spying.

The news that Soviet agents had been spying on Australia raised anxiety about communism to an extreme level. The Petrov defection came on the eve of a federal election – an election that the Menzies Government had been tipped to lose. Menzies campaigned on the claim that his government could deal with the communist threat more effectively than the Labor Party. The Menzies Liberal Government won a resounding victory.

When Petrov defected, Soviet officials swooped on his wife Evdokia and placed her on a plane to Moscow. However, the plane had to stop in Darwin for refueling and ASIO officials took the opportunity to snatch Mrs Petrov. The case attracted enormous publicity. It helped to create a climate in which any action seemed acceptable if it was designed to combat communism.



Source 3 Vladimir Petrov



Source 4 Vladimir Petrov's wife, Evdokia, being escorted to a waiting plane by Soviet officials

Check your learning 10.3

Remember and understand

1 Briefly explain the domino theory.

2 In which countries did Australian forces fight in the 1950s?

Apply and analyse

3 List all of the factors that contributed to a fear of communism in Australia in the 1950s and 1960s. Explain which you believe was the most important factor and why?

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct further research on Vladimir and Evdokia Petrov and write a newspaper article on their experience as Soviet defectors.

5 Examine Source 2. What point is the cartoon making about Menzies and about the people who opposed banning the communist party?

10.4 Australia's initial involvement

With the fear of communism in the region, it is not surprising that the Australian government was eventually to become involved in the conflict in Vietnam.

Following the division of Vietnam in 1954, two separate governments were established. The South was officially democratic and became the Republic of Vietnam, under the Presidency of Ngo Dinh Diem. The communist North became the Democratic Republic of Vietnam under the Presidency of Ho Chi Minh. The subsequent war over whether Vietnam should be communist or democratic was to continue for almost 30 years.

Australia's alliances

After the Second World War II, Australia joined two alliances that would have a major influence on foreign policy decisions during the 1950s and 1960s.

The first was the ANZUS Treaty, signed by Australia, New Zealand and the USA in 1951. ANZUS is a military alliance between the three countries, formed in response to China becoming a communist republic. It was also a long-held desire of Australia to formalise an alliance with the USA. Nevertheless, some people questioned the fact that Australia had entered a defence alliance that did not include Britain. Because the USA was by far the most powerful of the three countries, Australia felt a certain obligation to comply with US policy in the region.



Source 1 The ANZUS logo

Australia also became part of SEATO, the South East Asian Treaty Organisation, in 1954. Like ANZUS, the organisation was formed because of the fear of communism, however it was much bigger. The USA, Britain, France, Pakistan, the Philippines and New Zealand joined Australia in pledging to support each other to resist the spread of communism in South-East Asia.

Australia was also a founding member of the United Nations (UN). During the Cold War period, the UN initiated a number of peacekeeping missions and military operations to resolve conflicts. The first example of the UN's use of military intervention was in the Korean War (1950–53).

Australia's initial commitment to South Vietnam

By 1962, the USA had more than 16000 advisers based in South Vietnam. They were not officially there to take part in combat, but to help train the Army of South Vietnam to fight against the North. A further role taken on by the USA was to help win over the **'hearts and minds'** of the South Vietnamese villagers and encourage them to be loyal to the government of South Vietnam. They did this by providing civilian aid such as medical help and construction work.

In July 1962, in response to requests for assistance from President Diem and because of treaty obligations with the USA, the Australian Government agreed to send 30 advisers to South Vietnam. These advisers made up the Australian Army Training Team Vietnam (AATTV), also known as just 'the Team'. Their duties were to provide security and military assistance to help the government of South Vietnam fight against communism. However, they were under strict instructions to not attend any military operations run by the Vietnamese forces they were training.



Source 2 The first Australian Army personnel arrive in Saigon in August 1962.

Check your learning 10.4

Remember and understand

1 What were the names of the two Vietnamese republics and their leaders after the partition in 1954?

2 Identify the countries that Australia formed alliances with during the early 1950s.

Apply and analyse

3 US and Australian troops sent into Vietnam in 1962 had two main roles. Explain each role and suggest which you think was seen as more important.

Evaluate and create

4 Using the Internet to research the 'hearts and minds' strategy, develop a table like the one below evaluating the benefits and difficulties of providing civilian aid during the Vietnam War.

Benefits associated with 'hearts and minds'	Difficulties of 'hearts and minds'

10.5 Commitment of ground troops to the Vietnam War

For three years after 1962, Australia maintained a small, advisory force in Vietnam. By early 1965 it was obvious that the advisers were not making much of a difference in the fight against communism. A series of events in the USA and in Australia led to the commitment of ground troops. Australia and the USA changed from having just an advisory role to having an active military role in the Vietnam War.

The US decision to send troops to Vietnam

In August 1964, an unsuccessful attack was made on the US destroyer *Maddox*, off the coast of North Vietnam. In retaliation, the *Maddox* attacked three North Vietnamese patrol boats, damaging two and sinking the third. Despite this, the USA saw the attack on the *Maddox* as an act of aggression and became more involved in Vietnam. The US Congress passed a resolution on 7 August 1964 allowing the air force to begin bombing North Vietnam. Soon afterwards, the decision was made to commit two battalions of ground troops to fight on Vietnamese soil. They landed in Vietnam in March 1965.

Australia's decision to send troops to Vietnam

Less than two months later, Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies announced that Australia would follow the USA and commit one infantry battalion to South Vietnam. This decision was influenced by a number of situations within Australia and in the Asia-Pacific region. Among these were:

- general fears about communism and the speed with which it was spreading
- particular fears about the threat of communism spreading down through South-East Asia to Australia – the domino theory
- the Indonesian 'Confrontation' with Malaysia in 1963, which heightened fears of a communist takeover in Australia's nearest neighbour, Indonesia
- Australia's obligations as a member of the United Nations and of ANZUS and SEATO.

The Menzies Government also argued that the decision to commit troops was in response to an invitation from the government of South Vietnam (see Source 1). It has since emerged that this was only partly true. The decision to send troops to Vietnam without being asked by the South Vietnamese government had the potential to create diplomatic and media problems for the Menzies Government. Therefore, the Australian government asked the South Vietnamese government to issue a formal request for troops. The request was duly sent and on 29 April, Menzies made his announcement.

Source 1

> The Australian Government is now in receipt of a request from the Government of South Vietnam for further military assistance. We have decided – and this has been done after close consultation with the Government of the United States – to provide an infantry battalion for service in South Vietnam …
>
> We have not, of course, come to this decision without the closest attention to the question of defence priorities. We do not, and must not, overlook the point that our alliances, as well as providing guarantees and assurances for our security, make demands upon us …
>
> Assessing all this, it is our judgment that our decision to commit a battalion in South Vietnam represents the most useful additional contribution which we can make to the defence of the region at this time. The takeover of South Vietnam would be a direct military threat to Australia and all the countries of South and South-East Asia. It must be seen as a thrust by China between the Pacific and Indian oceans.

Prime Minister Menzies' announcement in the House of Representatives that 800 men of the 1st Battalion Royal Australian Regiment would be sent to Vietnam, 29 April 1965



Source 2 Australian soldiers in Vietnam

The announcement that Australia was to send troops to Vietnam was met with mixed reactions. A poll conducted in September 1965 showed that 56% of Australians supported the war and 16% were undecided. Only 28% were directly opposed to Australia's involvement. Although the majority of people supported the war in 1965, there was already a small but determined opposition that was to grow steadily over the next seven years.

Check your learning 10.5

Remember and understand

1 What was the official role of the forces that the USA and Australia based in Vietnam between 1962 and 1965?

2 What incident prompted the USA to agree to send ground troops to Vietnam?

Apply and analyse

3 We now know that Prime Minister Menzies was not telling the full story when he announced that he had received an invitation to send troops to Vietnam. Give and support your opinion as to whether this was justified.

Evaluate and create

4 Create a circular flow chart showing the process of events that led from the end of the Second World War to the arrival of Australian ground troops in Vietnam. You may also consult the timeline and earlier units in this chapter.

Your flow chart should have 'Fear of Communism' as its centre.

10.6 Conscription

Controversy about Australia's role in the Vietnam War was heightened by the issue of **conscription**. People who were conscripted, or chosen for compulsory military service, had no choice but to go to war. Conscription for 20 year olds, chosen by ballot, was introduced in November 1964. Initially, it was not expected that Australian conscripts would be sent overseas, but this changed in 1965. Throughout the Vietnam War, conscription was to cause bitterness, division and protest.



Source 1 The conscription ballot takes place.

History of conscription in Australia

Australia had traditionally resisted sending conscripts into overseas wars. During the First World War, the nation was bitterly divided on the issue of conscription and two referenda on the matter were defeated. In the Second World War, Australia was under threat from Japan and required more troops overseas. Prime Minister John Curtin (1941–45) announced that the nation's borders would be extended to include Australia's Overseas Territories, such as New Guinea. Conscripts could be sent to these territories, without technically being sent 'overseas'.

Support for conscription

The Menzies Liberal Government, the Democratic Labor Party and many older Australians supported conscription. Former Minister for the Army Jim Forbes was interviewed in 2014. In this interview, he argued that the system was necessary because the regular army was not attracting sufficient recruits. He also believed that the method was fair.

Source 2

> It (conscription) was never terribly popular, but it was a very fair system, and I had to take the burden for that. It never worried me … because I was completely convinced that we had to do it and it was a very fair system. A lot of people mocked the idea of putting marbles in a ballot box … It was very Australian way of doing it, and we never got the credit for doing it. People got knocked off in Vietnam, and it became very unpopular.
>
> Former Liberal Minister Jim Forbes, 2014

Source 3 Results of the conscription scheme in Australia, known as the National Service Scheme

Results of the National Service Scheme	Number of men
20 year olds registered for national service between 1964 and 1972	804 286
20 year olds selected and enlisted in the army	63 740
National servicemen who served in Vietnam	15 381
Exemptions from national service (including students and ministers of religion and for reasons of physical or mental disability. Or conscientious objection determined by court)	3563
Indefinite deferments from national service (including 20 502 married between selection and call-up; being a married man entitled you to a deferment)	35 548
Imprisoned after refusing to obey a call-up notice	14

Opposition to conscription

Opposition to conscription during the Vietnam War became stronger in May 1965, when the federal government announced that national servicemen

(conscripts) could be sent overseas to fight. Even some who supported the war, expressed doubts about the morality of sending conscripts overseas to fight against their will. Between 1965 and 1972, over 15 000 conscripts served in Vietnam and approximately 200 lost their lives.

During the war, opposition to conscription increased steadily. Organisations including the Draft Resisters' Union and the Youth Campaign Against Conscription (YCAC) were largely supported by those in the age group who were at risk of being conscripted. In June 1965 the YCAC, in an open letter to *The Australian*, urged the government: 'not to pursue the murderous path to world conflict through prolonging the slaughter in Vietnam.' Some young men went into hiding, refusing to register for the ballot. By 1972, 14 'draft dodgers' had been imprisoned. One of the most famous of these was Bill White, whose arrest was photographed and published in several daily newspapers.

However, it was not just young people who opposed conscription. Increasingly, parents, war veterans and people who had never been engaged in protest before began to express opposition to conscription. The most famous of these opponents was Save Our Sons, a group of women whose sons were of conscription age and in danger of being sent to war. They demonstrated peacefully, using placards and handing out leaflets, often outside national service registration sites. The efforts of the protesters met both support and hostility. Five members of Save Our Sons were imprisoned in 1971 for handing out leaflets to men coming to register for the ballot. They spent 11 days in Fairlea Women's Prison and became known as the Fairlea Five.



Source 4 Conscientious objector Bill White, a school teacher, was dismissed from the public service and arrested outside his home in Gladesville in November 1966 after refusing to serve in the national service.

The end of conscription

By 1971, public opinion was swinging against the Vietnam War and even more strongly against conscription. In the 1972 election campaign Labor Party Leader Gough Whitlam pledged to end conscription. One of the first actions of the new government, elected in December 1972, was to free the seven draft resisters still in prison and to bring conscription to an end.



Source 5 Members of the Save Our Sons movement typically held silent demonstrations.

Check your learning 10.6

Remember and understand

1 What was the Australian government policy on conscription in the First World War, the Second World War and during the Vietnam War?

2 Identify three organisations that opposed conscription during the Vietnam War.

Apply and analyse

3 Why did some people who supported Australia's participation in Vietnam still oppose conscription?

Evaluate and create

4 Construct a dialogue between two mothers. One has a son in the regular army, serving in Vietnam. The other has a son who is in the age group to be conscripted. Each mother has a different viewpoint on the issues of the war and conscription. Each mother should speak at least four times and must present and support arguments to support her point of view.

10A rich task

The referendum on communism

In March 1951, the High Court declared that the Communist Party Dissolution Bill was unconstitutional. Six months later a referendum was held to change the constitution. The question that voters were asked was:

Do you approve of the proposed law for the alteration of the Constitution entitled 'Constitution Alteration (Powers to deal with Communists and Communism) 1951'?

Campaigning on both sides of this issue was fierce and many posters were produced, for and against the proposal.



Source 2 A poster released by the Communist Party of Australia, against the Communist Party Dissolution Bill referendum, 1951



Source 1 A NO poster for the referendum on communism



Source 3 Election poster, 1950s

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Analysing propaganda posters

Propaganda is anything that has been deliberately created to influence an audience's beliefs or actions. It can provide historians with lots of information about the period being investigated. However, it needs to be very carefully analysed and evaluated. Use the following steps to guide your analysis of a propaganda poster.

Step 1 Establish the intended audience – that is, who the producer of the poster intended to influence.

Step 2 Check the context of the poster. Consider:

- other events that may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the producer of the poster
- the political environment at the time the poster was created
- the common prejudices and social norms that existed at the time, which may have influenced the producer of the poster.

Step 3 Check the message that is being conveyed. Consider:

- the main images on the poster and what they seem to suggest or represent
- any text written on the poster – what it says or whether the message is direct or suggestive
- the persuasive techniques used – these can include:
  - emotional appeals
  - generalisations
  - stereotypes
  - name calling (direct or indirect)
  - repetition
  - social disapproval (that is, the suggestion that attitudes or actions contrary to what is being promoted in the poster will result in social rejection or disapproval).

Step 4 Establish the intended effect on the audience – what the producer of the poster hopes the audience will think/do/feel.

Step 5 Establish the overall purpose served by the poster.

Apply the skill

1 Choose one poster supporting a Yes vote and one supporting a No vote and analyse them, using the steps above as a guide.

2 Which of the four posters do you believe would have been most effective in convincing a wavering voter to vote one way or the other? Support your answer with reference to features of all four posters.



Source 4 A poster for the Yes case in the communism referendum

Extend your understanding

1 Propaganda is not always untrue, but it is often exaggerated and one sided, to convince the audience of a particular point of view. Think of an example from modern advertising where the truth is exaggerated and other features of a product or service are downplayed (e.g. an advertisement for a sale, which emphasises lower prices for certain goods but ignores the fact that most prices are unchanged). Describe the advertisement and identify examples of exaggeration or omission.

2 Create a propaganda poster designed to influence public opinion on one of the following:

- an environmental issue
- a building or development issue
- a social issue such as the acceptance of refugees or stopping bullying.

10.7 Where did Australians fight?

The Vietnam War between 1962 and 1973 was really two wars fought at the same time. There was one war between the armies of the North and the South. The North was largely supported by China and the South by the USA and its allies.

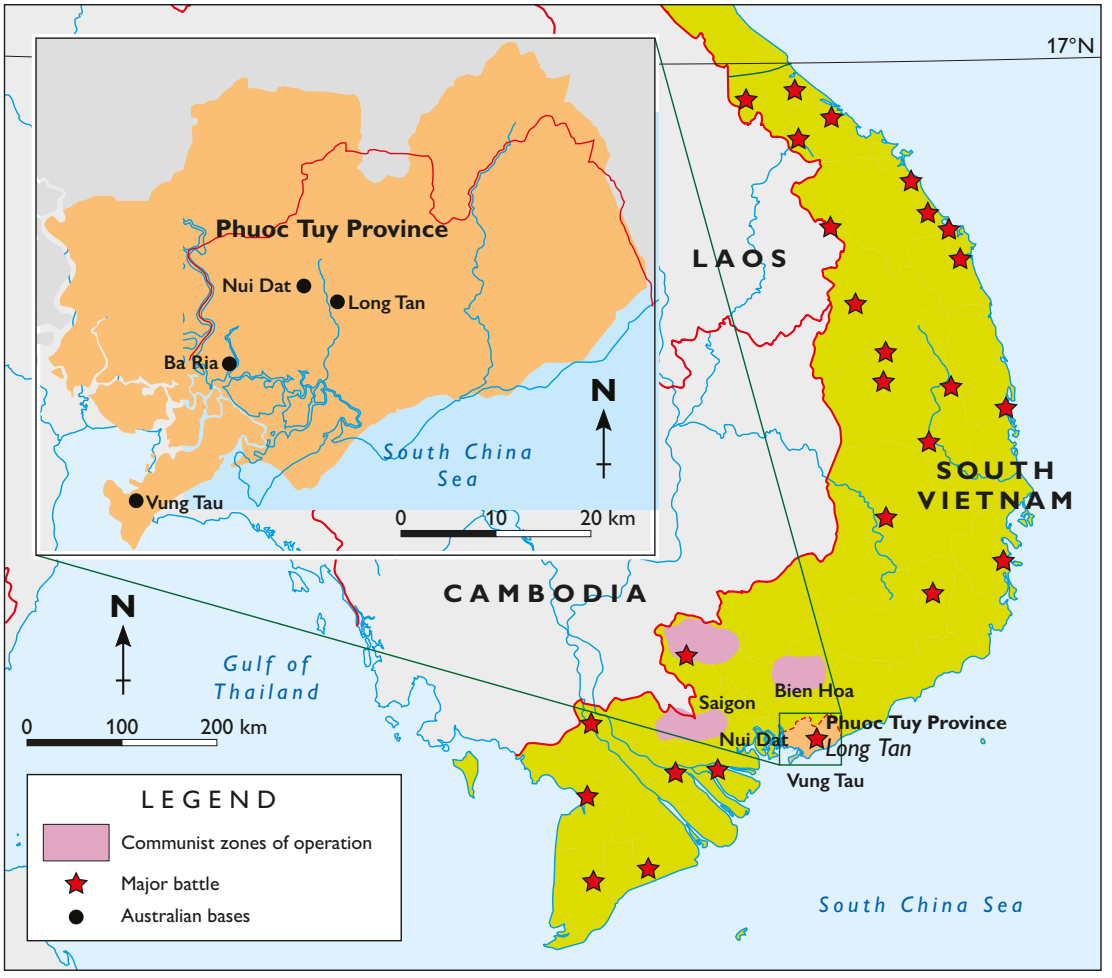
The other war took place *within* the south. A guerrilla campaign was waged by the South Vietnamese communists (known as Viet Cong) against the army of the Republic of Vietnam and its supporters. It was in this latter war that Australian troops were largely involved. They were supporting the Army of the Republic of Vietnam in its fight against communism not only in the north and also in the south.

Australian bases

The first group of 800 combat troops from Australia arrived in May 1965. They were sent to Bien Hoa province, north of Saigon, in South Vietnam. Initially this first battalion operated under US control, serving with a US airborne brigade.

In May 1966, the Australian Task Force was established at Nui Dat in Phuoc Toy province. Soldiers lived and trained at Nui Dat when they were not on patrol operations. For the first time, Australian operations were conducted independently of US command. A Logistical Task Force was also set up at Vung Tau on the coast. This was also where wounded soldiers were sent to recover, and where troops went for their rest and recreation periods. The main base for the Australian air force was also located at Vung Tau.

VIETNAM: THE LOCATION OF AUSTRALIAN BASES IN PHUOC TUY PROVINCE



Source 1

Source: Oxford University Press

Source 2

> The majority of Australian servicemen and women served in Phuoc Tuy province, south-east of Saigon … The Australians were given this province to control because it allowed good access by air and sea, and so could be reinforced or evacuated easily if necessary.

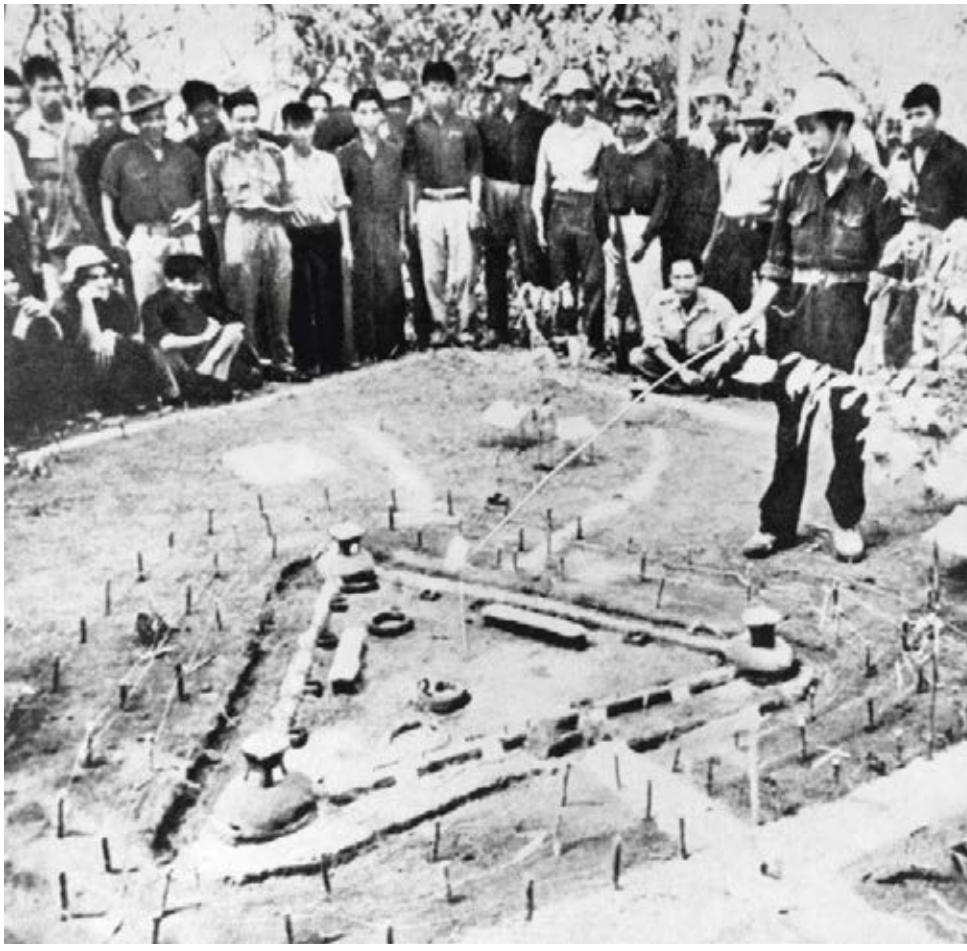
Extract from Australia and the Vietnam War, Department of Veteran Affairs, 2007, p. 30

Fighting the Viet Cong

In the Australian area of operations, Phuoc Tuy province, the enemy was referred to as Viet Cong, or VC. The term Viet Cong was coined by US command and referred to Vietnamese communists in the south. However, most VC would have referred to themselves as Vietminh. The Viet Cong was not one single group but a range of people with different skills and expectations.

Some were soldiers of regular Viet Cong army units who were well-trained and equipped. They lived in bases away from their home villages. Others were guerrilla fighters, part-time soldiers, who were not as well-trained or equipped as the regular soldiers. They could be farmers or skilled workers in local villages. The villagers went about their normal occupations by day, and took part in guerrilla warfare activities at night. These could be ambushes or attacks on Australian soldiers or their local Vietnamese supporters, sabotage or intelligence gathering.

In addition to ground troops, the Royal Australian Air Force had a limited role in Australia's war effort. Helicopters and a squadron of Canberra bombers provided support for the fighting units. The aircraft transported equipment and personnel, and the helicopters helped with evacuations. Bombers launched raids on strategic targets in the south, serving alongside the USA's Tactical Fighter Wing.



Source 3 Viet Cong army personnel planning for an attack on a South Vietnamese target

Check your learning 10.7

Remember and understand

1 What were the two wars going on in Vietnam at the same time?
2 Where were most Australians based and why?

Apply and analyse

3 The Viet Cong was not just one group but a range of groups with different techniques and skill levels. Would this have made them an easier or a more difficult enemy? Explain and support your answer with examples.

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct some further research on the town of Vung Tau. Explain why it was developed as a base for American and Australian soldiers to enjoy 'rest and recreation' leave.

10.8 The nature of warfare in Vietnam

Guerrilla tactics

For the most part, the Vietnam War was a **guerrilla war**. This means that instead of fighting on a battlefield, the North Vietnamese and Viet Cong armies used 'hit and run tactics', specialising in raids and ambushes. US tactics included a massive bombing campaign, known as Operation Rolling Thunder. Its aim was to bomb strategic targets in the north, especially supply lines to the south. They also used helicopters to locate and attack enemy positions. Their approach was to draw the enemy out and engage them in battle. This often resulted in high US and enemy casualties.

Source 1 An Australian soldier uses a mine detector to search a village for booby traps that may have been left by the Viet Cong, while another soldier stands guard. Australian troops had evacuated then destroyed the village, which had been dominated by the Viet Cong. The villagers were resettled.

The Australian army's counter-guerrilla warfare tactics

Australian military leaders preferred a different approach. While the aim of the US operations was to destroy the enemy, the main purpose of Australian operations was to stop enemy soldiers from receiving supplies and other support. One of the main ways of doing this was to patrol their area of operation in small units. They used stealth to locate and ambush enemy camps. They blocked off villages between dusk and dawn, to block Viet Cong access to food supplies and other support. In some cases, they grouped into larger forces for 'search and destroy' missions on enemy bases.



Historians' evaluations of different approaches to guerrilla warfare

Source 2

> There were significant differences in operational techniques between [the US and Australian] forces. The United States Army had vast resources of men, equipment and firepower at its disposal, which the Australians could never hope to have. The Americans were trained to deploy all these resources quickly to rapidly overwhelm the enemy and kill as many as possible. The Australians, with their tradition of jungle warfare and counter-revolutionary operations, had a more patient doctrine of patrolling and ambush, with less fire support. Their way caused fewer enemy casualties as well as restricting their own losses – vitally important in such a small army.

Extract from Richard Pelvin, *Vietnam: Australia's Ten Year War 1962–1972*, Hardie Grant Books, 2013, p. 41

Source 3

> For some Viet Cong leaders there was no doubt the Australian jungle warfare approach was effective. One former Viet Cong leader is quoted as saying; 'Worse than the Americans were the Australians. The Americans style was to hit us, then call for planes and artillery. Our response was to break contact and disappear if we could … The Australians were more patient than the Americans, better guerrilla fighters, better at ambushes. They liked to stay with us instead of calling in the planes. We were more afraid of their style.'

Extract from David Chanoff & Doan Van Toai, *Vietnam: A Portrait of its People at War,* Taurus & Co., London (1996), p. 108

Chemical warfare

One of the problems facing the South Vietnamese Army and its allies was the density of the jungle. From the air it was very difficult to pick out villages, let alone places where the Viet Cong could be hiding or storing supplies.

From as early as 1961, US advisers began using chemical sprays to kill the jungle vegetation. By the late 1960s, the use of chemical agents known as **defoliants** had become a major weapon. The main chemical used was **Agent Orange**, which contained the dangerous poison dioxin. Large areas of South Vietnam were stripped of vegetation and agricultural land was made barren. The most serious consequence of the spraying of these chemical agents was its impact on humans. Cancers, miscarriages, birth defects, skin diseases and other illnesses have all been attributed to the use of these chemicals.



Source 4 Australian service personnel in the Vietnam War

Another chemical widely used in Vietnam was napalm. This is a jelly-like substance that sticks to the skin and causes unbearably painful burns. At first, napalm was used in bombs directed at military and infrastructure targets. However, as the war progressed, it was increasingly used against the enemy. As the US and Australian soldiers had no way of knowing which villagers were Viet Cong, whole village populations were killed or injured by napalm.

One of the most famous and disturbing images of the Vietnam War is the picture of Kim Phuc, a 9-year-old girl running naked from her village after a napalm attack (see Source 5).



Source 5 Nine-year-old Kim Phuc (centre) and family members run for help after being severely burnt in a napalm (a petrol-like substance used in bombs) attack, 8 June 1972.

Battle of Long Tan

The Battle of Long Tan was different to the typical guerrilla and counter guerrilla tactics of the Vietnam War. On the night of 16 August 1966, the Australian base at Nui Dat was attacked by mortar fire (short-range shells lobbed at targets). On 18 August, 105 Australian soldiers moved into the Long Tan rubber plantation, believed to be the source of the mortar shelling. The Australians immediately came under attack by up to 3000 North Vietnamese and Viet Cong troops.

The fighting at Long Tan went on for four hours, until the Australians received backup. The accuracy of the Australian artillery fire had a devastating effect on the enemy. The Viet Cong retreated, carrying many of their dead and wounded with them. The Australians counted 245 enemy dead on the battlefield, while 18 Australians were killed and 24 wounded. Later research revealed that the North Vietnamese Army and Viet Cong losses were as high as 800 deaths and 1000 wounded.

For many years, commentators believed the initial attack had been part of a Viet Cong plan to tempt the Australians out of their base and into an ambush. Evidence now suggests that the Australians had not been lured into an ambush but had in fact come across a regular North Vietnamese Army regiment who were moving in for a full-scale attack on the Nui Dat base. The battle probably saved the Australian Task Force at Nui Dat from a major attack from the combined North Vietnamese and Viet Cong armies. After this battle, the Viet Cong had far less power in the area.

Civilian aid

From 1967, Australian personnel were also involved in providing aid to the South Vietnamese. Civilian aid had two purposes. One was a genuine attempt to assist the people, with medical and dental care and other necessities. The other was described as a 'hearts and minds' policy. It was hoped that by providing care and support for villagers, they would be won over to the anti-communist side and would no longer support the Viet Cong. There is little evidence that this policy was successful. Nevertheless, thousands of South Vietnamese people benefitted from the many civilian aid projects initiated by the Australian Army.

Source 6 Australia's service personnel in Vietnam

Total number of Australians who served in Vietnam	Almost 60 000 (including around 15 000 National Servicemen)
Greatest number of servicemen in Vietnam at the one time	7672
Usual length of service	12 months
Dead	520 (including 185 National Servicemen)
Wounded	3000



Source 7 An Australian solider guards a captured Viet Cong soldier found hiding on the battlefield on the day after the Battle of Long Tan.

Check your learning 10.8

Remember and understand

1. What chemicals were used in the Vietnam War and for what purposes?
2. How many Australians were killed or wounded in Vietnam?
3. What were the two purposes of civilian aid?

Apply and analyse

4. Explain the main tactics used by Australian soldiers?
5. Why do you think the Battle of Long Tan is seen as one of the most important engagements for the Australian Army during the Vietnam War?

Evaluate and create

6. Using the text and sources in this unit and additional research, prepare a class debate on the topic: 'The Australian approach in Vietnam was more suited to jungle warfare than the US approach.'
7. The napalm girl, Kim Phuc, is still alive and her life story is an amazing example of resilience. Conduct further research into her life and write a newspaper article or blog titled 'Success against all odds'.

10.9 The Australian withdrawal from Vietnam



Source 1 A South Vietnamese chief of police fires his pistol at a suspected Viet Cong official during the Tet Offensive, Saigon. This image was shown on the TV news.

In January 1973, after nearly eight years of war, the Australian government announced plans for the final withdrawal of troops from Vietnam. It was November 1973 before the last Australian personnel were withdrawn and Australia's involvement in the war could truly be over.

The decision to end Australia's commitment to the Vietnam War came down to a number of reasons. The war had become increasingly unpopular and there were widespread protests, especially after 1968. However, there were other factors including the increasing death and injury toll. Australia had also realised the war was becoming increasingly unwinnable. Peace talks to end the war had begun in May 1968 and the USA had started to wind down the number of its troops in Vietnam.

Growing opposition to the war

In 1967, a poll showed that 62% of Australians supported the nation's participation in the Vietnam War. By 1970, this figure had fallen to 42%. The nature of opposition to the war had also changed. In the early years, most anti-war protests involved university students, the Labor Party, trade unionists and some religious groups. By 1970, opposition had become more mainstream and the range of anti-war arguments broader. By 1970, 389 young Australian men had lost their lives in Vietnam and several thousand had been injured. There was also a growing recognition that many returned soldiers were suffering post-traumatic stress syndrome (PTSD) as a result of the horror and trauma they had witnessed and experienced at war.

Even those not directly touched by losses were brought into contact with the harsh reality of war through television. Most nights, graphic footage of events in Vietnam was beamed into living rooms across the nation.

Source 2

> It was the novelty of seeing war for the first time that led many Australians to oppose it … In this sense, the technology, the TV – and not the messengers, the reporters – lost support for the war. Had TV cameras filmed the bombing of Dresden or Tokyo, viewers may similarly have turned away in horror. Western viewers weaned on the notion of war as heroic … and 'just' were suddenly seeing thousands of dead, millions of refugees, unspeakable suffering … in short, the things common to all wars.

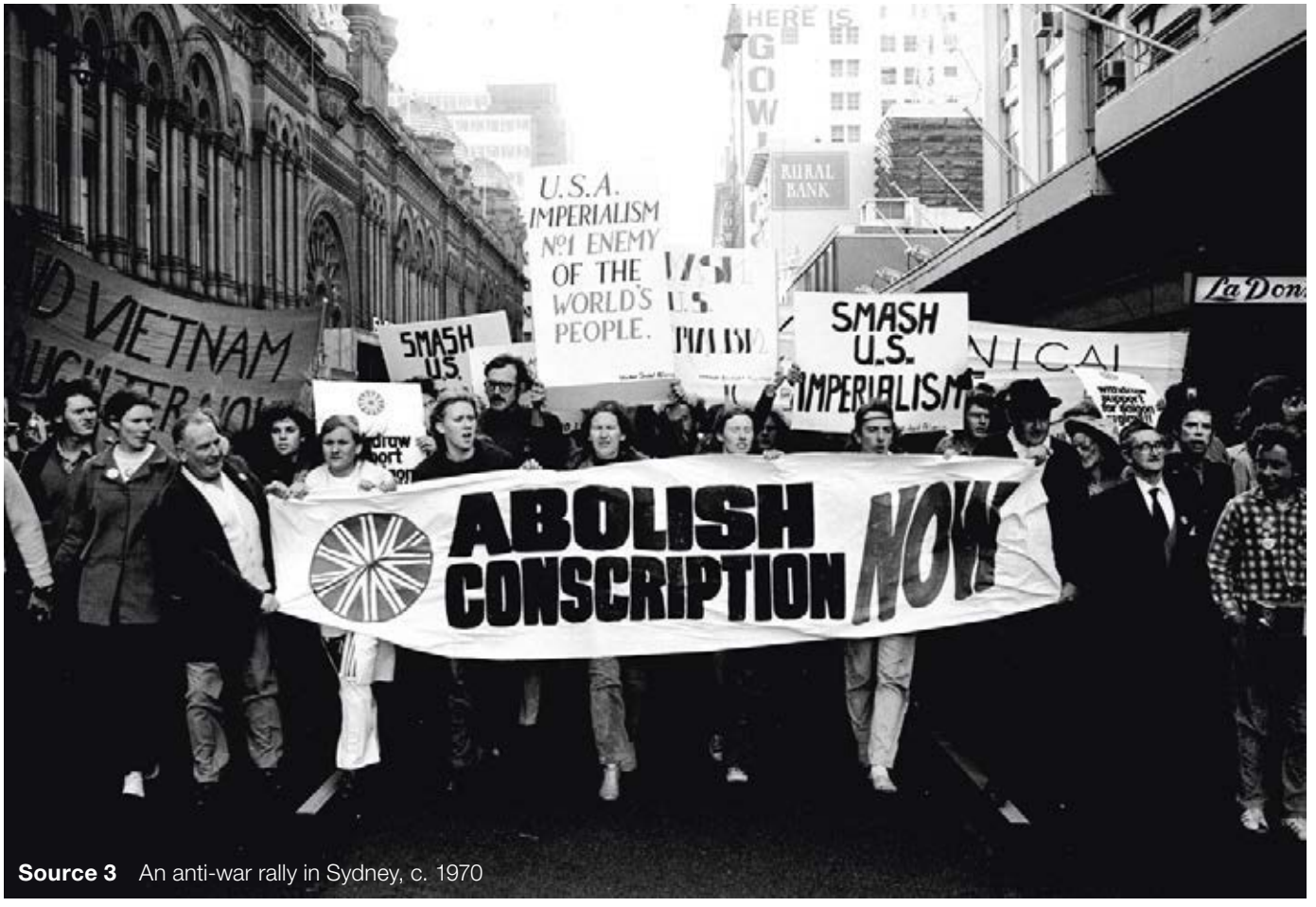
Extract from Paul Ham, *Vietnam: The Australian War*, Harper Collins, 2007, p. 413

The Tet Offensive

One of the most significant influences on changing attitudes is believed to have been the Tet Offensive. The Tet Offensive was a well-planned, surprise attack by the Viet Cong and the North Vietnamese army on South Vietnamese, US and Australian forces. It took place during the celebration of Tet (New Year) in early 1968, at a time when there was supposed to be a truce in fighting. The attack by the Viet Cong was very successful but the success lasted only a few days before the USA retaliated. Ironically, it was the ruthless suppression of the Tet Offensive that led many people to question the war. Films of public executions of Viet Cong leaders horrified many Australians who had previously been supportive of the war.

Protest

Some say it was the anti-war protests that swept across the USA and Australia from 1968 that brought the war to an end. The various rallies, marches, sit-ins and songs played an important role in changing public attitudes and in convincing governments that the war was losing voter support.



Source 3 An anti-war rally in Sydney, c. 1970



Source 4 Part of the crowd at a Vietnam War Moratorium march, Melbourne, 1970

As early as October 1966, Melbourne students rallied to protest against the Vietnam War during the visit of US President Lyndon Johnson. Two brothers, one at secondary school and one at university, threw red and green paint over the president's car. By 1968, the anti-war movement had become bigger and better organised. In the USA, in November 1969, millions of Americans across the nation paused and gathered to express their opposition to the war.

The term '**moratorium**' was adopted for these protests. Traditionally, a moratorium is an agreed pause in normal activity. It is most often used to describe a temporary break in debt repayments, or an agreed delay in meeting legal requirements. The leaders of the November 1969 protest in the USA used the term 'moratorium' because they wanted the nation to pause and reassess its commitment to the war.

Moratoriums were held across Australia during 1970. Hundreds of thousands of people brought the centres of capital cities to a halt. They carried banners, sang songs and chanted slogans. One of the most popular refrains was John Lennon's 'All we are saying, is give peace a chance'. By 1970 the anti-war movement had become more mainstream, involving middle-class people, mothers with prams, businesspeople in suits, teenagers in school uniforms, 'tradies', nuns and priests.

Government decisions

The anti-war marches that took place across Australia during 1970 sent a message to the government that this was an unpopular war. However, protest alone would not have been enough to achieve an end to the Vietnam commitment. Peace talks had begun in Paris in 1969 and, in that same year, the USA began to withdraw troops. President Nixon also began the policy of 'Vietnamisation'. This involved providing the South Vietnamese army with further training and resources, with the expectation that it would eventually be able to continue the fight without needing any help from the USA.

In Australia, Prime Minister John Gorton and his Liberal Government began the withdrawal of troops in 1970. In 1971, the base at Nui Dat was handed over to the South Vietnamese Army. Following the election of the Whitlam Labor Government, in December 1972, the commitment to Vietnam was finally ended and the last advisers returned to Australia in November 1973.

Australia's withdrawal from the Vietnam War was met with mixed reactions. While anti-war and conscription protesters were glad Australia was no longer part of the war, Source 5 shows the frustration felt by many soldiers who thought they were abandoning the South Vietnamese people.

Source 5

> …it very simply wasn't finished the way it should have been. I'm not saying we should have won. That would have been preferable of course to losing, but the way it was done … we left many, many good South Vietnamese people in the lurch and it was like turning your back on your best mate and walking away. It shouldn't have happened. That is politics though… Nothing to do with us, but it left a very nasty, dirty taste in a lot of people's mouths. It still does.
>
> Corporal Anthony Hughes, 7RAR



Source 6 A Vietnam Moratorium badge. The words around the edge of the badge are 'Vietnam Moratorium. Withdraw all troops now'.

Check your learning 10.9

Remember and understand

1. List the various influences that combined to bring Australia's commitment to the Vietnam War to an end.
2. What is meant by the term 'moratorium' and why was it adopted by anti-war protesters?

Apply and analyse

3. Examine the posters in Source 3. If you did not know anything about the war, who would you think was the enemy? Can you explain this?
4. What do you believe was the main reason why Australian troops were withdrawn from Vietnam? Support your answer.

Evaluate and create

5. Design an anti-war badge or poster.
6. During the Vietnam War many popular songs reflected an anti-war or a pro-peace message. They included 'Masters of war', 'Blowin' in the wind' and 'The times they are a changin' by Bob Dylan, 'Give peace a chance' by John Lennon, 'The universal soldier' by Buffy Saint Marie, and 'The eve of destruction' by Barry McGuire.
   - Look up the lyrics of at least three of these songs and list all of the anti-war ideas and arguments used. For each idea, record a brief quote.
   - Write your own anti-war or pro-peace song or poem.

10B rich task

Entertaining the troops

Over the course of the Vietnam War, more than 100 entertainers and groups travelled to Vietnam to entertain the troops. Their concerts played a very important role in keeping up morale among the soldiers. Entertainers went to Vietnam for a variety of reasons – patriotism, a spirit of adventure, even career prospects. Some entertainers supported the war and others opposed it, but still wanted to support the soldiers.



Source 1 The real Sapphires: sisters Laurel Robinson and Lois Peeler and their cousins Beverley Briggs and Naomi Mayers, 2012

Many popular Australian acts performed in Vietnam. Among those who entertained in Vietnam were Little Pattie, Lorrae Desmond, Ian Turpie, Col Joye, Patti McGrath, Joy Yates, Denise Drysdale, Johnny O'Keefe and many others. Norman (Normie) Rowe, an Australian singer, was a conscripted soldier who often joined the entertainers. The Indigenous singing group the Sapphires was a popular act and the story of the group was told in the 2012 film *The Sapphires*.



Source 2 The Sapphires in the 2012 movie

Source 3

LORRAE DESMOND: "So we came back from America and then a really interesting thing happened when the Australian Dance Band asked me if I would go with them to Vietnam. And, of course, having entertained troops from other countries, suddenly all those young men are my babies. And I kept going back and forth until I'd been there five times. … whenever I had a few weeks spare, I mean, I didn't sit around. I'd say, 'Let's go out to the boys.'
… But then when I got to Vietnam, they were my boys and they still are my boys. They even gave me a plaque saying, 'To the mother of all Vietnam veterans' which I love.

PETER THOMPSON: It seems to have affected many performers that way. That those that have gone to these war zones to perform fuelled an incredibly special relationship with those that they performed for.

LORRAE DESMOND: Do you know, you get letters like about 50 years afterwards saying thank you … That's very special that you stay in somebody's life for that long.

Extract from the program *'Talking Heads',* ABC, 14 April 2008.

skill**drill:** Historical significance

Create and deliver an audiovisual presentation

One of the most popular and engaging ways to present the findings of an historical inquiry is through an audiovisual presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation there are several steps to follow.

Step 1 Develop the question or questions that your audiovisual presentation will explore.

Step 2 Gather your research.

Use the images in this text along with other texts and internet resources. Make sure that you record the dates and reference details of all sources.

Step 3 Plan and create your presentation.

Once you have gathered your research, plan your presentation to make sure that it addresses the question or questions that you wish to explore. If yours is a group presentation, make sure that the workload is distributed evenly. Decide on the format that you will use – PowerPoint, Prezi, a short film, a website, a talk supported by a poster, etc. You could also use suitable and relevant music.

Step 4 Deliver your presentation.

- Make sure that you have rehearsed your presentation so that you can deliver it with confidence.
- Engage your audience by speaking slowly and clearly and making eye contact. You may begin by posing one or two questions to the audience to get them involved from the start.
- Finish strongly. Your presentation should finish on a high note.
- Prepare for the worst by having a back-up plan in case technology lets you down.
- Encourage your audience to comment or ask questions at the end of the presentation.

Apply the skill

1 Research a number of Australian performers who entertained the troops in Vietnam. Develop an overarching question such as:

What role did visiting entertainers play in keeping morale high during the Vietnam War?

OR

Why were entertainers willing to travel to Vietnam to perform for the troops and what impact did the experience have on them?

2 Develop a series of questions to guide your research such as:

- What had the entertainers achieved before going to Vietnam?
- What motivated the entertainers to go to Vietnam?
- What were their experiences of the travel, performing conditions, dangers, etc.?
- What songs did they perform?
- How were they received by the troops?
- How do they now look back on the experience?

3 Collect a range of visual resources and short quotes and prepare your audiovisual presentation. Present your finished product to the class.

Extend your understanding

The Australian film *The Sapphires* (2012) tells the story of a group of Indigenous Australian entertainers who travelled to Vietnam to entertain the American troops. It was based on a play written by Tony Briggs. Briggs based the story on the experience of his mother and aunt, who had been entertainers in Vietnam. View the film and complete the following tasks:

1 Conduct some research into the true story of the Sapphires.

2 What can you learn from the film about values relating to Indigenous people, to women and to the war in the 1960s?

3 There are some differences between the real story and the film. One of the main differences is that Naomi and Beverley refused to go to Vietnam because they opposed the war. Identify other differences. Why do you think that these changes were made? Do you think that it matters that the true story was not told?

4 Use the material you have researched to answer the following question, in essay form:

To what extent is *The Sapphires* a useful historical resource about the Vietnam War era?

10.10 Impact of the war on Vietnam veterans

The homecoming for Vietnam veterans was very different from the experiences of their grandfathers and fathers who served in the First and Second World Wars. The Vietnam War had become so unpopular that there was no real welcome home. To avoid protestors, returning troops were often flown into Australian airports after dark. Some marched in parades in their home towns and cities on their return, but there was no official parade or welcome for the Vietnam veterans until 1987 (see Source 1).

Health problems

Some veterans returned with physical injuries – wounds, lost limbs, skin rashes, hearing problems or respiratory problems. In some ways, they were better off than those with psychological issues, because their problems were visible, they received sympathy and there were medical treatments available.

Those who returned with stress disorders were given very little sympathy from the public. At the time, the population did not really understand the seriousness of poor mental health. Returned soldiers felt like no one understood the fear and anxiety that they were experiencing. Sometimes family and friends made matters worse, by telling veterans how lucky they were to have survived the war unscathed. By the 1990s, it had been established that the suicide rate for Vietnam veterans was higher than that for all Australian males in the same age group.



Source 1 For many Vietnam veterans, the October 1987 Welcome Home Parade in Sydney was the first official parade or welcome since their return from Vietnam.

Source 2

> One minute I was in Vietnam and the next minute I was home, and I was totally lost … I know my mum and dad found it very hard to handle me … In fact, they told me quite plainly that I wasn't the same person any more. I was prone to get violent, punch walls, get into rages very quickly. I've never slept right since the day I came home.

Michael Scrase, from Stuart Rintoul, *Ashes of Vietnam: Australian Voices*, William Heinemann Australia, 1987, pp. 181, 182, 184

As a response to the sense of neglect felt by many Vietnam veterans, the Vietnam Veterans Association was formed in 1979 to actively represent the interests of those who served in the Vietnam War. Since then, there has been increasing awareness of the psychological impact of war and great improvements in the treatments available to returned soldiers. Most Vietnam veterans are now in their sixties and seventies.

Exposure to chemicals

One of the main concerns of Vietnam veterans was the possible harmful effect of their exposure to chemical pesticides including Agent Orange. Exposure was thought to lead to higher instances of certain diseases and cancers, as well as birth defects in some children of Vietnam veterans. It was a source of anger and disappointment among Vietnam veterans when governments were slow to react to their concerns.

Source 3

> This study provides good evidence that Australian male veterans of the Vietnam War have an increased rate of cancer overall [compared to the general male population] … Rates of melanoma and … prostate cancer were consistently elevated … The reason for these increases is unclear. In addition to exposure to known carcinogens [substances that cause cancer], lifestyle changes, including alcohol and tobacco consumption may play a role. For several other malignancies [cancers] … Australian Vietnam War veterans have rates lower than the rate in the Australian population.

Extract from 'Cancer incidence in Australian Vietnam War Veterans Study 2005', Department of Veterans' Affairs, in Bruce Davies, *Vietnam: The Complete Story of the Australian War*, Allen & Unwin, 2012, p. 583



Source 4 Many of Australia's Vietnam veterans returned from war with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD).

Check your learning 10.10

Remember and understand

1. What problems faced some returned servicemen after the Vietnam War?
2. What are some of the health problems believed to have been caused by Agent Orange?

Apply and analyse

3. Why do you think the welcome given to returned Vietnam soldiers was different from that given to returning soldiers at the end of the First and Second World Wars?
4. Michael Scrase says 'One minute I was in Vietnam and the next minute I was home'. How does this statement help us to understand some of the distress faced by returned soldiers? How could the situation have been better handled?

Evaluate and create

5. Read Source 3.
   - **a** What claims does the document make about the incidence of cancer in Vietnam veterans?
   - **b** What reasons does the report offer for these cancer rates?
   - **c** How might you explain the lower rate for some cancers?
6. Conduct further research into the Vietnam Veterans Association. Prepare a pamphlet that outlines the work of the Association and the ways in which it can be of assistance to returned soldiers. The pamphlet is to be made available in the Returned and Services League (RSL) branches, doctors' waiting rooms and hospital entrances.

10.11 The impact of war on the Vietnamese people

The long years of conflict in Vietnam had a devastating effect on both North and South Vietnam. By the time the war ended, the Vietnamese people had been living in a war zone since 1940. Bombing had destroyed much of the nation's infrastructure, and hundreds of thousands of hectares of rich agricultural land had been rendered useless. There was also an enormous human toll, not just in terms of people who had lost their lives but also those affected by injury and displacement.



Source 1 The entrance to a 'friendship village' in Van Canh commemorating child victims of Agent Orange poisoning. The monument was built in 1998 by French, American, English, German, Japanese and Vietnamese war veterans.

The human toll

The number of soldiers killed on both sides reached the hundreds of thousands. An unknown number of civilians, possibly over a million, also died as a result of the armed conflicts, bombings and assassinations. An even greater number would suffer from the effects of Agent Orange and other chemical agents sprayed by allied forces. Many villages in the south had been deliberately destroyed in an attempt to force Viet Cong out of hiding. The people were relocated to newly built settlements, but many felt great sorrow about their separation from traditional lands and the graves of their ancestors.

The economy of Vietnam was also in ruins. Despite the destruction, during the war, the presence of foreign troops had been good for the economy, especially in the south. The American and Australian troops spent lots of money on food, drink and accommodation, taxis, entertainment and recreation. When the soldiers left, many businesses collapsed and many people were left without a job. The economy was made worse by the US decision, in 1975, to stop trading with Vietnam and to cease foreign aid.

The new regime

After Australian and US troops withdrew from Vietnam in 1973, the North Vietnamese advanced southwards. After a further two years of fighting, their tanks rolled into the former Presidential Palace in Saigon on 29 April 1975. Vietnam was finally unified as a communist country. Any South Vietnamese who had worked with or supported the West were regarded as suspect by the communist government. These included South Vietnamese army personnel and also the translators, administrative support staff and guides who had helped the US and Australian troops.

People who were thought to be influenced by the West were imprisoned in '**re-education camps**'. It is estimated that about one million Vietnamese were imprisoned in these camps, most without a trial. Many were tortured and about 165 000 people died in these camps. Most people in the camps were imprisoned for periods of three to 10 years, but some people were held for up to 17 years.

Source 2 Numbers of Vietnamese casualties in the Vietnam War

Type of casualty	Number of people
South Vietnamese troops killed or missing in action	220 357
South Vietnamese troops wounded	1.17 million
North Vietnamese and Viet Cong troops killed	660 000
South Vietnamese civilian casualties	325 000–1 million
North Vietnamese civilian casualties from US bombings	65 000
Civilians assassinated by North Vietnamese and Viet Cong	166 000
Vietnamese affected by chemical agents	3 million

Source: Paul Ham, *Vietnam: The Australian War*, Harper Collins, 2000



Source 3 Desperate South Vietnamese scale the wall of the US Embassy in Saigon, trying to reach evacuation helicopters as the last Americans departed from Vietnam, 29 April 1975.

Check your learning 10.11

Remember and understand

1 Study Source 2. Which section of Vietnam, North or South, suffered most as a result of the Vietnam War?

2 What were the negative consequences of the village destruction and relocation program?

Apply and analyse

3 List all of the consequences of the war for Vietnam and the Vietnamese people. Which outcome do you believe to be the most negative? Explain your decision.

4 Explain why the USA cut off trade and foreign aid wto Vietnam after the communist victory.

Evaluate and create

5 Imagine you were a Vietnamese shopkeeper who traded with Australian soldiers during the Vietnam War. After the war, you are charged with disloyalty and could be sent to a re-education camp. Prepare a speech in which you argue that you should not be imprisoned. You must provide at least two different arguments.

6 Conduct some further research on the direct and longer-term impacts of chemicals such as Agent Orange. Use the information and images to create a poster with the message 'Chemical Warfare is NEVER justified!'

10.12 Immigration and 'boat people'

Many Vietnamese families, whose lives had been disrupted by the war and the communist takeover, became desperate to leave the country. Some chose to leave because they feared political persecution. Others saw fewer opportunities under a communist system.

Boat people

In the months following the fall of Saigon in April 1975, thousands of Vietnamese began fleeing their country, many of them in unseaworthy fishing boats. The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) recognised the tragedy that was unfolding. Refugee camps were established in Malaysia, Hong Kong, Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia to process the claims of Vietnamese fleeing their country. From these camps, refugees were processed and resettled in countries willing to accept them.

The Australian government's response to this wave of refugees was cautious at first. Only the Vietnamese spouses and children of Australian citizens were to be accepted. Later in 1975, two airlifts brought nearly 300 war orphans to Australia for adoption. It was not until the election of the Fraser Government in December 1975 that a slightly more welcoming attitude was adopted.





Source 2 A refugee camp in Asia for Vietnamese refugees

The first five Vietnamese 'boat people' arrived in Darwin Harbour on 26 April 1976. After several weeks of debate, the group was given permission to stay. However, this generous response was to change in coming years as the numbers of boat people increased. By 1977, over 1000 refugees from Vietnam and Cambodia had arrived by boat, and public opinion was turning against them. Through the UNHCR, over 3000 refugees were brought in by air, from camps in Malaysia and Thailand.

Different opinions developed in Australia on the issue of accepting refugees. Some believed that boat people should be welcomed. Others thought that only people coming through 'official channels' should be accepted. This dilemma was reflected in *The Age*, on 15 November 1977: 'while Australia can afford to be generous, it cannot be expected to play host to every unscheduled refugee.'

Source 1 Vietnamese refugees arriving at Sydney Airport in June 1975. Many were accepted as refugees by the Australian government after the war and flown to Australia.

Source 3

To flee one's country is not an easy choice to make. You're leaving behind your homes, your relatives and friends, your culture, your possessions, your memories, your childhood. Fleeing a country on a boat is also a dangerous affair. People speak of the savagery of being looted, raped and killed by pirates at sea. People talk about the unspeakable horrors of resorting to cannibalism of the dead to regain enough strength to fix the boat's engine. Many of us had knowledge of this so why did we take the risk? We seek freedom because the government we were escaping did not respect our freedom. You will find this is a common story among refugees.

Extract from a talk by Minh Nguyen given to high school students at St Scholastica's College, Glebe, Sydney, 8 March 2004



Source 4 Vietnamese asylum seekers arrive in Darwin Harbour in 1981.

Vietnamese Australians

Over 130 000 Vietnamese and Cambodian refugees were settled in Australia in the 1970s and 1980s. These people, their children and now their grandchildren are making an outstanding contribution to the richness of Australian life. Vietnamese Australians are to be found in all fields of life and work – medicine, education, business, construction, sport and the arts. One of the most high profile Vietnamese Australians is Anh Do, who arrived in Australia as a refugee on a flimsy fishing boat when he was a baby. Anh completed a combined business law degree and is now a comedian, writer, actor and painter. His first book, *The Happiest Refugee*, chronicles his family's journey to Australia and his life growing up here as a refugee.



Source 5 Anh Do is one of the many Vietnamese refugees who have made a better life in Australia.

Check your learning 10.12

Remember and understand

1 What factors led so many Vietnamese to want to leave their country after the fall of Saigon?

Apply and analyse

2 The decision to airlift Vietnamese orphaned babies to Australia was praised by some and criticised by others. Suggest two arguments in support of this program and two against it.

3 Using the text, Source 1 and other research on Vietnamese boat people to make a list of the qualities and characteristics that such people demonstrated in their attempts to find a new life in Australia.

Evaluate and create

4 One of the five Vietnamese people who first landed by boat in Darwin was Lam Tac Tam. In 2013 he took part in an interview to mark the 35th anniversary of his arrival in Australia. The interview can be found on the SBS website at www.sbs.com.au/news/article/2011/04/27/anniversary-first-vietnam-boat-marked or via a link in your obook. Read the interview and answer the following:

- **a** What does the interview tell you about the difficulties that the five faced on their journey?
- **b** How were the five received in Australia? How does this compare with attitudes to boat arrivals today?
- **c** Was there anything that you learnt through the interview that surprised or even shocked you?

10.13 Australia's growing relationship with South-East Asia

At the end of the Second World War, Australians still felt more closely aligned with Britain than with Asia. Australia has had a history of suspicion towards its Asian neighbours, dating back to the goldrush days of the 1850s.

During the 1950s, many Australians still felt the threat of an Asian invasion, which was heightened by Japan's show of military strength during the Second World War and the communist takeover in China. The White Australia Policy was still firmly in place and the vast majority of post-war immigrants came from Britain, southern or eastern Europe. Britain was still seen by many as the 'Mother Country' and the visit of the Queen in 1954 saw one of the largest celebrations that the nation had experienced.

Changing attitudes

Despite this dominant European focus, Australians were increasingly forced to recognise the country's position in the Asia-Pacific region. Even before the Vietnam War, the wars and conflicts in Korea, Malaysia and Indonesia turned the attention of the government and the military towards the local region.

By the late 1960s, Australians had experienced a decade of further change. The generation born after the Second World War was growing up and had more progressive ideas about gender, race, human rights, war and peace. Views were changing about the role of women and there was a relaxation of the White Australia Policy under the Holt Government. The



Source 1 The 25th gathering of APEC leaders, October 2013

campaigns against conscription and the Vietnam War led some to question the role of government and also contributed to greater political awareness.

These changes played a role in the election of Gough Whitlam's Government in 1972, the first Labor government in Australia in 23 years.

The Whitlam Government established diplomatic relations with China and the unified government in Vietnam. The White Australia Policy was officially ended and Australia began to welcome immigrants from Asia, including Vietnamese refugees. As a result, Australian society became much more culturally diverse. A new era of cooperation and trade with Asia was also established and Australia became a member of Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), firmly placing itself as a part of Asia.

Today, China is Australia's most important trading partner and one of the country's largest sources of tourism. Asian countries are also among the most popular destinations for Australian tourists, and hundreds of thousands of Asian students come to Australia each year to complete their education.

The legacy of the Vietnam War

It is now more than 40 years since the last Australian soldiers left Vietnam, and since the conscription policy was terminated. The White Australia Policy is officially over and Vietnamese immigrants form a vital and respected part of Australian society.

However, many of the issues that characterised the Vietnam War period still resonate today. There is still suspicion, in some quarters, of immigrants who do not fit the 'traditional Australian' mould. Since the late 1990s, there has been growing suspicion and negativity about refugees and asylum seekers who arrive on Australia's shores, especially by boat. The Australian Prime Minister John Howard said in his 2001 election speech, 'We will decide who comes to this country and the circumstances in which they come.' Issues such as multiculturalism, the flag and the republican movement are still debated. It appears that a significant percentage of the population, mainly but not exclusively older Australians, still clings to the notion that Australia is predominantly a British nation.



Source 2 This cartoon by Bill Leak represents former Prime Minister John Howard as Captain Cook arriving in Australia.

Check your learning 10.13

Remember and understand

1 What evidence is there that Australia has a heritage of suspicion towards Asian immigration?
2 How did Australia's relationship with Asia change from the late 1960s and through the 1970s?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain the social changes that took place in the 1960s that led to new attitudes towards war, race, gender and human rights.
4 Thousands more people seeking asylum arrive in Australia by aeroplane than by boat. Many of them arrive on visitor visas then seek to stay on. Yet, the boat people are still regarded with more suspicion and hostility. How do you explain the different attitudes towards these two groups?

Evaluate and create

5 Analyse Source 2. Use the following questions as the basis for your analysis:
- Explain the context for this cartoon (i.e. what had been happening that prompted Leak to draw this particular cartoon?).
- What points is the cartoon making and what techniques are used to make these points?
- How effective do you think this cartoon would have been in reinforcing or changing attitudes?

6 Prepare a speech to be delivered at a school assembly. The topic for your speech is:
'The 21st century will be Australia's Asian century.'

10C rich task

SBS and the *Thoi Su* controversy

A large proportion of Vietnamese Australians are either refugees or related to the refugees who fled to Australia after the collapse of the South Vietnamese government. Many of them are still haunted by the ill treatment and persecution they received from the communist government before they escaped.

In October 2003, many members of the Vietnamese community were upset when the multicultural broadcaster SBS began screening a Vietnamese language current affairs program called *Thoi Su.* The program is produced by the state-run (communist) Vietnamese news service.

The decision to screen *Thoi Su* caused a mixed reaction in Australia. One of the first to object was Trung Doan, National President of the Vietnamese Community in Australia (VCA). He wrote an article in the Melbourne *Herald Sun*.

Source 1

SBS TV's target audience are Vietnamese Australians, the great majority refugees or their reunited relatives. Many were among the one million put into labour camps when Saigon fell, or the millions whose houses and other properties were confiscated by the regime. They do not have to go far to see their former tormentors' faces and propaganda – it's right there, in their home.

… I have met and heard of scores of non-viewers around Australia who have lost sleep or had nightmarish flashbacks just because they know the program is there.

Extract from 'Every Day SBS Twists the Knife', Trung Doan, *Herald Sun,* 16 October 2003

Over the following two months, thousands of Vietnamese Australians protested outside SBS's offices in Melbourne and Sydney to demand an end to the *Thoi Su* broadcasts.

SBS Television initially resisted the complaints. The broadcaster argued that the vast majority of the Vietnamese Australian population would not find the program offensive.

SBS Managing Director Nigel Milan appeared before a Senate Estimates Committee where he argued for the station's right to freely show any program they saw fit. He suggested that VCA did not represent the majority of the Vietnamese.

Source 2

Mr Milan: It is a bit hard to say in terms of individuals because the no campaign is highly organised. There are coupons to cut out on the front of the Vietnamese language newspapers and send in to SBS, whereas the yes campaign is –

Senator Conroy: Are you suggesting that this is like *TV Week* – one person is cutting out 10 coupons and sending them in? Is that what you think is happening?

Mr Milan: Yes. The switchboard identified 23 calls from the same person on one evening. So it is quite an organised campaign. Up until this week, the numbers have been running substantially in favour of the no vote (i.e. don't withdraw the program), probably on a 10 to one ratio, but since the demonstration and the issue getting broader community awareness, the yes vote is beginning to increase.

Extract from a meeting of the Senate Environment Communications Information Technology and the Arts Legislation Committee, 3 November 2003

The campaign against *Thoi Su* was well organised and had the support of high profile conservative media commentators, including Alan Jones and Andrew Bolt. VCA delegations visited the offices of at least 20 MPs, including Communications Minister Daryl Williams and Labor's spokesman Lindsay Tanner.

In December 2003 SBS conceded to pressure and withdrew *Thoi Su* from broadcast. It also amended its code of practice 'to provide guidance for future additions to the WorldWatch line-up'.

Source 3

[SBS] Television really acted very much as a broadcaster, you know: 'We will determine what goes to air based on quality and our charter', and they never really talked directly to people. What the Vietnamese were trying to say was, 'We'd really like to talk before you put something like that on the air!' They're not saying, 'Never, ever put this on, or else!' They were trying to have a conversation with us.

SBS Radio presenter Olya Booyar. Quotation from *The SBS Story: The Challenge of Cultural Diversity*, Ien Ang, Gay Hawkins and Lamia Dabboussy, 2008, page 43



Source 4 Members of the Vietnamese community protesting outside the SBS office in Sydney, 2003

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identify the origin, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources

Historians use primary and secondary sources to gather evidence about the past. Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but sources will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of the time in which they were created.

When considering the value of sources, the student of history should ask the following questions:

- What is the context – that is, what was going on at the time that led to the creation of the source?
- Who created the source – what do you know about the creator? Did the creator have reasons for presenting a particular point of view?
- Where did the source appear – a mainstream newspaper, a special focus publication, a family memoir, a public place, etc.? What does this tell you about its reliability?
- Is it an eyewitness account or was it produced later?
- What was the purpose of the source – to inform, to persuade, to entertain, to provide an alternative viewpoint, to gain support, to discredit another viewpoint, etc.?

Having considered the source in the light of these questions, the student of history should be able to assess its value as a piece of historical evidence.

Apply the skill

1 Using the questions above, analyse Source 1.

2 Which of the four sources do you believe to be most helpful in explaining the *Thoi Su* controversy? Why?

3 Which of the four sources do you believe is most likely to be accurate and reliable? Explain your choice.

4 Suggest one additional source or piece of information that would help you to understand whether the program *Thoi Su* should have been withdrawn or allowed to continue.

Extend your understanding

1 The *Thoi Su* controversy spread outside the Vietnamese-Australian community and led to members of the general public arguing both for and against its continued broadcast. Write a letter to the editor presenting your opinion on the issue. You may draw on the sources on these pages and any additional information that you can gather. Your argument should take into account the perspectives presented by both sides.

Glossary

A

acid rain rain that becomes acidic by mixing with polluting gases

Agent Orange one of the most poisonous defoliants used in Vietnam. It is believed to have been responsible for deformities and birth defects among Vietnamese people, and soldiers who fought in the war.

antisemitism prejudice, hatred or discrimination against Jews

apartheid a system of racial segregation enforced in South Africa from 1948 to 1994; literally meaning 'the state of being apart'

appeasement a policy adopted by Britain and France towards Germany from the mid-1930s until 1939; the policy was designed to avoid a second world war by granting certain allowances to Hitler and the Nazi government

arms race, the a situation in which rival countries compete to build and possess the largest stockpile of weapons; commonly used during the Cold War to refer to the competition between USA and USSR to stockpile nuclear weapons

artefact any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, the remains of a building)

assimilation (in Australian history) the process by which a minority group adopts the language and customs of a dominant population; in the mid-1900s assimilation of Indigenous Australians into white society became official government policy in Australia

assisted migrant a person wanting to settle in Australia whose transportation costs were paid by the government in exchange for a set period of unpaid work on arrival

asylum seeker a person who has applied for recognition (or sought protection) as a refugee

B

baby boomer someone born between 1946 and 1964; this was the time when there was a spike in birth rates after World War II (known as a baby boom)

bias a particular view or attitude towards someone or something, especially one that prevents the fair and reasonable consideration of an issue; prejudice

biosphere all living things on Earth (i.e. plants, animals, humans and other organisms)

bipartisan (in a two-party political system such as Australia) an action or vote involving agreement from both parties

***Blitz*, the** a term used to describe a period during World War II when major cities across the United Kingdom were the target of sustained bombing campaigns by the German air force

Blitzkrieg a German term meaning 'lightning war'; a military tactic adopted by German forces during World War II that involved launching sudden, intense attacks on enemies using fighter aircraft and tanks followed by the advance of ground troops

boat people a common term used to describe people who travel by sea to seek asylum (as opposed to gaining entry by land, air or via local processing centres)

C

capitalism a way of organising a society in which trade and industry are controlled by private owners for profit

cause and effect a key concept in history: the link between what causes an action and the outcome of that action; an appreciation of the fact that events that take place (both short-term and long-term) are linked and can have impacts on people and places for many years to come

censorship the act or practice of banning or limiting access to information, books or ideas that are considered sensitive or damaging

census a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can often include age, occupation, income, religious beliefs, etc.

chronology a record of events in the order they took place

civil rights the rights belonging to every individual including civil liberties, due legal process, equal protection under the law and freedom from discrimination; a term commonly used in the United States to refer to a set of rights and freedoms guaranteed by Amendments to the US Constitution and by subsequent acts of Congress

climate change a change in global or regional climate patterns; in particular, a change apparent from the mid to late 20th century onwards and attributed largely to the increased levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide produced by the use of fossil fuels

Cold War, the the state of political conflict and hostility that existed between the USSR (and its allies) and the USA (and its allies) from 1945 to 1990; characterised by threats, propaganda, public competition (see arms race) but not resulting in direct fighting or military conflict

colony a country or area under the full or partial political control of another country and occupied by settlers from that country

communism a way of organising a society in which the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned (by the state) and goods are distributed equally according to need; as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as capitalism

Communist Party Dissolution Bill a Bill introduced by the Menzies Government in 1950 to ban the Communist Party. The Bill was defeated.

conscription the compulsory recruitment of people to serve in the armed forces, often during times of war

contestability a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that some historians may challenge or dispute particular interpretations of historical sources, historical events or issues put forward by other historians

continuity and change a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that while some aspects of a society stay the same over time (continuity), others will develop and transform (change)

convict a person found guilty of a crime and sentenced by a court to serve some kind of punishment

Crown land land belonging to the monarch or to the state in a dominion (i.e. a self-governing country that is part of the British Commonwealth)

D

decolonisation the process by which a country that was previously a colony of an imperial power becomes politically independent

defoliants chemicals used by the Americans and Australians to kill the jungle vegetation during the Vietnam War

deforestation the removal of trees and other plant life from a forested area, either by cutting down or burning; usually carried out to clear the land for farming

displaced person a person forced to leave their home region or country due to war, persecution or natural disaster

dispossession to deprive a person or people of the possession or occupancy of land and property; when the British colonised Australia in the 18th century large numbers of Indigenous Australians were dispossessed of their ancestral lands, their hunting grounds and water resources; they were also cut off from their spiritual and cultural heritage as a result of dispossession

domino theory, the the theory put forward by US President Eisenhower that if one nation in South-East Asia adopted communism, others would follow; just like a row of dominoes topple once the first one is pushed over

E

economic migrant a person who migrates for reasons such as seeking employment or an improved financial position

ecosystem a complex community made up of living organisms that interact with each other and with their environment; an abbreviation for 'ecological system'. Made up of biotic and abiotic components.

emigrant a person who departs (leaves) their native country or region in order to settle permanently in another

emigration the act of leaving one country or region in order to settle in another

emissions trading scheme a scheme devised to cap the level of emissions, or pollution. Each country has an emission limit expressed in units, and countries can trade these units. For example, a country that has spare units (that is, it has not used all the emissions it is allowed) can sell them to another country that is over its emissions target.

empathy a key concept in history: the ability to understand another person's point of view, way of life, or decisions by taking their special circumstances and values into consideration

environmentalism a broad philosophy and social movement concerned with environmental protection

eugenics the belief in (and practice of) improving the genetic qualities of the human race by discouraging people with genetic defects or negative genetic traits (characteristics) from reproducing and/or encouraging people with positive genetic traits to reproduce

evidence a key concept in history: the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

F

fascism a way of organising a society in which a government ruled by a dictator has complete power over the lives of the people, commerce and industry and in which any criticism of or opposition to the government is suppressed by force; an extreme form of nationalism

Federation the process by which separate colonies or states form a unified nation with a central government; the Commonwealth of Australia was established in 1901 after the six colonies were joined

fossil fuels fuel made from the decomposed (fossilised) remains of plants and animals that lived millions of years ago (e.g. coal, oil, gas)

free settler a person who leaves their homeland by choice to settle in a new country or colony

G

Gaia hypothesis the theory that the Earth is a single, interconnected, self-contained system

Geneva Convention, the a term used to describe a number of international treaties and agreements that established a code of conduct for all countries during times of war; the agreement outlines the rights of prisoners (both military and civilian), and outlines protections for the wounded, and for civilians living in or around war zones

genocide the deliberate and systematic (planned) mass killing of people based on their race, ethnicity, religion or culture

ghetto a section of a town or city established by the Nazis during World War II to confine and isolate Jews and other 'undesirables' from the wider population

globalisation the increasing interconnections between countries all around the world, particularly economic, political, trade and cultural exchanges

Great Depression, the a period of severe economic downturn between 1929 and 1934, that affected most countries around the world

greenhouse effect gases, such as carbon dioxide, absorb radiation from the Sun's rays trapping heat in the Earth's atmosphere

Green Revolution, the a period of research, development and alteration of agricultural techniques that took place between the 1940s and 1960s, most markedly in the developing world, which saw increased global agricultural production

guerrilla war a form of warfare in which small and independent groups of combatants (known as guerillas) take part in non-traditional fighting methods such as ambushes, sabotages and raids

guerrilla warfare (tactics) unconventional method of warfare used by the Vietminh. It involved an unseen enemy, surprise and ambush tactics.

H

'Hearts and Minds' a policy pursued by the US and Australian Governments during the Vietnam War. The aim was to win the enemy over by care and kindness and medical aid. The policy had some success.

historical inquiry the process of examining historical evidence, conducting research and asking questions about it to find out about the past

Holocaust, the the deliberate and systematic (planned) mass murder of Jews and other 'undesirables' by the Nazis during World War II (*see also Shoah*)

hyperinflation when a country experiences very high and rapidly increasing rates of inflation, which quickly devalues the local currency

hypothesis a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and evidence, about something that has not been proven

I

illegal immigrant a person who enters (arrives in) a country or region illegally in order to settle permanently

immigrant a person who enters (arrives in) a country or region to which they are not native in order to settle permanently

immigration the act of entering and settling permanently in a country or region to which a person is not native

industrialise to transform from an economy based primarily on agriculture and farming to one based on manufacturing and industry

Industrial Revolution, the the name given to the period of rapid development in manufacturing and industry from 1750 to 1900, particularly in Britain

infrastructure manmade structures for public use – for example, roads, bridges, wharves and dams

integration (in Australian history) an immigration policy introduced during the 1960s after the failure of assimilation; integration was based around the belief that new migrants should conform to the attitudes, values and beliefs of the wider society while concealing their traditional cultures and languages

internal combustion engine an engine that generates power by burning petrol, oil or another fuel with air inside the engine

internment the detention or imprisonment of people (commonly in large numbers) without trial, especially during times of war

K

Ku Klux Klan a secret society of white supremacists originally formed in the southern states of the USA after the American Civil War to protest against the granting of civil rights to freed black slaves; the group uses violence and acts of intimidation to achieve its goals

L

League of Nations, the an international organisation established at the end of World War I to maintain world peace and prevent the outbreak of future wars by encouraging nations to negotiate with one another; the League of Nations had some early successes but ultimately failed in its primary purpose of preventing future wars

M

mandatory detention (in Australian history) a feature of Australian immigration policy under which the Australian government legislated for the compulsory detention of all persons entering the country without a valid visa while security and health checks are undertaken and the legitimacy of their claims are processed

manifesto a public document outlining a set of principles, policies, or intentions, especially of a political nature

migrant a person who moves from one country or region to another to settle there permanently

migration the movement of people from one place to another

militarism a focus within a country on boosting the strength of the military by growing the armed forces and spending on military equipment

militia a term used to describe a fighting force that is made up of non-professional (civilian) fighters

mission (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century (usually by Christian missionaries) to accommodate, educate and convert Indigenous Australians into Christians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

monoculturalism the practice of actively preserving a single national culture through the exclusion of external influences; a policy of monoculturalism aims to achieve a single, homogeneous society without diversity through approaches like assimilation and integration

moratorium an anti-war protest intended to make the nation pause and reassess its commitment to the war

multiculturalism the practice of a doctrine that several different cultures can coexist peacefully and equitably in a single country; a policy of multiculturalism aims to achieve a society in which a range of different cultures are made to feel included, accommodated and protected by law

N

nationalism a sense of pride in, and love of, one's country; also the idea that one nation's culture and interests are superior to those of another nation

native title (in Australian history) the recognition by Australian law that some Indigenous people have rights and interests to the land that come from their traditional laws and customs; native title overturned the long-held legal position that Australia was *terra nullius* ('land belonging to no one') when European settlement occurred

Nazi a member of the National Socialist Party in Germany, led by Hitler before and during World War II

non-renewable resource a resource that cannot be regenerated once it is used up (e.g. oil, coal)

P

paternalism the practice of people in positions of authority restricting the freedom of others. There was paternalism from European Australians towards Indigenous Australians until the mid-20th century.

perspectives a key concept in history: a point of view about an event or issue; a person's perspective is often influenced by their knowledge, culture or beliefs

popular culture film, television, music, sport, etc., that has broad appeal and is international in scope

primary source a source that existed or was made at the time being studied

prisoner of war (POW) a person (particularly a member of the armed forces) who is captured and held by enemy forces during times of war

propaganda information or material that attempts to influence the behaviour or opinions of people within a society; propaganda can take many forms (e.g. posters, flyers, advertising campaigns, films) and is designed to promote a particular cause or course of action and/or damage the cause of an enemy

protection (in Australian history) a government policy introduced in Australia from 1850 onwards, designed to give the government extensive power over the lives of Aboriginal people (including the regulation of where they lived, where they worked, who they married and what languages they spoke); under this policy, a number of reserves and missions were established around Australia and many Aboriginal people were forced to move and live there

protectorate a section of land under the control of a protector (a government official responsible for administering the affairs of the Indigenous population)

pull factors factors or characteristics that are attractive about a place that a person is considering moving to

push factors factors or characteristics that are unattractive about a place that a person is considering moving away from

Q

quota an official limit on the number or amount of people or things that are allowed

R

rationing the carefully controlled distribution of resources, goods, or services that are scarce; during World War II, rationing systems were introduced by the governments in Britain and Australia to ensure that the limited supplies of basic goods were distributed among the population evenly

reconciliation (in Australian history) a term used to refer to the bringing together of Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians; reconciliation is a process that involves working to overcome past divisions and address inequalities between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians

re-education camps places of harsh punishment established after the communist victory in Vietnam in 1975

referendum (in Australian history) a national vote of the people on actions proposed by the government; any proposed changes to the Australian Constitution must be put to a vote in a referendum

refugee a person who has fled their home country to seek safety in another country as a result of conflict or persecution (or a range of other reasons recognised by law)

reparations money paid by one country to another as compensation for damage, injuries and deaths it has caused during war

reserve (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century in Australia (usually by colonial powers) to accommodate, educate and 'civilise' Indigenous Australians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

reserved occupations occupations that were considered vital to the war effort at home, such as farming and manufacturing. Men working in these occupations were not allowed to enlist in the armed forces.

S

secondary source a source created after the time being studied

segregation (in Australian history) the government policy and practice of separating the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples from the European settlers; (in US history) the policy of separating African American people from white people

self-determination the right of the people in a particular place to choose the form of government they will put in place and the course of action they will take

Shoah a Hebrew word meaning 'catastrophe', used to describe the extermination of Jews by the Nazis during World War II (*see also* Holocaust)

significance a key concept in history: the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

sitcom an abbreviated term used to describe a 'situation comedy'; a television show with set characters who, every episode, find themselves in humorous situations

skilled migrant a type of migrant granted preferential treatment based on their skill or profession

source any item (e.g. artefact, building, document) that has been left behind from the past; historical sources can be divided into two categories depending on when they were created (see primary source and secondary source)

Stolen Generations, the the children of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander descent who were forcibly removed from their families by government officials and church missions in Australia and raised by white Australians; this practice was part of official government policy between around 1909 and 1969

superpower a very powerful and dominant nation; especially used during the Cold War era to refer to the USA and the USSR (both nuclear powers considered to be most powerful nations on Earth)

sustainability a concept that relates to the ongoing capacity of the Earth to maintain all life; this means developing ways to ensure the Earth's resources are used and managed responsibly so they can be maintained for future generations

T

tariff a tax (usually applied to goods being imported or exported)

timeline a visual representation of time showing a sequence of related historical events in chronological order

Treaty of Versailles, the a treaty (binding agreement) that ended World War I and forced Germany to accept responsibility for starting the war and to pay reparations

U

United Nations (UN), the an intergovernmental organisation founded on 24 October 1945 after the end of World War II to promote peace and prevent the future outbreak of armed conflicts around the world

Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the an international document that outlines basic rights and fundamental freedoms to which all human beings are entitled; the Declaration was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948

V

Vietminh a political party devoted to Vietnamese independence, formed by Ho Chi Minh in 1941

W

White Australia policy, the a term used to describe a series of government policies introduced after Federation in 1901 that prevented 'non-white' immigrants from settling in Australia, favouring instead those from certain European nations (especially Britain); these policies were progressively overturned between 1949 and 1973

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