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History 10

for the Australian Curriculum



Series Editor
Angela Woollacott

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Angela Woollacott

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Foreword



The new *Australian Curriculum: History* is an important and exciting chance for all of us to approach the subject differently. For the first time, students and teachers across the nation are working on the same topics and themes, placing their own local stories in national and global contexts. The curriculum makes us consider each Australian state within the wider history of the colonies and the nation, and indeed the whole of world history. It is designed to help students become educated citizens with a broad grasp of all major historical developments.

The team of authors assembled by Cambridge University Press to write *History for the Australian Curriculum* share a passionate sense of the possibilities of this curriculum. The authors are from around the country and bring to the series a wealth of expertise and depth of teaching experience from various levels of secondary and tertiary education. The excitement was palpable when we first met as a team to discuss the textbooks, how they would be structured, and what features would make them the best possible resources for both students and teachers. The concise coverage of topics, rich excerpts from primary sources, first-person voices, creative activities, *Historical facts, Times gone by* vignettes, vivid illustrations, glossary definitions and many other features make this an outstanding series.

The historian R.H. Tawney commented eloquently that 'there is truth in the paradox that all history is the history of the present; and for this reason each generation must write its history for itself. That of its predecessors may be true, but its truth may not be relevant. Different answers are required because different questions are asked. Standing at a new point on the road, it finds that new ranges in the landscape come into view'. The questions asked, topics covered, and stories told in *History for the Australian Curriculum* are different from those in earlier textbooks. In the twenty-first century, the history we must learn and research has moved on and requires new angles of analysis. Moreover, we, the students of history, are different.

Students and teachers across Australian schools come from a wider variety of backgrounds than was the case in earlier generations. We understand the importance of Aboriginal history, and we now expect to learn about the historical experiences of Australians' families and ancestors who arrived here from various regions of the world. People who have made history include peasants and kings, ancient Egyptians and ancient Australians, women and men, and people from a wide range of cultures, traditions and linguistic backgrounds. The *Australian Curriculum: History* is innovative in its balance between world history and Australian history, and in its placing of Australian history in the context of Asian and Pacific histories, for example, as well as European, American and other histories.

In *History for the Australian Curriculum 10*, you will learn about the modern world and Australia, including how the nature of conflict has changed, and the global events and consequences of World War II. You will study the civil rights movements of the mid-twentieth century, popular culture in Australia, the emergence of the environment movement and the challenges it faces, and the migration experiences that have shaped Australia since 1945.

We hope you will find fascinating information, provocative questions and useful resources for the *Australian Curriculum: History* in these pages. Good luck for your journey of historical study and research!

Angela Woollacott, Series Editor

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About the authors





Angela Woollacott is the Manning Clark Professor of History at the Australian National University and Vice President of the Australian Historical Association. Angela teaches in the fields of Australian history, British Empire history, transnational history, gender history and settler colonialism, and she serves on the boards of several national and international journals.



Michael Adcock is Head of History and Head of Humanities at Melbourne Grammar School. He has published a number of books on the French Revolution, including *Analysing the French Revolution*, published by Cambridge University Press. Michael is a social and cultural historian who has lectured on modern French history in the History Department at the University of Melbourne.



Margaret Allen works at the University of Adelaide, and has been teaching and researching gender studies and history for 40 years. Margaret has published on nineteenth century Australian women writers and more recently has been researching links between India and Australia from c. 1880 to 1940. She has worked on many committees during her career, including those of the Senior Secondary Assessment Board of South Australia and History South Australia.



Helen Butler has taught history and geography in Victorian and New South Wales state and private schools for over 30 years. She has also served as both a Head of History and Head of Humanities. Helen has a passion for imparting the skills of independent inquiry to her history students and instilling a love of the subject in them.



Christopher Cunneen is a Senior Research Fellow in the Department of Modern History, Politics and International Relations, Faculty of Arts at Macquarie University in Sydney. Christopher is the author of books and articles on Australian history and a former Deputy General Editor of the Australian Dictionary of Biography, for which he has written over 70 biographical entries.

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Raymond Evans is an Adjunct Professor of History with the Griffith Centre for Cultural Research at Griffith University as well as a Senior Research Fellow with the Centre for Critical and Cultural Studies at the University of Queensland. Raymond has been involved in the research and writing of Australian history since the 1960s. He has written and published widely on a range of topics concerning social and cultural history.



Jenny Gregory is Winthrop Professor of History, and Head of the School of Humanities at the University of Western Australia. Jenny has taught Australian history for many years. Her involvement in the development of the *Australian Curriculum: History* began when she was one of 12 invited participants at the Australian History Summit hosted by the then federal Minister for Education in 2006. She is now leading a group at the University of Western Australia developing professional learning courses for teachers and a Masters program to assist teachers in preparing for the implementation of the Australian Curriculum.



Alison Mackinnon is Professor Emerita of History and Gender Studies at the University of South Australia and is a former teacher of history and English. Alison has written many books on issues of educational history and women's history, and on contemporary concerns about educational access. She is a former President of the South Australian History Council and of the Australian and New Zealand History of Education Society (ANZHES).



Judy McPherson is a teacher of humanities and has taught history and geography to students across Years 7 to 12 in several Victorian schools. Judy's experience includes head of faculty roles in the humanities as well as pastoral team leadership. She has made a significant contribution to curriculum development as a subject leader in the humanities and has been a contributing author to three geography textbooks. She is also a director of Ed Scape Pty Ltd, which provides a range of consultancy services in the field of program evaluation and school improvement.



Richard Malone is the Head of Middle School at Caulfield Grammar School. Richard has previously been the Head of Teaching and Learning, and Head of Humanities. Along with these leadership roles, he has taught a wide range of history subjects from Years 7 to 12 over the past 16 years. His passion for seeing history taught in an engaging manner has led him to focus on the importance of differentiation as the most effective means to address the learning needs of students. He has written several textbooks for secondary students, including *Analysing Modern History* and *Analysing the Russian Revolution*, both published by Cambridge University Press.

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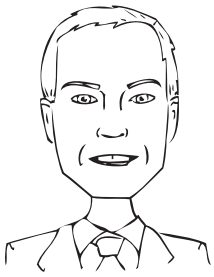




James St. Julian studied archaeology and history at the University of Sydney and subsequently worked in Cambodia on the Greater Angkor Project for five seasons. James has taught the IB and HSC ancient and modern history curricula at Trinity Grammar School in Sydney for a number of years. He also runs an archaeology program, teaching students archaeological theory, method and practice. He is passionate about introducing students to the history and archaeology of South-East Asia.



Luis Siddall teaches history at the Sydney Church of England Grammar School (Shore) and is an Honorary Associate of the Department of Ancient History at Macquarie University. Luis received his PhD in Assyriology from the School of Oriental and African Studies at the University of London, where he taught (Old Babylonian) Akkadian language. His research interests are in the languages and history of the ancient Near East and Egypt. He has published articles in scholarly journals on Assyrian history, Biblical studies and the Amarna Letters. He is also a regular reviewer for the *Bryn Mawr Classical Review*.



Robert Skinner is a highly experienced teacher of ancient and modern history. Robert has significant experience as an HSC examination marker, has been an adviser on the HSC Advice Line for students, run by the NSW Board of Studies, and is a former Head of History at two private schools in NSW.



Alan Thomas taught history studies at Belmont High School and Parkdale Secondary College and was Head of History at the Geelong College Senior Campus until 2005. Alan served as curriculum coordinator at Parkdale Secondary College in 1988–90, and was an active member of the education committee of the school council. During this career, he developed a strong interest in curriculum development in history studies Years 7 to 12.



Nicholas Vlahogiannis teaches classical studies and history at Melbourne Girls Grammar and is a Senior Fellow in the School of Historical and Philosophical Studies, University of Melbourne. Nicholas's principal interest is ancient history, but he has also published on Australian educational and urban history, and modern Balkan history.

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How to use this textbook





Chapter openers feature **before you start** and **let's begin** sections which focus your attention on the topics being studied and prepare you for your in-depth investigations.



Timelines chart key events as well as world events occurring at the same time to help you comprehend and retain information.

Maps identify relevant features, cities and landmarks to give you a geographical context for your historical studies.

Chapter summaries review the main ideas of the topic to consolidate what you have learned.



End-of-chapter questions include multiple choice, short answer, source analysis and extended response to test your knowledge through the reinforcement of key concepts and application of skills.

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Historical facts highlight interesting information to enrich your learning.

A variety of **activities** and **research tasks** explore key concepts, develop skills and draw back to the general learning capabilities and cross-curriculum priorities.

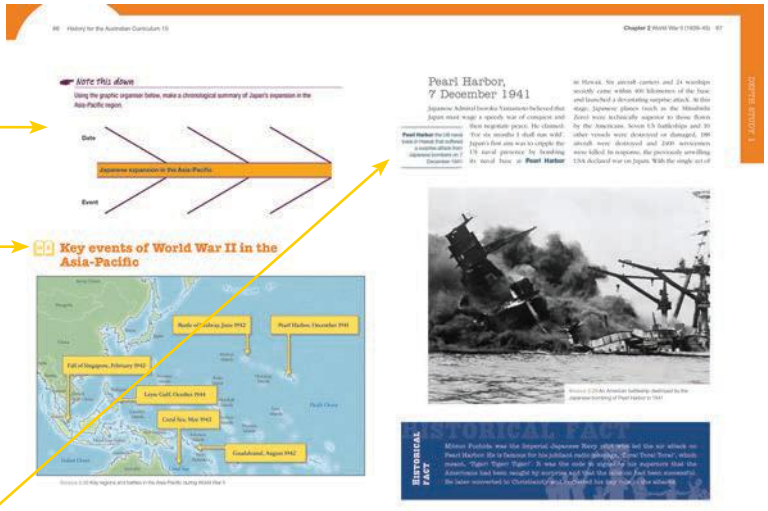
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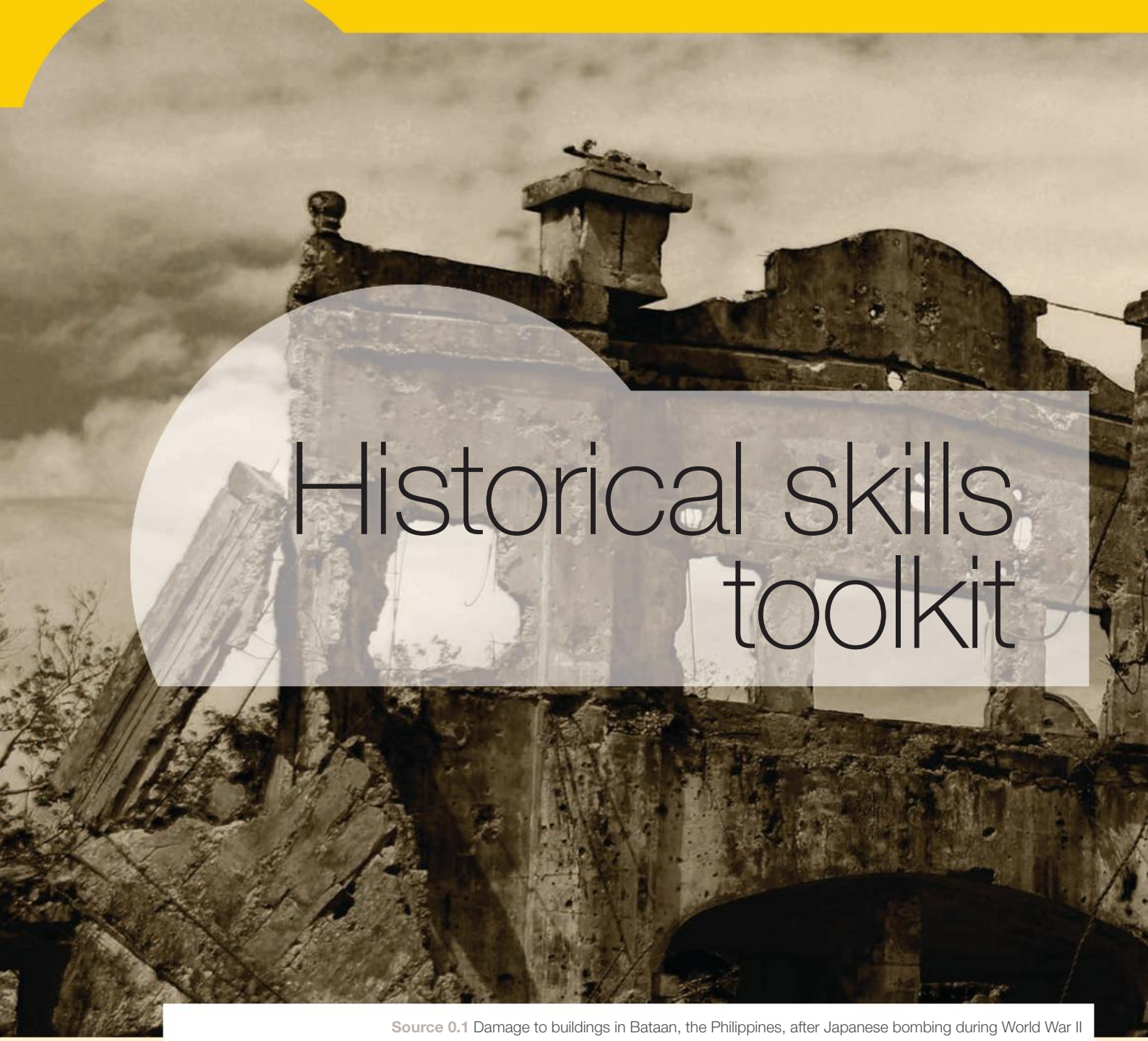
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Icons alert you to additional activities available in the workbook for extra practice with developing historical skills.

Glossary terms are bolded in the text, defined in the margins and collated at the end of the textbook for easy reference.



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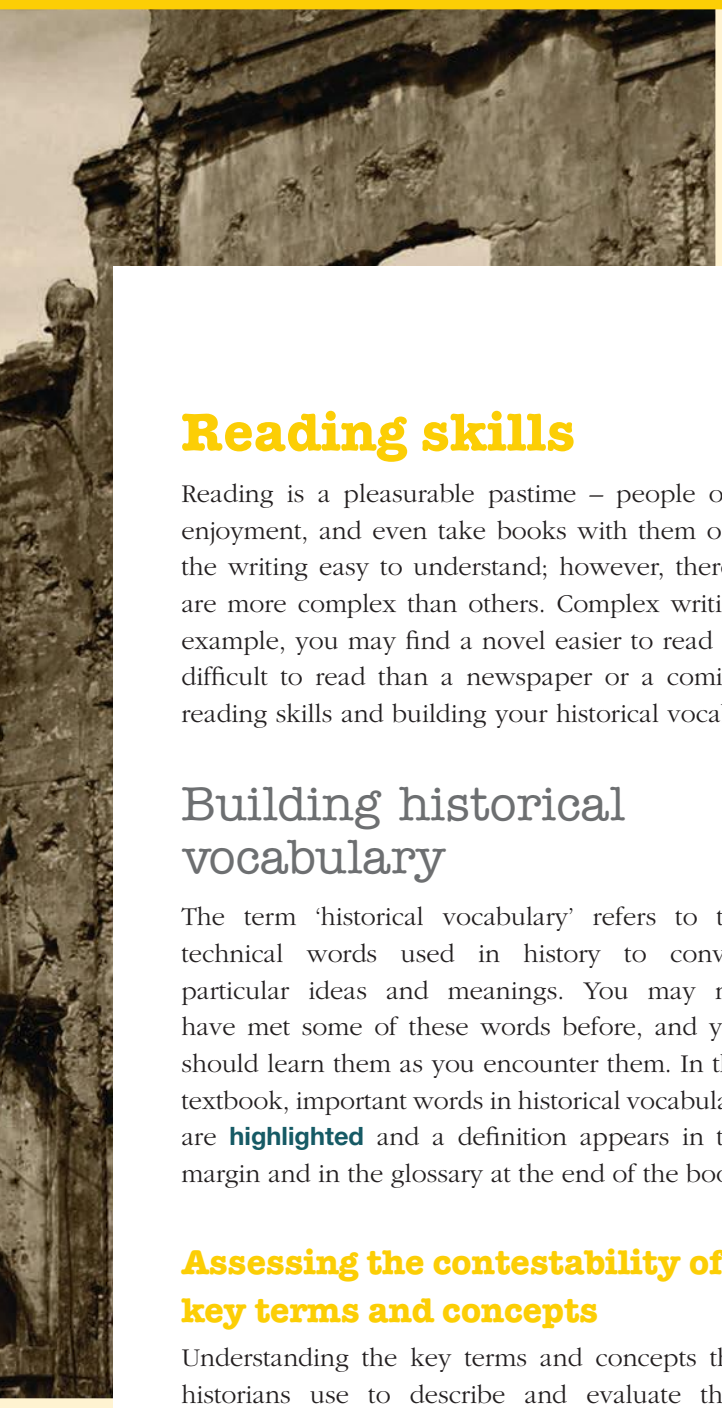
Historical skills toolkit

Source 0.1 Damage to buildings in Bataan, the Philippines, after Japanese bombing during World War II

Introduction

History is full of interesting people, mysterious civilisations and wondrous cities. As a junior historian you will learn about history through identifying historical evidence, assessing primary and secondary sources, and recognising perspectives and interpretations. The historical skills toolkit will show you how to develop a range of skills that will improve your ability to read and interpret historical writings and sources, and help you to better understand history. You will also be able to apply the skills you develop in studying history to all aspects of your life. One of the fundamental skills used in the study of history is critical thinking, which is an important skill for life both inside and outside of the classroom.

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Reading skills

Reading is a pleasurable pastime – people often read books in their free time for relaxation and enjoyment, and even take books with them on holidays. When we read for pleasure, we often find the writing easy to understand; however, there are many different types of writing, and some types are more complex than others. Complex writing requires certain skills to help us understand it. For example, you may find a novel easier to read than a poem, or you may find a school textbook more difficult to read than a newspaper or a comic book. This section concentrates on improving your reading skills and building your historical vocabulary through assessing historical terms and concepts.

Building historical vocabulary

The term 'historical vocabulary' refers to the technical words used in history to convey particular ideas and meanings. You may not have met some of these words before, and you should learn them as you encounter them. In this textbook, important words in historical vocabulary are **highlighted** and a definition appears in the margin and in the glossary at the end of the book.

Assessing the contestability of key terms and concepts

Understanding the key terms and concepts that historians use to describe and evaluate their subjects is one of the challenges that modern history presents. You may like to think of the terms and concepts as the 'language of history'. While some of the terminology may be familiar to you, the way these terms are used can vary depending on the culture or period being described. In this way, you must take into account the historical context in which the terminology is used.

communism the political practice of Marxism in which the state or government controls most of the nation's wealth and private property is restricted. A communist state has only one political party and the rights of individuals are limited in favour of the whole of society

Consider the term **communism**, which is used to describe a political system. Communism is often used by historians in a very general way to describe the political movements that have stemmed from the nineteenth century socio-economic **doctrine** called Marxism, which was created by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels. However, when communist parties started to take power in the twentieth century, communism was practised in different ways in different countries. For example, the Russian practice of communism was very different from how communism worked in China, and very few communist governments ever organised their nations in strict accordance with Marxist theory. Therefore, when you read about communism, you need to identify the historical context in which it is being used, and question both the type of communism that is being referred to and the **idiosyncrasies** presented by that form of communism.

doctrine a set of ideas or a theory

idiosyncrasy a characteristic feature

However, understanding the terms and concepts an historian uses is more complex than simply identifying the historical context in which they are used. Sometimes historians will elect to use one type of terminology over another to convey their point of view, or their perspective. For example, consider the different ways the Australian government's policy of removing Indigenous children from their families has been described by historians, politicians, journalists and public groups (all of whom create sources). Think about what the terms 'stolen generations', 'rescued from disadvantage' and 'forced removal' mean. These terms have all been used in recent debates to describe the past practice of removal and institutionalisation of Indigenous children, but each term reveals the different perspectives of the writers – that

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Activity 0.1

1 Define the following historical terms:
   - **a** source
   - **b** contestability
   - **c** evidence

2 Read 'Chapter 3: Rights and freedoms (1945–present)' and define the terms 'human rights' and 'activist'. Give examples showing how the terms have been used in the text.

3 Build on your answers to questions 1 and 2 by writing a paragraph assessing the contestability of the term 'activist'.

is, whether they believe the practice was unfair, necessary, inhumane, humane etc.

These different descriptive terms show us that the language historians use is subject to **contestability**. Thus, when you read historical sources you must evaluate the terms used to identify an historian's perspective. This is the case for both primary and secondary sources.

contestability when particular interpretations about the past are open to debate; for example, as a result of a lack of evidence or different perspectives

Visual literacy skills

Visual literacy is concerned with examining different types of graphic data – such as timelines, images (in the form of photos and paintings) and websites – and identifying primary and secondary sources. Historians spend a great deal of their time analysing information they gather from these types of sources and it is therefore important to develop your visual literacy skills.

Interactive timelines

Interactive timelines are a great way to sequence historical people and events, and draw geographical connections between regions connected by historical events. Interactive timelines are different from regular timelines because they are in an electronic format and contain links to images, audiovisual media, websites and other forms of information. A good example of an interactive timeline can be found at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

Analysing primary and secondary sources

Identifying the origin and context of sources

When you encounter a primary or secondary source you need to consider its origin and the context in which it was created. A source originates in a particular context, which is also known as the historical context. That is, a source is created at a particular point in time and at a specific location, both of which can influence the way the source was created and the information it contains. For example, a political leader's speech is written to be read in public and to persuade the audience to agree with the politician's ideas – this is what we call **propaganda**. In this way, the ideas presented in the speech must be critically analysed for accuracy and truthfulness. Compare this situation with a private journal of a military officer, which was not written for public consumption. The information in this type of source is more likely to reflect the

propaganda the communication of a message to either change another's mind or to reinforce an existing idea that agrees with that of the propagator

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Activity **0.2**

Read 'Chapter 1: Overview: the modern world and Australia (1918–present)' and 'Chapter 3: Rights and freedoms (1945–present)' and create an interactive timeline of the Freedom Rides in the United States (from 1961) and Australia (1965). You should use a program such as PowerPoint to:

- sequence the events
- outline the events that led to the Freedom Rides
- identify the regions in which Freedom Rides occurred
- compare and contrast the two campaigns
- use audiovisual media to illustrate your findings and observations.

truth as the officer saw it, for it is the officer's private thoughts at the time when the journal was written.

Assessing reliability and usefulness

Historians analyse sources in terms of their reliability and usefulness. Sources are reliable when they are created by a trustworthy author who provides accurate information. Sources are useful when they offer an explanation about all or part of what you are investigating. Historians determine the reliability and usefulness of a source by asking the following questions.

- How accurate is the information provided by the source?
- Is the source **biased**?
- Does the source support or contradict other sources?
- What can the source tell us about the attitudes of the time?
- Is the source complete? If not, what information may be missing?

biased having a particular interest or view that limits one's ability to make a fair judgement

It is important to note that a source may be biased or inaccurate and still be useful because such sources can tell us something about the attitudes and prejudices (or the 'perspective') of the person who created it.

Identifying perspective

Perspective is a person's point of view – it is the way in which they see and interpret the world around them. Where we live and what we do influence our perspectives and, as a result, people from different times and places have different perspectives on events. Our perspectives can influence how we interpret the past and present. It is important that we are aware of how we form our own points of view because this helps us to identify the perspective present in an existing historical source.

For example, men and women in Australia typically had different perspectives on gender inequality during the post-World War II period. This is because of the traditional gender roles in the division of labour and political status experienced prior to World War II. Similarly, age was a defining influence on people's perspective on the advent of rock 'n' roll in the 1950s, for the youth of society saw rock 'n' roll as a new medium for expression and older people typically perceived it as a threat to social norms.

When you read a source, you must look for indicators of the author's perspective, because this will determine how useful the source is and reveal the author's values and attitudes. Some useful questions you should ask include:

- Who created the source?
- When was the source created?

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- For whom was the source created?
- What was the motive behind creating the source?

Synthesising sources

Synthesis is the process of bringing evidence together to develop an historical interpretation. Once you have analysed the relevant primary and secondary sources on a particular topic, you can begin to draw the information together and organise it into a logical argument.

synthesise to bring evidence together to develop a sound interpretation or argument

We can **synthesise** evidence by either investigating the various perspectives of different members of society at one particular point in time, or investigating the change in people's perspectives over time.

A good way to synthesise different perspectives in your historical analysis is to use graphic organisers. To represent the different perspectives on a topic in a single diagram, you could use a circle divided into segments, with each segment representing a particular perspective. The idea is that when you have accounted for all perspectives (and thereby completed the circle) you will be able to comprehensively discuss the different perspectives on the topic. You will use graphic organisers to identify perspectives in the 'Note this down' activity on p. 8.

Activity **0.3**

1 Read about the *Bringing Them Home* report (1997) in 'Chapter 3: Rights and freedoms (1945–present)' and answer the following questions.
- **a** In what context did the government commission the report?
- **b** Identify and explain the perspectives found in the different responses to the *Bringing Them Home* report. Consider the emotional impact and the different arguments about evidence and responsibility.

2 Read 'Chapter 2: World War II (1939–45)' and examine Sources 0.2–0.4 below. Provide a synthesis of the impact that World War II had on the Australian homefront.



Source 0.2 The sinking of the HMAS *Kuttabul* during Japanese torpedo attacks on Sydney Harbour in 1942 [AWM/012427]



Source 0.3 A recruitment poster aimed at women for the Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force [AWM/ARTV01114]

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Source 0.4 A shop suffering from the effects of rationing
[AWM/136764]

3 Look up Dr Martin Luther King Jr's 'I have a dream' speech online. You will find a version at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks. Look in particular at the paragraph where King proclaims that 'all men are created equal'. Using this paragraph of the speech, explain the speech's *usefulness* and *reliability* for understanding the aims and motivations of the US Civil Rights Movement.



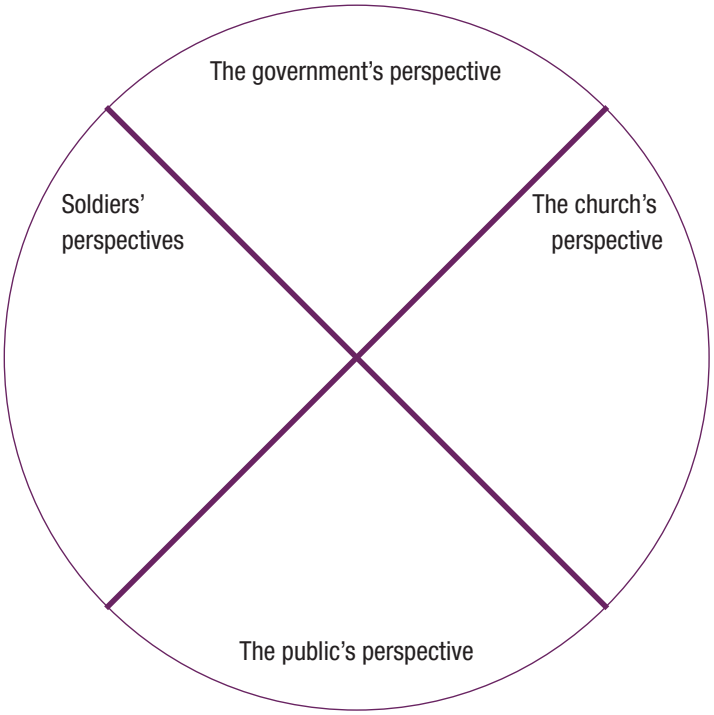
Source 0.5 Dr Martin Luther King Jr delivering his 'I have a dream' speech on 28 August 1963 in Washington DC

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Note this down

1 Using the graphic organiser below, identify the perspectives of the government, the church, the soldiers and the public in Australia in regards to World War II.

Perspectives on World War II



2 To represent different perspectives on one event over time (and the influences of those perspectives), you could use an arrow that functions similarly to a timeline. Along the axis of the arrow, record the changes in perspective from year to year with reference to the events that caused the change in perspective.
Copy and complete the graphic organiser below, and fill in the perspectives of the Australian community at each stage of World War II.

Date	Perspectives of Australian community on World War II
1939	Perspectives at its outbreak:
1940	Perspectives on the wars in North Africa:
1941	Perspectives in the light of the Kokoda campaign:
1942	Perspectives in light of the Japanese attacks on Australia:
1943	Perspectives in light of the electoral victory of the Australian Labor Party:
1944	Perspectives in light of the austerity measures on the homefront:
1945	Perspectives after the allied victory:

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Writing skills

In the introduction to the section on reading skills, you learnt that there are different types of writing. In this section you will be introduced to some methods for composing good historical writing. In particular, we will focus on developing research questions, **constructing** arguments and writing techniques.

constructing building an idea or argument using evidence and resources

Persuasive writing

Persuasive writing requires you to construct a piece of written work that convinces others to agree with your argument or to follow a course of action. You will have encountered persuasive writing in many different forms, such as newspaper editorials, written speeches for public figures (e.g. politicians) or even advertisements. The following steps will help you write persuasively.

persuade to try to gain support for an idea or belief using a sound argument

1 Preliminary work

- *Identify an issue or debate.* The first step is to identify a topic about which there is general disagreement among people who discuss it. You should select a topic about which you have an opinion, and about which the arguments have a general 'pro and con' divide.
- *Develop a thesis statement.* Write a sentence that sums up your opinion on the issue or debate, such as, 'The French Government should not be allowed to conduct nuclear tests in the Pacific'. This thesis statement will be the basis of your argument.
- *Support your argument with evidence and rhetoric.* An argument must always be backed up with evidence – this may come in the form of facts, statistics and examples. Unlike research essays, persuasive writing can draw heavily on rhetoric; in other words, the effective and emotive use of language to inspire a reaction. Hence, you may make emotional appeals in persuasive writing that would not be valid in research writing.
- *Gathering and organising information.* You will need to find evidence to support a persuasive argument properly. Go to the library and search online to find primary sources, history books and articles. If you get stuck, be sure to ask your teacher or librarian for help in finding material. You should be looking for facts, statistics and primary and secondary sources on your topic. Once you have gathered enough information, you should organise your notes according to the structure of your response.

2 Drafting

Start writing a draft only when you have gathered all your information and organised your notes. A good written response directly answers the question and is structured in a way that presents your argument clearly and logically, with good use of supporting evidence. Thus, when you write a persuasive piece you should keep the following questions in mind.

- Does every topic relate directly to the argument? (If it does not, cut it from your work.)
- Does the evidence support every point you make?
- Is there a clear progression in the argument? That is, have you made a clear connection between the different sub-topics you are discussing?

A good framework for your written response is shown on the next page.

3 Revision and writing

Once you have a complete draft of your persuasive piece, proofread the work and make all necessary corrections. You should take care to check for the following points.

- Ensure that your writing has a clear structure (i.e. introduction, body paragraphs, conclusion).
- Remove any repetition in your discussion.
- Check that the spelling, grammar and punctuation are all correct.

When you have proofread your work and made all necessary corrections, it will be ready for printing and submission.

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Framework for written response

1 Introduction

a Identify the issue or debate.

b Clearly state your thesis.

c Provide a background to the issue or debate to ensure that your reader understands your argument.

2 Body

a Write a series of paragraphs explaining the main points that you outlined in your introduction. Make sure you discuss only one idea in each paragraph.

b Use primary and secondary sources to support your argument.

c Arrange the topics in order of most important to least important.

d Make sure you always refer back to the issue or debate.

3 Conclusion

a In one or two sentences, sum up the main points you have made in favour of your argument.

b Use these points to restate your thesis.

c Finish with a statement of the action you want your reader to take in favour of your argument.

Research writing

When historians begin researching a topic, they use a number of methods to develop their ideas and determine the direction of their investigations. In this section we focus on developing inquiry/research questions and modifying them to suit the available sources, organising source material, and developing an argument.

Developing inquiry and research questions

You may be asked to formulate an inquiry question for an essay on a particular topic in history. The first step in this task is to draft some ideas and further questions for your research that use historical terms and concepts. These further questions are known as 'research questions'. You can then use your research questions to formulate your inquiry question, and write an essay addressing that inquiry question.

To identify research questions about a topic, you will need to examine primary and secondary sources, and identify the purpose, perspective and usefulness of the sources. Once you have identified these key aspects of a source, you can start to formulate research questions that will lead you to defining your inquiry question.

A good method for identifying research questions is to use a graphic organiser to summarise your questions and answers about the source. The 'Note this down' activity opposite provides an example of using a web diagram to outline questions about the significance of the Kokoda campaign in World War II.

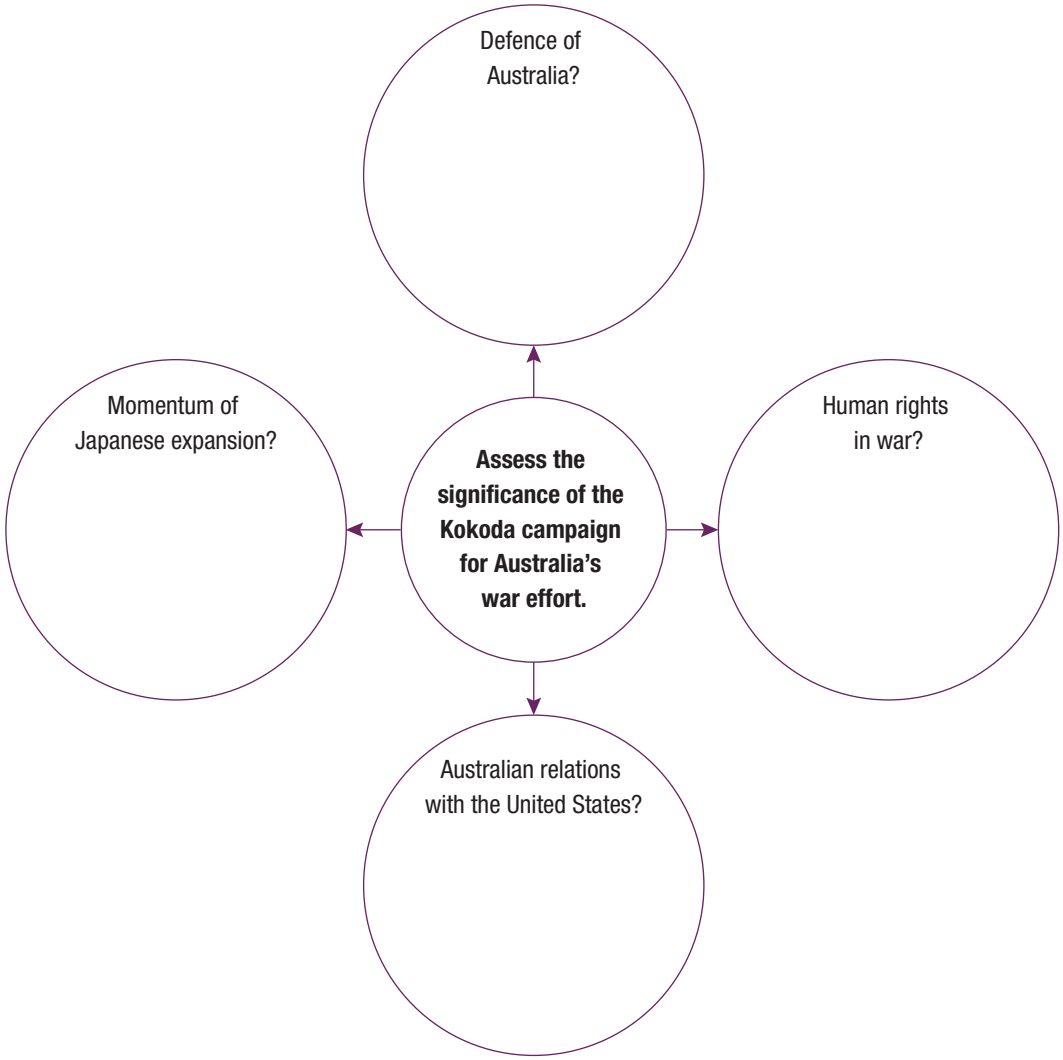
Once you have identified a number of key research questions, you can refine the different issues you want to cover into a more general inquiry question that allows you to bring together all your research questions. A good way to do this is to identify the overarching theme in your research questions. You would then decide on the type of research you want to write and choose an appropriate task word, such as 'analyse' (identify key points and explain relationships between them and their implications), 'assess' or 'evaluate' (make a judgement), or 'explain' or 'account for' (identify cause and effect). When you combine your key research theme with a task word, you will have identified a good inquiry question. An example is, 'Assess the significance of the Kokoda campaign for Australia's war effort'.

It is important that you let the sources direct you towards your argument. If you try to make the evidence fit your theory, instead of the other way around, your argument will not be convincing. If you find that your initial line of argument is

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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, identify questions on the significance of the Kokoda campaign in Papua New Guinea during World War II.



not supported by the sources, you will need to rethink your argument and change your theory so that it is supported by the evidence.

Tips for locating and organising sources

You can successfully locate sources for a research project if you look in the right places. Using an internet search engine as your first point of research may seem the simplest way to begin, but internet searches often provide an overwhelming amount of material, much of which is poor quality and unreliable. Often, the very best works can be found in the collections of books or online databases of your school or community library. You should therefore begin your search there. If you get stuck, ask your teacher or librarian for help finding material. You should be looking for facts, statistics, images and studies on your topic.

Once you have gathered some good sources and information, you can search the internet for

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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, record details about the sources you have located.

Source	Primary or secondary	Location	What does it tell us about the topic?
Give details about the source (is it a written account?) and bibliographic information.	State whether it is a primary or secondary source.	State where the source is located in the publication (page number, figure number etc.).	Make notes on the source's reliability, perspective and usefulness.

reliable and informative websites about your topic. You can use the knowledge gained from your initial library research to develop sophisticated search terms to find the best websites.

It is a good idea to organise your sources as you find them. Historians typically compile a list of sources and the locations where they were found – whether in books, encyclopaedias or databases – and details about the topics the sources discuss. This works for both primary and secondary sources.

Constructing an argument

Part of becoming a successful student of history is learning how to construct an argument. Historians construct arguments by forming opinions based on the analysis of sources and the significance of historical personalities and events. They turn their opinions into arguments by engaging with secondary sources and developing a logical case that can be backed up by primary sources. The following steps will help you construct sound historical arguments.

1 *Active reading.* When you read about a topic, think of key questions, such as, 'How was that feat achieved?', 'What evidence is there?' and 'What theories have been developed?' You can use these questions to help you form an opinion.
2 *Consider the secondary sources.* What have other people said about the topic? Do they agree with what you think? If not, on what do they base their argument?
3 *Use primary sources.* It is crucial that you check whether your opinion is supported by primary sources. If the sources do not support your ideas, then you will have to reconsider your argument.
4 *Remember that historical theories are provisional.* Historians try to interpret the past as best they can with the evidence available to them at the time. In most areas of history, new evidence emerges every year and some historical conclusions need to be reconsidered. When you write your own research essays, you must read the most recent research on the topic and be aware that only some of the evidence has survived over the years, and that more may come to light in time.

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Activity **0.4**

1 Read about the uranium debate in 'Chapter 5: The environment movement (1960s–present)', and conduct your own research in order to design a poster with the aim of persuading the public to oppose the French nuclear tests in the Pacific. Be sure to explain the nature and reliability of the sources you use to construct the poster.

2 Read about the Fall of Singapore in 'Chapter 2: World War II (1939–45)'. Conduct your own research in order to write a report on the significance of the event for Australia's military alliances and use of troops during World War II.

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, construct an argument by formulating your ideas based on evidence you find.

Primary sources	Secondary sources	Your interpretation

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1



Overview: the modern world and Australia (1918–present)

Source 1.1 The remains of the city of Hiroshima, Japan, after the atomic bomb was dropped in August 1945

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Before you start

Main focus

In the twentieth century, World War I, World War II, the collapse of large empires and the events of the Cold War shaped global conflict for all nations, including Australia.

Why it's relevant today

The issues we face in the twenty-first century are the outcome of the global conflicts of the twentieth century, environmental challenges presented by technological and economic developments, and massive population growth.

Inquiry questions

- How did the pattern of global conflict change in the twentieth century?
- What were the consequences of World War II and the Cold War for Australia?
- What challenges have the United Nations faced and how have Australians participated?
- How has Australian society been affected by civil rights movements, technological changes and environmental challenges?

Key terms

- anti-colonial nationalist movements
- capitalism
- civil rights
- Cold War
- communism
- feminism
- peacekeeping
- population growth
- United Nations

Significant individuals

- Dr Martin Luther King Jr
- Jackie Huggins
- US President Woodrow Wilson
- Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev



Source 1.2 The signing of the UN Charter, San Francisco, 1945



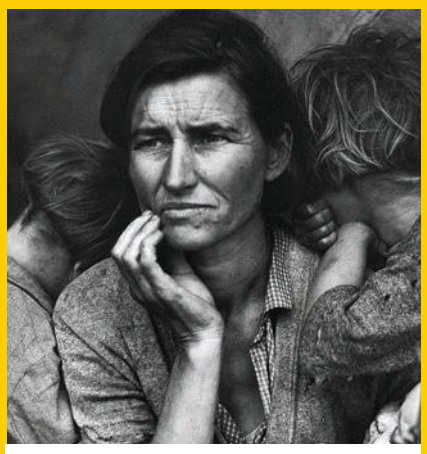
Source 1.3 A protest march for women's liberation, New York City, 1971



Source 1.4 Kakadu National Park, Northern Territory

Let's begin

The World Wars were devastating global events that led to the collapse of the European and other empires. In the 1920s–30s, global politics were polarised between communism and fascism. After World War II, the Cold War between the two superpowers – the communist Soviet Union and the capitalist United States – sparked multiple actual wars involving many countries, including Australia. The United Nations was founded in 1945 and has led many peacekeeping missions around the world, to which Australia has contributed significantly. Anti-colonial nationalist movements were linked to civil rights movements, including those by African-Americans and Aboriginal Australians, as well as the Women's Liberation movement. Technological developments have changed daily life and, along with global population growth, have led to great challenges for the world's environmental sustainability.



Source 1.5 Iconic photo by Dorothea Lange, known as 'Migrant mother', taken in the United States during the Great Depression

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Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS

Global influenza **1918–19** pandemic kills tens of millions of people

1919 Treaty of Versailles signed following end of World War I in 1918

League of Nations is **1920** founded

c. 1929–34 The Great Depression

Spanish Civil War **1936–9**

1937 Japan invades China

World War II **1939–45**

1945 United Nations is founded

March on Washington **1963** during US Civil Rights Movement

1967 Federal referendum vote to allow Commonwealth Government to legislate for Aboriginal people and to include Aborigines in national census

Commonwealth Sex Discrimination Act **1984**

1989 End of Cold War, including fall of the Berlin Wall

Australian High Court **1992** rules in favour of Murray Islander land rights in Mabo case

2011 World population reaches 7 billion



Source 1.6 The signing of the Treaty of Versailles, 1919



Source 1.7 People in London celebrate the end of World War II in Europe on VE Day, 8 May 1945

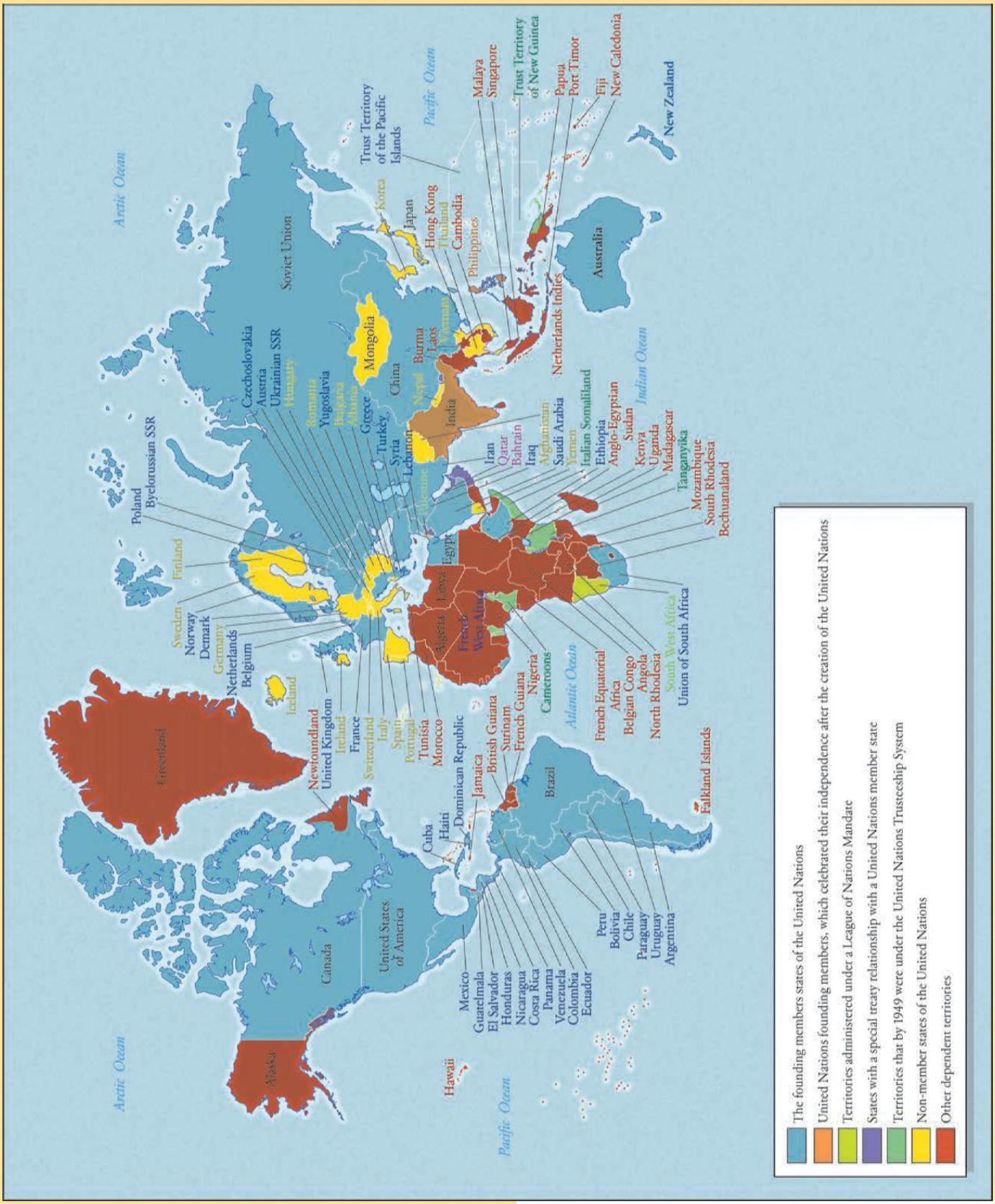


Source 1.8 People from East and West Berlin climb onto the Berlin Wall before it is knocked down, 9 November 1989



Source 1.9 The Aboriginal flag

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Source 1.10 A map of the world in 1945

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The inter-war years

During World War I, 1914 to 1918, more than 10 million people were killed and troops who fought came from Europe, Africa, Asia, Australasia and North America. Adding to the devastation of the war was a terrible influenza pandemic, which affected the world in 1918–19. Tens of millions of people died; it was one of the worst pandemics in history.

World War I had global ramifications in the post-war period. The war spelled the end of the Austro-Hungarian, German and Ottoman Empires, while the British Empire reached its maximum point just after the war. With new territories in Africa, the Middle East and the Pacific, the British Empire included approximately a quarter of the world's surface and a quarter of its population. Following a proposal by US President Woodrow Wilson, the League of Nations was created in 1920. It failed to prevent major conflicts and was criticised as being simply a tool of Britain and France, but it did reduce international opium traffic, help some countries control the spread of disease, and look after **refugees**. Importantly, it paved the way for the founding of the **United Nations (UN)**.

refugee a person who, due to a well-founded fear of persecution, is outside their country of nationality and is unable or (due to such fear) unwilling to return to that country

United Nations (UN) an international organisation founded in 1945 to work towards world peace and cooperation

In 1917 the Tsarist **regime** in Russia was overthrown in a two-stage **revolution** – first by the liberal provisional government and then by the Bolshevik Revolution in November. Russia withdrew from World War I but became engulfed in a civil war between its new **communist** government and their 'White Russian' opponents. Around the world, political views were either on the side of the socialist and communist movements on the political left, or the fascist movements on the political right.

regime an oppressive and undemocratic government

revolution the overthrowing of a government in favour of a new system

communism the political practice of Marxism in which the state or government controls most of the nation's wealth and private property is restricted

In 1936 in Spain, this struggle erupted into the Spanish Civil War, when the elected socialist government was challenged by General Francisco Franco's fascist Falange movement, eventually successfully. Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany supported Franco, while the Soviet Union gave limited aid to the existing republican government. The bloody war stirred passions globally and volunteers, including some Australians, went to fight. It was the prelude to the next world war.

Japan invaded China in 1937. Germany took over Austria in 1938 and, early in 1939, Czechoslovakia. In August 1939, Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union signed a non-aggression pact, which stated that neither country would use aggressive force against the other. On 1 September 1939, Adolf Hitler invaded Poland, and the world was at war again.

Treaty of Versailles

World War I ended in an armistice on 11 November 1918. Representatives from 27 nations gathered in Paris in January 1919 for peace negotiations, which resulted in the Treaty of Versailles. The main decisions were taken by the leaders of the United States, Britain, France and Italy. Germany was not allowed to participate in discussions, and was only given the final draft of the treaty to read.

Before the negotiations began, US President Woodrow Wilson had announced his Fourteen Point Peace Plan, which included a vision of national **self-determination**, reduction of arms and the removal of trade barriers. He did not achieve all he set out to, but succeeded in agreement on what would become the League of Nations.

self-determination the power to determine one's own political destiny and control one's own affairs

In perhaps the most fateful part of the peace negotiations, Britain, France and Belgium insisted that Germany should be made to pay for its part in starting World War I, and drew up exorbitantly large bills for **reparations**. Additionally, they insisted that the treaty include a 'war guilt' clause, blaming Germany for the war. As part of the treaty, Germany was forced to surrender some of its territories and was forbidden to have an air force. At first, Germany refused to sign, but the treaty was eventually signed by all parties on 28 June 1919 in the Hall of Mirrors at the Palace of Versailles, outside Paris.

reparation making amends or providing compensation

German resentment of the Treaty of Versailles became a factor in the rise of nationalist feeling

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Times gone by ...

World War I was such a terrible experience for many soldiers that it led to cynicism, bitterness and political radicalism. British writer George Orwell was known for making political statements in his novels, and his 1939 novel *Coming Up for Air* was a work of fiction that included the central character's memories of World War I and eerily predicted the impending World War II. It can be regarded as a commentary on what was happening in the world at the time.

> Every junior officer looked on the General Staff [senior officers] as mental defectives … People who in a normal way would have gone through life with about as much tendency to think for themselves as a suet pudding were turned into Bolshies [Bosheviks] just by the war.

Source 1.11 Excerpt about World War I from George Orwell's novel *Coming Up for Air* (1939)

Read the excerpt in Source 1.11. Orwell states that junior officers in the novel looked upon the General Staff as 'mental defectives'.

1 Explain why this view may have caused many ex-servicemen to become radicalised.

2 What impact do you think such radicalisation may have had on politics in the 1920s and 1930s?

Activity 1.1

1 Identify three states where fascist governments come to power in the 1930s.

2 Describe how the signing of the Treaty of Versailles gave rise to German nationalism.

3 Do you think Germany should have been made to pay the reparations detailed in the Treaty of Versailles? Give reasons to support your answer.

within that country, and gave rise to support for Adolf Hitler and his National Socialist (Nazi) Party, which came to power in 1933.

The roaring twenties

In the 1920s there was a strong reaction to the grief, horror and suffering of World War I, and the influenza pandemic that had come in its wake. Lifestyles changed as new fashions, dances and music evolved, including the rapid spread of jazz music and establishment of nightclubs around the world. This period is known as the **roaring twenties**.

roaring twenties the period during the 1920s when lifestyles changed and technology boomed; the term 'roaring' refers to the speed and noise associated with cars and aeroplanes, and the excitement of jazz music and dances

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Source 1.12 'Flappers' were fashionable women in the 1920s, especially those who enjoyed being in public spaces, smoking, driving or dancing.

Women insisted on greater independence and public freedoms, such as smoking, driving and playing sport. Many women who held wartime employment lost their jobs at the end of the war when men returned to take back their positions, but some found new work in shops, offices and the expanding number of factories that produced goods on a mass scale. Some women began to question having to choose between marriage and a career, and advice books on sex in marriage, such as Marie Stopes's *Married Love* (1918), were very popular. Short skirts, make-up, bobbed hairstyles and dresses without waists were all the rage. Young, stylish women were called 'flappers'; a term that suggested a certain amount of social freedom.

Aeroplane technology continued to develop and flying began to capture people's imaginations. More cars appeared on the streets as automotive production expanded greatly around the world in the 1920s. In Adelaide from 1919, Holden manufactured car bodies and expanded its production through the 1920s, until the company was bought by the US firm General Motors in 1931. Driving was considered glamorous; cars were more affordable than before the war, but still a luxury.

Radio became the exciting new technology of the day. Those who could afford one had their own at home; others listened in public and to their friends' radios. As the film industry expanded, cinemas became more prominent and film stars became celebrities, while fan magazines followed their exploits. Functionalist modernism and art deco appeared in architecture, and modernism influenced art and literature.

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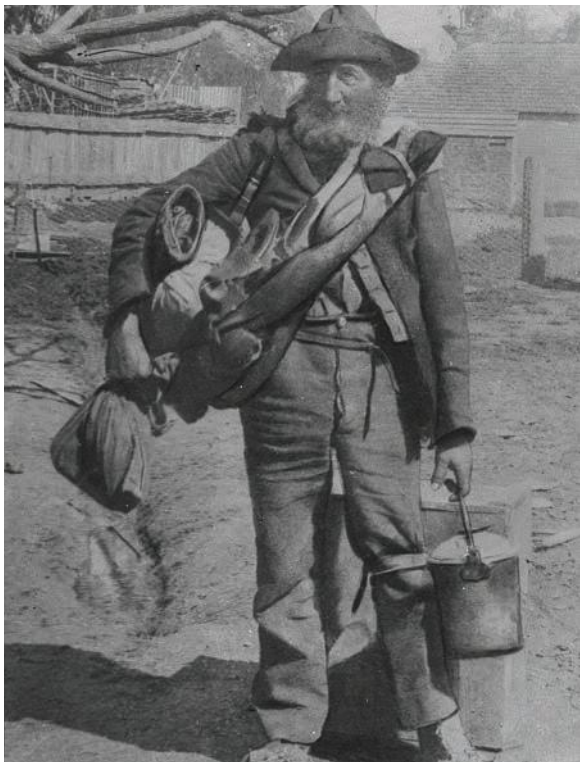
The Great Depression

The 1920s were a time of boom and bust, with economic swings, bursts of inflation and significant industrial strikes at different times in various countries. During World War I, European governments had intervened in, and controlled, their economies in unprecedented ways, and industrialisation in Japan and the United States accelerated. In Europe, the massive expansion of armaments industries had led to **inflation** and government debt. While some nations faced serious economic difficulties even earlier in the 1920s, the widespread economic crash known as the Great Depression began in 1929.

inflation a general rise in the level of prices and a fall in the purchasing value of money

First, European stock exchanges weakened. Then, in October 1929, there was a dramatic crisis at the New York Stock Exchange. Prices of stocks plummeted in a few weeks. Between 1929 and 1932 the average value of 50 industrial stocks at the New York Stock Exchange dropped from 252 to 61, while 5000 American banks closed. Trade and **manufacturing** fell around the world, and unemployment became a huge economic and social problem.

manufacturing an industry based on the creation of products on a large scale, using machinery



Source 1.13 Swagmen in Australia, like this man in the 1930s, carried their worldly goods as they went from town to town looking for work or food.

As people lost their jobs, many also lost their homes, had less to eat and became physically weak. Camps of unemployed and homeless people sprang up around the world. In Australia the hardships of the unemployed were very visible, but governments were unable to help beyond rationing and some relief work. Some unemployed men in Australia headed for the outback, becoming known as 'swagmen' because of the 'swags', or bedrolls, they carried as they went from farm to farm and door to door in bush towns seeking work or food. Desperation was widespread at this time.

Economies began to pick up in 1933, but were fragile throughout the 1930s, up to the outbreak of World War II in 1939.

Peace and security post-World War II: the UN

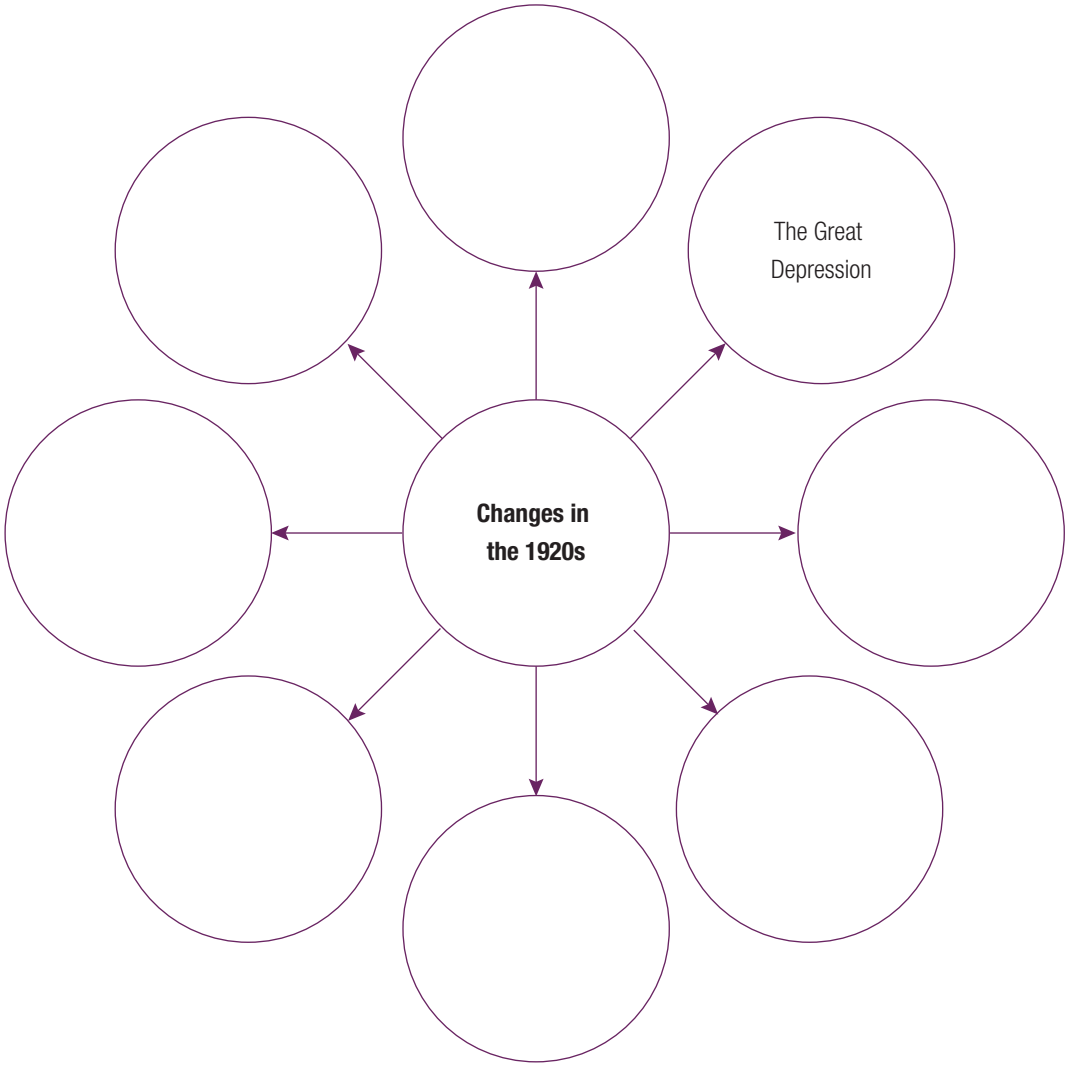
The world's first attempt at international governance and peace, the League of Nations, was an important experiment in the 1920s and 1930s, but ultimately failed. During World War II, Franklin Roosevelt (the United States), Winston Churchill (Britain) and Josef Stalin (Soviet Union) – the main allied leaders – met at Tehran in 1943 and Yalta in 1945, and agreed on a charter for a new organisation that would be both bigger and more flexible than the League of Nations. In June 1945, very soon after the end of World War II in Europe, delegates from 50 nations met in San Francisco to approve the charter of the new United Nations (UN). The charter declared that the purposes of the UN were:

1 to maintain international peace and security, and to that end: to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principles

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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, jot down the dramatic changes that occurred during the 1920s.



of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations that might lead to a breach of the peace

2 to develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace

3 to achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion

4 to be a centre for harmonising the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

The United Nations consists of a General Assembly of representatives from all member states, and a Security Council that includes both permanent and rotating member states. The leader of the UN is known as the UN Secretary-General, a position that has come to hold increasing global power and influence.

The UN oversees a range of important agencies, including the World Health Organization

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(WHO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Labour Organization (ILO). In 1948 the UN General Assembly approved the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, whose first article asserted: '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'.

The UN has taken a global leadership role in peacekeeping efforts, in an attempt to bring an end to conflicts and to protect civilians. Some peacekeeping efforts have been more successful than others. UN peacekeepers helped to end the civil war in Mozambique in 1992, to bring peace to the war-torn countries of the former Yugoslavia in the 1990s, and since 1999 have helped East Timor to establish its independence from Indonesia.

Australia's involvement in UN peacekeeping

Australia has been involved in many UN-led or UN-sanctioned peacekeeping deployments since World War II, taking a significant role in the global community. Australia participated in the very first UN peacekeeping mission, which sought from 1947 to monitor the ceasefire in Indonesia, ending that country's independence struggle against the Netherlands. Other missions dating from the late 1940s in which Australian peacekeepers have participated include the UN **commissions** in Korea; commissions in India to oversee the post-independence separation of India and Pakistan, and their disputes over Kashmir; and truce supervision in various Arab–Israeli conflicts.

commission a group entrusted by a government to undertake specific tasks and duties

Depending on the mission, Australian participants have been either defence personnel or Australian Federal Police, or sometimes both. For example, Australia has sent police rather than defence personnel to Cyprus, where, since 1964, the UN peacekeeping force has sought to monitor the buffer zone between the Greek and Turkish sections of that country.

In more recent decades, Australians have participated in UN missions in Africa, South-East Asia and the Pacific. A whole battalion of Australians participated in the UN operations to monitor the ceasefire and distribute humanitarian aid in Somalia in 1992–93. In Rwanda, where in 1994 there was large-scale **genocide** (mostly of Tutsi people by Hutus), Australia sent 300 medical personnel in the largest deployment of medical staff overseas since the Vietnam War. Also in the early 1990s, Australia contributed peacekeepers to the UN mission to help rebuild Cambodia in the wake of the devastating and genocidal Khmer Rouge regime.

genocide full or attempted extermination of a certain ethnic, cultural or religious group

In 1999–2000 Australia commanded a UN-sanctioned peacekeeping mission in East Timor, the largest such mission ever deployed, with Australians comprising 5500 of the 10 000-strong force. Australian Defence Force personnel still assist the UN mission in East Timor by providing security.

Since 2003, both the Australian Federal Police and the Australian Defence Force have contributed to the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI), which seeks to help that country build its police force and government.

HISTORICAL FACT

Since UN peacekeeping missions began after World War II, Australia has participated in more than 35 missions in more than 25 countries around the world.



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Source 1.14 Members of the Australian peacekeeping contingent to the United Nations Advance Mission in Cambodia after being presented with the Australian Service Medal at Angkor Wat, Cambodia, 1992 [AWM/P01811.001]

Activity **1.2**

1. Name three UN peacekeeping missions in which Australia has participated.
2. Identify some of the benefits of peacekeeping missions. Consider this issue both from the perspective of the country in which the intervention is taking place, and from the perspective of participating countries such as Australia.
3. Imagine that you are a member of the Regional Assistance Mission in the Solomon Islands (RAMSI). In groups, research the goals and achievements of this mission, and conduct a role-play that mediates between three of the key parties in the conflict.
4. In comparison to the League of Nations, do you think the United Nations has been successful? Give reasons to support your answer.
5. Look up the home page of the United Nations at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks and answer these questions.
   - **a** Who currently holds the offices of UN Secretary-General, President of the General Assembly and President of the Security Council?
   - **b** What are the main current issues the United Nations is addressing?
   - **c** What can you learn about current events in the world from the UN website?

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Rights and freedom movements

The spread of democracy as a political model since the eighteenth century has been linked to ideas of individual political and legal rights. In the twentieth century, anti-colonial nationalist movements rose up around the world to challenge the hold of imperial powers on territories they had held, often by force. While the contexts for such movements have varied, the aims, strategies and even political slogans have overlapped – from the early twentieth century Irish fight to expel the British, to the mid-century Algerian war for independence from France, to wars within parts of the former Soviet Union, such as Chechnya's endeavour for freedom from Russia. Besides wars and struggles to throw out imperial powers, there have been internal fights for political freedom, civil rights and racial **equality**, such as the violent struggle in South Africa that finally brought an end to **Apartheid** in 1994. Struggles for civil rights and constitutional democracies continue. In 2011, the remarkable 'Arab Spring' witnessed political revolutions against dictatorial leaders across North Africa – in Tunisia, Egypt and Libya.

equality the same treatment and opportunities available to all, regardless of race, gender or religion

Apartheid a system of racial segregation and discrimination in South Africa (1948–94)

US Civil Rights Movement

In the 1960s, African-Americans staged a powerful movement for civil, political and legal rights, known as the US Civil Rights Movement. Slavery had ended in the United States when northern states won victory in the Civil War in 1865, but African-Americans had continued to suffer racism through **segregation**, employment and educational discrimination, political **disenfranchisement**, poverty, poor health and violence, including **lynching**.

An important legal victory against segregation in schools was the 1954 ruling in *Brown vs Board of Education of Topeka*. Then, in 1955, Rosa Parks, an African-American woman in Montgomery, Alabama, refused to give up her seat on a bus to a white man, sparking a long and eventually successful bus **boycott** in that city. In 1961 a mixed group of activists took a bus together from Washington DC to New Orleans, to protest the continuing practice of segregation on interstate buses. This tactic became known as a 'Freedom Ride', and a series of 'Freedom Rides' were taken through the southern states.

segregation separation of classes of people; applied to racial segregation in the twentieth century, such as in South Africa under Apartheid, the American South until the 1950s–60s, and in some parts of Australia, particularly up to the 1960s

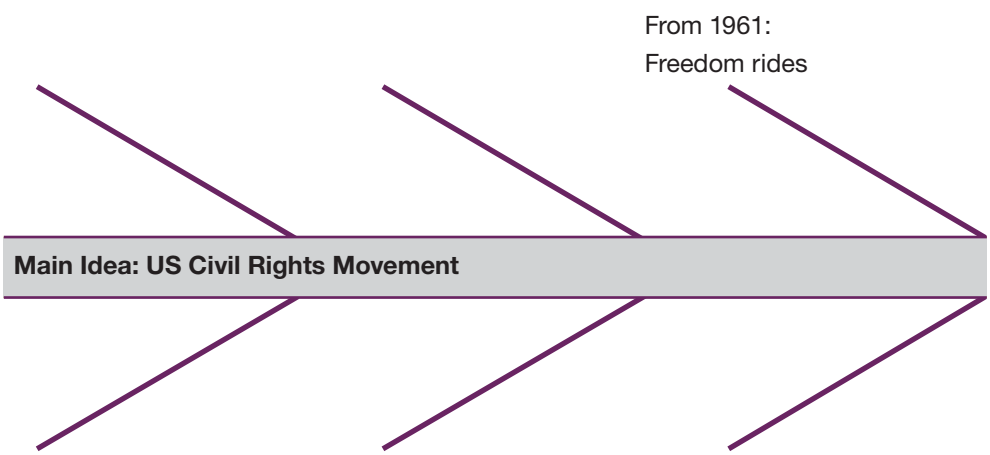
disenfranchise to deprive someone of the right to citizenship or the right to vote

lynching an illegal killing by a mob, usually by hanging and/or burning

boycott the act of people coming together to refuse cooperation

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, chart the key events in the US Civil Rights Movement.



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The US Civil Rights Movement drew on ideas from anti-colonial nationalist movements. One of its main leaders, Dr Martin Luther King Jr, adopted Mohandas (Mahatma) Gandhi's strategies for Indian independence from Britain, including non-violent resistance and boycotts. Students across the American South held sit-ins at lunch counters and other public venues from which African-Americans had been excluded. The Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee played a large role in the Civil Rights Movement through supporting and organising sit-ins, freedom rides and drives to register African-American voters across the South. Large demonstrations included the 1963 March on Washington, during which Dr Martin Luther King Jr delivered his famous and influential 'I have a dream' speech to 200 000 civil rights supporters.

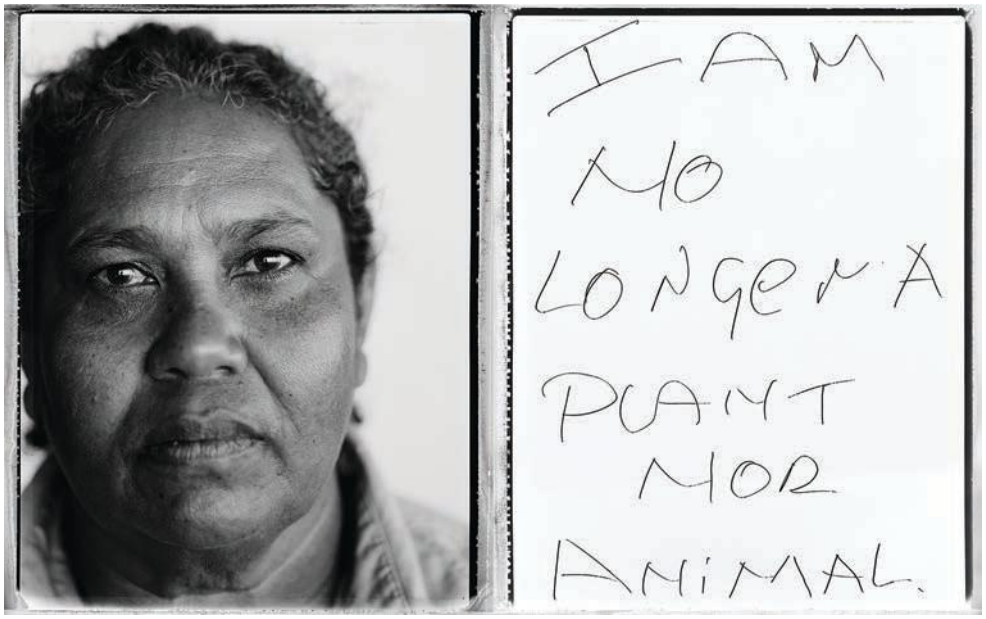
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Civil Rights Movement

In Australia, Aboriginal people fought throughout the twentieth century for civil, legal and political rights. In 1924, Fred Maynard, an Aboriginal dockside worker in Sydney, formed the first Aboriginal political rights group, the Australian Aborigines Progressive Association. It soon had more than 500 members in 11 branches and a long agenda including the abolition of boards controlling Aborigines, and the end of the practice of removing Aboriginal children from their families. On 26 January 1938, while white Australians celebrated the 150th anniversary of the arrival of the First Fleet, Aboriginal people held a Day of Mourning, with a **manifesto** of demands for civil and legal rights. Several days later, a small group met with Prime Minister Joseph Lyons to present some of their demands.

manifesto a public statement of aims and policy

The US Civil Rights Movement spurred protests against the treatment of Indigenous people in Australia. In February 1965, a group of Sydney University students led by Charles Perkins took a 'Freedom Ride' on a bus through northern New South Wales, challenging segregation and discrimination against Aboriginal people and gaining much publicity.

After extensive campaigning by Aboriginal rights leaders and groups, in 1967 there was a federal referendum on the question of whether to amend two sections of the Constitution, to allow the Commonwealth Government to legislate for Aboriginal people, and to include Aboriginal people in the national census. It was a remarkable victory, with more than 90 per cent of Australians voting 'Yes'.



Source 1.15 Sylvia Clarke comments on the 1967 referendum, South Hedland, Western Australia, 2007 (Photo: Tobia Titz)

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But there were still deep problems, as made clear by the organisers of the Aboriginal Tent Embassy erected on Australia Day 1972 on the lawn opposite Parliament House. The Tent Embassy has signified the alienation of Aboriginal people in their own country. It still stands today and protesters from the Tent Embassy were involved in a scuffle with Prime Minister Julia Gillard and Opposition Leader Tony Abbott on Australia Day 2012. The protesters were upset by comments Mr Abbott had allegedly made earlier in the day.

Following the *Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act 1976*, and other land rights legislation, Aboriginal land councils developed bodies through which Aboriginal people could negotiate, but often against very difficult odds. Aboriginal women have formed their own organisations, such as the Ngaanyatjarra Pitjantjatjara Yankunytjatjara Women's Council established in central Australia in 1980 as a forum for Aboriginal women from 25 communities in three states.

In 1982 Eddie Mabo and four other Murray Islanders in the Torres Strait challenged the Queensland Government's claims to the islands, arguing for their own continuous traditional rights to the land. In 1992 the High Court ruled in favour of Mabo's claims, dramatically overturning long-standing assumptions about land ownership in Australia.

Women's Liberation Movement

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries the 'First Wave' **feminist** movement fought for and won women's **enfranchisement** in many countries, as well as other legal rights. In World Wars I and II, women participated in a range of new roles, though rarely as soldiers. In the 1960s, the 'Second Wave', or Women's Liberation Movement, erupted in countries around the world, fuelled by protests about women being limited to roles as housewives, and about legal, educational and employment inequalities. Other specific issues related to the protests were access to birth control (particularly the contraceptive pill) and legal abortions.

feminist a person who believes that women and men are equal and should enjoy all the same rights

enfranchise to give someone the right to citizenship or the right to vote

Several books inspired the new movement, including Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique* (1963), which revealed the unhappiness and frustrations of housewives; and Robin Morgan's widely read collection *Sisterhood is Powerful* (1970). One of the movement's most celebrated texts was *The Female Eunuch* (1970) by Australian writer Germaine Greer. Greer's book caused outrage and controversy because it focused on sex and urged women to behave freely and radically.

In contrast to the earlier 'First Wave' movement, the new movement's broad agenda included issues of women's sexual pleasure, racial equality, lesbian and homosexual rights, domestic violence and rape. Most of those involved were young women, who were at first derided as 'Women's Libbers'. The movement achieved many legislative victories in Australia, including the legalisation of abortion, the criminalisation of rape in marriage and the *Sex Discrimination Act 1984*.

The feminist movement in Australia was directly connected to those overseas, but it had its own local and specific dimensions. One very Australian event occurred on 31 March 1965 when three Brisbane women protested their exclusion from the men-only front bar at the Regatta Hotel in Toowong. Two of the women chained themselves to the bar foot-rail, and the third took the key from the lock and threw it into the river. The event attracted an enormous amount of publicity.

Aboriginal women were politically active in the Aboriginal Civil Rights Movement, but often felt that the women's movement focused on white women's issues – Aboriginal women were worried about maternal and infant mortality, the effects of alcohol, and losing their land, their culture and their children. One of the leading Aboriginal women's activists has been Jackie Huggins, of both the Bidjara and Birri-Gubba Juru people in Queensland, and author of *Sister Girl* (1998). In 2001 Huggins was awarded the Australia Medal for her work with Aboriginal people. Huggins has argued that Aboriginal women have largely rejected white feminism because they were **alienated** and **marginalised** by the movement, and that racism is a more urgent concern.

alienated isolated

marginalised treated as insignificant

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HISTORICAL FACT

One feminist poster popular in Britain around 1980 put the issue this way: 'It begins when you sink into his arms; it ends with your arms in his sink.'



Source 1.16 Merle Thornton and Rosalie Bognor chained to the foot-rail of the Regatta Hotel in Toowong, Brisbane, as a protest against women's exclusion from front bars, March 1965

The Cold War and Australia

Cold War the political and military tension between the Soviet Union and the United States from 1945 to 1989; the term was coined to indicate rivalry and hostility short of military conflict, but in fact the Cold War included several actual wars as well

The **Cold War** was a global struggle between the two superpowers: the **expansionist** communist Soviet Union and its bloc of Eastern European countries (with occasional support from China, which had its own Communist Revolution in 1949), and the United States, which emerged as the richest industrial nation at the end of World War II, standing for **capitalism** and democracy. In March 1947 the United States announced its 'Truman Doctrine' (the policy set forth by then US President Harry Truman): that it would aid and support governments threatened by communist takeover, either internally or externally.

expansionism the policy of extending the territory and/or economy of a country

capitalism an economic system based on private ownership and free market enterprise

World War II had hardly finished in 1945 before the Cold War began. The Soviet Union, the United States and Britain were allies during World War II, but that changed quickly. Tensions developed in the late stages of the war, as the German army collapsed and the Soviet Union engulfed territory in Eastern Europe. The Soviet Union had been locked in a fierce and bitter struggle against Nazi Germany on the Eastern Front from 1941, and had asked the other Allies to open up a second front, but they did not re-enter Europe until June 1944.

The nuclear arms race began when the United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945. While the bombs were intended to make Japan surrender, it was widely thought that the bombs were also meant to send a message of US strength to the Soviet Union.

In the years immediately after the war, Soviet expansionism created a communist bloc in Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Albania, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. Germany was divided into a democratic, capitalist West and a communist East; in 1949, the German capital Berlin was divided into zones controlled by the major powers.

One dramatic episode of the Cold War occurred right in America's Caribbean backyard. In 1959, Fidel Castro rose to power in Cuba,

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Source 1.17 A crowd of people gather in a department store to watch John F. Kennedy address the nation during the Cuban Missile Crisis, 22 October 1962

which became a communist country and an ally of the Soviet Union. In April 1961, US President John F. Kennedy sent a force of CIA-trained anti-Castro Cubans into Cuba in the hope of inciting an uprising. The invasion – named the Bay of Pigs after the bay where the force landed – failed.

In October 1962 the US Government learned that the Soviet Union had sent technicians to Cuba to build launch sites for nuclear missiles that were within range of reaching the United States. President Kennedy gave the Soviet Union an ultimatum to withdraw its missiles, and the whole world believed that it was on the brink of nuclear war between the two superpowers. After two very tense weeks, the Soviet Government backed down.

Cold War conflicts

The Cold War is known as 'cold' because the superpowers never engaged in a major battle *directly* with each other; it was a period of tension and threat of nuclear war. However, there were many actual armed conflicts – or 'hot wars' – fought during the Cold War, which can be directly attributed to the tensions of the period.

Korea

In 1950, communist North Korea invaded capitalist South Korea. At the behest of the United States, the UN passed a resolution requesting all member states to help South Korea expel the invaders. American forces led the counter-attack, going so far north as to provoke China to join with North Korea in pushing them back south. The war became a bloody and extended stalemate along the border of the '38th parallel' – the line of latitude 38° north of the equator, which roughly divides North and South Korea. About 3 million people died – mostly Korean civilians – before the ceasefire in 1953. Australia was part of the multi-national UN force, and 340 Australian troops were killed.

Korea remains divided into the capitalist South and communist North.

Vietnam

One of the most extended Cold War battles was in Vietnam, which had been a French colony. The Vietnamese nationalist movement to oust the French began in the 1920s and escalated at the end of World War II. The French fought to retain

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Source 1.18 A demonstration against the Vietnam War outside the Melbourne Town Hall, 1 June 1971

their colony, and from 1946 the United States began giving them aid. In 1954 the French gave up, and Vietnam was divided into a communist North and non-communist South. In the early 1960s the United States began sending its own forces to help the South fight against the North, and by 1967 there were 450 000 American combat troops in the region.

Again, there was a coalition of nations fighting alongside the United States, including Australia. Australia first sent military personnel to Vietnam in 1962, and ultimately 60 000 Australians served at one point or another during the war, with the last Australians leaving when Saigon finally fell to North Vietnam in 1975. Australia's peak troop strength in the Vietnam War was 7672 people, and 521 Australians died.

The Vietnam War divided Australians politically and generationally. In 1964, the Australian Government began **conscripting** 20-year-old men, many of whom were reluctant to go to war. In many cases this set them at odds with their parents – a generation who had participated in World War II and believed that the Vietnam War also had to

conscription the process of mandatory participation in war, where men and women are forced to sign up to serve their country at war

HISTORICAL FACT

Weapons used by American forces in Vietnam included napalm, Agent Orange, white phosphorous and cluster bombs. Napalm is a liquid incendiary that causes severe burns. Agent Orange was a toxic defoliant that caused long-term illness for survivors on both sides of the war. White phosphorous adhered to people's skin and continued to burn. Cluster bombs exploded in the air into hundreds of smaller bombs.

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be fought because Australia's political survival was under threat from the 'red menace', a term used to describe the Communists during the Cold War. In the years around 1970, opponents of the Vietnam War held large demonstrations in Australian cities.

The end of the Cold War: one superpower

A series of dramatic events in 1989 heralded the end of the Cold War. In the 1980s, the visionary Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev reformed the country. He introduced economic freedoms called *perestroika*, and political freedoms called *glasnost*. In 1988, Gorbachev withdrew Russian forces from Afghanistan, where they had been embroiled in a long, devastating invasion. He also made it clear to Eastern European countries that they could choose their own political paths. In 1989 the Soviet Union held the first elections in Eastern Europe since 1917, and there was a series of peaceful revolutions across the region, overturning communist governments in countries including Poland, Hungary and East Germany. The Berlin Wall, erected in 1961 to prevent people escaping from communist East Berlin to democratic West Berlin, had come to stand for the global division between capitalism and communism. In a climactic moment watched intently around the world, the Berlin Wall fell on 9 November 1989, to the great joy of people on both sides.

With the collapse of the Soviet Union, the Cold War was over. The United States has since been very conscious of its role as the sole superpower, and maintains a high level of military spending and large armed forces in order to be able to deploy them around the world.



Source 1.19 People from both East and West Berlin were overjoyed when the Berlin Wall fell on 9 November 1989 in a dramatic signal of the end of the Cold War. Berliners climbed the Wall before it was torn down.

The post-Cold War world

The Gulf Wars and Afghanistan

In the 1980s, a long and bloody war between Iran and Iraq killed hundreds of thousands of people from both sides. Then, in 1990, Iraq, under Saddam Hussein, invaded Kuwait. In 1991 an alliance of nations pushed the Iraqis back, in what was known as the Persian Gulf War.

During the Russian invasion of Afghanistan in the 1980s, terrorist attacks on the Russians were led by an Afghan fundamentalist Islamic group called the Taliban, with some support from the United States. In a stunning attack on 11 September 2001, another transnational organisation called al-Qaeda hijacked commercial aeroplanes in the United States and crashed them into the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. Another hijacked aircraft crashed in Pennsylvania. Approximately 3000 people died. In response, the United States and its allies invaded Afghanistan, which was a base of terrorist organisation. In 2003 the United States led an invasion of Iraq, to oust its dictator Saddam Hussein, and declared a 'war on terror'.

Australia participated in the Persian Gulf War, and the later US-led invasions of Afghanistan and Iraq. Australian troops withdrew from Iraq in 2009.

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Source 1.20 The site of the World Trade Center in New York, following the terrorist attack on 11 September 2001

Activity 1.3

1. Why were the attacks on the United States on 11 September 2001 considered so shocking?
2. Explain the meanings of the Russian words *perestroika* and *glasnost*.
3. Look at the image of the Berlin Wall (Source 1.19). This image was taken just before the wall was torn down in November 1989. Previously, people had not been allowed to approach the wall, let alone stand on top of it. What emotions are on display? Do you think these emotions would have lasted as Germany faced the problems of reunification?
4. Identify some effects that the economic rise of China and India may have on the future of Australian society.

The rise of Asia

In the post-Cold War world, several countries that previously had communist or socialist economies shifted to capitalism. These included the formerly communist Russia and China, the latter of which is still run by its Communist Party but has shifted markedly towards a capitalist economy.

One of the most significant changes in the world in recent decades has been the industrialisation of countries such as Brazil, India, China, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan, following the earlier lead of Japan. China's economy has expanded at a remarkably rapid rate, so that it now reaps the benefits of a large global export trade. Moreover, China has rapidly expanded its military forces and equipment, and gained global influence. India, the world's largest democracy, has had high economic growth rates in recent years and currently has one of the fastest-growing economies in the world, though there is still great economic disparity within India. The economic rise of India and China in particular has led to speculation that the Asia-Pacific region will soon become dominant in the world economy.

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Australia helped to create the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) forum, whose 21 members together make more than half of the world's **Gross Domestic Product (GDP)**.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) the market value of all goods and services produced in a country or the world in a given time period

Technology, health and the environment

Technology and daily life

Humans, and the hominids from whom we are descended, have been using tools for around two-and-a-half-million years. Technology has always been part of daily human life, yet everyone seems to agree that we are living in a technological age. Whether one sees it as progress or as problematic, since the turn of the twentieth century types of technology have become much more varied and powerful, and have been combined into ever more complex, large-scale systems. One can fly in a jet to London, draw money out of an ATM there, and Skype family and friends back home; before World War II one would have taken an ocean liner, carried cash or a bank draft, and written letters home. The speed of transport and communication has certainly accelerated, yet it is worth asking how much our lives and experiences have actually changed.

Changing technology over the last century

Since World War I, the home and the workplace have both been transformed by new technologies. Our homes have become filled with appliances such as televisions, refrigerators and flushing toilets, and this has required that they be connected to vast systems of technologies to bring electricity and water into them and to carry waste away. Offices now depend on computers and factories depend on robots, also needing electricity and water, and also producing large amounts of waste. And, overwhelmingly, we move from one place to another by private cars, requiring other infrastructure of roads, bridges, garages and petrol stations. The city of Los Angeles in the United States, for example, has given more than two-thirds of its space to streets, car parks, garages, freeways and other car-related systems.

Consumer durable goods (everything from cars to iPads) are themselves complex systems of discrete technologies (cars, for example, have engines, tyres, radios and dozens of on-board computers). Now, a person in Australia can buy something from an American company online, that was made in China using raw materials from Japan and Australia, that will be packed in boxes made from cardboard ground from woodchips that began as old-growth Tasmanian forests, and shipped on a Panamanian vessel. Globalisation has been greatly increased by transnational technologies of manufacturing and transportation.

But all this has increasingly become a burden on the planet. Finding, transforming and using energy for all this new technology – especially in the form of oil and electricity – has drained the Earth's resources. Waste products (pollution) threaten the global climate and the very **biosphere** that the world needs for its continued functioning.

biosphere layers of the Earth's land, oceans and atmosphere containing living organisms

Population, health and longevity

No change in the world since 1900 has been more dramatic and fraught than its increase in, and increasing rate of, population. In 1804, at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, the population of the world for the first time reached 1 billion people. It took another 123 years to add its second billion, in 1927. Thirty-three years after that, in 1960, the population stood at 3 billion and, by 1987, only 27 years later, it had reached 5 billion. In 2011 the world's population reached 7 billion. The significance of this accelerating population for its effects on food and other resources is, of course, difficult to overstate.

It is not just that people are reproducing at a faster rate. Part of this increase in population

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Research 1.1

Choose one key technological change in the past century and research the effect it has had on human society. Make sure you consider the negative and the positive effects. Present your findings to the class in either a PowerPoint or oral presentation.



Source 1.21 Air pollution in Dubai, the United Arab Emirates, c. 2006

is due to advances in public health – where medical services are available, mortality from many contagious diseases has dropped sharply. Malaria, for example, is less life-threatening than it was in the past. After 1945, DDT, an insecticide that had been developed during the war, was widely used against mosquitoes in tropical areas, where it helped to save lives. A side effect of this, however, was that it did great damage to the natural environment.

As a result of better nutrition and health care, the world population is getting older – people have greater **longevity**. Life expectancy at birth rose 20 years in the last half of the twentieth century. With fewer people dying at a young age, there is 'less room' for more babies.

longevity length or duration of life

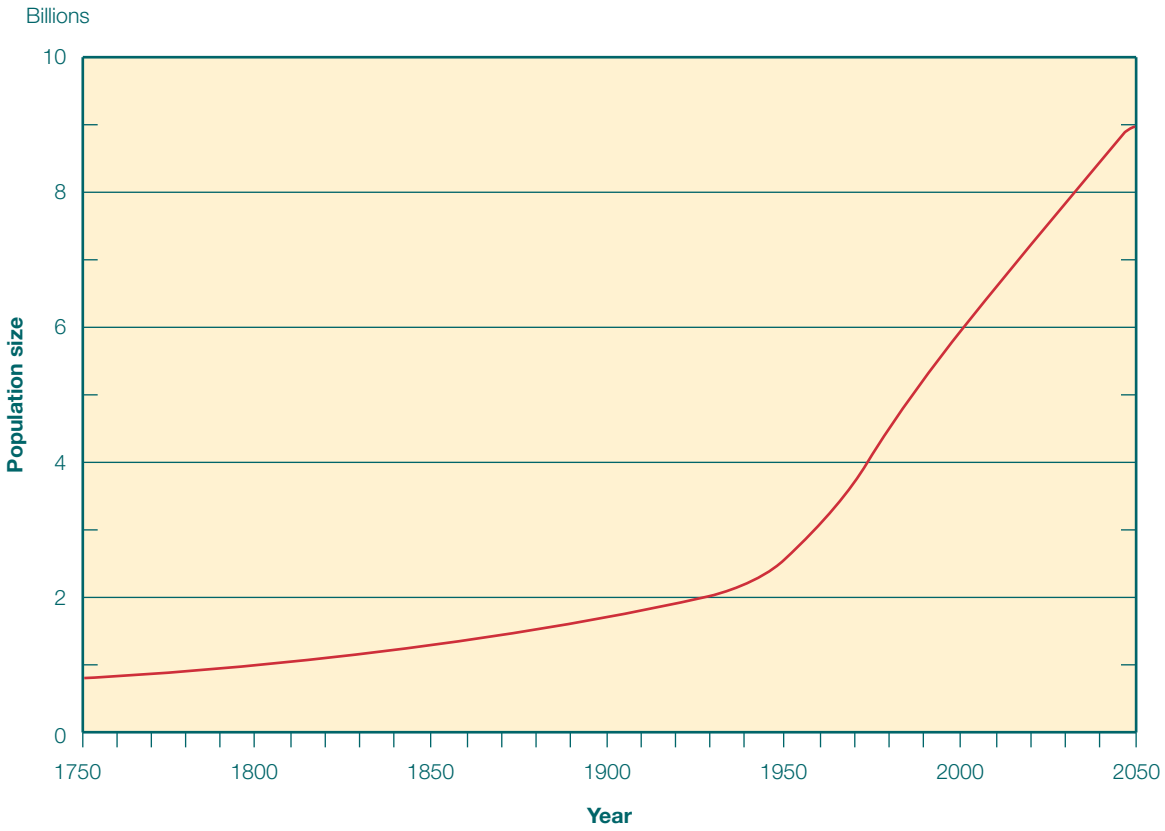
It is also true, however, that medical research is heavily weighted toward the ills of those who can afford to pay for treatment: cancer and heart disease, which afflict especially the developed world, are well funded, but malaria and other diseases of the developing world are less so. Simple necessities such as clean drinking water are

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often not available in many areas, which can lead to easily preventable deaths. HIV/AIDS has been controlled where people can afford expensive medicines, but still rages in Asia, Eastern Europe and especially Africa, where medicines are less accessible.

Social and cultural factors have also had a large role in shaping this population growth. Despite campaigns such as that to promote voluntary sterilisation in India, it has long been known that the best way to lower birth rate is to provide more education, economic opportunities and social justice for women. Cultural choices, reinforced in China by political decisions, have led to a large increase in the proportion of male to female babies. Boys in that country are prized as economic supplements and cultural ornaments to the family, whereas girls are often seen as the opposite. As a result, very large numbers of female foetuses are aborted and girl babies abandoned. The lack of suitable wives for young men will be a growing social problem in the future.

By the beginning of this century, 95 per cent of population growth was taking place in the underdeveloped regions of the world. However, many people in crowded, underdeveloped areas do not stay where they are born. Whether driven by starvation, local conflict or simply the natural desire to enhance their living conditions, they often move away, becoming part of a great global surge of migrant peoples. In 1965, approximately 75 million people were on the move; by the end of the twentieth century that number was 125 million. Global warming and the consequent rising of sea levels will greatly increase this number in the future.



Source 1.22 The curve on this graph shows the long-term world population growth, 1750 to 2050. Figures are shown as recorded up to 2011. Figures beyond 2011 are those projected by the United Nations.

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The environment and sustainability

During the 1960s and 1970s there was a wide-ranging public debate about whether it was the growing population or increased technology that was doing more harm to natural and social environments around the world. A reasonable answer seemed to be that both were capable of great destruction and, at the rates of growth of the time, were unsustainable. People in underdeveloped regions (such as Asia and Africa) were multiplying at a greater rate, but people in already highly developed and still-growing regions (such as Europe, Australia and North America) used vastly more technology – and therefore more energy. In today's terminology we could say that there were many more people in underdeveloped regions, but the carbon footprint of each was minuscule compared to those of people in more developed countries.

At the turn of the twentieth century, a two-pronged Conservation Movement developed in North America, Australia and other parts of the world. One part of this was a science-based effort to slow the disappearance of natural resources, which were being used up at an alarming rate by growing industrialisation. The other effort was to preserve wilderness and open spaces for their intrinsic as well as recreational value. This movement was led by such citizen groups as the Sierra Club in the United States and the Wilderness Preservation Society of Australia.

Similarly, by the early 1900s, scientists had already begun to realise that increasing carbon dioxide in the atmosphere was leading to possibly catastrophic climate change. By mid-century, it had become obvious that not only were the raw materials of industrialisation disappearing, but the pollution and waste that were an inevitable accompaniment to industrialisation were accumulating to a dangerous degree.



Source 1.23 Deforestation in Tasmania

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The 1972 book *Limits to Growth* argued that an investigation of the interactions between the world's social and natural environments showed that there were real limits to growth, and that current rates of technological development, economic expansion and population growth were not **sustainable**. The book was initially met with criticism, but later analysis revealed that its predictions were fairly accurate.

sustainable designed to be able to operate perpetually, without depleting natural resources or harming the natural environment

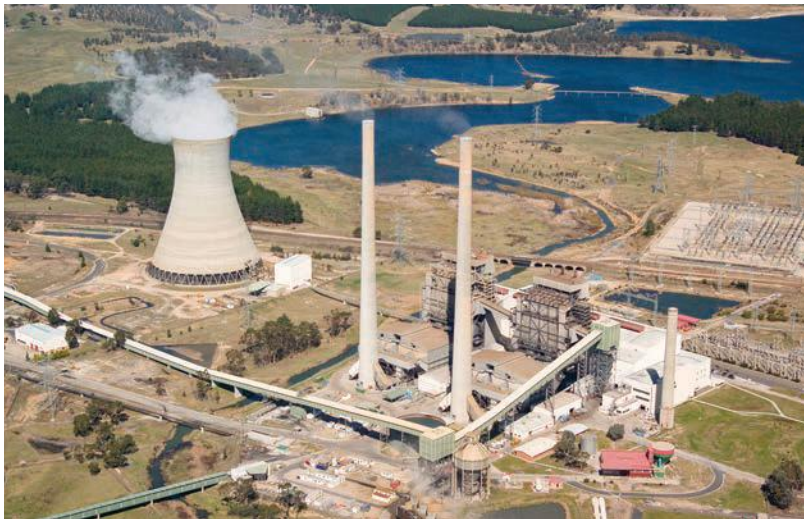
In 1973 the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) reacted to military developments in the Middle East by cutting oil supplies to the West, in a global environment where Western countries were increasingly reliant on oil. Since the Industrial Revolution there had been a progressive shift from the use of renewable energy sources (animal, wood, wind and water) to non-renewable (first coal, then petroleum and gas), and the large spike in petrol prices and long queues at the bowser dramatically underlined the growing dependence of industrialised countries on a dwindling supply of energy.

Books such as *Limits to Growth* and Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring*, which had pointed out the dangers of DDT, helped to galvanise a new **environmental movement** in many parts of the world, including Australia. Scientists and intellectuals were joined by masses of citizens demanding an end to the environmental vandalism of industrialisation and consumerism. If life was to continue on Earth, they insisted, social, technological, agricultural and industrial systems must be made sustainable.

environmental movement a broad set of beliefs, ideas and ideals that guide the actions of people in terms of how they care for the environment



Source 1.24 The tiny corroboree frog used to be widespread in parts of the Snowy Mountains area of south-eastern New South Wales, but has become endangered. There is now a breeding program to try to save it.



Source 1.25 The coal-fired electricity power station at Wallerawang, New South Wales. Non-renewable energy sources are widely used in Australia.

HISTORICAL FACT

Global warming is considered to be responsible for the extinction of well over 100 species of frogs in recent decades. Frogs are particularly susceptible to environmental change because of their permeable skin.

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Research 1.2

What type of animal or fish do you especially like? Choose one animal or fish species (such as orangutan, panda, koala or rainbow fish) and research the sustainability of the species.

Prepare a poster or PowerPoint presentation to explain the following to your class.

- How safe or endangered is the species?
- What human activity (such as deforestation or overfishing) or aspects of climate change might threaten it?
- Is any action being taken to protect or save it?
- What more could be done?

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Chapter summary

- The two World Wars were devastating global conflicts that killed millions of combatants and civilians, led to the collapse of empires, and changed both warfare and international relations.
- The Cold War, from 1945 to 1989, was a global contest between the two superpowers – the capitalist United States and the communist Soviet Union – which divided regions and sparked several 'hot' wars.
- The United Nations was founded in 1945 and has articulated human rights, fostered international cooperation and overseen many peacekeeping missions, including many in which Australia has participated.
- In the twentieth century, civil rights movements successfully fought for legal and political rights for groups such as African-Americans and Aboriginal Australians, while the feminist movement led to greater rights for women, and anti-colonial nationalist movements were important in the fight for countries to achieve independence.
- Medical advances and disease control have led to greater life expectancy but those in wealthier countries have benefitted more, and many people in underdeveloped areas are worse off. Global population has grown enormously and at an accelerated rate.
- Technological and economic changes have shaped our daily lives, while also contributing to global warming, climate change and the depletion of natural resources.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1 The Treaty of Versailles was signed in 1919 to settle the end of:

A the Spanish Civil War
B the Bolshevik Revolution
C World War I
D Japan's invasion of China

2 Which of the following United Nations peacekeeping missions did Australia contribute to?

A Indonesia's independence struggle against the Netherlands from 1947
B monitoring the buffer zone between the Greek and Turkish sections of Cyprus
C Rwanda after the 1994 genocide
D all of the above

3 The 'Freedom Ride' in northern New South Wales led by Charles Perkins in 1965 was based on those in:

A India
B South Africa
C Britain
D the American South

4 The dramatic October 1962 standoff in the Cold War was about missiles based in:

A Cuba
B the Soviet Union
C Korea
D Vietnam

5 The rise in world population from 5 billion to 7 billion took:

A 1000 years
B 100 years
C 33 years
D 24 years

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Short answer

1 What were the causes of the Great Depression?
2 Identify the main aims of the United Nations when it was established in 1945.
3 How did the Women's Liberation Movement of the 1960s and 1970s differ from First Wave feminism, and what were its goals?
4 Describe the events that finally led to the end of the Cold War.
5 How has changing technology altered homes and workplaces in Australia and worldwide?

Source analysis

The 26th January, 1938, is not a day of rejoicing for Australia's Aborigines; it is a day of mourning.

We do not wish to be 'studied' as scientific or anthropological curiosities. All such efforts on our behalf are wasted. We have no desire to go back to primitive conditions of the Stone Age. We ask you to teach our people to live in the Modern Age as modern citizens. Our people are very good and quick learners. Why do you deliberately keep us backward? Is it merely to give yourselves the pleasure of feeling superior? Give our children the same chances as your own, and they will do as well as your children!

We ask for equal education, equal opportunity, equal wages, equal rights to possess property, or to be our own masters – in two words: *equal citizenship*.

Source 1.26 The statement by the Australian Aborigines Progressive Association, led by its President Mr J.T. Patten and Secretary Mr W. Ferguson, proclaiming Australia Day 1938 as a 'Day of Mourning'

Study Source 1.26 and answer the following questions.

1 Based on your reading of this statement, what conclusions can you draw about the conditions Aboriginal people faced in 1938?
2 What was the Australian Aborigines Progressive Association 'mourning' that day?
3 What international conceptions of civil rights did they draw upon?

Extended response

The Cold War ended with economic and political reform in the Soviet Union and the collapse of the communist Soviet bloc, leaving the United States as the sole superpower. In China, the Communist Party governs the country but has overseen a major shift towards a free-market economy.

Which was the greater victor at the end of the Cold War: capitalism or democracy? Explain your reasoning with a careful argument, discussing the relative significance of economic shifts since the 1980s, the number of communist or socialist countries in the world, and recent political revolutions such as those in the 'Arab Spring'.

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DEPTH STUDY 1

World War II



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2



World War II (1939–45)

Source 2.1 Australian soldiers on the Kokoda Track, 1942 [AWM/013620]

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Before you start

Main focus

World War II revealed the best and worst of humanity. It involved extraordinary acts of both horror and courage.

Why it's relevant today

Knowing about the events of World War II allows us to understand the political, economic and social aspects of the world we live in today.

Inquiry questions

- What were the causes and main events of World War II?
- What were the experiences of Australians during World War II?
- What was the impact of World War II on the Australian homefront?
- What was the significance of World War II on Australia's international relationships?

Key terms

- appeasement
- austerity campaign
- Holocaust
- ideology
- prisoners of war (POW)
- atom bomb
- countries: Britain, Japan, Nazi Germany, United States, Soviet Union
- Kokoda Track
- rationing

Key people

- German Führer Adolf Hitler
- Japanese General Hideki Tojo and Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto
- Soviet Union Premier Josef Stalin
- US President Franklin Roosevelt
- Australian Prime Minister John Curtin
- British Prime Minister Winston Churchill
- Nancy Wake
- Vivian Bullwinkel

Let's begin

After World War I, the world became polarised by political movements including communism, fascism and Nazism, and the rise of leaders such as Mussolini in Italy, Hitler in Germany, Stalin in the Soviet Union and Tojo in Japan. The aggression of these leaders exploded into one of the most horrifying global conflicts of the twentieth century: World War II. Battles of dominance were fought in China, North Africa and South-East Asia, with two key 'theatres of war': Europe and the Asia-Pacific. The war changed Australia and the world, with significant events including the Holocaust, battles of Britain and Stalingrad, the attack on Pearl Harbor, the bombing of Darwin, the defence of the Kokoda Track and the dropping of atomic bombs on Japan. World War II involved almost every nation in the world, costing nearly 50 million lives over the course of 6 years.



Source 2.2 German troops remove the border between Germany and Poland during the Nazi invasion of Poland, 1939



Source 2.3 Recruitment poster for the AIF, c. 1939. Source: Museum Victoria



Source 2.4 A special edition of the US Department of Defense newspaper, *Stars and Stripes*, 9 May 1945, celebrating VE day



Source 2.5 The Genbaku Dome, Hiroshima, after the atomic bomb attack, August 1945

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Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
1900	
Treaty of Versailles signed **1919**	**1914–18** World War I
1920	
	c. 1929 Wall Street crash begins Great Depression
1930	
Adolf Hitler becomes Chancellor of Germany **1933**	
Nazi Government embarks on a campaign of **1933–9** hate propaganda, violence and murder against Jewish and other citizens; Germany takes over Austria without force, and invades Czechoslovakia	
Japan invades China; Sino–Japanese War **1937**	
World War II begins after **3 September 1939** Hitler invades Poland	
Conscription introduced in Australia **October 1939**	
1940	
Battle of Britain begins; **September 1940** German bombers blitz London	
Japanese bomb US naval **7 December 1941** base at Pearl Harbor	
Japan defeats British base **15 February 1942** in Singapore (Fall of Singapore)	
Australia is attacked for the **19 February 1942** first time; the first of 64 bombing raids of Darwin	
Japanese submarines enter Sydney Harbour **May 1942**	
Battle of Kokoda **July 1942–February 1943** in Papua New Guinea	
Australian Prime Minister Curtin **August 1942** introduces the Austerity Campaign	
Battle of Stalingrad **August 1942–February 1943** in the Soviet Union	
Soviet troops discover Nazi death camps **July 1944**	
1945	
Germany surrenders, ending World War II **8 May 1945** in Europe; date is known as VE Day	
United States drops atomic bombs on **6 and 9 August 1945** Hiroshima and Nagasaki	
Japan surrenders, ending **15 August 1945** World War II in the Asia-Pacific; date is known as VP Day	



Source 2.6 The aftermath of the Japanese bomb attack on the US naval base at Pearl Harbor

August 1942 Indian Independence leader Mohandas (Mahatma) Gandhi is arrested after protesting against British occupation of India

1943 Penicillin becomes widely used as an antibiotic

1944 The first large automatic computer is developed

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Source 2.7 Countries and regions that Hitler took over between 1936 and 1939

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Theatres of war

The seeds of World War II were sown at the end of World War I but began developing rapidly in the 1930s. There were two main regions where World War II was fought: Europe and the Asia-Pacific. These are known as the 'theatres of war' – regions where armed conflict takes place.

Source 2.8 shows the theatres of war during World War II, and the main events that occurred during the war in each region.

Causes and course of World War II: Europe

The beginning of World War II in Europe was directly connected to World War I. Germany was forced to sign the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. The treaty placed various military and economic restrictions on Germany and also included a clause that blamed Germany for causing World War I, so that, to the Allies, Germany's signing of the treaty was essentially an acceptance of guilt. Germany was also made to pay **reparations** for the war. The main German politician to reject the restrictions of the treaty was Adolf Hitler, who was the leader of the newly formed National Socialist German Workers Party, commonly called the Nazi Party. His aim was to replace the humiliation inflicted on Germany in the aftermath of World War I and the signing of the treaty. He wanted to build a sense of pride and power within the country. Hitler gained political support and became a major political influence by the early 1930s.

reparation making amends or providing compensation

Hitler's rise to power

Adolf Hitler was a German soldier who fought in World War I but suffered from temporary blindness after being a victim of a mustard gas attack. Hearing from his hospital bed that his country had signed the Treaty of Versailles – and officially surrendered and accepted guilt – Hitler was furious. Rather than blame Germany's defeat on insufficient military power or poor military strategy, he adopted the newly emerging idea of ***Dolchstosslegende***. This literally meant the 'dagger stab legend' or the 'stab in the back' myth, which revolves around the idea that German civilians, or internal enemies (particularly the

Dolchstosslegende the ideology adopted by Hitler during his rise to power, which blamed internal enemies for Germany's loss in World War I

	Europe	Asia-Pacific
Date war started	1 September 1939: Nazi Germany invaded Poland	7–8 December 1941: Imperial Japan invaded Thailand, US Naval base at Pearl Harbor and British Malaya
Date war ended	8 May 1945: Germany surrendered	15 August 1945: Japan surrendered
Allied countries and leaders	The United States: Presidents Roosevelt and Truman Soviet Union: Premier Josef Stalin Britain: Prime Minister Winston Churchill Australia: Prime Minister John Curtin	
Axis countries and leaders	Germany: Führer Adolf Hitler Italy: Benito Mussolini	Japan: General Hideki Tojo
Main world events	• Nazi annexing of Europe • Holocaust • Battle of Britain • D-Day landings in France	• Bombing of Pearl Harbor • Fall of Singapore • Bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki
Main Australian events	Fought in campaigns against Germany and Italy in Europe, the Mediterranean and North Africa	• Kokoda campaign • Bombing of Darwin • POWs in South-East Asia

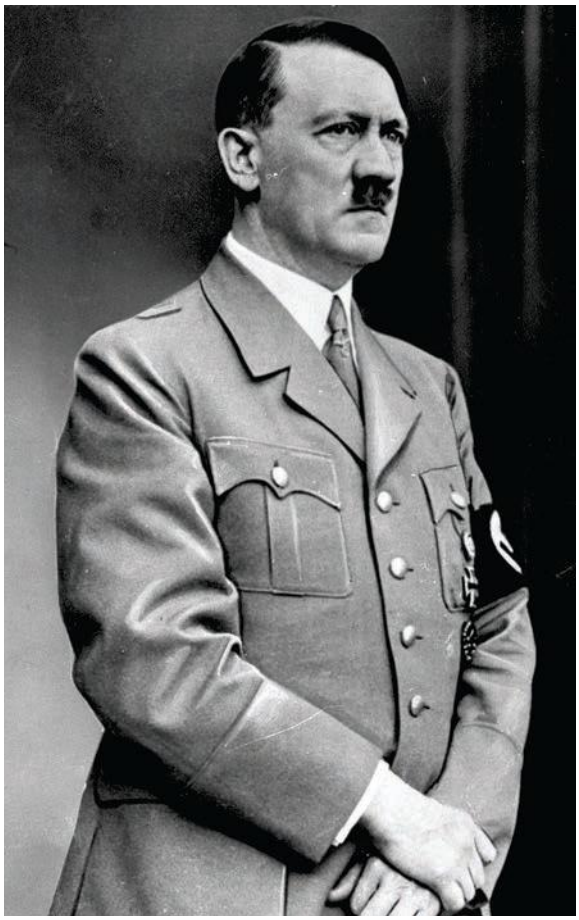
Source 2.8 Theatres of war and main events in World War II

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Activity **2.1**

In groups, research and create a poster about Adolf Hitler's early life. Include photos and add a caption to each to explain what it shows and when it was taken. Use the following headings (you could also use additional headings that you feel are helpful).

- Name: Adolf Hitler
- Parents:
- Siblings:
- Childhood:
- Interests:
- Education:
- Military career:
- Writings and beliefs:



Source 2.9 Nazi leader Adolf Hitler, 1937

Jews), somehow betrayed Germany in World War I by their lack of support for their leaders, causing the country to lose the war. Hitler's **propaganda** and **persecution** of all internal enemies during his leadership was born out of this **ideology** to explain Germany's defeat.

Hitler worked tirelessly to promote his ideology, often making up to 10 speeches per day. Hitler's live speeches followed a simple formula: routine, relevance and repetition.

- *Routine*: Hitler would often arrive late, begin speaking slowly, then finish passionately.
- *Relevance*: The content of his speeches addressed the key social and economic problems of losing the war, blamed the Jews and the **communists**, and provided hope for a glorious German future.
- *Repetition*: Hitler would repeat his slogans and ideas, often using short sentences, which made his message easy to understand for all sections of German society.

Hitler and his Nazi Party offered hope to the German people because he proposed solutions

propaganda the communication of a message to either change another's mind or to reinforce an existing idea that agrees with that of the propagator

persecution any form of undeserved punishment

ideology a set of ideas or beliefs that form a framework for a person's or country's point of view and actions

communism the political practice of Marxism in which the state or government controls most of the nation's wealth and private property is restricted

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HISTORICAL FACT

Hitler was one of the first politicians to use an aeroplane, flying all over Germany to give speeches. He worked himself up into such a frenzy when he gave speeches that his eyes would bulge, his face would turn white and he would often spit all over the people in the front row.



Source 2.10 Hitler speaking at a mass rally in Germany, 1934



Source 2.11 A 100 000 mark bank note. In the 1920s, hyperinflation led the German mark to rapidly lose its value.

to the problems faced by the workers in Germany. He opposed democracy in support of **totalitarianism**, where one person ruled on behalf of the national interest; promoted **nationalism** to restore national pride; believed in Aryanism, a theory that argued that the descendents of ancient Germanic peoples were a superior race; and supported **socialism**, where all classes worked together in the national interest.

totalitarianism a centralised system of government where total power is held by one person or group

nationalism a political movement characterised by excessive pride in one's country and the promotion of those interests to the detriment of others

socialism a political ideology based on shared contributions to and shared benefits from society and the economy

The Treaty of Versailles required Germany to pay 132 billion marks (more than A$400 billion today) to repair the damage done to the Allied countries' buildings and property (mainly in France and Belgium) during World War I. This heavy repayment schedule resulted in severe economic problems in Germany in the 1920s. **Hyperinflation** caused prices to rise dramatically, as the purchasing power of the German mark (the German currency) was destroyed – it had very little value. This directly created massive unemployment that peaked at six million people in 1933. When Hitler was selected as Chancellor of Germany that year, it was partly because he promised solutions to this economic crisis.

hyperinflation when inflation is extremely high and a country's currency loses value as a result

In 1923, Hitler had attempted, but failed, to overthrow Germany's Weimar Government, which had been established after World War I. Hitler was imprisoned as punishment. When he was released in 1925, his tactics changed from attempting to steal power through force and violence to trying to obtain a legal victory through an election. As

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a result of Hitler's policies, speeches, propaganda and the violent intimidation of the Brownshirts (the military wing of the Nazi Party), the Nazi Party improved its election results dramatically between 1928 and 1932. This encouraged German President Paul von Hindenburg to appoint Hitler as German Chancellor on 30 January 1933.

Within 18 months of Hitler's appointment, Hindenburg had died of natural causes at the age of 87. This allowed Hitler to pass a law combining the roles of President and Chancellor into a new position called the Führer ('the Leader'), who would be the nation's sole powerful leader – and Hitler placed himself in this role. Hitler was now a dictator with a government, police force and army that answered only to him. It was from this position of authority that Hitler was able to strengthen Germany's military forces, which led directly to the outbreak of World War II. He was a clever political manipulator, did not tolerate opposition and backed up his ambition with ruthless violence.



Source 2.12 Paul von Hindenburg, the second President of Germany

Research 2.1

As individuals, or in groups, choose one of the following topics to research. No topic should be researched by more than one person or group. After completing your research, create a one-page 'Fact file' to give to everyone in the class, and deliver a presentation to the class. Be careful – you may be tested on every topic, so listen to each presentation carefully!

- Treaty of Versailles (1919)
- Munich Beer Hall Putsch (1923)
- *Mein Kampf* (1925)
- Reichstag fire (1933)
- Boycott of Jewish shops (1933)
- SS and Gestapo (from 1925)
- Elections (1928, 1930, July 1932, Nov 1932)
- Emergency Decree and *Enabling Act* (both 1933)
- Groups persecuted under Nazism
- Dachau concentration camp (1933)
- Night of the Long Knives (1934)
- Hitler Youth Groups (from 1929)
- Nuremberg laws (1935)
- Nazi propaganda
- Berlin Olympic Games (1936)
- Opposition to Nazism – Edelweiss Pirates and White Rose Resistance
- *Kristallnacht* (Night of the Broken Glass) (1938)
- Policy of appeasement by British and French governments
- Invasions of Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland (1938 and 1939)

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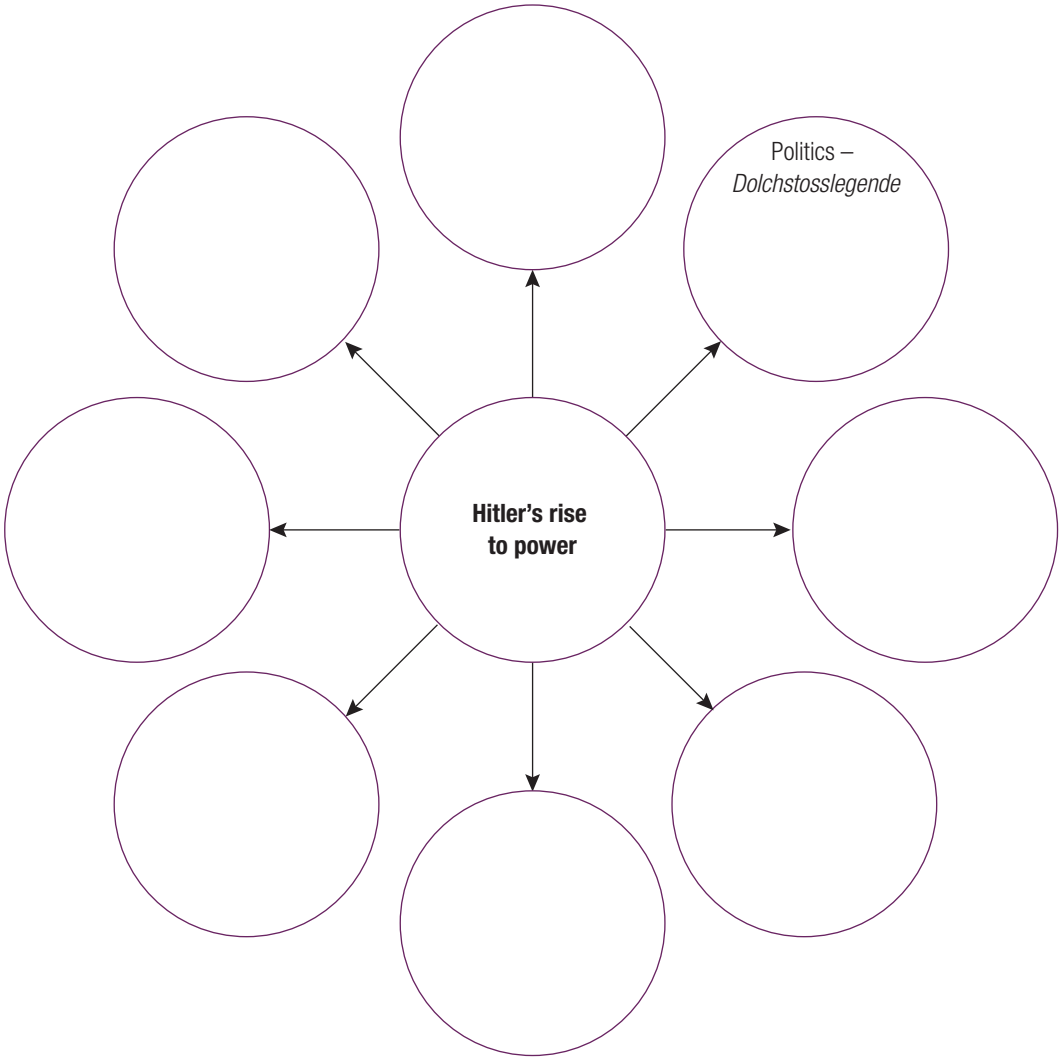
HISTORICAL FACT

During the depression in Germany in the 1920s, the German currency was so devalued that stories abounded of families burning money to keep warm, robbers stealing food but leaving bags of cash, and children using bundled notes as building blocks.



Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, explain how Hitler gained popularity and influence within Germany.



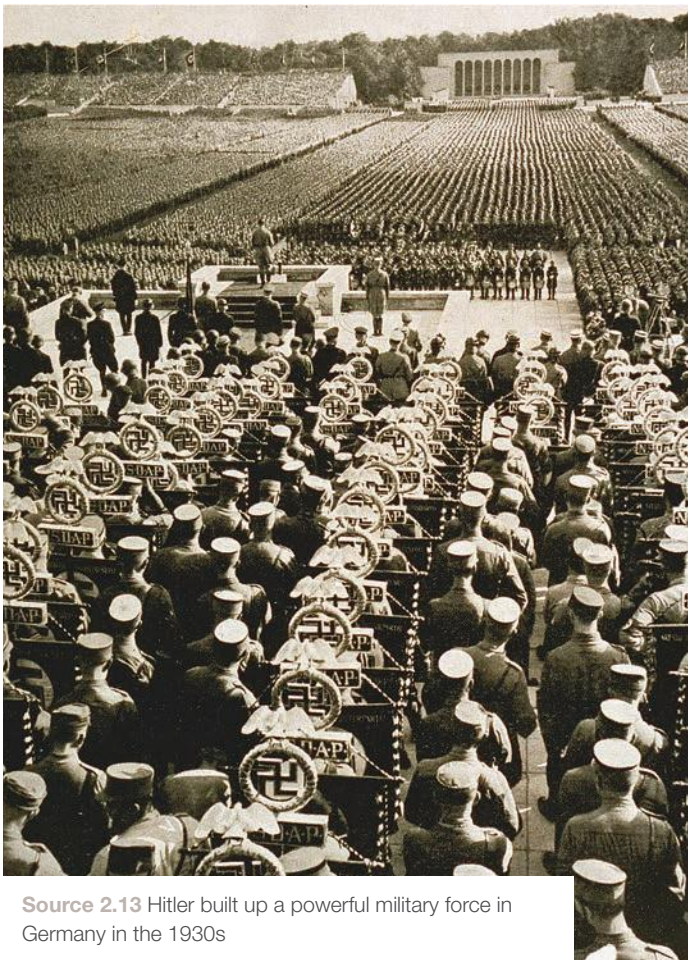
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The road to World War II

Hitler saw the expansion of Germany's national borders as a key part of the process of building a new, strong Germany. This policy was known as ***Lebensraum***, the German word for 'living space'. Hitler's ambitions led him to break the conditions imposed in the Treaty of Versailles and, within six years of his rise to power, Hitler had rebuilt a strong military force, ready to fight the aggressive war that officially began with Germany's invasion of Poland in 1939.

Lebensraum the policy adopted by Hitler to justify his drive to conquer more land: to create more living space for the German people

Source 2.14 shows the events that led to the outbreak of World War II.



Source 2.13 Hitler built up a powerful military force in Germany in the 1930s

1933	Hitler is sworn in as Chancellor of Germany
March 1936	Germany reoccupies the Rhineland, an area on the border with France that was made neutral after World War I
November 1936	Germany, Japan and Italy sign the Anti-Comintern Pact, forming an alliance against communist countries, particularly the Soviet Union
March 1938	Germany takes over Austria; Hitler and his army proudly march into Austria because the *Anschluss* – the political unity agreement between Germany and Austria – allows them to take the country without force
September 1938	Germany takes over the Sudetenland, which was a German-speaking part of Czechoslovakia
March 1939	Germany invades the rest of Czechoslovakia
April 1939	Britain and France promise to protect Poland if it is ever attacked
August 1939	Germany and the Soviet Union sign the German–Soviet Non-Aggression Pact, which states that if ever there is a disagreement between the countries, they will not use aggressive force against each other. The pact lasted fewer than two years, but it did allow Hitler to invade Poland without retaliation from the Soviet Union.
1 September 1939	Germany invades Poland; Britain and France declare war on Germany; within hours, Australia pledges its support for Britain World War II begins

Source 2.14 The road to World War II

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Activity 2.2

1 List the three pacts or agreements noted in Source 2.14.

2 a Define *Lebensraum*.
b Provide examples of how Hitler put this policy into action.

3 Which countries supported Poland?

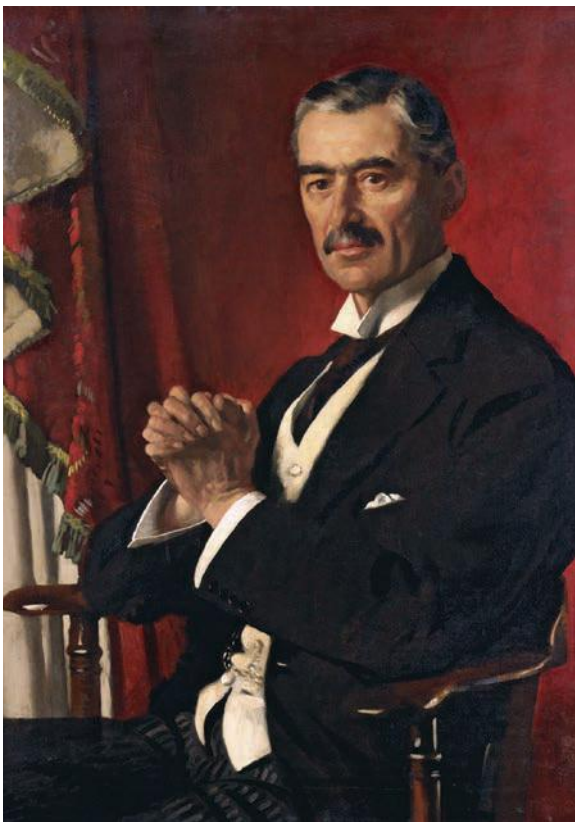
Why didn't Britain and France try to stop Hitler?

The British and French governments did not try to stop Hitler's advances in the 1930s because they had adopted a policy of **appeasement**. With the memory of World War I still vivid, appeasement was employed to avoid another full-scale war by focusing on negotiation. While criticised by many historians as a weak way of dealing with an aggressive enemy, there were many reasons for Britain and France to pursue this policy.

appeasement the policy adopted by Britain and France to negotiate rather than fight Hitler

First, the hope was to avoid war altogether. British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain returned from a meeting with Hitler in 1938 proudly declaring, 'I believe it is peace for our time'. Second, by negotiating before an actual outbreak of war, they had more time to re-arm and prepare in the case that there was a war. Third, the powerful United States had adopted a policy of **isolationism**, meaning that they refused to become involved in international problems. As Britain and France lacked both military power and moral authority, they were reluctant to enter a war with Germany without the support of the United States. When Hitler invaded Poland in 1939, however, Britain and France were forced to act.

isolationism the policy adopted by the United States in the 1930s when they refused to become involved in international problems



Source 2.15 British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain, who adopted the failed policy of appeasement

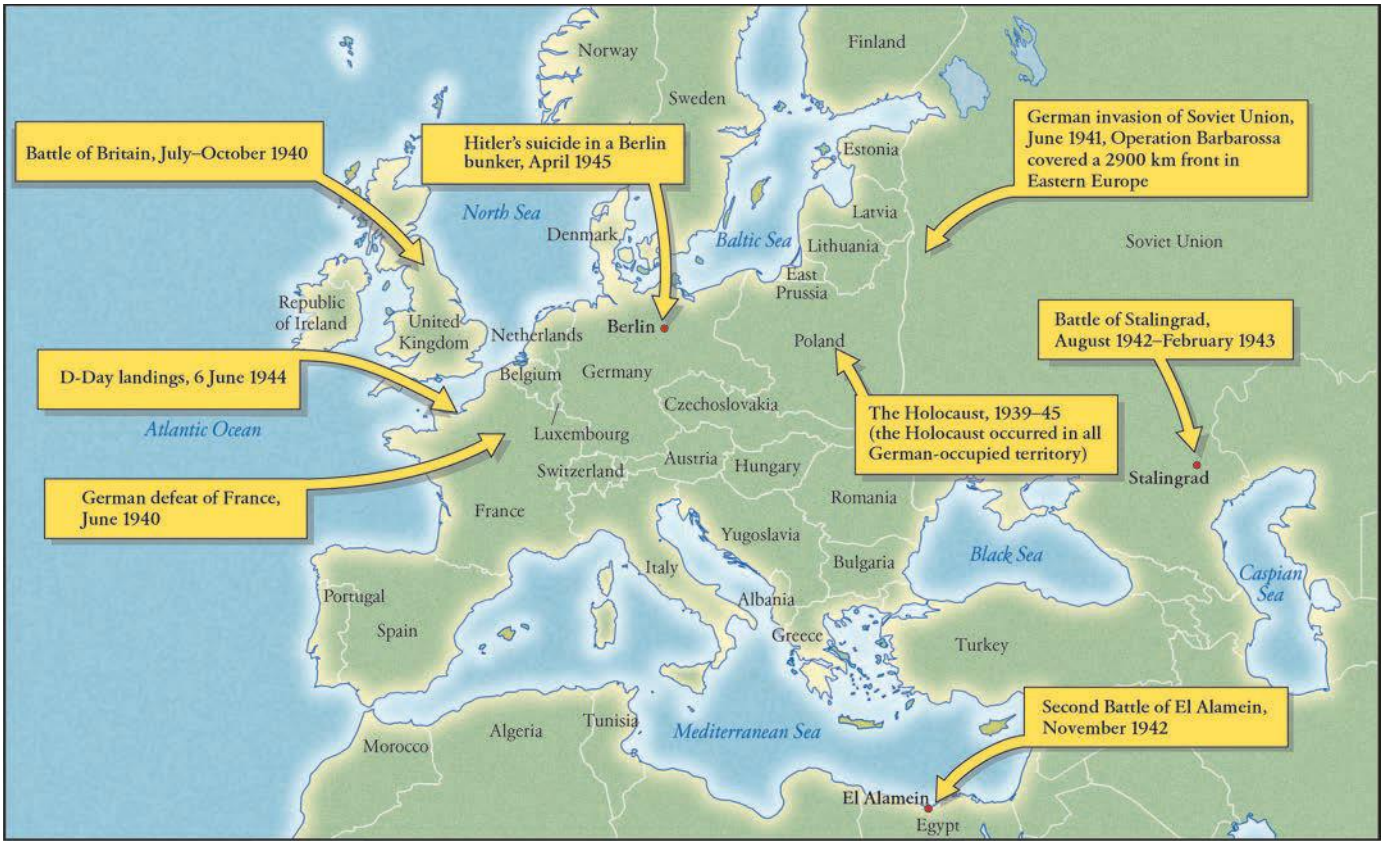
Key events of World War II in Europe

Defeat of France, June 1940

Hitler was central to the military decisions and strategies of Nazi Germany. He and his generals devised a new kind of warfare called ***Blitzkrieg***, or 'lightning war'; a strategy in which they simultaneously dropped bombs from the air and used tanks and other armed combat on the ground, rapidly overwhelming the enemy in short bursts. In May 1940, the Germans attacked Western Europe, quickly defeating the

Blitzkrieg a term created by Hitler to describe a new type of rapid mobile warfare: attacking effectively and rapidly from the air and the ground simultaneously to swiftly break through enemy lines

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Source 2.16 Key events in Europe during World War II

Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg. More than 300 000 trapped French and British soldiers were desperately ferried by locals to awaiting naval ships in an evacuation known as the Miracle of Dunkirk. By 14 June 1942, the German Army was in control of Northern France, including the capital, Paris.

Battle of Britain, July–October 1940

Improvement in aircraft design in preceding decades meant that it was possible to fly planes for long distances to bomb enemy cities – the result of this was that civilians, not just soldiers on the front line, became targets. In the autumn of 1940, the Germans bombed London on 75 days out of 76. Their aims were, first, to defeat the Royal Air Force before sending German troops onto British soil, and, second, to destroy the morale of the British people.

But the bombing only strengthened the will of the British to have ultimate victory; they fought back and protected themselves as best they could. Searchlights on the ground targeted German aircraft for British anti-aircraft guns and, as fires raged in the streets and buildings were destroyed, many people sheltered in the underground railway stations. Hitler called off the air attacks in September 1940 after failing to defeat the British and losing 1216 German fighter planes and bombers.

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Source 2.17 St Paul's Cathedral remains standing in the devastation of the bombing of London in 1940

Times gone by ...

Nancy Wake, known as 'The White Mouse', was one of the most decorated Allied servicewomen due to her key role in the French Resistance and as a British agent in France. She had a range of impressive skills and was exceptionally charismatic. She excelled in field operations such as sabotage raids, armed and unarmed combat, explosives, night parachuting, Morse code and radio operation, and had strong survival skills.

Born in New Zealand in 1912, Nancy was the youngest of six children. Her family moved to Australia in 1914 and Nancy lived with them in North Sydney before running away from home at the age of 16. She worked as a nurse in Australia then travelled to London, where she became a journalist. In Europe she observed Hitler's violent rise to power. She later married a wealthy French industrialist.

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She began working for the French underground resistance when France fell to Germany in 1940. The German secret police, called the **Gestapo**, nicknamed her 'The White Mouse' for her ability to evade being captured despite being their number one target, with a 5 million franc (French currency) reward for her head. Without her knowledge, her husband was captured and executed by the Gestapo in 1943 in an attempt to locate Nancy.

Gestapo the German secret police



Source 2.18 Australian French Resistance activist Nancy Wake in 1945 (AWM/P00885.001)

Nancy's main role in the French Resistance was as a member of the Allied Escape Route Organisation. Here, she helped hundreds of people – such as escaped prisoners of war, stranded Allied troops and political refugees – to escape to the safety of Spain. In 1944, the British Government parachuted Nancy back into France, where her job was to distribute weapons among resistance fighters hiding in the mountains.

One aim of the French Resistance was to weaken the German Army so that it would be more vulnerable to major Allied attacks, which is indeed what occurred; the Germans were defeated within a year of the massive Allied attack on D-Day, 1944.

Nancy published her autobiography in 1985, called *The Autobiography of the Woman the Gestapo called the White Mouse*. She died in 2011 at the age of 98 and her final request was fulfilled – that her ashes be scattered over the areas in which she fought during World War II.

1 Explain some of the dangers that Nancy Wake would have faced as a member of the French Resistance.

2 Nancy Wake performed two key roles in the French Resistance: first, helping people to escape the Nazis; and second, distributing British arms to resistance fighters. Which of these tasks, if either, do you see as more important? Give reasons why.

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HISTORICAL FACT

Nancy Wake once said: 'I hate wars and violence. But if they come, I don't see why we women should just wave our men a proud goodbye and then knit them balaclavas'.



Times gone by ...

Historian Richard Lamb argued that British Prime Minister Winston Churchill's powerful speeches and leadership were responsible for Britain's success in the Battle of Britain, when he stated that 'without (Prime Minister) Churchill, Britain would have fallen in 1940 … Alone Winston Churchill saved Western civilisation from destruction at the hands of the Nazis'. Indeed, Churchill's speeches were rousing. Consider Source 2.19, an excerpt of a famous speech Churchill delivered to the British Parliament in June 1940.

> We shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills. We shall never surrender.

Source 2.19 Excerpt from a famous speech by Winston Churchill

1 Summarise the main message that Churchill was trying to convey.
2 Describe the effect that Churchill's famous speech has on you.

German invasion of the Soviet Union, June 1941

After his success in Western Europe, Hitler rapidly attacked the Soviet Union with great success. Within months, the Germans were threatening the capital, Moscow. The retreating Soviets adopted a scorched-earth policy, which meant destroying anything that that they could not carry. This left the advancing German troops short of supplies, and freezing in the extremes of the Soviet winter. Some historians have described Hitler's invasion of the Soviet Union as a 'fatal error'.

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The Battle of Stalingrad, August 1942–February 1943

The battle of the city of Stalingrad, fought between Nazis and Soviet forces, is considered to have been one of the fiercest of the entire war. It was very dramatic – a whole army was trapped as the battle was fought over every house and every street in the city. The four-month battle over the industrially important city ended when, after suffering heavy casualties, German Commander General von Paulus finally surrendered, against Hitler's orders. It was this event that turned the war in Europe.

Second Battle of El Alamein, November 1942

German General Rommel had advanced deep into Egypt by 1942, threatening British control of the important Suez Canal. The decisive battle was at El Alamein in Northern Egypt in November 1942, when Rommel was successfully attacked by British General Montgomery's 8th Army.

D-Day landings, 6 June 1944

The entry of the United States into the war was vital in the defeat of Hitler, as it brought fresh troops and huge numbers of new ships, tanks and planes. US Supreme Commander General Eisenhower coordinated a massive Allied attack on Nazi strongholds on the northern coast of France. One hundred thousand men and 4000 landing craft attacked five beaches and gained an important foothold by the end of the day. The Allies then poured enormous resources into retaking France, Belgium and Luxembourg.

Berlin bunker, April 1945

With the Allies successfully attacking from the west, and the Soviet Union gaining from the east, the German war effort collapsed. Hitler had retreated to his underground bunker in Berlin, where he committed suicide on 30 April 1945, in an admission that the war had been lost. Germany officially surrendered to the Allies a week later.

Activity **2.3**

Rewrite the dates and events in the correct order.

August 1942–February 1943	D-Day landings
November 1942	Hitler's suicide in Berlin bunker
June 1944	Hitler invades Soviet Union
April 1945	Battle of Stalingrad
July–October 1940	Second Battle of El Alamein
June 1941	Battle of Britain
June 1940	Defeat of France

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Significant event: the Holocaust

Holocaust a word derived from the Greek, meaning 'completely burnt'; refers to the extermination of Jews in Europe during World War II

genocide full or attempted extermination of a certain ethnic, cultural or religious group

anti-Semitism prejudice, hatred and violence directed at the Jewish community

Aryan race the race of Germanic peoples, as propagated by the Nazi party; the word 'Aryan' comes from ancient Indo-European languages where it meant nothing more than 'people of Iran'

The **Holocaust** refers to the systematic murder of six million European Jews over the period 1933 to 1945; it is the most devastating act of **genocide** the world has ever witnessed.

Hitler was not the first leader to persecute Jews, nor did he invent **anti-Semitism**. Racist ideas and attitudes had grown in popularity in Germany from the late 1800s. Nazi ideology at the time of World War II asserted the racial purity and superiority of the **Aryan race**. Therefore, anyone who was not classed as Aryan by the Nazi party was considered to be inferior. While Jews were particularly and most harshly targeted for persecution under this guise, they were not the only ones. Members of other groups that did not fit the ideal stereotype were also persecuted, such as gypsies, homosexuals, Jehovah's Witnesses, alcoholics, the mentally ill and those with hereditary diseases.

In the early 1930s there were approximately 500 000 Jews in Germany, which was less than one per cent of the population at the time. Between 1933 and 1939, the Nazi Government implemented more than 400 anti-Jewish laws aimed at depriving Jews of their right to practice their religion, as well as stripping them of their civil and economic rights.

The operation of genocide

The word Holocaust comes from the Greek word *holókaustos*, meaning 'wholly/completely burnt'. As early as 1940, Jews used the theological Hebrew word *Shoah*, or *Ha Shoah* – meaning 'catastrophe', 'calamity' or 'disaster' – to refer to the actions of the Nazi Government against the European Jewish community. Of Europe's nine million Jews, six million were annihilated. Because of the Holocaust, the term 'genocide' was introduced in 1944 to describe the deliberate extermination of a racial or ethnic group. Extermination on such a massive scale could only occur through extensive organisation and compliance.

The key component of the process of extermination was the desire to do so. The ideology of anti-Semitism had been promoted by Hitler and the Nazi Party since the 1920s. The concept of the racial inferiority of Jews had been reinforced through effective propaganda in speeches, posters, film, radio and education.

From 1939, Jews were required to wear the yellow Star of David on an armband or badge when in public. This enabled them to be identified and, also, when the time came, to be corralled and removed from major towns and villages, and placed into isolated **ghettos**. Ghettos were small areas within a larger town that had been fenced off so that access could be totally controlled. Poor hygiene, disease and starvation were common issues as overcrowding made basic standards of living extremely difficult. Lucille Eichengreen lived in the Łódź Ghetto in Poland, and wrote prophetically that: 'We did not want to leave … because you figured that the misery you knew would be better than the misery you did not know'.

ghetto an inner-city area, occupied mainly by one minority group

The largest ghetto was in the Polish capital of Warsaw; it initially housed half a million people in a very small space that took up less than five per cent of the city. In April 1943, the Jews in the Warsaw Ghetto successfully revolted against their Nazi guards for nearly a month before being hopelessly outgunned. More than 56 000 Jews were killed during and after the revolt.

Germany's early successful military attacks meant that the Nazis controlled most of Western Europe. In June 1941, a decision was made to invade the powerful Soviet Union on the eastern front in a plan called Operation Barbarossa. The first important consequence was that Germany gained control of significant areas of new land, and the second was that this land was home to

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Activity **2.4**

Read the following restrictions and laws made by the German Government that attacked Jewish culture and rights, then answer the questions below.

- April 1933: A boycott of Jewish shops ensured that most closed down due to lack of income.
- 9 April 1933: Non-Aryan civil servants were forced to resign from their jobs.
- 21 April 1933: Ritual slaughter of animals was banned, stopping Jews from eating **kosher** foods.
- September 1935: Nuremberg Laws were passed, restricting Jewish involvement in daily life, specifically the ability to have sexual relationships with non-Jewish German citizens.
- July 1938: 'Jewish' street names were replaced with Aryan names.
- 9 November 1938: *Kristallnacht*, or Night of the Broken Glass – direct violence was committed against Jews, resulting in 74 deaths, 20 000 arrests, destruction of 875 shops and burning of 191 synagogues.
- 15 November 1938: Jewish children were removed from German schools.
- 23 November 1938: Jewish businesses were forced to close down.
- December 1938: Jews were banned from walking in the streets.
- September 1939: Jews were forced to hand over drivers' licences and radios to police.
- November 1939: Jews were ordered to wear the yellow 'Star of David' badge or armband, so they would be easily identifiable.
- July 1940: Jews were prohibited from owning a telephone.
- April 1942: Jews were banned from using public transport.
- July 1942: Blind or deaf Jews were not allowed to wear armbands/badges identifying them as such when crossing roads.

1 Choose three of these laws or events, and explain the detrimental effect that they would have had on the Jewish community.

2 Share one of your explanations with the rest of your class. Have any of your classmates' explanations altered your understanding of the events?

3 Imagine being banned from your current school, and being banned from walking in the street. What effect would that have on your current life? What effect would that have on your future?

kosher refers to food prepared in accordance with Jewish religious dietary laws, which include specific ways in which animals must be slaughtered, the removal of all traces of blood prior to cooking and a ban on combining meat and dairy products

approximately three million Jews. The opportunity for Hitler to embark on a process of extermination had now been created.

German attacks on the Soviet Union intensified measures against the captured Jewish populations. The German Army was followed by mobile killing squads of about 3000 men in total, called ***Einsatzgruppen***, or 'task force', whose orders were to kill all Jews they encountered, regardless of gender or age. More than one million Jews were killed by these squads. Tactics for the killings were primitive in the name of speed and efficiency,

Einsatzgruppen the mobile killing squads who travelled behind the German Army with orders to carry out genocide

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Source 2.20 A mass grave in Poland

such as forcing the Jews to dig their own graves, lie naked on top of the dead, and await their own execution. Vasyl Valdeman, a Jewish survivor from the town of Ostrog in the Soviet Union, wrote that 'kids were crying, the sick were crying, the elderly were praying to God'.

Concentration and death camps

Hitler established the first concentration camp at Dachau, near the city of Munich, in 1933. Over the next 10 years, he established 10 000 more, of varying sizes. More than 5000 of these camps were in Poland, where most of the killings took place, but, surprisingly, 645 were located in Berlin itself. The camps were places where Jewish people and other political prisoners would be sent and held, in appalling conditions. Initially they were used as hard-labour camps, where many died from the conditions and systematic abuse while being forced to build the infrastructure of the Nazi expansion.

Upon entering a camp, usually by sealed train, all prisoners had their heads shaved and were given the standard blue-and-white striped uniform. They then had a number tattooed on their arm – this, rather than their name, would be used to identify them. This was the first step in the process of dehumanisation and loss of identity. Men and women were separated.

Following the mass murders perpetrated by the *Einsatzgruppen* in Eastern Europe, in January 1942, 15 Nazi leaders, led by the **SS** officers Reinhard Heydrich and Adolf Eichmann, met in a mansion in Wannsee, Berlin, to formalise a plan to annihilate the European Jewish population. This was called the Wannsee Conference. The plan involved the establishment of death camps, and this final systematic phase of the Holocaust was known as the Final Solution. From the Wannsee Conference onwards, concentration camps also became holding camps for those to be sent on to death camps.

SS the *Shutzstaffel*, a powerful paramilitary group that carried out Hitler's most violent orders during his reign

Six large death camps were specially designed and built for the major purpose of executing those unwanted by the Nazi **regime** – at Chelmno, Madjanek,

regime an oppressive and undemocratic government

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Source 2.21 SS guards stand in the grounds of the concentration camp at Dachau, established in 1933. The remains of the camp now act as a memorial to the horror of the Holocaust.

Belzec, Treblinka, Sobibor and **Auschwitz-Birkenau**, the largest and most notorious. The final step for those deemed unfit for labour, such as the sick, elderly or mothers with small children, was extermination in the gas chambers at these death camps. Rudolph Hess, the Commandant at Auschwitz-Birkenau, wrote: 'I must admit that this gassing had a calming effect on me, I was always horrified of executions by firing squads. Now, I was relieved that we could be spared all these blood baths'.

Auschwitz-Birkenau the largest Nazi death camp, located in Poland

Every camp followed the same deadly routine: prisoners were told that they were going to have a shower, and were forced to strip naked and stack all of their possessions neatly, before being led into a large chamber. The walls and ceilings of some of these chambers contained pipes that ended in dummy 'shower heads'.

When the people were inside, guards on the roof released Zyklon B tablets into the chamber through openings in the ceiling, turning the 'shower room' into a gas chamber, where those inside suffocated. Jozef Pacynski, a Polish political prisoner in Auschwitz, described the horror: 'In spite of the fact that these walls were very thick,

Activity **2.5**

The Jewish Holocaust Centre in Melbourne recorded the testimonies from 40 women and men who survived the Holocaust and who now live in Australia. Listen to some of the moving stories at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

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you could hear a great scream from within'. Those closest to the floor died first, while others clambered over the dying bodies in a desperate attempt to gulp the remaining fresh air closer to the ceiling. After a maximum of 30 minutes, other prisoners were designated the job of entering the chamber, removing all of the dead bodies and searching them for valuables such as gold fillings. The bodies were then sent to the large ovens, or crematoria, to be burnt.

Times gone by ...

The Nazis kept meticulous records during the Holocaust. Source 2.22 is a table of profits gained per prisoner in a concentration camp, calculated by the SS.

Item	Cost in marks
Average income from labour by prisoner per day	6.00
Deduction for food nourishment per day	0.60
Minus cost of clothing	0.10
Thus, average life expectancy (9 months or 270 days) at 5.30 marks per day	1431.00
Profits from corpse (including hair, gold teeth, clothing, articles of value and money)	202.00
Minus cost of burning corpse in crematorium	2.00
Total profit after 9 months for every prisoner (not including profit from sale of bones and ashes)	1631.00

Source 2.22 Profits, per prisoner, in a Nazi concentration camp

1 What is your reaction to this commercial approach to mass murder?

2 Explain what this table suggests about the SS's perception of its victims.

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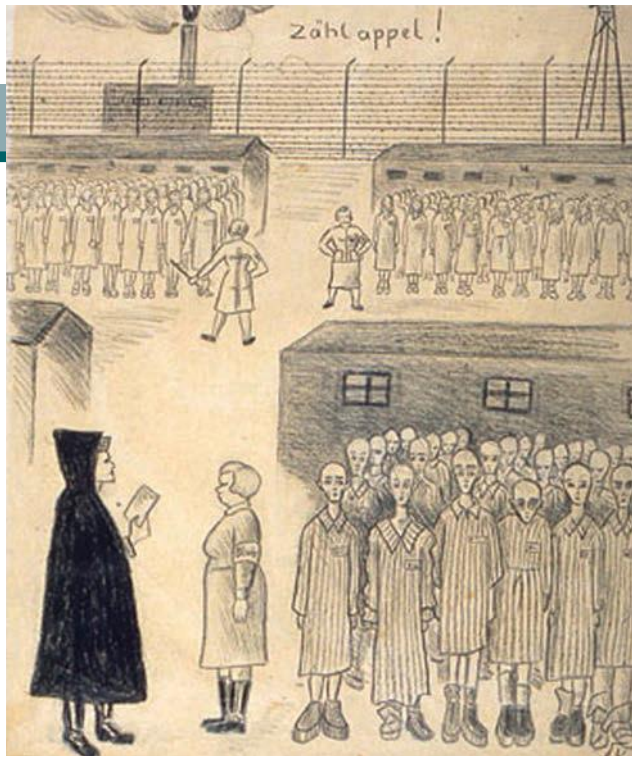


Source 2.23 Auschwitz-Birkenau, the largest and most notorious Nazi death camp

Activity **2.6**

The image in Source 2.24 was drawn by a prisoner at Auschwitz-Birkenau named Ella Liebermann. It shows us many important aspects of the harsh life in a concentration camp. The image shows a morning roll call in the women's section of the camp.

1. Compare the clothing of the prisoners to that of the guards.
2. Describe the different actions of the guards.
3. Describe the physical environment.
4. List three words that might describe how it must have felt to have been a prisoner at Auschwitz-Birkenau.



Source 2.24 Roll call at Auschwitz-Birkenau, drawn by prisoner Ella Liebermann

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Research 2.2

An historical event such as the Holocaust is difficult and problematic to fully understand. Here are some ways in which to investigate the topic further. Your teacher will explain how to present your research.

Nazi leadership study: What were the Nazi leaders like and what role did each play?

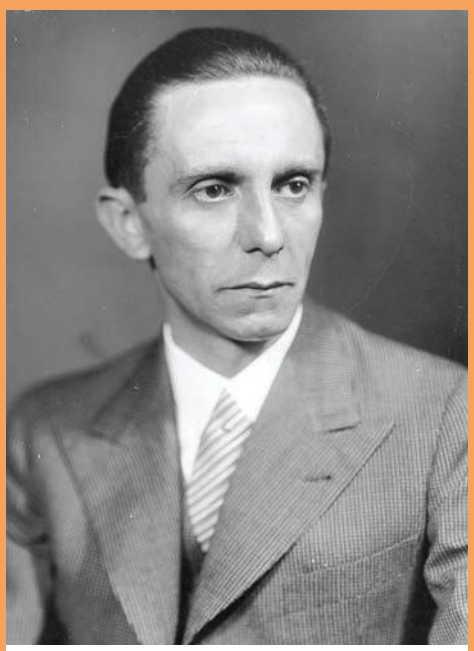
Investigate the lives and actions of the following figures linked with the Nazi party.

- Joseph Goebbels – propaganda minister
- Hermann Goering – Hitler's second-in-command
- Rudolph Hess – politician, and deputy to Hitler between 1933 and 1941
- Reinhard Heydrich – ran the SS and Gestapo
- Albert Speer – architect who designed most of Hitler's largest buildings
- Leni Riefenstahl – film director and actress; her films were advertisements for Nazism, her most famous being *Triumph of the Will*

Literature study: How have authors tried to capture the issues of the Holocaust?

Read one or more of the following books, and discuss the issues they explore in your presentation.

- John Boyne, *The Boy in the Striped Pyjamas*
- Anne Frank, *The Diary of a Young Girl* – famous diary recording the experiences of a girl hiding in Nazi-occupied Netherlands in 1942–44
- Primo Levi, *If This is a Man* – a survivor from the camps tells his story
- Elie Wiesel, *Night* – a survivor from the camps tells her story
- Simon Wiesenthal, *The Sunflower* – explores whether Jews can forgive Nazi atrocities



Source 2.25 Joseph Goebbels, the Nazi Minister of Propaganda



Source 2.26 Reinhard Heydrich, a key SS officer and an architect of the Holocaust

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Research **2.2** continued

Memorial study: How is the Holocaust remembered today?

Research one of these museums or memorials online, and discuss what aspect of the Holocaust they are focused on, and their approach to this overwhelming tragedy.

- Yad Vashem – memorial in Jerusalem, Israel
- Memorial to the Murdered Jews of Europe – memorial in Berlin, Germany
- Holocaust Museum – memorial in Washington DC, United States
- Jewish Holocaust Centre – memorial in Melbourne, Australia



Source 2.27 The Memorial to the Murdered Jews of Europe, Berlin

Creative response: How do you respond to the Holocaust?

- Write – write a poem, diary entries, speech or children's story book
- Draw – draw a sketch, cartoon series, map, propaganda poster, collage or painting
- Action – create a model, deliver a speech, perform a role-play or present a news report
- Think – did Hitler intentionally plan the Holocaust from the beginning or did it emerge out of the opportunity provided by being at war? Is it right for the Jews to forgive the Germans? Why did so many Christian churches fail to fight against Hitler? How have Germany and Poland dealt with the historical memory of the Holocaust?

Causes and course of World War II: the Asia-Pacific

The other important theatre of war in World War II was in the Asia-Pacific region. Japan in the 1930s was as aggressive as the Nazis were in Europe. Similar to the Nazi policy of *lebensraum*, or creating more living space, Japan had a policy to drive out Western powers from East and South-East Asia and create a 'New Order'. It also had great desire to take control of Asia's raw materials, such as the oil fields in Indonesia and the rubber plantations in Malaya, to use for its own industries.

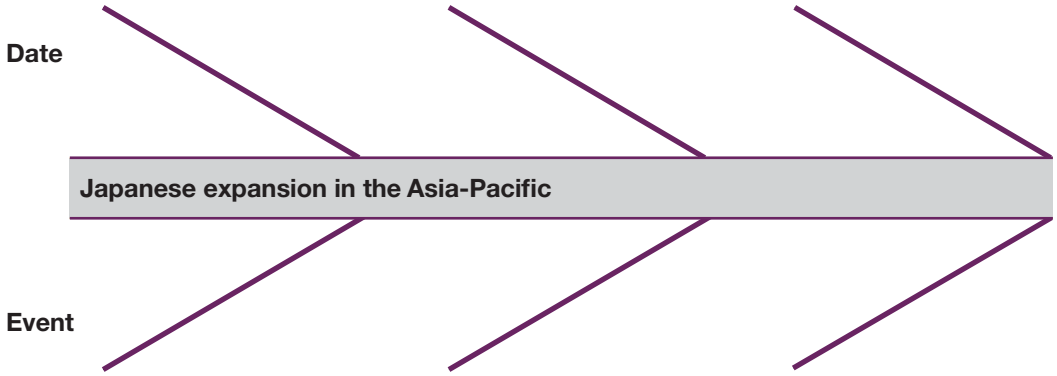
Japan was determined to build and lead an Asian empire. In 1931 it invaded Manchuria and controlled a large portion of Northern China by 1933. In 1937 Japan's attempts to control all of China resulted in the start of the Sino–Japanese War, during which Japan gained much of the coastal area, including important cities such as Shanghai and Nanjing.

The United States was particularly concerned about Japan's increased influence in Asia, as it threatened American trade in the region. But the United States was reluctant to become involved in another costly war and deliberately stayed out of the European and Asian conflicts. In 1940 and 1941, the United States, Britain and France placed economic sanctions on Japan, hoping that Japan would stop its aggressive expansion.

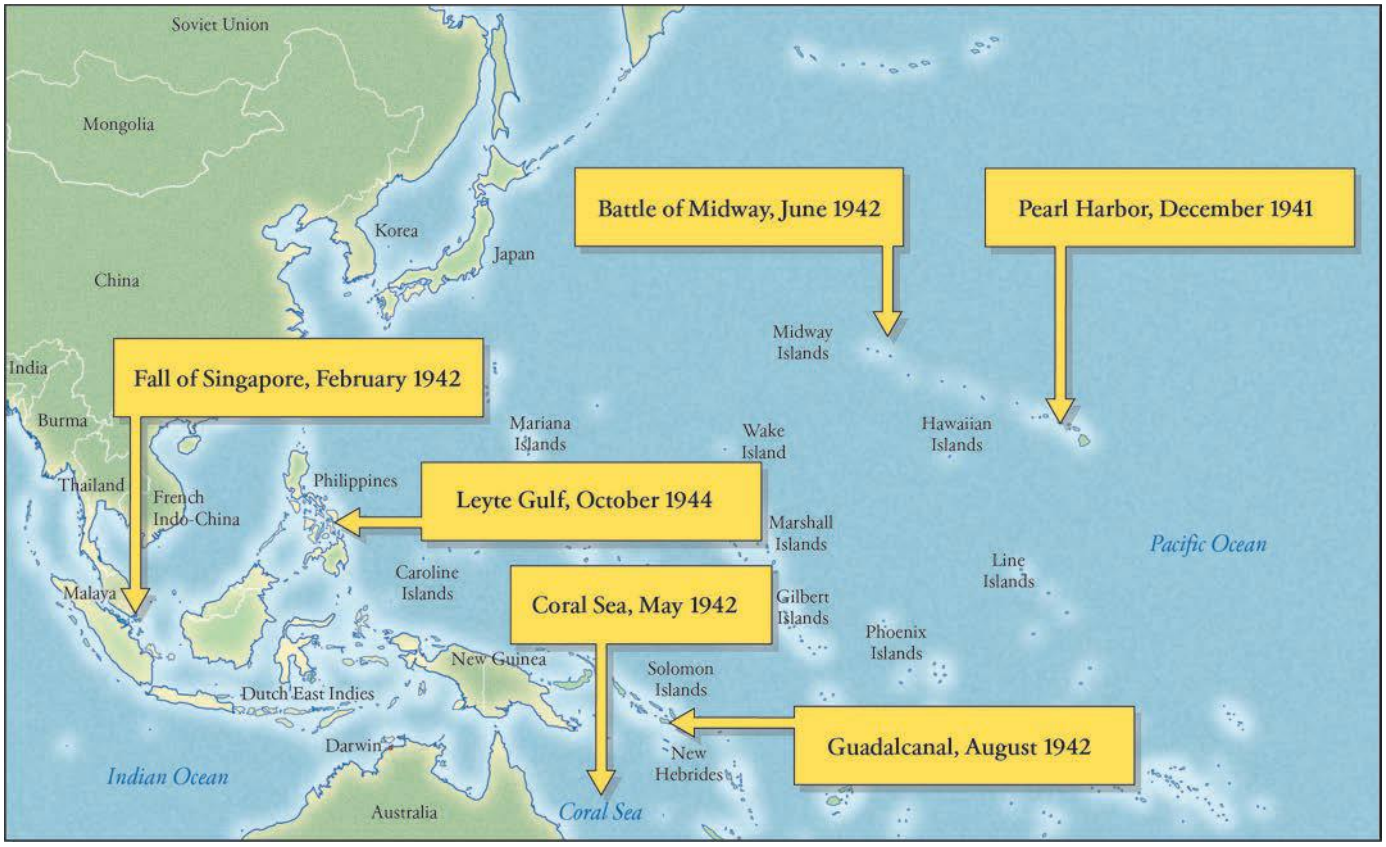
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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, make a chronological summary of Japan's expansion in the Asia-Pacific region.



Key events of World War II in the Asia-Pacific



Source 2.28 Key regions and battles in the Asia-Pacific during World War II

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Pearl Harbor, 7 December 1941

Japanese Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto believed that Japan must wage a speedy war of conquest and then negotiate peace. He claimed: 'For six months I shall run wild'. Japan's first aim was to cripple the US naval presence by bombing its naval base at **Pearl Harbor** in Hawaii. Six aircraft carriers and 24 warships secretly came within 400 kilometres of the base and launched a devastating surprise attack. At this stage, Japanese planes (such as the Mitsubishi Zero) were technically superior to those flown by the Americans. Seven US battleships and 10 other vessels were destroyed or damaged, 188 aircraft were destroyed and 2400 servicemen were killed. In response, the previously unwilling United States declared war on Japan. With the single act

Pearl Harbor the US naval base in Hawaii that suffered a surprise attack from Japanese bombers on 7 December 1941



Source 2.29 An American battleship destroyed by the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941

HISTORICAL FACT

Mitsuo Fuchida was the Imperial Japanese Navy pilot who led the air attack on Pearl Harbor. He is famous for his jubilant radio message, 'Tora! Tora! Tora!', which meant, 'Tiger! Tiger! Tiger!'. It was the code to signal to his superiors that the Americans had been caught by surprise and that the mission had been successful. He later converted to Christianity and regretted his key role in the attacks.

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Source 2.30 Japanese troops victorious at Singapore [AWM/127905]

of aggression at Pearl Harbor, Japan not only drew the United States into the war but, in hindsight, also sealed its own fate.

Fall of Singapore, February 1942

The British naval base at Singapore was considered the symbolic heart of British power in South-East Asia and the Asia-Pacific, and was a target for Japanese troops in 1941. The troops advanced across land from the Malay Peninsula, removing British defences. The Allied troops were exhausted and ill-prepared for the sudden Japanese attacks, which included tank battles at night. With defences at the naval base weakened, Japanese planes were able to undertake safe bombing raids to secure the victory. Unable to make a counterattack, the Allies were forced to surrender and the Japanese took control of Singapore. Controversially, Major General Gordon Bennett, commander of Australia's 8th Division, ordered all the Australian troops to hold their positions and not withdraw, but he escaped himself on the night of the surrender.

More than 130 000 Allied troops, including 15 000 Australians, became **prisoners of war (POWs)** for the next three-and-a-half years. At the time, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill described it as the 'worst disaster and largest capitulation in British history'. The official British War Historian Major General S. Woodburn argued that the loss was borne out of a 'terrifying underestimation of Japan's military might'.

prisoners of war (POWs) servicemen and women taken captive by the enemy during war

After the fall of Singapore, the Australian Government insisted on recalling its soldiers from the Mediterranean to defend Australia.

Coral Sea, May 1942

The Japanese gambled that the United States would be too weak to stop their advances through Asia after the attack on Pearl Harbor. However, Japanese conquest of Asia was abruptly halted when the United States sank two Japanese aircraft carriers in the Coral Sea in 1942.

Battle of Midway, June 1942

Admiral Yamamoto planned a decisive battle to regain superiority of the sea. He commanded all his forces to invade the Midway Islands. All four Japanese aircraft carriers were eventually sunk, along with approximately 280 planes, compared with the Allies' 135 planes. The Battle of Midway was considered to be the major turning point in the war in the Asia-Pacific because Japan's rapid expansion through the region was halted. As the Japanese were losing vital ships, the United States was building them at a rapid rate.

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HISTORICAL FACT

The Coral Sea was the first sea battle in history where the opposing fleets never actually saw each other. Instead, air attacks were made on the enemy from aircraft carriers.



Guadalcanal, August 1942

US strategy relied on the successful conquest of islands in the Asia-Pacific, from which they could then launch their next attack. This was called 'island hopping'. Their first big success was at Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands, when they finally defeated the Japanese after six months of bitter fighting in 1942. The Japanese believed that surrender was dishonourable, which meant that they kept fighting until their armies were essentially dissipated. The battle at Guadalcanal resulted in 24 000 Japanese deaths.

Leyte Gulf, October 1944

The battle at Leyte Gulf, fought off the coast of Leyte in the Philippines, was the largest sea battle of World War II. Sixty-five Japanese warships battled 166 Allied (including two Australian) warships. Both sides experienced severe losses, but the Japanese lost three battleships (including the super-battleship *Musashi*), four aircraft carriers, 10 cruisers and 11 destroyers, and suffered 60 000 deaths.

Activity **2.7**

Create a timeline of each of these major battles in the Asia-Pacific War. For each event on the timeline, write a one-sentence summary and find one powerful photo, or draw a picture of how you imagine the battle might have been like.

- Pearl Harbor, December 1941
- Fall of Singapore, February 1942
- Coral Sea, May 1942
- Midway, June 1942
- Guadalcanal, August 1942
- Leyte Gulf, October 1944

Significant event: the bombing of Japan

US forces gradually reclaimed Asia-Pacific Islands during 1943 and 1944. This gave US aeroplanes control of the air. The Philippines were recaptured in February 1945 at the cost of 170 000 Japanese lives, and the firebombing of Tokyo in Japan killed 80 000. In June 1945 the United States captured Okinawa, a southern Japanese island, in a desperate battle against **kamikaze** pilots.

Only two **atomic bombs** have ever been used in war – those dropped by the United States on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima (6 August 1945) and Nagasaki (9 August 1945). The horror of these bombs was that the destructive power of nuclear weapons had now been revealed. The message was clear: it was now possible for humanity to destroy itself.

kamikaze Japanese suicide pilots who crashed their planes, full of explosives, into US ships

atomic bomb a bomb that relies on nuclear fission for its destructive power; the United States dropped two atomic/nuclear bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, ending World War II in the Asia-Pacific

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HISTORICAL FACT

The United States developed the strategy of 'skip bombing', where the planes flew low over water and released bombs with delayed-action fuses that skimmed and bounced over the water before hitting their target.



Source 2.31 The atomic bomb 'mushroom cloud' over the city of Nagasaki, 9 August 1945

Bombs previously used in warfare destroyed the direct target, whereas the wider impact of atomic bombs was far more deadly. Civilians died from flash and flame burns, falling debris, radiation sickness and other subsequent illness. The effects on each city was total devastation of people, animals and buildings – everything. For example, American estimates recorded that 12 square kilometres of Hiroshima were destroyed, 30 per cent of the city's population was killed immediately (a figure that does not include subsequent deaths from ongoing effects of the bomb) and that 76 per cent of buildings were either destroyed or damaged. An intercepted Japanese radio announcement reported on air that 'practically all living things, human and animal, were literally seared to death'.

The bombs

The atomic bombs used on the two Japanese cities were of different construction. What was consistent was the type of bomber used, a B-29. These were the largest of all the World War II bombers and were ideal for long-range missions because they could carry 900 kilograms of bombs for more than 8000 kilometres.

The atomic bomb dropped on Nagasaki was named the '**Fat Man bomb**', due to its size. The bomb dropped on Hiroshima was named the '**Little Boy bomb**'.

Fat Man bomb name of the atomic bomb dropped on the Japanese city of Nagasaki during World War II

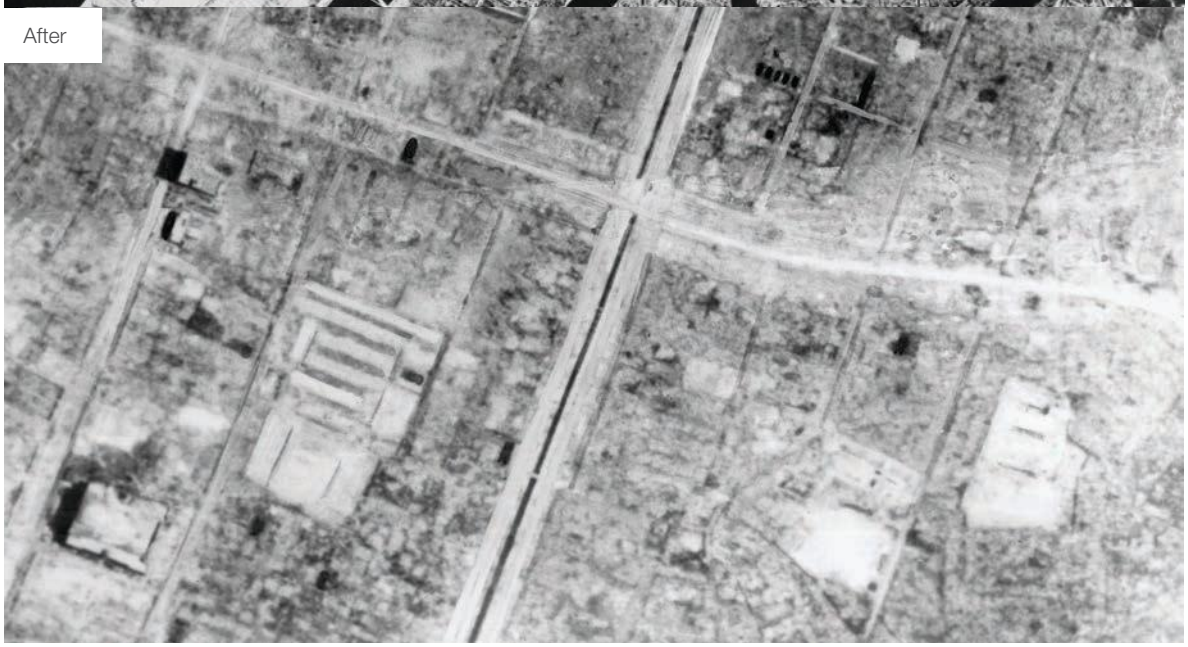
Little Boy bomb name of the atomic bomb dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima during World War II

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Before



After



Source 2.32 *Before*: An aerial view of Hiroshima taken from an American aircraft on 5 August 1945, the day before the dropping of the first atomic bomb. The image shows the target (small circle) and the zone of destruction (large circle). Although you cannot see much detail in this image, the area within the zone of destruction is heavily built up.
After: A close-up view of part of Hiroshima taken on 7 August 1945, the day after the dropping of the atomic bomb. It shows a region just east of the target area. You can see that the ground is completely razed and only a few walls of buildings still stand.

HISTORICAL FACT

HISTORICAL FACT

The oleander is the official flower of the city of Hiroshima because it was the first to bloom again after the explosion of the atomic bomb in 1945 which destroyed all vegetation.



Source 2.33 The oleander plant

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Little Boy bomb		Fat Man bomb	
Target	Hiroshima (population 350 000)	Target	Originally: Kokura Due to cloud cover, the bomb was diverted to its second target, Nagasaki (population 240 000)
Diameter	71 cm	Diameter	1.52 m
Length	3 m	Length	3.25 m
Weight	4000 kg	Weight	4545 kg
Chemical	Uranium	Chemical	Plutonium implosion bomb
Design	Simple	Design	Complicated
Tested	No	Tested	Yes, in New Mexico only a few weeks earlier
Power	Equivalent to 13 kilotonnes of TNT	Power	Equivalent to 20 kilotonnes of TNT
Plane	B-29 bomber, piloted by Paul Tibbets and named *Enola Gay* after his mother	Plane	B-29 bomber named *Bockscar*, piloted by Major Charles Sweeney
Dropped	8.16 am on 6 August 1945	Dropped	11.02 am on 9 August 1945
Deaths	70 000 immediate deaths. As of August 2011, the official memorial in Hiroshima lists the names of 275 230 people who have died from the bomb or its effects (e.g. radiation poisoning).	Deaths	40 000 immediate deaths. More than 70 000 deaths within months. As of August 2011, the official memorial in Nagasaki lists the names of 155 546 people who have died from the bomb or its effects.

Source 2.34 Details of the Little Boy and Fat Man bombs

Activity **2.8**

1 **a** Read the following arguments for and against the dropping of the bombs on Japan.
b Write down the points in each list that you think are the most powerful.
c Choose the point of view you agree with most.

2 Write an extended response to this statement: 'Discuss whether the Allies should have dropped the bombs on Japan. Use evidence to support your argument.'

Arguments FOR dropping the bombs

- It was a joint decision made by the United States in conjunction with the Allied nations.
- The Allies claimed that the bombs ended the war quickly, saving hundreds of thousands of lives that would have been lost if the war continued.
- In US President Truman's memoirs, he cited figures that 1.5 million Allied soldiers would be needed to invade Japan with expected losses of 500 000 men.
- Dutch van Kirk, the navigator of the *Enola Gay* bomber, said that 'it was not a war of our choosing. We were trying to end the war and end the killing … It was an extremely hard, deadly way to do it but in the long run it really saved lives'.

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Activity **2.8** continued

- The United States could not really adopt a 'soft' approach after all of the pain that the Japanese had inflicted during the war, such as at Pearl Harbor.
- The United States had the new atomic technology, so they had a right to use it.
- Japan had been so difficult to defeat because, for the sake of maintaining their honour, they would prefer to fight to the death than to surrender. Twelve thousand US lives had been lost through kamikaze attacks.
- Conventional bombing of Japanese cities had not forced the Japanese to surrender. Devastating atom bomb attacks might.
- All of the theories about the bombs ending the war worked: a week after the second bomb had been dropped on the city of Nagasaki, the Japanese Government surrendered to the Allies.

Arguments AGAINST dropping the bombs

- The moral argument is that innocent civilians, not the military servicemen, were the main victims.
- There was no likelihood of Japan winning the war at this stage in 1945.
- The blockade of Japan had reduced the Japanese people to near-starvation so it was likely that Japan would have surrendered anyway.
- Sixty Japanese cities had already been destroyed by conventional bombing. Japan was therefore already defenceless and nearly defeated.
- Russia had entered the war in the Asia-Pacific by attacking Japanese troops in Manchuria.
- Radiation blasts would lead to slow and agonising deaths. A quote from Hitoshi Takayama (15 years old at the time), who survived the Hiroshima bomb: 'I was with people who were terribly burned. Some were naked, some had the clothing burning into their skins. The skin was falling off their hands and faces like rags. It was hard to think of them as human'.
- A main alternative would have been for the United States to demonstrate the power of the bomb over the Tokyo Harbour rather than demolishing a city. Such a threatening warning may have resulted in surrender without deaths. A related alternative would have been to wait for surrender after the first bomb on Hiroshima and refrain from bombing Nagasaki.
- Former US President Eisenhower said in an interview with an American magazine in 1963 that 'it wasn't necessary to hit them with that awful thing. I hated to see our country to be the first to use such a weapon'.
- Gerard J. DeGroot, professor of modern history at the University of St Andrews, Scotland, said: 'The bomb is a weapon that reflects the flawed nature of human beings' understanding of each other, their craving for power and their obsession with big things. It was developed by scientists whose ... naive vision of the world convinced them that they were doing good'.

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Experiences of Australians during World War II

Australia's reaction to the outbreak of the war

Britain's declaration of war against Germany led immediately to Australia's declaration of support, without discussion or debate. The reasons for joining the war were the same as in World War I: Australians had cultural and historical ties with Britain and felt they had a duty to help their 'mother country' and military defender. Australians also wanted to help stop the political fascist threat.

Japanese aggression in the Asia-Pacific became a realistic threat to the shore of Australia when Singapore was defeated in February 1942. It prompted the Australian Government to recall its soldiers from the Mediterranean to defend Australia in case of attack. It was within this Asia-Pacific battlefield that some of Australia's most devastating war experiences occurred.

Activity **2.9**

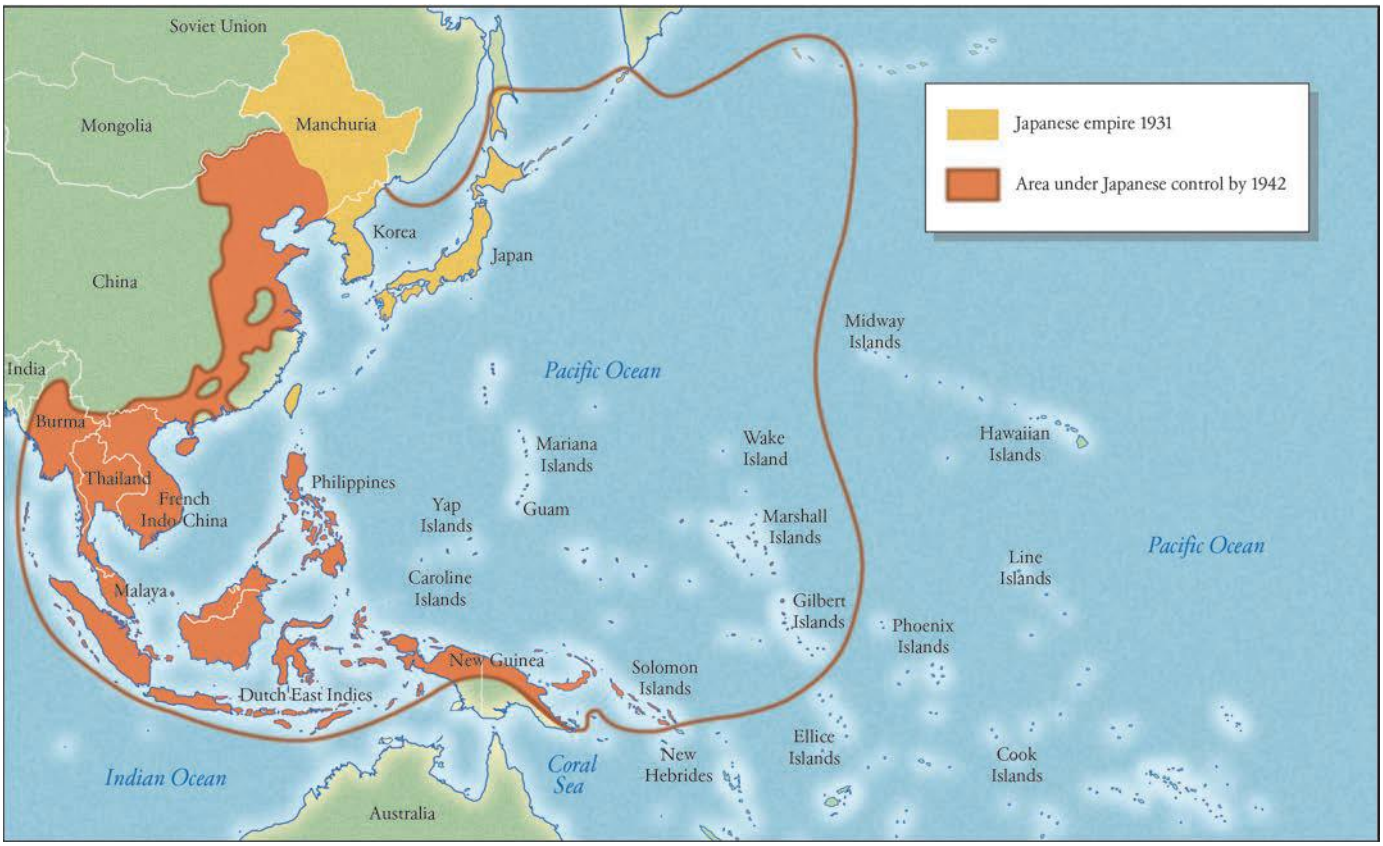
> Fellow Australians, it is my melancholy duty to inform you officially that, in consequence of the persistence of Germany in her invasion of Poland, Great Britain has declared war upon her, and that, as a result, Australia is also at war.
>
> It is plain – indeed it is brutally plain – that the Hitler ambition has been, not as he once said, to unite the German peoples under one rule, but to bring under that rule as many European countries, even of alien race, as can be subdued by force … If such a policy were allowed to go unchecked there could be no security in Europe, and there could be no just peace for the world.
>
> Force has had to be resorted to check the march of force. Honest dealing, the peaceful adjustment of differences, the rights of independent peoples to live their own lives, the honouring of international obligations and promises – all these things are at stake.
>
> There was never any doubt as to where Great Britain stood in regard to them. There can be no doubt that where Great Britain stands, there stands the people of the entire British world ...

Source 2.35 Excerpt from Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies' war speech, 3 September 1939

Use Source 2.35 to answer these questions.

1. In the first paragraph, what is Menzies' reason for entering the war?
2. In the second paragraph, what is Menzies' main concern?
3. In the third paragraph, what does Menzies consider is at stake?
4. Explain the tone of the fourth paragraph.
5. How do you think Australians would have responded to this speech?

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Source 2.36 The Asia-Pacific battlefield in World War II; it was in this region that some of Australia's most devastating war experiences occurred

Role of Australian women in World War II

Women have been involved in every type of war and conflict, especially as nurses. Australian nurses witnessed first-hand the daily brutality of war – they tended to the sick and wounded, and dealt with the dead. They have served in Australia, in war zones across the world and on hospital ships and transports.

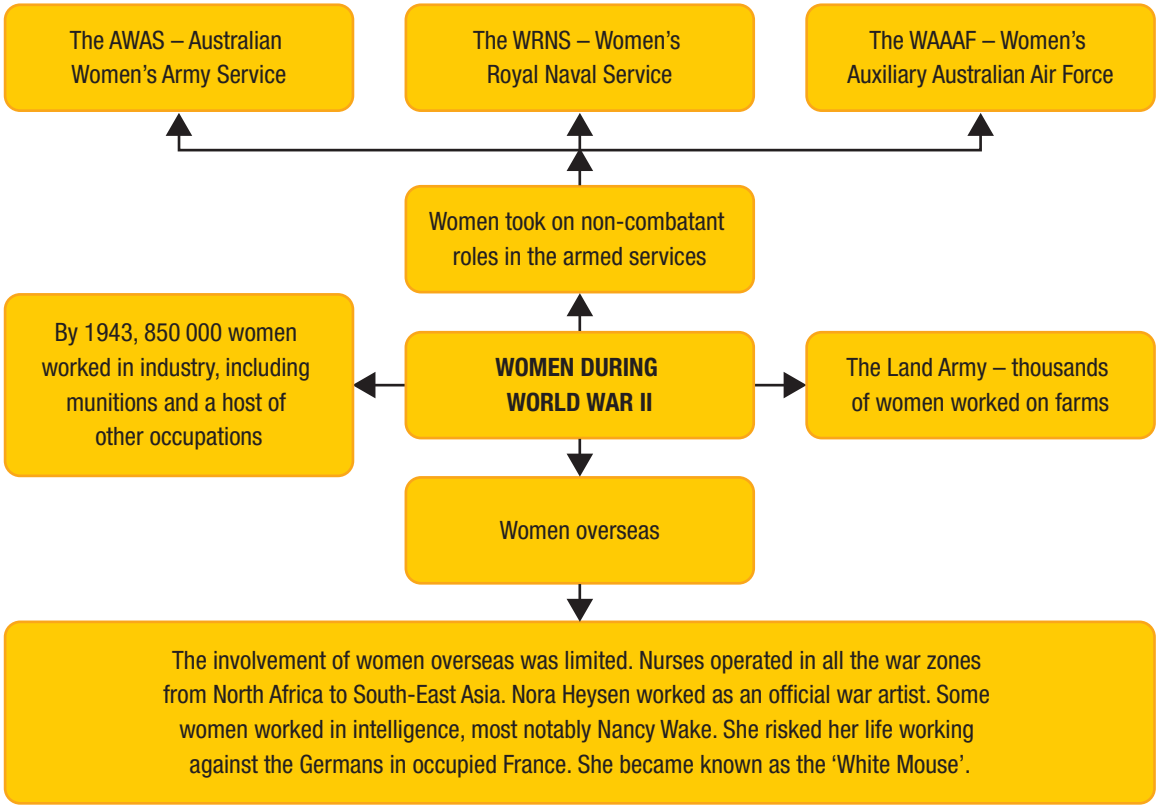
The Australian Nursing Service was established in 1898 to send nurses to the Boer War. By World War II, this organisation had grown into the Australian Army Nursing Service (AANS), and 3477 nurses were sent overseas to war – 71 were killed in action. Colonel C.A. McDowall, a staff officer in Burma, recorded his admiration for nurses: 'Theirs was the steady, unfailing courage unique to women, which will be remembered by the many thousands who owe their lives and health to their devotion and duty'. Rita Eva Kneebone was a nurse off the coast of Borneo and remembers helping some of the Australian survivors after the war ended: 'Some of the prisoners weighed only four to six stone [25 to 38 kg]. I remember lifting a six-foot man up from the ground in my arms like a baby and carrying him to his bed'.

More service options opened up for women from 1941. These included the Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS), the Royal Australian Women's Army Corps (WRAAC), the Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF) and the Women's Royal Australian Air Force (WRAAF). The AWAS was the largest organisation, with a membership of 24000. It sent women to serve in Dutch and Australian New Guinea in 1944 and 1945.

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Source 2.37 Members of the Australian Army Nursing Service in Borneo in 1945, working on hospital ship the SS *Wanganella* [AWM/111665]



Source 2.38 Roles of Australian women during World War II [Based on Webb, K. (2008) *Analysing Australian History*, Cambridge University Press, p. 167]

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Times gone by ...

Vivian Bullwinkel was born on 18 December 1915 in Kapunda, South Australia. She trained as a nurse and midwife in Broken Hill, New South Wales, before working in both Hamilton and Melbourne in Victoria. Vivian's name became famous in World War II when she was a nurse with the Australian Army. She was one of the last servicewomen to flee from Singapore before its defeat in February 1942. As she escaped, however, her ship was bombed and sunk by Japanese bombers. Along with 21 other nurses, Vivian clung to a lifeboat for eight hours before washing ashore on Banka Island in Indonesia. Along with many other survivors, Vivian surrendered.

Instead of taking the captured men from the ships as prisoners of war, the Japanese marched them to the next beach and shot and bayoneted them all. Vivian and the 21 other nurses were ordered to wade into the water, where they too were shot with machine guns. Only one survived – Vivian – who pretended to be dead after a bullet went through her body just above her hip. She allowed her body to be washed ashore by the tide. After 10 minutes of silence, she escaped into the jungle where she survived for 12 days before being captured. She was imprisoned in a war camp with other nurses. After three years of atrocities, she survived the war, went back to nursing in 1947 and served as the Matron of the Fairfield Hospital in Melbourne. She died in 2000 in Perth, Western Australia.

How difficult do you think it would be to return to civilian life after a traumatic experience such as Vivian Bullwinkel's? Explain some of the problems she may have faced in her life after the war.



Source 2.39 Australian Army nurse Vivian Bullwinkel survived after being captured by the Japanese during the fall of Singapore [AWM/P03960.001]

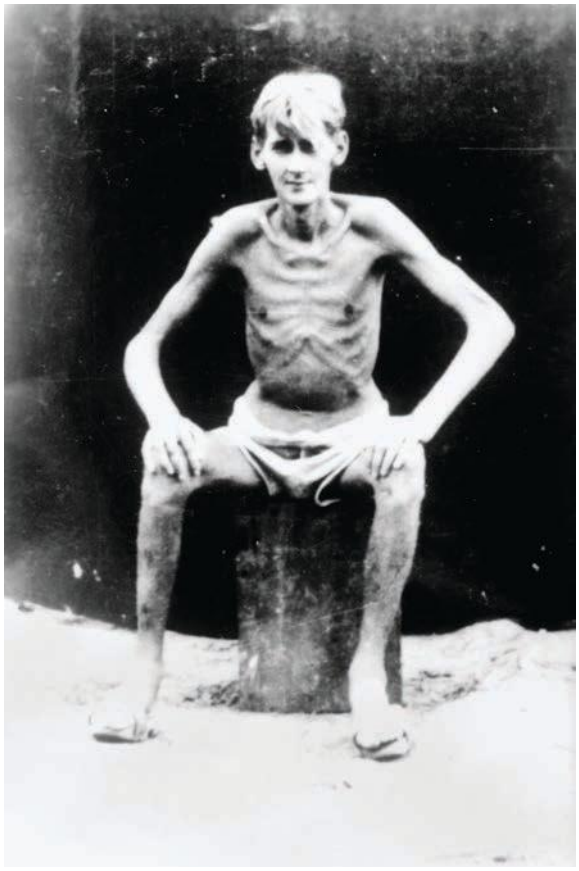
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HISTORICAL FACT

Vivian Bullwinkel was initially rejected as a nurse by the Royal Australian Air Force because she had flat feet! Her story was made into a film called *Paradise Road* (1997).

Prisoners of war (POWs)

Actions of people toward others under the confusion of war can be horrific. Historians Mark Johnston and Charles Lindbergh have both written about Australian troops' reluctance to take prisoners, often killing captured Japanese soldiers rather than take them as prisoners of war (POWs).



Source 2.40 The drastic physical effects of malnutrition on Changi POW Private Kenneth Reid [AWM/P01433.019]

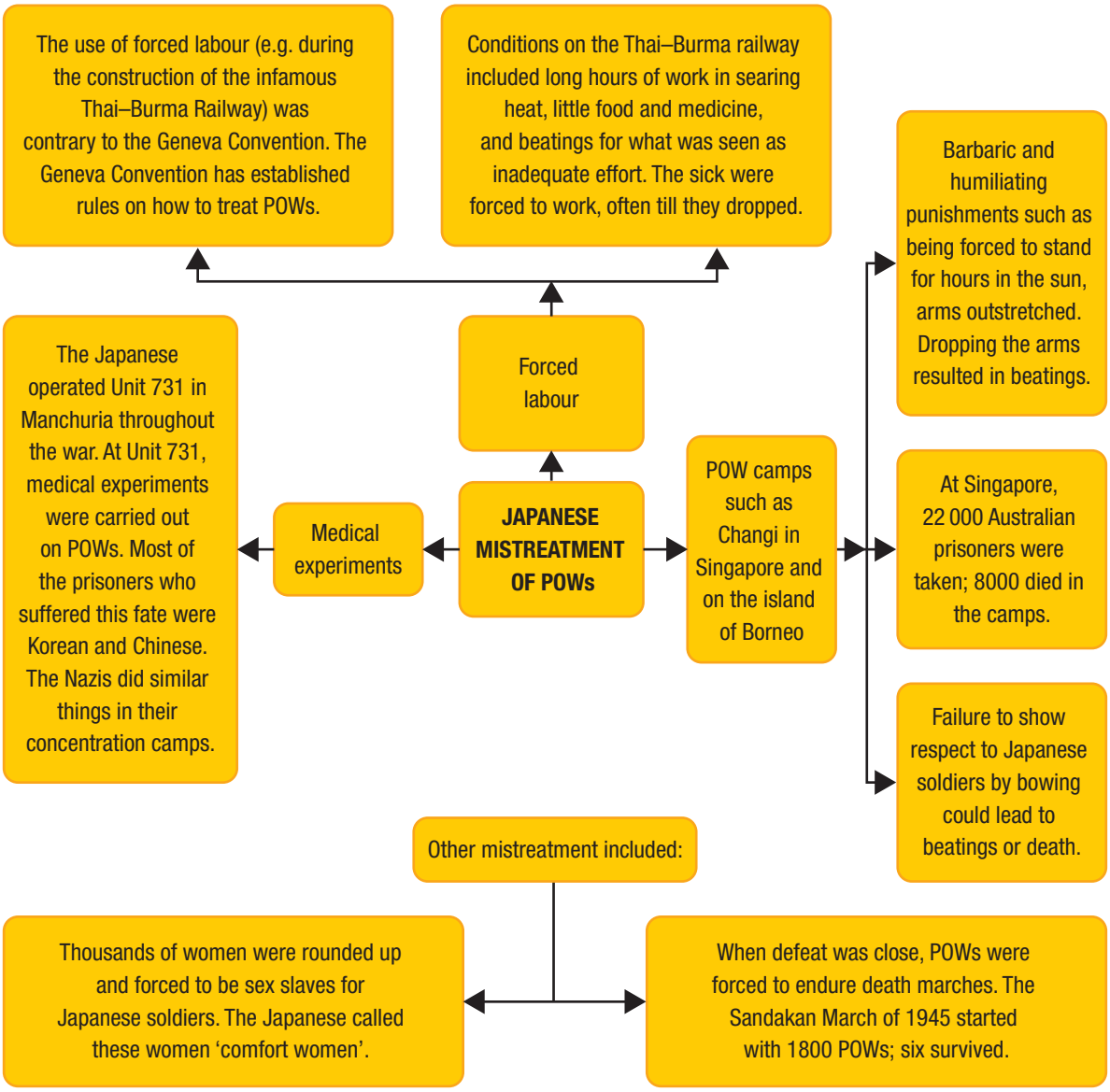
Similarly, Japanese troops behaved aggressively toward captured enemy soldiers. The overall death rate of Allied troops in Japanese war camps was a high 27 per cent. This section captures two personal experiences of Australian POWs during World War II.

Dr Charles 'Rowley' Richards on the Thai–Burma Railway

Charles 'Rowley' Richards, aged 24, was a doctor whose youthful appearance gave him the nickname of 'The Baby Doctor'. He became a prisoner of the Japanese with the fall of Singapore, and he treated men at the notorious Thai–Burma Railway. Up to one-third of his regiment needed daily treatment as a result of the punishment inflicted on them by the Japanese guards, as well as the effects of jungle diseases such as cholera, malaria, dysentery, typhus, pneumonia, bronchitis and beri-beri. Dr Richards was required to amputate limbs and spoon out rotting flesh from ulcers. He was involved in the burning of bodies, often 10 at a time, on rough funeral pyres.

In a clever act, Dr Richards sealed all of his diary entries and notes into a bottle, which he buried underneath the cross of a grave in August 1944. It was found in 1947 by the Directorate of War Graves services, using a rough map drawn by Dr Richards. Dr Richards published his story 58 years later in a book called *A Doctor's War*. Dr Richards claims that he has never explained the worst of the atrocities because 'people just couldn't understand. I've always believed that if you haven't sipped from the same cup, you cannot know the taste'.

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Source 2.41 Japanese mistreatment of POWs [Based on Webb, K. (2008) *Analysing Australian History*, Cambridge University Press, p. 159]

HISTORICAL FACT

In March 2011, Dr Rowley Richards was one of five former prisoners of war to accept an invitation to visit Japan. The highlight was an apology from the former Foreign Minister Seiji Maehara for the mental and physical suffering caused them during the war. Dr Richards expressed his deep appreciation on behalf of the group.

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Lieutenant Rod Wells in Sandakan, North Borneo

The Sandakan Death March was arguably the most horrific atrocity experienced by any group of Australian servicemen. Only six out of an original 2400 survived the 260-kilometre death march from Sandakan to Ranau, in North Borneo. Lieutenant Rod Wells was one of those six.

A clerical bungle meant that Wells, a 23-year-old school teacher, was not executed. He later gave evidence about his experiences at the War Crimes Tribunal. Here he describes his torture at the hands of the Kempei Tai at Sandakan in 1943: 'The interviewer produced a small piece of wood like a meat skewer, pushed that into my left ear, and tapped it with a small hammer. I think I fainted some time after it went through the drum. I remember the last excruciating sort of pain and I must have been out for some time because I was revived with a bucket of water. Eventually it healed but of course I couldn't hear with it. I have never been able to hear since'.

Battle of Kokoda, 1942–43

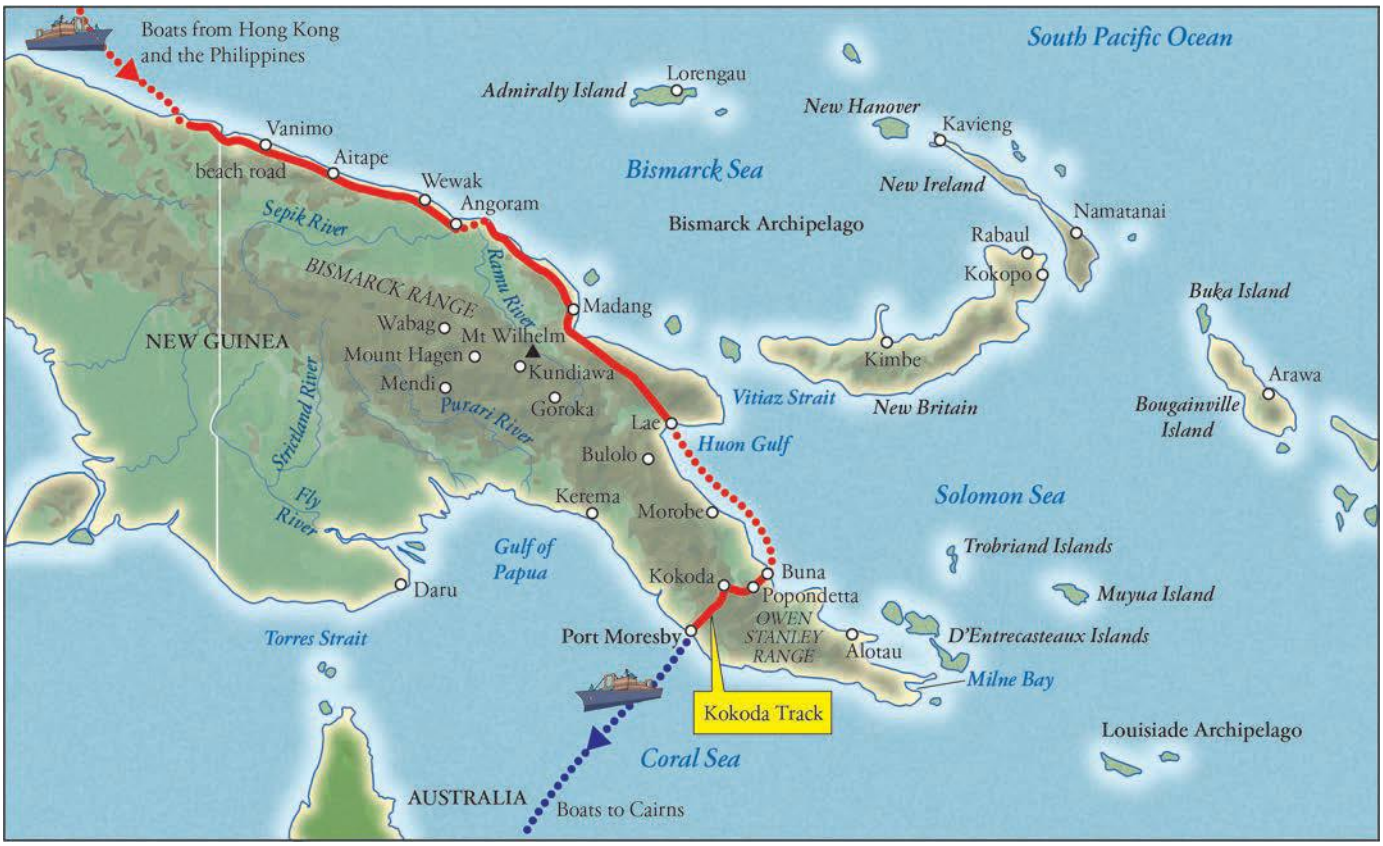
The Japanese aim: to capture Port Moresby

The aim of the Japanese Imperial Headquarters was to capture **Port Moresby**, the capital of Papua New Guinea, and then use it as a base to attack Australia, which lies just south. Yet this plan was changed by the two key naval battles of the Coral Sea (May 1942) and Midway (June 1942), where the Japanese lost crucial aircraft carriers and also their powerful dominance of the Asia-Pacific.

Port Moresby the capital of New Guinea; it was of strategic importance to Japan during World War II

Instead of attacking by sea and air, the Japanese began an attack over land in July 1942. They initiated a two-pronged, full-scale attack, with the ambitious plan to take only 10 days to invade Port Moresby via the **Kokoda Track**, which ran from the city of Buna

Kokoda Track the track linking Port Moresby to the north coast of Papua New Guinea; it runs through difficult terrain



Source 2.42 The Battle of Kokoda took place on the highly treacherous terrain of the Kokoda Track in Papua New Guinea. This map shows the course of Japanese soliders towards Port Moresby, with a view to proceeding to Australia.

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in the north to Port Moresby in the south. The Kokoda Track was given its name because the main village on the track, and the only airstrip between Port Moresby and the northern coast, was called Kokoda.

The Kokoda Track

The Kokoda Track goes through the Owen Stanley mountain range; travel along the track could be made only on foot. The terrain was extremely rugged, which made travel on the track very strenuous, particularly with all the equipment that soldiers had to carry. The weather conditions were also difficult; one US general described the track as 'nightmare country' because of the choking heat, densely forested mountains and swamps, razor-edged scrub and disease-bearing insects. The movement of soldiers along the track was slow and dangerous, but jungle warfare in the isolated mountainous terrain created other logistical difficulties: supplies of food and water had to be made via air drops, and soldiers had to carry all their supplies; wounded soldiers also had to be evacuated by air.

Initially, the Japanese successfully forced the Australians halfway along the track, back to the village of Kokoda itself. The subsequent battles defending the Kokoda Track were some of the most vicious and desperate fought by Australian troops during World War II.

Australian Brigadier Arnold Potts and his Maroubra Force fought several battles on the Kokoda Track from August 1942. The battles of **Isurava,** Efogi, Mission Ridge and Brigade Hill inflicted significant casualties on the advancing Japanese despite the Australians being outnumbered and outgunned. It was a crucial fighting withdrawal, ridge by ridge and village by village. The Australian troops were outnumbered

Isurava a village where a crucial battle was fought on the Kokoda Track that slowed down the Japanese advance



Source 2.43 Sergeant Gordon Raymond Charles Ayre MM assists a wounded soldier during the Battle of Kokoda [AWM/127971]

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HISTORICAL FACT

Kokichi Nishimura was the lone survivor of a failed Japanese attack on the Australians at Mission Ridge. He has spent 30 years and more than A$3.5 million keeping a promise to his fallen Kokoda comrades to find their remains for honorable burials in Japan.

several times, and the Japanese exploited their weaknesses, but the Australians continued to fight against the odds. Many war historians rate the battle of Isurava as the most important battle of the whole campaign because it delayed the Japanese advance.

Lawrie Lawson was a member of the 39th Battalion, which was part of the Maroubra Force. He remembered: 'The days go on. You are trying to survive, shirt torn, arse out of your pants, whiskers a mile long, hungry. Some days you carry your boots because there's no skin on your feet. Then I have seen the time when you dig a number of holes in the ground and bury your dead. Nothing would be said, but you think "Maybe it will be my turn next"'.

The second crucial battle in the region was for control of **Milne Bay** from the end of August 1942. Milne Bay, at the north-east tip of Papua New Guinea, had high strategic significance as an air base. Losing it would have given the Japanese much more opportunity to defend their newly conquered

Milne Bay a bay where a crucial battle was fought at the north-east tip of Papua New Guinea that stopped the continued Japanese invasion of New Guinea



Source 2.44 An Australian soldier on the Kokoda Track has his cigarette lit by a Salvation Army Chaplain [AWM/013287]

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territory to the north of Papua New Guinea and launch attacks to the south. Australian soldiers eventually defeated the Japanese advances while at the same time building war infrastructure – airfields, roads, wharves, buildings and defences – all in the middle of a humid, muddy and disease-ridden jungle environment, under the impressive leadership of Major General Cyril Clowes.

The battles on the muddy jungle track lasted six months, between July 1942 and January 1943. Two highly coveted Victoria Crosses were awarded posthumously to soldiers for their feats during the Kokoda campaign. One was to Private Bruce Kingsbury, who ran into enemy fire shooting a Bren gun from his hip before being killed by an enemy sniper. The second was awarded to Corporal John French for his courageous efforts at Milne Bay, killing three Japanese gun crews.

The Australians stopped the Japanese reaching Port Moresby and in doing so were the first to defeat

Activity **2.10**

These 'Ten Commandments' were published in a pamphlet called *Soldiering in the Tropics*. It was given to all who served in the Asia-Pacific during World War II.

1 Fight to win. Use all your strength and cunning. Surprise and defeat your enemy.
2 Learn your job. Then do it. Dangers and hardships can't stop a jungle soldier.
3 Use cover skilfully. The jungle is your friend.
4 Guard your health. Without health you are useless in the jungle.
5 Protect your arms and equipment. Never leave them. You can't live without them.
6 Keep calm. Keep silent. Keep mobile. Keep alive.
7 Make every shot count. Never fire blindly. Save ammunition.
8 Use teamwork. Do your part, especially when alone.
9 Never surrender. Withdraw into jungle cover. Or kill one more enemy.
10 Strike where it hurts most, when it hurts most.

Source 2.45 'The Ten Commandments of Jungle Fighting'

1 The 'Ten Commandments' were given to all servicemen in the Asia-Pacific. Why does that make this primary document a valuable source?
2 Are some sources more valuable than others? Explain your reasons.
3 List the two commandments that you consider to be the most important. Justify your answer.
4 Which commandment do you consider to be the most surprising? Explain your reasons.
5 Be creative! Make a poster of these commandments, including a photo from the Kokoda campaign that best represents each commandment in action. Make sure that you have a caption for each photo stating, where possible, who is in the photo and when and where it was taken. This is a way to respect the experiences of our servicemen.

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the Japanese on land. From a military perspective, the crucial triumphs on the Kokoda Track and at Milne Bay stopped Japan's advances in the Asia-Pacific and took away their power and initiative.

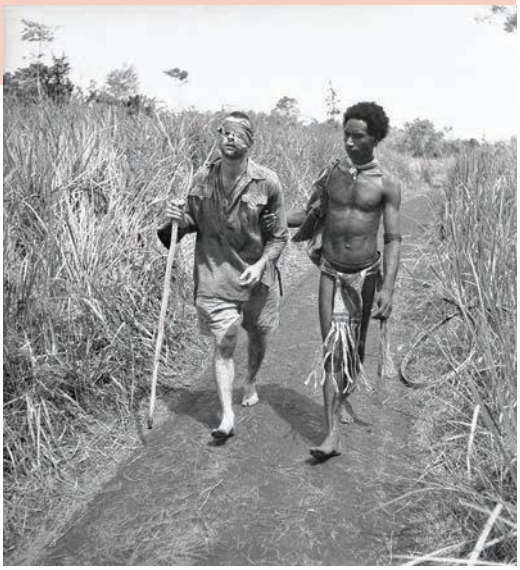
Excellent information about the battles on and around the Kokoda Track can be found at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks, including animated battle maps and images of the area today.

Activity 2.11

Look at both of these sources and answer the questions below. Note that while the term 'Fuzzy Wuzzy Angel' might seem patronising today, it was accepted by the people of New Guinea during the war as an affectionate title.

> The Fuzzy Wuzzy Angels continued to do wonderful work in saving the Diggers as they hauled them back toward safety … The solicitude [feeling of concern] with which the porters who remained with the wounded would forever remain imprinted on the memories of those they saved. At night, when it was time to rest, the porters would take great care to ensure that the Digger was on level ground with a fire nearby to keep warm, and at least one of them would sit through the night to make sure that the wounded Australian soldier would not want for water, or food, or simple company in his oft-tormented and delirious stages. Gently, oh so gently, for the severely wounded who could not eat, a thin paste of milk powder and water would be fed to them, spoonful by spoonful. Never, no matter how hopeless a Digger's medical condition might have been, was one of them abandoned. Never.

Source 2.46 An extract from *Kokoda* by Peter Fitzsimons. In this extract, Fitzsimons describes the crucial role of the New Guinea locals in helping Australian soldiers during the Kokoda campaign.



Source 2.47 A famous photo taken by New Zealand photographer George Silk, showing Australian soldier Dick Wittington being led by Papuan stretcher bearer Raphael Oimbari during the Kokoda campaign [AWM/014028]

1 **a** What was the affectionate name given to the local porters who helped the Australian soldiers during World War II?
   b Why do you think they were given this name?

2 **a** List three ways in which the porters helped wounded Australian soldiers.
   b Write a 100-word diary entry by a wounded soldier explaining how he felt to receive such care.

3 Why do you think that the porters were referred to as 'angels'?

4 Which of these sources did you find more helpful in appreciating the 'Fuzzy Wuzzy Angels'? Explain your answer.

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HISTORICAL FACT

Evelyn Ernest Owen was the creator of the famous Owen Gun, a sub-machine gun that continued working even when covered in mud or dropped in water. It was first used towards the end of the Kokoda campaign, and was called the 'Diggers' Darling' because it was reliable, handled easily, fitted a silencer and fired rapidly even in the worst of conditions and at close range. The rugged Lee Enfield .303 rifle was also excellent in the terrible conditions, but could only fire 30 shots a minute compared to the Owen Gun's 700.

Times gone by ...

Soldier profile

Title and name	Lieutenant Thomas Currie Derrick
Born	Adelaide, South Australia, 1914
Role	Superb soldier
Nickname	'Diver'
Personality	Thoughtful, intelligent, sensitive



Source 2.48 Tom 'Diver' Derrick with the first Indigenous commissioned officer in the Australian Army, Reg Saunders [AWM/083166]

(continued)

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Enlisted	Australian Imperial Force, 2/48th Battalion, 1940
Middle East	Promoted to corporal (Tobruk) and then sergeant (El Alamein) for being an excellent soldier and leader
Asia-Pacific	Returned to defend Australia against Japanese in Papua New Guinea
Awards	Victoria Cross and Distinguished Conduct Medal for bravery and leadership
Death	24 May 1945: Derrick led his platoon to successfully attack a heavily defended series of hills on an island off the east coast of Borneo. Later that night, the Japanese fired into Australian lines. Derrick sat up to check that his men were all right and was shot five times in the chest. He died of his wounds.
Citation on Australian War Memorial	'Fighting amidst rugged terrain and under heavy fire from Japanese machine guns, Derrick performed the feat that earned him the Victoria Cross. Scaling steep cliffs, under fire, hurling grenades and using his rifle he cleared ten machine gun posts, making possible the capture of Sattleberg.'

1 What is the Victoria Cross? Find out how many Australians have been awarded this medal.

2 Two Australians have been awarded the Victoria Cross for Australia during the current war in Afghanistan. Research their names and citations, and compare them to Tom 'Diver' Derrick's feats in the capture of Sattleberg.

Impact of World War II on the Australian homefront

The bombing of Darwin

> We could hear the sound of a lot of aeroplanes approaching. I went and stood on the verandah of the office and looked up and saw that great big echelon of planes flying over. We thought, 'The Americans are sending us reinforcements'. I can remember the sun glinting on what looked like little silver dots dropping out of the bottom of the planes. Then I thought, 'Christ Almighty, they're not ours'. That's when all hell broke loose.

Source 2.49 An account on the bombing of Darwin, from then 18-year-old clerk Les Penhall

Within four days of the fall of Singapore, the Australian city of Darwin was bombed by the Japanese. Japan was all-powerful; Britain was no longer able to defend Australia, and Australian troops were still fighting in the deserts of North

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Activity **2.12**

Darwin was bombed twice … by Japanese warplanes. Ninety-three bombers, with fighter escorts, took part in the raids, the first on the mainland of Australia.

Four raiders were brought down. Damage to property was considerable. There were some casualties. Details are not available.

The first attack was made at 10.50 a.m. by 72 twin-engine bombers, and lasted an hour. It was concentrated on the town and shipping in the harbor. There were some casualties and some damage was done to service installations. The second raid was made in the afternoon by 21 bombers.

Last night the Prime Minister Mr Curtin said: 'Though information did not disclose details of casualties, it must be obvious that we have suffered … We must face this test with fortitude and fight grimly and unflinchingly. Australian forces and civilians conducted themselves with gallantry. Darwin had been bombed, but not conquered'.

Source 2.50 An extract from Brisbane newspaper *The Courier Mail*, 21 February 1942

1. How many days after the attack was this article published?
2. The article states that 'details are not available'. What might this tell us?
3. What is Prime Minister Curtin's key message to Australians?

Africa; the United States was recovering from Pearl Harbor. From a Japanese point of view, it was an ideal time to bomb Australia.

The two Japanese attacks on 19 February 1942 were estimated to contain about 90 planes, whose aim was to cripple the air base. By the end of the day, 243 Australians were dead, eight ships had been sunk, 23 planes destroyed and significant damage was done to buildings and the main airfield. Over the next year, Darwin and the northern towns of Broome, Katherine, Derby and Wyndham were attacked another 64 times.

Sydney Harbour

On 31 May 1942, large Japanese submarines, sitting about 13 kilometres out to sea from Sydney Harbour, launched three two-person midget submarines into the harbour, with the hope of bombing warships anchored there, including the US ship USS *Chicago*. The submarines were spotted one by one, and hunted for several hours during the evening and night. The search was difficult because vision was limited and other boats on the harbour, including ferries, continued to sail.

One of the Japanese submarines fired a torpedo aimed at the USS *Chicago*, but it missed and hit the HMAS *Kattabul*, sinking that ship and killing 19 Australian and two British soldiers.

During the hunt, the crew of one of the midget submarines realised they were trapped, and blew up themselves and their vessel. The crew of the second midget submarine shot themselves when they were attacked by harbour patrol vessels. The midget submarine that sank the HMAS *Kattabul* disappeared and did not make it back to the large submarine – it is thought that the vessel ran out of fuel, or that the crew deliberately sank themselves. The wreck of that midget submarine was found in 2006 off Sydney's northern beaches.

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The large Japanese submarines, which were waiting off Port Hacking, left on 3 June 1942, when the midget submarines had not returned.

The Australian Government during the war

Australian writer Robert Manne, in his book *The Australian Century*, described the outbreak of World War II as very 'fortuitous' because it brought to an end the unemployment and economic turmoil from the Great Depression of the previous decade. But it also brought fear, economic hardship and social conflicts. The Australian Government played a far greater role in World War II than it did in World War I because of the immediate threat from Japan. The government, therefore, implemented wide-ranging reforms.

John Curtin became the Labor Prime Minister of Australia after a series of short terms by Earle Page (19 days), Robert Menzies (18 months) and Arthur Fadden (40 days). Focused on uniting a hostile and unstable parliament, Curtin developed a ruthless determination to implement his ideas. He appointed Ben Chifley as his Treasurer and together they guided Australia through the war years.

When war broke out in the Asia-Pacific, Curtin demanded that Australian soldiers return from Europe and North Africa to defend their own country and also turned to the United States for military support. This began a political link that has become increasingly integral to Australian foreign policy. Curtin declared, 'Without inhibitions of any kind, I make it quite clear that Australia looks to America, free of any pangs as to our traditional links with the United Kingdom'. The direct result was that US President Franklin Roosevelt sent American troops to fight the war in the Asia-Pacific.



Source 2.51 Australian wartime Prime Minister John Curtin [NAA/A5954, 661/12]

Internment

When Australia became involved in World War II, one immediate problem was deciding what to do with 'enemy **aliens**' in Australia at the time. Enemy aliens were people and families with Nazi sympathies and other suspected links to enemy countries; those who posed a 'threat' to the security of the country. Initially, in 1939, only 400 Australian citizens were arrested. As the war progressed, however, Japanese people living in Australia were arrested en masse and many German and Italian people were also arrested because of their country of origin. **Internment camps** were established throughout Australia where these internal enemies were held. Captured POWs were also held in the camps.

alien someone who belongs to a foreign nation or country

internment camps camps established throughout Australia where prisoners of war and people suspected of having links with the enemy were held

Internment camps were located at:

- Cowra and Holsworthy (Liverpool) in New South Wales
- Loveday in South Australia
- Enoggera (Gaythorne) in Queensland
- Harvey and Rottnest Island in Western Australia
- Tatura (Rushworth) in Victoria.

There were also several smaller camps where internees were held temporarily before being transferred to one of the larger camps. By August 1944, the camps held 2223 Japanese, 1585 Germans and 14 720 Italians. Overall, 25 720 POWs were held in Australia throughout the course of World War II.

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HISTORICAL FACT

In August 1940, 2500 Germans and Austrians arrived in Australia via ship, and were imprisoned. When it was realised that most of them were Jews who were escaping Hitler's persecution in the Holocaust, they were released and the mistake was covered up by the government.



Conscription

Conscription, where men and women were forced to sign up for war service, was controversial during World War I. But there was widespread agreement that it was important in World War II to help protect Australia. Conscription was introduced in Australia in October 1939, almost immediately after the war began; it swelled the **Australian Imperial Force (AIF)** from 3000 to 20 000 men. The AIF could be sent to fight anywhere in the world.

conscription the process of mandatory participation in war, where men and women were forced to sign up to serve their country at war

Australian Imperial Force (AIF) the name given to army forces sent to fight overseas

In June 1940, all unmarried men who were 21 years old were conscripted. By 1942, when the Japanese were attacking New Guinea and Darwin, this was expanded to all men aged 18–35 who did not have children. In 1943, the government was also given power to conscript women into the armed forces.

A **militia** was also established, which was similar to today's Army Reserve. The aim was to create a trained army that could be mobilised quickly when needed. In 1939, all men over 20 years old had to do three months of militia training.

militia a military force made up of ordinary citizens rather than highly trained soldiers

Censorship

Strict **censorship** was enforced throughout the war by the Menzies and Curtin governments. Controlling the flow of information was considered necessary for three reasons:

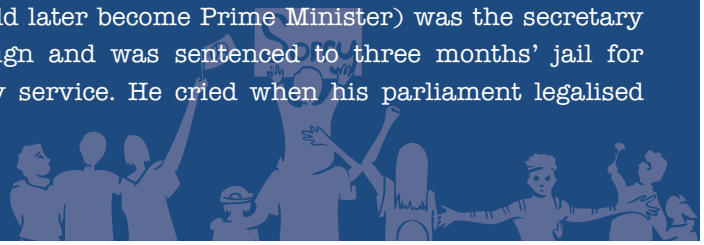
censorship government control over the type of information that can be included in all forms of communication, such as news media and private letters

- to prevent valuable information getting into enemy hands
- to prevent the spread of false news and rumours about Australians overseas
- to maintain high morale on the homefront.

There were two main types of censorship that aimed to make sure that only positive war stories were told to the Australian people. First, censorship was important at the war front. The Australian Army checked all letters that were written to family and friends and blotted out any references to the identity, location or strategy of specific units. Second, censorship was important on the homefront. The government's Department of Information controlled the

HISTORICAL FACT

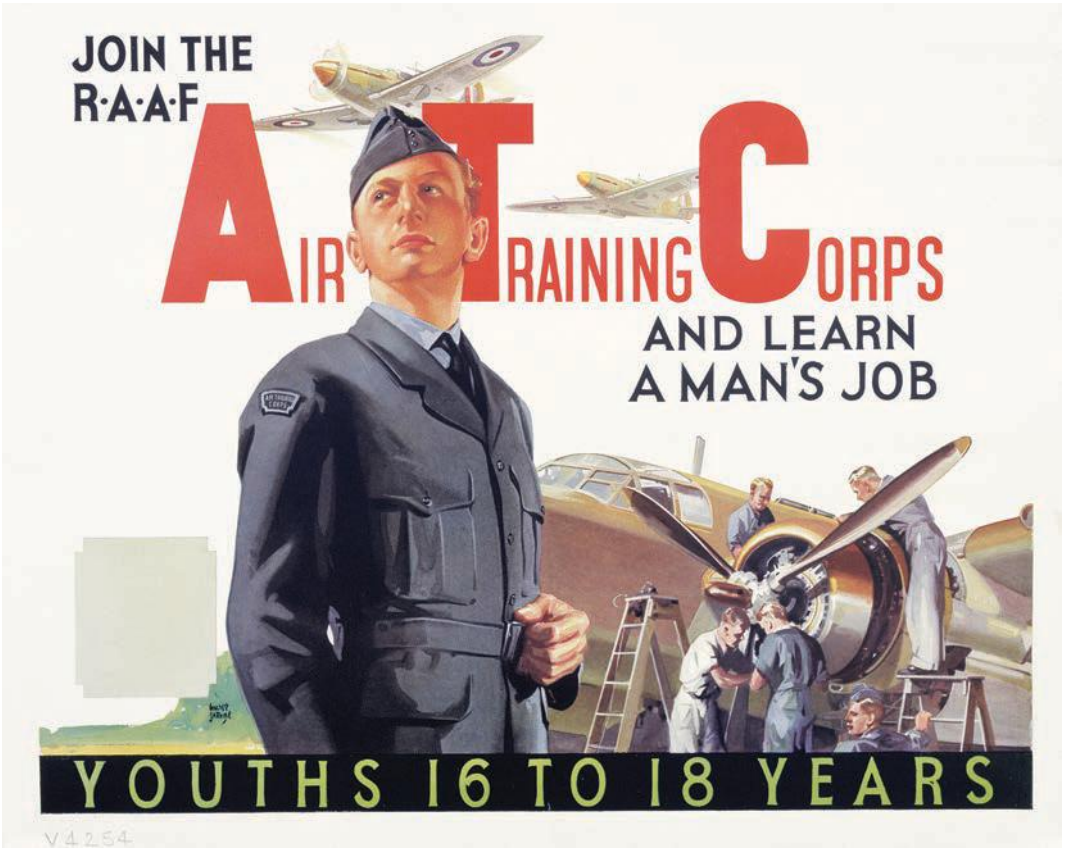
In 1916, John Curtin (who would later become Prime Minister) was the secretary of the anti-conscription campaign and was sentenced to three months' jail for refusing to sign up for military service. He cried when his parliament legalised conscription in 1942.



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information that Australian newspapers printed and radio stations broadcast, as well as the types of films shown at cinemas. Articles in newspapers were only allowed to refer to unidentified troops in unnamed units in order to protect their locations. Author Robert Bell argued that censorship was overly strict to the extent that the Australian press 'behaved more like the propaganda arm of the government than a genuine free agency'.

Activity **2.13**



Source 2.52 A poster encouraging 16- to 18-year-old boys to sign up to the Royal Australian Air Force [AWM/ARTV04254]

Use Source 2.52 to complete these tasks.

1 **a** Describe how the main figure is portrayed.
   b Identify what is happening in the background.
   c Explain how this helps the purpose of the poster.
2 How might a 16- to 18-year-old feel reading the words 'and learn a man's job'?
3 Would this poster have encouraged you to sign up for the air force? Why or why not?

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HISTORICAL FACT

Government censors issued an average of eight instructions per day to Australian newspapers during the war about what they were not allowed to include in their reports. In 1944, Sydney newspapers were so frustrated that they printed blank spaces in their articles to indicate where the censor had deleted words!

Sport

War changed the face of sport in Australia. Prime Minister Curtin even claimed that a fascination with sport was not 'in keeping with a country at war'. Interstate cricket was cancelled. Horse racing was restricted to mid-week only; traditional Saturday racing was cancelled. Many sporting clubs were forced to close down due to the loss of members who were serving at war. Australian rules football club the Geelong Cats withdrew from the 1942 and 1943 seasons because travel restrictions meant that the players were unable to catch a train to Melbourne each week to play matches. The Western Australian Football League restricted its competition to under-18 players only. Tasmania stopped football competition between 1942 and 1944, while South Australia merged its teams so that the competition could continue. The Melbourne Cricket Ground was taken over by US troops to use as their home base.

The tradition of sport continued in some war fronts, however, and a football league with four teams was even established in the Japanese POW camp at Changi.

American servicemen in Australia

The arrival of US servicemen into Australia was the single biggest arrival of people within a short period in our history. More than one million US troops visited Australia between 1941 and 1945. It was a practical result of the emerging military partnership between the two nations. The support given to Australia by its new protector was tangible and powerful. The numbers of US servicemen were especially large in Queensland, where they formed a dominant part of the wartime landscape.

There were significant economic and political benefits of the US military's friendly invasion of Australia, but there were some social tensions and conflicts. US servicemen were highly visible in public places due to their impressive uniforms, their polite and chivalrous manners, and spending of money due to their high salaries. One Australian viewpoint was that US servicemen were 'over-sexed, over-paid and over here'! Australian soldiers feared that the US troops would be 'stealing their girls' while they were away at war.

HISTORICAL FACT

During World War II, Australian code-breakers were based in a mansion in Domain Road, South Yarra, in Melbourne, where they intercepted and decoded Japanese messages. IBM computers were used.

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In fact, although both governments made it very difficult, 10 000 Australian women did marry Americans at the time. Women also volunteered to entertain US servicemen in clubs and on outings. For example, some young women joined the Air Force Victorettes, a group who volunteered to entertain the US servicemen on a roster basis.

Tensions between the US and Australian soldiers burst open at the 'Battle of Brisbane' in November 1943. This hostile street brawl left one Australian dead.

However, despite the one violent incident and the underlying fears, most Australians interacted amicably with the visitors, who included a substantial number of African-Americans.

At this time, the Japanese also produced propaganda posters playing on the fears of the Australians.

Shortages, controls and rationing

There were serious shortages of labour in Australia during World War II because so many able-bodied men and women signed up for military and nursing service. Workers were in demand to help the Australian economy continue to function. In January 1942, the government introduced a Directorate of Manpower. It recruited more women into the workforce but also stopped the production of 'non-essentials', which resulted in many shortages.

Home life was made more difficult when the government introduced strict social, economic and military controls. Prime Minister Curtin had regularly promoted a 'season of austerity' – the message was that the seriousness of the war required deep sacrifice. Australians considered that spending cuts were necessary but such cuts



Source 2.53 Members of the Australian Victorettes with US servicemen in Mackay, Queensland, in 1943 [AWM/P00561.013]

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HISTORICAL FACT

Prime Minister Curtin was a very serious man who led by example: he wore an old coat, walked to his office, put his savings into war loans and never owned a car! On his grave is written: 'His country was his pride / His brother man his cause'.



were still very unpopular – Australia had just survived the Great Depression of the early 1930s so the restricted conditions were all too familiar.

Curtin implemented a series of restrictions in 1942, in order for the people of Australia to play their part in contributing to the war effort – this was known as the **Austerity Campaign**. The campaign aimed to maximise war-related production (by directing money into the war effort rather than into communities) and unify Australians psychologically. The following are just some of the items that were restricted.

Austerity Campaign a campaign begun by the Australian Government in 1942, in which serious and strict controls were placed over every aspect of daily life in Australia in order to help financially support the war effort

- Food – basic foods such as flour and sugar were rationed.
- Transport – limited public transport meant that housewives had to carry their groceries home; petrol and tyres became hard to find, so many cars spent the war in garages.
- Leisure – people were encouraged not to spend time or money on holidays, alcohol, tobacco, horse races, cinemas or theatres.
- Restaurants – meals were limited to three courses and no more.
- Taxes – taxes were increased on luxury and unnecessary items to stop people buying them.
- Businesses – trade with Japan, Finland, Hungary and Romania was banned under the threat of large penalties established through the *Trading with the Enemy Act*; advertising for Christmas in 1942 was banned to try to limit spending on presents.
- Blackouts – these were enforced in every major city and up to 16 kilometres inland; the Air Raids Precautions branch patrolled Sydney streets wearing steel hats and respirators.
- Banks – people were encouraged to put their savings into war loans; the slogan was 'Save and save Australia'.

One of the Austerity Campaign's slogans was 'Beware the squander bug – save for victory'. Posters were produced to encourage people to be thrifty in their spending and not squander their money on unnecessary items. Due to the rapid Japanese advances toward Australian soil, the infamous character known as the 'squander bug' was drawn on the posters as a devil-like figure with a Japanese face. It had a Japanese rising-sun flag or **swastikas** on its body.

swastika the symbol of the Nazi Party in Germany

Curtin's Austerity Campaign directly impacted women due to their role as household managers. Women were asked to reduce their housekeeping budgets, spend less on food and even grow their own vegetables. Magazines and newspapers published recipes such as the Austerity Loaf and Austerity Beef. The recipes catered for the lack of particular types of food due to rationing. The Country Women's Association suggested ways in which women could make cheap toys, clothes and aprons.

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Source 2.54 Prime Minister Curtin's Austerity Campaign included posters featuring the 'squander bug', and warned people against useless spending. [AWM/RC02346]



Source 2.55 A poster produced by the Department of Agriculture in 1943 to encourage people to grow their own vegetables. [AWM/ARTV02452]

HISTORICAL FACT

The black market thrived under wartime restrictions. People even made beer in bathtubs to sell in the street!



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Source 2.56 An American ration book from 1943

Activity **2.14**

Answer these questions based on all the information in the text from the heading 'Impact of World War II on the Australian homefront', p. 86.

1 Comprehension – the answers to these are clear in the text. True or false:
- **a** Australia's political and military dependence changed from the United States to Britain in 1942.
- **b** Japanese, Germans and Italians in Australia were imprisoned in Cowra in New South Wales.
- **c** Men were forced to join the armed forces in the army, navy or air force.
- **d** The government censored newspapers to stop information falling into enemy hands.
- **e** Many sporting competitions in Australia were cancelled.
- **f** US servicemen were placed in large numbers in every state as protection.
- **g** Women replaced men in the local workforce so that shortages were avoided.
- **h** The 'squander bug' was used in posters to encourage people to save.
- **i** Ration cards were issued for both food and clothing.

2 Evaluate – use your knowledge from the text to form your own conclusions about the following. Be prepared to explain why you think that your answers are correct. True or false:
- **a** Australians became more fearful than hopeful during the war.
- **b** Government censorship was necessary to keep Australians at home positive about supporting the war.
- **c** Sport is the best way to keep high morale during war.
- **d** Rationing was unnecessary.
- **e** The threat of invasion was over-emphasised.
- **f** Prime Minister Curtin needed to be more inspirational and less concerned about strict controls.
- **g** Australian soldiers felt inferior to those from the United States.

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Women on the homefront: the AWLA

Australian women were involved in crucial ways during World War II in three key areas: war roles overseas and in northern Australia (e.g. nurses); non-combatant war roles such as in the army, navy and airforce; and roles at the homefront. We have already discussed some of the war roles and non-combatant roles of women, but in this section we discuss roles of women on the homefront, particularly those involved in the Australian Women's Land Army (AWLA).

More than 6000 women joined the AWLA during World War II. It was officially established in July 1942 with the aim of replacing the male farm workers who had enlisted or who were now undertaking war work, such as with munitions. Several different land armies had been established prior to this in each state but, once the AWLA was formed, the land armies of the various states were combined under the one title of AWLA.

The AWLA was a national voluntary group for women aged between 18 and 50. Members covered a variety of agricultural labours, including



Source 2.57 Helen McGrath operating a fertilising machine at Killara during World War II [AWM/009697]

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HISTORICAL FACT

The Minister of Transport told the Road Safety Council that in the first five years of the war there were more Australians killed or injured on roads than Australian casualties on all battle fronts for the same period!

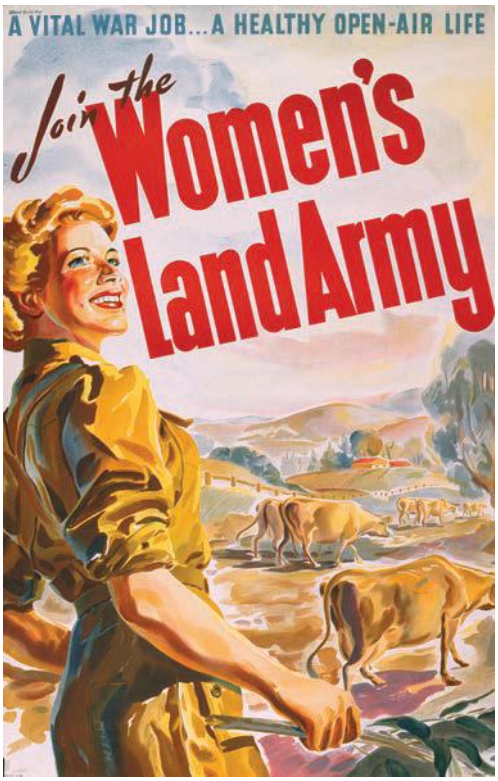
vegetable and fruit growing, pig and poultry raising, and sheep and wool work.

The Country Women's Association Land Army (CWALA) was one of the land armies established in Victoria in 1940, prior to the AWLA. Three Melbourne friends – Helen McGrath, Flora Hendy and Carmen Virgoe – signed up for the CWALA and agreed to work at 'Killara', a 2000-acre farm near the town of Stawell in Victoria. They undertook a variety of manual jobs and received high praise from their employer for their hard work and abilities. War photographer 'Ted' Cranstone took a range of photos of them working in September 1941. A series of these photos were later used to promote and recruit for the AWLA.

Activity **2.15**

1 Source 2.58 shows a recruitment poster produced in 1943. Use the source to answer the questions.
- **a** Describe the main subject – position, clothing, expression – and the background.
- **b** Why was the Women's Land Army important?
- **c** Explain the message that this poster is trying to convey to:
  - **i** women
  - **ii** other Australians
- **d** Why (or why not) do you think this poster would have been effective?

2 You can see a wide range of photos of women at work during the war at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.



Source 2.58 A poster promoting the Australian Women's Land Army [AWM/ARTV01062]

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Significance of World War II on Australia's international relationships

Britain

From 1788, Australia had depended on Britain for military defence, though from 1870 the Australian colonies had to raise their own troops. This dependence was broken in 1942 when Australia forged a new alliance with the United States, as Britain was not able to provide military support in the Asia-Pacific. Australia maintained a dual alliance after the war with both Britain and the United States. This shifted in the 1960s when Australia began to depend solely on the United States for military support.

The United States

Australia has fought wars in alliance with the United States – including in Korea, Vietnam, the Gulf War, Iraq and Afghanistan – and the United States has military bases in Australia. The **ANZUS Treaty** forms the basis of the Australian–US alliance. The three greatest benefits to Australia of the alliance with the United States have been, in order:

ANZUS Treaty the Australia, New Zealand, United States Security Treaty; a military alliance between the United States and Australia, and separately between Australia and New Zealand

- military protection – important because of Australia's geographic isolation and vulnerability
- the provision of intelligence and equipment
- gaining greater regional influence due to links to the powerful US Government.

There have been several costs of this alliance, however, including Australia gaining an international reputation as a 'puppet' of the United States.

United Nations

Australia is generally seen as a good international citizen. Since 1945, successive Australian Governments have supported the work of the **United Nations** and its agencies in its quest to control the arms trade and prevent the expansion of weapons of mass destruction, and to deal with the narcotics trade, **refugee** crises, the spread of AIDS, international terrorism, environmental degradation, piracy and slavery.

United Nations an international organisation founded in 1945 to work towards world peace and cooperation

refugee a person who, due to a well-founded fear of persecution, is outside their country of nationality and is unable or (due to such fear) unwilling to return to that country

Asia

Australia's regional relationships post-war were based on suspicion and alienation because Australia was 'in Asia but not of Asia'. This was further influenced by the **White Australia Policy** and Australia's support for the Western intervention against local independence and rebellion in Malaya, Korea and Vietnam. There were some exceptions, however, such as the Colombo Plan and the 1958 Trade Agreement with Japan. More recently, Australia has participated in United Nations peacekeeping efforts in Asia, such as that in Cambodia.

White Australia Policy a racist policy introduced in Australia from 1901, designed to intentionally restrict 'non-white' immigration to Australia; it was finally abolished in the 1970s

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Activity **2.16**

Australians have served in 15 international war conflicts since the 1880s. Source 2.59 shows a summary of the number of Australians who have died in each of these conflicts.

Conflict	Dates of conflict	Number of deaths
Sudan	1885	9
South Africa	October 1899 – May 1902	589
China	August 1900 – April 1901	6
World War I	August 1914 – March 1921	61519
World War II	September 1939 – May/August 1945	39668
Malayan Emergency	June 1948 – July 1960	39
Korean War	June 1950 – July 1953	340
Indonesian Confrontation	December 1962 – August 1966	16
Malay Peninsula	February 1964 – August 1966	2
Vietnam War	August 1962 – April 1975	521
Thailand	June 1965 – August 1968	2
Somalia	October 1992 – November 1994	1
East Timor	September 1999 – August 2003	2
Afghanistan	October 2001 – present	32
Iraq	July 2003 – 2011	2
Total		102748

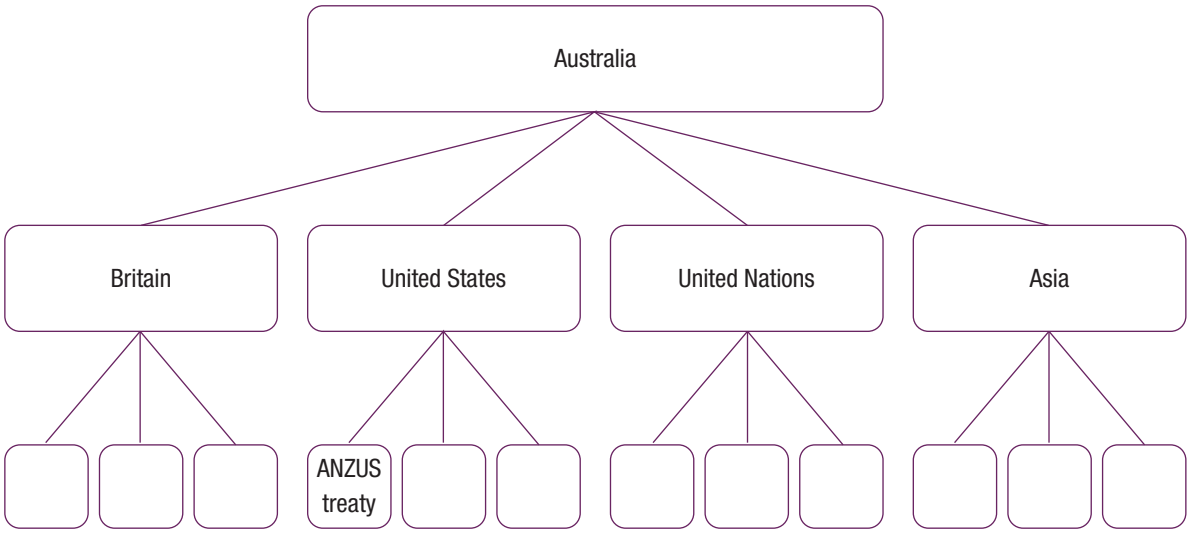
Source 2.59 A summary of the number of Australians who have died in international war conflicts since the 1880s

1. Make a pie chart or bar graph of these wars and the number of deaths in each.
2. What percentage of the total Australian war deaths occurred during World War II?
3. Identify the number of wars that Australians have been involved in since World War II. Why is this figure interesting and significant?
4. Which war is Australia currently fighting? Write a few sentences explaining this conflict.
5. In your opinion, why do we still go to war when we learnt from World Wars I and II how devastating war actually is?
6. In 2010–2011, the Australian Government spent $26.5 billion on defence. What is your reaction to this figure?
7. Since 2007, 17-year-olds can now participate in active military service for Australia. Knowing what you do about war, would you join the military? Explain why or why not.

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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise Australia's relationship with each of these four groups after the war.





Source 2.60 The Roll of Honour at the Australian War Memorial, Canberra, which lists the names of Australians who have died at war. The wall is adorned with poppies, the symbol of Remembrance Day.

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Chapter summary

- World War II in Europe was caused by the military aggression of the leader of Nazi Germany, Adolf Hitler, who from 1936 openly broke the Treaty of Versailles by building a strong military and expanding German territory. War began after he invaded Poland on 1 September 1939. Hitler's advances were not stopped earlier because Britain and France had adopted a policy of appeasement.
- The key events of the war in Europe were the Holocaust, annexing of Europe, invasion of the Soviet Union, bombing of Britain and the D-Day landings.
- The war in Europe ended on 8 May 1945 after the German Government surrendered. This was only possible because Hitler had committed suicide on 30 April.
- World War II in the Asia-Pacific was caused by the military aggression of Japan, which expanded its territory through China and the Asia-Pacific from the 1930s.
- The United States entered the war in the Asia-Pacific after their naval base in Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, suffered significant damage from a surprise Japanese air attack in 1941. A series of significant land, sea and air battles between the Allied forces and Japan resulted, such as the battles at Singapore, the Coral Sea, Midway and Kokoda.
- The most defining battles for Australian forces were those fought during the Kokoda campaign in Papua New Guinea and the bombing of Darwin. Australian men and women were captured and became prisoners of war in Japanese war camps. There they suffered terrible physical and mental atrocities, undertaking hard labour with poor nutrition.
- Life on the homefront in Australia was dominated by the loss of family members and friends in active combat, changes to the traditional roles of women (through opportunities such as the Australian Women's Land Army), rationing, the Austerity Campaign and the impact of US servicemen based in Australia.
- The war in the Asia-Pacific ended on 15 August 1945 after the Japanese Government surrendered. The catalyst for this was the two atomic bombs dropped by the United States on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, on 6 and 9 August respectively.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1 What was the name of the ideology behind Hitler's Nazi Party in Germany?

A communism
B expansionism
C fascism
D capitalism

2 Which country was most negatively impacted by Hitler's Nazi regime?

A Poland
B France
C Britain
D Italy

3 Who was Australia's Prime Minister during the war from 1941?

A Winston Churchill
B John Curtin
C Robert Menzies
D Ben Chifley

4 Which of these battles is considered to be Japan's greatest victory in the Asia-Pacific?

A Coral Sea
B Midway
C Kokoda
D Singapore

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5 What was the name of the campaign on the Australian homefront to encourage support for the war effort?

A Women's Land Army

B Austerity

C Rationing

D Squander bug

Short answer

1 Identify the main causes and events of the war in Europe.

2 Identify the main causes and events of the war in the Asia-Pacific.

3 What was the impact of the war on the Australian homefront?

4 What was the significance of the war on Australia's international relationships after the war?

Source analysis

Study Source 2.61 and answer the following questions.

1 Describe the physical conditions that this soldier was fighting in.

2 List three emotions that this soldier might have been feeling at this moment.

3 Use the knowledge that you have learnt from this chapter to summarise the Kokoda campaign in 200 words.

4 What are the best ways to keep remembering, 70 years later, the sacrifices that Australian servicemen and women played in the war?

5 Imagine that you are this soldier. Write a diary entry about what had happened before this photo was taken and how you ended up sitting on the edge of the track with your head in your hands. Are you injured? Are you sad? You will need to use your historical knowledge from this chapter and your answers to Questions 1, 2 and 3 to make your diary entry realistic.



Source 2.61 An Australian soldier on the Kokoda Track

Extended response

There are no winners in war.

Discuss the extent to which you believe this statement is true. In your answer, use specific examples from the active warfronts and also from the experiences of people on the homefront.

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DEPTH STUDY 2

Rights and freedoms



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3



Rights and freedoms (1945–present)

Source 3.1 South Australian Aborigines receiving land rights in 1981

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Before you start

Main focus

Human rights and freedoms are essential to social well-being. They are usually won through some form of historical struggle.

Why it's relevant today

It is important to understand how the rights and freedoms that we possess have been gained for us. It also helps us to learn where this struggle for rights still needs to be fought.

Inquiry questions

- How was the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights created?
- What were the key events of the US Civil Rights Movement?
- How did Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples' struggle for rights and freedoms develop in Australia?
- What have been the major turning points in that struggle?

Key terms

- assimilation
- human rights
- Jim Crow era/laws
- segregation
- self-determination

Significant individuals

- Herbert Vere Evatt
- Martin Luther King Jr
- Charles Perkins
- Eddie Koiki Mabo
- Oodgeroo Noonuccal

Let's begin

The fight for human rights has a long history, but the idea of *universal* rights is a much more recent one. Since World War II, the United Nations has developed important agreements that define the basic standards for rights and freedoms across the world. During roughly the same period, African-Americans in the United States have fought for and won significant civil rights victories. In Australia, building on demands made since early colonial times, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander groups have also waged long campaigns for civil, industrial, cultural heritage and land rights, making advances at local, state and federal levels.



Source 3.2 A banner in a parade demonstrating for reconciliation in Australia, 2001



Source 3.3 The United Nations, Geneva



Source 3.4 A civil rights demonstration in Washington, DC, 1963



Source 3.5 The office of the Aboriginal Tent Embassy, Canberra, 2008

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Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
First Aboriginal rights organisations formed **1920s–30s**	
1930	
Official policy of assimilation of Aboriginal people **1937**	
First Day of Mourning and Protest **1938**	
Pilbara Aboriginal Pastoral Strike **1946**	**1945** World War II ends and United Nations Charter is written
Protests against Woomera Rocket Tests	
Universal Declaration of Human Rights **1948**	**1948** United Nations Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide
	1949 Geneva Convention
1950	
Policy of assimilation of non-British migrants **1951**	
Aboriginal protests against atomic **1953–63** testing at Emu/Maralinga sites	**1954–5** US Supreme Court ends racially segregated education
Montgomery Bus Boycott (US) begins **1955**	
US Civil Rights Movement begins	
Palm Island Strike, Queensland **1957**	
1960	
Indigenous people gain right to vote in federal elections **1962**	
Australian student Freedom Rides **1965**	**1963** US President John F. Kennedy is assassinated
Wattie Creek land rights battle begins **1966**	
Constitutional referendum includes Indigenous **1967** people in national census and gives Federal Government the power to make laws for Indigenous people	**1968** Martin Luther King Jr is assassinated
	1969 UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
1970	
Aboriginal Tent Embassy established **1972**	
UN Covenants on Civil and Political Rights **1976**	
and on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights	
1980	
Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody **1987**	**1981** UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
1990	
High Court's Mabo decision **1992**	**1990** UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
Bringing Them Home report **1997**	
2000	
Corroboree 2000, Sydney Opera House **2000**	**2007** UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples
Official national apology to **2008** members of the Stolen Generations	**2009** Australia endorses UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples
	2010 UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

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Source 3.6 A map of the main developments of civil rights in the United States

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Origins of human rights

What are human rights?

Human rights are the rights and freedoms to which all humans are entitled, regardless of their race, sex, class, language or religion. They are regarded as the birthright of all human beings, available equally and universally. As such, they cannot be overridden or negated by laws, governments or nation states. Human rights are regarded as essential in creating the conditions for human happiness and well-being.

The term 'human rights' was first used in 1831 by American journalist and anti-slavery activist William Lloyd Garrison in his newspaper, *The Liberator*. Garrison wrote of the fight against the enslavement of African-Americans as being part of the 'the great cause of human rights'. Following the abolition of American slavery in 1865, Garrison went on to champion women's **suffrage** and the rights of Native Americans.

suffrage the right to vote in political elections

Yet the struggle for, and recognition of, human rights has a far longer history. We can trace the concept of human rights as far back as 538 BCE, when Cyrus the Great, after conquering Babylon in Persia (present-day Iraq), freed all its slaves and introduced religious toleration. The Hindu **Vedas**, the Confucian **Analects**, the Christian Bible and Islamic **Qur'an** all pay attention to the duties, rights and responsibilities of people towards their fellow humans. Within the Americas, the **Inca and Aztec Codes** as well as the **Iroquois Constitution** do likewise.

Vedas the most ancient and sacred literature of the Hindu religion

Analects a Chinese collection of short literary and philosophical extracts, derived from the conversations of Confucius

Qur'an (or Koran) the holy book of Islam

In the West, the English *Magna Carta* of 1215 was composed as a rebel charter of liberties against a tyrannical crown; while the German Peasants' War produced the *Twelve Articles* in 1525 – the first record of human rights in Europe. These were followed by the English Parliament's Petition of Right against **arbitrary** imprisonment in 1628 and the English Bill of Rights and Scottish Claim of Rights in 1689.

Inca and Aztec Codes legal systems of Central Andes and Mexico before Spanish conquest

Iroquois Constitution the Book of the Great Law of the Iroquois Indians of the United States

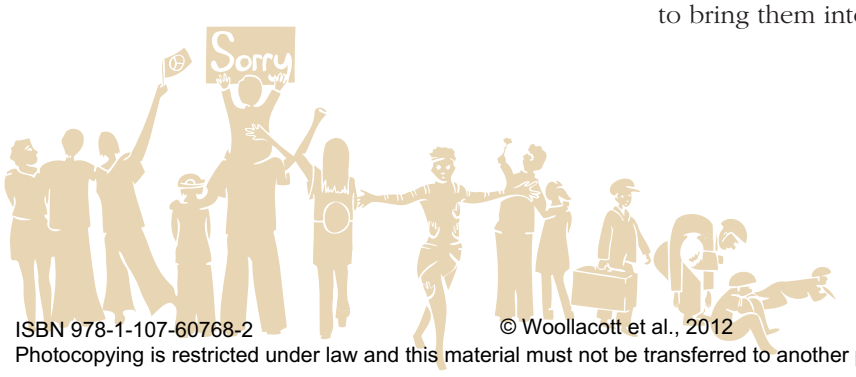
arbitrary without reason

revolution the overthrowing of a government in favour of a new system

During the eighteenth century, two major **revolutions** in America (1776) and France (1789) produced the US Declaration of Independence (promising citizens such 'unalienable' rights as 'Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness') and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (proclaiming liberty of belief, property rights and freedom of expression). American, British and European philosophers, such as Thomas Paine, John Locke, John Stuart Mill, Karl Marx and G.W.F. Hegel pushed forward the boundaries of debate on human rights into the late nineteenth century.

Yet all these advances included limitations. Rights might be offered to one social group, but denied to others. Rights could favour an elite political sector at the expense of others. Rights could be offered to one nation and not to others; to men but not to women; to one race, such as whites, and denied to others, such as African-Americans, Indians or Aborigines; to adults but not to children. This slow, **incremental** advance towards a concept of broad and fundamental human rights occurred through times of struggle, rebellion, revolution and warfare – but it would take the great global conflicts of the twentieth century, and particularly World War II, to bring them into near-universal effect.

incremental increasing by small amounts



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HISTORICAL FACT

While William Lloyd Garrison was campaigning against slavery and for human rights in the United States during the 1830s, in the Australian colonies, reformers such as Edward Smith Hall, James Backhouse, William Walker and William Ullathorne were conducting a parallel struggle for the rights of convicts and an end to convict transportation.



Research 3.1

Investigate one of the following documents to discover the rights that were promoted in it. Also consider the rights that were neglected or opposed.

- The *Magna Carta* (1215)
- The *Twelve Articles* (1525)
- The Petition of Right (1628)
- The Declaration of Independence (1776)
- The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (1789)
- Tom Paine's *The Rights of Man* (1792)

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The twentieth century was the most destructive in human history. Following the terrible devastation of World War I (1914–18), World War II (1939–45) unleashed a second wave of global suffering and death: the aerial bombing of targeted civilian populations; the **displacement** of millions of **refugees**; the ill-treatment of prisoners of war; and, most shockingly, the planned and practised **genocide** of millions of Jews, gypsies, homosexuals, mentally and physically disabled people, trade union leaders and **communists** by the fascist and **Nazi Axis** powers.

In 1941, US President Franklin Roosevelt spoke in his State of the Union address of a post-war world built on four basic human freedoms: freedom of speech, freedom of assembly, freedom from want and freedom from fear. The Geneva Conventions (1864) and the Hague Convention (1900), governing the conduct of warfare and promoting humanitarian law globally, had not prevented the escalating atrocities. The League of Nations – established in 1919 to achieve **disarmament**, international negotiation and collective security – had also failed to curb armed conflict. Therefore, at the Yalta Conference in 1945, the victorious Allied Powers agreed to establish the **United Nations (UN)** to take over from the failed League.

The UN's Charter reaffirmed 'faith in fundamental human rights and the dignity and worth of the human person … without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion'. However, shocked as they were by revelations about the existence of Nazi concentration camps, citizens

displacement the process of being shifted from one's homeland

refugee a person who, due to a well-founded fear of persecution, is outside their country of nationality and is unable or (due to such fear) unwilling to return to that country

genocide full or attempted extermination of a certain ethnic, cultural or religious group

communism the political practice of Marxism in which the state or government controls most of the nation's wealth and private property is restricted

Nazi Axis the right-wing, authoritarian regime formed in 1930s Germany along with its allies (such as Italy and Japan)

disarmament reduction of a state's military forces and weapons

United Nations (UN) an international organisation founded in 1945 to work towards world peace and cooperation

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across the world called for such human rights and freedoms to be more specifically named and codified. Pressure from dozens of non-government organisations in the United States led to the establishment of an 18-member Commission of Human Rights in April 1946, chaired by the former US President's widow, Eleanor Roosevelt, who was well known for her humanitarian and charitable work.

Development of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Between January 1947 and December 1948, the Commission of Human Rights developed the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (the Declaration). Canadian academic John Peters Humphrey was chosen to prepare its first draft – a difficult and delicate task. From this beginning, a second draft was developed by French lawyer and politician René Cassin, who had served in fighting the Nazis in World War II. Cassin is regarded as the principal author of the Declaration.

He imagined the Declaration to be like the **portico** of a Greek temple: its foundation blocks (Articles 1 and 2) declared the principles of 'human dignity, liberty, equality and brotherhood'. The steps into the temple were the seven paragraphs establishing reasons for the document, while its four main columns represented specific types of rights: that is, individual rights (Articles 3–11); civil rights (Articles 12–17); religious and political rights (Articles 18–21); and social, economic and cultural rights (Articles 22–7). The temple's **pediment**, binding the structure together, was the last three articles, outlining social duties and defending the Declaration from outside attack.

portico a roof supported by columns at regular intervals

pediment the triangular front part of a classical building

During 1948, the Declaration was exhaustively debated by the Third Committee of the UN General Assembly at more than 80 meetings. A total of 168 amendments were considered. After this, the 58 Member States of the UN voted approximately 1400 times on every part of the text.

The Declaration was passed close to midnight on 10 December 1948. The great majority of states voted in favour and none voted against, but eight members **abstained** from voting. Of these, six were from the **Soviet Bloc** (which opposed rights of property); the other abstaining members were South Africa (which was in the process of introducing racial **Apartheid**) and Saudi Arabia (which opposed women's equality with men).

abstain to formally decline

Soviet Bloc the eastern and central European communist nations under the political influence of the Soviet Union

Apartheid a system of racial segregation and discrimination in South Africa (1948–94)

Similar to the US Declaration of Independence, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was a momentous statement of global resolve rather than a legally binding treaty. It was the first time that basic rights had been defined for the whole of humanity. You can read the Universal Declaration of Human rights at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

Significance of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The creators of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights were idealistic and optimistic about

HISTORICAL FACT

Article 30 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights suggests that citizens do not automatically owe allegiance to any state that ignores human rights. An individual's obligations to one's fellow human beings take priority over such national loyalties.



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Activity 3.1

1. Why was it considered to be necessary to develop a Universal Declaration of Human Rights?
2. Describe how the Declaration was developed.
3. What rights do the Declaration's 30 articles protect?
4. Why was the Declaration not made to be a legally binding document?

making a better world. Yet they did not fully anticipate the impact of their labours. Though the Declaration did not carry the power of law, its creation was inspirational. It instantly became central to the moral struggle for global rights. Its many outcomes are now part of enforceable international **customary law**.

customary law law based on established practice rather than statute

The Declaration has been translated into more than 360 languages and has laid the foundations for two subsequent **covenants**:

covenant agreement or contract

- the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), prohibiting torture, slavery and incitement to religious or racial hatred
- the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), which demands an adequate standard of living, education and social security for all.

Because these covenants do carry enforceable power, agreement upon them within the global community took much longer to achieve. The covenants were not made legally binding by the United Nations General Assembly until 1976; 28 years after the passing of the Declaration. States that sign the covenants are legally bound by them. The ICCPR and ICESCR, together with the Declaration, comprise the International Bill of Human Rights.

Unfortunately, the Declaration and the covenants do not actually guarantee observation



Source 3.7 Eleanor Roosevelt holding a Spanish language copy of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights

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Research 3.2

Research one of the following treaties, and compile a short report about it.

- The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
- The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination
- The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
- The Convention on the Rights of the Child
- The Declaration on Great Apes

Your report should cover how your chosen covenant, convention or declaration was developed; what it contains; and what the international response to it has been.

of human rights across the world. As the annual reports of organisations such as Amnesty International continue to show, most countries of the world are guilty of human rights violations of some kind. For example, homosexuality remains a criminal offence in 77 countries. The United Nations also sometimes stands accused of inadequate responses to serious atrocities such as those in recent years in Rwanda, Kosovo, Sri Lanka, Chechnya and Burma. There are also calls for more attention to environmental rights and protection, as well as for a 'Right to Refuse to Kill' to be added to the Declaration. Additionally, the Kinshasa Declaration on Great Apes (2005) calls for some rights to be extended beyond the human species. Effective monitoring of rights violations in the twenty-first century remains an important priority.

Australia and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The Australian **delegation** to the United Nations from 1945 played a direct and substantial part in the formulation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This was largely due to the influence of one man, the Australian judge, author and politician, Herbert Vere Evatt.

delegation a group appointed to represent others

Evatt, who was known as 'Bert' or 'Doc', became the youngest justice ever elected to the High Court of Australia in 1930. He served as Attorney-General and Minister for External Affairs in the Curtin and Chifley Labor Governments from 1941 until 1949. Evatt's early life of financial struggle, his legal championing of the underdog and his interest in civil liberties made him an enthusiastic advocate for the United Nations' role in pursuing peace and human rights. Additionally, he personally understood the horrors of war – he had lost two brothers in World War I.



Source 3.8 Herbert 'Doc' Evatt, walking with famous Australian Aboriginal painter Albert Namatjira in the mid-1950s

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HISTORICAL FACT

In 1973, the International Commission of Jurists examined Queensland's *Aborigines Act 1971* and *Torres Strait Islanders Act 1971* and found them to be in violation of 11 of the 30 Articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.



Evatt played an important part in the diplomatic missions of the Allies during World War II. He consequently led the Australian delegation in the formation of the United Nations and the writing of its Charter in 1945. He was particularly attuned to the universal right to full employment and to the interests of smaller nations.

Under Evatt's leadership, Australia became closely involved with the development of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Evatt was keen to make the document a legally binding one, but did not succeed with this aim. When the UN General Assembly adopted the Declaration on 10 December 1948, Evatt was its President, a position he held during 1948 and 1949. To date, he is the only Australian to have held this position.

Evatt was the most enthusiastic member of the Australian delegation in support of human rights. Under his watch, the 1948 Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide and the 1949 Geneva Convention were also passed. Additionally, in 1947, Australia became the first nation to offer peacekeepers to other countries under a UN mandate, when Australian military observers were sent to Indonesia during its struggle for independence from the Dutch.

Following Evatt's withdrawal from the international scene after Labor lost the federal election in December 1949, Australia's commitment to the promotion of human rights waned during the 1950s and 1960s. The continuation of the **White Australia Policy** – which restricted immigration on the basis of race – and the discriminatory treatment of Aborigines in Australia placed it at odds with parts of the Declaration and its subsequent conventions. Australian politicians and civil servants placed more emphasis on responsibilities within the British Commonwealth and the nation's relations with the United States than with its role inside the UN.

White Australia Policy a racist policy introduced in Australia from 1901, designed to intentionally restrict 'non-white' immigration to Australia; it was finally abolished in the 1970s

Australia was slow to **ratify** the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, abstaining on or voting against some of its provisions in 1966, and not ratifying it until 1980. It is still not enforceable domestically. Instead, the Australian Human Rights Commission merely *suggests* remedial amendments to local legislation. Furthermore, Australia remains the only advanced Western nation that does not possess its own **Bill of Rights**.

Although Australia has now ratified most of the UN's human rights covenants and has recently expressed a commitment of support for the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People, it continues to attract criticism for the condition and prospects of its own indigenous peoples, particularly in terms of the Northern Territory Intervention, which overrode the *Racial Discrimination Act 1975*. Other contentious issues involve Australia's treatment of **asylum seekers** and refugees, particularly regarding **off-shore processing**, the '**Pacific Solution**', the '**Malaysia Solution**' and the **mandatory detention** of children.

ratify to confirm by formal signature

Bill of Rights official statement of a people's rights and freedoms

asylum seeker a person who has fled their own country and applies to the government of another country for protection as a refugee

off-shore processing a system of processing and detaining asylum seekers (who reach Australian territory) in offshore locations, such as Christmas Island

Pacific Solution an Australian Government policy between 2001 and 2007 of transporting asylum seekers (who reach Australian territory) to Pacific Island nations such as Nauru and Manus Island for detention and processing

Malaysia Solution a proposed Australian Government policy to transport asylum seekers (who reach Australian territory) to Malaysia for detention and processing

mandatory detention an Australian Government policy whereby all people thought to have entered the country illegally are compulsorily detained

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The US Civil Rights Movement

Origins

In 1892, an African-American shoemaker, Homer Plessy, refused to leave his seat in a racially segregated train carriage in New Orleans. This led in 1896 to the US Supreme Court's fateful decision in the case of *Plessy vs Ferguson*, which held that racially segregated public spaces were legal upon the principle of '**separate but equal**'. This was despite the Fourteenth Amendment to the US Constitution, introduced following the **American Civil War** and the ending of slavery, which guaranteed all African-Americans citizenship and equal protection under the law.

separate but equal a concept where facilities were divided but supposedly equal in quality (usually they were not)

American Civil War a war between the Northern (Union) states and the Southern (Confederate) states of the United States, fought between 1861 and 1865 and won by the North

This, along with the *Berea College vs Kentucky* decision of 1908, which upheld the racial segregation of schools, ushered in what is known as the **Jim Crow** era in the American South. During this time, African-Americans were reduced to the status of second-class citizens under state law. They were assigned separate (but not equal) places in all public facilities including hotels, theatres, restaurants, libraries, schools and restrooms, as well as being denied voting and other legal rights. Throughout the United States, they faced heightened discrimination in housing, education and employment; they were racially **vilified** across white culture and their oppression was reinforced by police abuse and campaigns of violence and terror, including destructive riots, cross-burnings and **lynchings**. Between 1882 and 1930, 3386 African-Americans, mostly males, are known to have been lynched by white mobs. No whites were criminally charged in any of these cases.

Jim Crow a policy of racial segregation and discrimination against African-Americans, named after a stage dance of the 1840s

vilify to verbally attack

lynching an illegal killing by a mob, usually by hanging and/or burning

Following white rioting and lynchings in the African-American sector of Springfield, Illinois, in August 1908, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) was formed by white liberals and African-American activists to press for racial justice. Its leading African-American spokesperson was the Harvard intellectual W.E.B. Dubois, who ran the NAACP's official journal, *The Crisis*. The association waged long campaigns and court battles against racial segregation and lynching, and its membership grew to nearly half a million by 1946.

The NAACP was successful in fighting African-American voter discrimination in Oklahoma in 1915. In the same year, it mounted a forceful **picketing** campaign against the epic, racist film, *Birth of a Nation* (which glorified the white terrorist organisation, the Ku Klux Klan). After a threatened march on Washington, the NAACP also convinced President Roosevelt to establish the Fair Employment Practices Committee in 1941 to make thousands of jobs available to African-Americans, especially in the armed services. The long campaign against lynching, however, failed to achieve a federal ban, due to opposition from white **Southern Democrats**.

picketing a group protest outside a workplace to disrupt business or work

Southern Democrats Democratic politicians representing the Southern segregation states of the United States

The NAACP's greatest success was in winning the *Brown vs Board of Education of Topeka* case in the US Supreme Court in May 1954. The action, begun in 1951 by African-American high school students in Virginia, led to the unanimous legal decision that separate educational facilities were 'inherently unequal' and psychologically damaging to African-American children. This case is considered by many American legal scholars to be the most significant in the twentieth century. It found that racial segregation, in **conferring** a 'badge of inferiority' upon African-Americans, had no valid purpose in a just society and was therefore unconstitutional. The 1896 *Plessy vs Ferguson* ruling was thereby overturned and the major Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s began.

conferring giving to, bestowing upon

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HISTORICAL FACT

Under US Jim Crow laws, African-Americans had to use separate drinking fountains and taxis from white people. They also had to swear on separate Bibles in court and to be buried in separate cemeteries in the American South. Park signs read: 'Negroes and dogs not allowed'.



Times gone by ...

> Now there isn't any more hang-dog looking at a white man. We face him. We've got a proud look. The Supreme Court brought us one thing we needed: hope. For a long time it seemed as if the only way we'd ever have justice was to die and go to Heaven. But suddenly, back in 1954, it began to look like there might be a way-station on the road to Heaven. The Court had given us a place to find justice, now.

Source 3.9 African-American James Stokely comments on the *Brown vs Board of Education* ruling (1954)

1 Why did the *Brown vs Board of Education* ruling give hope to African-Americans?

2 After the ruling, did African-Americans gain equal civil rights throughout the United States?

The Movement: 1955–68

In December 1955, an African-American seamstress and civil rights activist named Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat to a white man on a racially segregated bus in Montgomery, Alabama. Four days earlier, she had attended a meeting at the local Baptist Church, where a young Reverend Martin Luther King Jr and others spoke of the recent racial murder of a 14-year-old African-American teenager named Emmett Till. While visiting Mississippi from Chicago in the North, Till had accepted a dare to touch and proposition a white female. For this, he was tortured, mutilated and shot by a mob of white men. Though his killers admitted to abducting him, they had been acquitted in September 1955 by an all-white jury. Parks later stated that she was thinking about Emmett Till when she refused to give up her bus seat.

Parks' action and subsequent arrest led to the Montgomery Bus Boycott, which was organised by King and the NAACP. Approximately 42000 African-American citizens united in solidarity, refusing to use the bus service until seating was de-segregated. The protest continued for 381 days and almost bankrupted the city before success was achieved.

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Source 3.10 Leaders of the NAACP – Henry L. Moon, Roy Wilkins, Herbert Hill and Thurgood Marshall – promote their campaign against racial segregation in Mississippi in 1956.

Parks became known as 'the Mother of the Civil Rights Movement', while King, who had employed the tactics of non-violent **civil disobedience** during the campaign, became its leader and global figurehead. By the time he was assassinated in April 1968, he was broadening the fight into an all-out attack on poverty, disadvantage and discrimination against all **marginalised** people, as well as opposition to America's military activity in Vietnam.

civil disobedience peaceful refusal to obey certain laws, or pay taxes and fines

marginalised treated as insignificant

During the 1960s, the movement advanced from seeking legal equality to demanding economic and social equality, peace with justice, and human dignity and respect. For this reason, it is often referred to as the 'Southern Freedom Movement'. Whereas the pre-1955 struggle had mainly used tactics of lobbying governments and taking cases to court, the re-invigorated movement of the 1960s employed activist campaigns of civil resistance and non-violent protest.

Mixed groups of Northern white students (many of them Jewish) and Southern African-American activists attempted to de-segregate lunch-counters and churches by staging sit-ins and kneel-ins. They acted to end segregated public transport and rest-rooms by embarking on 'Freedom Rides', where they travelled together on buses through the Southern states to challenge the laws. They also organised massive voter registration drives to overcome the **disenfranchisement** of African-American citizens.

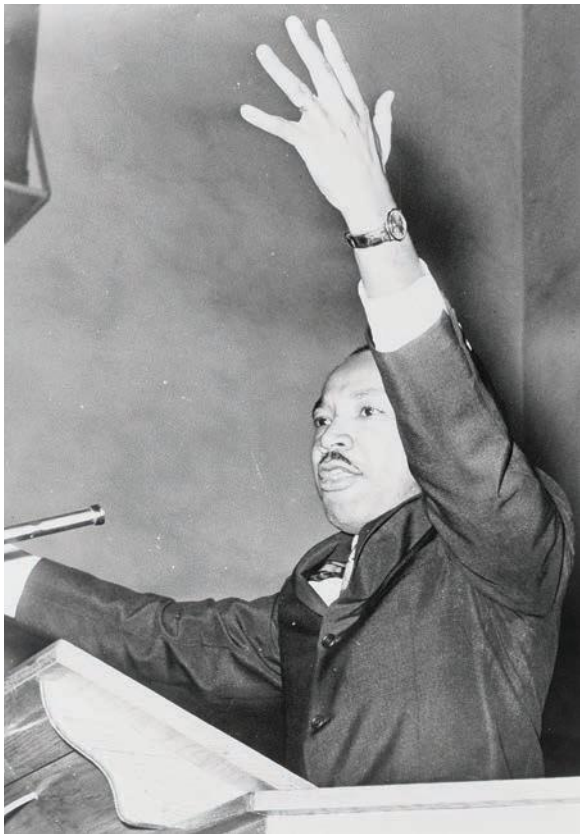
disenfranchise to deprive someone of the right to citizenship or the right to vote

In response, they were met with concerted violence by white supremacists: beatings, killings and mass imprisonments. Lone African-American students faced rioting

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Activity **3.2**

1. Imagine that you are a student visiting a newly de-segregated university campus for the first time. Write a paragraph describing your experience.
2. Account for the success of the Montgomery Bus Boycott.
3. Why do you think President Kennedy was initially reluctant to use federal troops to intervene in the civil rights riots?
4. As a class or individually, discuss the differences between legal and social equality.



Source 3.11 Martin Luther King Jr delivers an uplifting address to his followers at a freedom rally in Washington in 1962.

mobs when trying to attend formerly segregated high schools, colleges and universities. In Birmingham, Alabama, during May 1963, thousands of African-American high school students organised a 'Children's Crusade' to de-segregate stores and businesses. They were met by police, who unleashed savage dogs on them and knocked them down with powerful fire-hoses. Hundreds of the activists were jailed. Four African-American girls, aged 11 and 14, were killed in a subsequent bombing of a Baptist Church in Birmingham in September that year – the church had been a meeting place for civil rights activists.

The contrast between the non-violent African-American protests and vicious white reactions outraged a wide audience as it was broadcast over national television and around the globe. US President John F. Kennedy, largely prompted by his brother, Attorney-General Robert Kennedy, accelerated federal intervention, sometimes using troops. Following President Kennedy's assassination in November 1963, his successor, Lyndon Baines Johnson, pushed ahead with the *Civil Rights Act* (1964), outlawing discrimination in public accommodation and employment,

HISTORICAL FACT

On 4 April 1968, Martin Luther King Jr was assassinated on the balcony of a motel in Memphis, Tennessee. Following the assassination, race riots erupted in more than 100 US cities and towns.

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as well as the *Voting Rights Act* (1965), which resulted in a doubling of African-American voter registrations, and the *Fair Housing Act* (1968), banning racial discrimination in the sale and rent of homes.

Australia's reaction to the US Civil Rights Movement

Holocaust a word derived from the Greek, meaning 'completely burnt'; refers to the extermination of Jews in Europe during World War II

de-Nazification the ending of Nazi policies and systems by victorious Allies after World War II

de-colonisation the freeing of colonies formally controlled by Western powers

The period following World War II and the **Holocaust** was a time for confronting racism and oppressive policies generally, and the US Civil Rights Movement resounded powerfully around the world. **De-Nazification** in Germany and **de-colonisation** across the former British and European colonial empires in Asia and Africa were matched by domestic de-segregation movements across the globe, wherever discriminatory practices existed.

Racial segregation was still widely employed at this time by Australian authorities. For example, in Papua New Guinea, which was under Australian colonial rule, a system of social, cultural and economic segregation had prevailed since before World War I. It was identical to (and in some instances more severe than) the Jim Crow policy and laws in the US South. There were separate entrances for indigenous people and whites at public entertainment venues and public facilities. Public parks, swimming pools, beaches and hotels were for whites only. Indigenous people were also under evening curfew and forbidden to wear clothing on the upper part of their bodies. They were to leave the footpath whenever a white person was passing, and flogging of Indigenous people was widespread. Sexual relations between the races were highly regulated and intermarriage was forbidden well into the 1960s.

Within Australia, too, Aboriginal peoples had come under tight regulatory controls that denied them most human rights. As in Papua New Guinea, their situation was often more oppressive than that of African-Americans. In many places, they suffered from segregation practices in clubs and cinemas, swimming baths, public transport and sometimes even schools and hospitals – especially in rural areas. They also experienced residential segregation and were sometimes confined within urban **ghettoes**, such as at Redfern in Sydney. Many were forcibly removed from their lands and placed on distant reserves and missions, where virtually all their basic human rights, such as freedom of movement, labour rights, custodial rights over children, legal rights and property rights, were taken away.

ghetto an inner-city area, occupied mainly by one minority group

Aborigines in many remote regions, particularly in the northern parts of Australia, came directly into contact with African-Americans who served in the US military depots there during World War II. More African-American troops served in Australia than elsewhere. Aboriginal peoples were drawn to the African-American soldiers due to their common experience of racism. They learned of their parallel struggles, and the Aborigines learned of the campaigns and successes of the NAACP in the United States. This showed the Australians that movements were occurring, with some success, in other parts of the world.

The rise of direct action in the American South after 1955 was widely reported in the Australian press, on radio and by the new medium of television. It inspired young activists, particularly university students, to emulate the methods of non-violent civil disobedience that the Civil Rights Movement employed. This was first used in the demonstrations mounted by the Association of Immigration Reform and Student Action against the 1958 *Migration Act*, which had extended the life of the White Australia Policy. It would also be used in the youth campaigns against the Vietnam War and military **conscription**.

conscription the process of mandatory participation in war

Inspired by the 'Freedom Rides' of the US Civil Rights Movement, in early 1965 students from Sydney University embarked on their own 'Freedom Ride' to de-segregate racist facilities in several New South Wales rural towns. They were tutored on the tactics

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of civil disobedience by a former US civil rights activist; and, as their bus left Sydney, a visiting group of African-American gospel performers sang the civil rights anthem, *We Shall Overcome*.

By the following year, word of African-American unrest in the United States had spread across the Northern Territory cattle stations. The Council for Aboriginal Rights demanded equal pay for equal work, improved accommodation, basic human respect for Aboriginal workers and an end to racist language. This campaign led to a walk-out by the Gurindji people from the vast Wave Hill and Newcastle Waters cattle stations, and a sit-down (rather than a 'sit-in') at Wattie Creek (Daguragu). A new phase in Australia's civil and land rights struggle had begun.



Source 3.12 US civil rights demonstrators leading the Selma-to-Montgomery march in Alabama in 1965; images such as this had an enormous impact on civil rights and anti-war activists in Australia.

Activity **3.3**

1. In what ways did Australian society and local or state governments adopt racial segregation as a policy or practice into the 1960s?
2. How did African-Americans and Australian Aborigines meet and interact during World War II?
3. Identify the ways in which the US Civil Rights Movement impacted on Australian history during the 1960s.

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Indigenous rights and freedoms in Australia to 1965

The early years

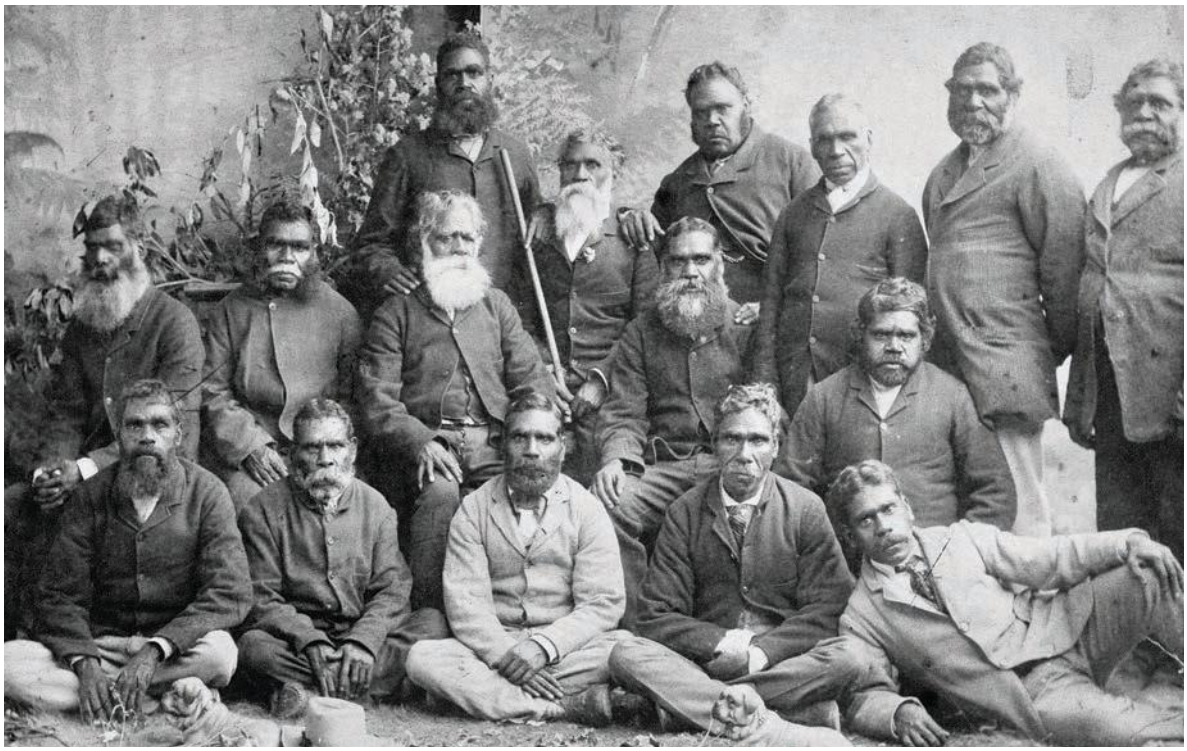
From the earliest times of European contact, Aboriginal people have fought back against the invasion of their **sovereignty** and the taking of their territories. In the years immediately following British colonisation, violent resistance was the original form of Aboriginal protest and assertion of rights. Because Aboriginal cultures are oral, there is no written Indigenous, contemporary account of such activities, nor of the high price that was often paid in battles. We know the names of various prominent Indigenous resistance leaders and elders – such as Pemulwuy of Botany Bay, Walyer of Emu Bay, Yagan of the Swan River, Dundalli of Moreton Bay, Bussamarai of the Maranoa, Kebisu of the Torres Strait and Jandamarra of the Kimberley – but we mainly learn only part of their story through white viewpoints and documents.

sovereignty self-government

Yet, from relatively early times, Aborigines also began forms of non-violent protest against their **dispossession**, using the words of Europeans through the means of hand-written letters and petitions. Among the earliest examples are the written words of Tasmanian Aborigines protesting against their treatment on Flinders Island in Bass Strait, after they were sent there from the Tasmanian mainland in the 1830s. Small minorities of Aboriginal survivors of the disease epidemics and frontier conflicts were often gathered onto reserves and missions. Here their protests continued. At Poonindie mission, near Port Lincoln in South Australia, Aboriginal residents petitioned against their displacement in the 1890s from land they had cultivated for decades. Similar petitions came from Point Pearce and Point McLeay, further to the east.

dispossession taking a people's land or dislodging and removing them from their territory

During the previous two decades, at Coranderrk (near Healesville) in Victoria, deputations of the Kulin people undertook long walks into Melbourne



Source 3.13 Kulin Aboriginal elders at Coranderrk Reserve in Victoria, who led what was probably the first sustained political campaign by Aboriginal people in the 1880s

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to petition for their rights as agriculturalists. Led by William Barak, Robert Wandin, Tom Dunnolly and others, they also staged strikes and gave press interviews. They succeeded in making their settlement self-supporting until they were forcibly resettled at Lake Tyers in 1923. The fact that the Coranderrk community was able to support itself for so long is particularly impressive because the Victorian *Aborigines Act* of 1886 forced many part-Aborigines off the mission, depriving Coranderrk of a large part of its workforce.

In south-western New South Wales in 1888, the Aboriginal residents of Maloga (near Echuca) staged a walk-out against oppressive missionary control and formed a new settlement at nearby Cummeragunja (meaning 'my country'), which, by 1909, was a thriving wheat-farming village of 300 people on the Murray River. In Queensland, state control over Aborigines was more severe and the denial of rights more thorough. Nevertheless, those confined on reserves there did manage to mount small, courageous protests. In 1902, for example, teenage female domestic servants threatened to 'walk out of our places' if they continued to be ill-treated and have their wages taken by the state. In 1916, Aboriginal workers at Taroom reserve (inland from Rockhampton) staged a sit-down strike for cash wages led by Jerry Jerome, Australia's first champion Aboriginal boxer. It was heavily suppressed.

The inter-war years

Originally, Aboriginal protests were localised – they were narrowly focused in specific areas. Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders identified themselves according to their membership of one or another of 600–700 'First Nation' peoples, whose individual territories spread across the Australian mainland, Tasmania and the Torres Strait. There was no sense of an 'Australia-wide Aboriginality'.

Furthermore, as the frontier spread, different regions found themselves at different stages in the contact process: for example, Aborigines in parts of New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia were farming for survival and trying to hold onto their small plots of land at the same time as those in parts of Queensland, the Northern Territory and Western Australia were still engaged in physically resisting British settlement. Simultaneously, small

Activity **3.4**

1 Choose one of the following Aboriginal leaders and prepare an oral presentation (or PowerPoint presentation) on their lives:
   - Pemulwuy
   - Yagan
   - Walyer
   - Dundalli

2 We know of early resistance to European invasion mostly from white sources. What impact do you think this has on our perception of these events?

HISTORICAL FACT

Aborigines began applying for grants of land as early as the 1830s in South Australia, the 1850s in Victoria and the 1870s in Queensland.



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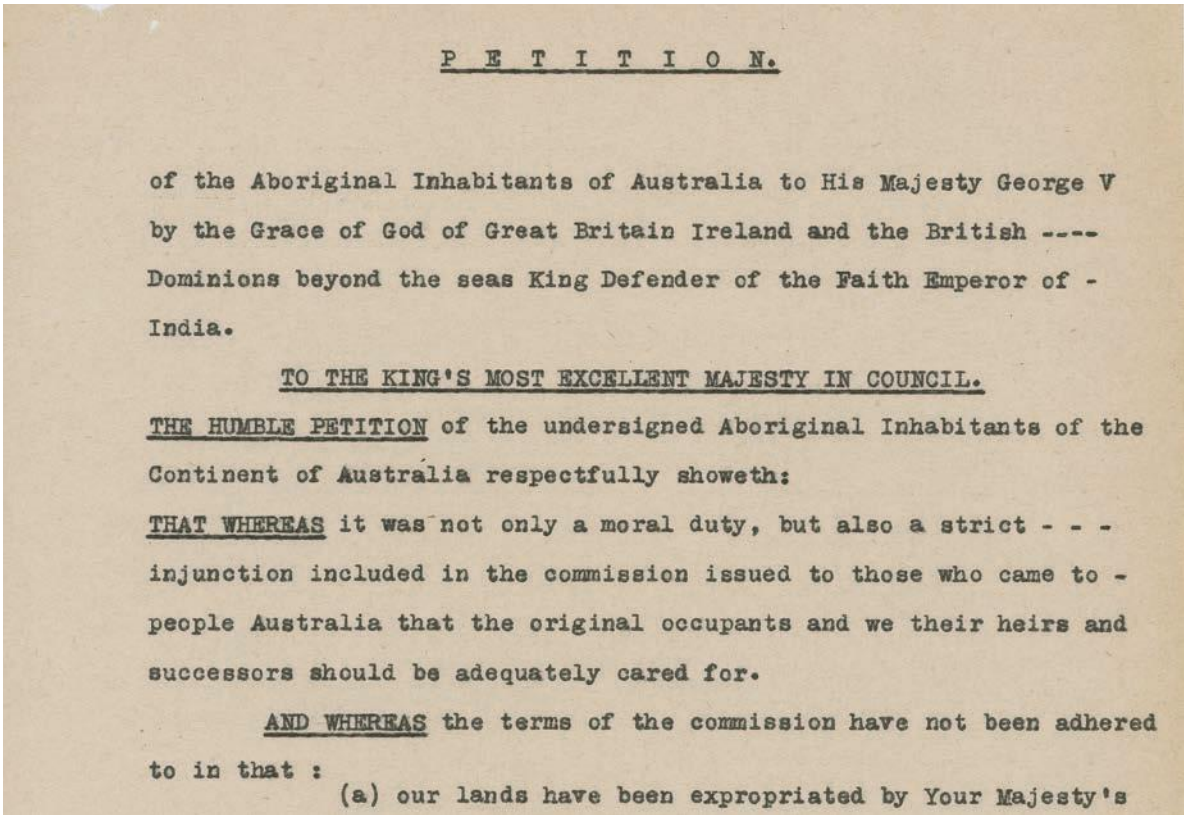
numbers from Tasmania were largely surviving on the Bass Strait Islands, while those in the Torres Strait were coming under mission control and working in the pearling and fishing industries. There was no single or uniform experience of endurance and resistance until the long frontier period began closing right across Australia in the 1920s.

The first known Aboriginal political organisation was the Australian Aborigines Progressive Association (AAPA), founded on the New South Wales central coast (around Kempsey) in 1925 by Fred Maynard, a 'live-wire' ex-stockman and waterside worker who had already been a Sydney industrial activist since World War I. Maynard was strongly influenced by the Universal Negro Improvement Association, formed by West Indian 'black power' activist Marcus Garvey in the United States. The AAPA pushed for Aboriginal self-control, for family life to be 'held sacred', for children to be left in the care of their parents and for an end to racial segregation of New South Wales schools.

In Western Australia, Aboriginal farmer William Harris and his nephew Norman began a Native Union that protested against the imprisonment of Aborigines at Moore River (Mogumber) reserve, as well as the continuing frontier massacres in the north-west of the state. They led an Aboriginal deputation to the WA Premier in 1928 – the first in Western Australia.

During the 1930s, organisational activity increased. In Melbourne, the Australian Aborigines League (AAL) was founded in 1933 by William Cooper, a Yorta Yorta elder from Cummeragunja. Cooper organised a petition to King George V in Britain against 'Aboriginal extinction' and called for an Aboriginal representative in the Federal Parliament. Two thousand people signed it. While this was occurring, King Burraga (Joe Anderson) of the Thirroul people was organising a similar petition in south-western Sydney.

Then in 1937, William Ferguson, a part-Aboriginal shearer from the Riverina, founded the Aborigines Progressive Association (APA) at Dubbo, calling for full citizenship rights for



P E T I T I O N.

of the Aboriginal Inhabitants of Australia to His Majesty George V by the Grace of God of Great Britain Ireland and the British ---- Dominions beyond the seas King Defender of the Faith Emperor of - India.

TO THE KING'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY IN COUNCIL.

THE HUMBLE PETITION of the undersigned Aboriginal Inhabitants of the Continent of Australia respectfully showeth:

THAT WHEREAS it was not only a moral duty, but also a strict - - - injunction included in the commission issued to those who came to - people Australia that the original occupants and we their heirs and successors should be adequately cared for.

AND WHEREAS the terms of the commission have not been adhered to in that :

(a) our lands have been expropriated by Your Majesty's

Source 3.14 An excerpt from William Cooper's 1933 petition to King George V [NAA: A431, 1947/1591]

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HISTORICAL FACT

William Cooper is best remembered in Australia for establishing National Aborigines' Day in 1940. In Israel, however, 70 commemorative trees have been planted in his honour in the Forest of Martyrs for his support of Jews during World War II. In December 1938, he led an Aboriginal deputation to the German Embassy in Melbourne to protest the Nazi attacks on Jews during *Kristallknacht* ('the Night of Broken Glass'). It was the only private protest, worldwide, against the atrocity. The German Consul refused to meet the deputation.

Indigenous peoples. He was aided by John Patten, an Aboriginal boxer and journalist who established the first Aboriginal newspaper in 1938; and Pearl Gibbs, a passionate activist from Brewarrina, who would become the first Indigenous woman to speak on Australian radio. Ferguson and Patten believed that the way forward for Aborigines was via full **integration** into Australian society, rather than through the segregating controls and '**colour bars**' dominating Aboriginal lives at the time.

integration where a people is able to maintain its own basic culture and have it respected, while living within and respecting the values of another culture

colour bar the denial of services or facilities to non-whites

Day of Mourning and Protest, 1938

On Australia Day 1938, the nation celebrated 150 years of European settlement, development and democracy since the First Fleet's arrival in 1788. Yet this same process of settlement had ignored Aboriginal sovereignty; local development had demolished Aboriginal lands and lives; and Australia's democracy had become a 'whites-only' affair, denying Aborigines basic civil and human rights. For the Aboriginal people, there was nothing to celebrate that day. Rather, they declared it a Day of Mourning, and in Sydney and Melbourne vowed to gather together to register it as an important Day of Protest as well.

During the 1930s, all of the Aborigines' delegations, letters, petitions and demands had fallen on deaf ears. William Cooper's hard-won petition had not been delivered to King George. Thus, in November 1937, Cooper suggested to William Ferguson of the APA that an Aboriginal Congress be held to mark Australia Day for the first time as a 'Day of Mourning and Protest' for all Aboriginal peoples. Jack Patten travelled into the country to deliver posters and handbills to summon participants to Sydney on that day.

The New South Wales authorities had decided to re-enact their own version of the First Fleet landing to celebrate Australia Day. There were to be no convicts in evidence, for they were considered shameful. When Sydney Aborigines refused to take part, the organisers attempted to

Activity **3.5**

1. Identify some of the stages in the 'contact process'.
2. What did 'First Nation' people gain by identifying themselves as 'Aboriginal'? What did they lose (if anything)?
3. Assess the reason for the growth of political activity in support of civil rights for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people during the 1930s.

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recruit a group of Palm Islanders from Queensland, but illness there prevented this. To fill the parts in the re-enactment, 35 Aboriginal men were then rail-roaded in from reserves at Menindie and Brewarrina to act as 'frightened savages' – their job was to run away at the sight of Captain Phillip's sailors and the British flag. Ferguson attempted to have them join the **boycott**, but they were locked away in the horse-stables yard at the Redfern police barracks overnight and Ferguson was unable to contact them. They were threatened with loss of rations if they did not cooperate in the re-enactment.

boycott the act of people coming together to refuse cooperation

The Day of Mourning and Protest Congress was advertised as being for Aboriginal people only, and approximately 1000 attended. The only white faces in evidence were those of two newspaper reporters and two policemen at the back of the hall. The meeting was originally planned for Sydney Town Hall, but use of that venue was refused and the meeting was moved to the Australian Hall in Elizabeth Street. Delegates were told to use the back entrance. During the previous week, participants had arrived from Bateman's Bay, Dubbo, Coonabarabran, Lismore, Nowra and other areas. William Cooper, along with Margaret Tucker, an Aboriginal singer and activist, and Doug Nicholls, a former Australian rules football star and now a lay preacher, arrived by car from Melbourne.

manifesto a public statement of aims and policy

A fortnight earlier, Ferguson and Patten had sent a twelve-page **manifesto** entitled *Aborigines Claim Citizen Rights!* to the Sydney press. It pulled no punches. 'You are New Australians', it stated, 'but we are the Old Australians … You came here only recently, and you took our land away from us by force. You have almost exterminated our people, but there are enough of us remaining to expose the humbug of your claim to be a civilised, progressive, kindly and humane nation'. These were the politics of confrontation. The speeches of the Day of Mourning and Protest continued in a similar fashion. Aborigines had 'refused to be pushed into the background' and, stated Jack



Source 3.15 Aboriginal leaders deliver their addresses at the Day of Mourning and Protest, 26 January 1938. Here John Patten reads the Resolution. Tom Foster (with glass in hand), Jack Kinchela (partly obscured), Doug Nicholls and William Cooper listen on.

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Activity **3.6**

1 Why have many Aborigines seen Australia Day as a day of deep regret?

2 **a** How was the idea for a Day of Mourning and Protest developed?
b How was it organised?

3 In contrast to the Day of Mourning and Protest, how did white citizens mark the 150th anniversary of European settlement?

4 **a** Who were the speakers at the Day of Mourning and Protest Congress, and what did they say?
b What were the outcomes of the event?

Patten, had 'decided to make ourselves heard'. 'We are not chickens – we are eagles,' Doug Nicholls added. A resolution was unanimously passed calling for 'full citizenship status and equality within the community'.

Since 1938, Aborigines and their supporters have continued to mount counter-demonstrations against the white celebration of Australia Day. For example, on Australia Day of 1988, the bicentennial year, more than 50 000 protesters marched in solidarity through Sydney. The Day of Mourning and Protest has now become known as 'Invasion Day' or 'Survival Day'.

Strikes and walk-outs (1936–49)

The Day of Mourning protesters had expressed themselves using strong and forceful words. At the same time, there were other Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander activists who were prepared to match such words with deeds. A year after the Sydney protest, the residents of Cummeragunja reserve on the Murray River went on strike. There had been unrest for some time over bad living conditions and the tyrannical behaviour of white superintendent A.J. McQuiggan, who bashed inmates and withheld food rations as punishment. After Jack Patten, a former resident, visited and gave a rousing speech on Aboriginal rights in February 1939 (for which he was arrested), the Yorta Yorta staged a walk-out from the settlement.

Three years earlier, in January 1936, up to 400 Torres Strait Islanders working in the pearl-shell trade had also gone on strike. They represented 70 per cent of the local workforce in one of the world's richest pearling industries. They demanded control over their own wages, as well as an end to evening curfews and the permit system that controlled their freedom of movement between islands.

The strike began at Murray, Darnley and Stephens Islands among the Meriam people

HISTORICAL FACT

During the Torres Strait strike of 1936, the Badu Island people withdrew their children from the white-run school and, as a symbol of protest, stole and hid the school bell (which weighed almost 14 kilograms). Thirty people were imprisoned for the offence.

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Source 3.16 Molly and Munda Woodman, members of the Strelley Community in the Pilbara region, in a still from the film *How the West Was Lost: The Story of the 1946 Aboriginal Pastoral Workers Strike*. Photo courtesy of the Strelley Community.

and gradually spread westward to Badu, Boigu, Saibai and Yam Islands. When police confiscated the Islanders' boats, they simply responded, 'Take them. We lived here before the boats came'. On some islands, the strike lasted for more than a year. Murray Islanders never returned to pearl diving. As an outcome, the strikers won most of their demands: the curfew and permit systems were dropped. The white boss was removed and new local councils of Torres Strait Islanders established a greater measure of self-control.

In Western Australia, as World War II ended, Aboriginal stockmen on De Gray Station in the Pilbara region went on strike for better rations. This was followed on May Day 1946 by a general strike of around 700 pastoral workers, domestic servants and hospital workers across 25 cattle stations of the Pilbara, as well as in the towns of Port Hedland and Marble Bar. Among other indignities, Aborigines were paid one-sixth of the white wage by pastoralists, who prevented them from leaving their workplaces. The strikers' demand was for a 30-shillings-per-week ($3.00) minimum wage, plus rations. The organisers of the strikes included white sympathiser Don McLeod; Dooley Bin-Bin, a Nyadamada **Law man**; and Clancy McKenna, a part-Aboriginal contract worker from Port Hedland. They were all arrested, as were dozens of other strikers, as the struggle widened.

Law man an Aboriginal Elder who interprets and enforces Aboriginal Law

Participants chose to use non-violent direct action against police and employer brutality (brutality that included shooting the Aborigines' hunting dogs) as the unrest spread to Carnarvon, Broome and Berrima in the Northern Territory. The Pilbara strikers held out for three years and eventually won a minimum wage of £3 ($6.00) per week – double their original request. Many never returned to paid station work, deciding instead to turn to **wolfram** and tin mining. The large profits made led to the purchase of Yandeyarra Station by 'the Pindan mob' and, later, Strelley Station by the Strelley Aboriginal community. The Pilbara strike was one of the longest and most successful in Australian history.

wolfram tungsten; a hard metal used in electronics and in industry

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Activity **3.7**

1 Why do you think the strikers in the Pilbara region were arrested by police?
2 In groups, role-play the interaction between the Murray Island people and the owners of the pearl diving companies. Reflect on what working life would have been like for the Islanders with evening curfews and restrictions on movement outside of working hours.
3 Analyse why it took the Pilbara strikers more than three years to achieve their demands.

Assimilation and civil rights

Assimilation basically means to absorb and make alike. When the assimilation of Aboriginal people into white society first became official policy in 1937, it was believed that part-Aborigines (known as 'half castes') could be 'made white' by interbreeding with Europeans – that this would result in their gradual biological absorption into mainstream society. Cultural assimilation accompanied this, and involved the removal of Indigenous children from their parents and placing them into 'white spheres of influence' in reserve compounds and mission stations. These children became known as the 'Stolen Generations' or 'Stolen Children' – we will learn more about this later in this chapter.

assimilation to absorb and make alike; the process of cultural absorption

From 1951, cultural assimilation became the official national goal for non-British migrants – many of them refugees – as well as Aborigines. The government seemed to see 'white Australian' society as a single, simplified entity, where everyone was 'the same', with no internal differences and inequalities. This view of 'white Australia' became known as 'the Australian Way of Life', to which all migrants and Aborigines were now expected to conform.

Early Aboriginal organisations had called for the granting of full citizenship rights for their peoples, and for an end to discriminatory practices. At one level, assimilation seemed to promise this. Welfare provisions, such as child endowment, old age and invalid pensions, as well as unemployment and sickness benefits, were slowly being extended to Aborigines who were adopting European ways from the early 1940s. In 1951, Victoria was the first state to end discriminatory legislation against Indigenous peoples.

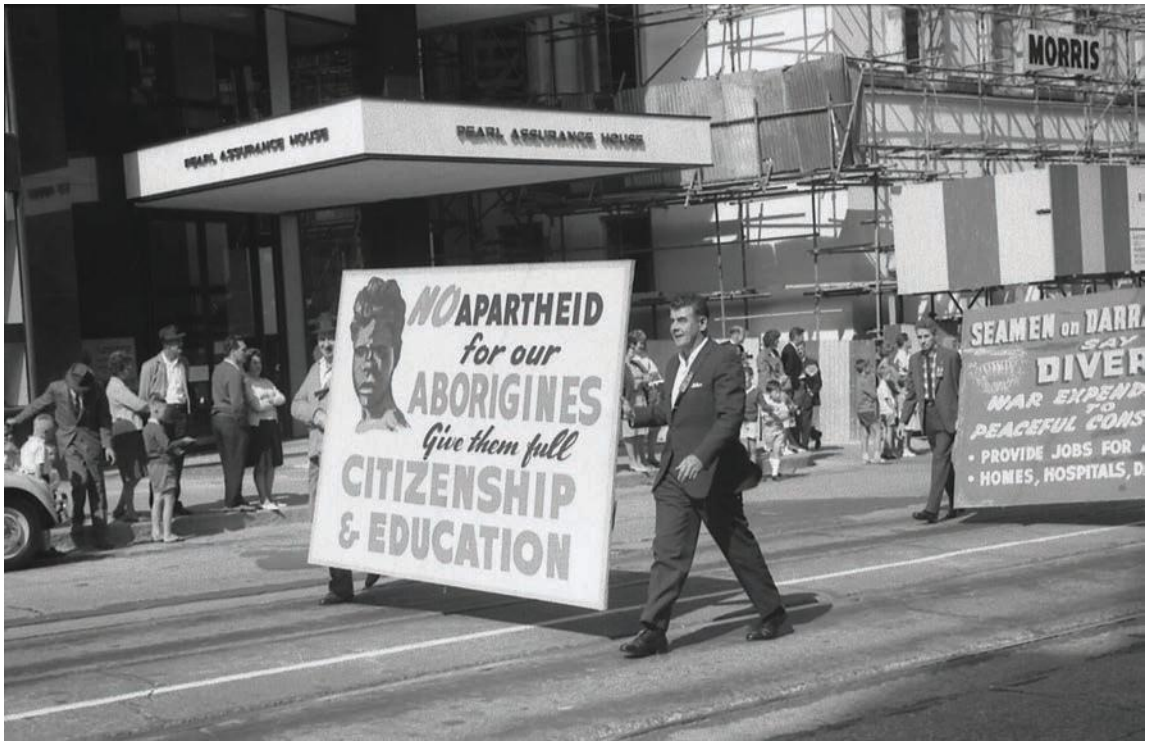
Yet assimilation also implied that Aboriginal ways must now die out, either rapidly or gradually; Indigenous ideas of kin, country and community must be abandoned. Aboriginal culture was seen as expendable, inferior and unnecessary for the future. 'White Australian' culture, by contrast, was presented as essential, superior and durable. All Australians, whatever their origins, were now expected to exhibit the same culture, beliefs and loyalties. Origins would no longer matter.

This presented a terrible dilemma for a people proud of their Aboriginality. In order to obtain the rights and freedoms that others enjoyed, they were expected to abandon, renounce or forget their own traditions and ways of life. It meant turning one's back on one's ancestry and history in order to be just like everyone else.

Activism under assimilation

Aboriginal organisations of the inter-war years (the 1920s and 1930s) had usually been for Aboriginal people only. Their leaders made the major decisions, while 'white sympathisers' had mostly taken a back seat. During the assimilation era of 1950–65, however, whites took a more prominent role in advocating for Indigenous rights, forming organisations such as the Aboriginal-Australian Fellowship (AAF) in New South Wales, the Victorian Aborigines Advancement League (VAAL) and the One People of Australia League (OPAL) in Queensland. The most important of

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Source 3.17 Trade unionists marching for Aboriginal citizenship in the May Day parade, Brisbane, 1966

these organisations was the Federal Council for Aboriginal Advancement (FCAA). As its name implies, it ventured beyond immediate, local concerns and developed a national outlook.

These organisations undertook protest activity against Albert Namatjira's conviction for supplying alcohol to another Aboriginal at Alice Springs in 1958. They also opposed discriminatory legislation in Queensland and the Northern Territory. This widening of activities had begun in 1946–47, when Doug Nicholls of the Australian Aborigines League led a campaign protesting against rocket-launching at Woomera in South Australia across the Central Australian Aboriginal Reserve. This action was extended between 1953 and 1963 against Britain's testing of atomic weapons at Emu/Maralinga, near the abandoned Aboriginal mission of Ooldea in South Australia, and the consequent spread of plutonium dust over a wide expanse of Aboriginal territory.

During the Darwin Aboriginal Workers' strike in 1950–51, the Larrikai strike leader, Fred Waters, was seized by police and **exiled** to Haasts Bluff, an isolated mountain in Central Australia. This prompted angry protests led by Nicholls, which were joined by many white Australian trade unions. The most dramatic Aboriginal strike of this era, however, occurred at Palm Island, off the north Queensland coast near Townsville.

exile to expel one from one's native land

Queensland was the state most resistant to the reform of Aboriginal rights promised by assimilation. Queensland governments would continue enforcing strict discriminatory laws into the 1980s. Its system of segregation had isolated more than 40 per cent of the state's Aboriginal population on 14 missions and government reserves. Of all of these settlements, Palm Island, used as a punishment centre, was the most feared and detested.

In the 1950s it was run by Roy Bartlam, a harsh superintendent who ruled over the Aboriginal 'inmates' with an iron fist. People there were imprisoned for trivial offences, such as laughing after curfew, untidiness, failing to salute Bartlam

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HISTORICAL FACT

Among those expelled from Palm Island after the 1957 strike were the grandparents and mother of Olympic gold medallist Cathy Freeman.



Activity **3.8**

1 Describe the main differences between Aboriginal organisations founded before and after World War II.

2 What impacts did the Woomera rocket tests and the Emu/Maralinga atomic tests have on Aboriginal people in South Australia and Western Australia? (You may need to do some further research.)

3 **a** Explain why the Palm Island people launched a general strike in 1957.
b What was the outcome of this strike?
c Using the internet, research the 2004 death in custody on Palm Island. What does this incident tell you about life for Aborigines on Palm Island today?

4 Explain the differences between assimilation and integration.

or arriving a couple of minutes late for roll-calls. When Bartlam ordered the deportation of Aboriginal leader Albie Geia for 'answering back' in June 1957, the other 1400 residents called a general strike. When even the Island's Aboriginal police joined the strikers, the superintendent understood that he had lost control.

After five days, the uprising was heavily suppressed by squads of mainland police. Many strike leaders were seized and banished to other reserves statewide. Although the Palm Island strike was broken, it drew national media attention once more to the oppressive Queensland system. It also gave Palm Islanders great encouragement in realising they could stand together in defence of their rights and not surrender to fear.

As early as 1958, southern Aboriginal activists were beginning to highlight the downside of assimilation. As Herbert Groves of the FCAA observed, although assimilation promised citizenship and equal status, the price could be 'the disappearance of the Aboriginals', both culturally and physically. 'We feel the word "integration" implies a truer definition of our aims and objects,' he concluded.

Indigenous rights and freedoms in Australia from 1965

The Australian Freedom Rides, 1965

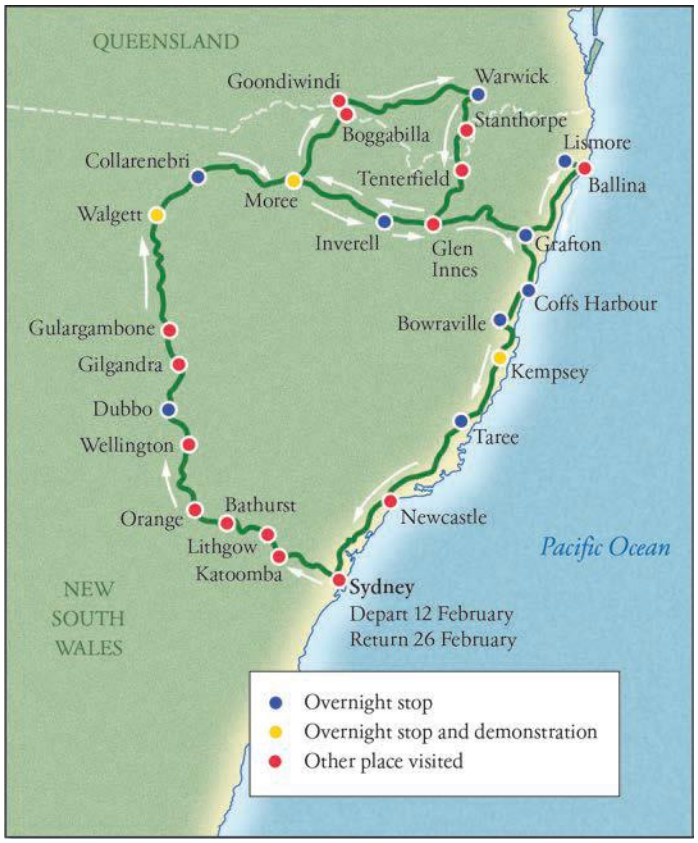
In May 1964, about 2000 university students demonstrated outside the US Consulate in Sydney against racial segregation in the American South. In

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response, commentators and the media questioned what the protesters knew of segregation in their *own* society: what they knew of the **fringe camps**, or of the refusal of clubs, swimming pools, picture theatres, schools, cafes, hotels and other public facilities in Australian country towns either to serve Aborigines or to allow them unrestricted access.

fringe camps Aboriginal campsites, restricted to the margins or fringes of townships and regions

Aboriginal activists had for decades known intimately about the terrible living conditions in fringe camps and the 'colour bars' in the towns. William Ferguson and Jack Kinchela had toured outback reserves and townships in New South Wales as early as February 1939. They reported on shocking conditions at Tuncaster, outside Lismore; at Kempsey, where the hospital and cinema were segregated; and at Moree, which they regarded as 'the worst town in NSW for European prejudice'. Similar 'fact-finding' missions to Walgett and Bega were made by members of the Aboriginal-Australian Fellowship in 1957. The students demonstrating at the US Consulate in 1964, however, had not previously been activists for local concerns, and were prompted to find out more.



Source 3.18 The route taken on the first Australian Freedom Ride, 12–26 February 1965

In February 1965, 34 students set out together on a bus from Sydney University to investigate for themselves the treatment of Indigenous peoples in the main country towns of New South Wales. Their journey was modelled on the US Freedom Rides, and they proposed to use the non-violent, direct action methods of Martin Luther King Jr's followers to attempt to influence segregation where they found it. Their 2300 kilometre journey would take them as far west as Walgett and as far north as Warwick, which was actually in the south of Queensland. They would also visit coastal townships from Ballina to Newcastle on the return journey. All but two of the group of students were white, but they were led by Aboriginal activist Charles Perkins, an **Arrernte** man studying Arts at Sydney University after playing soccer internationally. Perkins was President of Student Action for Aborigines (SAFA). He was vibrant, highly articulate and enraged by the 'ugly picture of prejudice' he had already witnessed at 'notorious trouble-spots' in rural New South Wales. For the others, the ride itself would be a sharp learning curve.

Arrernte Aboriginal nation of the Central Australia/ Alice Springs region

Travelling through several towns including Katoomba, Bathurst and Wellington, the students made an overnight stop at Dubbo before proceeding on to Gulargambone. On the way, the students gathered information on the impoverished life of Indigenous people at such sites as Namina reserve, and on racist behaviour generally. At Walgett, they conducted a picket line, holding **placards** outside the segregated RSL Club, where Aboriginal servicemen were only allowed inside on Anzac Day. A partly curious, partly hostile crowd gathered, as some young local Aborigines joined the protesters. After being evicted that night from the church hall, the freedom riders found their bus being run off the road by a truck driven by hostile white townspeople. Angry confrontations resulted. The incidents were featured in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, gaining widespread national attention.

placard a sign or poster

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HISTORICAL FACT

In 2005, students from Central Coast High School in New South Wales re-traced the steps of the 1965 freedom riders, revisiting 13 communities to encourage debate on reconciliation. They found that racial discrimination and sub-standard housing still existed in many areas.

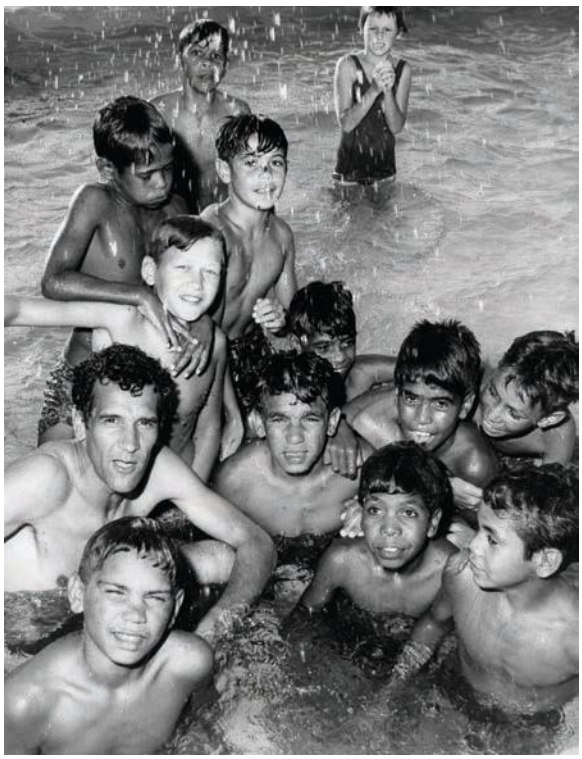
Activity **3.9**

1. Retrace the steps of the 1965 Freedom Ride on the map in Source 3.18, noting activities in the various centres visited.
2. Develop a class debate on the benefits or otherwise of the Freedom Ride campaign.
3. Can you name any present-day campaigns combating racial or cultural prejudice? What effect are these campaigns having?

At the town of Moree, the protesters were beaten and pelted with eggs and other rubbish by a large white mob as they tried to de-segregate the swimming pool. The hospital, memorial hall, hotels, taxi service and even the cemetery were similarly segregated in Moree. The towns of Boggabilla and Bowraville were also found to be 'riddled with prejudice'. The protesters picketed the pool at Kempsey, leading to its de-segregation within weeks, in early March.

Opinion was divided over whether the students had conducted a positive publicity campaign, or merely acted as 'troublemakers'. A barrage of national and international attention, however, had been drawn to a set of serious, ongoing problems, and Charles Perkins had emerged as a leading Aboriginal spokesperson.

Later, smaller Freedom Rides were made to Coonamble, Dareton, Boggabilla, Walgett, Wee Waa, Moree and Bowraville, encouraging local Aborigines to begin mounting their own civil rights campaigns to de-segregate cinemas, shops and hotels, and to continue to fight for more humane living conditions.



Source 3.19 Charles Perkins with Aboriginal youths swimming at the segregated Moree swimming pool c. 1965

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The 1967 Referendum

The Federal Referendum of 27 May 1967 was a turning point in the development of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander civil rights. It is still widely believed that the purpose of this referendum was to provide Aborigines with the right to vote in Australian elections. This is incorrect. That right had been granted by the Menzies Coalition Government in 1962, though Queensland did not extend it to state elections until 1965. It is also not the case that the Referendum granted Aborigines either citizenship or equal rights. Commonwealth welfare benefits had actually been extended to Aborigines in 1966. Many of the discriminatory laws affecting Aborigines had also been **repealed**, again with the exception of Queensland; and this state would continue to discriminate officially against Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders long after the Referendum was passed. Aborigines had also been nominally made Australian citizens, along with everyone else born in the nation, in 1949, though fundamental rights were still denied them in certain areas of Australia. Aboriginal activists hoped the Referendum would help to rectify this.

repeal to remove a law

The Referendum in fact proposed two significant changes. The first was that Aborigines were finally to be included in the national census. This meant deleting *Section 127* of the **Australian Constitution**, which was titled 'Aborigines not to be counted in reckoning population'. This section of the constitution had been originally introduced in 1901 to ensure that Queensland and Western Australia did not use their large Aboriginal populations to gain either extra seats in Federal Parliament or larger commonwealth grants than other states. It also reflected the fact that, at Federation in 1901, Aborigines were disqualified from voting, except in South Australia. The European settlers also widely believed that Aborigines were doomed to extinction. They were thus regarded as a special, excluded category, separate from other citizens. Some commentators also argued that Aborigines who lived tribally could not be accurately counted.

Australian Constitution the written set of principles for governing Australia

Following the referendum, Aborigines were first included in the 1971 Census and the data was used to assess Aboriginal health risks, infant mortality rates and overall life expectancy. Health problems were found to be prolific. Infant mortality was among the highest in the world, while life expectancy rates were among the lowest for Indigenous peoples anywhere.

The second change involved allowing the Federal Parliament to make laws for Aborigines. Under *Section 51 (XXVI)*, the Constitution had reserved this as a state power only. Alteration of this section theoretically allowed the Commonwealth to override discriminatory state laws, such as those in Queensland. But, following the referendum, the Holt, Gorton and McMahon Coalition Governments declined to act. Nothing was done for five years until the election of the Whitlam Labor Government (1972–75). Even then, the first legislative initiative against Queensland's oppressive laws, the *Racial Discrimination Act*, was not passed until 1975 – and this legislation was not to be enforced.

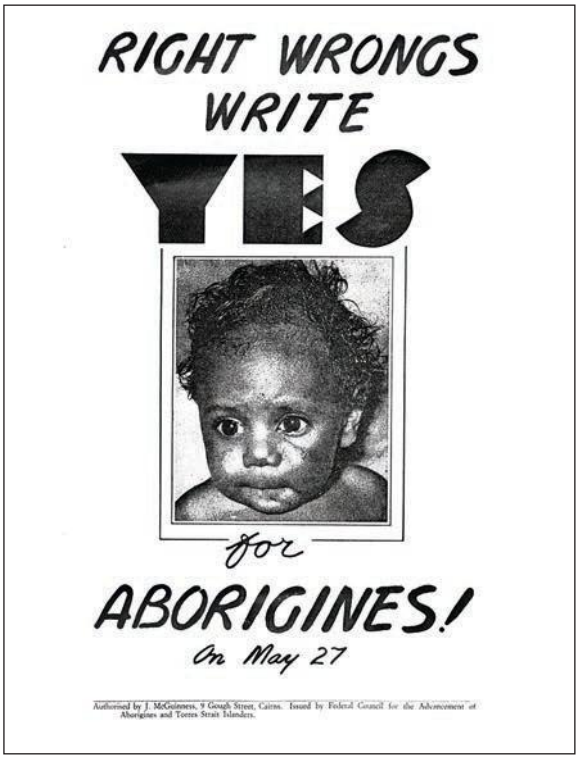
Aborigines had worked tirelessly for these constitutional changes, presenting 94 separate petitions to Federal Parliament since 1957.

HISTORICAL FACT

Up to 1967, only five referendum questions out of 26 (i.e. less than 20 per cent) had been carried in Australia. The previous highest 'Yes' vote had been in 1906, on the question of whether to move the date when members of the Senate began their terms as senators.



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Source 3.20 One of the posters that was used during the campaign for the 1967 referendum

They made enormous efforts to ensure the success of the referendum vote during the campaign itself. Referendums in Australia are notoriously hard to win, requiring both a numerical majority and a 'Yes' vote in a majority of states. With fewer than 10 000 Aborigines enrolled to vote, this feat seemed even more insurmountable. Yet there was political accord on these changes; no opposition case or campaign was mounted.

On 27 May 1967, the overall positive vote of 90.77 per cent – the highest ever recorded – was both gratifying and surprising. The highest support (94.68 per cent) was in Victoria and the lowest (80.95 per cent) in Western Australia. Country electorates were less enthusiastic than city ones, with 18 per cent in northern New South Wales and 29 per cent in Kalgoorlie in Western Australia voting 'No'.

Initial jubilation among Aborigines and their supporters gradually gave way to cynicism when few positive changes were made as a result. This contributed to the emergence of the **Black Power** movement and more confrontational tactics in the years ahead.

Black Power the movement to advance the political and personal power of Indigenous peoples

Land rights

The battle for equal civil rights was waged by Aborigines to gain the same freedoms and privileges as other Australian citizens. The land rights struggle, in contrast, was fought for the return of something precious that had been taken away by European settlement. The land rights issue turned Aboriginal attention back to their earliest resistance campaigns against dispossession. The historic loss of land was central to an understanding of Aboriginal impoverishment and deprivation. Recognition of land rights and the return of territory were therefore seen as vital in turning the tide of loss and misery, and restoring dignity and hope.

Activity **3.10**

1 Identify the two legal changes that the 1967 Referendum brought about.

2 When did Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people first obtain the right to vote in federal elections?

3 **a** What was the nation forced to become aware of by including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people on the census?

b How many of these problems do we still face today?

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HISTORICAL FACT

Kev Carmody and Paul Kelly's song *From Little Things Big Things Grow* tells the story of the Gurindji's land struggle. See if you can watch or listen to it on the internet.



Generally speaking, citizenship rights were a more important goal for urbanised Aborigines, while land rights were more significant for those still living within traditional territories. In August 1963, the Yolngu people of Yirrkala in North-East Arnhem Land sent two bark petitions in succession to the Commonwealth House of Representatives. These protested the taking of almost 400 square kilometres of their land for mining by the international company Nabalco. This finally induced a parliamentary **commission** that in 1971 recommended some compensation for the loss. Though the decision of Justice Blackburn ruled out land rights based on traditional ownership, the Yolgnu's initiative is considered to be the beginning of the modern land rights movement.

commission a group entrusted by a government to undertake specific tasks and duties

Three years later than the original petitions, in June and August 1966, Gurindji Aboriginal stockmen walked off Newcastle Waters and Wave Hill stations, which were owned by the powerful British cattle company Vesteys. The strike was sparked by a three-year delay in granting Aboriginal pastoral workers equal pay – they received only one-tenth of a white person's wage. But it soon blossomed into a full-scale land rights demand.

The Gurindji people camped at Wattie Creek and returned to traditional hunting and gathering. They argued that, in earlier days, their forefathers had been killed trying to defend their territory from Europeans, and wanted to continue that fight by once again occupying the land: 'The land is ours and it should be returned to us'. Their action continued for two years and resulted, in 1968, in the Federal Government granting them 26 square kilometres of land around Wattie Creek (Daguragu) – this was the first official recognition of Aboriginal land rights. The claim was gradually extended until, in August 1975, the deeds to 320 square kilometres of land were formally returned by Prime Minister Gough Whitlam to form the Dagaragu cattle station. At the hand-back, Whitlam symbolically poured a fistful of Gurindji soil into the open hand of Vincent Lingiari, leader of the 'sit-down' campaign.

Whitlam's action reflected the finding of the Woodward Commission (1973–74). Justice Woodward recommended that Northern Territory land on Aboriginal reserves be handed back to the various communities as **freehold title**; that Aborigines be given a conditional right to **veto** over mining activities; that sacred sites be protected; and that an Aboriginal Land Fund be established to purchase land for Aboriginal housing and **pastoral leases**.

freehold title land tenure held for life

veto the right to reject a proposal

pastoral lease government (Crown) land that has been leased for the farming of livestock

In March 1976, after the Whitlam Labor Government had fallen, 1000 Aboriginal people staged a land rights march through Alice Springs and the subsequent Fraser Coalition Government passed the *Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act* in June. Though the actual Act watered down Woodward's original intentions, it returned 7.3 per cent of the Northern Territory's land area to Aboriginal peoples by 1980.

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Times gone by ...

Gough Whitlam: Vincent Lingiari, I solemnly hand to you these deeds as proof in Australian law that these lands belong to the Gurindji people and I put into your hands this piece of earth itself as a sign that we restore them to you and your children forever.

Vincent Lingiari (in reply): We are all friendly now – we're all mates!

Source 3.21 The exchange between Prime Minister Gough Whitlam and Vincent Lingiari at the hand-back of Gurindji lands, 16 August 1975

1 What is the significance of Vincent Lingiari's statement in response to Prime Minister Whitlam?

2 Compare the significance of the two things that Prime Minister Whitlam gave to Vincent Lingiari: the deeds to the Daguragu land and the soil of the Daguragu land.

Activity **3.11**

1 Identify the differences between citizen rights and land rights.

2 How did the Yolgnu protest of 1963 begin and develop?

3 **a** Why did the Gurindji walk off at Wave Hill and Newcastle Waters?
b What was the outcome of their land rights campaign?

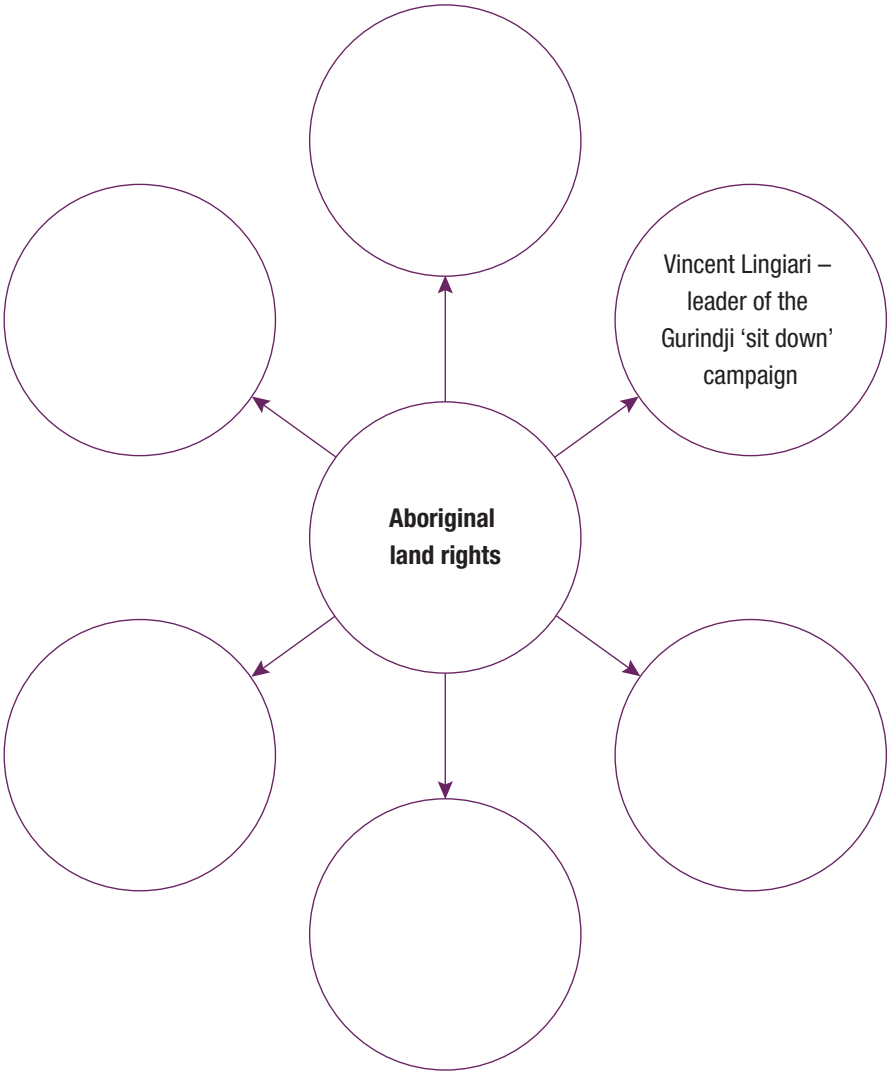
4 What were the main differences between the findings of the Blackburn Commission (1971) and the Woodward Commission (1974)? You will need to do some extra research to find out about the Blackburn Commission.



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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the names and actions of key figures in the early Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander land rights struggle. An example has been provided.



Land rights milestones: Mabo and Wik

The 1970s was the high point for Aboriginal land rights victories. As the 1980s began, the *Pitjantjatjara Land Rights Act* granted 103 000 square kilometres of South Australian land to Aboriginal freehold title. Yet other states did not follow suit. By 1993, less than two per cent of land in Victoria, Tasmania, New South Wales and Queensland had been given back or leased into traditional Aboriginal ownership, and two-thirds of this area was infertile desert land that whites did not really want. In 1985, only 18 per cent of Australians favoured Aboriginal land rights; 76 per cent were opposed. Pressured by the Australian mining industry, the Hawke Labor Government backed away from a promised treaty and a national land rights plan.

Change came from an unexpected direction. Eddie Koiki Mabo of the Meriam people of Murray Island (Mer) in the Torres Strait was working as a groundsman at James Cook University in Townsville when he was told, to his surprise and dismay, that his people did not own their islands. The British Crown had claimed ownership since

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1797 and the Queensland Government had administered the land since 1879. In 1982, Mabo, along with Father David Passi, Sam Passi, Celuia Mapo Sabe and James Rice, brought a land case against the state of Queensland claiming that the islands of Mer, Danar and Waier had been in continual occupation by Meriam people 'since time immemorial'. They therefore claimed recognition of communal title over their land.

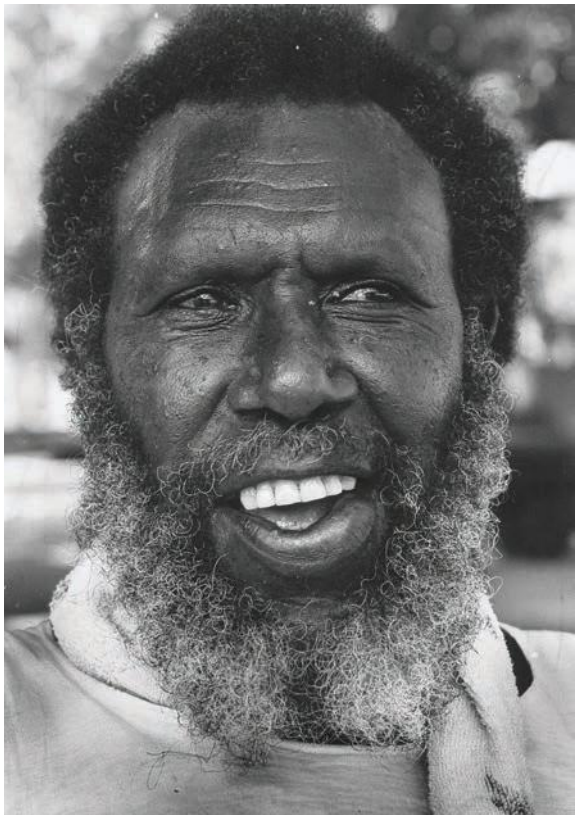
From 1989 to 1992, the case came before the Australian High Court. In June 1992, in probably the most important decision in Australian legal history, the judges, by a margin of six to one, ruled in favour of the claimants. Not only were the Meriam people entitled to 'possession, occupation, use and enjoyment' of their islands, but, throughout Australia, it was now argued that **native title** had survived the British Crown's 'acquisition of sovereignty' in 1788. Indigenous people's rights to land 'based on prior occupation' had been recognised by **common law** and the preceding **doctrine** of *terra nullius* (land owned by no one, or unoccupied land) overturned. Sadly, Eddie Mabo died of cancer four-and-a-half months before the 1992 ruling.

native title official recognition of Aboriginal land ownership

common law law that is based on previous court decisions; this sits alongside parliamentary legislation in Australia's legal system

doctrine a set of ideas or a theory

There was confusion and panic among the white community in the aftermath of the decision. The mining industry believed their prospecting rights and profits were under threat and began a hostile publicity campaign. Conservative politicians attacked the High Court, claiming that the decision would divide Australia; and, falsely, that property-holders' 'backyards' would be 'up for grabs'. Certain Aboriginal groups did not help to dampen this hysterical mood by making some extravagant and unrealistic claims.



Source 3.22 Eddie Mabo

In reality, only vacant Crown land could be claimed by those Aborigines who could demonstrate continual occupancy and traditional use – the *Native Title Act 1993* confirmed this. Demonstrating continual occupancy was a very difficult hurdle for most to overcome, as more than 70 per cent of such people by then lived in urban areas. Also, Aborigines were granted less power than under the *Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act 1976*, for the new Act did not allow them control of veto over mining activity or other

Research 3.3

Using the library and the internet, research and write a biographical profile of Eddie Mabo. Consider in particular how and why he began his struggle for land rights.

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HISTORICAL FACT

In 1997, South Africa's Nelson Mandela offered to mediate in the uproar over the Wik decision. The Australian Government declined his offer.



Research 3.4

Study and explain the effect of one of the following on the civil and land rights of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.

- The Mabo judgment (1992)
- The *Native Title Act 1993*
- The Wik judgment (1996)
- The Ten Point Plan (1997)
- The *Native Title Amendment Act 1998*

development, and left uncertainty as to the issue of native title on existing pastoral leases. The 1993 Act led to the longest debate in the Senate's history and some extraordinary scenes.

Following the Mabo decision, the Wik people of Cape York in Queensland tackled the issue of native title and pastoral leases by claiming that both could exist alongside each other. In 1996 the High Court delivered its judgment in the *Wik People vs Queensland* case, and said that pastoral leases (which covered 42 per cent of Australia) did not necessarily extinguish native title. Though pastoralists (livestock farmers) did not lose any of their claim to land in this decision, they demanded that native title now be extinguished on pastoral land. This debate led to the development of Prime Minister John Howard's 'Ten Point Plan' (1997), and subsequently the *Native Title Amendment Act 1998*, which favoured pastoralists and miners and restricted further native title claims. By 2002, only 32 land claims had been determined in Australian courts.

Self-determination and Black Power

The 1960s and early 1970s marked a time when most Aboriginal activists moved dramatically away from policies associated with assimilation. Assimilation offered Western rights with one hand while taking away Aboriginal culture with the other. Aborigines argued that such a trade-off was both unnecessary and unjust. Preserving Aboriginal rights to land and culture was just as important as securing equal rights within white society – if not more so.

Young Aboriginal activists in the late 1960s were inspired by the direct action methods of the 1965 freedom riders, and **disillusioned** by the petitioning methods of older campaigners after the successful 1967 referendum brought no immediate reforms. At this time, the New South Wales Aborigines Welfare Board ceased operation, leaving about 20 000 people on 45 rural reserves stranded. These people moved into inner Sydney, where the Aboriginal population

disillusioned having a loss of faith; feeling disenchanted

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Times gone by ...

The first time that I was arrested was the day that Black Power exploded like a massive black time bomb in the heart of Brisbane city in 1971. An angry mob of blacks marched to the Native Affairs office and demanded justice … the [Aborigines] Acts were up for review and we had given the government seven days to strike these racist laws from their statute books … The coppers were waiting for us and they locked down the … office. We tried to get in through the front door and then an aunty of mine smashed her purse across the skull of a copper and it was on … there were brawls … across the width of the street … I was only a kid, barely 17 but I … held my own against monster cops. Then one blind-sided me and dropped me cold with a baton to the head. I woke up on the floor of the paddy wagon. I had … almost swallowed my tongue … The clash in George Street ignited the entire black political movement and from that point we never took a backward step to any white man.

Source 3.23 An account from Sam Watson, who was at the 'riot' in Brisbane 1971

1 What does the expression 'massive black time bomb' suggest to you? Reflect on the history of oppression and violence that Australia's Indigenous people have endured.

2 Do you think that non-peaceful demonstrations such as that described above can be justified? If so, in what circumstances?

expanded dramatically. There was a big influx of young Aborigines from the countryside into the suburb of Redfern, which, by the early 1970s, had become the largest Aboriginal community in Australia.

The arrival of African-American soldiers on rest and rehabilitation leave from the Vietnam War brought direct word of the expanding Black Power Movement in the United States, especially the growth of the **Black Panther Party** out of Oakland, California, which inspired similar groups in Melbourne's Fitzroy and Brisbane's West End. Similar to the US activists, these groups were prepared to take a forceful stand, if necessary, against white violence and to defend themselves if faced with police harassment. This led to what the *Sydney Morning Herald* called 'the first Aboriginal race riot' in Brisbane on 23 November 1971, and the mainstream media generally escalated fears of a race war or Indigenous takeover in Australia.

Black Panther Party an African-American organisation to promote the Black Power Movement in the late 1960s

Although the media generally represented Black Power as dangerous, it was more broadly a movement of self-reliance, calling upon Aboriginal people to work together to control their own affairs, to define and defend themselves and to determine their own destinies; to have

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Source 3.24 Australian mainstream newspapers escalated fears of a Black Power Movement in Australia in 1971

self-determination the power to determine one's own political destiny and control one's own affairs

self-determination. In Redfern, Fitzroy and South Brisbane, it led to the formation of the first free legal aid services, community controlled health clinics, housing cooperatives, child-care and pre-school programs, Indigenous theatre and dance troupes, and surveillance of white police patrols.

The actions of the young also caused older Aboriginal activists to take stock. In Canberra in 1970, Aboriginal members of the Federal Council of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI) finally confronted long-term white control of their organisation. Those supporting 'Black Control of Black Affairs' broke away to form the National Tribal Council. Aboriginal organisations were now moving back into Aboriginal hands, just as they had been when they were first established in the inter-war years.

The Aboriginal Tent Embassy

The Aboriginal Tent Embassy began as a single beach umbrella. In his Australia Day address, delivered on 25 January 1972, Prime Minister William McMahon announced that land rights would not be granted in the Northern Territory. At 1.00 a.m. on Australia Day, Michael Anderson, Billy Craigie, Bertie Williams and Tony Coorey from the Redfern Black Caucus established the 'Aboriginal Embassy' by pitching an umbrella on the lawn in front of the then Parliament House. They reasoned that Prime Minister McMahon's statement had made them 'aliens' in their own land, 'so, like other aliens, we need an embassy'. The following day, the first tents were erected and by February an Aboriginal flag of black, green and red was flown at the tent site. A petition outlining a five-point plan for land rights was delivered to Parliament early that month. By July, the original flag was replaced by the black, red and yellow Aboriginal flag that we know today – it was designed by Harold Thomas and first unfurled in Adelaide during 1971.

The Federal Government was disturbed by the Embassy's existence and appearance, claiming that it reflected **separate development**. Yet it continued to stand due to an understanding that the Parliament House lawns could be used for peaceful assembly. But there was disagreement over whether people could camp indefinitely there. Soon a new Trespass Ordinance allowed 60 police to move in on the six Embassy tents

separate development a policy developed during Apartheid in South Africa, whereby different racial groups within in the same country were governed by separate administrations



Source 3.25 The Aboriginal Tent Embassy in 1972
[NAA: A7973, INT1205/3]

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Source 3.26 Federal police remove tents and bedding from the Aboriginal Tent Embassy, 20 July 1972

on 20 July and dismantle them amid tumultuous scenes, where eight protesters were arrested. Three days later, an attempt by more than 200 demonstrators to re-establish the tents led to one of the most violent confrontations in Canberra's history. The activists were manhandled by police and 18 more arrested. A week later, 2000 people marched to Parliament House and symbolically re-erected the Aboriginal Tent Embassy, as it came to be known.

Though condemned by opponents as 'unsightly' and 'squalid', the Tent Embassy received enormous attention from the global media and rapidly emerged as a powerful symbol of 'Black Power' and Aboriginal sovereignty. As Embassy spokesperson John Newfong stated in May 1972, 'If people think this is an eyesore, well, this is the way it is on government settlements'. It became a gathering point for Aboriginal protests, press statements, marches, petitions and parliamentary sit-ins. Gough Whitlam announced Labor's new land rights policy after a visit there in early 1972. From time to time, other Aboriginal embassies and 'consulates' have also been organised in Adelaide, Perth and Brisbane, as well as in Sydney at Mrs Macquarie's Chair during the 1988 bicentennial celebrations.

The Aboriginal Tent Embassy would move location a number of times from 1972 to 1992. It would be demolished and rebuilt, blown down in a storm and even firebombed several times, but it has never gone away. From 1992 until today, it has had a permanent and controversial existence on the lawns of Old Parliament House, near where it was first established. In April 1995 it was registered on the National Estate by the Australian Heritage Commission as the only site nationally recognised to represent the ongoing political struggles of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. It is now the longest surviving protest site in the world.

Oodgeroo Noonuccal

Kathleen Jean Mary Ruska, whose father Ted Ruska was a Noonuccal Elder and trade union leader of Minjerribah (North Stradbroke Island), became Kath Walker in 1942 when she married

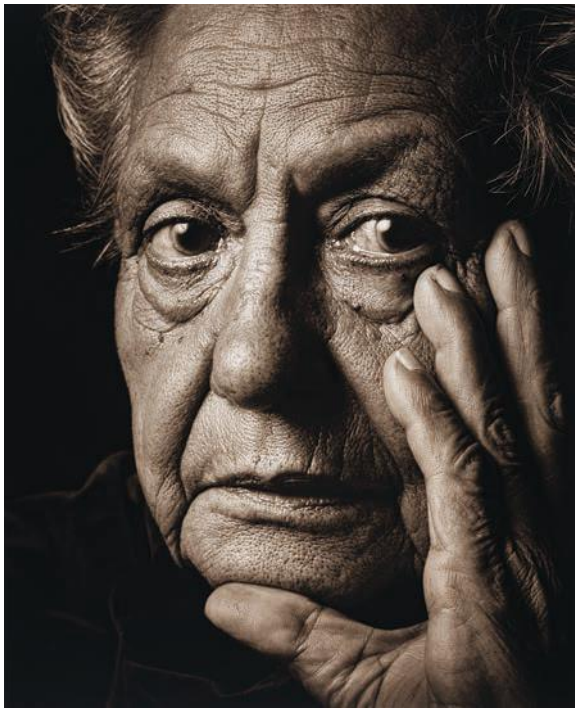
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HISTORICAL FACT

On the Aboriginal flag (1971), black represents Aboriginal people, past, present and future; red represents the earth, red ochre and the blood that was shed in defending the spiritual relationship to land; and yellow represents the Sun, the giver of life.

Bruce Walker, an Aboriginal boxer and welder. As Kath Walker, she became, in 1964, Australia's first published Aboriginal woman and poet. Her celebrated collection *We Are Going* rapidly became one of Australia's most successful books of poetry. She was an activist for Indigenous rights and received an Order of the British Empire from Queen Elizabeth II in 1971, in recognition of services to her people.

In 1988, the year of Australia's bicentenary, Kath Walker changed her name to Oodgeroo, meaning 'paperbark', in order to reclaim her full Aboriginality and as a protest against 200 years of white rule. At the same time she returned her Order of the British Empire – she did not want the award until all Aboriginal people in Australia were given unconditional land rights. Since that time, she has been known as Oodgeroo Noonuccal.



Source 3.27 Oodgeroo of the Noonuccal tribe, 1992 (printed 2009) [By George Fetting, type C photograph. Collection: National Portrait Gallery, Canberra. Gift of the artist, 2010]

Oodgeroo's roles as a writer, activist and educator are hard to separate in her life. All her writing was for and about her people and their struggles. It carried a strong political message. For Oodgeroo, politics and poetry were essentially one: she fought the battles of her people with her pen and echoed the voices of Aboriginal story-tellers and song-makers in her prose and verse. Famous Australian writer Judith Wright said her poetry was 'a galvanizing set of demands' that 'rang out against a background of long-accepted silence'. Oodgeroo wrote in a voice that was alive, pulsing with the power of anger and sorrow for the suffering of Aboriginal peoples.

As an activist, Oodgeroo travelled the world during the 1970s, furthering the Aboriginal cause at conferences and arts festivals. During her life of campaigning, she sometimes delivered up to 10 talks a day. She had previously been a member of the Federal Council of the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI) and had worked hard to free that organisation from white domination. She was also a member of the National Tribal Council, the Aboriginal Arts Board, the Aboriginal Housing Committee and the Queensland Aboriginal Advancement League. She spoke at many public forums and during numerous protest campaigns against the repressive Queensland *Aborigines Act*, such as the large-scale anti-racist mobilisation in Brisbane during the 1982 Commonwealth Games. She was a fearless advocate of Aboriginal rights throughout her life.

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Times gone by ...

> [Aboriginal people] have said we want to integrate with [whites] but we don't want to live with them. We don't want to be enemies, we want to be friends, but we don't want to follow their way, because the Aboriginal is starting to realise how much the white man is leading himself to destruction.

Source 3.28 A quote from Oodgeroo Noonuccal, 1983

1 Identify the differences between the concepts of 'integration' and 'living with'.

2 Why do you think Oodgeroo Noonuccal states that the 'white man is leading himself to destruction'?

During the 1970s, she converted land on the western shores of North Stradbroke Island (Minjerribah) into the Noonuccal-Nughie Education and Cultural Centre. The land was called Moongalba (meaning 'sitting down place'). She had bad memories of her own schooling – especially of being repeatedly beaten for being left-handed. She wanted Moongalba to provide a different kind of education about Aboriginal culture and natural ways of life. It was a meeting place for learning, enjoyment and living, attended by actors, singers and dancers. She eventually calculated that she had educated more than 30 000 children there – 'white kids as well as black. And if there were green ones, I'd like them too … I'm colour-blind, you see'.

Oodgeroo was a remarkable woman. She wrote numerous books of poetry, essays, short stories and speeches. She produced several books for children. Her poetry has been set to music, a play was written of her experience aboard a plane hijacked in 1976 by Arab terrorists, and a documentary film, *Shadow Sister*, was made of her life at Moongalba. She was also an artist and an actor, appearing in the 1985 film *The Fringe Dwellers*. She was a champion **vigoro** player and she served in the Australian Army. But she was, above all else, a fighter who retained her fierceness in the fight for her people; a dedicated advocate for social justice. She died at the age of 72 in 1993.

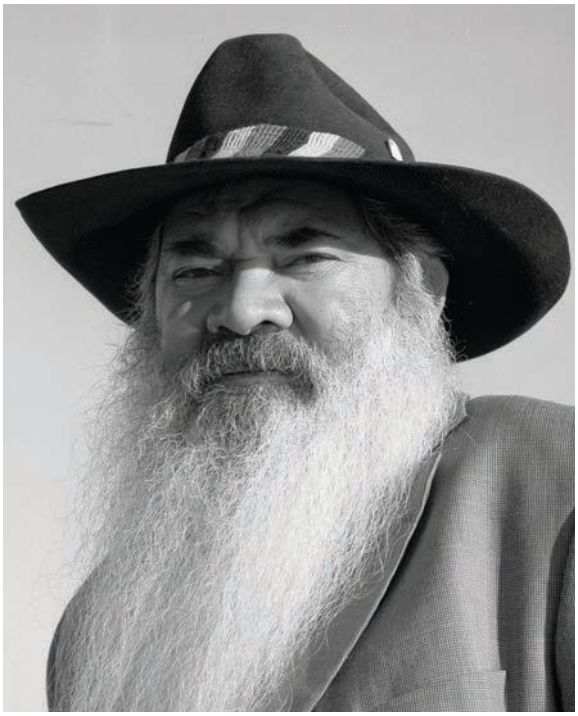
vigoro a sport similar to cricket and baseball, usually played by women

The Reconciliation Movement (1991–2000)

In 1987, the Hawke Labor Government appointed a **Royal Commission** to investigate more than 100 Aboriginal deaths in custody within the Australian juvenile detention and prison system. This found in 1991 that the high casualty rate was related to the over-representation of Aborigines (mostly male) within Australian jails. Aborigines comprised only two per cent of the population but made up 19 per cent of prisoners and 41 per cent of those in juvenile detention. Such males were mostly unemployed and unskilled,

Royal Commission an official committee of inquiry appointed by the Crown

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Source 3.29 Patrick Dodson, one of the leaders of the Reconciliation Movement and inaugural chairperson of CAR

with minimal education. Many had been taken from their families.

Most of the recommendations of the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody were not implemented. But one positive outcome was the creation of the Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation (CAR) in 1991, the Year of Indigenous Peoples. The council was chaired by activist Patrick Dodson from 1991 to 1997. The council's task was to achieve reconciliation between Aborigines and non-Aborigines over the following decade by promoting greater awareness, tolerance and understanding. The 25-member council would address such issues as understanding Aboriginal relationships to country, valuing Aboriginal culture and owning a shared history. Relationships of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders with the wider community were also to be improved by addressing the causes of Aboriginal disadvantage and offering greater opportunities. In this way, it was hoped that the high proportion of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people in custody might be lowered.

Basically, the reconciliation process is about cross-cultural understanding. At Corroboree 2000, held at the Sydney Opera House as the 'reconciliation decade' closed, Prime Minister John Howard was presented with an Australian Declaration and Roadmap Towards Reconciliation. This recognised the human rights of all Australians and the self-determination of Indigenous peoples. It pledged respect for Aboriginal customary laws, beliefs and traditions, as well as a commitment to end injustice and overcome Aboriginal disadvantage. Furthermore, it stated: 'As we walk the journey of healing, one part of the nation apologises and expresses the sorrow and sincere regret for the injustices of the past, so the other part accepts the apologies and forgives'.

In 1991, as reconciliation began, Labor Prime Minister Paul Keating had frankly accepted white responsibility for Aboriginal destruction in his ground-breaking Redfern Park address. The subsequent Howard Government, however, rejected the concept of a formal apology. The CAR's Declaration and accompanying report met with official opposition. Most Aboriginal leaders believed that the Howard years (1996–2007) had led to an overall deterioration of relations, where hard-won achievements of the previous three decades were seen to be slipping away. More Aborigines had died in custody between 1990 and 1999 than during the previous decade.

So, although the reconciliation process was a governmental initiative, the most positive response came from ordinary people. Grassroots organisations circulated 400 'sorry books' for Australians to sign, expressing their regret for past mistreatment. Colourful 'seas of hands' were planted on the parliamentary lawn and around Australia from 1997, and were supported by more than 300 000 signatories. 'Journeys of healing' were undertaken and more than one million people participated in 'bridge walk' demonstrations in all the capital cities to express solidarity with the Aboriginal cause. These, including the spectacular Sydney Harbour Bridge walk in 2000, are among the largest processions ever held in Australia. All of this showed that there was at least as much public goodwill as resistance to Aboriginal claims, yet most agree that there remains much unfinished business in this regard.

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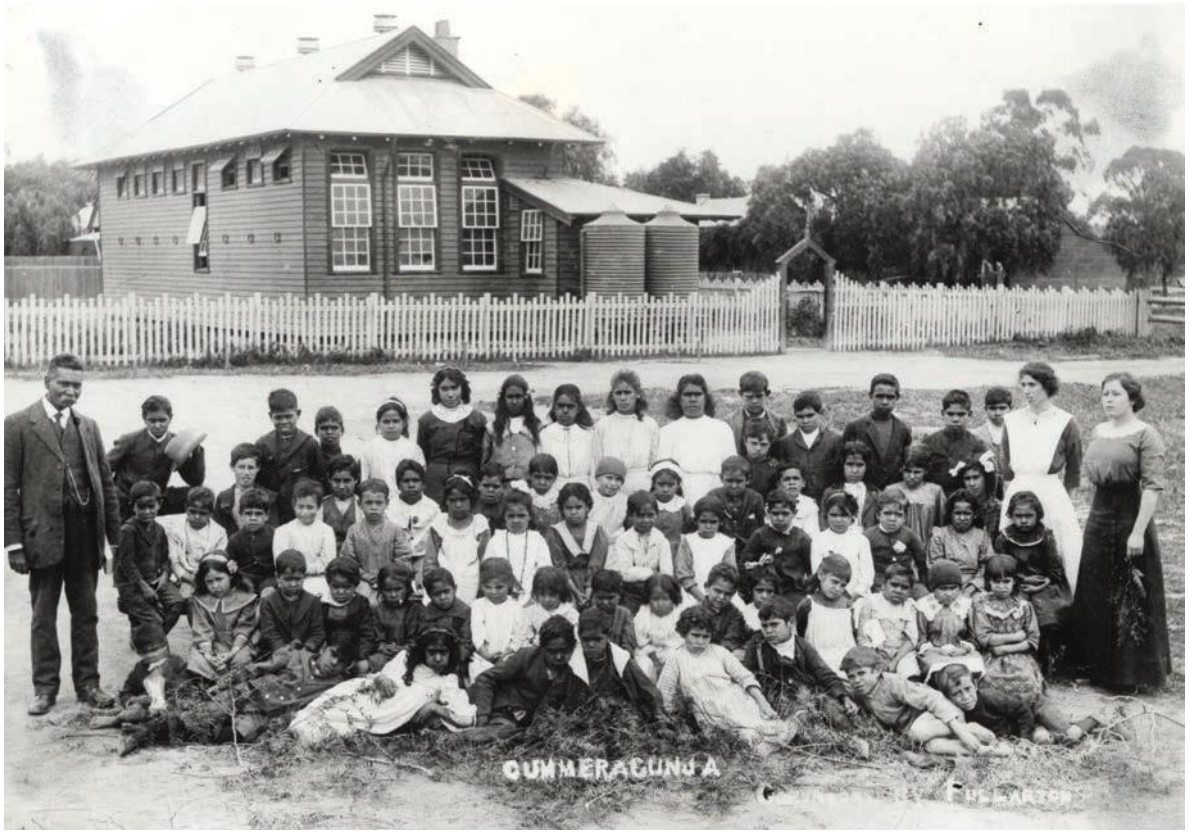
HISTORICAL FACT

A symbolic moment of reconciliation came when Aboriginal athlete Cathy Freeman lit the flame at the Sydney Olympics in 2000 and, after winning the 400 metres race, ran her victory lap wrapped in both the Aboriginal and Australian flags.

Bringing Them Home: the 'Stolen Children' report (1997)

An important part of the reconciliation process concerned giving voice to Aborigines' stories of their experiences in white society. On 11 May 1995, Labor's Attorney-General, Michael Lavarch, established the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from their Families. Aboriginal bodies had been pressing for such an investigation since 1990. Between December 1995 and October 1996, the inquiry held hearings throughout all Australian states and territories.

A central motive was to counter public ignorance about the forced removal of part-Aboriginal children from their parents and communities, their segregation in racially specific institutions and, sometimes, their adoption or fostering by white families. Many part-Aboriginal



Source 3.30 Cummeragunja Reserve was a station where several Indigenous tribes gathered in the late 1800s and early 1900s. Several generations of children were taught there before the older children were taken away by order of the government. This photo was taken in 1913.

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HISTORICAL FACT

The Tasmanian and Victorian Governments set up financial compensation funds for Stolen Generations members. The Federal Government, however, did not.



children (known as 'half castes') had been taken away from their parents by white authorities over many decades. The children became known as the 'Stolen Children', or 'Stolen Generations'.

Children were taken from their homes in their parents' absence or while walking to school; some had even been taken from their classrooms. The children were told that they were going on holidays and distraught families had been falsely assured that they would soon be returned. Mothers tried desperately to protect their light-skinned offspring by darkening their skin colour or hiding them in potato sacks.

The children were often subjected to cruel and brutal treatment in the institutions to which they were taken. Many suffered intense stress and grief at being separated from their loved ones. When they grew into adulthood, some came to lead **dysfunctional** lives, sometimes participating in criminal behaviours and experiencing depression and other mental illnesses – they felt isolated due to their loss of culture, community and family ties.

dysfunctional impairing usual practice

It was hoped that greater awareness of these events would lead to a wider understanding of the trauma and difficulties still being suffered by the victims. Western Australia led the way on this in 1994, when the Aboriginal Legal Service there interviewed more than 500 affected people for a report entitled *Telling Our Story*.

The national inquiry, led by former High Court judge Sir Ronald Wilson and legal academic and land rights advocate Mick Dodson, received 777 submissions, 535 of which were from Aboriginal individuals or groups. Most of the stories spoke of harrowing and heart-breaking experiences. The final 700-page report that resulted from the inquiry, titled *Bringing Them Home*, was delivered in May 1997. It detailed 'gross violations' of human rights, and was too much for many to take. The Labor Opposition Leader, Kim Beazley, broke down and wept in Federal Parliament while reading from it.

Conservative critics of the report, including members of the Howard Government, argued that the term 'stolen generations' was an inaccurate one. Not all children were 'forcibly' taken, they stated, and sometimes they were 'rescued' from disadvantage and danger 'for their own good'. They searched hard to find positive individual stories, but evidence still pointed overwhelmingly to negative outcomes. They also complained that not 'a whole generation' was involved; it was only a fraction of a generation.

How large a fraction, however, is still uncertain; due to faulty or lost documentation and insufficient research, it is not known exactly how many children were separated from their families. We do know that tens of thousands of children were affected. In Queensland, for example, recent research has shown that one child in every six had been taken. Furthermore, the widespread practice of removal in order to break the circle of Aboriginal cultural or biological transmission, or to produce cheap labour, had been occurring since early colonial times and thus involved the children of *many* generations, rather than just one.

Australia says sorry

Following the publication of the *Bringing Them Home* report, the Howard Government provided

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Times gone by ...

'I'm sorry. I'm sorry, I just didn't know,' sobs the motherly figure seated next to me. At the front of the lecture theatre, the speaker, an Aboriginal woman of the Stolen Generations, is also crying. It is an emotionally charged moment at the 1997 National Adoption Conference in Perth. Suddenly, startling us all, a firm European voice rings out, 'But how could you not know? I only came to this country in the 1970s but I knew.' The anguished cry, 'I just didn't know,' was repeated by leaders and members of the public around the country following the publication of the *Bringing Them Home* report, but none posed that profound question, 'How could we *not* have known?'

Source 3.31 Human rights researcher Anna Haebich comments on the aftermath of the *Bringing Them Home* report

1 How do you think political leaders and members of the public didn't know about the Stolen Generations until the publication of the *Bringing Them Home* report?

2 Do you think such claims were genuine?

some funding to help Stolen Generations members locate their lost families and communities. It established an oral history project on the subject and erected a memorial in Canberra. Prime Minister Howard expressed 'regret' for what had happened. But his government refused to make a formal apology. It argued that it should not apologise for something it had not directly done itself. It rejected the concept of inter-generational responsibility – the principle that future generations should bear responsibility for the deeds of past generations.

Yet critics of this position pointed out that the past and present are closely linked; that present-day suffering is connected to past actions. People in the present may not be *personally* guilty of what others had done in the past, but they could nevertheless feel a sense of national shame over the infliction of prolonged historical suffering, just as they could equally feel a sense of national pride about more celebrated historical events, such as past sporting or military achievements.

Furthermore, the German Chancellor had recently formally apologised for the Nazi **persecution** of Jews; in 1988, US President Ronald Reagan had apologised to Japanese-Americans for their internment in World War II; and the Japanese Government had apologised to prisoners of war in the Pacific. Why, then, people asked, could the present Australian Government not apologise to the members of the Stolen Generations?

persecution any form of undeserved punishment

Between May 1997 and October 2001, the state and territory governments of Western Australia, South Australia, the Australian Capital Territory, New South Wales, Tasmania, Victoria, Queensland and the Northern Territory all

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Source 3.32 A portion of the huge crowd in the Reconciliation Walk across Sydney Harbour Bridge, 28 May 2000; the word 'sorry' is written in skywriting

formally apologised in turn for the hurt and regret caused by past removal policies. The Queensland statement of May 1999 referred to 'frank apologies for what has gone wrong in the past and total commitment to equal respect in the future'. The Northern Territory in October 2001 also called on the Federal Government to make a 'formal and specific apology', stating 'that the Commonwealth failed in discharging its moral obligations'.

This national apology finally came at 9 a.m. on 13 February 2008, when new Labor Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, joined with the new Leader of the Federal Opposition, Dr Brendan Nelson, in saying 'sorry'. Representatives of the Stolen Generations and many thousands of other Aborigines and non-Aborigines gathered on the public lawns between the old and new Parliament Houses to hear the Prime Minister's speech.

> … Today we honour the Indigenous people of this land, the oldest continuing cultures in human history. We reflect on their past mistreatment.
>
> We reflect in particular on the mistreatment of those who were Stolen Generations – this blemished chapter in our nation's history …
>
> 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 fathers, the brothers and 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 …

Source 3.33 Part of Prime Minister Rudd's 'sorry speech', 13 February 2008

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Millions more watched these symbolic, moving proceedings on television. Many of those present in that historical moment reacted with strong emotions – principally remorse, happiness and relief. As Christine King of the Stolen Generations Alliance stated, 'Sorry is the most important word because it has great meaning in our community; it means having empathy and compassion and understanding'.

Activity **3.12**

1 What is the concept of inter-generational responsibility? How does this concept apply to:
- **a** governments?
- **b** individuals?

2
- **a** What is an oral history project?
- **b** What benefits might this form of historical research offer compared to other methods?

3 Do you think that the national apology went far enough? Should it also have addressed other difficult issues besides those of the Stolen Generations; for example, the historical pattern of Australian frontier conflict and Aboriginal dispossession (1788–1930)? Should it have extended financial compensation to victims? Hold a class debate on these issues.



Source 3.34 A banner celebrating the Australian Federal Government's national apology to Indigenous peoples, Wellington Square, Perth, WA

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Chapter summary

- Over many centuries, human rights have been extended to more and more social groups. Rights and freedoms have been won by protest and during periods of social upheaval.
- The idea of universal human rights is a recent one. It came to pass with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights after the terrible ordeals of World War II.
- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights outlines, in 30 Articles, basic human rights available to all, without reference to nationality, ethnicity, race, gender, religion, age or class.
- This Declaration led to legally binding conventions that protect civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights.
- Australia played a significant part in the passage of the Declaration in 1947–48. Certain controversial aspects of Australian policy, however, especially in relation to Aborigines and refugees, have led to much scrutiny and criticism by the UN.
- Following the American Civil War, African-American ex-slaves had newly won rights stripped away by segregative legislation.
- From 1908, African-Americans and their white supporters organised actions against racial discrimination, campaigning for many decades against racial segregation, lynching and racial abuse.
- From 1954, segregation began crumbling, but long and dangerous campaigns by civil rights activists were necessary to see it officially abolished in the later 1960s.
- The US Civil Right Movement made a big impact in Australia, especially among university students and Aborigines fighting to end racial discrimination.
- Aboriginal resistance dates from early colonial times. By the 1830s, Aborigines began to add written protests to these campaigns.
- Aboriginal organisations agitating for improved conditions date from the 1920s. These culminated in the Day of Mourning and Protest held in 1938.
- Torres Strait Islanders waged a successful strike against racist policies as early as 1936. Other mainland industrial campaigns followed in the 1940s, 1950s and 1960s.
- Assimilation policies were introduced for Aborigines and migrants in the early 1950s. They offered civil rights and welfare reforms, but also demanded that Aboriginal and migrant cultures be abandoned.
- Under assimilation, Aboriginal protests mounted. White control, however, was now dominant in Aboriginal organisations.
- During the 1960s, influenced by racial developments in the United States, assimilation policies were successfully challenged. Constitutional changes occurred. Land rights claims over traditional lands, campaigns against racial segregation in townships and Black Power Movements in major cities all developed into the 1970s.
- The Aboriginal Tent Embassy was an important expression of Indigenous activism that has survived until today. It has publicised the Aboriginal struggle around the globe.
- The land rights victories of the 1970s encountered white backlash in the 1980s. Yet actions begun in the Torres Strait by Eddie Mabo and his associates brought recognition of Aboriginal sovereignty Australia-wide in the 1990s.
- The reconciliation movement of the 1990s created enormous grassroots support for the Aboriginal cause. It was again countered, however, by strong white reactions to the Wik judgment and official resistance by the Howard Government to offering a formal apology for past injustices.
- The *Bringing Them Home* report (1997) created division about the Stolen Generations. It demonstrated, however, the widespread official practice of removing part-Aboriginal children from Indigenous communities and provided the impetus for an eventual national apology a decade later in 2008.

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End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1 Universal human rights:
- A are applicable to adults but not to children
- B are the rights of all humans to do as they please
- C have been recognised for many centuries
- D are a product of the post-World War II era

2 The Civil Rights Movement in the United States:
- A was begun by women fighting for the vote
- B was a communist front organisation
- C was developed to fight the racial segregation of African-Americans
- D began during student demonstrations in the 1960s

3 Written protest activity by Indigenous Australians began:
- A at the opening of the first Commonwealth Parliament in 1901
- B in the 1830s on an island in Bass Strait
- C at Sydney Cove in 1788
- D during the Aboriginal Day of Mourning and Protest in 1938

4 Oodgeroo Noonuccal was:
- A a famous Aboriginal poet and activist
- B an Aboriginal freedom rider
- C a famous Aboriginal member of parliament
- D a member of the Stolen Generations

5 The Aboriginal Tent Embassy began because:
- A proper housing and shelter was not available for Aborigines
- B the Australian Government encouraged its establishment to publicise Aboriginal demands
- C the Australian Government denied Aboriginal people land rights
- D Black Power advocates planned to invade the Australian Parliament

Short answer

1 What is the International Bill of Human Rights?

2 Who was Rosa Parks?

3 Explain how Aboriginal resistance leaders first emerged in Australia.

4 Who was William Cooper?

5 Why did Prime Minister John Howard refuse to make a formal apology to Indigenous peoples?

Source analysis

Reread Source 3.33 (p. 148) and Source 3.35 (below).

> I think we are beginning to see how much we owe the indigenous Australians and how much we have lost by living so apart.
>
> I said we non-indigenous Australians should try to imagine the Aboriginal view.
>
> It can't be too hard. Someone imagined this event today, and it is now a marvellous reality and a great reason for hope.
>
> There is one thing today we cannot imagine.
>
> We cannot imagine that the descendants of people whose genius and resilience maintained a culture here through 50 000 years or more, through cataclysmic changes to the climate and environment, and who then survived two centuries of dispossession and abuse, will be denied their place in the modern Australian nation.

Source 3.35 An excerpt from Paul Keating's 'Redfern speech', 10 December 1992

You can find the full texts of Prime Minister Paul Keating's Redfern speech of 10 December 1992, and Prime Minister Kevin Rudd's formal apology address of 13 February 2008, at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

Compare and contrast the two texts.

1 What issues does each address and how do they differ from each other?

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2 In what ways are these speeches similar to each other?

3 What do you consider to be the general tone of the words chosen by each speaker? Do they have a similar tone or do they differ in particular ways? Give examples.

4 Identify the immediate and historical impacts of each speech.

Extended response

In small groups, undertake an investigation of the issues facing Indigenous Australians in one of the following times and places.

- the frontier period
- the immediate post-frontier period
- the early twentieth century and inter-war years of racial segregation
- the post-World War II period of assimilation
- the self-determination years of the 1960s and 1970s
- the years of struggle and setback of the 1980s and 1990s, leading up to the national apology of 2008

Deliver a report on developments in each era using different forms of expression and media: documents, historical readings, drama, music and PowerPoint presentations. (A good example of this approach is contained in the film *Murundak. Songs of Freedom*, now available on DVD.) Compare your presentation with those of other groups in the class. How much have the issues for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples changed or improved across these periods? What still needs to be done?

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DEPTH STUDY 3

The globalising world



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4



Popular culture (1945–present)

Source 4.1 Fans watch Australia play cricket at the Melbourne Cricket Ground

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Before you start

Main focus

Popular culture is the culture of the majority and therefore the most influential on a nation as a whole.

Why it's relevant today

All of the popular cultural forms that we consume and enjoy today have a fascinating history showing how each evolved over time. Understanding this can increase our appreciation of popular culture in the present.

Inquiry questions

- What was the nature of Australian popular culture immediately after World War II?
- How and why did popular music, film, sport and television change between World War II and today?
- How did popular culture impact on Australian society?
- How has Australian popular culture impacted on the world?

Key terms

- baby-boomer
- moral panic
- rock 'n' roll
- sub-culture

Significant individuals

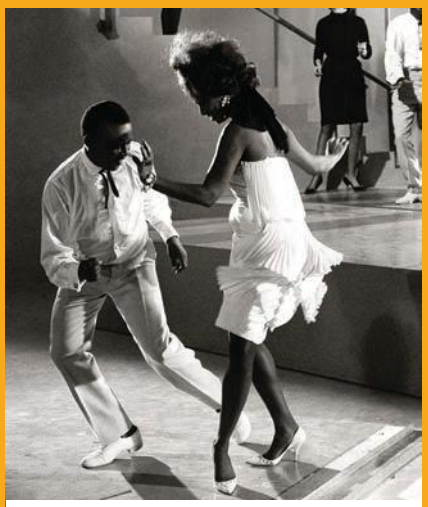
- Don Bradman
- Evonne Goolagong
- Jimmy Little
- Johnny O'Keefe
- Dawn Fraser
- Lionel Rose
- Paul Hogan

Let's begin

Popular culture has always been of great interest to Australians. Often it originates overseas and is adapted to local needs, but it is also created locally. Since the 1950s, there have been many important developments in the areas of sport, film, music and television in Australia. Rock 'n' roll music and Australian television both began in the 1950s. The revival of Australian film came later, around 1970. Australian sport has met with varying levels of spectator interest and success on the national and international stage since World War II.



Source 4.2 Paul Hogan as Crocodile Dundee



Source 4.3 Dancers doing 'the twist'



Source 4.4 Bill Haley and His Comets



Source 4.5 Statue of Sir Donald Bradman at Adelaide Oval

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Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
1940	
	1944–6 The word 'teenager' is coined in the US Black and white television begins The first automatic computer is created at Harvard University
1950	
The words 'bodgie' and 'widgie' coined in **1949–50** Australia as the word 'teenager' also comes into use	
US film *Blackboard Jungle* launches **1955** rock 'n' roll music in US and Australia Australia's first colour movie, *Jedda, is* released	**1954** The four-minute mile barrier is broken in Britain
The first Australian rock 'n' roll **1956** recording is made by Vic Sabrino Television begins in Australia Melbourne hosts 16th Summer Olympics	
Australia's first rock 'n' roll hit, **1958** *Wild One*, enters charts	
1960	
	1960–2 *The Twist* creates worldwide dance craze *We Shall Overcome* becomes anthem of US Civil Rights Movement
The Beatles' Australian tour brings great excitement **1964** *Homicide* launches Australian TV crime drama	
	1969 Woodstock music festival in New York State is attended by 400 000 people Colour television begins in Britain
1970	
Springbok rugby union tour **1971** prompts protests in Australia	
The Adventures of Barry McKenzie launches **1972** Australian film revival	
Countdown music program begins on ABC TV **1974** Colour television launched in Australia	
	1976 Apple computers launched in California Punk rock begins in Britain
1980	
Australian Institute of Sport opens in Canberra **1981**	
	1982 CD players go on sale
2000	
27th Summer Olympics held in Sydney **2000**	**2000** US courts order break-up of Bill Gates' Microsoft computer software monopoly

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Source 4.6 Tour dates and locations of the Beatles' tour of Australia, 1964

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What is popular culture?

The word 'culture' covers a vast range of subjects; it can be applied to pub gigs, comic books and ornamental cooking as much as it can to classical music, ballet or poetry. According to US historian Lawrence Levine, popular cultural forms are those that are most 'widely accessible and widely accessed'. Popular culture therefore refers to an accepted group of practices or customs that are broadly distributed in our society as well as 'widely viewed and heard and read'. When we study the history of popular culture, we are actually studying the ways in which people have lived and expressed themselves in the past.

Until fairly recently, popular culture was considered inferior to elite or high culture (such as opera and literature) and it was not studied in schools or universities. It was not usually collected by research libraries or displayed in galleries or museums. Recordings of early radio and television programs, and copies of early films, were often simply thrown away or left to decay. This was unfortunate, for the evidence we can draw from studying popular culture tells us much more about the everyday lives of ordinary people than high culture does.

In this chapter we will be examining four major forms of popular culture in Australia since World War II that are among the most widely viewed and heard, as well as the most accessible: music, sport, film and television.

Before the advent of modern technology there was, of course, no film, radio or television. People made their own music, singing together and playing instruments for their private or public enjoyment. They also tended to engage in sporting activities at a local level. Therefore, all music was 'live music' and sport was more of a pastime than the international spectacle we know it as today.

All forms of culture were changed by the growth of mass production, and the majority of people became mostly passive consumers of culture rather than active participants in it. As one writer remarked, even before the war 'people let the radio, the phonograph, the player piano sing and play for them instead of taking the trouble to do it badly themselves'.

Activity **4.1**

Make a list of the cultural forms that you most enjoy. Develop a class discussion about why you enjoy them. Each of the cultural forms discussed has a history. Use books and websites to investigate that history.

HISTORICAL FACT

Australia is the home to the oldest continuous cultural traditions in the world. Aboriginal sand and body paintings and inscriptional writings from 45 000 years ago represent the oldest known human literacy on earth.

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Consumers still remain ready and willing to make choices about which elements of culture they prefer and which they dislike and avoid. Our choices determine which music, films, television programs and sporting events will succeed in the long run and which won't. Every one of us plays a part in determining our cultural history.

Popular culture at the end of World War II: the 'Australian Way of Life'

When World War II ended in 1945, Australian society entered an era that, in material ways, was more prosperous and satisfying than ever before. Average household incomes increased remarkably; five times faster than in the period 1901–40. Many more people were buying their own home rather than renting. Home ownership, for non-Indigenous people, grew from just over half the adult population in 1947 to almost three-quarters by 1966. Amazingly, in 1949, there were fewer than 1500 unemployed people in Australia (although this figure would in reality have been significantly higher, as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people were not included in the census at the time) and almost 150 000 job vacancies.

Workers, who now had more job security and spending money, were also given more time to spend it when Australians were granted a full, two-day weekend break for the first time in 1945, and paid annual holidays were increased from one to two weeks. Popular cultural activities, such as movie-going, record-collecting, radio-listening or sports-watching, were all boosted by higher wages and the shorter working hours.

Certain commentators spoke proudly about the 'Australian Way of Life', though they often had trouble defining what this was. What was actually happening was that a way of life influenced strongly by Britain was giving way to rapid Americanisation. During World War II, the dramatic presence of more than one million American servicemen had already made a powerful cultural statement, particularly in cities such as Brisbane and Sydney. They brought American music – pop records, big bands, boogie-woogie and rhythm and blues; American dances – jiving and jitter-bugging; Hollywood films (which were already making a strong impact before the war); American comics, magazines and paperbacks; and American food and drink – Coca-Cola, milk-bars, bubblegum and so on.

These were all enthusiastically adopted by countless Australians, particularly the young. Australians were avid cinema-goers at this time, and also enjoyed many different sports including cricket and Australian rules football. Membership of sports teams flourished, and more sporting facilities were built. The working class began to have access to sports such as tennis and golf, which were sports previously only accessible to the wealthy.

At the end of the war, advertising firms convinced many consumers that cars, telephones and other household goods, formerly considered luxuries, were now 'essential' to the 'Australian Way of Life'.

Historians emphasise that although this newly affluent society carried bright hopes, it also involved some serious difficulties. As new homes were usually mortgaged and new **consumer durables** were often bought via **hire purchase** agreements, private national debt increased almost 60-fold between 1945 and 1959. **Conformist** pressures were also high as suburban and **nuclear family** life were considered the ideal to which all people should aspire.

consumer durables goods able to be kept

hire purchase buying an item by making regular incremental payments while owning it outright

conformist in agreement with existing social standards, attitudes and practices

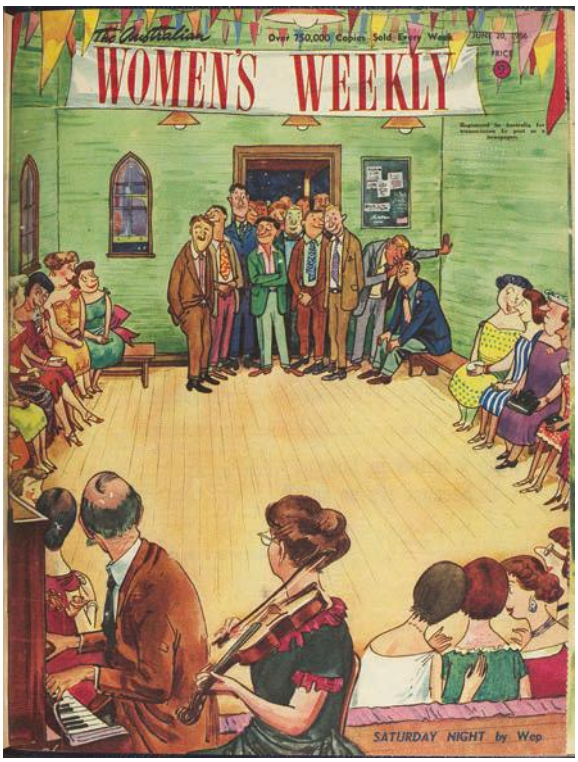
nuclear family a 'typical' family; a man and a woman and their dependent children

This was also a time when many women felt trapped in suburbia, many youths felt bored and rebellious, many migrants felt bewildered and excluded, and many creative people felt **alienated** and unappreciated. Same-sex couples were demonised and most Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people were treated as second or third-class citizens. These **marginalised**

alienated isolated

marginalised treated as insignificant

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Source 4.7 The cover of the magazine *The Australian Women's Weekly* captures the cultural mood in post-war Australia in 1956

people also had their own cultural behaviours, tastes and preferences to defend; and while security and satisfaction were to be found in these cultural behaviours, there was also conflict and anxiety when they clashed with mainstream ideals. With the outbreak of the **Cold War**, there was a continuing threat of nuclear war and some people feared **communism**.

Cold War the political and military tension between the Soviet Union and the United States from 1945 to 1989

communism the political practice of Marxism in which the state or government controls most of the nation's wealth and private property is restricted

Developments in popular culture in post-war Australia

Here come the teenagers!

The word 'teenager' was first used in the United States in 1944 to describe an adolescent aged between 13 and 19 years. The word 'teen', from

Activity 4.2

1. Hold a class debate about whether the 1950s was an era of prosperity and contentment or one of disturbance and anxiety. Consider, for example, the better living standards on the one hand and the fears of nuclear warfare, communism and marginalisation on the other.
2. Account for why there was a new focus on leisure after 1945.
3. Discuss why popular culture was considered inferior to elite or high culture.

HISTORICAL FACT

In the mid-1950s, a new Holden car cost an average Australian working-class family up to 61 weeks' earnings.



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which this term came, had been in use since the 1920s, first in a comic strip about a **Jazz Age** youth named Harold Teen. The word 'adolescent' had been created in 1898 by American psychologist G. Stanley Hall to describe a person at an intermediate stage between childhood and adulthood – a stage with its own special characteristics.

Jazz Age 1920s United States; a carefree time

The word 'teenager' was not used in Australia until 1949, when it was adopted by advertisers to sell such products as records, clothing and magazines to young people. Close behind it, in 1950, came the uniquely Australian terms 'bodgie' – a male teenager who dressed differently from the norm, wore his hair long and styled, and sometimes engaged in **anti-social** behaviour – and 'widgie' – the bodgie's female equivalent (but with short hair). These terms were adopted by the media as well as by concerned officials and psychologists as a shorthand description of 'trouble'.

anti-social not sociable; harmful to the existing order

These so-called bodgies and widgies were mostly working-class youth who had been children during World War II. They had been attracted to the way that US servicemen dressed, spoke, behaved and danced. 'Bodger' was an Australian slang word meaning something fake or false; so bodgies were regarded as 'fake Americans' or 'Wooloomooloo Yanks'.

The emergence of the first bodgies and widgies in the days before the emergence of rock 'n' roll (that is, the early 1950s) may be seen as the first modern appearance of an Australian youth **sub-culture**.

sub-culture a cultural group within an overall culture, which has different values and interests from the overall culture



Source 4.8 An artist's interpretation of 'bodgies'. Psychologist A.E. Manning conducted a study into the behaviour of bodgies in order to attempt to explain youth rebellion. His resulting publication was titled *The Bodgie: a study in psychological abnormality* and was published in 1958.

Adults reacted with what has been described as a 'moral panic'; that is, an exaggerated reaction that stereotyped all such youth as a moral threat, and called upon politicians and police to deal harshly with them. Yet, little or no distinction was made between the way these teenagers dressed and looked (and the music they preferred) and the sometimes anti-social ways in which only a small number of them behaved.

Teenage males described as bodgies wore long drape-coats or leather jackets; brightly coloured, open-necked shirts; and pegged pants (tight at the waist and the ankles, and baggy at the knees) or, later, blue jeans. Their hair was longer than the 'short-back-and-sides' worn by other Australian men; it was slicked back at the

HISTORICAL FACT

The early bodgie hairstyle was based on the way Hollywood film star Cornel Wilde wore his hair in the film *A Song to Remember* (1945), in which he played the classical composer Frédéric Chopin.

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Activity 4.3

1 Explain why Australian adults were so threatened by teenagers dressing and looking differently in the 1950s.

2 Evaluate why American fashions, slang and music become so popular among Australian youth.

sides with 'California Poppy' hair-oil, sculpted into a 'duck-tail' at the back and cascaded down in a curly spiral at the front. Females described as widgies often had short, cropped hair. They wore tight blouses with plunging necklines and form-fitting skirts, tight around the knees.

As the 1950s unfolded, many teenagers tried to dress this way, leading adults to believe falsely that 'problem youth' were suddenly everywhere. As one young woman stated, 'We all tried to be bodgies and widgies in those days!' Clearly, adult disapproval was gradually being out-paced by teenage peer-group pressure.

Rock 'n' roll arrives down under

Music historians are unsure about when rock 'n' roll music began. Rhythm-based songs with the words 'rock' or 'roll' (or both) in them can be traced back to the 1920s. The first such number, 'My Daddy Rocks Me (With One Steady Roll)', was recorded by African-American female **blues** artist Trixie Smith in 1922.

blues African-American folk music, often arranged in a 12-bar chord progression

genre a type or style

Rock 'n' roll music emerged as a distinct **genre** of music in the early 1950s, when African-American rhythm and blues songs (such as 'Rocket 88') began receiving airplay on certain white American radio stations and white performers began recording their blander versions of such numbers. Rock 'n' roll was basically black blues music adapted for white listeners and dancers, with some white country and western music influences thrown in. The term 'rock 'n' roll' itself was coined by Cleveland disc jockey Alan Freed in 1951.

In April 1954, the song 'Rock Around the Clock' was recorded in the United States by Bill Haley and His Comets. However, it was not until 1955, when it was chosen to open the soundtrack of the film *The Blackboard Jungle*, a serious drama about juvenile **delinquency** in American high schools, that rock 'n' roll really seized the wider public imagination. It was suggested for the film by the lead actor's eight-year-old son.

delinquency misbehaviour, especially of young people

Many Australians initially encountered rock 'n' roll by watching *The Blackboard Jungle* at their local cinemas. This had the unfortunate outcome of linking the lively music, with its distinctive **backbeat**, to teenage disturbance.

backbeat a secondary accent on the second and fourth beats of the bar of music, rather than the first and third

Yet, importantly, Australian teenage disturbance associated with popular music had actually occurred well before the arrival of rock 'n' roll. For example, in Brisbane in September 1954, concerts at the local stadium by US singer Johnnie Ray (nicknamed 'The Million Dollar Teardrop') attracted a surging crowd of 8000, which blocked the streets outside, stopping all traffic for half an hour. Police fought with teenagers who laid siege to Ray's dressing room and tore off some of his clothes. Ray stated, 'I thought they were wild in London but this is much wilder'.

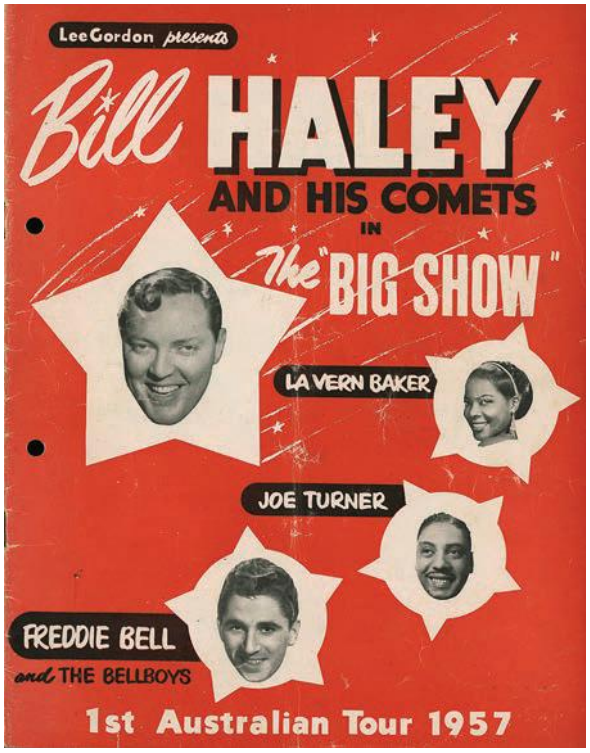
Johnnie Ray had been brought to Australia by an eccentric entrepreneur from the United States named Lee Gordon, who had settled in Australia in 1953. During the 1950s, Gordon introduced

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470 American singing stars in his Australian 'Big Shows'. In January 1957, Gordon brought Bill Haley and His Comets, along with other rock 'n' roll artists (such as The Platters) on a **barnstorming** tour of Australia, playing to more than 330 000 excited fans. This was the first time that American rock 'n' rollers had performed live anywhere outside the United States.

barnstorm a very quick tour of an area

When the first concert opened at Newcastle, organisers had to play 'God Save the Queen' over the sound system in order to control the frenzied crowd response and, claimed the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 'turn the audience [back] into normal work-a-day people'. Teenagers, it seemed, had a new anthem to capture their allegiance.



Source 4.9 A program cover for the first international rock 'n' roll tour of Australia, starring Bill Haley and His Comets, in 1957

The devil's music? Adult reactions to rock 'n' roll

Rock 'n' roll divided Australian society more sharply than any other cultural force before or since. This division was generational. Young people rejoiced at the new sound. Adults, however, generally reacted as though a plague of terrible proportions had descended on the nation. Rock 'n' roll was condemned as the soundtrack of rebellion and moral breakdown. As the fast, exciting music appealed most to working-class youth, middle-class criticism from various professional 'experts', the media and the churches was directed squarely at it and at them.

Rock 'n' roll was attacked in the Australian press and many radio stations initially banned it. Critics stated that the music was totally opposed to the 'Australian Way of Life'. They called it 'the music of violence' and 'a naked return to the **bestial** and barbarous'. By feeding into a bodgie sub-culture, it was seen as producing 'a new and rapidly multiplying race of young people with no principles'.

bestial like a beast

It was quite a challenge to find any adults who had a good word to say publicly about this music. They hoped it would soon go away. White adults, however, had felt similarly about rhythmic, danceable music since at least the 1890s: **ragtime** music and **cakewalk** dancing were condemned at that time for being

ragtime syncopated modern piano music from the early twentieth century, invented by African-Americans

cakewalk an African-American dance, with a cake as a prize

HISTORICAL FACT

The first Australian to make a rock 'n' roll recording was Torres Strait Islander George Assang, who performed under the name of Vic Sabrino. It was a cover version of Bill Haley's *Rock Around the Clock* and was recorded in 1956.

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obscene. In the 1920s, jazz was attacked as 'Negro slave noise'. In the 1940s, boogie-woogie music was thought to be one of the main causes of youth delinquency.

All these musical forms, from ragtime to rock 'n' roll, were largely the creation of African-American composers and musicians. In white Australian society, a strong racial and moral objection existed against music of this type. Its sensual and passionate quality made it seem the enemy of all that was civilised, rational and respectable.

From 1956, US singer Elvis Presley was attacked for his uninhibited movements as he sang. He moved his body like no other male performer before him and it was said that he sang like a black man. Though Presley had sung many quiet ballads, the Australian media branded him a vulgar and highly paid delinquent.

When rock 'n' roll singers performed upbeat songs, they sang not only with their voices but also with their bodies. In response, teenage audiences listened not only with their ears but with their bodies as well. They did not want to sit still at concerts and simply applaud politely at the end of each song. Instead, they leapt to their feet, screamed and yelled, danced in the aisles and tried to rush the stage. This led to an often heavy-handed policing response. The general **consensus** among its detractors was that this dangerous music made youths lose self-control. It was a recipe for social and sexual misbehaviour and needed to be stopped.

consensus general agreement



Source 4.10 Australian rock 'n' roll singer Johnny O'Keefe projecting the image that disturbed parents in the 1950s; note his flat-top hair cut and kiss-curl sideburns.

Activity 4.4

1. Discuss why you think this music would have excited people of your age so much in the mid-1950s.
2. Develop a music chart of the top five or ten songs you consider to be the most important rock 'n' roll numbers of the 1950s. Write a short paragraph about each, explaining why you have chosen it.

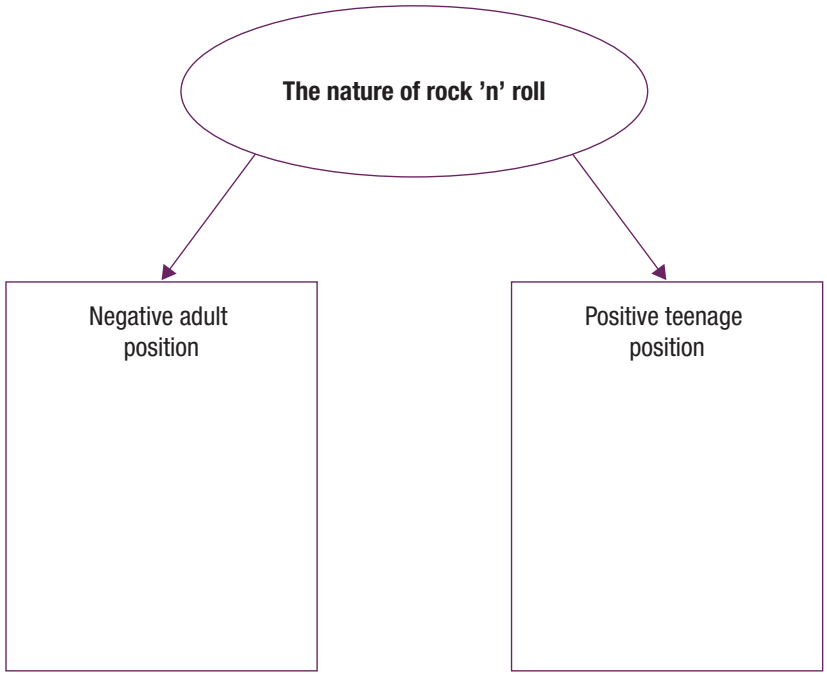
HISTORICAL FACT

Rock 'n' roll dancing was attacked in the Commonwealth Parliament in September 1958 as 'immoral, disgusting, offensive and entirely unsuitable for presentation on any television program'.

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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, list the negative position of adults and the positive position of teenagers on the nature of rock 'n' roll.



Rock 'n' roll is here to stay: the teenage reaction

Most Australian teenagers loved the new music. It was fast and defiant. It had a 'solid' beat they could dance to. It was fun to listen to – fresh, distinctive and exciting. Nothing like it had been heard in Australia before and many loved it simply because adults hated it. Teens could consider it to be their own special music.

Yet, unlike today, it was difficult to hear the music played or see the singers who performed it. Hard-driving rock 'n' roll was rarely heard on radio. The Lee Gordon 'Big Shows' allowed only fleeting glimpses of overseas performers on stage and only rarely did teenage music films (such as *Don't Knock the Rock* and *The Girl Can't Help It*) feature solo artists or singing groups in short cameo roles (a precursor to today's music video).

Television, however, soon began to fill this vacuum by developing weekly music shows featuring rock 'n' roll performed by local artists.


4BK NATIONAL TOP 40

The ORIGINAL and AUTHENTIC survey of HIT TUNES

FOR WEEK COMMENCING AUGUST 17th

as compiled from PUBLIC SURVEY, RECORD SALES, MUSIC SALES

1.	The Purple People Eater	1	6	21.	All I Have To Do Is Dream	12	13
2.	A Pub With No Beer	3	10	22.	This Happy Feeling	—	1
3.	Patricia	9	5	23.	Swinging Shepherd Blues	22	14
4.	Do You Want to Dance?	14	6	24.	No Chemise, Please	—	1
5.	Padre	5	6	25.	Kathaleen	19	6
6.	Big Man	7	9	26.	Cha Hua Hua	—	1
7.	Secretly	8	8	27.	Oh, Lonesome Me	28	14
8.	Endless Sleep	10	6	28.	Torero	37	3
9.	Return to Me	4	10	29.	Let the Bells Keep Ringing	35	2
10.	You Need Hands	11	6	30.	Ballad of a Teenage Queen	23	12
11.	Witch Doctor	2	9	31.	When The Boys Talk About the Girls	29	5
12.	So Tough	21	3	32.	Just Married	—	1
13.	Twilight Time	6	16	33.	Eula	—	1
14.	Wear My Ring Around Your Neck	15	11	34.	Yakkity Yak	33	2
15.	El Rancho Rock	18	5	35.	Kewpie Doll	40	15
16.	Answer to Pub With No Beer	17	9	36.	Tisket a Tasket	—	1
17.	Rebel Rouser	36	2	37.	Don't Go Home	24	5
18.	Prettiest Girl in School	20	3	38.	Zorro	32	2
19.	I Know Where I'm Going	26	3	39.	When	—	1
20.	Arrivederci Roma	13	9	40.	*Little Star	—	1

* Not yet available in record shops.

4BK DISC JOCKEY PREDICTIONS

Last Right Out of Your Heart (Allan Lappan)
Sugar Moon (Malcolm Searle)
Teacher, Teacher (Howard Brown)

THESE WERE IN LAST WEEK
Book of Love.
Johnny B. Goode.
Lazy Mary.
Bop a Lena.
Looking Back.
Rumble.
He's Got the Whole World in His Hands.
That'll Be All Right.

AND A NATIONAL SURVEY BY THE BILLBOARD THE AMUSEMENT INDUSTRY'S LEADING NEWS WEEKLY..

WHEN TO HEAR 4BK'S NATIONAL TOP 40
6.00— 8.30 a.m. MONDAY TO FRIDAY, 6.00—8.00 a.m. SATURDAY,
4.15— 5.15 p.m. MONDAY TO THURSDAY, 4.15—5.30 p.m. FRIDAY,
10.30—11.30 a.m. SATURDAY AND SUNDAY.

The National Top Forty is broadcast throughout Australia by the Major Network

see over

Source 4.11 A Top 40 chart for 17 August 1958. You might like to check out some of these tunes on the internet.

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This was the opportunity for Australian rock stars to shine. Whereas American or British performers were rarely seen on television, local Australian singers, such as Johnny O'Keefe, Col Joye, Dig Richards, Johnny Devlin, Laurel Lee and Lonnie Lee, among many others, could now be watched and heard on a regular basis. In March 1958, Sydney radio station 2UE began the first 'Top 40' chart. Teenagers were soon buying the records of local entertainers and turning them into hits.

The first national music television programs were *Bandstand* (based on the US program *American Bandstand*), compered by mild-mannered TCN9 news-reader Brian Henderson, and *Six O'clock Rock* (based on the British program *Six Five Special*), compered by **riotous** Sydney rocker Johnny O'Keefe. Whereas *Bandstand* portrayed a **sedate** image, with teenagers dancing discreetly in their neatest outfits, *Six O'clock Rock*, under O'Keefe's urgings, grew increasingly informal and **raucous**, like a wild teenage party. Its weekly viewing audience soon approached one million.

riotous involving wild behaviour or public disorder

sedate quiet and dignified

raucous loud and boisterous

By 1960, many of the original wild American rockers had been killed or injured in car and plane crashes and had been sidelined in the eyes of the Australian public. In Australia, Johnny O'Keefe almost died when his car crashed near Kempsey in New South Wales. The once-feared bodgies and widgies were increasingly being cast as 'fans' and 'consumers'.

The word 'teeny-bopper' was coined as teenage spending topped $600 million per year. These young 'baby-boomers' were now an important component of popular consumer culture. Their **patronage** of cinemas, drive-ins and radio stations saved these from the ravages of television. In this way, a truce was at last called between rock 'n' roll's detractors and its champions.

patronage customer support

Activity 4.5

Listen to Johnny O'Keefe's *Shout!* and Col Joye's *Oh Yeah, Uh-Huh*, both recorded in 1959, and compare and contrast the two performance styles in the songs. (You may need to use the internet to find the songs.)

Research 4.1

Investigate the ways in which rock 'n' roll was moulded into a tamer musical form between 1956 and 1960 and prepare a PowerPoint presentation on the topic, perhaps illustrated with musical examples from the internet.

HISTORICAL FACT

Australia's first rock 'n' roll hit, Johnny O'Keefe's *Wild One*, was written in early 1958 by two members of his band The Dee-Jays, after witnessing a street riot between teenagers and Italian wedding guests at a dance in the Sydney suburb of Newtown.



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Going to the movies

It would be no exaggeration to say that, for much of the early twentieth century, Australians were **besotted** by the movies. Indeed, per head of population, Australians were the most frequent cinema-goers in the world. In 1945, Australian picture-theatres recorded 151 million annual cinema admissions in a nation of less than seven-and-a-half million people.

besotted infatuated; enamoured by

During this mid-century movie-going **boom**, young people often went to 'the pictures' at least once a week. Children usually patronised the Saturday afternoon matinee, where special programs of action films and comedies were shown, supported by cartoons and serials. Others attended sessions in luxurious inner-city 'picture palaces' or joined large communal gatherings at local suburban theatres, where patrons often sat in their designated places on low-slung canvas chairs. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander picture-goers, however, were often segregated in roped-off seating close to the screen, especially in country towns.

boom a period of rapid growth

Australians were especially star-struck by Hollywood. Virtually all the films shown in Australia came from that source, apart from a trickle of British-made movies or the odd Australian production. In the 1950s, Australian commercial film-making was practically non-existent.

Interestingly, Australia had once been one of the world's leading film-makers. In 1897, it had established one of the first film studios, producing almost 300 films over the following decade. In 1906, the first feature-length narrative film in the world, *The Story of the Kelly Gang*, had been directed in Australia by Charles Tait. From 1910 to 1927, almost 240 feature films were made. Yet, by 1928, around 95 per cent of the movies shown in Australia were from the United States. Australian film distributors and exhibitors had merged their activities before World War I, and profits were increased by showing cheaper features from the United States, rather than supporting local film production.

By the early 1950s, movie-going itself was also declining. In 1951, attendance figures had fallen by 20 per cent from their 1945 peak. Even before the arrival of television, many families were choosing other leisure pursuits, including staying at home and listening to the radio. Others were saving for a new home or car. The beginning of television in Australian in 1956 turned this slump into a fully fledged **exodus** of cinema-goers. By 1957, in Victoria alone, cinema attendance had fallen by five million patrons.



Source 4.12 Image of James Dean, playing a troubled teenager in Nicholas Ray's *Rebel Without a Cause*, a popular film in 1955

exodus a mass departure

Cinemas began to close. In 1955, there were nearly 1700 cinemas in Australia; by 1968, almost 700 of these, especially in rural areas and the suburbs, had shut their doors. Many were demolished or converted into offices, theatre restaurants or squash courts.

The film industry tried to fight back with technicolour block-busters on wide screens. There was even a short-lived introduction of 3D movies. However, for a considerable time it was a losing battle. It was the under-25 age group that saved the film industry from total collapse – young people bucked the trend and still went to the movies. As film historian Diane Collins puts it: 'Cinemas became the domain of … adolescents who were generally anxious to avoid being home as much as possible. To them, the picture show still offered somewhere to misbehave in peace.'

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Activity **4.6**

1. Recall how many annual cinema admissions were recorded in Australia in 1945.
2. Film historian Diane Collins says that adolescents wanted to avoid being at home, which is why they went to the cinema. Discuss whether you think this is also the case today.
3. Design a movie poster for a 1950s film of your choice. Write a short explanatory essay about the values it reflects; for example, the way men and women are depicted in such posters of the 1950s.

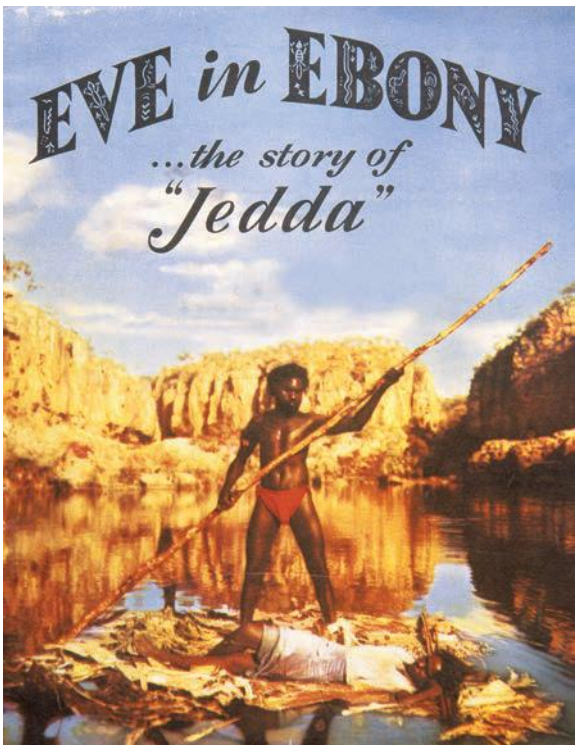
HISTORICAL FACT

The first drive-in picture theatre in Australia, much favoured by teenagers, was opened at Burwood in Melbourne in February 1954, 21 years after the first drive-in was opened in the United States.

Finding Australia at the movies

Until the 1970s, many post-war Australians had never seen an Australian movie. The 1950s and 1960s are regarded as the nation's lowest point in filmmaking. Between 1959 and 1966, there were no exclusively Australian feature films made. As independent cinemas closed due to the impact of television, the major cinema companies, Hoyts and Greater Union, both of which were foreign-owned, extended their control. They were primarily interested in distributing and exhibiting Hollywood films and, to a lesser extent, British ones.

If Australian film-goers *had* managed to see a locally made film in this era, it was probably *Jedda* (1955), directed by Charles Chauvel. This was an important film for several reasons. It was the first all-colour movie made in Australia and secondly, for the first time, it presented Aboriginal actors (Robert Tudawali and Ngarla Kunoth) in the leading roles. Third, it was a mature story about a serious subject: the problems Aboriginal people faced in white society. Many Australians saw and remembered *Jedda*, with its tragic, disturbing finale.



Source 4.13 Australian feature films such as *Jedda* were few and far between before the 1970s.

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Another popular film was Michael Powell's *They're a Weird Mob* (1966), a comedy about an Italian migrant's difficulties in understanding Australian customs, based on a book of the same title. This film broke all box-office records and was the most popular local movie of the 1960s. Yet it was not really an Australian film. The director was British and it was financed by British money. Foreign actors played the lead roles, with 'bit' parts given to Australians – including Chips Rafferty and Graham Kennedy – in order to add local 'colour'.

Other 'location' features or co-productions included the British-made film *The Shiralee* (1957) and the American movies *On the Beach* (1959), a story about the end of the world, set in Melbourne, and *The Summer of the Seventeenth Doll* (1959), about Queensland cane cutters, with an all-foreign cast struggling to speak with Australian accents.

Many Australian viewers were grateful to catch glimpses of themselves in these movies and to spot familiar locations. However, because these features were made by outsiders for a global audience, they often lacked authenticity. Australians were usually presented as **stock types** – two-dimensional cut-outs, filmed in bush settings, with the obligatory kookaburra laughing on the soundtrack. What the local success of such films demonstrated, however, was that many Australians did want to see themselves depicted in movies.

stock type a character based on a social stereotype

By the mid-1960s, a few notable Australian features were beginning to appear, such as Tim Burstall's *2000 Weeks* (1967), a film about urban living that advertised itself as 'not about the desert or the outback: it hasn't a kangaroo or a swagman in it'. Two years earlier, Ian Dunlop's documentary, *Desert People* (1965), about an aspect of traditional Aboriginal life, had won international acclaim. However, such films were lone achievers. They struck trouble with cinema distribution and could not turn a profit. Meanwhile, five million Australians flocked to see the American musical *The Sound of Music* (1965).

At this time there was no Australian film industry. It would require the establishment of the Australian Film Development Corporation, begun after much pressure by the Gorton Coalition Government in 1970, to change this.

> I saw *Giant* in Bundaberg's Wintergarden Theatre, probably in 1957. I was 10. The riveting James Dean played Jet Rink, a slouching, poor ranch-worker. Marlon Brando had recently arrived in *The Wild One*. Elvis Presley would soon appear in *Love Me Tender*. The world would never be the same. They had new faces, new ways of being in the world – a world so much bigger, braver, more real and more alive than anything in my world. I was mesmerised just to watch them walk, or turn and face the camera with such audacity, even as they played characters with no worldly goods, only their bare selves to hold them upright. No one had seen anything like them. It wasn't that they were American. They were gods. Or devils. And only the movies were powerful enough to hold them. For me, they were living proof that, if I had the nerve, maybe even I could have a life of my own making.
>
> **Source 4.14** Frank Chalmers remembers teenage movie-going in the 1950s

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Activity 4.7

1 Construct your own advertising poster for the film *Jedda*, *They're a Weird Mob* or *On the Beach*.
2 Assess why Australian cinema faced such an uphill battle between 1955 and 1970.
3 Investigate the other films with Australian subjects that were made in this era.

HISTORICAL FACT

The winner of the Best Australian Film of the Year in 1959 was a short travelogue titled *Grampians Wonderland*. Three years later, the award went to an official documentary with the 'dazzling' title, *A Report of the Political Development of the Territory of New Guinea*.

From radio to television

From the 1920s to the 1950s, radio reigned supreme in Australian lives. In 1938, two-thirds of homes had a radio set. It was the housewife's constant companion, delivering soap operas and handy household hints by day; and it was the child's after-school friend, broadcasting adventure shows and activity clubs. At night, it became the after-dinner entertainer for all the family. A 1947 survey of people's evening leisure habits found that while six per cent liked dancing and eight per cent went to the movies, a total of 40 per cent listened to the radio.

Television had begun in the United States in 1946, and by 1954 there were more than 350 commercial television stations in operation in that country. Close to half of all American homes had a television set. Television was also well established in Britain. Yet in Australia in 1954, a **Royal Commission** was still deciding on how the introduction of television should proceed. In the late 1940s, the Chifley Labor Government had supported only a state-run service, as was done in Britain. However, the Menzies Coalition Government, which took office in 1949, reversed that decision.

Royal Commission an official committee of inquiry appointed by the Crown



Source 4.15 An advertisement for the Astor Radio Corporation, which manufactured radios in Australia from the 1920s

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HISTORICAL FACT

The first regular television broadcasts in Australia occurred as early as April 1934. They were sent from the former convict windmill on Wickham Terrace, Brisbane, and were received as far away as Ipswich.



By 1955 it was decided that Australia should blend the American and British models and have both a nationalised broadcasting service (the ABC) as well as, initially, two commercial channels in Sydney and Melbourne. The first private companies to bid for these commercial licences were the big newspaper interests – and it has remained largely that way ever since.

In July 1956, TCN9 in Sydney and HSV7 in Melbourne began test transmissions to enormous public excitement. Though screens were small and transmission only in black and white, television promised visual stimulation in the home each night – something very appealing to people accustomed to only occasional cinema visits. People often walked or drove considerable distances to stand on footpaths, gazing in rapt attention through shopfront windows at a small TV screen.

Continual broadcasting began in Sydney on 16 September 1956 and in Melbourne 11 days later. Although transmission of the 1956 Olympic Games in Melbourne promoted early sales, the general uptake of TV sets into Australian homes was slow – only four per cent of the population in Melbourne and one per cent in Sydney had purchased a TV set by 1957. The cost of a receiver was up to two-thirds of an average worker's annual wage.

As reception spread to other capital cities (Adelaide, Brisbane and Perth) in 1959, and to many country areas (such as Ballarat, Launceston and Townsville) by 1962, prices of TV sets fell. By 1965, 90 per cent of households in Sydney and Melbourne possessed a TV.

As drama, quiz and variety programs moved from radio to television, radio programs began to promote rock 'n' roll and featured 'Top 40' hit parades, appealing to teenagers. By 1960, 70 per cent of all radio sales were for transistors and car radios. So, while television became a household fixture, radio, in the hands of teenagers, went portable.

The big TV debate

By the mid-1950s, 'TV or not TV' was no longer the question in Australia. From its introduction, television gradually achieved the most widespread penetration into everyday life of any cultural medium. Radio listening was still very popular but, as it concentrated more and more on music, it became a background activity to other daily pursuits. Television, because it involved both sound and vision, demanded all of an individual's attention.

There was considerable debate over whether television could be a positive force, educating and enlightening citizens and raising their cultural and moral standards; or whether it was a bad influence, introducing unacceptable levels of violence and immorality directly into the home. As with rock 'n' roll, the effect of television on children and teenagers caused the most concern.

A similar campaign had been waged in the mid-1950s against the negative effects of American comic books on children – particularly comics dealing with crime, horror and superheroes. By 1954, up to 60 million comics were bought annually in Australia. Images of violence in some of these comics were said to be turning readers into juvenile delinquents. Several states, especially Queensland and Western Australia, banned their import and sale.

The debate about television's alleged harmfulness followed similar lines. One survey

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Activity **4.8**

1. Construct a list of all the objections to television covered in the text. Were they realistic concerns at the time?
2. Based on your own viewing experiences and those of people you know, discuss whether you think that the predictions of television's critics and detractors came to pass.

claimed that there was a violent scene every two minutes. One reason for such concern was that, similar to comics, television was difficult for adults to monitor. Comics were cheap for children to buy and television was highly accessible in the home.

It was also feared that high levels of exposure would affect a person's ability to communicate. Viewers, it was thought, would not talk and interact as much anymore; that they would simply sit there, silently absorbing 'the box'. Children would no longer be seen 'riding bicycles, jumping rope or trying to talk to their parents'. They would become physically inactive, mentally dull and obese.

Furthermore, television sets were seen to be intrusively saturating Australian life with American culture. Commercial stations pumped out almost exclusively US content and 85 per cent of viewers watched these channels rather than the ABC, with its British and Australian emphases. It was feared that television, more than any other medium, was going to destroy the 'Australian Way of Life'.



Source 4.16 American television stars such as Roger Smith, of the top-rating private eye show *77 Sunset Strip*, were among the many American television performers dominating Australian screens in the early 1960s.

The United States in the living room

Much like the Australian film distributors of the 1910s and 1920s, the owners of Australian commercial television channels initially favoured buying American programs rather than encouraging local talent. These US shows were cheaper than locals ones, and available in abundance. Filmed in Hollywood studios, they were expensively

HISTORICAL FACT

Critics said that television would create 'a new teenage generation of myopic, hunchbacked sponges, shovelling into oblivious mouths pre-cooked pap on tinfoil plates' as they 'soaked up second-rate Yankee culture'.

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HISTORICAL FACT

The star of *Homicide*, Leonard Teale, had previously provided the voice of Superman on Australian radio.



Activity **4.9**

1. Identify why American programs were favoured over Australian ones.
2. Reflect on whether or not you think US television programs undermine Australian culture.
3. List the most popular television programs from 1956 to 1964.
4. Explain how Australian-made programming gradually emerged on television.

made but had already returned their profits by being shown on American television. The young Australian industry simply could not compete with them.

American sitcoms (such as *I Love Lucy*), dramas (such as *Alfred Hitchcock Presents*), crime shows (such as *Dragnet*) and children's programs (such as *The Mickey Mouse Club)* were highly popular. Most watched of all were westerns, such as *Gunsmoke*; *Have Gun, Will Travel*; and *Maverick*.

By the late 1950s, only five of the 131 shows on Australian TV were locally made and none were shown in prime time. Only one per cent of commercial programs were Australian, so there was understandable concern that this avalanche of Americanisation would overwhelm Australian popular culture entirely. Cultural observer Robin Boyd stated in 1960: 'To most teenagers, the idea of Australian culture evokes all that is stodgy, shaggy and shudderingly boring, while America represents all that is exciting, glamorous, sparkling, neo-lit fun'.

Early local productions tended to be live-to-air variety, sport, quiz, current affairs, news and children's shows. Successful comedy or drama took much longer to establish. There was even an inhibiting belief that Australian writers could not create good scripts. ABC television featured local performances of Shakespeare and plays by Australian dramatists for its minority audience. In 1960, it showed the first historical serial, *Stormy Petrel*, set in Sydney's convict era.

It was not until HSV7 screened *Homicide* in 1964, with crime stories set in local Melbourne settings, that Australian audiences became hooked. It ran for 11 years and gave rise to later police dramas, such as *Matlock Police* and *Division 4*. Australian-made television was at last on its way.

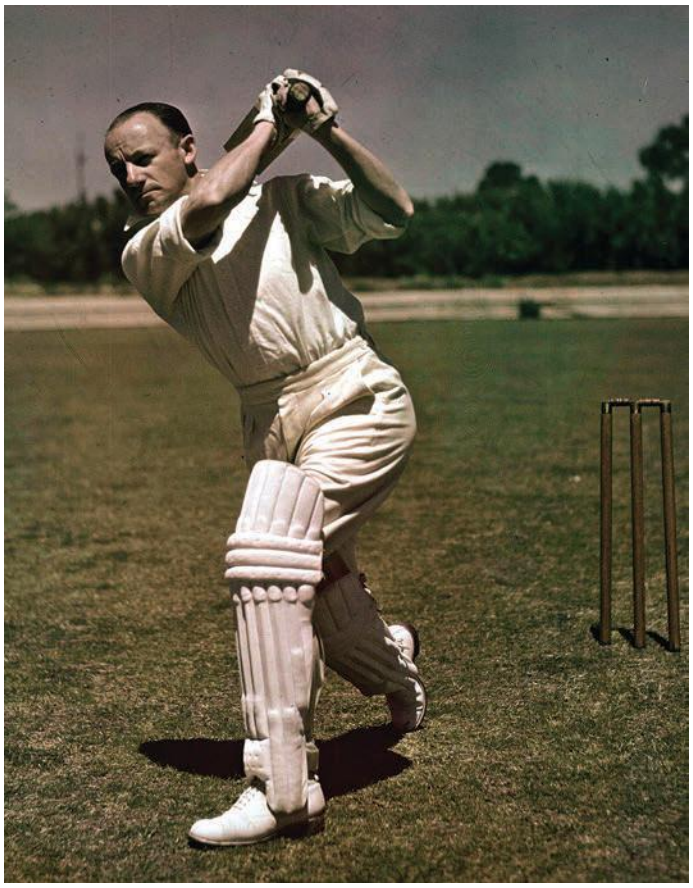
The golden age of Australian sport

In the 1950s, Australia's cultural heroes in music, film and television were mostly American; Australia's sporting heroes, however, were all home-grown. Australia was known as a sporting nation and sport was of central importance to society and culture. Australia enjoyed many sporting successes and a wide variety of different

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sports was played locally, nationally and internationally. Some writers have celebrated this sporting fixation; others have criticised its single-mindedness, arguing that sporting identities deserve no more attention – and possibly less – than Australia's other creative talents, such as its visual and performing artists, writers and actors.

No doubt argument will continue on this point. Yet there seems to be little argument over whether the immediate post-war period represented a high point in Australian sporting achievement. Between 1934 and 1953, for example, Australia held the cricketing Ashes for a record period. In 1948, the touring Australian team, captained by the world's greatest batsman, Don Bradman ('The Boy from Bowral'), was undefeated in England – the team earned itself the title of 'The Invincibles'. When Bradman retired that year (scoring a famous 'duck' in his last test appearance) his test batting average was 99.94 runs per innings.



Source 4.17 Sir Donald Bradman, playing one of his trademark flowing drives, 1946

With Bradman no longer captain, Australia's cricketing fortunes tumbled. England held the Ashes from 1953 to 1959, and disappointed cricket fans were diverted by successes in other sports. For example, Australia won the Davis Cup tennis championship from the United States on eight occasions during the 1950s. In golf, Australia's Peter Thompson became the only player to win the British Open Tournament five times. In horse racing, Arthur 'Scobie' Breasley from Wagga Wagga was the first jockey to ride 100 winners in 1955, after recovering from a serious fall the previous year. In athletics, distance runner, John Landy ('The Geelong Galloper') was second in the world to break the four-minute mile; while Marjorie Jackson ('The Lithgow Flash') became the first female Australian athlete to win gold at the Helsinki Olympic Games in 1952.

Further, Australia recorded its best performance to date at the Melbourne Olympic Games in 1956, where it placed third. Twenty-five medals, including 13 gold, were won in athletics, swimming and cycling. Five gold medals were won by women athletes – sprinter Betty Cuthbert won three of these. Australia had the home-town advantage at these Olympics, fielding a large, fully **acclimatised** team that performed at its peak before enthusiastic local crowds, who sometimes broke into spontaneous choruses of *Waltzing Matilda*.

acclimatise to adapt to local climate

Although it can be argued that Australian children had more opportunity than children in some other countries to play sport due to the weather, the country's relative wealth and its sporting culture, the sporting success of this period was largely based on natural talent and capable coaching. Yet subsequent years were to show that Australia's reliance on natural ability and tough-minded coaches was not enough. International sport was fast becoming a ruthlessly competitive business, where official funding and scientific training would carry more weight than individual physical ability.

Excitement and setbacks

After the 1956 Olympics, Australia's Olympic sporting performance declined, although the

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country was still producing outstanding individuals such as Betty Cuthbert (who again won gold at Tokyo in 1964), and swimmers Murray Rose (who set 15 world records), Shane Gould (who won five medals at Munich in 1972) and Dawn Fraser (who won gold in the same event at three successive Olympic Games).

However, Australia's medal tally fell from 25 at Melbourne to 17 at Munich before crashing to only five – four bronze and one silver – at Montreal in 1976. Australia had fielded its largest overseas team ever for those Olympic Games and 30 gold medals had been predicted.

Tennis, too, saw decline; though, once more, remarkable individual performances tended to hide this: Rod Laver ('The Rockhampton Rocket') was the first Australian to win the Grand Slam (i.e. victories in France, Britain, the United States and Australia) in 1962 and 1969. Similarly, Australia's greatest female player, Margaret Court, won two tennis Grand Slams; while, in 1971, Evonne Goolagong took out both the French Open and Wimbledon at the age of 19. Although Australia won several more Davis Cups up to 1967, it failed to reach the finals in most years thereafter.

Australia retained the cricketing Ashes against England from 1959 to 1968, though many of the games, especially in the early period, were dull and players played over-cautiously. The teams adopted defensive cricket, playing too often for a draw rather than trying to win. Match attendances began to fall.

The exciting test series played against the West Indies in 1960–1 once more fired public

Times gone by ...

When children are born in Victoria
They are wrapped in club-colours, laid in beribboned cots,
having already begun a lifetime's barracking.

Carn, they cry, Carn … feebly at first
While parents tussle playfully with them
For possession of a rusk: Ah, he's a little Tiger! (And
they are …)

… Until, now, hearts shrapnelled with rapture,
they break surface and are forever lost,
their minds rippling out like streamers …

Hot pies and potato crisps they will eat,
They will forswear the Demons, cling to the Saints and
behold their team going up
the ladder into Heaven.

Source 4.18 'Life Cycle' by Bruce Dawe

Source 4.18 is a poem about Australian rules football. Write an analysis of it and cover the following questions.

1 What do you understand, in particular, by the second verse?

2 What does the phrase 'hearts shrapnelled with rapture' mean?

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HISTORICAL FACT

Melbourne teenager John Wing suggested to the Melbourne Olympic Games organisers in 1956 that athletes should all mingle freely together during the official closing ceremony, rather than marching in their national teams. This began a practice that has continued at each Olympic Games ever since.



Research 4.2

Select a sportsperson mentioned in the text and compile a biography of his or her life and sporting career.

enthusiasm. The famous tied test match – the first ever – played at Brisbane's Woolloongabba Oval, opened the series and set the pace. The final over of seven balls bowled by West Indian fast bowler Wesley Hall was one of the most exciting events ever witnessed in international cricket. Thus began a gripping series, with the fortunes of the two sides changing throughout. In the final, deciding test played in Melbourne, which Australia narrowly won, a world record of 90 800 spectators attended the MCG on the second day. Rarely had such brilliant cricket been played.

In rugby league football, crowds were diminishing, due partly to the high level of on-field brawling. In the less popular game of rugby union, rules needed to be rewritten to change it from a kicking game to a more fluid, running one, in order to increase spectator involvement.

This game's most divisive moments came in 1971, during the tour of the racially segregated South African Springbok team. There were riots across Australia, especially in Perth, Adelaide, Melbourne, Brisbane and Toowoomba, as anti-racist protestors demonstrated their opposition to **Apartheid**. Sporting ties with South Africa ended.

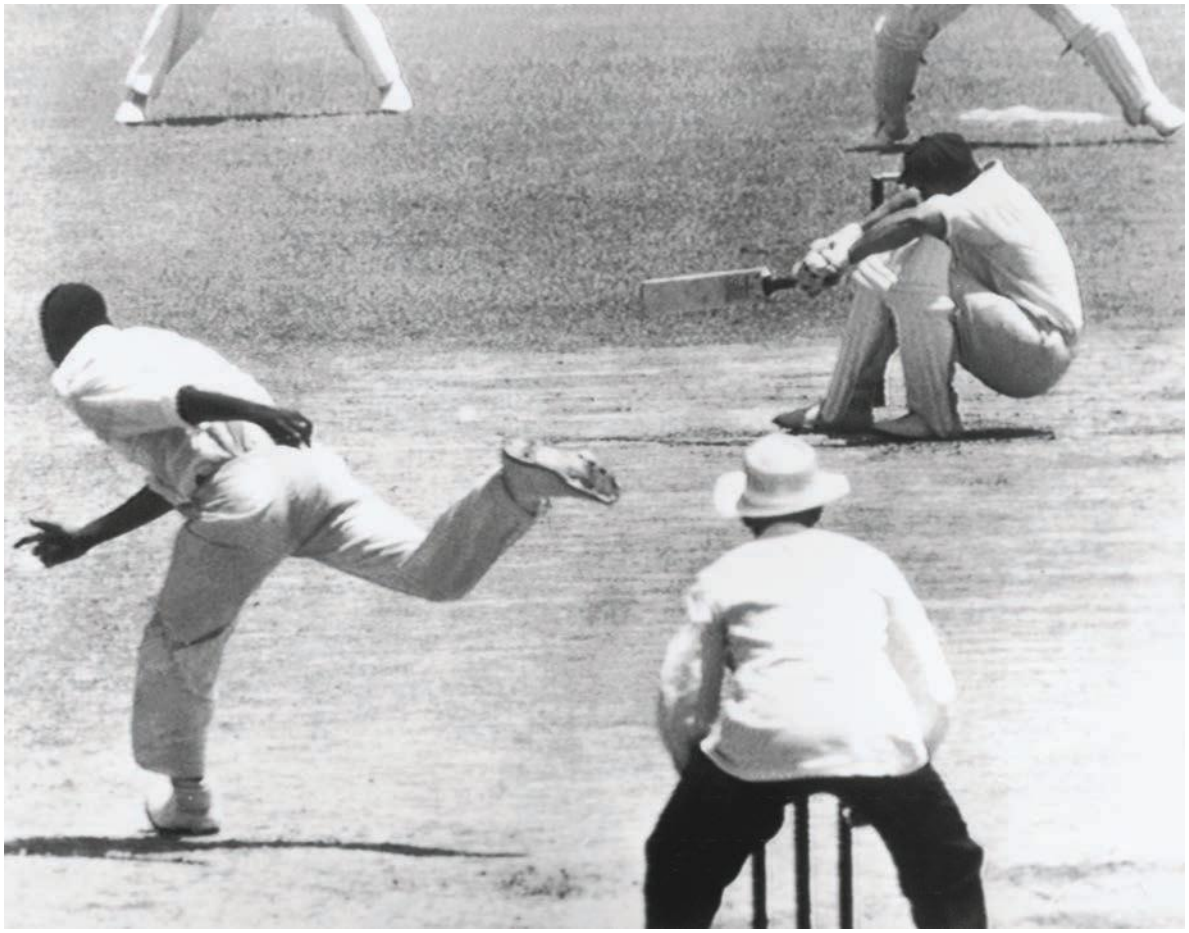
Apartheid a system of racial segregation and discrimination in South Africa (1948–94)

Australian rules football, which enjoyed high but falling attendances, was predominantly a Victorian, Western Australian and South Australian game. It did not become a national sport until the 1980s. Meanwhile, soccer's fortunes were slowly on the rise. Though enthusiastically played

Activity 4.10

Investigate the Springbok rugby union tour of Australia in 1971. As a class, debate the statement, 'Politics and sport don't mix'.

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Source 4.19 Wesley Hall, the West Indian fast bowler, reinvigorated test cricket in December 1960 when he bowled the sensational final over of the tied test match with Australia in Brisbane.

by a range of European–Australian teams, from Dutch to Yugoslavian, it was often ridiculed by Australian sporting fans of British background as 'wogball' in a society that still had a lot to learn about racial and ethnic tolerance.

Research 4.3

Research the tied test match between the West Indies and Australia in Brisbane (9–14 December 1960). Write a script for your own commentary of the last over of play.

Sporting men and women

In Australian history, sport was principally a man's game, played to develop toughness, competitiveness, strength and mateship. Men dominated team sports as players and spectators. They filled all management positions. Most sports journalists have also been men.

Women, until the late nineteenth century, were not permitted to play most sports. Instead, moderate, lady-like exercises were recommended. Gradually, such activities as archery, cycling, golf, tennis and swimming became allowable; and, by Federation in 1901, team sports, such as hockey, basketball and cricket, were being played. The first Olympics in which Australian women competed were in 1912 in Stockholm. Then, two pioneering swimmers, Fanny Durack and Mina Wylie, came home with a gold and silver medal respectively.

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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, construct a list of five leading Australian sportsmen and five leading Australian sportswomen.

Leading Australian sportsmen throughout history	Leading Australian sportswomen throughout history

This initial success underlines Australian women's high achievement in sport overall. Although women athletes, swimmers, equestrians, fencers and team players have comprised less than one quarter of those competing at Olympic and Commonwealth Games, and have been restricted to fewer sports, proportionately they have won more medals than their male counterparts.

Australian women's teams in hockey, cricket, lacrosse, netball and water polo have usually rated within the top three in world competition. Netball registers as one of the three leading sports played in Australia. Overall, about one-and-a-half million Australian women play competition sport.

Yet, women's sport has been largely ignored by the Australian media. When, in 1983, Australian women won the World Netball Championships for the fifth time, the achievement was hardly reported. A survey of capital city daily newspapers showed that, in 1980, 96.2 per cent of coverage was for

Activity **4.11**

1 Explain why Australian women have historically been so underrated in sport.
2 Identify the position today.
3 Evaluate whether it has improved in any way.

HISTORICAL FACT

The first Australian surfboard rider, in 1914, was a woman named Isabell Latham.



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Source 4.20 Professional Australian triathlete Emma Moffatt, winning the OSIM Triathlon event in Singapore, 13 July 2008

male sport. Almost a decade later, the figure had hardly changed. A Federal Government report, *Women, Sport and the Media* (1985), found that the history of Australian women's achievement in sport was 'almost totally unknown in the general community'.

Changes in the industries

Music

Folk boom and youth protest

The 1950s rock 'n' roll revolution was a cultural one, yet the folk music boom that arrived from the United States in 1963–64 offered political challenges as well, and changed the music industry in a way that had not been experienced before. During the 1960s, the youth movement used folk songs as a major inspiration in targeting warfare, military **conscription** and racial prejudice.

conscription the process of mandatory participation in war

In earlier times, folk music enthusiasts were small groups of collectors, known as folklorists, intent on preserving music from an age before recording and radio. They tracked down early English country and urban songs as well as Australian convict and bush ballads in their original form. They were essentially conservative, looking nostalgically to another place and time. Sixties folk music also revived this music for a mass audience, sometimes altering it commercially. Yet

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it increasingly featured singer-songwriters who were creating their own work, commenting on important contemporary issues such as the civil rights struggle and the Vietnam War.

The change began in late 1963, when US folk performer Pete Seeger visited Australia. Seeger had collected thousands of folk songs from around the world and had written many protest ballads himself. His tour was inspirational. Folk clubs opened in many Australian towns and cities, particularly Melbourne, Sydney and Brisbane. Such venues were cheaply run, offering coffee and light snacks to patrons, many of whom were students. On a small, intimate stage there would be an 'open mic', where anyone could perform, mostly with an acoustic guitar and sometimes a harmonica. It was, in a very real sense, an expression of people's music that was untouched by corporate interference.

Probably the most important exponent of this new trend was American singer/songwriter Bob Dylan, whose powerful and deeply poetic songs, such as 'Blowin' in the Wind' and 'The Chimes of Freedom', impressed idealistic young people. Other significant American performers, who sometimes also sang Dylan's compositions, were Joan Baez, Judy Collins, Simon and Garfunkel, and Peter, Paul and Mary. The latter group toured Australia to enormous acclaim in 1964. Bob Dylan followed two years later on a more controversial tour, where there was **dissent** at various concerts over his decision to perform, as part of the program, non-political songs with electronic backing.

dissent opposition



Source 4.21 Australian folk singers became very popular in the mid-1960s; in this photo, Emma Hannah performs at The Folk Attick in Sydney, 1964.

> 'What ghastly music,' I complained to John [Summers]. 'Can't you put something decent on?'
>
> 'That is Bob Dylan,' pronounced John with great solemnity. 'He's a genius.'
>
> It was not long before I agreed but that was after I had listened to Dylan's words, again and again, and had absorbed the mantra of protest and the passionate disavowal of injustice that was the core of the early Dylan … I actually started to enjoy his raspy voice, his powerful guitar strumming and the wail of his harmonica …

Source 4.22 Australian feminist Anne Summers remembers first hearing Bob Dylan in Adelaide in 1966

Early anti-Vietnam War protests in Australia featured marchers singing the American civil rights anthem, 'We Shall Overcome'. Soon there were also numerous local composers and performers – such as Gary Shearston, Lenore Somerset, Don Henderson, Margaret Kitamura and Eric Bogle – who sang at clubs and rallies and on national tours.

Shearston put Stradbroke Island poet Oodgeroo Noonuccal's 'We Want Freedom (Aboriginal Charter of Rights)' to music and had a sizeable hit with his **satirical** 'Sydney Town'. Don Henderson wrote many clever songs about workers' struggles, such as 'The Basic Wage Dream'. Eric Bogle's 'And the Band Played Waltzing Matilda' became a leading global peace anthem.

satirical using ridicule or sarcasm to attempt to expose error

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HISTORICAL FACT

During the 1960s, Australian folk singer Gary Shearston was considered such a security threat that a large ASIO file was kept on him.



feminist a person who believes that women and men are equals and should enjoy all the same rights

Perhaps the most influential song of all by an Australian performer, however, was the **feminist** anthem 'I Am Woman', co-written in 1970 by Melbourne singer Helen Reddy (who also recorded it) and Sydney singer/songwriter Ray Burton. In December 1972, it reached number one on the US Billboard chart, the first Australian-based song to do so. It was chosen as the anthem for International Women's Year in 1975.

Other important Australian recording artists who followed in the 1970s and 1980s, specialising in the music of protest and contemporary commentary, included Paul Kelly, Archie Roach and Kevin Carmody, as well as the bands Goanna, Midnight Oil, Redgum and Yothu Yindi.

Activity 4.12

1. Investigate the differences between the folk music of the 1950s and of the 1960s.
2. Explain why Bob Dylan's Australian tour created such controversy in 1966.
3. Extrapolate the main issues that provoked youth protest activity during the 1960s.
4. Discuss your opinion of 'protest songs'.

From Beatlemania to *Countdown*

'Beatlemania' hit Australia at the same time as the folk boom. The Beatles were originally an obscure group of singer/musicians from Liverpool, England, who had polished their act in the tough nightclubs of Hamburg, Germany. At first, they revived the raw sounds of early rock 'n' roll while writing their own catchy tunes ('Love Me Do', 'She Loves You', etc.) in much the same vein. Their enormous popularity occurred after the waves of shock and grief at the assassination of US President John F. Kennedy in November 1963. Their lively music, sprightly humour and bright new look (especially their shaggy haircuts) provided an upbeat remedy to all the global grieving.

Beatles music changed the industry in Australia because it set the pace for the Australian 'beat era'. There had already been other music crazes after the decline of 1950s rock 'n' roll: in 1960–62, the Twist had promoted freestyle, solo dancing; and in 1962–64, the Surf Music craze had produced the simple 'surfers' stomp' dance. In 1963, 20 000 people attended a Stomp Extravaganza at the Sydney showgrounds. But the reaction to the Beatles tour 'down under' in mid-1964 eclipsed everything before it. In Adelaide and Melbourne, in particular, the group received a larger and wilder reception than anywhere else in the world.

The band's music and visit inspired a second wave of Australian performers. These were mostly groups, such as Billy Thorpe and the Aztecs, The Bee Gees, Normie Rowe and the Playboys, and The Easybeats. Men wore their hair longer and longer, dress codes grew more unconventional and music became more intricate and experimental as

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Source 4.23 The Bee Gees, originally formed in Brisbane, performing on British television in 1967

the 1960s progressed. The music of the Beatles (*Sergeant Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band*), the Beach Boys (*Pet Sounds*), The Who (*Who's Next*) and Bob Dylan (*Blonde on Blonde*) grew more elaborate and exploratory.

Drug experimentation and alternative ways of living now intersected with an expanding creativity and the oppositional politics of the anti-Vietnam War movement. Popular music was being taken seriously by critics for the first time. In 1966, *Go-Set* music magazine was founded and by 1970 was attracting almost half a million readers. Other cutting-edge youth magazines such as *Gas*, *Revolution*, *Digger*, *Ram* and *Juke* followed.

After the stunning impact of the Woodstock Music and Art Festival in New York State in August 1969, several large-scale, open-air festivals were staged around Australia, beginning with the Pilgrimage of Pop at Ourimbah, north of Sydney, in January 1970. The most successful of these was the three-day Sunbury Pop Festival, near Sunbury on Melbourne's outskirts, which ran from 1972 to 1975 and was attended by about 40 000 people annually. In the meantime, theatrical performance of the rock musical *Hair*, with its controversial '30-second nude scene', and the rock opera *Jesus Christ Superstar*, spread the appeal of rock music beyond the narrow teenage range.

In November 1974, to coincide with the beginnings of colour television in Australia, the ABC launched *Countdown* to showcase new Australian talent, such as Skyhooks, a zany group formed at Melbourne University; and Sherbet, the first band to sell more than $1 million worth of records in Australia. The idea of showcasing music on television would change the industry forever. *Countdown* was originally scheduled for six episodes. It ran for 12 years.

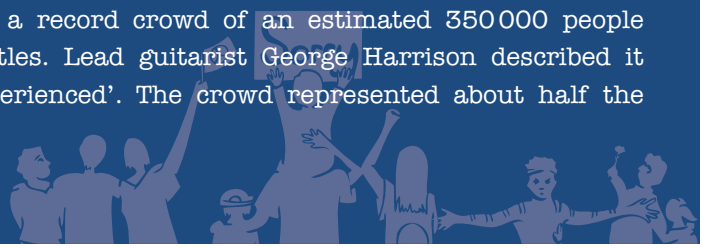
The show favoured glossy, visually striking bands (i.e. those that performed **glam rock**) to promote the appeal of colour transmission; and it preferred miming over live performance. *Countdown* also gave overseas performers, such as ABBA, Blondie and Duran Duran, their first international successes by pioneering the video clip.

glam rock rock music of the early 1970s, performed with glamorous costumes and males wearing make-up; there was an emphasis on sexual ambiguity

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HISTORICAL FACT

In Adelaide on 12 June 1964, a record crowd of an estimated 350 000 people greeted the arrival of the Beatles. Lead guitarist George Harrison described it as 'the biggest we've ever experienced'. The crowd represented about half the population of the city.



On the other hand, when *Countdown*'s producer attempted to censor Cold Chisel's dramatic 'Khe Sahn', a song about a Vietnam veteran, the group walked out. Along with Redgum and Midnight Oil, Cold Chisel tended thereafter to give *Countdown* the cold shoulder. As Midnight Oil's drummer Rob Hirst explained, '*Countdown* at the time was young girls and flashing disco floors … we wanted to present ourselves in sweaty, smoky pubs'.

From pub rock to iTunes

In the 1960s, many enduring cultural restrictions were challenged and began breaking down. Australian **censorship** of books, films and music had been among the most severe in the Western world, but started to relax by 1970. Sunday closure of hotels, enforced in all states, was gradually lifted. By the early 1970s, all states except New South Wales allowed limited Sunday hotel drinking hours. Six o'clock closing laws for hotels were also being **repealed**, which was important for the development of pub rock. Also, following sit-in protests by early feminists in Brisbane and Canberra from 1965, women were finally allowed the same access to hotel bars as men.

censorship government control over the type of information that can be included in all forms of communication

repeal to remove a law

All these changes occurred at the same time as the baby-boomer generation was reaching the legal drinking age. Hotel owners found that live music was an effective way to attract people in their late teens and early 20s into bars to drink, dance and listen.

From the mid-1970s, unemployment and **inflation** were rising. Around one in six young people were out of work. Pub rock, often offered free to drinkers, seemed an ideal way to have fun and let off steam inexpensively.

inflation a general rise in the level of prices and a fall in the purchasing value of money

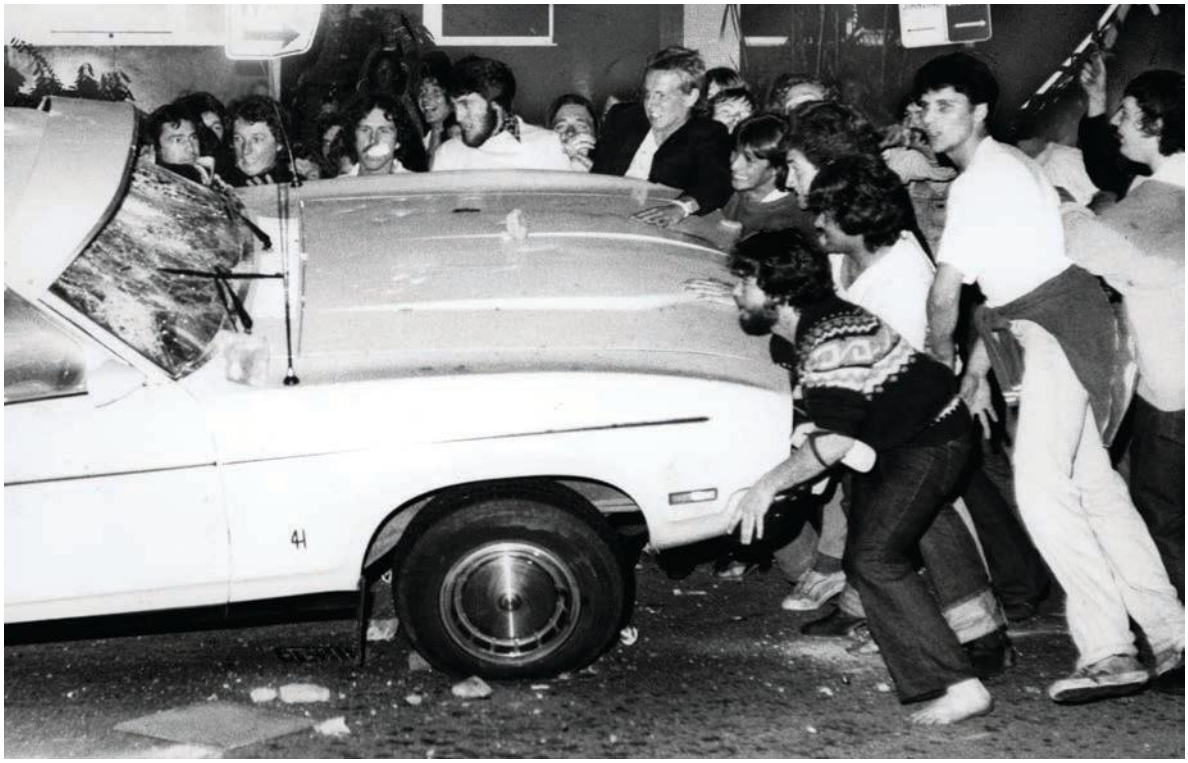
Bands such as Chain and Billy Thorpe and the Aztecs were soon joined by many others, some of the most well known being AC/DC, INXS, The Angels, The Dingoes, Cold Chisel, Midnight Oil and Mental As Anything. The music was alcohol-fuelled, hard-driving rock, played very loud and fast in smoky, crowded rooms. Musical arrangements once more became simplified, rhythm-based and danceable.

The mood was often aggressively masculine. A startling example of this was the Star Hotel riot in western Newcastle, when up to 4000 patrons fought local police in a street battle lasting more than two hours on 19 September 1979. The bitter protest was sparked by the sudden closure of the hotel, a favourite music venue for local youths. Cold Chisel's song 'Star Hotel' explains the incident.

Activity **4.13**

1. Outline why the Australian reaction to the Beatles was so overwhelming.
2. Explain why popular music became more elaborate and artistic as the 1960s progressed.
3. Identify what you think were the positives and negatives of the large-scale, outdoor music festival.

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Source 4.24 The mood during pub rock performances in the 1970s was often aggressive, as dramatically captured by this photograph of the riot that occurred at the Star Hotel in Newcastle's King Street on 19 September 1979, in protest at the closure of this music venue.

Other music lovers, such as many young women, some homosexual men and non-Anglo 'ethnics', preferred the safer and less boisterous venue of the disco. Disco music, promoted worldwide by the soundtrack album *Saturday Night Fever*, largely sung by The Bee Gees, was pre-recorded dance-floor music played by a resident DJ. This format was a precursor to the highly popular 'rave' and dance parties of the mid-1980s and 1990s.

These latter venues attracted a new surge of public alarm when they were associated with illicit drugs such as ecstasy; a change from the high alcohol consumption associated with pub rock. Punk rock, too, enjoyed its own short, blazing history. Brisbane band The Saints had recorded the first globally recognised punk single, *I'm Stranded*, in 1975, but punk had largely burnt itself out by the early 1980s.

The 'Oz rock' of the Australian hotel circuit was in decline by the late 1980s. Poker machines also took over former dance-floor spaces. Urban noise restrictions and random breath testing of drivers from 1982 onwards curbed the uninhibited behaviour of earlier pub rock devotees.

Research **4.4**

Prepare a short PowerPoint presentation on the music and lyrics of a modern-day song that you think will still appeal to listeners 50 years from now. Explain why you believe this song will endure.

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HISTORICAL FACT

During the closing ceremony of the Sydney Olympics in 2000, Kylie Minogue performed ABBA's *Dancing Queen*, after being carried into the stadium, by men dressed as lifesavers, on a giant yellow thong.



The music tastes of youth were again fragmenting, as hip hop, indie rock, grunge music and other trends seized the attention of Generation X. After Nirvana performed at Sydney's first Big Day Out (a shortened version of the 1970s-style music festival) in 1992, a range of creative 'alternative' Australian bands emerged, such as Silverchair, Spiderbait and Regurgitator.

Australian youth culture, which had seemed a united force in the late 1950s (and, by the mid-1960s and '70s, a huge movement) was clearly dividing by the 1990s, as music listening became a more solitary activity. Software such as Apple's iTunes, which allows individuals to download, play and store music and the ability to download music from the internet, often illegally, has promoted a more intimate pattern of musical consumption, making the listening experience far more personal and less communal than it once was.

Activity 4.14

1 a What music are you currently listening to?
  b In what format do you enjoy it?
2 How much does contemporary, popular music mean to you?
3 Does the music you like differ from pub rock, disco, punk rock or grunge? If so, how?

Indigenous musicians

For many years Jimmy Little was the only Aboriginal star on the Australian music scene. Little scored his biggest hit with *Royal Telephone*, which reached number one in Sydney and number three in Melbourne in November 1963. In 1999 he was inducted into the ARIA Hall of Fame.

Another famous Aboriginal star was Lionel Rose, who was a champion Australian boxer. During a break from boxing in the 1970s, Rose embarked on a modest singing career in Australia, having hits with *I Thank You* (a nation-wide hit) and *Please Remember Me* in 1970.

Although Jimmy Little was one of the first Indigenous recording artists to achieve mainstream success, it was bands such as Coloured Stone and Wurumpi Band that popularised the Indigenous music genre in the 1970s and 1980s. Wurumpi Band was the first band to use an Indigenous language in its songs. In 1991, the band Yothu Yindi had a breakthrough hit with 'Treaty' and the album from which it came, *Tribal Voice*, peaked at number four on the Australian charts.

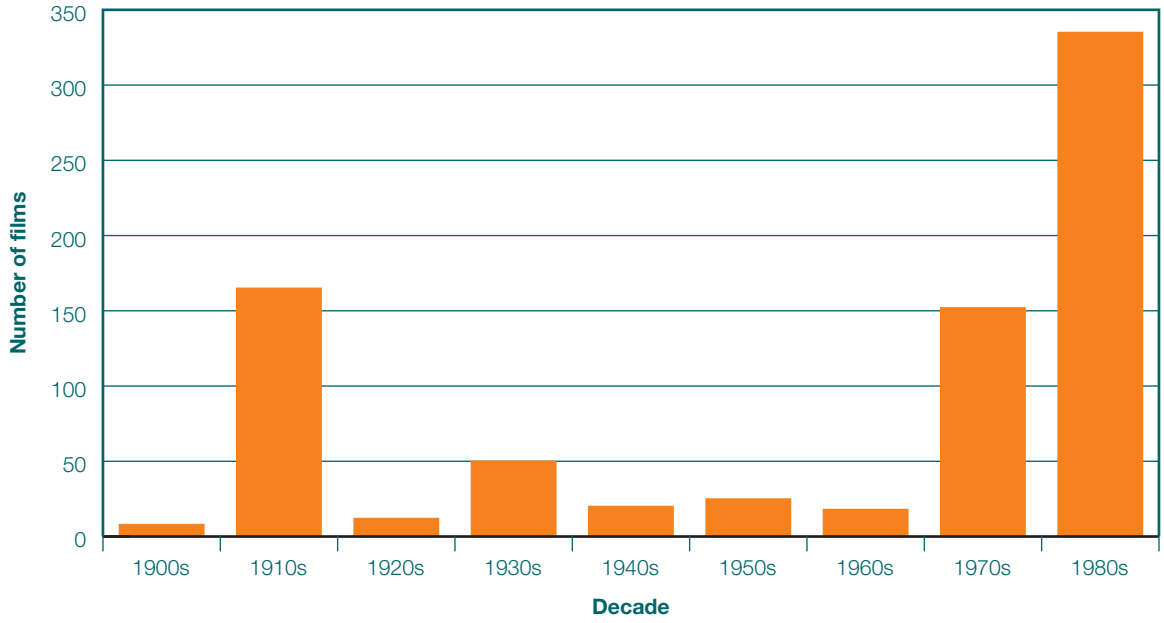
Film

The Australian film revival

For more than four decades before 1970, only a handful of Australian films appeared. During the 1970s, however, 153 feature films were produced – nine times more than during the 1960s. This more than doubled in the 1980s, when 335 films were made.

Ironically, this spike in production coincided with plummeting cinema attendances. After the introduction of colour television in the

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Source 4.25 Australian feature film production by decade; this graph shows that the peak of local filmmaking in the 1910s was not surpassed until the 1980s.

mid-1970s, cinema takings fell by 35 per cent in one year.

Audience support alone, therefore, could not sustain a local film industry. Financial subsidies and loans from the Commonwealth Government were essential. In the late 1960s, pressure from Phillip Adams of the Australian Council of the Arts, Liberal MP Peter Coleman and Victorian Labor politician Barry Jones led to the official establishment of a film bank, a film school and an experimental film fund. The Australian film industry was back on track.

The first film produced was Bruce Beresford's *The Adventures of Barry McKenzie* (1972), a clever satire about an innocent Australian abroad in London, based on a comic strip written by comedian Barry Humphries. It was enormously popular with local audiences who cheered on the simple Aussie as he deflated British pretensions and hypocrisies.

This movie and its sequel, *Barry McKenzie Holds His Own* (1974) – in which Prime Minister Gough Whitlam had a cameo role – began a trend of '**ocker** cinema', which championed a basic, unrefined Australian masculinity. *Alvin Purple* was the most successful of such films, becoming the top box office movie of 1974.

ocker a crude Australian male character, first developed on television in the mid-1960s

At this time in the United States, critical social commentary films, such as *Midnight Cowboy* (1969) and *Easy Rider* (1970), were very popular. Australians did not respond well to movies critical of Australian society and history. *Ned Kelly* (1969), *Wake in Fright* (1970) – both made by foreign directors – and *The Chant of Jimmie Blacksmith* (1978) all bombed at the box office.

However, serious movies such as *Breaker Morant* (1980) and *Gallipoli* (1981) were popular, as they attacked the British; for example, the film *Gallipoli* showed the alleged mismanagement of the Australian troops by the British at Gallipoli during World War I. Australians were mainly comfortable with seeing themselves portrayed positively or as unfairly treated victims. The most popular films were *Mad Max* (1979), *The Man from Snowy River I* and *II* (1982 and 1988) and *Crocodile Dundee I* and *II* (1986 and 1988), which all depicted Australian males with legendary qualities.

In certain quarters, however, there was some embarrassment at Australians being depicted globally as unpolished 'ockers'. To try to quash this image, a number of quality films based on Australian literary classics were subsequently made, such as *Picnic at Hanging Rock* (1975), *Caddie* (1976), *Storm Boy* (1977), *My Brilliant*

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HISTORICAL FACT

Comedian Barry Crocker, who starred as Barry McKenzie in *The Adventures of Barry McKenzie* and *Barry McKenzie Holds His Own*, had earlier been lead singer for a band called Daddy Long-Legs and the Spiders, which had recorded one of Australia's first rock 'n' roll records.



Career (1979) and *We of the Never Never* (1982), which won critical acclaim and overseas recognition.

Yet Australian films remained mainly a minority interest. By the late 1970s, Hollywood movies such as *Star Wars*, *Grease* and *Jaws* were the three most popular films. Australians took pride in their new film industry, but it appeared that many did not bother to attend the screenings.

Cinema-going: from drive-ins to multiplexes

By 1980, cinemas were being attended by around only one-fifth of the population, mostly in the 14–24 years age bracket. Teenagers of 18 and 19 years were the nation's most avid film-goers.

With many theatres closing, some managed to survive by showing foreign language films, especially Italian, French and Scandinavian productions. More than 600 such cinemas were patronised by non-Anglo migrants and growing numbers of university students and film 'buffs'. It was mainly the drive-in cinema that saved the Australian film industry from collapse. By 1970, more than 230 drive-ins were operating around Australia. Even a small outback town such as Jericho in Queensland had its own drive-in (for 36 cars).

The drive-in concept needed a prosperous society where the rate of car ownership was high; it also depended on expanding suburban development, with plenty of open spaces on the margins. Car ownership had quadrupled since World War II and almost one million new homes had been built, providing all these requirements.

Drive-ins suited young families who could go to 'the pictures' without hiring babysitters. Many drive-ins included children's amusement areas, restaurants, barbecues, pony rides and miniature golf courses. One even had a mini zoo. Some ran their own newspapers. Drive-ins were appealing to older people who could not climb theatre stairs or cope with crowds, others who preferred not dressing up after a hard day's work, those who just liked to drive, and especially teenaged couples who appreciated the privacy of a car for romantic activity. A 1964 survey found that almost 85 per cent of drive-in patrons were less than 30 years of age.

It was the video cassette recorder (VCR), which came to Australia during the 1980s, that killed off the drive-in. The uptake of VCRs in Australia was faster than anywhere else on earth, except for Kuwait. By 1991, four million VCRs were in use and the days of watching films through a car windscreen were almost over. By 1994, there were only 35 drive-ins left. Some became housing

Activity **4.15**

1. List the Australian-made films you have seen.
2. Critically analyse how they compare with movies made elsewhere.
3. Reflect on why local films have been less successful than Hollywood ones.
4. Explain why many Australians have historically been uncomfortable with being shown critically in films.

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Source 4.26 Teenagers watching a movie at a suburban multiplex cinema

estates or shopping complexes. In some small towns, a video shop was the only entertainment option left.

Yet while drive-in attendance declined, from the late 1980s cinema attendance began to revive. In 1986, there were fewer than 650 screens operating around Australia, but the development of suburban multiplexes that showed a range of first-release movies on up to ten different big screens – with improved seating, sound and picture quality – once more turned things around. Cinema attendances grew by 30 per cent by the 1990s. Many multiplexes were situated in large shopping centres, which provided easy parking, eateries and boutique outlets. Against all odds, film viewing as a communal activity survives today, despite the onset of DVDs, blu-ray discs, home entertainment systems, pay television and computer downloading.

Influence of India and Hong Kong

The influence of India can be felt in Australian popular culture, particularly in the film industry. Indian 'Bollywood' films have found an enthusiastic audience in Australia, and in recent years a number of Bollywood films have been shot here, such as *Love Story 2050* and *Heyy Babyy*.

A different kind of audience appeal can be found in Hong Kong martial arts cinema, which fuses the traditions of Chinese storytelling with Hollywood-style action. Key to bringing this film style to the Western world was early 1970s martial artist and actor Bruce Lee, who had three box-office hits in Hong Kong before his fourth and final film, the hugely successful US–Hong Kong co-production *Enter the Dragon*. Other important figures include martial arts actors Jackie Chan and Jet Li, and director John Woo, all of whom have worked in both the Hong Kong and Hollywood film industries, thus bringing the traditions of Hong Kong into mainstream Western cinema, including Australia. The first Australian–Hong Kong co-production was *The Man from Hong Kong*, in 1975.

HISTORICAL FACT

Historical fact

Along with the United States, Australia was one of the only countries in the world where drive-ins became immensely popular.



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Research **4.5**

Interview a parent or another adult about their drive-in experiences. How do such experiences differ from your own when you attend multiplexes or other cinemas today?

The current state of the Australian film industry

In many ways, the story of the Australian film industry in recent decades has not been an uplifting one. From the mid-1990s, the most common word describing it has been 'crisis'. Many worthy Australian films made in this period have not won local approval or made money for their creators and investors.

Commentators appear divided over whether this is due to the type of films being made or the **escapist** tastes of Australian audiences. After the light-heartedness of such movies as *Strictly Ballroom* (1992), *Muriel's Wedding* (1994), *The Castle* (1997) and *The Dish* (2000), many local filmmakers decided to explore deeper and more confronting themes. Some of these films were successful with local audiences, such as *Chopper* (2000), *Lantana* (2001), *Rabbit-Proof Fence* (2002) and *Wolf Creek* (2005). However, other serious, critical films, such as *The Tracker* (2002), *Little Fish* (2005) and *Candy* (2006) – although receiving critical acclaim and overseas recognition – were not well supported locally.

escapist running away from reality

The Australian Government has invested about $1.5 billion in the local industry, yet the films being made today return less at the box office than they did in the 1980s. Australia's market share has fallen from 23.6 per cent in 1986 to a worrying 1–5 per cent of the takings today. The small Australian industry continually struggles to compete with the might of Hollywood. Australia's population is comparatively small, with fewer people attending cinemas than previously. If Australian movies are not released overseas (and this is rarely the case), the financial returns will be modest. Most of even the best local films return only $1.5 million, meaning they barely break even.

One outstanding success (e.g. *Happy Feet*; 2006) can boost a small industry such as Australia's, but it can be easily crushed by the commercial failure of several other expensive movies. The huge Hollywood market absorbs such failures much more easily.

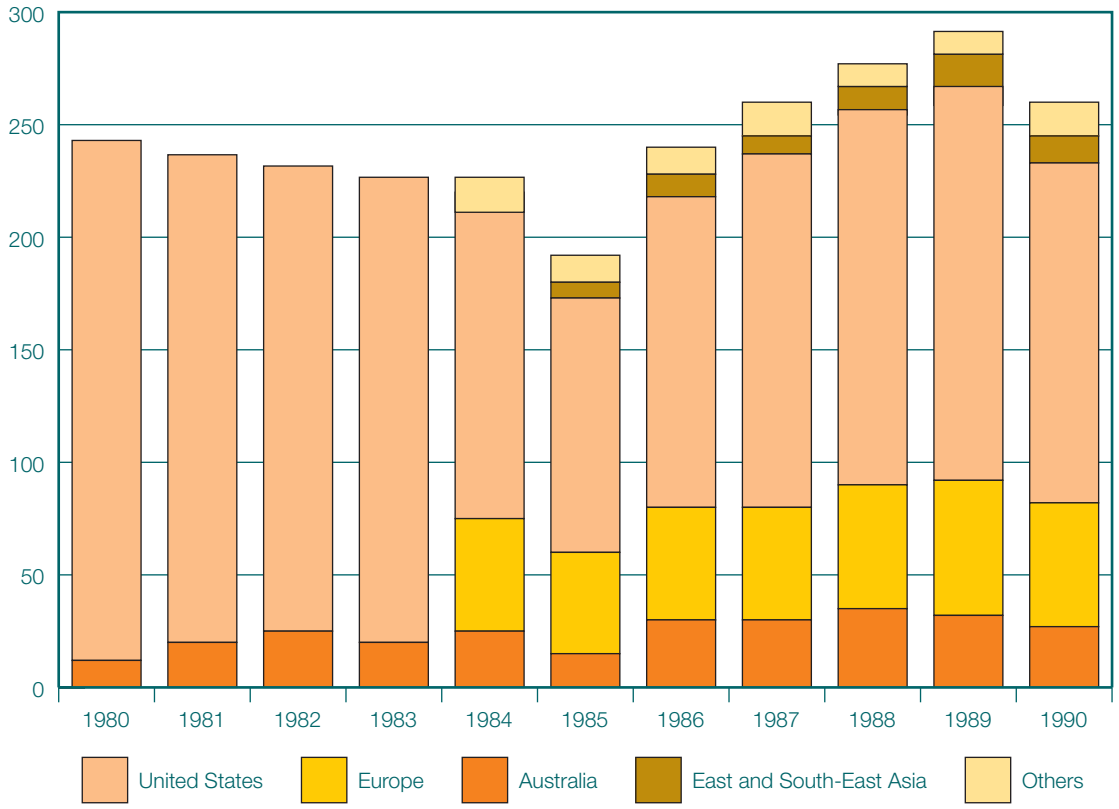
Since the sharp downturn in the global economy in 2008–09, the local film crisis has been deepening. In 2009, some excellent Australian films, such as *Mao's Last Dancer*, *Balibo* and *Beautiful Kate*, were made. Yet the only movie to make a profit was *Samson and Delilah*, about an impoverished young Aboriginal couple. This film was cheaply made and returned just over $3 million in box office receipts.

HISTORICAL FACT

The film *Tender Hook* (2008), set in 1920s Sydney, cost around $7 million to make. It returned less than $70 000 at the box office.



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Source 4.27 This graph shows the number of Australian films released from 1980 to 1990, compared with those of the United States, Europe, East and South-East Asia and others.

Lately things seem to be improving. In January 2010, the film *Bran Nue Dae* was released and is now included in the list of Top 50 Australian films of all time at the local box office, returning 2.6 million in its first week. In 2011, the film *Red Dog* took $1.9 million in four days and was the highest-selling Australian film in that year.

One of the industry's lifelines has been the filming of Hollywood movies in Australia at lower production costs than in the United States. Such well-known Hollywood films as *The Matrix, Star Wars II* and *III*, *Superman Returns*, *Wolverine* and *Narnia: Voyage of the Dawn Treader* were filmed in Sydney and on the Gold Coast. Yet when the Australian and American dollars reached **parity** in late 2010, this advantage ended. Films planned for Australia, such as *Battleship* and *Green Lantern*, were withdrawn. Some 2500 businesses connected with local film production presently appear to be in difficulty.

parity a state of being equal

Activity **4.16**

Ask your teacher to arrange a class outing to an Australian film screening. Afterwards, write a short review of the film you have seen. Send your reviews to the company that made the movie.

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Times gone by ...

There is a special sort of loneliness about sitting in a cinema on your own. Over the past year [2009], I have frequently found myself watching an Australian movie as the sole member of an audience and, on three occasions, with only one other person in the cinema.

… On a practical level, it is hard to find these films; they seldom stayed in the cinema long enough …

It is going to be a long and arduous process to convince Australians that we should want to see our own films, but it will be easier if we remember that cinema's tenacious grip on our imaginations came about because of its extraordinary capacity to entertain and astonish us.

Source 4.28 Author, screenwriter and playwright Louis Nowra mourns the fate of the local film industry

1 Do you personally attend Australian film screenings? If not, explain why you avoid them. If so, what types of Australian films do you prefer?
2 Was the cinema packed or relatively empty the last time you saw an Australian film at the cinema?
3 Discuss your thoughts on whether you think the Australian film industry is presently in deep trouble.

Television

As with the film industry, Australian television production required Commonwealth Government intervention to make it happen. The Australian Actors Equity had called for **quotas** to be placed on overseas content since 1957, but with little success. Up to 1963, most Australian-made content was found in TV commercials.

quota a fixed amount or share

Following a senate report in 1962, however, the Australian Broadcasting Control Board called for quotas of up to 50 per cent Australian content by 1965. As Australian audiences responded well to locally made current affairs, sports and teen music shows, as well as (eventually) police dramas, the commercial channels began to respond.

Popular Australian shows of this era included the satirical *Mavis Bramston Show* (Channel Seven); *Four Corners* (ABC TV), which brought investigative journalism to the screen; *In Melbourne Tonight* (Channel Nine), starring the critically acclaimed Graham Kennedy; and *Bellbird* (ABC TV), a serial set in a small, fictional country town.

From ocker TV to quality mini-series

A dim-witted Aussie male named 'Ocker' first appeared on the *Mavis Bramston Show*. Other series, such as *My Name's McGooley, What's Yours?* and *Kingswood Country* continued to show ocker characters in a critical light by targeting

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HISTORICAL FACT

By 1978, colour television was in 64 per cent of Melbourne and 70 per cent of Sydney homes. Australia's uptake of colour TV was one of the fastest in the world.



their narrow-mindedness and vulgarity. Through Australian advertising, the new 'ocker films' and even the pub rock scene began depicting ocker types in a positive or even celebratory way – a contrast to earlier depictions of the stereotype.

Paul Hogan, in particular, was responsible for changing the ocker image from someone viewers laughed *at* to someone they laughed *with*. New words, such as 'ockerism' (behaviour characteristic of an ocker) and 'ockerina' (a female ocker) entered the language. Hogan, a former rigger on the Sydney Harbour Bridge, with his broad Australian accent and quick wit, first appeared on television as an 'ocker philosopher'. *The Paul Hogan Show* ran from 1973 until 1984 on Channel Seven, with Hogan and 'his best mate Strop' (John Connell) playing characters said to be just like 'your average Aussie'.

Yet there was also growing criticism of ockerism's claim to represent 'real Australian culture' on television. The cultural backlash led to the production of well-researched historical dramas, such as the long-running serial, *The Sullivans* (1976–82), set in homefront Australia in World War II; *Bodyline* (1984), about the controversial English cricket tour of 1932–33; *The Dismissal* (1983), about the fall of the Whitlam Government in 1975; and *Vietnam* (1987), about Australia's divisive involvement in that war. There were approximately 100 such mini-series made between 1978 and 1993, and they were often highly praised as **champagne television**.

champagne television high-class, polished, quality television productions

Other cutting-edge comedy series, such as *The Auntie Jack Show*, *The Naked Vicar Show* and *The Norman Gunston Show*, also hinted that there was much more to Australia than exclusively ocker values; while the sensational soap opera *Number 96*, set in an urban apartment block, presented homosexual characters in a positive light on Australian TV for the first time.

Activity 4.17

1. What is an ocker? (Draw on what you learnt in the 'Film' section as well as this section.)
2. What is your opinion of ocker characters on TV?
3. Was ockerism good or bad for Australian culture?
4. Do you have a favourite Australian mini-series? Explain why you like it.

Influence of Japanese anime

Japanese television dubbed into English has frequently found a receptive audience in Australia. *The Samurai*, a program about a roving swordsman in the eighteenth century, was first screened by Channel Nine in early 1964 and, unexpectedly, it became the most popular program in the network's history to date. The star, Ose Koichi, was later brought to Australia for a stage play based on the show: all performances played to full houses, and the crowds waiting for his arrival at Essendon Airport in Melbourne were comparable in size to those that had greeted the Beatles in 1964. Other popular Japanese

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programs included *The Phantom Agents* (modern-day ninjas) in the 1960s and *Monkey* (based on a sixteenth century Chinese classic) in the 1980s.

Even more significant than live-action television has been the presence of Japanese animation (anime) in Australia. English-dubbed versions of Japanese cartoons have long been a staple of our children's television, from *Kimba the White Lion*, *Speed Racer*, *Astro Boy* and others in the 1960s and 1970s through to *Sailor Moon* and *Pokémon* in the 1990s. In the early days, young viewers would have noticed the stylistic differences between these programs and cartoons such as *Bugs Bunny*, *Mickey Mouse* and *The Flintstones*, but may not have been aware that they were watching Japanese programs. However, throughout the 1990s, with the cinema and then video release of the film *Akira*, and SBS's prime-time programming of the series *Neon Genesis Evangelion*, the term 'anime' became more generally known. Originally only stocked by comic book and specialist shops, anime and manga (Japanese comic books) later became more widely available, and in 1996 the Japanese bookshop chain Kinokuniya opened a shop in Sydney.

Japanese companies such as Nintendo played an integral role in the development of a new form of popular culture – video games – with the early success of Donkey Kong in 1981. The Japanese influence can also be seen in such diverse areas as Tamagotchis, the Hello Kitty brand and the Harajuku Girls performing as back-up dancers for US pop star Gwen Stefani.

Towards the digital age

Media commentator Phillip Adams once observed that we haven't had 20 or 30 years of television in Australia, but rather one year, repeated 20 or 30 times over. This implies that Australian TV is just the same thing, day after day, year after year. Yet in the past 35 years (1975–2010) there have been enormous changes in the industry in terms of what was watched and how it was watched.

Australia was late in introducing colour television in 1975, but its impact was enormous. By 1980, only 10 per cent of Australian homes were still watching black and white screens. Colour created a renewed interest in the medium, after prime-time viewing had bottomed out in 1973. Unlike Australian cinema-goers, home viewers placed local TV programs, especially those on commercial channels, at the top of their lists. In 1990, for instance, *The Magical World of Disney* and *The Cosby Show* were the only American programs featured in the Top 10, among such Australian favourites as *60 Minutes*, *Burke's Backyard*, *Home and Away*, *Sale of the Century* and *Hey, Hey, It's Saturday*.

Soap operas were especially popular, and *Prisoner* (1979–86) was the first of these to be sold overseas. *Neighbours* began shakily in 1985 and was dropped by Channel Seven. However, after it moved to Channel Ten, it began a marathon run. It also became enormously popular on British television, launching the international careers of Kylie Minogue and Guy Pearce. In the tradition of earlier successes, comedy satire shows such as *Fast Forward* (1989–92), *Frontline* (1994–97) and *Kath and Kim* (2002–05), among many others, have been highly popular. Similarly, police and crime dramas, such as *Blue Heelers* (1994–2006), *Water Rats* (1996–2001) and *Underbelly* (2008–11), have continued to score well. However, an hour of locally made, quality television, such as *Underbelly*, costs eight times more for a network to produce than it would pay for screening an American program.

Australian-made reality television began in 1992 with the 'real-life soap opera' *Sylvania Waters*, focusing on the fascinatingly repellent lives of the Donaher family. This was followed in 2001 by *Big Brother*, first created by a Dutch production company. *Big Brother* ran for eight seasons, capturing headlines and topping TV ratings, due to the addiction of watching real people interacting, often sensationally, in non-scripted ways. At the time of publication, it was set to return for a 2012 season. At the same time, singing competition *Australian Idol* broke all viewing records. By 2004, more than a third of the top-rating shows on Australian TV were reality-based. *Masterchef* is a hugely popular reality cooking show which had two million viewers per night in 2011, and *The Voice*, a reality talent show, achieved similar ratings in 2012.

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Source 4.29 The *Big Brother* reality television show broke all previous viewing records in Australia. Pictured is Chrissie Swan, runner-up in the 2003 series, during her post-exit interview.

In the early 1980s, SBS television began broadcasting subtitled and foreign language content to an increasingly multicultural Australia. At the same time, the AUSSAT satellite carried television reception into remote areas. Imparja is a private, fully commercial television company registered in the Northern Territory. On 2 January 1988, Imparja's first program was the test cricket match between Australia and Sri Lanka. Broadcasting live via retransmission sites at Ceduna, Coober Pedy, Leigh Creek and Woomera in South Australia, and Alice Springs, Tennant Creek, Katherine and Bathurst Island in the Northern Territory, Imparja reached a total audience of 62 000 people. Imparja is now broadcast to an audience of more than 430 000 people.

As early as 1983, Channel Seven conducted the first experiments in 3D television. Community television was next pioneered in Brisbane in 1994; then pay television, delivered by cable and satellite, also began.

Digital television has gradually replaced the old analogue system. Widescreen, plasma and high-definition television screens have become the norm. Computers have also entered the picture. By 2008, six million Australian homes had internet subscriptions and the number of hours spent online had overtaken those devoted to TV viewing. Viewers could now make their own programming choices with video-on-demand and internet downloading. Like music-listening, screen-watching has today become a more personal, fragmented experience, rather than the shared experience it once was.

Sport

Australian sport once took pride in its commitment to amateurism; that is, non-professional sportspeople, playing for the love of the game and rewarded by the devotion of life-long, local fans rather than money.

The various football codes were known for the close bond between players, clubs, spectators and districts. Yet this emotional relationship overlooked pressing economic needs. Clubs depended mainly on gate-takings and membership fees for survival. Players and coaches tended to be poorly paid,

Research **4.6**

Over several days, keep a diary of your television-watching behaviour. Bring all the class members' lists together and discover what your overall viewing preferences are. Do your findings demonstrate viewing conformity or diversity?

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if paid at all, and facilities at sporting venues were basic and uncomfortable. If spectators or members stayed away, clubs and teams could be wiped out financially.

By the mid-1960s, this historic arrangement was crumbling. Ron Barassi was poached from the Melbourne Football Club to coach and captain the Carlton Football Club in 1964, at ten times the usual salary for an Australian rules player. Melbourne followers were outraged, saying that he had 'violated community solidarity'. It was the shape of things to come.

From local loyalties to corporate sponsorship

In the early 1970s, North Melbourne Football Club re-organised itself on a business model, encouraging wealthy sponsorship and recruiting outstanding players. In 1975, it won its first premiership. Other Victorian Football League (VFL) clubs followed suit. Corporate sponsorship and television rights began to increase club revenues, improve facilities and boost players' salaries.

However, traditional fans were angry as the Victorian league 'went national'. This move was made in the early 1980s because six local clubs were on the brink of bankruptcy. South Melbourne Football Club, which became the Sydney Swans, was down to only 1500 members when it moved to its larger population base. It had not played in a grand final for 40 years. In 1990 the VFL became the Australian Football League (AFL) and a brighter financial future lay ahead.

The role of questionable sponsors was a major downside of this reform. For instance, Sydney entrepreneur Geoffrey Edelston purchased a franchise or licence to operate the Sydney Swans for $62.9 million, but the licence was resumed by the AFL for $1. Meanwhile, the early Brisbane AFL team, the Brisbane Bears, was caught up in the shady financial dealings of Christopher Skase, who was soon on the run to Europe.

In sailing, Australia seemed to rejoice in a manner reminiscent of the end of World War II when the yacht *Australia II* took the America's Cup from the United States for the first time in 1983. Yet the main sponsor of the challenge, Alan Bond, was later found to have acted illegally as his massive financial empire crumbled. By 1994 he was in jail.

In 1977, the cricketing world was shaken when Australia's richest man, Kerry Packer, secretly signed leading players to lucrative contracts and began World Series Cricket in competition with traditional test matches. Packer had ended ABC TV's monopoly over match telecasts by broadcasting the new games on the Nine Network.

He also challenged the national cricketing board's hold over the five-day test structure by staging one-day competitions, played partly at night under brilliant lighting, similar to American baseball. Players were dressed in coloured outfits rather than regulation white, and a white ball was used rather than a red one. It was called the 'Packer Circus' by critics, who predicted it would become like television wrestling: ignored by genuine cricket-lovers. Yet spectator support expanded enormously.

Packer again fought with another media mogul, Rupert Murdoch, in 1995 over the telecasting of Australian Rugby League (ARL) games. This time Murdoch had challenged Channel Nine's monopoly by beginning his own Super League in order to broadcast matches on Foxtel's pay television, which he owned. This struggle continued for several years before a compromise was reached. The Super League and the ARL combined forces in 1998 to form the National Rugby League (NRL). Packer controlled the free-to-air broadcasting on Channel Nine and Murdoch's Foxtel shared pay-TV rights. Australian sport had become big business, with huge profits and, some would argue, the spirit of the game itself at times at stake.

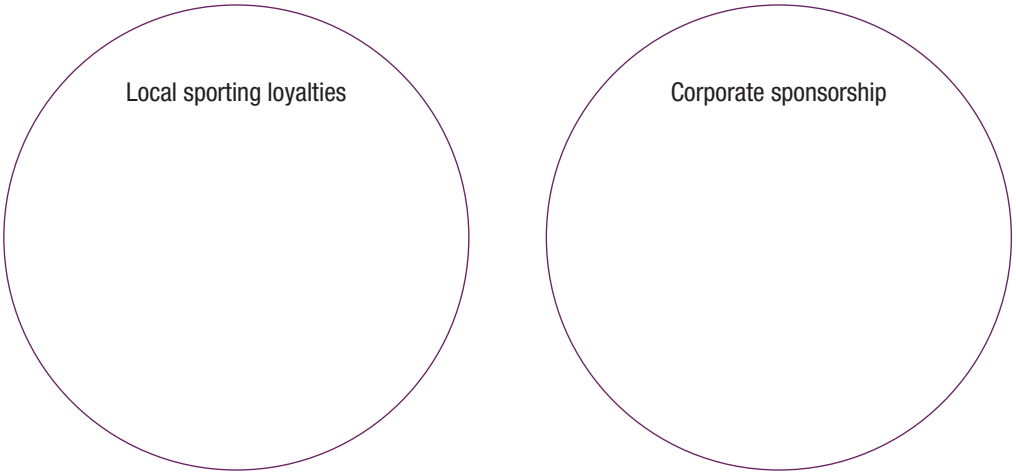
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Source 4.30 Kerry Packer's 'Circus' was played under lights, much like American baseball.

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, construct points with one side arguing the advantages of local sporting loyalties and the other the benefits of corporate sponsorship. Use the same organiser to explore the disadvantages of either approach.



HISTORICAL FACT

In 1986–87, even surf life-saving's Iron Man event was the scene of a 'cereal war' between Kellogg's and Uncle Toby's over sponsorship control.

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Australia's contribution to international popular culture

Australian rock on the global stage

In the 1950s, Australians had largely been consumers of foreign rock 'n' roll. There was an initial belief that Australian singers could not convincingly perform the music. Johnny O'Keefe was originally booed by the Sydney Stadium audience when he was introduced as 'Australia's King of Rock 'n' roll' in early 1958. Yet the following year he attempted to take the United States by storm, five years before the Beatles succeeded in doing so. It was an **audacious** plan that ultimately failed. Nevertheless, his song 'It's Too Late' managed to reach number one on the hit parade in New Orleans, the capital of African-American rhythm and blues music in the United States. It was the first time an Australian artist had achieved overseas chart success.

audacious especially daring

During 1960, Frank Ifield, who grew up in Dural, near Sydney, and Rolf Harris from Perth both entered the British hit parade. Although their records – Ifield's 'Lucky Devil' and Harris's song 'Tie Me Kangaroo Down, Sport' – were recorded in Britain, this marked the beginning of Australian singers achieving hits in the United Kingdom. By 1962, Ifield, with his distinctive yodeling voice, had a million-selling international hit with 'I Remember You'. Between 1960 and 1991, he charted 16 times in Britain and eight times in the United States. Harris topped the British chart with 'Two Little Boys' in 1969.

In the mid-1960s, with both folk and beat music booming, Australian groups such as The Seekers, The Bee Gees and The Easybeats achieved overseas success. The Seekers from Melbourne were the first Australian group to find international fame with their commercial versions of folk songs. From 1965 to 1967, they had six hit records in Britain and the United States. The Bee Gees, made up of brothers Barry, Robin and Maurice Gibb, who were English migrants raised in Brisbane, became the only group worldwide to top the charts in the United Kingdom and the United States in the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s. The Gibbs' younger brother Andy also had three number ones in the United States before dying tragically in 1988. The *Saturday Night Fever* soundtrack, which featured seven songs by The Bee Gees, sold more than 30 million copies. The Easybeats were also young immigrants, who met at the Villawood Migrant Hostel in 1964. In 1967, they had an international hit with 'Friday on My Mind', which was voted the best Australian song of all time in 2001.

The Easybeats' founders, Dutch-born Harry Vanda and Scottish-born George Young, wrote hit songs and became producers for other groups from 1970, most spectacularly AC/DC, containing Young's brothers, Malcolm and Angus. Angus Young is famous for his powerful stage presence, dressed as a schoolboy in shorts, tie and cap. AC/DC made an impact internationally in 1979 with the release of their *Highway to Hell* album. Despite the tragic death of their lead singer, Bon Scott, in London, they continue to produce heavy-duty rock 'n' roll music and are perhaps Australia's best-known group abroad.

Other successful international acts include Nick Cave from Wangaratta, Victoria (and his bands The Birthday Party, The Bad Seeds and Grinderman), who has many successful independent albums to his credit; and The Saints from Brisbane, who helped pioneer punk music in Britain in 1975.

Other 1970s acts of a more mellow type were the soft-rock groups, such as Melbourne's Little River Band, which won a gold record for the album *Diamantina Cocktail* (1975); and another Melbourne band called Air Supply, which won a gold record for their self-titled debut album. In the early 1980s, Air Supply had eight top-five hits in the United States. Olivia Newton-John, another English migrant, had five US number-one hits, including a gold record for *Let Me Be There* (1974). She has won four Grammy awards. Helen Reddy also sold millions of singles and albums, many of which went gold or platinum. The Mixtures, Tin Tin and Sister Janet Mead all had international hit singles in 1971 and 1974.

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Source 4.31 Members of AC/DC performing on stage

Research 4.7

Choose one or two of the musical artists or groups mentioned in the text and create a poster outlining their career(s).

The 1980s was Australian music's most successful decade internationally, with Sydney's Rick Springfield and American-born Australian Joe Dolce achieving chart success in the United States and Britain. Following Australia's win in the America's Cup, Men at Work, INXS and Crowded House (led by New Zealand's Neil Finn but formed in Melbourne) all charted well in the United States. Groups such as The Go-Betweens and The Triffids developed solid cult followings. And, after the success of the Australian soap opera *Neighbours* in which they starred, both Jason Donovan and Kylie Minogue had numerous number-one hits in Britain – the latter becoming a household name. Other successful acts on the international stage have included Tina Arena, Gina G, Peter Andre, Madison Avenue, Savage Garden, Jet and Gotye.

Australian film and TV stars head overseas

From early times, talented Australians, whether they were writers, artists, singers or actors, were urged to leave Australia if they wanted to be famous. Australia had only a small population, which was often unappreciative of its own cultural producers. It was widely held that a performer or writer could only 'make their name' and become 'really someone in Australian eyes' by finding fame overseas. This tendency is sometimes labelled 'the Australian cultural cringe'. Additionally, from the 1920s to the 1970s, there was not much of a local film industry in which to find work – although actor Chips Rafferty from Broken Hill doggedly fought to make himself a career in Australia until the end of his life.

HISTORICAL FACT

Men at Work's single 'Down Under', which became the anthem for the America's Cup challenge in 1983, introduced the world to the vegemite sandwich. The group topped both the US and British charts with a single and an album simultaneously.

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Australian film actors and directors were therefore part of the great exodus. Among those who left Australia in this bleak period were Hobart's Errol Flynn; Adelaide's Dame Judith Anderson; Peter Finch, an English boy-migrant raised in Sydney; Sydney-born Rod Taylor and Michael Pate; John McCallum from Brisbane; and Toowoomba-born Diane Cilento. All achieved considerable fame and, in Flynn's case, notoriety, as Hollywood or British film actors. Cecil Kellaway was twice nominated for an Academy Award, in 1948 and 1967, while Peter Finch won one later as best male actor for his part as a ranting newsreader in *Network* (1976). Such was the prejudice about Australia's lowly cultural status that many of these people did not advertise their Australian origins. Errol Flynn, for example, was often depicted as Irish.

Behind the camera, early Australian directors such as J. P. McGowan, who created the Hollywood **action serial**, and John Farrow, who won an Academy Award for the screenplay of *Around the World in Eighty Days* (1956), did important work. As well, singer–dancer Peter Allen shared the Academy Award for best soundtrack song in 1978; and costume designer and art director John Truscott won two Oscars for *Camelot* (1967).

action serial a fast-moving adventure film, told in 15-minute episodes shown weekly

Australian actors and directors were also prominent in the early Hollywood silent film industry. One of the first cartoon characters, Felix the Cat, was created there by Australian illustrator Pat Sullivan. Felix was the first image shown on American television.

From the late 1970s, leading film directors such as Gillian Armstrong, Bruce Beresford, Jane Campion, George Donaldson, George Miller, Phillip Noyce, Fred Schepsi, Peter Weir and Simon Wincer all left Australia for bigger budgets and greater artistic and material rewards in Hollywood. Miller worked on the *Mad Max* trilogy and *Lorenzo's Oil* (1992); Weir directed *Fearless* and *Dead Poets Society* (1989); Beresford's *Driving Miss Daisy* won the 1989 Academy Award for Best Film and Wincer directed both the popular film *Free Willy* and the television mini-series *Lonesome Dove*. In addition, Dean Semler won the 1990 Academy Award for cinematography for *Dances with Wolves*.

Australian audiences today are relaxed, even blasé, about the great number of 'their' actors appearing in American or British movies. A roll-call would include Cate Blanchett, Toni Collette, Abbie Cornish, Russell Crowe, Mel Gibson, Hugh Jackman, Nicole Kidman, Anthony La Paglia, Miranda Otto, Geoffrey Rush, Naomi Watts and the late Heath Ledger – to name just a few. They are among some of the most popular film stars globally and have worked on billion-dollar movies. Though many of these actors 'still call Australia home' and some even return occasionally to star in a local feature, the box-office drawing power of many has now priced them out of the Australian



Source 4.32 Australian film star Nicole Kidman on the red carpet at the 2001 Cannes Film Festival

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HISTORICAL FACT

One of the earliest performers to begin the recent Australian 'gold rush' to Hollywood was singer Olivia Newton-John, who starred as Sandy, John Travolta's love interest, in *Grease* (1978).



market. Although the success of Australians overseas can today be seen as a matter of pride, it also represents a talent drain that tends to rob the local industry of its best actors and directors.

Australian sport: competing globally

At the Montreal Olympics in 1976, the large Australian team had failed to win a gold medal for the first time in 40 years. Then, in Moscow in 1980, a smaller group of athletes performed only marginally better, winning two gold, two silver and five bronze medals. All but two of these medals were won by swimmers.

The disappointing performance encouraged the Fraser Government to begin investment in elite sport for the first time. On Australia Day 1981, the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) was opened in Canberra. Australia now followed the lead of East Germany, which had invested in professional sports in order 'to further the cause of **nationalism**'. Australia was 'no longer going to let the rest of the world pass us by', Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser promised. Sport and politics were now thoroughly mixed. Australian elite athletes were to be trained in a state-run mega-facility that became known as 'the gold-medal factory'.

nationalism excessive pride in one's country

At the 2000 Sydney Olympics, Australia came fourth globally, with 58 medals, falling just short of its 60-medal target. Almost 60 per cent of the winners had attended the AIS. Yet Olympic medals do not come cheaply. It has been estimated that the 70 gold medals won by Australian Olympians from 1980 to 2008 have cost Australian taxpayers around $37 million each, if analysed in terms of funding given to the AIS. Some have criticised this funding priority. It has been pointed out that while lavish amounts are spent on elite sport, sporting activity for the masses, general physical health and community recreation (not to mention arts funding) have all taken a back seat.

Olympic sport, like national and international cricket, basketball and football, has become 'big business'. Where the financial investment is huge, the pressure to win at all costs is boosted. Such determined winners, however, can also become poor losers. The drive to win by any means can lead to questionable practices and decisions. In February 1981, for example, Australian cricket captain Greg Chappell ordered his brother, Trevor,

Activity **4.18**

1 **a** Explain what you understand by the term 'Australian cultural cringe'.
   b Discuss the impact it has had on Australian popular culture.
2 Investigate why the origins of Australian actors, such as Errol Flynn, were hidden by Hollywood.
3 Assess why you think recent Australian actors have been so successful overseas.

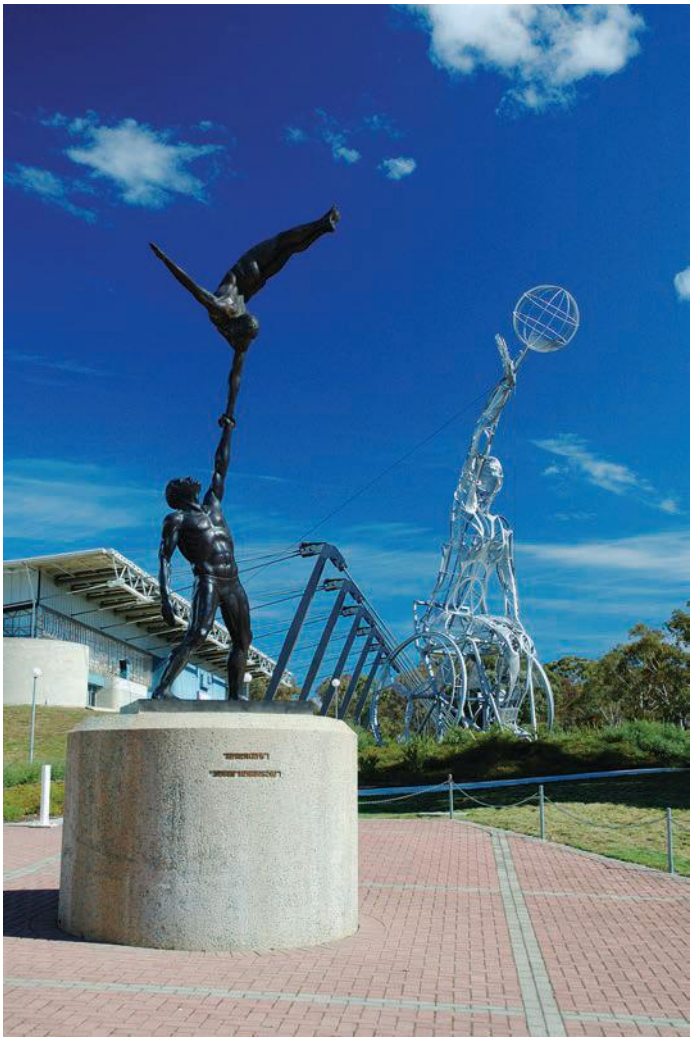
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to bowl the last ball of a World Cup Series final underarm to deprive the New Zealand batsman of a chance of hitting a six, and thus tying the game. Former Australian captain Richie Benaud deplored this mean-spirited decision and sporting relations between the two countries were soured. Greg Chappell defended his action by saying 'there was a lot of money at stake', but he later apologised.

Another outcome of a compulsion to win has been the growth of 'sledging' by cricketers since the late 1960s. 'Sledging' involves bowlers and fielders verbally abusing a batsman to unsettle him. Australian cricketers are renowned as the world's most enthusiastic 'sledgers'. The practice indicates a game that has become tougher and nastier than the more decent and gentlemanly sport it was in the days of Bradman's 'Invincibles', who won without resorting to abuse. On-field sledging, coupled with Australian sporting crowds who have also become more raucous and verbally aggressive since the 1970s, appears to undermine the true spirit of sport and sometimes also encourages outbursts of extreme racial taunting.

The problem of racism

There has been a long history of racism in Australian sport. In the late nineteenth century, white runners and boxers, for example, would often refuse to compete against Aboriginal or other dark-skinned people for fear of being beaten. Aboriginal fast-bowlers (such as Jack Marsh and Eddie Gilbert), noted for their speed and accuracy, were suspected of cheating by 'throwing' the ball, especially when they bowled out white cricketing legends, such as Victor Trumper or Don Bradman.



Source 4.33 The Australian Institute of Sport in Canberra, established in 1981; the statues represent 'The Acrobats' and 'The Paralympic Basketballer'

Out of more than 7000 first-class cricketers between 1850 and 1987, only 10 were Aboriginal, even though an Aboriginal cricket team was the first Australian side to compete in England in 1868.

HISTORICAL FACT

In 2008, walking and aerobics, rather than competitive team sports, were the most popular physical activities in Australia.



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Times gone by ...

> Australia has produced scores of sporting champions, men and women who have held world records and titles. Yet few meet the criteria for real hero status – as opposed to … manufactured hero status … [H]eroes distinguish themselves, display courage, or perform outstandingly in adversity. They are magnanimous; they ennoble and enhance mankind by what they do, and most importantly, they inspire and motivate, and often change people's lives for the better. They have visions of the way life ought to be lived, and often show greater concern for humanity than about competing in their chosen arenas. They certainly don't take bribes from anonymous bookmakers, appear regularly before disciplinary tribunals, sledge and vilify their opponents, bend or break the rules, smash motel rooms, conceal their eyes behind mirror sunglasses, spray champagne, or swagger …

Source 4.34 An excerpt from D. Booth and C. Tatz's book, *One-Eyed: A View of Australian Sport* (2000)

Reflect on Source 4.34.

1. Do you agree with the description of a true sporting hero?
2. Analyse the moral and social values that you believe sport should promote.
3. Describe how important you think winning is in Australian sporting contests. Do you think Australian sportspeople disregard sportsmanship and moral values simply to win?

Activity **4.19**

1. Discuss whether you think 'sledging' is a valid sporting tactic.
2. Do you think that the behaviour of Australian sporting crowds has deteriorated since the 1970s? Explain your response.

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Yorta Yorta Elder Sir Douglas Nicholls became a champion winger for the Fitzroy Football Club in Australian rules football in the 1920s. Initially he was rejected by Carlton because white players complained about his 'smell'. Nicholls afterwards became Governor of South Australia. Seven decades later, in 1993 at Victoria Park, Melbourne, St Kilda's leading goal-kicker, Neil 'Nicky' Winmar, made a stand against a Collingwood crowd's racist taunts by turning to face them, raising his jersey and pointing to his brown stomach. Winmar's intent was to show his attackers that he had 'guts'; but when a colour photograph of the historic moment went around the world, it showed a proud Aboriginal man pointing defiantly to his skin colour. Two years later, on Anzac Day 1995, Darwin-born Aboriginal player for Essendon, Michael Long, reported a Collingwood footballer for on-field racial abuse. The stands taken by Winmar and Long led the AFL to begin combating racial prejudice in that sport.

In 2007, the Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission published a report on racism in Australian sport. It was uncomfortable reading for many. It showed that racism continued across all major sporting codes 'involving professional sports people, amateurs, coaches and spectators', despite increasing attempts to stamp it out. The report found that around one in every three Anglo-Australians plays sport, yet only one in nine from Aboriginal or non-English speaking backgrounds do so. They are hampered by lack of facilities and fear of meeting racial abuse. 'Racism has been the ugly underbelly of Australian sport for over a century', the report found.

The previous year, the Australian Cricketing Board had been embarrassed by torrents of racial insults hurled at black South African players in Perth, Melbourne, Brisbane and Sydney. In Adelaide, on Australia Day, Sri Lankan cricketers were abused by a portion of the crowd at a one-day match. Cricket commentator Dean Jones also branded a Muslim batsman 'a terrorist'.

Yet it was only when an Australian cricketer, the West-Indian born Andrew Symons, was called a 'monkey' by Indian fans in late 2007 that many local sports followers took exception. Ironically, the Australian media complained that no one should be subjected to this sort of treatment.

Local sports racism, however, has persisted. In late 2010, the spotlight moved to rugby league when Timana Tahu, of Maori–Aboriginal birth, withdrew from the New South Wales State of Origin team after listening to persistent abuse about a Queensland Aboriginal player from assistant coach Andrew Johns. Johns is regarded



Source 4.35 Former AFL footballer Nicky Winmar

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Research 4.8

Investigate the sporting careers of any Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander sportsperson, such as Eddie Gilbert, Sir Douglas Nicholls, Lionel Rose, Patrick Mills, Danny Morseau, Cathy Freeman, Mark Ella, Michael Long or someone else of your choice. Prepare a PowerPoint presentation or write an essay outlining their career and successes.

HISTORICAL FACT

In 1968, Aboriginal boxer Lionel Rose won the World Bantam weight Boxing Championship by defeating Japan's Fighting Harada in Tokyo. He was greeted on his return by a Melbourne crowd of 50 000 people. He was also named Australian of the Year in 1968.



as 'the world's best half-back' and 'greatest player of all time', so his racist outbursts received much publicity.

As long as such racist behaviour continues, Australia's sporting reputation will also continue to suffer globally.

Activity 4.20

1. Outline how serious you think racism has been, and is, in Australian sport.
2. Discuss whether you believe that the situation is presently improving or not.
3. Examine the actions that Australian sporting authorities have been taking to combat the problem.

Changing beliefs and values: popular culture then and now

The Australian cultural landscape has changed enormously since the end of World War II. At that time there was no television transmission, and computers, iPads and digitalisation would have seemed like science fiction. Although movie-going and radio-listening were extremely popular, there was basically no local movie production or record industry.

Local music was boosted by the arrival of rock 'n' roll at the same time as television began. Yet Australian filmmaking had to wait for federal intervention in the early 1970s.

Sport in the 1950s was expertly played and enthusiastically followed. Australia's international reputation in cricket, tennis, football and boxing was high. At the 1956 Olympics, local swimmers and athletes – particularly the females – surpassed all expectations. Yet sport was still an amateur

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HISTORICAL FACT

When Australian Prime Minister Julia Gillard met with US President Barack Obama in March 2011, the most talked-about aspect of their conversation concerned vegemite, Australian rules football and the iPod of Australian popular music that she gave him.



affair, played for the love of the game rather than the prospect of high material reward.

Today, there are local film, television and recording industries, all competing against the powerful impacts of Americanisation and globalisation. The history of each industry has been a shifting one: of memorable achievement and success on the one hand and downturn and disappointment on the other. Presently, while the local film industry struggles with poor audiences, the television industry produces local productions that remain enormously popular. Perhaps this has something to do with the different age-groups watching TV and going to the movies.

Australian film, television and music have all enjoyed international success. Australian actors and directors are in demand in Hollywood and certain television programs have been popular with overseas audiences. Australian recording artists have also, at times, enjoyed global acclaim, selling millions of records. Unfortunately, however, the success of the Australian film and music industries peaked in the 1980s, and has since declined.

Sport, too, has been through various highs and lows, but the most important change has been its professionalisation and the growth of corporate sponsorship. This has dramatically altered its accessibility as a public spectacle and has boosted its worldwide impact. It has also introduced a number of problems relating to the overwhelming need to win and the high financial rewards of winning. These include scandals of corruption, bad sportsmanship, uncontrolled off-field behaviour, unruly crowds, sledging and racial abuse.

Since 1945, Australia's population has more than doubled. When we think of Australian culture today, we should remember that it is now a much more complex place than it once was. There are now representatives of approximately 250 different nationalities, ethnicities and cultures present, making Australia the most diverse multicultural society on earth. It is not as singular in its outlook as it once was. It is both less conformist and more uncertain.

The core British cultural values of the 1950s are less central now than those of the United States, Asia and the myriad countries from which migrants have come to Australia. The sub-cultures of youth, non-Anglo-migrants, the gay community and women's groups all persist and interact in ways that would appear remarkable to a citizen of 60 years ago. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander groups also now speak out energetically where once there was a near silence. Australian culture is no longer monopolised by a world view that is dominated by white, Anglo, male and heterosexual values, although these can still pack quite a punch in certain corners of the mass media and everyday Australian life.

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Chapter summary

- Popular culture tells us much about the tastes and preferences of Australian society. Studying it is a way of understanding everyday life and how dramatically it changes over time. We can therefore grasp broad social tastes, fads and trends as well as the broader impact that mainstream creativity and the mass media has had on all our lives across the decades.
- Rock 'n' roll music began a cultural revolution in Australian life that continues today. At first it created much excitement among youth and great opposition from adults, so it was very divisive and controversial. After its commercial potential was understood, however, it became a more unifying force, as shown by the Beatles' tour of Australia in 1964. Nevertheless, its potential to challenge and inspire, bring joy and cause upset still remains.
- Australian film has a long, uneven history, continuing to struggle against great odds. Although Australian film production originally led the world, by the 1950s it was a spent force. Government financial support helped its revival in the 1970s, with some outstanding results. Since then its fortunes have fluctuated wildly, even though some wonderful cinema productions continue to appear in spite of difficult times.
- Television, after a shaky start in the 1950s and 1960s, has won the affections of Australian viewers. Like rock 'n' roll, it originally created considerable controversy. Beginnings were slow as television sets were very expensive. American programs dominated the screens until the mid-1960s when Australian productions, emphasising local themes, began to interest and inspire viewers. Australians have since become world leaders in adopting new viewing technologies.
- Australian sport has grown from its small, battling origins into an enormous industry. Historically, sport has always been a powerful preoccupation, and Australians have been very good at it. Australians in general are avid sports-watchers. The history of Australian sport reveals exciting and monumental successes (as well as dramatic failures), but there have also been great controversies involving corporate sponsorship, excessive betting and corruption scandals as well as gender and racial discrimination.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1 Popular culture is important to study because:

- **A** it is more rewarding than high culture
- **B** it provides a way of understanding everyday life
- **C** it is easy to learn and is not scholarly
- **D** it is a recent development in Western culture

2 Rock 'n' roll music in the 1950s:

- **A** created much cultural division in Australia
- **B** was enjoyed by all the family
- **C** was not really important for teenagers
- **D** was banned in Australia

3 Australian television production became popular in the 1960s because:

- **A** an ABC series about Australian bush life encouraged viewers
- **B** a music show filmed in Sydney encouraged viewers
- **C** a police drama filmed in Melbourne showed Australians that they could have a local TV industry
- **D** American programs became too expensive to buy

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4 Australian film production:
   - **A** was at its highest level in the 1960s
   - **B** did not really begin until the 1980s
   - **C** was always popular with Australian audiences since its origins in the 1890s
   - **D** began its post-war boom in the early 1970s

5 Australian sporting activity has brought:
   - **A** consistently high performances at all Olympic Games
   - **B** greater successes to male sportspeople than to females
   - **C** a long tradition of racial tolerance and fair play
   - **D** the rise of corporate sponsorship since the early 1970s

Short answer

1 Define the terms 'bodgie' and 'widgie' in an Australian cultural context.
2 Discuss why *Jedda* (1955) was such an important film.
3 Explain the reasons for the Beatles' popularity in the 1960s.
4 Define what was (or is) an 'ocker', and the impact of 'ockerism' on Australian film and television in the 1970s.
5 Outline what you consider to be the five most significant moments in Australian sport since 1945. Make a list and provide a reason for each.

Source analysis

> Not since the '50s has the US exerted such overt say over the style, slang and tastes of this country's youth … the adolescent in Parramatta slouching through a shopping mall in oversized Levis, Reeboks, backwards baseball cap and hiking boots, is a mirror image of his counterpart in Brooklyn or Los Angeles … [T]oday's Australian teen culture wears its allegiance to America on its sleeve – not to mention its socks, sneakers and hooded sweat-shirts.
>
> In the era of the electronic bedroom, where nearly a third of 16- to 17-year-olds have their own VCR, personal stereo, television, video-game console and telephone, teenagers have a direct feed into the unstoppable geyser of American pop culture.

Source 4.36 Australian journalist Richard Guilliatt comments on Australian teens adopting American culture (1994)

Study Source 4.36 and answer the following questions

1 Describe how important American influences have been in the history of Australian popular culture. How strong are these influences today?
2 Discuss whether you agree with what Richard Guilliatt wrote in 1994 about the Americanisation of Australian youth.
3 How influenced is your age group by American popular culture today? Do you see this as a problem?

Extended response

Consider the four cultural themes explored in this chapter: film, music, sport and television. Think about the way they intersect with each other in different periods; for example, how television has affected sport, music and the movies at different times. Which cultural effect has been the most significant? Prepare a report.

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5



The environment movement (1960s–present)

Source 5.1 Image of Earth from space showing Australia

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Before you start

Main focus

The environmental movement is the rich story of people and governments at all levels and their willingness to fight for and protect our vital natural resources for future generations, balanced against continuing demands for economic growth and prosperity.

Why it's relevant today

The environmental movement, which began during a time of rising social awareness and change, is now facing more difficult and complex environmental challenges than at any other time in the world's history.

Inquiry questions

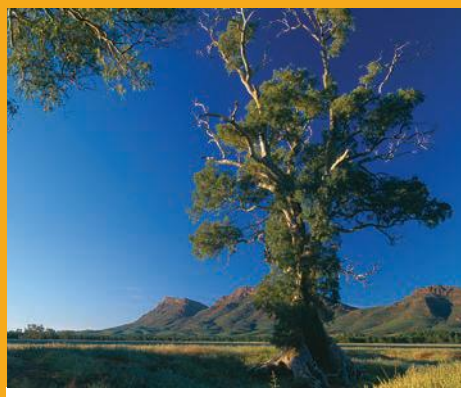
- When and where did Australia's national parks movement begin?
- Why and how did the environmental movement in Australia intensify as a result of rising population, urbanisation, industrialisation and increasing trade during the twentieth century?
- What are the key concepts of current environmental understanding both in Australia and overseas?
- How did significant events and campaigns contribute to the popular awareness of environmental issues both in Australia and overseas?
- In what ways have the Australian Government and international organisations responded to environmental threats since the 1960s?

Key terms

- biodiversity
- conservation
- ecology
- environment
- Gaia Theory
- preservation
- sustainability

Significant individuals

- Bob Brown
- Dr Helen Caldicott
- Ian Kiernan
- Rachel Carson
- Yvonne Margarula



Source 5.2 Flinders Ranges National Park, South Australia



Source 5.3 A polar bear and her cubs on a floating ice pack



Source 5.4 A hiker above Lake Pedder, Tasmania



Source 5.5 The Three Mile Island nuclear power plant, United States

Let's begin

During the late 1960s and early 1970s, environmental issues began attracting attention. In Australia, people were concerned with saving wildlife, ecosystems and habitats. They focused on particular places and developed campaigns to save them from destruction. During the 1970s, issues such as uranium mining and whaling divided different sections of the community, and the campaign to stop the damming of the Franklin River resulted in the formation of the world's first Greens party. During the late 1970s and early 1980s, growing concerns about overpopulation, economic development and pollution resulted in local and global environmental action and the awareness that sustainability involved viewing the world's natural systems as interconnected, as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people have always known. Environmental disasters highlighted the need for cooperation between nations. Governments now play an increasing role in establishing policies and protocols to address such environmental issues as global warming and sustainability.

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Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
1800	
Establishment of Australia's first national park **1879**	**1872** Establishment of Yellowstone National Park (United States)
1900	
Federation **1901** The Australian Constitution gives management of national parks to the states	
Hippie movement (United States) **1960**	**1960** Civil Rights Movement (United States) Australia's mining boom
Publication of *Silent Spring* **1962** by American Rachel Carson	**1962** Australia joins the Vietnam War
'Save Lake Pedder' campaign begins **1967** *Torrey Canyon* – world's first commercial oil spill	
Population Timebomb published **1968** *Tragedy of the Commons* published Apollo 8 astronauts capture Earthrise image	
'Save the Barrier Reef' campaign **1969**	
1970	
First Earth Day (United States) **1970**	
Fraser Island campaign begins **1971**	**1971** Greenpeace founded in Canada
World's first Greens party formed in **1972** Tasmania: the United Tasmania Group Gaia Theory developed by James Lovelock United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (Stockholm)	
Flooding of Lake Pedder **1973**	**1973** World oil crisis
Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Act **1975** Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority established	
Tasmanian Wilderness Society formed **1976** 'Save the Franklin River' campaign Campaign against Nuclear Energy begins in SA and WA	
End of whaling in Australia **1978**	
Three Mile Island nuclear accident **1979** Publication of *Gaia: A New Look at Life on Earth* (James Lovelock)	
Chernobyl nuclear accident **1986**	
Greenpeace Australia is formed **1987**	
1990	
Australian Greens Party established **1992** Earth Summit, Rio	
Kyoto Protocol **1997**	



Source 5.6 The Great Barrier Reef, off the Queensland Coast

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Source 5.7 Map showing the locations of Australia's current main national parks

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Background to environmental awareness

environmental movement a broad set of beliefs, ideas and ideals that guide the actions of people in terms of how they care for the environment

naturalist a person who is involved in the science of nature

environmentalism a social movement that seeks to influence leaders, businesses and governments to protect natural resources

The modern **environmental movement** owes much to the work of mid- to late-nineteenth century thinkers, **naturalists** and authors such as Joseph Maiden, Henry David Thoreau and John Muir, who were all interested in preserving nature. Historians refer to this period within the environmental movement as the 'first wave' of **environmentalism**.

First wave environmentalism: protection and preservation (late nineteenth century)

The Australian national parks movement

environment the air, water and land in or on which people, animals and plants live

national park a bushland area of scenic or historical importance maintained by government

'parkland' tradition the English Victorian tradition where the natural fauna and flora of an environment was removed to cater for people

The call to conserve Australia's natural **environment** began in April 1879 in New South Wales, when an area of bushland at Port Hacking, 22 kilometres south of Sydney, was declared a **national park**. However, it was not a national park in the way that we know such areas today; it was modelled on the English Victorian era **'parkland' tradition**, which proposed designating such areas specifically for use by people, and removing parts of the natural environment to make the areas more accessible. In Australia's first national park, native trees were removed, and mudflats and mangroves were replaced with grassed areas, landscaped gardens and exotic trees. Deer, rabbits and foxes were introduced for sport (and remain a management problem to the present day). People, rather than nature, were the main priority; in these times the environment was not being conserved for its own sake.

To allow for greater public access, roads and a railway line were also constructed. A dance hall was built in the 1940s – it was one of 80 buildings erected within the park, including a sawmill, a zoo, residences and military installations. The park also had quarries and dams.

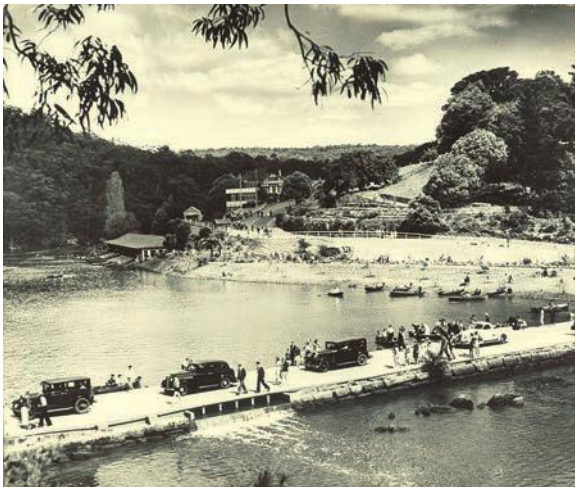
By the end of the nineteenth century, Sydney residents began to be critical of the logging activities within the park and during the 1930s **conservationists** began lobbying the state government for a National Parks Authority to be formed to manage the park in a more sensitive and sustainable way.

conservationist someone who advocates the preservation of nature and all its resources

The area was named Royal National Park in 1955 by Queen Elizabeth II. In 1967 the National Parks and Wildlife Service (NPWS) was established and took over the management of the park.

The impetus for the establishment of Royal National Park came as a result of the declaration of Yellowstone (National) Park in the United States in 1872. American **expansionism** was in full swing and many of those who sought to set aside natural areas – such as hunters, hikers, fishers, birdwatchers and recreationists –

expansionism the policy of extending the territory and/or economy of a country



Source 5.8 The causeway at Audley, Royal National Park (New South Wales), 1930s

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were also supporters of economic growth and **capitalism**. Yet, at the same time, there was a belief that exploitation of natural **resources** and the **ecology** of an area could hinder the nation's capacity to generate wealth. American naturalist, **ecologist** and author John Muir was one of the first to advocate for the **preservation** of **wilderness** for its own sake. In an article entitled 'Wild Wool', published in *Overland Monthly* in April 1875, Muir wrote: 'Thousands of tired, nerve-shaken, over-civilised people are beginning to find out that going to the mountains is going home; that wilderness is necessity; that mountain parks and reserves are useful not only as fountains of timber and irrigating rivers, but as fountains of life'.

capitalism an economic system based on private ownership and free market enterprise

resource a stock or supply that can be drawn upon

ecology the scientific study of the relationship between all the elements of the natural environment

ecologist a scientist who studies the interaction between organisms and their environment

preservation the protection of natural resources that are seen as being of value for their own sake

wilderness large, natural areas of land that, together with their native plants and animals, remain essentially unchanged by modern human activity

Muir founded the Sierra Club in May 1892. It was the earliest organisation in the United States committed to using the Earth's resources in a responsible way and protecting natural environments. Muir and President Theodore Roosevelt travelled together and, as a result of their discussions, Roosevelt supported the establishment of a large number of national parks in the United States. He also agreed with Muir that the Federal Government should control and manage natural areas, but he remained firmly of the opinion that nature needed to serve humankind rather than be preserved simply for its own sake. Muir and Roosevelt laid the foundations of the modern environmental movement, both in Australia and overseas. They also set the stage for the continuing political and environmental conflicts on the use and management of natural resources.

Bushwalking clubs, field naturalist associations and scientists were actively involved in promoting the concept of preserving natural areas. During the 1800s, Canada's Banff National Park (later renamed Rocky Mountains National Park) and New Zealand's Tongariro National Park were established.

In 1901, the **Australian Constitution** provided the basis for the management structure used in our national parks. Control of national parks was placed in the hands of individual states, with some others being managed by the Commonwealth. Australia's national parks are still managed by the federal and various state and territory governments, and state conservation ministers meet regularly.

Australian Constitution the written set of principles for governing Australia

In 1990 the Council of Nature Conservation Ministers (CONCOM) applied to the World Conservation Union (IUCN) to formulate a definition of a national park that specified (among other things) that it:

- be a relatively large area
- contain predominantly unspoiled natural landscape, **flora** and **fauna**
- be permanently dedicated for public enjoyment, education and inspiration
- be protected so that its natural attributes are preserved.

flora the plants in a particular area

fauna the animals in a particular area

HISTORICAL FACT

Although Yellowstone National Park in the United States is recognised as the world's first 'national' park, the title 'national' was not used until much later. It is possible that the Royal National Park in New South Wales was the first area in the world to use the term 'national' in its title.



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Research **5.1**

Choose a national park in your own state. Work through the following points and present your findings in a PowerPoint presentation.

- When and how was it created? (Include a map showing the location of the park.)
- What special features are contained within the national park? (Include images of these features.)
- Identify the organisation that manages the national park.
- Outline the management strategies used in the park to ensure the protection of its important features. Are Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander peoples involved in managing the park?

HISTORICAL FACT

Following the establishment of the Royal National Park in New South Wales, other national parks were established in Australia, including:

- 1892 – Tower Hill National Park, Victoria
- 1872 – Kings Park, Western Australia
- 1900 – Belair, South Australia
- 1908 – Witches Falls, Tambourine Mountain, Queensland
- 1916 – Mt Field and Freycinet, Tasmania



Activity **5.1**

1. How has the use and management of national parks in Australia changed since the time when the Royal National Park was established?
2. Do you believe that there is enough being done to protect Australia's natural assets such as those contained within our national parks?
3. Do you believe that Australians still value national parks? Provide evidence to support your answer. (Visitor statistics are available on websites associated with national parks within each state, or by contacting the relevant authority.)

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HISTORICAL FACT

HISTORICAL FACT

Australia is one of only 17 **megadiverse** countries in the world. It has a large number (70 per cent) of the world's different species. Threats to **biodiversity** include such things as land clearance, mining, introduced species of plants and animals, overgrazing, altered fire regimes and climate change.

megadiverse areas of the Earth containing a large number of plant and animal species

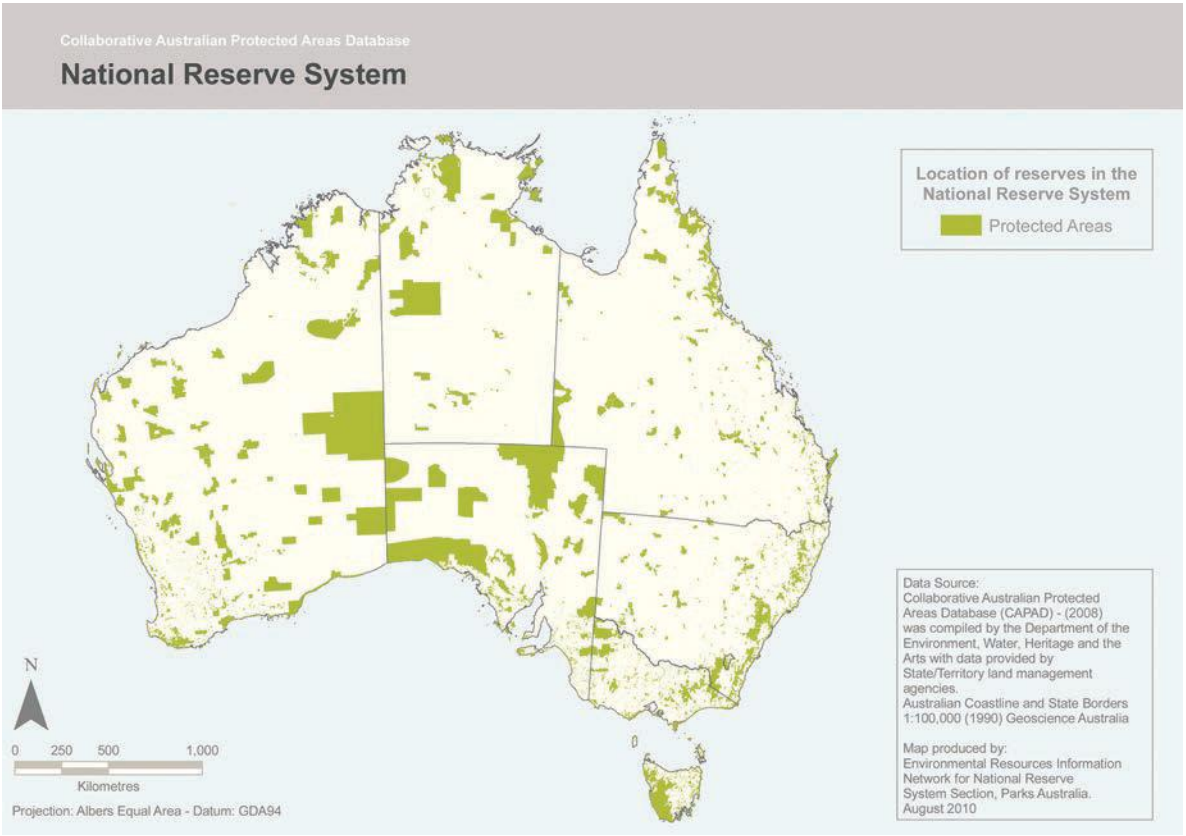
biodiversity the variety of all life forms on earth, including plants, animals and micro-organisms

Australia's national reserve system

National Reserve System Australia's network of parks, reserves and protected areas, whose purpose is to conserve biodiversity

Australia played an important part in developing the Convention of Biological Diversity, which was adopted at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. Australia's **National Reserve System**, a network of Australia's protected areas, has its origins at this summit. The National Reserve System is aimed at creating areas where environments are protected for the future.

In 2009 the existing strategy for the National Reserve System was revised and all levels of government in Australia agreed to work together to build a network of protected areas. The system



Source 5.9 A map of areas protected under Australia's National Reserve System. Note that the National Reserve System differs from the map of Australia's national parks in some subtle but important ways.

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Activity 5.2

Test your knowledge of Australia's national parks with the quiz at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

is therefore different from the national parks system and, unlike the state-run national parks system, all states agreed to cooperate in creating the National Reserve System. There is now a focus on sustainable development of natural areas and five-year management plans under the National Reserve System 2009–2030. The Australian Government has also linked its climate change strategies with its network of parks and reserves by protecting key habitats for native animals that are particularly vulnerable to changes in climate.

There are currently more than 600 national parks and 6000 conservation areas protected by federal, state and territory legislation, including **state parks** and forests, **marine parks**, wilderness areas and **World Heritage areas**. There are also environmental non-government agencies (ENGOs) and private organisations (these often include Indigenous landowners) that provide for conservation of selected areas in Australia.

state parks areas that are generally smaller than national parks but are managed under similar guidelines and reflect the major natural landforms, flora and fauna of the state

marine parks preserved marine areas designed to protect coastal waters, marine habitats and species, and cultural heritage sites

World Heritage areas areas deemed to be of value to the world; Australia has 17 World Heritage-listed areas



Intensification of environmental effects

Second wave environmentalism: environmental activism (mid twentieth century)

The second wave of environmentalism occurred in the middle of the twentieth century. In a time of change and growing social awareness, people were willing to take direct action to demonstrate their concern over environmental issues.

Rachel Carson: *Silent Spring*

American marine biologist and conservationist Rachel Carson's book *Silent Spring*, published in 1962, is widely acknowledged as the starting point for the modern environmental movement. It focused public and media attention on the adverse effects of economic growth.

Rachel Carson attended Pennsylvania College for Women, where she studied English. She changed to Biology following a science field trip. After graduation, she completed her Master of Arts and worked with the US Fish and Wildlife Service as a marine biologist. She authored several publications on natural history.

The pesticide DDT had been introduced in 1954 and was widely used in agriculture to control pests. Carson became interested in the effects of DDT on fish and wildlife. In June 1962 she produced a set of essays that were published in the *New Yorker* magazine. In them she revealed how DDT and other pesticides such as aldrin and deldrin, which were also used to control pests and increase agricultural yields, were impacting on the food chain, especially in birds. She argued that the birds were eating insects poisoned by the unregulated use of these pesticides and that, if this continued, come the spring, there would be silence rather than birdsong.

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Carson's *New Yorker* essays were the basis for *Silent Spring*, which was published in September 1962. By providing information on the abuse of the environment by large corporations for their own gain, Carson's work led US President Nixon to call for the establishment of the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in 1970.

Carson testified before a US Senate hearing on the misuse of pesticides. Her work was acknowledged as a 'compelling example of the power of a single individual to bring about change'. She died of a heart attack in 1964 at the age of 56, having also struggled for several years with breast cancer.

These sprays and aerosols are now applied almost universally to farms, gardens, forests and homes … [T]hey have the power to kill every insect, the 'good' and the 'bad', to still the song of birds and the leaping of fish in the streams, to coat the leaves with a deadly film and to linger in the soil …

Source 5.10 An excerpt from *Silent Spring*



Source 5.11 Rachel Carson testifying before the US Senate Subcommittee, 1963

Times gone by …

The $300 000 000 pesticides industry has been highly irritated by a quiet woman author whose previous works on science have been praised for the beauty and precision of the writing.

The author is Rachel Carson, whose *The Sea Around Us* and *The Edge of the Sea* were best sellers in 1951 and 1955. Miss Carson, trained as a marine biologist, wrote gracefully of sea and shore life.

In her latest work, however, Miss Carson is not so gentle. More pointed than poetic, she argues that the widespread use of pesticides is dangerously tilting the so-called balance of nature. Pesticides poison not only pests, she says, but also humans, wildlife, the soil, food and water.

The men who make the pesticides are crying foul. 'Crass commercialism or idealistic flag waving,' scoffs one

(continued)

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Source 5.12 In Rachel Carson's book, she revealed that beneficial insects were being killed by pesticides alongside pests. Many political/satirical cartoons were published at the time, including this one, from 1963. The fact that the cartoon features the praying mantis, rather than the grasshopper, which formed the basis of Carson's research, shows how little her work was understood.

industrial toxicologist. 'We are aghast,' says another. 'Our members are raising hell,' reports a trade association.

Some agricultural chemicals concerns have set their scientists to analysing Miss Carson's work, line by line. Other companies are preparing briefs defending the use of their products. Meetings have been held in Washington and New York. Statements are being drafted and counter-attacks plotted …

Miss Carson's new book is entitled *Silent Spring*: The title is derived from an idealised situation in which Miss Carson envisions an imaginary town where chemical pollution has silenced 'the voices of spring' …

A random sampling of opinion among trade associations and chemical companies last week found the Carson articles receiving prominent attention.

Many industry spokesmen preface their remarks with a tribute to Miss Carson's writing talents, and most say that they can find little error of fact.

What they do criticise, however, are the extensions and implications that she gives to isolated case histories of the detrimental effects of certain pesticides used or misused in certain instances.

The industry feels that she has presented a one-sided case and has chosen to ignore the enormous benefits in increased food production and decreased incidence of disease that have accrued from the development and use of modern pesticides.

The pesticides industry is annoyed also at the implications that the industry itself has not been alert and concerned in its recognition of the problems that accompany pesticide use …

In an interview, E.M. Adams, assistant director of the biochemistry research laboratory of the Dow Chemical

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Company, said he would be among the first to acknowledge that there were problems in the use or misuse of pesticides.

'I think Miss Carson has indulged in hindsight,' he said. 'In many cases we have to learn from experience and often it is difficult to exercise the proper foresight.'

Emphasising that he spoke as a private toxicologist, Mr Adams said that in some procedures, such as large-scale spraying, the possible benefits had to be balanced against the possible ills.

He referred to the extensive testing programs and federal regulations prevalent in the pesticides industry and said, 'What we have done, we have not done carelessly or without consideration. The industry is not made up of money grubbers.'

Tom K. Smith, vice president and general manager of agricultural chemicals for the Monsanto Chemical Company, said that 'had the articles been written with necessary attention to the available scientific data on the subject, it could have served a valuable purpose helping alert the public at large to the importance of proper use of pesticide chemicals.'

However, he said, the articles suggested that government officials and private and industrial scientists were either not as well informed on pesticide problems as Miss Carson, not professionally competent to evaluate possible hazards or else remiss in their obligations to society.

P. Rothberg, president of the Montrose Chemical Corporation of California, said in a statement that Miss Carson wrote not 'as a scientist but rather as a fanatic defender of the cult of the balance of nature'. He said the greatest upsetters of that balance, as far as man was concerned, were modern medicines and sanitation.

Montrose, an affiliate of the Stauffer Chemical Company, is the nation's largest producer of DDT, one of the pesticides that Miss Carson discusses at length. She also discusses the effect of malathion, parathion, dieldrin, aldrin and endrin.

'It is ironic to think,' Miss Carson states at one point, 'that man may determine his own fixture by something so seemingly trivial as his choice of insect spray.' She acknowledges, however, that the effects may not show up in new generations for decades or centuries.

The Department of Agriculture reported that it had received many letters expressing 'horror and amazement' at

(continued)

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the department's support of the use of potentially deadly pesticides.

The industry had a favourite analogy to use in rebuttal. It conceded that pesticides could be dangerous. The ideal was to use them all safely and effectively …

The public debate over pesticides is just beginning and the industry is preparing for a long siege.

Source 5.13 An article by *New York Times* reporter and editor John M. Lee, published in 1962, titled *'Silent Spring' is Now Noisy Summer*

Examine Sources 5.12 and 5.13 and answer these questions.

1 How did the pesticide industry react to the publication of *Silent Spring*? Why?

2 Is the article in Source 5.13 a balanced account of the findings of Rachel Carson? Give evidence from the article to support your answer.

3 How do you think **satirical** cartoons such as Source 5.12 would have influenced public perception of Carson's work?

satirical using ridicule or sarcasm to attempt to expose error

4 Carson produced more than 500 pages of well-researched, peer-reviewed scientific evidence about the damaging effects of DDT. Why was there so much criticism of her work?

Erin Brockovich: a study of toxic waste disposal and its effects

Erin Brockovich is an outspoken American environmental activitist. She was instrumental in making a case against Pacific Gas and Electric, a large energy corporation in southern California in the early 1990s, which she alleged had contaminated the local water supply. Brockovich investigated the operations of the company and discovered a cover-up about the link between water contamination and illnesses in the area. She spearheaded the campaign against the company and hundreds of other complainants joined the lawsuit. Pacific Gas and Electric eventually settled the case for millions of dollars.

The 2000 film *Erin Brockovich* is based on Brockovich's story.



Source 5.14 Erin Brockovich speaking to residents of Oakville, Canada about a gas power plant proposed to be built in the area, 2010

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HISTORICAL FACT

HISTORICAL FACT

In February 2011, Erin Brockovich was involved in forming and promoting an Australian organisation called the Environmental Justice Society (EJS). The society aims to protect people, regardless of their race or economic status, from harmful environmental practices.



Activity **5.3**

1 Visit the website of the Environmental Justice Society at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.
- **a** Identify the aims of this society.
- **b** Which Australian organisations are involved?
- **c** Why do you think they may have chosen Erin Brockovich to launch this organisation?
- **d** Do you think this is a valuable organisation within Australia's environmental movement? Why or why not?

2 Visit the website of the Environmental Justice Foundation (EJF) at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.
- **a** How many people around the world are currently thought to have died due to chemical poisoning?
- **b** Which countries in the world are most affected? Why?
- **c** What other environmental issues that directly affect people's lives and livelihoods is the EJF investigating?
- **d** Do you believe that the concept of environmental justice is an important one in the history of the world environmental movement? Why or why not?

Grassroots action

In January 1962, American singer, activist and composer Malvina Reynolds wrote the song 'What Have They Done to the Rain?' as part of a campaign against US atmospheric nuclear testing at Bikini Atoll in the Pacific. In 1966, Pete Seeger and Malvina Reynolds produced their first album, *God Bless the Grass*, which was dedicated to environmental issues. Both had been actively involved in the US Civil Rights Movement. Seeger held a concert on the banks of the Hudson River in the state of New York to publicise the pollution caused by industry and urbanisation. He donated the proceeds to the clean-up process and formed the Clearwater Group, one of the earliest non-government organisations dedicated to local environmental action; a true 'grassroots' environmental movement.

Music became a vehicle for the delivery of the environmental message in many countries, including Australia. Music had mass appeal and attracted many different types of people to the

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Activity 5.4

1 Explain why you think music was a great platform for campaigning for environmental movements.

2 Which age group do you think songs such as 'What Have They Done to the Rain?' were aimed at? Why?

environmental cause – until the involvement of music in the cause, the environmental movement had mostly attracted only middle-class, educated people. Its importance in widening the scope of environmentalism must not be underestimated.

Ideas, awareness and the growth and influence of the environmental movement

Population growth

Between 1900 and 1960, the world's population rose from 1.65 to 3 billion. Advances in irrigation and the use of chemical fertilisers to increase food production, as well as improvements in medicines, saw death rates decline while global birth rates remained high. This rapid population growth resulted in many types of environmental change.

Following World War II, Australia itself experienced an unprecedented period of growth and prosperity. This **boom** period resulted in an increase in population, both as a result of natural increase and also from immigration. Manufacturing and mining provided jobs and exports increased. Mass media such as television began to provide greater contact with the world and there was a new enthusiasm for information and change.

boom a period of rapid growth

In 1968, Stanford ecologist Paul Ehrlich published his book *Population Time Bomb*. He advocated curbing population growth and increasing food production. On 13 December 1968, *Science* magazine published *The Tragedy of the Commons*. Its author, Garrett Hardin, was an American ecologist and microbiologist. He wrote: 'Ruin is the destination towards which all men rush, each pursuing his own best interest in a society that believes in the freedom of the commons. Freedom in a commons brings ruin to us all'. The hippie movement, which began in the United States during the 1960s, readily adopted this **ideology** and advocated the need to live simply and in tune with nature. The hippies aligned themselves with the anti-Vietnam War and peace and feminist movements, and gained a following with young people. In Australia, Nimbin in New South Wales was a centre of hippie culture.

ideology a set of ideas or beliefs that form a framework for a person's or country's point of view and actions

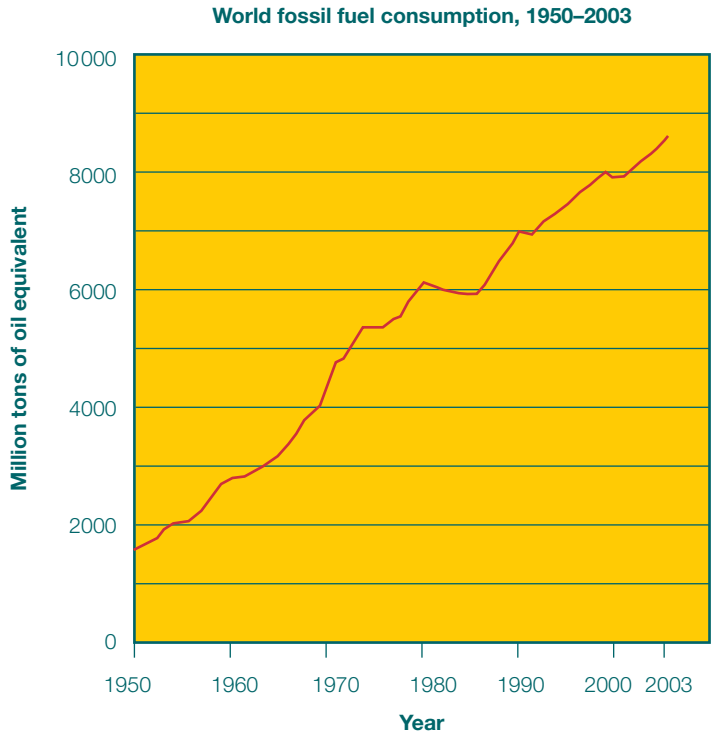
Urbanisation, industrialisation and trade

Between 1900 and 1950, the percentage of the world's population living in cities increased from 18 to 30 per cent. Urban areas encroached on farmland, forests and wilderness. Areas of desert spread. **Deforestation** not only destroyed large tracts of forests; it also reduced habitats for wildlife, resulting in a loss of biodiversity. As irrigated land area increased, so did water usage. Poor and underdeveloped nations largely missed out as richer nations entered the era of consumerism, demanding more and more of the world's scarce resources. Pollution caused by the growth of industry and a boom in the number of automobiles and transport networks increased the amount of carbon dioxide in the air by almost one-third, and would lead to the current disruptions in global climate. Demand for goods and services saw the rise of globalisation based on trade and international finance, and use of **non-renewable resources** –

deforestation major loss of forest cover through excessive clearance

non-renewable resources forms of energy such as coal, oil and gas, which take long periods of time to form and, once they are used, cannot be replaced or renewed

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Source 5.15 The burning of fossil fuels produces about 21.3 billion tonnes of carbon dioxide (CO_2). This graph shows world fossil fuel consumption from 1950 to 2003.

such as the fossil fuels coal, petroleum, oil and natural gas – increased.

Between 1913 and 1950, the world's total **Gross Domestic Product (GDP)** doubled and technology allowed humankind to consume more energy and resources while at the same time creating more waste. Scientists began to speak in terms of an increasing **ecological footprint**, saying that the world was entering an age where humans would become the most powerful force shaping the Earth.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) the market value of all goods and services produced in a country or the world in a given time period

ecological footprint a measure of the demands that humans make on the Earth's ecosystem

Year	Per capita GDP (1990 dollars)
1900	1236
1960	3187
1990	6181

Source 5.16 World per capita (per person) Gross Domestic Product 1900–90

Activity **5.5**

1. Calculate your own ecological footprint with the EPA's ecological footprint calculator at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.
2. Use the information from the website to evaluate how you think you can change your lifestyle to improve your ecological footprint. Prepare an oral presentation for your class.

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Source 5.17 This image, taken by NASA, shows the urbanised areas of our world lit up at night.

A global view of resource use

From 1961 to 1963 the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) in the United States launched a series of manned space satellites and sent back the first images of Earth taken from space. On 9 July 1965 the US Ambassador to the **United Nations (UN)**, Adlai Stevenson, in a speech to the United Nations Economic and Social Council in Geneva, said: 'We travel together, passengers on a little space ship, dependent on its vulnerable resources of water and air'.

United Nations (UN) an international organisation founded in 1945 to work towards world peace and cooperation

The following year Barbara Ward wrote a book entitled *Spaceship Earth*. As an economist and advisor to policy-makers in both the United States and United Kingdom, Ward took a global view of resource use, examining the connection between wealth and consumption. She advocated for wealthier nations to allocate a proportion of their GDP to aid poor and developing countries, and called for governments and businesses to manage 'aid and trade' in the interest of world peace and stability. Although **sustainability** was not a term used at this time, Ward's concept of the 'inner' and 'outer' limits of resource use certainly contained the germ of the idea that the Earth's resources were finite and needed to be carefully managed. As a reaction to such historic events, there was a rising awareness both in Australia and overseas of the environmental consequences of the unlimited growth of population, industry and technology.

sustainability the concept that the environment and all its parts must be used and managed, protected, conserved and respected so that they remain viable for future generations

Apollo 8 and the 'Earthrise' image

On 24 December 1968, Bill Anders, one of the *Apollo 8* astronauts, captured an image that was to become an icon for the environmental movement. The image came to be called 'Earthrise', and it showed a small, beautiful and

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HISTORICAL FACT

In the early 1960s it was believed that Australia only had sufficient iron ore resources for its domestic manufacturing needs. Minerals exploration proved this to be untrue. Large deposits of iron ore were found in the Pilbara and new minerals such as bauxite, nickel, tungsten, uranium, oil and natural gas were discovered. Australia became an exporter of minerals.

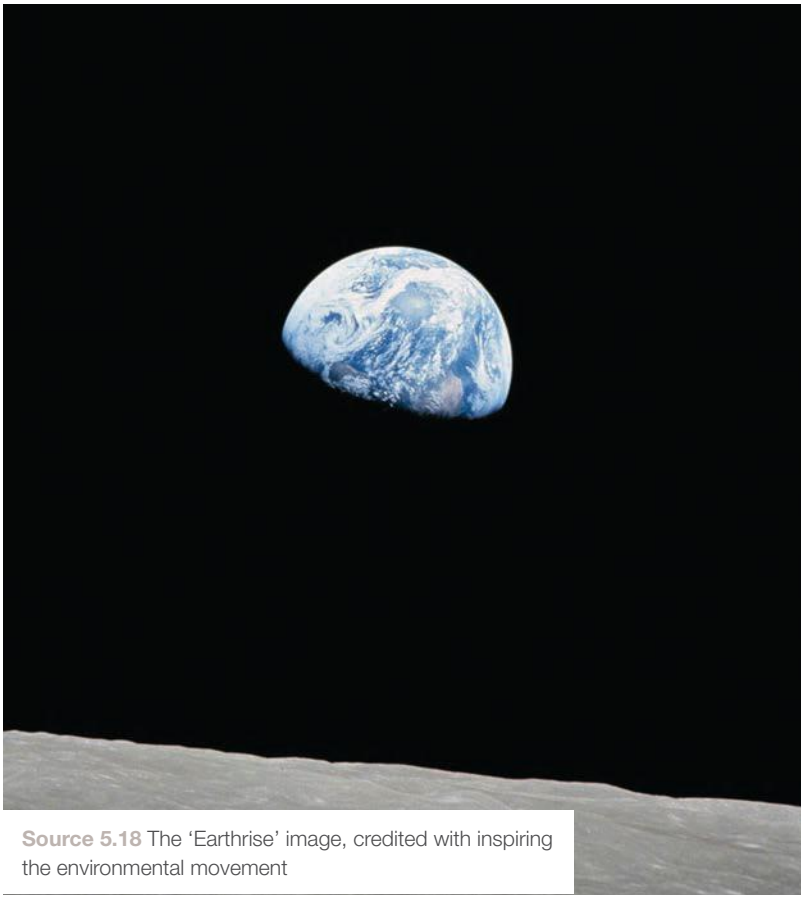
Research 5.2

Watch the video of *The 1960s: The Space Race* at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

Identify the periods of social and political change that were occurring at this time. Present your findings in a short report.

fragile planet Earth floating above the horizon of the Moon. 'Earthrise' has been called 'the most influential environment photograph ever taken' and served as a reminder of the need to protect Earth's fragile resources.

By the end of the 1960s there was growing support for the environmental movement both in Australia and overseas, but now there would be a new way of looking at the Earth and a growing realisation that human actions were having negative environmental and ecological impacts.



Source 5.18 The 'Earthrise' image, credited with inspiring the environmental movement

The rise of EMOs and ENGOs

In Australia, many different Australian Environmental Movements (EMOs) and Environmental Non-government Organisations (ENGOs) formed during the 1960s and 1970s. Conservation groups such as Landcare and Bushcare concentrated on the preservation of wildlife and natural areas, and volunteers worked on projects such as replanting native vegetation

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and repairing eroded areas of coastline. They seldom challenged the social order or took political action. Ecologist groups, such as Greenpeace and Friends of the Earth, focused on environmental issues such as the logging of old-growth forests, the destruction of wildlife and the loss of biodiversity. They were willing to undertake long-term and well-organised campaigns, as well as lobby politicians. One of the most well-known EMOs, the Tasmanian Wilderness Society, became involved in the high-profile 'Save the Franklin' campaign.

Environmental concerns also resulted in the introduction of environmental education programs in schools, which were designed to engage and inform school students of all ages by teaching about the environment from within the classroom. The Gould League, which had broadened its support and changed its name from the Gould League of Bird Lovers, produced the first classroom resources and established a **field centre** in New South Wales.

field centre an organisation focused on educating school students

Third wave environmentalism: global, national and local responsibility for the environment (late twentieth century)

The 1970s was a time of social change. The anti-Vietnam War, Civil Rights and Women's Liberation Movements were all accompanied by calls for more radical action at all levels. Change was seen as the way of the future. Public protest became a vehicle for these social movements. By the mid-1970s, many believed that the Earth was heading towards environmental catastrophe. The publication of a study called *The Limits to Growth* served to alert the world to the consequences of unchecked population growth, industrialisation and resource use. The study was commissioned by the Club of Rome, an international organisation formed in 1968 by a number of people, including former government officials, bankers, industrialists, academics and scientists from different countries. It was based on large-scale computer models developed by scientists that predicted dire future outcomes based on current growth in the world economies.

The 1970s environmental movement would concern itself with addressing global

Research 5.3

Examine the list of ENGOs at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks. Choose one of the environmental organisations from your own or another state and work through the following points in small groups. Present your findings to the class.

- How, when and why it was formed?
- How is it financed?
- What are its current goals/aims?
- Are these aims based on a local resource or area, or are they state-wide, nation-wide or global in focus?
- Have these goals/aims changed over time? Why or why not?
- Would you personally support its aims/goals? Why or why not?

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environmental threats as well as battling local and regional issues. The slogan 'Think Globally, Act Locally' was attributed to Rene Dubos, an advisor to the 1972 United Nations Conference on the Human Environment. It came to represent the focus of the 1970s environmental movement.

The first Earth Day

On 22 April 1970, the first Earth Day was held in the United States. It was the vision of Senator Gaylord Nelson and was organised by John McConnell as a 'teach in' to spread the environmental message to the masses. Twenty million people across the United States attended local Earth Day events. The unofficial Earth Day flag uses the photograph known as the 'Blue Marble', a picture of Earth taken from space in 1972 by the crew of *Apollo 17*.



Source 5.19 The image of the 'Blue Marble' is used by John McConnell as the unofficial Earth Day flag.

This event is currently held in 174 countries. There are 5000 groups and 25 000 educators involved in this organisation.



Source 5.20 Large crowds attend the first Earth Day event on 22 April 1970

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HISTORICAL FACT

The 'Spaceship Earth' and 'Mother Earth' slogans reappeared in the 1970s and musicians were once again involved in taking the environmental message to the people. Marvin Gaye's 'Mercy, Mercy Me (the Ecology)' (1971) from his album *What's Going On?* chronicled the damage humans were causing to the Earth's natural systems. The song was released as a single and sold more than one million copies.

The Gaia Theory

In 1979, James Lovelock, a former NASA scientist, published *Gaia: A new look at life on Earth*. It was based on his 1972 **Gaia Theory**, which was named after the Greek Earth Goddess, Gaia. The theory suggested viewing the Earth as a complex system: a living and interconnected organism. The Gaia Theory has led to the concept of **deep ecology**: the view that each part of the Earth and its natural systems is of equal value and that all organisms are interdependent; that the environment is essential to sustaining the human spirit and has a deep spiritual value.

Gaia Theory James Lovelock's theory that Earth is a self-regulating, natural, interconnected system

deep ecology a branch of the ecology movement that views each part of the Earth and its natural systems as being of equal value

permaculture an environmental movement that teaches the techniques required to ensure that the soil produces abundant crops using natural methods

re-earthing an environmental movement based on communicating with Earth's natural systems in order to be renewed and in tune with the environment

Australian environmentalist John Seed is a world leader in the deep ecology movement. Since 1979, Seed has campaigned to save rainforests and endangered species and is the founder of the Rainforest Information Centre based in Nimbin, New South Wales. **Permaculture** and **re-earthing** are two off-shoots of the Gaian and deep ecology movements that aim to reconnect humans to the Earth and its energies.

Sustainability and global warming

In the 1980s and 1990s the environmental movement embraced the idea of sustainability. The movement's focus was both global and local, with businesses as well as governments viewed as being responsible for fixing environmental problems and planning for the future. Global warming became the most pressing issue. The mean temperature for the planet has risen by about 0.740°C in the last 100 years. More than half of this increase has occurred within the last 25 years.

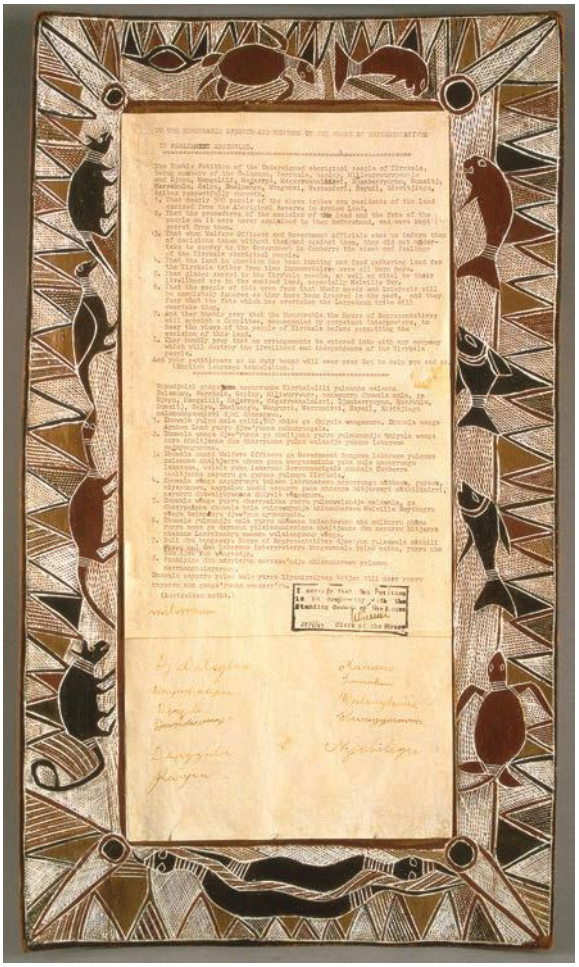
The Arctic is regarded by scientists as a region that is highly sensitive to global warming and as such it acts as an 'early warning' system for climate change. Average temperatures in the Arctic region have been rising twice as fast as other areas of the world and have resulted in shrinking of the area covered by the polar ice cap. Ice caps and ice sheets have a moderating influence on the Earth's climate, so these changes are regarded as very serious. The melting of the ice caps will lead to rising sea levels and affect the native people who live in the region as well as wildlife such as polar bears, walrus, whales and seals.

In Antarctica, the Peninsula region has warmed by 0.110°C over the last 10 years, causing hundreds of glaciers to retreat. West Antarctica has also warmed at a rate of 0.170°C over the last decade. East Antarctica is currently estimated to be warming at an average of 0.10°C per decade, which is also regarded by scientists as 'significant'. It is estimated that if all the ice stored in Antarctic ice sheets, shelves and glaciers melted, global sea levels would rise by about 57 metres. The US Geological Survey has been using satellite and aerial photographs and maps dating back to the 1940s to study Antarctic ice sheets. Scientist Jane Ferrigno said: 'The changes exhibited in the region are widely regarded as among the most profound and unambiguous examples of the effects of global warming on the planet'. The Adelie Penguin population has shrunk by 33 per cent over the past 25 years in response to the shrinking of its sea ice habitat.

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Source 5.21 Sun breaking through clouds in Antarctica.



Source 5.22 The Yirrkala bark petitions (1963) combined traditional Aboriginal bark painting with text in English and the Gumatj language. The Yolngu saw these petitions as title deeds to their country.

Australian environmental campaigns

During the 1960s and beyond, individuals began to participate in campaigns, protests, demonstrations, public opinion polls and petitions that tended to focus on protecting, preserving or saving one natural resource or site. At the local level, anti-litter campaigns targeted urban pollution. The 'Keep Australia Beautiful/Tidy Towns' campaign, which began in Western Australia in 1968, was aimed at developing a sense of personal and community responsibility.

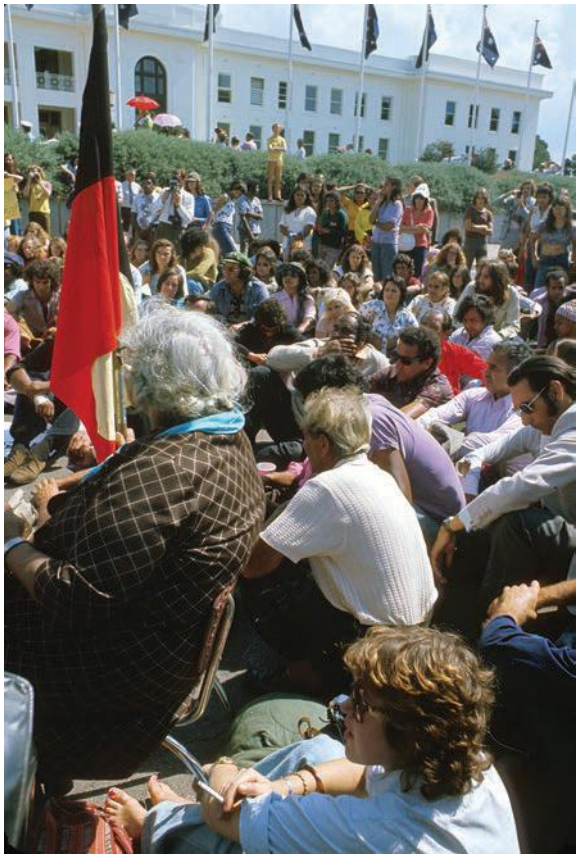
As well as campaigns focused on saving a particular resource or area, wide environmental movements aimed at opposing the use of nuclear power and the whaling industry. All these campaigns contributed to Australia's **environmental history**.

environmental history a term used to describe people's relationships with the environment over time, which attempts to show the connection between nature and culture, and combines the natural, social, economic and political aspects within an historical framework

Bauxite mining: Nhulunbuy land rights, 1963–71

In early 1963, the Australian Government sold some of the land traditionally occupied by the Indigenous Yolngu people, who lived at Yirrkala on the Nhulunbuy Peninsula, Northern Territory. The 300 square kilometres of land was sold to mining company Nabalco, for bauxite mining. On 28 August 1963 the Yolngu people presented the first of two bark petitions to the House of Representatives objecting to the lack of consultation and secrecy over the government's deal with Nabalco.

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Source 5.23 The 1974 public protest in support of Aboriginal land rights [NAA: A6135 K5/3/74/10]

A Senate Select Committee acknowledged the rights of the Yolngu and on 29 October 1963 recommended that they be compensated for loss of their livelihood, that their sacred sites be protected and that there be ongoing monitoring of the mining project. The Yolngu went to the Northern Territory Supreme Court in 1968 and in 1971 it was acknowledged that the Yolngu had been living on the Nhulunbuy Peninsula for tens of thousands of years and that their laws were linked to the land. However, it was decreed that Australian law did not recognise these property relations. Laws relating to the ownership of this land were based on the concept of *terra nullius* – the idea that the land was not occupied at the time when the British arrived to colonise Australia. In 1974 there was a national protest. The failure of the Nhulunbuy land rights case drew public attention to the legal problems of Indigenous people.

The 'Save the Barrier Reef' campaign, 1969–81

As early as the 1960s, Des Connell, a member of the Queensland Littoral Association, called for greater protection for the Great Barrier Reef. In 1962, the first outbreaks of crown-of-thorns starfish were reported – this starfish feeds on, and destroys, living coral, and has a great impact on the reef. The Wildlife Preservation Society of Queensland (WPSQ) was formed at this time.

In 1967, an application was lodged to allow limestone mining of a section of the Great Barrier Reef known as Ellison Reef, off Mission Beach in north-east Queensland. In 1969 an oil drilling permit was granted, allowing exploration of Ellison Reef. The Queensland Minister for Mines declared at the time, 'where there are minerals it is our duty to encourage extraction'.

A campaign committee led by prominent Australian poet Judith Wright, President of the newly formed Wildlife Preservation Society of Queensland (WPSQ), used petitions, public

HISTORICAL FACT

In 1992 the High Court of Australia overturned the long-held concept of *terra nullius*. In recognising the claims of the Meriam people of the Murray Island in Torres Strait, they established that native title rights and interests based on laws and customs that pre-dated British settlement gave Indigenous people rights over both land and water. This historic case was referred to as the Mabo Decision. However, it is still not clear how this legal judgment applies to mining on Indigenous land.

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Source 5.24 An original 'Save the Barrier Reef' bumper sticker from 1969 [courtesy of www.marineconservation.org.au]

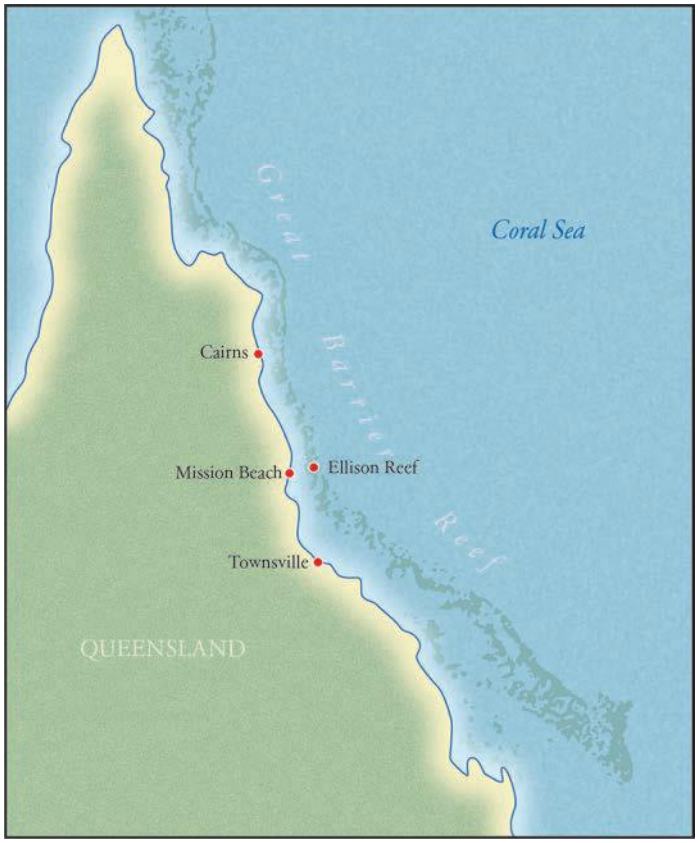
meetings, slogans and bumper stickers to promote the 'Save the Barrier Reef' campaign.

During 1970, a **Royal Commission** was established and in 1974 it ruled that there would be no petroleum drilling on the Great Barrier Reef. The following year, the *Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Act 1975* resulted in the establishment of the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority. The Great Barrier Reef was granted World Heritage Status in 1981. In 1997 Judith Wright published her book *The Coral Battleground*.

Royal Commission an official committee of inquiry appointed by the Crown

Judith Wright

Judith Wright was born on 31 May 1915 at Armidale, New South Wales. She studied English, History and Philosophy at Sydney University and became one of Australia's best-known poets, authors and environmental and social justice activists. She was a founding member of the WPSQ and campaigned against mining on the Great Barrier Reef and sand mining on Fraser Island. She was also a passionate supporter of Aboriginal land rights. She died on 26 June 2000.



Source 5.25 Map showing the location of Ellison Reef, a section of the Great Barrier Reef off north-east Queensland



Source 5.26 Environmentalists fought to save the beauty and diversity of Ellison Reef from the threat of mining, but the crown-of-thorns starfish (foreground) had destroyed much of this section of the Great Barrier Reef by 1994.

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Times gone by ...

Die, wild country, like the eaglehawk,
dangerous till the last breath's gone
clawing and striking. Die
cursing your captor through your raging eye.

Die like the tigersnake
that hisses such pure
hatred from its pain
as fills the killer's
dreams.

Suffer, wild country,
like the ironwood
that gaps the dozer-
blade.
I see your living soil
ebb with the tree
to naked poverty.

Die like the soldier-
ant
Mindless and faithful
to your million years.
Though we corrupt you
with our torturing
mind,
stay obstinate; stay
blind.

For we are conquerors
and self-poisoners
more than the scorpion
or snake
and dying of the venoms
that we make
even while you die for us.

Source 5.27 'Australia 1970' a poem by Judith Wright, 1994



Source 5.28 Judith Wright: poet, writer, environmental activist and supporter of Indigenous land rights, played an important role in Australia's environmental movement history.

Judith Wright wrote of her anger at the destruction of Australia's ancient natural environment. Using your own words, analyse what you think Wright means by the line 'For we are conquerors and self-poisoners'.

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The 'Save Lake Pedder' campaign, 1967–73

Lake Pedder National Park was established in 1955 in the south-west of Tasmania. In 1967 the Hydro-Electric Commission (HEC) of Tasmania proposed a power scheme on the Middle Gordon River, which lay within the national park. Previously, the Commissioner of the HEC, Sir Alan Knight, had said publicly that the chance of developing this 'empty quarter' of Tasmania was unlikely; yet water-flow recorders had been installed on all its major rivers. The HEC proposal involved the damming of the Huon and Serpentine Rivers, which would result in the flooding of Lake Pedder.

The proposal was tabled in the Tasmanian Parliament in May 1967. The Save Lake Pedder National Park Committee presented a petition with 10 000 signatures opposing the proposal. The Tasmanian Labor Government formed a Select Committee to consider alternative proposals, but these were judged to be too expensive.

In August 1967 legislation was passed enabling damming to proceed, and the 'Save Lake Pedder' campaign officially began. In 1969 the Tasmanian Labor Government lost power and a coalition Liberal/Centre party was formed. At a public protest meeting held in Hobart Town Hall in March 1971, a proposal was put forward calling for a referendum to be held so that the people of Tasmania could decide the fate of Lake Pedder. The Lake Pedder Action Group (LPAG) was formed and approached Prime Minister William McMahon about the issue. He directed the Tasmanian Environment Minister, Peter Howsden, to discuss alternative proposals with the Tasmanian Premier. The Tasmanian Premier refused to meet with Howsden.

The United Tasmanian Group (UTG) was established at a meeting at Hobart Town Hall in 1972, and members of the group ran in the state election that year. The UTG would later lead to the establishment of the Australian Greens Party. The 'Save Lake Pedder' campaign gained worldwide attention and support from the United Nations Economic, Social and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). In July 1972 the Premier of Tasmania was presented with a petition signed by 17 500 supporters and a bush vigil was held at the lake from 1972 to early 1973.

In 1973, a federal–state inquiry was mounted. It deemed Lake Pedder to be too important to the ecology of the area to be flooded. Despite this, the Premier of Tasmania gave approval for the flooding and the 'Save Lake Pedder' campaign was lost.



Source 5.29 Light planes land on the beach at Lake Pedder in 1963, prior to flooding [NAA: A1500, K9875]



Source 5.30 The 'new' Lake Pedder after flooding in 1972. The decision to retain the name of the original lake was controversial. Bushwalkers sometimes refer to the body of water as 'Fake Pedder'.

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Source 5.31 Bob Brown

The formation of the Greens Party

The Australian Greens Party was formed in 1992. It arose as a direct result of the protests against the flooding of Lake Pedder and the formation of the UTG, the world's first Greens party, in 1972. One of its key members, Bob Brown, went on to become the public face of the 'Save the Franklin River' campaign. He became involved in politics and actively supported and spoke for environmental causes.

Bob Brown

Bob Brown was born in Oberon, New South Wales, in 1944. He grew up in country towns where his father worked as a policeman. He displayed an early interest in nature and the outdoors. He studied Medicine at the University of Sydney, graduating in 1986, and began working in England. On his return, he went to Tasmania to work as a GP. He loved the Tasmanian wilderness and when he learned of plans to dam Lake Pedder he became involved in the protests. In 1975 he was the UTG candidate for the Australian Senate and in 1982 he developed a successful publicity campaign against the damming of the Franklin River. He was elected to the Tasmanian House of Assembly as an independent candidate in 1983 and helped form the Tasmanian Greens Party. The party shared state government with the Labor Party from 1989 to 1992.

In 1990 Brown established the Australian Bush Heritage Fund. The aim of this non-profit organisation is to acquire land of high to outstanding conservation value, or work with landowners, in order to protect native species and environments. In 1993 Brown set his sights on Federal Parliament. He was elected as an Australian Greens Party senator in 1996 and became parliamentary leader of the party in 2005.

In 2012, Brown resigned as leader of the Greens and stood down from parliament. Brown was an advocate of strong government policy-making to address the effects of global warming and he continues to be an environmental and social justice activist.

The anti-whaling movement, 1975–ongoing

Whaling was one of Australia's earliest primary industries, supplying oil and whalebone for both export and domestic use. Whaling stations were established from as early as the 1820s in South Australia, Queensland, Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), Western Australia and New South Wales. Hand-held harpoons and rowboats were originally used, but these were later replaced by harpoons with explosive tips and steam-driven whaling ships. The result was that, by 1930, 80 per cent of the whale species in the waters between Australia and Antarctica were on the verge of extinction.

On 2 November 1946, as a response to the worldwide decline in the whale population, the International Whaling Commission (IWC) was created by the world's 14 whaling nations

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to manage whale stocks in an economically sustainable way.

In 1975, Canadian environmental organisation Greenpeace launched a radical, direct-action anti-whaling campaign confronting Russian whaling vessels in the North Sea and raising public awareness about the plight of the whales.

From 1973, Project Jonah worked in Australia lobbying, educating and raising public awareness about whales and the whaling industry. In August 1977 Canadian Bob Hunter, co-founder of Greenpeace, came to Australia to organise a campaign that was funded by a French environmental activist. Their target was the Cheynes Beach Whaling Company in Eden, Western Australia. The actions taken by Greenpeace had already resulted in a drop in the price of whale oil and the company declared its intention to close the station.

Using small rubber vessels called Zodiacs, the activists came between the whaling vessels and the whales. Although not a single whale was saved in this operation, it attracted worldwide media attention.

On 20 November 1978 the Cheynes Beach Whaling Company harpooned its last whale and the next day the company closed, marking the end of whaling in Australia. Greenpeace NSW was formed that same year; then, in 1979, Greenpeace Adelaide was formed.

In 1979 the IWC established the Indian Ocean Whale Sanctuary as a practical conservation measure and in 1982 a moratorium was declared on commercial whaling, which came into effect in 1986. After campaigning for different causes during the 1980s, Greenpeace NSW and Adelaide joined to officially form Greenpeace Australia, the national organisation, in 1987.

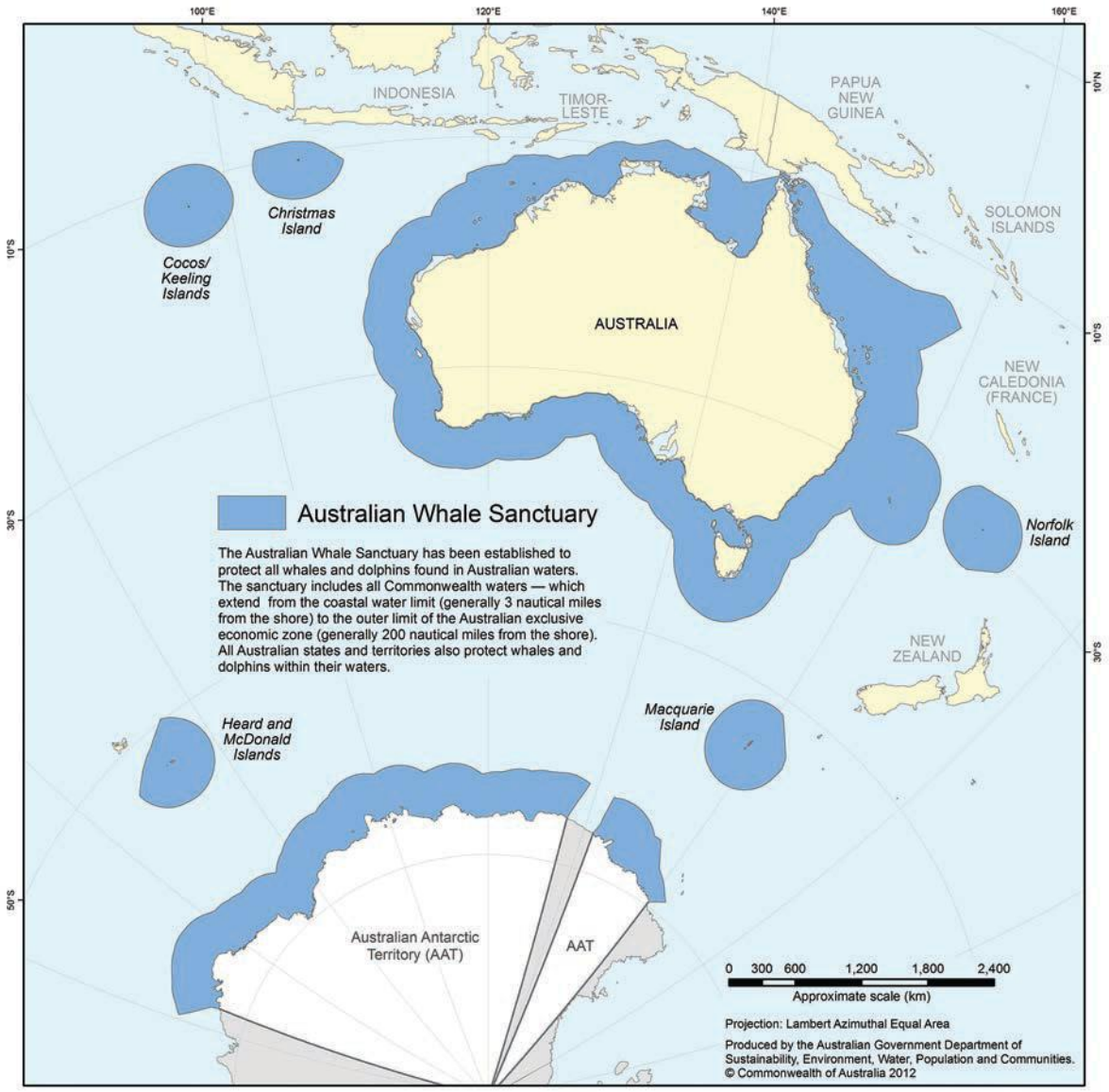
The Southern Ocean Whale Sanctuary was established in 1994 following an intense campaign by the World Wildlife Foundation (WWF) and other ENGOs. Despite this, the Japanese Government continued to conduct its annual 'scientific' whale hunt in the Antarctic.

Australia supports the non-lethal scientific study of whales and, alongside the United States, has continued to condemn lethal whaling in the Antarctic by the Japanese. In January 2010 the Federal Government renewed its threat to mount a legal challenge in the International Court of Justice (ICJ) against continued Japanese whaling activities in the Southern Ocean. They called for a permanent end to whaling in the Southern Ocean on the grounds that it is an established whale sanctuary and a critical feeding ground for whales.



Source 5.32 Sperm whales were hunted to near extinction until whaling restrictions were enforced.

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Source 5.33 The Southern Ocean Whale Sanctuary provides protection for whales within Australian waters. [©DSEWPaC]

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, document the anti-whaling movement timeline in regards to Australia.

Year	Event
1820s	Whaling stations were established in South Australia, Queensland, Tasmania, Western Australia and New South Wales

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Times gone by ...

This summer the Japanese whaling fleet will be killing humpbacks when it heads down to the Southern Ocean for so-called scientific research.

Fifty humpbacks, 50 fin whales and almost 1000 minke whales are set to be killed.

Most Australians are outraged by whaling, but what do young Japanese people think?

Julia Bowett, a PhD student from the University of Tasmania, has surveyed 500 Japanese university students about their attitudes to whaling.

Her study has found most young Japanese people do not support killing whales for scientific research and do not want to eat whale meat, but a third of them do think whaling is an important cultural activity.

The Japanese fishing fleet sails to the North Pacific and Southern Oceans to kill whales, citing scientific research as its justification.

The meat is brought back to Japan, but Ms Bowett's study has found that it is not very popular among young people there.

'When asked, have they ever eaten whale meat, 57 per cent said "no",' she said.

'When asked how often they would like to eat whale products if they were more readily available to them, nearly 41 per cent said "Never" and an additional 40 per cent said "A few times a year".'

Ms Bowett says the killing of whales for so-called scientific research did not attract much support from the Japanese students either.

'When asked if only non-lethal methods should be used when collecting scientific data on whales, a high percentage – approximately 65 per cent – agreed with this view, which is really quite revealing when it comes to determining how young Japanese people feel about killing whales for science,' she said.

Ms Bowett says there is one reason the students still support whaling.

(continued)

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'A pattern was arising that although these Japanese students did not overtly support the killing of whales for science, there was an acknowledgment of the cultural and social importance of whaling in Japan, with 36 per cent actually agreeing that whaling is part of Japanese culture and should be allowed to continue,' she said.

Another Tasmanian, Andrew Darby, has written a book about whaling called *Harpoon*. He is not surprised the Japanese students think whaling is culturally significant.

'Whaling is driven by very large fishing companies in Japan, who work through and with the Government's Fisheries Agency,' he said.

'It pushes the cultural line quite hard through the Government of Japan and through the Parliament of Japan.'

Japan does have a strong cultural history of whaling, but Mr Darby believes that culture can be changed.

'I think that you would find that in a short period of time they could be persuaded that the cultural significance was part of the past, part of the history, part of what their grandparents relied on for food in post-war years, but not something that is part of any of their current needs now,' he said.

Mr Darby says it is up to anti-whaling countries like Australia to tell Japan that whaling is wrong.

'There is a fight to be fought for things like humpbacks, but when it comes to finally overcoming whaling, it will rely on these young people,' he said.

'I think that's why this research is particularly important; this sort of research really starts to drill down to who actually has to be reached and what actually has to be changed.'

In the short term, the Japanese whaling fleet is still planning to kill humpbacks, fin whales and minke whales in the Southern Ocean this summer.

Source 5.34 An article from ABC news: 'Young Japanese not Convinced about "Scientific" Whaling', by Felicity Ogilvie, 16 November 2007

Read Source 5.34 and answer these questions.

1 Why is it important to know how young people in Japan feel about the continuation of Japan's scientific whaling program?

2 What other aspects of this program are mentioned in the article? How relevant are they today?

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The anti-uranium movement, 1973–ongoing

In the 1950s a small group of Australians began to protest the use and abuse of nuclear power. Australian mines produced uranium used in the British nuclear weapons program and these weapons were tested in Australia at Monte Bello Island off the north-west coast, and also at Emu Field and Maralinga in South Australia. In 1953 the Australian Atomic Energy Commission (AECC) was established to promote nuclear research and monitor uranium mining.

In 1969 the Commonwealth Government announced plans to build the first nuclear reactor at Jervis Bay, New South Wales. However, the plans were later abandoned due to the cost of the project. The first major public debate on nuclear issues occurred in 1972–73 over the atmospheric testing of nuclear weapons in the Pacific by the French. Bob Hawke, President of the Australian Council of Trade Unions, spoke against the French tests on behalf of the trade union movement. The Waterside Workers' Federation took direct action and imposed **black bans** on the development, mining, treatment and export of uranium.

black ban the banning of any involvement in a particular activity

In 1973 the world experienced the first of two oil crises and, at the same time, scientists were moving to promote the use of nuclear energy. Between 1973 and 1975 the anti-uranium movement, represented by the Australian Conservation Foundation and the Australia Party, focused its concerns on uranium mining. They were joined by scientists such as Richard Temple and Rob Robotham, and activist Judith Wright.

From small beginnings, the anti-uranium protests became a major political issue. The Campaign against Nuclear Energy (CANE) began in 1976 in South Australia. The Australian Conservation Foundation and Friends of the Earth, both formed in 1975, were opposed to uranium mining, exporting of uranium ore and the use of nuclear energy in Australia. In May 1975, 150 cyclists from Melbourne, Sydney and Adelaide rode to Canberra and presented a petition to the Minister for the Environment – this movement was known as the Rides against Uranium. Their actions drew media attention and they gained support from the public and trade unions for the anti-uranium cause. They aligned themselves with the Peace Movement and aimed to change government policy, inform the public and force

Activity **5.6**

1 Why did anti-uranium protesters focus their efforts on Canberra?

2 **a** Where was Australia sending its uranium during the 1960s and 1970s?

b How was it being used?

3 Would you support the proposal to lift the ban on exporting uranium to India? Why or why not?

HISTORICAL FACT

Historical fact

Music and singing were an important part of the Rides against Uranium. In many of the small local pubs along the route, the riders played guitar and sang songs such as 'We Ride against Uranium' and 'Come All Australians Near and Far'.



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counter-culture people, beliefs and actions that are seen as being outside, against or challenging those regarded as 'normal' by society

them to make the link between exporting uranium and the proliferation of nuclear weapons. Terms such as '**counter-culture**' and 'anti-conformist' were applied to their campaign strategies.

Australian Prime Minister Julia Gillard once again put the exporting of uranium on the political agenda on 15 November 2011, when she signalled her intention to seek support from the Labor Party to end the ban on exports of uranium to India. Greens Leader Bob Brown strongly opposed the proposal, saying it would lead to 'a nuclear arms race'. The leader of the Liberal Party, Tony Abbott, supported the proposal.

> Like her predecessors, until her announcement, Gillard steadfastly followed her Labor Party's long-held policy of not exporting uranium to any nation that had not signed the **Nuclear Non-proliferation** Treaty (NPT), which India has not, although it is a nuclear weapons power … While not a signatory to the NPT, India is a democratic country with transparent political institutions and whose proliferation record remains clean. By not changing its archaic policy, Canberra is sending wrong signals to New Delhi and hindering Australia's closer ties with India.
>
> Furthermore, the Australian business community has for long also lobbied the government to lift the ban as the mining industry can easily feel how much they were losing through this ban while other countries were taking advantage of the expanding India's energy markets.
>
> **Source 5.35** Excerpt from the article 'Australia backflips on uranium to India', which appeared in the *South Asia Times* (an Indian newspaper) on 18 November 2011

nuclear non-proliferation efforts to stop the spread of nuclear weapons in the world

The Ranger Uranium EnvironmentalInquiry, 1976–77

The Ranger Uranium Environmental Inquiry (RUEI), also known as the Fox Inquiry, laid the foundation for government policy on uranium mining in Australia. The inquiry produced two reports, on 28 October 1976 and 2 October 1977, which established that uranium mining could proceed if any potential hazards were properly regulated and controlled, and no sales of Australian uranium were made to countries that had not signed the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty. Environmental monitoring was also to be established and a committee was to oversee the project.

Although the proposed Ranger Uranium Mine site was situated within Kakadu National Park in the Northern Territory, the site is technically not part of the national park.

At the same time as the Fox Inquiry was taking place, the Australian Government passed legislation that allowed traditional landowners, the Indigenous Mirrar people, to gain legal title to their land in parts of Kakadu. But the *Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act 1976* exempted the Ranger Uranium Mine from the title, and the mine proceeded despite the opposition of the Mirrar.

Olympic Dam, Roxby Downs, 1983

From August 1983, anti-uranium protestors organised by CANE focused their attention on Olympic Dam, Roxby Downs, South Australia – the site of a proposed uranium mine. The 'Three Mines Policy' introduced by the Labor Government in 1984 allowed for uranium production at Ranger and Narbarlek in the Northern Territory and Olympic Dam in South Australia. Approximately 400 protestors managed to enter the mine site and many were arrested. Despite the opposition of conservationist and the traditional owners of the land, the Indigenous Kokatha people, uranium mining at Roxby Downs proceeded.

The Jabiluka blockade and protests, 1998–ongoing

The first of the ore bodies at Jabiluka was discovered in November 1971 by Pancontinental Mining Ltd and Getty Oil Development Co Ltd. The ore body was approximately 25 kilometres

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from the existing Ranger uranium mine – again, although situated within and surrounded by Kakadu National Park, the Jabiluka site is not classified as part of the national park. In May 1978, permission was given for the miners to drill at the proposed mine site so that an environmental impact statement could be completed. Aboriginal people, the National Labour Council (NLC) and the Australian Labor Party spokesman on Urban and Regional Affairs, Tom Uren, voiced strong objections to the mine proposal. In 1980 the Mirrar and other Aboriginal people in the region lodged a claim for their land under the *Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act 1976*. Negotiations with the mining companies continued and in 1982 local Indigenous people signed an agreement to allow uranium mining at the site. However, Indigenous people have always maintained that they were 'tricked, cajoled and pressured' into allowing mining at Jabiluka and made to believe that it was impossible to stop it happening.

In 1981, the surrounding Kakadu National Park (Stage 1) had been granted World Heritage status. In 1983, Bob Hawke's Labor Government came to power. Its policy was to limit the expansion of uranium mining by introducing its 'Three Mines Policy', which excluded the Jabiluka mine. The Jabiluka project then stalled for 13 years. In 1992 the remainder of Kakadu National Park was listed as a World Heritage site.

Opposition to the mine held until the election of the Howard Liberal Government in 1996, which decided to fast-track the development of the project. In July 1997 public meetings were held in Sydney and Melbourne, and blockades and pickets targeted the Environmental Research Institute of Supervising Scientists (ERISS), which was carrying out an 'independent' assessment of the mine proposal. Despite all these and further protests, Senator Robert Hill recommended that the Jabiluka project proceed.

In March 1998, thousands of protesters arrived to blockade the Jabiluka site. Arrests were made in May and Yvonne Margarula, senior traditional land owner and activist from the Mirrar people, was charged with trespassing.

In November 1998, UNESCO handed down its report on the mining project. It stated that investigations led it to conclude that the Jabiluka mine posed serious threats to the cultural and natural values of the Kakadu World Heritage Area. In December 1998 the World Heritage Committee accepted the recommendations of the UNESCO Mission Report and recommended that construction at Jabiluka should cease. The mine operators, Energy Resources of Australia Ltd, finally chose to work with the Mirrar people and, in 1999, development was stopped.

The Jabiluka Long Term Care and Maintenance Agreement was signed on 25 February 2005. It states that any future mining activity at the site must be approved by the Mirrar people. The Mirrar continue to express their opposition to any mining at Jabiluka and have asked the Commonwealth Government to include the area within the Kakadu National Park.

Yvonne Margarula

Yvonne Margarula was born in 1958 in bushland near Jabiru, Kakadu, Northern Territory, into the Mirrar clan of the Gundjehmi people. Her father was the senior traditional owner of the land, which includes the area referred to as Jabiluka. Though he opposed mining, in 1982, reluctantly and under pressure, he had signed the agreement to allow uranium mining at Jabiluka. When her father died in 1989, Yvonne inherited the role of managing Mirrar lands. She opposed uranium mining at Jabiluka because of its negative effects on the environment and the Indigenous people. In the 1990s, Aboriginal people in the region were living in appalling conditions despite being paid royalties from the Ranger uranium mining – the

Activity **5.7**

Complete 'Webquest: Jabiluka Uranium Mine' at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

Present your findings to your class in a group oral presentation.

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Source 5.36 In May 1998 Yvonne Margarula was arrested for 'trespassing' on the Jabiluka uranium mine site, which was part of the Mirrar's traditional lands.

HISTORICAL FACT

In 2011, Yvonne Margarula wrote to the United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon expressing her sorrow at the fact that uranium mined at Ranger in the Northern Territory was used in the Fukushima nuclear reactors that caused a nuclear disaster in Japan following the earthquake and tsunami in March that year. Ten per cent of the world's uranium comes from the Ranger mine.

royalties were being spent unwisely and alcohol abuse was increasing. It was also feared that water from the mine was contaminating local rivers with radioactive materials.

In 1992 Margarula began a campaign to stop the development of the Jabiluka mine, travelling around the world to publicise her cause. Additional support came from fears that the mine might harm the surrounding Kakadu National Park, by then a World Heritage site.

New Zealand's anti-uranium policies and the sinking of the *Rainbow Warrior*

In the 1980s, New Zealand's anti-nuclear campaigns had forced France to end its atmospheric nuclear testing in the Pacific Ocean, but the French Government commenced nuclear weapons testing using underground bunkers on Mururoa Atoll, also in the Pacific. Greenpeace International sought to disturb the testing and draw international attention by having a flotilla of yachts sail into the test zone. New Zealand

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Labour leader, David Lange, was openly opposed to nuclear testing and banned all nuclear-powered ships and those with nuclear weapons from entering New Zealand ports. This led to strained relations with the United States, one of its Australia, New Zealand and United States Security (ANZUS) Treaty partners.

In 1985 the Greenpeace International flagship, *Rainbow Warrior*, returned from a successful campaign in the Pacific and berthed in Auckland Harbour. On 10 July two bombs exploded on the ship, killing a photographer who was on board. The *Rainbow Warrior* sank. Investigations by New Zealand police led to the arrest of two French intelligence agents. There was a strong suggestion that the bombing had been approved by French President Charles de Gaulle.

Under the New Zealand Labour Government the country declared itself a nuclear-free zone and in 1987 the *Nuclear Free Zone, Disarmament and Arms Control Act* was passed.

The Battle for Kelly's Bush and the first Green Ban, 1971–83

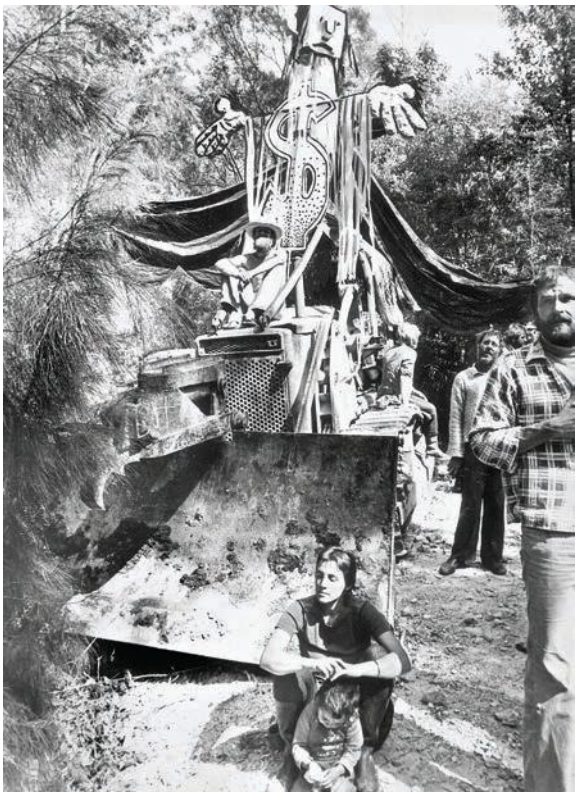
The Battle for Kelly's Bush was a grassroots campaign run by the women of Hunter's Hill, an affluent Sydney suburb, to prevent developers from clearing the last remaining area of bushland on the Parramatta River. The women took their cause to Robert Askin, the Premier of New South Wales. When they were unsuccessful, they decided that more radical action was required and sought support from the trade union organisation the Builder's Labourers' Federation (BLF). On 17 June 1971 a public meeting was held and a motion was passed to impose the first **green ban**. This forced the developer to stop work on clearing the land; members of the BLF agreed to stop work, and threatened the developer that if they tried to proceed by employing non-union workers, BLF members working on other developments would strike. The issue was resolved in 1983 when Labor New South Wales Premier Neville Wran purchased the area for recreational use. The green ban began a movement to preserve areas for their environmental and heritage value.

green ban industrial action in support of an environmental or heritage cause

The fight for the forests

Terania Creek, New South Wales, 1979–82

Terania Creek, north-west of Lismore, New South Wales, was once part of an area known as 'The Big Scrub'. In 1974, alternative lifestylers (or 'hippies') who had been attracted to the area learned that the New South Wales Forestry Commission planned to clear-fell and burn the last of the rainforest in the Terania Creek Basin. The protest that began in 1979 was to be the first peaceful, direct-action forest protest in Australia. The protesters used passive tactics such as sit-ins and blockades and it became a 'hippies' and 'greenies' versus loggers protest that drew much media attention.



Source 5.37 Protesters at Terania Creek used peaceful, direct-action strategies such as blocking roads and standing in front of bulldozers.

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The Premier of New South Wales, Neville Wran, was sympathetic towards the conservationists and protesters and his wife, Jill, was openly supportive. In 1982 Wran introduced the New South Wales Rainforest Decision, which ended logging in native forest reservations within national parks. Terania Creek became part of the Nightcap National Park and in 1989 the area was World Heritage-listed.

The Rainforest Information Centre had its origins at the Terania Creek protests. Its founder, John Seed, was a protester at Terania Creek and a world leader of the deep ecology movement.

Woodchipping: south-eastern New South Wales, 1960s–ongoing

Native state forests cover more than 163 000 hectares and stretch from the Victoria–New South Wales border near the town of Eden to Merimbula further north. They were selectively logged for many years but large, less accessible areas were left undisturbed. The forests provide employment, recreation and timber resources.

In the mid-1960s a wood-chipping mill was set up at Eden by a jointly owned company, Harris Daishowa, to supply the growing pulp and paper industry. It was to use 'waste' from 'useless' parts of a felled tree. Approval was given by the New South Wales State Government and in December 1970 the first shipment of woodchips left for Japan. By 1989 the export quotas granted to Harris Daishowa had risen from 450 000 tonnes per annum to more than 850 000 tonnes, and the company was entirely Japanese-owned.

In October 1976 a Senate Standing Committee began its enquiries into the wood-chipping industry. It approved the granting of export licences for a further 12 months, but ruled that no more new licences would be issued until 'environmental problems … are satisfactorily resolved'. These problems included the loss of biodiversity due to the replacement of native trees by only one species, loss of topsoil and nutrients and the negative visual appearance of clear-felled forests, many of which were near the town of Eden and were visible from the main highway that runs through the area. Forest fires were also attributed to sparks escaping from piles of burning bark.

In 1988, approval was gained for the first of many roads to be built into wilderness areas to provide access for logging trucks. The South East Forest Alliance (SEFA) lodged an objection in September 1989, which was upheld in the Land and Environment Court until an environmental impact statement was completed. Conservationists were convinced that much of the research done on the environmental impact statement was inadequate. In October 1989 the New South Wales Forestry Commission recommended building the road. In December 1989 the Australian Conservation Foundation lost its case to stop wood-chipping in National Estate Forests in the area.

The largest forest blockade in the history of New South Wales took place when the government agreed to grant wood-chipping licences to Harris Daishowa for a further 15 years. Protesters of all ages constructed tripods that allowed them to sit high up in trees so they could not easily be removed. They also chained themselves to bulldozers and blocked logging roads. More than 1000 people were arrested. In April 1991 the North East Forest Alliance also used more radical methods such as burying themselves up to their necks in concrete pipes.

Loggers and logging companies campaigned to make the protestors responsible for loss of income. They argued that cessation of logging and wood-chipping would mean job losses. Indigenous people were employed within the forest industry and did not support the demonstration to save native forests from logging. However, as a result of the continued protests in the south-east, Premier Nick Greiner agreed to preserve more than 40 000 hectares of old-growth forest.

Woodchipping: East Gippsland, Victoria, 1970s–ongoing

In East Gippsland, disputes over the clearing of old-growth forest began during the mid 1970s. The Labor Government of John Cain opposed the exporting of woodchips, but later approved wood-chipping in forests that were already being logged. In 1985 the East Gippsland Coalition was set up by the Australian Conservation Foundation (ACF), the Conservation Council of Victoria, the Tasmanian Wilderness Society (TWS), the Native

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Forests Action Council and the National Parks Association. They presented a report that dealt not only with environmental concerns but also looked at the issue of threatened job losses in the timber industry. In 1986 the 'Keep Gippsland Green' rally attracted more than 6000 people and Bob Brown spoke, encouraging the supporters of forests to keep fighting.

The Chipstop Campaign against Woodchipping in South-east and East Gippsland Forests now claims that 90–95 per cent of the timber harvested in this region, by clear-felling, is used for woodchips. In early 2010, export earnings from woodchips in south-east New South Wales and East Gippsland were estimated at A$2 billion. Radiata pine has replaced many native species.

The jarrah forests of Western Australia

Woodchipping began in 1976 at Manjimup in south-western Western Australia. There had also been open-cut bauxite mining in the northern jarrah state forests since the early 1960s. The companies involved were the Aluminium Company of America (ALCOA) and a joint venture miner, Worsley Alumina Pty Ltd. The 'mined-out' areas had been rehabilitated and non-native species planted. The campaign to save the forests was conducted by both the South-west Forests' Defence Foundation and the Campaign to Save Native Forests.

In 1981 the Conservation Council of Western Australia and the Australian Conservation Foundation lodged a legal challenge against the American bauxite miners Reynolds and ALCOA to stop them mining in the jarrah forests, but it was unsuccessful. In 2010 a new company, Bauxite Resources Limited (BRL), announced plans to strip-mine thousands of hectares in the south-west. In the karri forests further south, conservation groups did persuade the State Government to expand the national park system, but timber uses were given a higher value than tourism or conservation.

The Daintree Rainforest, Queensland 1983–88

The dispute in the Daintree Rainforest, a tropical rainforest in north-east Queensland, began in July 1983 over the planned construction of a road to link Cape Tribulation in the heart of the Daintree Rainforest to the isolated Aboriginal settlement at Bloomfield River. To many locals it was a sign of progress, but environmentalists viewed it as an act of vandalism.



Source 5.38 The mouth of the Daintree River. The river runs through the Daintree Rainforest.

Local conservationists began their blockade of the construction site on 30 November 1983. It lasted until 15 December when the onset of the wet season halted work. During the wet season, the inexperienced campaigners sought support and advice from interstate and worked on publicising, lobbying and fundraising.

In 1984 the Rainforest Conservation Society, which had been formed as a result of the Terania Creek campaign, commissioned a report aimed at gaining World Heritage listing for an area they called the Wet Tropics. The report recognised the area as having such beauty and significance that it should be saved for all people.

When construction on the road resumed, more radical protests began, with protestors forming a human barricade and burying themselves in the ground up to their necks. The police and construction workers also had to try to remove protesters who had climbed high into the treetops to install themselves on platforms.

As direct-action and expert opinion had failed to stop the road, the conservationists turned to the

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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, supply three points to support the issues (pros) and three points to oppose the issues (cons) of uranium mining and clearing of native forests.

	Uranium mining	Clearing of native forests
Arguments for (pros)		
Arguments against (cons)		

Federal Government. The government went into the federal election (and won) with the policy of obtaining a World Heritage listing for the site, and in 1988 the Cape Tribulation National Park (Wet Tropics) was given World Heritage status. The Premier of Queensland, Joh Bjelke-Petersen, launched a legal challenge against the listing, which failed.

The road to Cape Tribulation, which began the protests, was completed and was sealed in 1994.

Tasmanian forest agreement, 2011

In August 2011, Prime Minister Julia Gillard and Tasmanian Premier Lara Giddings signed a further agreement aimed at assisting forestry workers affected by the restrictions on the logging of native forest in Tasmania and providing funds to protect new areas of forest deemed to be of high conservation value.

Sand mining on Fraser Island, Queensland, 1971–76

The campaign to stop mining of heavy minerals on Fraser Island, off the coast of southern Queensland, began in January 1971. In 1966, sand-mining leases had been granted, covering 8665 hectares of Fraser Island. There was no organised conservation movement and local landowners were not informed or consulted.

In 1970, conservationist John Sinclair became aware of the damage done by miners. He formed the Fraser Island Defenders' Organisation (FIDO) to be the 'watchdog' of Fraser Island. FIDO's opposition to sand mining was based on the devastating impact it was having on the fragile environment. Sinclair lobbied politicians and invited them and the general public to come to Fraser Island and see its value for themselves. Fraser Island was declared a national park in 1998. In 1992, as a result of the recommendation of the Fitzgerald Commission, Fraser Island was listed as a World Heritage site. It was recognised as the greatest coastal sand mass in the world.

The 'Save the Franklin River' campaign, Tasmania, 1976–83

In the 1960s, Tasmania's Hydro-Electric Commission (HEC) developed plans to expand its hydro-electric generation in order to attract manufacturing to the state. It put forward two proposals: a dam on the Gordon River above the junction with the Olga (Gordon-above-Olga scheme) and the damming of the Franklin River (Gordon-below-Franklin dam).

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Source 5.39 This iconic image of Rock Island Bend on the Franklin River was taken by Tasmanian landscape photographer Peter Dombrovskis. It was used by the TWS to inspire protestors throughout the campaign.

In early 1962 the South West Committee was formed in response to these plans. In 1975 the Tasmanian Labor Government proposed an expanded park scheme (the South West Management Plan) to encompass rivers and forests in the region. In 1976 a number of conservationists, including Bob Brown and Paul Smith, as well as environmental campaigner Helen Gee, rafted the Franklin River. They were overwhelmed by its beauty and were determined to stop the dams. They met with other concerned conservationists at Brown's home at Liffey and the Tasmanian Wilderness Society (TWS) was formed.

In October 1979 the HEC released plans to build the dam on the Franklin River. The Australian Conservation Foundation (ACF) appointed Peter Thompson to work with the TWS to organise a protest campaign to save the Franklin. They organised public meetings, pamphlets and bumper stickers with the slogan 'NO DAMS'; they also organised trips down the river for the public and politicians.

Labor Premier Doug Lowe was against the damming of the Franklin, but supported the construction of the dam on the Gordon River. The issue split his Cabinet. Lowe lost leadership in November 1981, but not before but he had nominated south-west Tasmania for World Heritage listing. Lowe had intended to hold a referendum on the dam issue, including a 'no dams' option. The new Labor Leader, Harry Holgate, proceeded with the referendum but removed the 'no dams' option. The TWS campaigned for people to write 'no dams' on their ballot paper: 45 per cent of voters did this, but 47 per cent favoured the Franklin River dam. The TWS then adopted the strategy that had produced results in both the Great Barrier Reef and Fraser Island environmental campaigns, and focused their attention on gaining

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Times gone by …

Oh Tasmania
The hardest heart could understand
just to feel your wilderness
your silence sings to me
… a thousand people arrested and bailed
has to be something worth fighting for
voices crying in the wilderness
saying this is something worth fighting for …

Source 5.40 'Let the Franklin Flow', a song by Shane Howard, 1983

An important aspect of the campaign against the damming of the Franklin River was to take politicians canoeing on the river so that they could see and feel the 'wilderness' that Shane Howard wrote about in the song in Source 5.40. Using your own words, analyse what you think Howard means by the lines:

'… a thousand people arrested and bailed
has to be something worth fighting for
voices crying in the wilderness
saying this is something worth fighting for …'

Discuss your findings with your class.

Federal Government support, which they did successfully.

The Liberals won the state election in 1982, and Liberal Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser offered the new Tasmanian Liberal Premier, Robin Gray, compensation if he chose not to build the dam. Gray authorised construction anyway. On 14 December 1982 south-west Tasmania was placed on the World Heritage list at the request of the Federal Government. On the same day, the TWS began its long blockade of the dam site.

Though the Federal Fraser Government had offered Tasmania compensation if the dam was not built, it did nothing further to prevent the construction of the dam. This contributed to their losing the federal election in 1983.

The new Hawke Labor Government promised to stop construction of the dam. However, the Tasmanian Government continued to support it. The dispute went to the High Court of Australia on 31 May 1983 and on 1 July 1983 its decision was that the dam should not proceed. Bob Brown was named Australian of the Year in 1983 for his efforts to save the Franklin River.

The Clean Up Australia movement, 1990–ongoing

The Clean Up Australia movement has its origins on 8 January 1989, when 40 000 Sydney residents collected 5000 tonnes of rubbish on 'Clean Up Sydney Harbour Day', organised by local man Ian Kiernan. The next year, a national and official 'Clean Up Australia Day' was organised.

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Three hundred thousand people participated and collected 15 000 tonnes of rubbish.

The United Nations Environment Program became interested in the movement and now more than 30 million people worldwide are involved. Clean Up Australia is a non-profit organisation that now coordinates a number of different environmental programs, including the well-known 'Clean Up Australia Day'. It has led to the campaign to promote reusable and biodegradable plastic shopping bags.

Ian Kiernan

Ian Kiernan was born in Sydney on 4 October 1940. After he finished school, he worked as a miner and travelled the world before starting his own business. In 1974 he sailed around the world in his yacht and, while he was berthed in Honolulu, Hawaii, he was impressed by a community-based clean-up campaign in the marina. In 1986 Ian sailed the beautiful, calm Sargasso Sea and was horrified by the amount of floating rubbish, including numerous plastic bags.

He returned to Sydney and began his own clean-up campaign, 'Clean Up Sydney Harbour Day'. In January 1994 Ian Kiernan was named Australian of the Year and in 1998 he was awarded the United Nations Sasakawa Environment Prize.



Source 5.41 Ian Kiernan, founder of the Clean Up Australia campaign

Activity **5.8**

To find out more about the efforts of Clean Up Australia, go to www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

1. List the campaigns coordinated by Clean Up Australia.
2. Find out if your own school or local community is involved in these campaigns.
3. Clean Up Australia is a 'grassroots environmental movement'. Explain what this means.
4. Why do you think it is important for people to be involved in ensuring the health of their own local environments?
5. **a** What is meant by the slogan 'Think Globally, Act Locally'?
   b Is this appropriate for the Clean Up Australia movement? Why or why not?

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Research **5.4**

1 Choose one of the campaigns in the previous section and work through the following points to gather information for a report on your chosen topic.
- Clearly identify your chosen research topic/case study.
- Supply a map showing the location of the area.
- Construct a timeline showing the major events.
- Explain the reasons why an environmental protest/campaign was undertaken.
- Identify the groups who led the protest/campaign, and their aims.
- Give examples of the protest methods used.
- Why do you believe that this campaign/protest was successful or unsuccessful?
- Supply visual images of the events and protests, with captions explaining them.
- How significant was your chosen campaign to Australia's environmental history?

You can use any form of multimedia to present your findings. Be creative!

2 Design your own campaign poster, bumper sticker, petition or advertisement to attract supporters to the cause you researched in question 1.

Significant environmental events

Oil spills

Torrey Canyon (1967)

The *Torrey Canyon*, an oil supertanker, ran aground on the Seven Stones Shoal off the coast of Cornwall, England, on 18 March 1967. It spilled 830 000 barrels (119 000 tonnes) of oil into the sea. It was the world's first commercial oil spill.

Exxon Valdez (1989)

The supertanker *Exxon Valdez* ran aground in Prince William Sound, one of Alaska's most important wildlife and fishing areas, on 24 March 1989. More than 35 000 tonnes of oil escaped. Due to the remote location, clean-up efforts were slow. It was estimated that at least 980 sea otters, 146 bald eagles and 33 100 other birds died. Scientists also believe that many more animals were affected but that their bodies were not found. It is believed that oil from the *Exxon Valdez* is still having a toxic effect on wildlife in the area, as it can remain harmful for 20 or more years.

The US Congress passed the *Oil Pollution Act* in 1990, prohibiting vessels carrying more than one million US gallons of oil from operating in Prince William Sound.

Deepwater Horizon (2010)

The Deepwater Horizon oil spill occurred in the Gulf of Mexico on 20 April 2010. It is now the largest accidental marine oil spill in the history of the petroleum industry. The cause of the spill was an explosion at Deepwater Horizon, a British Petroleum (BP) oil drilling platform.

An estimated 53 000 barrels of oil per day escaped before the leak was temporarily capped on 15 July 2010 and it took until 19 September 2010 before it was finally declared 'effectively dead' by engineers. Extensive damage to wildlife, fishing, the natural environment and tourism resulted.

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Activity **5.9**

Read the information about oil spills available at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10/weblinks. Use the information to complete these tasks.

1 Copy and complete these sentences.
- **a** The oil spilled from the *Exxon Valdez* would fill _____ classrooms.
- **b** The amount of oil spilled from the *Exxon Valdez* represents _____ per cent of the oil used in the United States each day.
- **c** Oil is used for _____.

2 Examine the list of causes of oil spills and copy and complete the table below.

Oil spill	Cause
Torrey Canyon	
Exxon Valdez	
Deepwater Horizon	

3 **a** Construct a diagram to show how one of the above oil spills affected the natural area and its wildlife. Include as much detail as possible.
- **b** Add to your diagram the methods used to try to control and reduce the effect of the spill.

4 **a** What is NOAA?
- **b** Who would organise the clean-up of an oil spill in Australian waters?
- **c** What legislation does Australia have to address the dangers of an oil spill off our coastline?

Nuclear accidents

The Three Mile Island meltdown, 1979

A core meltdown occurred at the Three Mile Island nuclear reactor in the US state of Pennsylvania on 28 March 1979. The meltdown occurred only 12 days after the release of the film *The China Syndrome*, which was based on a fictitious account of just such an accident; and a year after Australian paediatrician Dr Helen Caldicott's *Nuclear Madness: What you can do* was published. Dr Caldicott remains an important world figure in the anti-nuclear debate.

Dr Helen Caldicott

Helen Caldicott was born in 1938 in Melbourne and attended medical school in Adelaide. After graduating, she and her family moved to the



Source 5.42 Dr Helen Caldicott

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United States, where she worked at Harvard Medical Centre. Soon after returning to Australia, Dr Caldicott became angry at the testing of nuclear weapons at Mururoa Atoll. She wrote to local newspapers and spoke on radio and at public meetings about the dangers to human health of nuclear testing. For the next 10 years she campaigned to raise awareness of the dangers associated with the use of nuclear energy. She was the first President of Physicians for Social Responsibility and President of People for a Nuclear Free Australia.

Chernobyl, 1986

A nuclear accident took place at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant in Pripyat, in the then Soviet Union (now Ukraine), on 26 April 1986. A sudden power surge resulted in several explosions. Thirty-one people died in the explosions and resulting fires, more than 100 000 people in the immediate area were evacuated, and more than five million people were exposed to radiation. Winds carried the nuclear contaminants to other parts of the Soviet Union and also to neighbouring European countries. A report from the Lawrence Livermore National Science Laboratory, California, said that the Chernobyl nuclear accident released as much long-term radiation into the Earth's air, topsoil and water as the sum total of every nuclear test conducted and all the nuclear bombs exploded. The long-term effects of radiation exposure from the accident are still being felt today.

Australia has joined with other nations in conducting support programs for children affected by the Chernobyl explosion. Some 1300 'Children of Chernobyl' have visited Australia to rest and recover emotionally and physically from the ongoing devastating effects of this accident.

Fukushima Daiichi, 2011

The accident at the Fukushima nuclear power plant on 11 March 2011 was a result of the earthquake and tsunami in the Tohuku region of north-eastern Honshu, the largest island in Japan. The problems with equipment failure, meltdown of nuclear components and the release of radioactive materials escalated over the next few days. The accident was, at first, rated Level 4 on the International Nuclear Events Scale (INES), but was later raised to Level 5 and then to the maximum, Level 7, by Japan's nuclear safety agency on 11 April 2011.

Australia was one of several nations that sent experts to assist after the earthquake and tsunami.

Over-development of natural resources

Deforestation in Indonesia

Indonesia has one of the highest rates of tropical rainforest loss (deforestation) in the world. Forty per cent of the forests that existed in the 1950s have been cleared, with forest cover dropping from 162 million hectares to 89 million hectares in 50 years. That rate continues to accelerate with clearance rates of about one to two million hectares every year. The tropical lowland forests are the richest in timber resources and biodiversity, but they are also most at risk due to:

- uncontrolled granting of logging concessions, which is resulting in legal logging at unsustainable levels
- clearing of forest for roads, small farms, large palm oil plantations and settlements
- corruption; the forests are viewed as a source of revenue for political and personal gain
- expansion of Indonesia's pulp and paper industries and the conversion of native forest to plantations of fast-growing species to supply the mills
- illegal logging
- forest fires such as those that occurred between 1997 and 1998 and in 2006.

Since 1999 the Consultative Group on Indonesia (CGI), chaired by the World Bank, has worked to improve forest management practices and tied improvement to the provision of aid to the country. In 2010 Indonesia agreed to a two-year moratorium on new logging concessions in return for aid from Norway. Deforestation is also being monitored as part of the United Nations Collaborative Programme on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries (UN-REDD).

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Source 5.43 Rusting boats in the desert that was formerly the Aral Sea, Uzbekistan

Activity **5.10**

1. Go to www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks to see an amazing graphic showing the shrinking of the Aral Sea.
2. Watch the short video of *The World's 10 Worst Environmental Disasters* at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.
   - **a** What criteria may be used to refer to something as an 'environmental or ecological disaster'?
   - **b** What do all the environmental disasters shown in the video clip have in common?
   - **c** How might they have been prevented?

The Aral Sea

The Aral Sea is an inland saltwater sea located in the north-western part of Uzbekistan and southern Kazakhstan. It is fed by two rivers, the Amu Darya and Syr Darya, whose fresh water maintained the sea's optimal salt levels. In the early 1960s the Soviet Central Government's policy to make the country self-sufficient in cotton and rice meant that water was taken from the rivers that fed the Aral Sea. Over the next 20 years, this resulted in a severe drop in water level and rising salt levels in the Aral Sea.

Due to the drop in water level, the fishing town of Muynak, once located on the edge of the sea, is now a desert town more than 100 kilometres from the sea. The ecological and environmental effects have been disastrous: more than 20 of the known fish species are now extinct and people in the area are suffering economic, social and medical problems.

As the sea has lost water, the climate of the area has become more extreme. Drinking water is contaminated with pesticides that have been deposited into the Aral Sea. When the wind blows, it carries these toxic chemicals across the dry sea bed for hundreds, if not thousands, of kilometres.

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Responses to environmental threats since the 1960s

The US EPA and CERCLA

In 1970, US President Nixon called for the creation of the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) as a direct result of concerns of the public and conservationists about the growing threats presented by very rapid industrial development and increasing pollution. The agency's role was to conduct research and assist in combating pollution.

The *Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act* (CERCLA) was enacted by the US Congress on 11 December 1980. Under this law, chemical and petroleum industries had to pay a tax that would be put into a fund to provide federal authorities with the means to respond quickly in cases of accidental releases, or threatened releases, of hazardous substances that might endanger humans and/or the environment. CERCLA is commonly referred to as the 'Superfund'; US$1.6 billion was collected from the chemical and petroleum industries under CERCLA.

CERCLA came into being as a direct result of two well-publicised toxic waste scandals in the United States: Love Canal and the Valley of the Drums.

In 1976, local journalists discovered that the neighbourhood known as Love Canal, near Niagara Falls in New York State, had in the past been the site of a toxic waste dump used by Hooker Chemicals (later Occidental Petroleum Company). In 1953 the site had been sold for housing and construction activity combined with heavy rainfall and runoff released toxic chemicals into the environment. The publicity campaign by journalists and studies into the toxicity of the area resulted in the evacuation of more than 1000 Love Canal residents in the late 1970s, and an eventual clean-up funded by the newly established CERCLA. Follow-up studies indicated incidences of cancers and birth defects in the children of Love Canal residents.



Source 5.44 The neighbourhood of Love Canal, New York State. The clean-up of this toxic site cost approximately US$400 million and took 21 years to complete. The disaster led to the establishment of the CERCLA.

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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the services you think the EPA and CERCLA gave in regards to the Love Canal and Valley of the Drums disasters.

	Love Canal	Valley of the Drums
EPA		
CERCLA		

Eckhardt Beck, administrator of the EPA during the Love Canal investigations, was of the opinion that there may be 'hundreds of similar dump sites'.

The Valley of the Drums was a dump site in Bullitt County, Kentucky, that had been used as a collection point for drums of toxic waste since the 1960s. In 1966 the material stored in the drums caught fire and burned for a week, drawing a huge amount of negative publicity and local and international concern. However, there were no laws to stop this form of unregulated storage and it continued for another decade. In 1979 the EPA began a clean-up of the site, ultimately funded by the CERCLA.

The Stockholm Conference, 1972

From 5 to 16 June 1972, the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (UNCHE) was held in Stockholm, Sweden. It urged that environmental concerns be treated with a degree of urgency and encouraged international cooperation. The United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP) was established on 15 December 1973 to monitor and advise on matters of growth and development and their effects on the world's environment now and in the future. In a time of tensions and disagreements between nations, this meeting was hailed as an historic moment for the worldwide environmental movement.

The Brundtland Commission, 1987

In 1987 a group of world leaders met to discuss global environmental problems and try to formulate solutions. The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) published its report that same year. The Commission was named for its chairperson and Norway's first female prime minister, Gro Harlem Brundtland. In its report titled *Our Common Future*, the WCED formulated the most commonly used definition of sustainability: 'development which meets the needs of current generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs'.

Commission members stated that they believed sustainability could only be achieved when environmental, economic and social needs were balanced. While the WCED did establish some important principles for sustainable development, the challenge of how to put these into practice still remained.

Earth Summit, Rio, 1992, and Agenda 21

Five years after the Brundtland Commission published its findings, the UN called for a progress report. It organised the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development

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(UNCED). This came to be known as the Earth or Rio Summit. It was held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in June 1992. Some 30 000 people, including 100 world leaders, attended. A number of important agreements were made, including the Framework Convention on Climate Change, which tackled the problems of global warming and the enhanced greenhouse effect by asking for countries to cut their greenhouse emissions; the Convention on Biodiversity, which was set up to help preserve the world's plant and animal species; and Agenda 21. Agenda 21 is the global, national and local action plan aimed at slowing down such environmental issues as deforestation, reducing rubbish and involving people in making decisions to improve their own environments.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), 1994–current

The UNFCCC agreement was negotiated and developed between 1990 and 1992 as concern from the world's nations over global warming and its effects intensified. It was adopted in May 1992 at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, and came into force on 21 March 1994. There are more than 192 signatories. It is based on the '**precautionary principle**' and the concept of '**intergenerational equity**'.

precautionary principle a principle that requires nations to seek cost-effective measures to protect the environment from harm

intergenerational equity a principle that requires all parties to the UNFCCC to protect the climate system now and in the future according to their specific capacity to do so

The Kyoto Protocol, 1997

The Kyoto Protocol is an international agreement linked to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. Outlined on 11 December 1997 and entered into force in 2005, it sets targets for the reduction of harmful emissions that are contributing to global warming. The Kyoto Protocol calls for a commitment from signatories to achieve significant reductions in their emissions.

Australia ratified the Kyoto Protocol in 2007, agreeing to stabilise its emissions for the period 2008–12 to 108 per cent of its 1990 base level.

The Washington Declaration, 2007

On 16 February 2007, the **Group of Eight (G8)** industrialised nations, as well as Brazil, China, India, Mexico and South Africa, met informally in Washington DC. The meeting aimed to involve political leaders and industrialists in establishing broad principles relating to minimum acceptable standards for greenhouse gas emissions. A non-binding agreement was signed, setting targets for both developed and developing nations, and proposing a 'cap and trade' system. This is a market-based scheme that aims to control environmental pollution by requiring potential polluters to hold permits issued by a regulatory body that sets a cap or limit on the amount of, for example, greenhouse gases they may emit. If polluters can achieve emissions below their cap, they may trade with those industries that cannot meet their lower targets.

Group of Eight (G8) a group representing the world's most developed and industrialised nations; a forum (also called a summit) for the world leaders and industrialists to discuss economic issues

On 7 June 2007 leaders at the 33rd G8 Summit announced that the G8 nations would aim to halve their global emissions by 2050. Australia is not part of the G8, but it did commit to an emissions reduction when it ratified the Kyoto Protocol in 2007.

The Bali Climate Conference, 2007

Ten thousand participants attended the UNFCCC Climate Change Conference in 2007. They adopted the 'Bali Roadmap' or 'Bali Action Plan' strategy, which is aimed at a wide-ranging plan to better manage not only climate change but also the related issues of deforestation and improved

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Activity **5.11**

Go to www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks and click on the link to view a presentation about the Bali Roadmap. At the linked website, click on 'UNFCCC's Bali Roadmap: building long-term cooperative action to address climate change' under the 'Presentations' menu on the right side of the page.

1 Why do you think the UNFCCC Bali Conference was credited with breaking new ground in the way the world's nations approached the issue of global climate change?
2 Briefly outline the Bali Action Plan.

forest management and the development of appropriate technology for developing countries.

The Great Barrier Reef *Outlook Report*, 2009

In 1975 a key recommendation for the management of the Great Barrier Reef Marine Authority was that every five years the Federal Minister for Sustainability, Environment, Water, Population and Communities should table an *Outlook Report* in both Houses of Parliament. The report was intended to underpin the decision-making of the Great Barrier Reef Marine Authority, which considers environmental, social and economic factors affecting the reef, as well as management effectiveness, risk assessment and the long-term outlook for the region.

Rio+20, 2012

The Rio+20 United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development was held in Rio de Janeiro on 4–6 June 2012. It continued to focus on green economic growth and establishing and monitoring the institutional framework needed for the world's nations to ensure sustainable development.

Activity **5.12**

Read the overview of the *Great Barrier Reef Outlook Report 2009* at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks, and answer the following questions.

1 What is the aim of the *Outlook Report*?
2 Why do you think the report is 'independently reviewed'?
3 Does the report make recommendations on what should be done to solve any issues raised? If not, who would do this?
4 Discuss one 'key threat' to the Great Barrier Reef identified in the 2009 *Outlook Report*.
5 Why should Australians care about the state of the Great Barrier Reef?

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Research **5.5**

The UNFCCC has continued to work on developing more effective strategies to combat global warming.

1 Undertake internet research to find out what each of these initiatives is, and write a paragraph explaining each.
   - **a** Green Climate Fund
   - **b** Climate Technology Mechanism
   - **c** Climate Change Adaptation Framework

2 Which one of the initiatives in question 1 do you believe is most valuable in assisting the UNFCCC to address global climate change? Why?

3 Search for information about the 'Durban climate change conference Nov/Dec 2011' on the internet. What 'breakthrough' was achieved at this conference in terms of the establishment of timelines for the adoption of climate change policy?

Activity **5.13**

Visit the 'Conversation' website at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks. In the search box on the website, enter the phrase 'Australia's contribution matters: why we can't ignore our climate responsibilities'. Read the article and complete the tasks below.

1 What arguments does the article say are used by those Australians opposed to policies and strategies designed to address climate change? Can you add others from you own experience?

2 Xie Zenhau believes it is important for Australia to not only meet but even exceed its emission reduction target for 2050. Why is this?

3 Which of our 'western Pacific neighbours' does Garnaut say is watching our response to climate change?

4 What specific 'skills' do the United States, South-East and North-East Asia believe Australia brings to climate negotiations?

5 What is meant by 'pledge and review' in the Cancun Agreements?

6 Do you believe Professor Ross Garnaut is qualified to write on the issue of climate change in Australia? Why or why not?

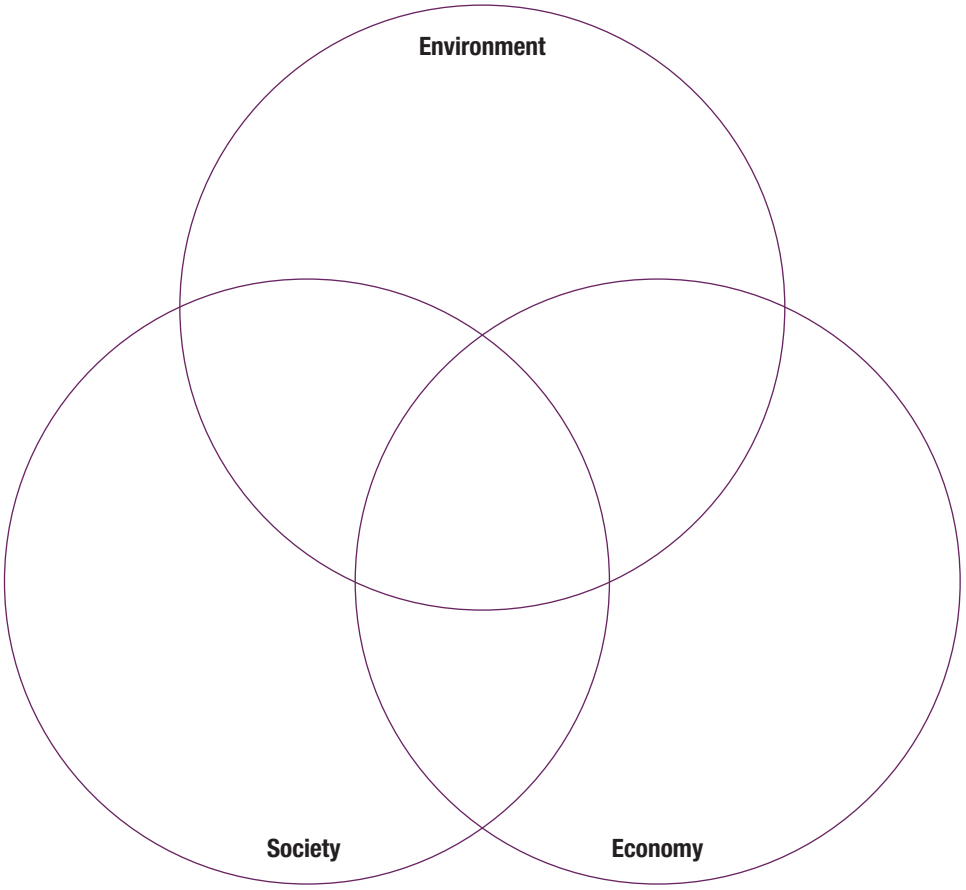
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Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, in the 'Environment' circle, add all the different elements within the Earth's natural systems. In the 'Society' circle, add all the parts of our human/built environment. In the 'Economy' circle, add all the things that generate wealth and jobs.

Each of these different aspects will be competing for limited resources, and some will cross over more than one category.

Highlight the areas where sustainability is achievable.



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Chapter summary

- During the nineteenth century interest in the natural environment was fostered by nature lovers.
- The world's first national parks were established to preserve natural areas.
- The Australian Constitution separates powers to manage natural areas between the Commonwealth and state governments.
- The publication of Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring* in 1962 gave birth to the modern environmental movement.
- Growing concerns about pollution, overpopulation and rapid economic growth worldwide led to the formation of environmental organisations at the local, national and international levels.
- In Australia, a number of important environmental protests have been organised to save particular places and natural areas such as coral reefs, rivers and forests.
- Environmental disasters such as oil spills, nuclear accidents and deforestation focused worldwide attention on the degradation of the Earth.
- United Nations conferences called on the world's nations to work together to solve environmental problems.
- The global issues of climate change and sustainable development are environmental challenges now and in the future.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1 Environmental disasters may result from:
- A human error
- B equipment failure
- C natural events such as storms
- D all of the above

2 An example of an environmental movement would be:
- A anti-uranium demonstrations
- B the Australian Conservation Society
- C Clean Up Australia Day activities
- D all of the above

3 The permaculture, deep ecology and re-earthing movements are all aimed at:
- A dealing with global warming
- B getting people to realise their connectedness to the Earth
- C providing jobs for hippies
- D growing more food

4 'Green bans' and 'black bans' were strategies used by:
- A the Australian Government
- B the forest protestors in Eden
- C trade unions in Australia
- D big business in Australia

5 The Stockholm Conference was held in:
- A Sweden in 1972
- B Brazil in 1992
- C Australia in 1971
- D Sweden in 1997

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Short answer

1 For what purpose(s) was Australia's first national park established?

2 Explain why Rachel Carson's book *Silent Spring* is acknowledged as giving rise to the modern environmental movement.

3 How did the 'Earthrise' image help the environmental movement worldwide?

4 Why did Australia lead the campaign to stop whaling in the Southern Ocean?

5 Why did uranium mining at Jabiluka in the Northern Territory cease?

Source analysis

In 2006, the Australian Government commissioned the Australian Bureau of Statistics to compile a paper for the 2006 Australian State of the Environment Committee. It found that Australians were less interested in environmental issues than they had been in the past.

> Australians are considerably less concerned about the environment than they have been in the past despite the fact that more people are undertaking environmental or 'green' activities … Concern for the environment has been in steady decline …

Source 5.45 Excerpt from *What do Australians Think About Protecting the Environment?*

Read Source 5.45 and then access the full report at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks.

What evidence was used in the report to support the conclusion that Australians – particularly young Australians – are less interested in environmental issues these days compared with the past?

Conduct your own survey to demonstrate whether people think their own attitudes to the environment have changed over time. Try to survey at least 12 people and, if possible, include at least four people of your age, four people of your parents' age and four people of your grandparents' age. Include such questions as, 'Are you more/less concerned about the environment now than you were five years ago? Why/why not?' Also include questions about whether your respondents take steps to help the environment in their daily lives. Do they recycle? Do they try to save water? How?

Extended response

The environmental movement in Australia has a long history. Concern for the environment will remain a key issue for our future.

Discuss these statements.

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6



Migration experiences (1945–present)

Source 6.1 Many post-war immigrants were displaced people left homeless amid the devastation of war-torn Europe. These people are Germans living in Eastern European countries that had been invaded by Germany. They are awaiting transport to refugee camps in Berlin.

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Before you start

Main focus

Australia has become one of the most multicultural countries in the world, with 250 ethnicities represented among its people and more than 200 languages spoken, in addition to more than 100 Indigenous languages.

Why it's relevant today

Post-1945 migration to Australia has changed the social and cultural landscape of the nation.

Inquiry questions

- What was the White Australia Policy?
- Why and in what ways did migration patterns change after 1945?
- What did 'assimilation' mean?
- What impact did world events such as the Vietnam War have?
- What is 'multiculturalism'?
- What impact has multiculturalism had on Australia's relations with other countries?
- How has multiculturalism contributed to Australian identity today?

Key terms

- assimilation
- displaced people
- emigration
- multiculturalism
- sojourners
- chain migration
- immigration
- integration
- refugees
- White Australia Policy

Significant individuals

- Arthur Calwell
- Malcolm Fraser
- Paul Keating
- Pauline Hanson
- Al Grassby
- Bob Hawke
- John Howard

Let's begin

Migration has long shaped Australian identity. Until World War II, although small numbers of migrants came from other parts of the world, most came from the United Kingdom. After the war, migration patterns began to change as people, many of whom were refugees from war-torn Europe, flooded into Australia from many parts of Europe as well as the United Kingdom and Ireland. Migrants were expected to assimilate into Australian society. In 1973, the White Australia Policy, which restricted 'non-white' migration, was abolished and a new settlement policy – 'multiculturalism' – was introduced. The Vietnam War and subsequent conflicts in various parts of the world resulted in an increased number of refugees coming to Australia from a range of countries. Today, Australia is one of the most multicultural countries in the world.



Source 6.2 Danish migrants arriving in Port Melbourne, 1967 [NAA: A12111, 1/1967/4/30]



Source 6.3 Arthur Calwell welcoming British migrants, c. 1947



Source 6.4 Refugees aboard the MV *Tampa*



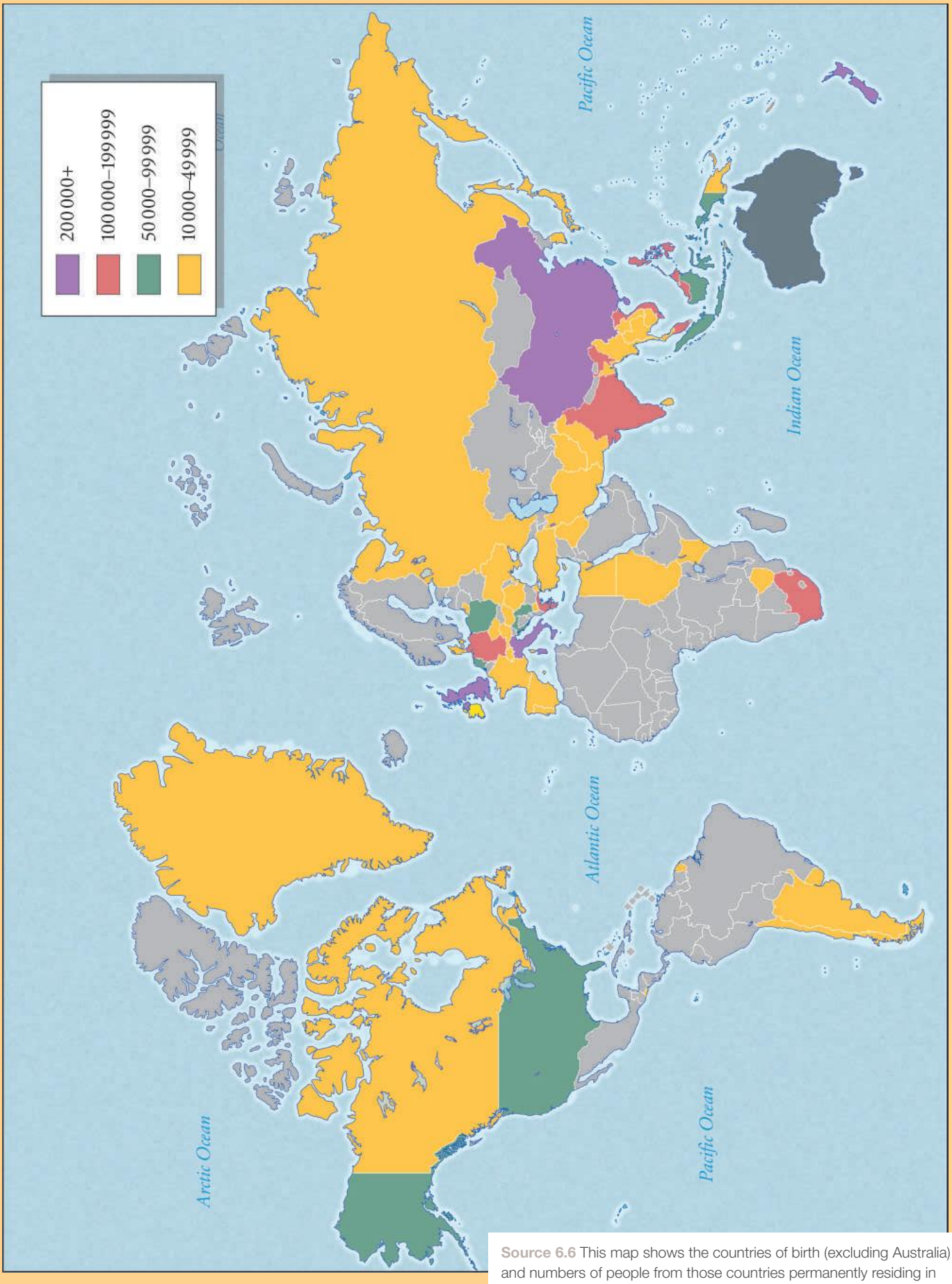
Source 6.5 Migrants attending an English class, Melbourne

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Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
1900	
Immigration Restriction Act (White Australia Policy) **1901**	**1914–18** World War I
	1939–45 World War II
1940	
Commonwealth Department of Immigration established **1945**	**1945** Millions of people in Europe displaced
Australia signs agreement with International Refugee Organisation **1947**	**1948** Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the UN
	1948–60 Malayan emergency
1950	
Migration agreements with many European countries **1950s**	**1950–53** Korean War
Colombo Plan brings Asian students to Australia **1950**	**1955–68** US Civil Rights Movement
Australia signs UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees **1954**	**1956** Soviets crush Hungarian Uprising
	1955–75 Vietnam War
1960	
	1960s Peace Movement
Skilled migration program extended to non-Europeans **1966**	**1961** Berlin Wall erected
	1968 Soviet Union invades Czechoslovakia Widespread student and worker protests
1970	
White Australia Policy formally abolished **1973** Australia withdraws from Vietnam War	**1973** Chilean coup
Racial Discrimination Act **1975**	**1975** Vietnam War ends
First Vietnamese refugees arrive by boat **1976**	**1975–79** Khmer Rouge rules in Cambodia
Community refugee scheme begins **1979**	**1975–90** Civil War in Lebanon
1980	
Blainey debate **1984**	**1983–2005** Civil War in Sudan
Office of Multicultural Affairs established **1987**	**1989** Berlin Wall demolished Chinese troops storm protesters in Beijing's Tiananmen Square
1990	
	1990–91 Gulf War
Processing Centre at Port Hedland established for unauthorised boat arrivals **1991**	**1991** Break-up of Soviet Union
	1992–95 Bosnian War
2000	
Amendments to Australia's *Migration Act* and Border Protection legislation **2001** Australia joins war in Afghanistan	**2001** 'War on terror' begins **2003** Second Gulf War begins with invasion of Iraq by 'coalition of the willing' (chiefly United States, Britain and Australia)
'Malaysia deal' struck down by High Court **2011**	

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Source 6.6 This map shows the countries of birth (excluding Australia) and numbers of people from those countries permanently residing in Australia at the time of the 2006 Census.

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Early migrations to Australia

Australia has been a migrant society ever since early European colonisation. Australia's immigration history has been characterised by peaks and troughs reflecting both economic and policy considerations.

Despite considerable migrant intake, for much of the twentieth century Australians regarded their nation as a 'white' place, made up of a single people, with a single language and a single culture. Migrants who were not white were seen as different.

Before World War I

As the British Empire extended into the Pacific in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, the frontier of white settlement expanded. New colonies were established, and Indigenous people were dispossessed. Britain was overpopulated, while the Australian colonies needed labour to develop. An assisted passage scheme, first established in 1830 to attract migrants from Britain to Australia, was the basis for similar schemes over the next 150 years.

The gold rushes in the eastern colonies in the mid-nineteenth century also attracted thousands of newcomers to Australia in search of their fortune. Migrants from England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland predominated, but people (mainly men) also arrived from Italy, Germany, France, Poland, Sweden, Norway, Spain, Mozambique, the United States, India and China.

The Chinese were the largest non-British group on the goldfields. They were seen as a threat to the Australian (British) way of life because they were culturally different. Fear of the Chinese resulted in the introduction of legislation to regulate their arrival in most Australian colonies.

When the Australian colonies federated in 1901 to become a single nation, one of the first acts that the new parliament passed was designed to regulate and control migration. The *Immigration Restriction Act (1901)* was the basis of the 'White Australia Policy', designed to prevent feared 'Asian hordes' from coming into Australia.

Migrants were still wanted, but it was believed that they should be primarily British, and that non-Europeans should not be accepted into Australia. In 1911, a decade after Federation when the total population of the nation was only 3 774 000, the birthplace of people living in Australia reflected this view. The vast majority were born in Australia: 18 per cent were born in Britain; only 2 per cent were born in another European country (predominantly Germany, Italy, Sweden and Norway); and only 1.5 per cent were born in an Asian or Pacific nation.

To encourage continued migration from Britain, in 1912 the Australian state premiers agreed to provide half the minimum cost of a passage to Australia – £6 for an adult – as the standard maximum assistance to British migrants. One year later, the Commonwealth Government started an advertising campaign in Britain, using the cinema, the press, lectures and posters, to attract

HISTORICAL FACT

The term 'emigrate' means to leave one country or region and settle in another. Emigration refers to the act of *leaving*. We can remember this by thinking of the E as standing for *Exit*. The term 'immigrate' means to come into and settle in another country from somewhere else. Immigration refers to the act of *entering*. We can remember this by thinking of the I as standing for *Into*.

These days, in Australia, we often use the term 'migrant' to refer to all immigrants, and 'migration' to refer to the movement of people between countries of settlement, whether exiting or entering.

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Activity **6.1**

Find out where your parents and grandparents were born.

1 Did they or any of your ancestors come to Australia from another country?

If yes:

2 When did they come?

3 Does your family know the reason for their migration to Australia?

4 How did they get here?

5 Where did they live when they first arrived?

migrants. Migration boomed until interrupted by the outbreak of war in 1914, and then virtually ceased until shipping resumed in 1919.

World War I strengthened British imperial ties. It reinforced the ideas that Australia's population should be predominantly British, and that non-Europeans, or 'darker' Europeans, should be denied entry to Australia. Australia would continue to be a 'white nation'.

The inter-war years

After the war, Britain was overcrowded, and policies were developed to encourage the migration of its people to other parts of the British Empire. The British Government offered ex-servicemen free passage to any of its **dominions**, and church and community organisations were encouraged to sponsor migrants. Many British migrants preferred to travel the shorter distance across the Atlantic Ocean to North America rather than the vast distance to Australia.

dominions the colonies of the British Empire, which included Australia, New Zealand and Canada, among others

In order to entice migrants from Britain to take the long journey to Australia, new assisted passage schemes were established. During the 1920s, immigration agreements were developed between the British and Australian Governments, between Australia's State and Commonwealth Governments, and between government and non-government organisations.

A Joint Commonwealth and States Immigration Scheme in 1921, and Britain's *Empire Settlement Act (1922)*, which encouraged many thousands of Britons to migrate to Australia and other parts of the empire, were landmarks in the history of migration. As a result of these initiatives, Britain and Australia shared the costs of migrant passages, settlement schemes and associated public works. The Commonwealth selected and provided for the medical examination and transport of prospective

HISTORICAL FACT

Under the *Immigration Restriction Act (1901)*, chosen migrants had to complete a 50-word dictation test in any European language that officials chose. It was a way for officials to selectively discriminate against certain races. People who failed were refused entry or deported. The dictation test was administered 805 times in 1902–03, with 46 people passing; and 554 times in 1904–09, with only six people passing.

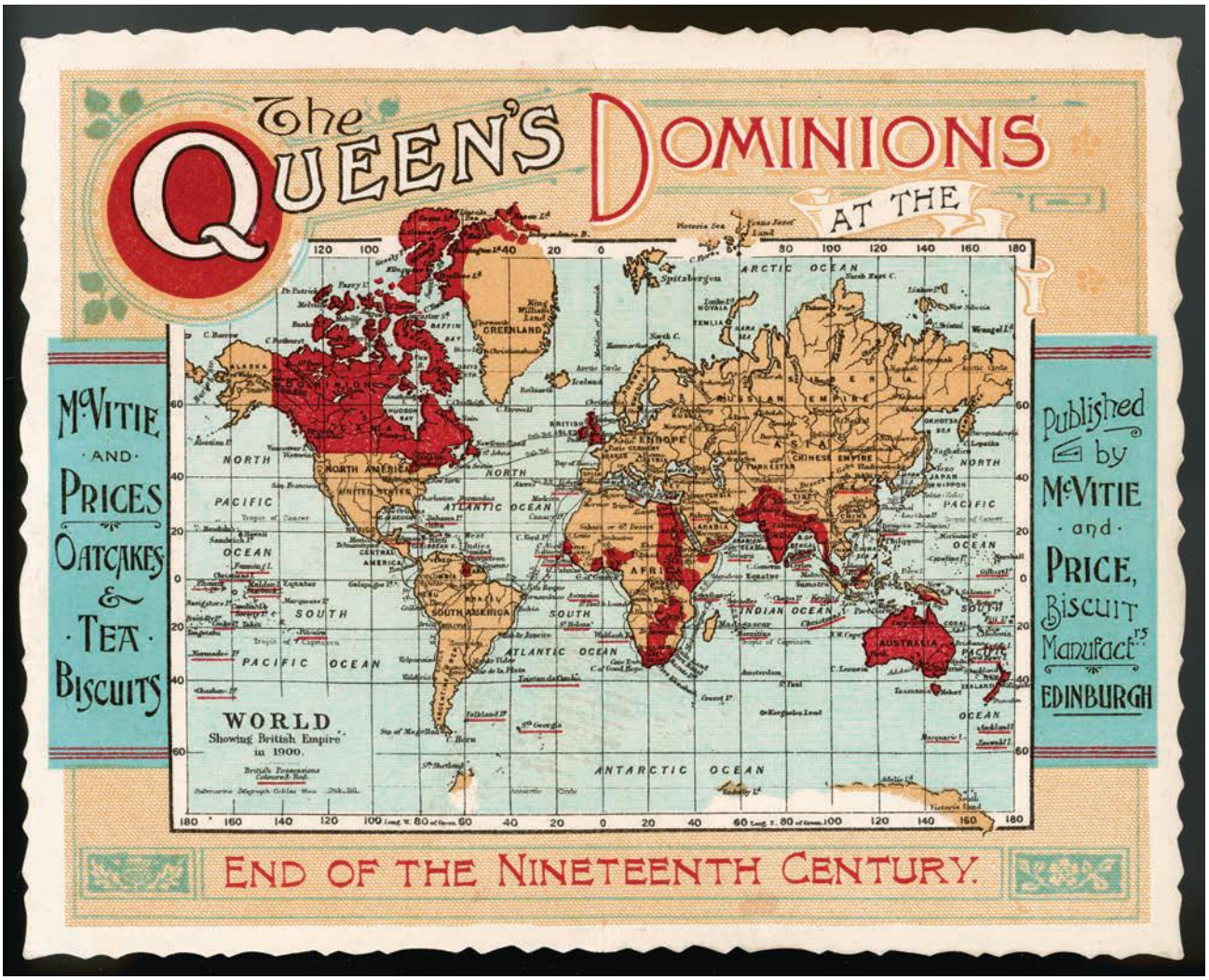
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migrants, while the states specified the numbers and categories of migrants that they needed, and arranged for settlement.

Various related schemes were set up in each state of Australia. Under a scheme set up by the Western Australian, Commonwealth and British Governments, for example, thousands of British migrants were brought in to develop farms on uncleared, heavily timbered land in the south-west of the state. It was known as the Group Settlement Scheme. Settlers were to work in groups of 20 to develop dairy farms and were to be paid for their work until they could take over the farm when it was operational.

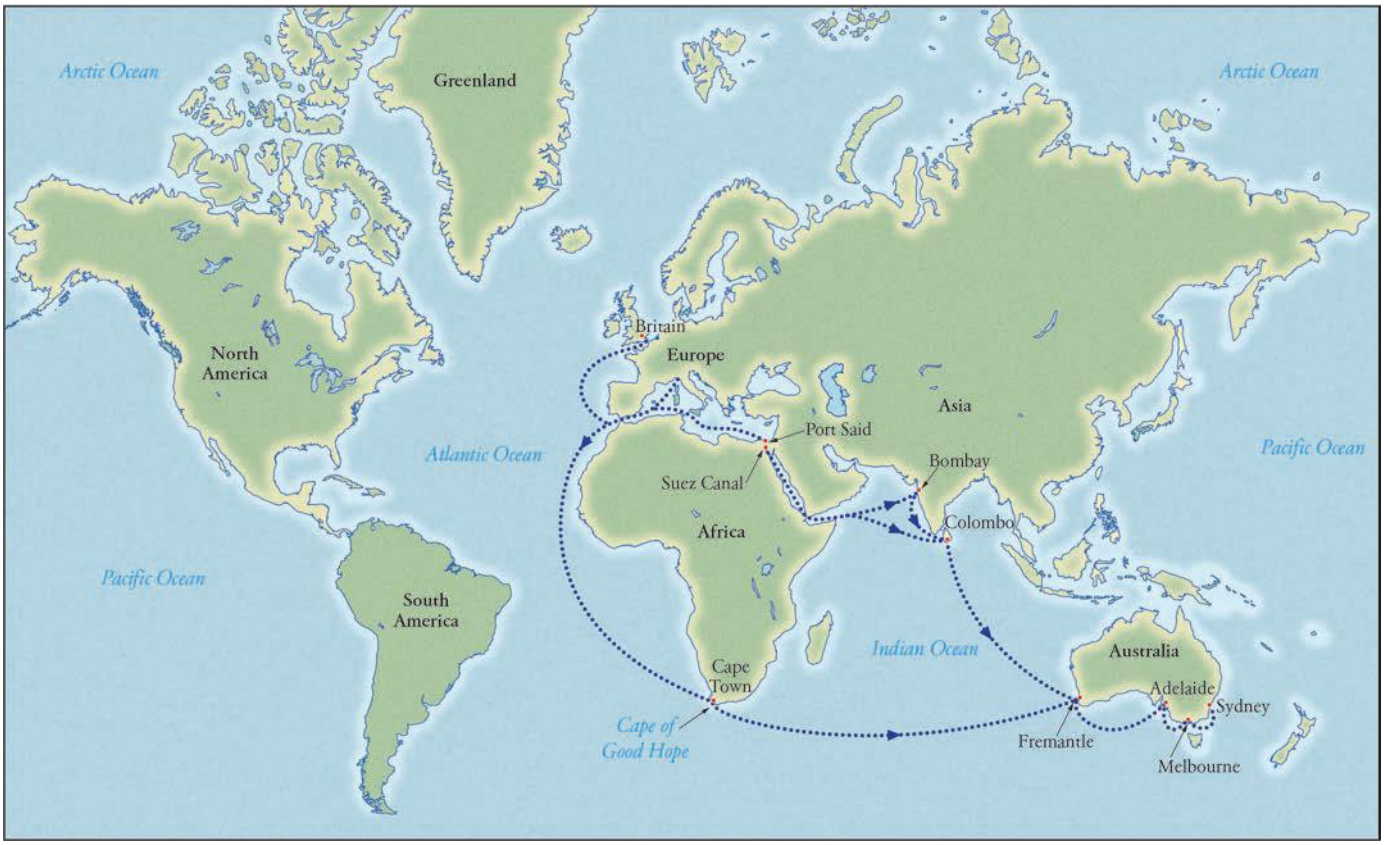
However, few of the migrants had farming experience. They were attracted by the promise of fertile land, fruit trees to establish orchards, and healthy herds of cattle, but the reality was poor soil, inferior stock, primitive conditions and back-breaking work. Many walked off their land; fewer than 2500 farms out of a proposed 6000 were ever developed. The scheme was ultimately abandoned.

Many British children came to Australia in the inter-war years as part of child migration schemes. Between 6500 and 10 000 children are thought to have been sent to Australia at this time. The major destinations were New South Wales and Western Australia. The Big Brother Movement aimed to bring country boys from England to work on farms in the Australian outback. Charitable organisations such as Barnardo's and Fairbridge,



Source 6.7 Maps such as this, showing the member countries of the British Empire in red, were common in Australian schools during the early twentieth century.

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Source 6.8 Shipping routes to Australia via the Suez Canal and the Cape of Good Hope. By the late nineteenth century, most ships took the shorter route through the Suez Canal, which had been opened in 1869 to connect the Mediterranean and the Red Seas.

as well as the Catholic Church, sent to Australia thousands of abandoned, illegitimate or orphaned children who had been placed in institutions in Britain. Most were less than 12 years of age. In some cases, they were sent to Australia without the knowledge of their parents. In other cases, parents in desperate poverty believed that the emigration of one or two of their children would enable the rest of the family to survive.

During the Great Depression of the 1930s, government assistance to migrants stopped, except for a few special cases. Some child migrant schemes continued.

The net overseas migration to Australia (including those who arrived and those who left) between 1901 and the outbreak of World War II in 1939 was almost 600 000. More than 471 000 of those who had migrated to Australia had been assisted.

Activity **6.2**

1. Locate Britain, Australia and North America in the map in Source 6.8.
2. Identify the two shipping routes from Britain to Australia.
3. Why did many British people prefer to migrate to North America?

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Source 6.9 British migrants near the huts they built on a Group Settlement, Western Australia, 1924 [State Library of Western Australia, 005250D]



Source 6.10 A child migrant on board a ship bound for Melbourne [NAA: 12111, 1/1956/4/138]

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Waves of post-World War II migration

Refugees from Europe: displaced people

Millions of people in Europe were left homeless as a result of World War II and became **refugees**. During the war the Nazis had taken many people from Eastern and Central Europe and put them to work as forced labourers in German factories and farms. After the war, some of these people began the journey home to the east, though many were unwilling or unable to return. Other people were moving west: ethnic Germans who had been expelled from Eastern Europe; and others who feared the Soviet occupation of Eastern Europe.

refugee a person who, due to a well-founded fear of persecution, is outside their country of nationality and is unable or (due to such fear) unwilling to return to that country

The situation was confused. Displaced people (DPs) – some with children and/or elderly relatives to care for – were traumatised. They had experienced great hardship and had been in constant fear for their lives. Many were ill or malnourished and there were grave shortages of food. The refugee crisis was desperate. Allied troops from Britain, France and the United States



Source 6.11 A long line of refugees, some walking, some with their possessions loaded on horse-drawn carts, trekking through Danzig in Germany, winter 1945

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Source 6.12 Refugees from Pomerania, West and East Prussia arrive in Berlin in 1945. Note the exhaustion or despair of the woman on the left and the nurses moving through the crowd.

assisted them, until responsibility was transferred to the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA). This organisation had to find temporary accommodation and countries that would accept these people. But even two years after the end of the war, approximately 850 000 people were still living in DP camps in Western Europe.

The Australian Government was under pressure from the **United Nations (UN)** to accept large numbers of DPs. In 1947, the govenment made an agreement with the International Refugee Organisation (IRO) to include DPs in its migration program. This was a major policy shift for a country whose immigration policies had always prioritised people of Anglo-Celtic heritage.

United Nations (UN) an international organisation founded in 1945 to work towards world peace and cooperation

Under the terms of the agreement, the IRO provided the means of shipping the displaced persons, while the Australian Government made a £10 contribution to each refugee's fare. Australia could also require that refugees be of a particular race, of an adequate standard of health and physical development, and be prepared to be placed in a job of the Commonwealth's choice for two years.

In these years, the 'White Australia Policy' was still in full force, and fear of non-white people was paramount. As a result, the government requested refugees from the Baltic region – people who were fair-skinned and fair-haired.

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Source 6.13 Arthur Calwell, Minister for Immigration, greets newly arrived displaced people who had travelled to Australia aboard the SS *Misr* in 1947. It was a voyage that had begun amid scenes of chaos, as hundreds of thousands of displaced people zigzagged across Europe, scrambling for a berth on any ship.

In 1947 Arthur Calwell, Minister for Immigration, toured Britain and Europe to inspect Australian migration offices, visit refugee camps, speed up selection procedures and help to organise shipping. He also helped to arrange passages for survivors of the **Holocaust**.

Holocaust a word derived from the Greek, meaning 'completely burnt'; refers to the extermination of Jews in Europe during World War II

Only two years earlier, in 1945, the UN had been founded. Australia's Dr H.V. Evatt was President of the General Assembly of the UN in 1948 and 1949. The only Australian ever to hold this post, he was outspoken and brilliant, and a champion of civil liberties and rights. He led the adoption and proclamation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. Australia had been one of only eight nations involved in drafting the declaration.

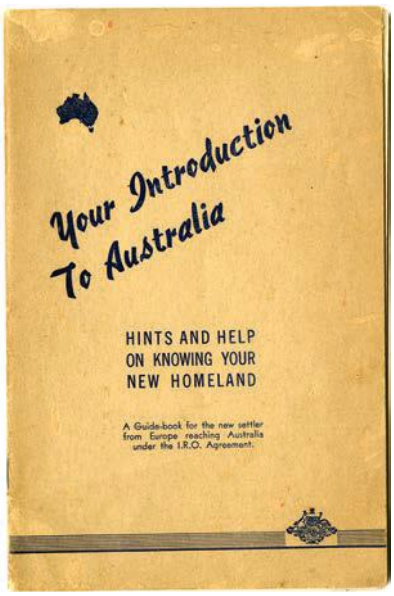


Source 6.14 The Australian Government requested European refugees from the Baltic region, such as fair-haired, blue-eyed Maira Kalnins (second from the left), shown here with her parents and little brother on board the *Fairsea* in 1949. They had fled from Latvia during the Soviet occupation. [NAA: A434, 1949/3/16408]

Bonegilla

The first displaced people from Europe who arrived in Australia were accommodated at

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Source 6.15 Books such as this were provided to refugees: *Your Introduction to Australia: Hints and Help on Knowing Your New Homeland (A guide book for the new settler from Europe reaching Australia under the IRO Agreement)*

the Bonegilla Migrant Reception and Training Centre in Victoria. Bonegilla accommodated or processed more than half of the more than 170 000 displaced people who came to Australia from war-torn Europe between 1947 and 1953. Most were dispossessed or homeless Poles, Yugoslavs, Latvians, Ukrainians, Hungarians, Lithuanians, Czechoslovaks, Estonians, Russians, Germans and Romanians.

Northam

Many displaced persons also went to Northam Reception and Training Centre (Northam Camp) in Western Australia, which had previously been used as an army camp. During the peak migration period, Northam was the third largest of the migrant-receiving facilities in Australia. It accommodated approximately 15 000 displaced persons in the immediate post-war years.

HISTORICAL FACT

Arthur Calwell, Minister for Immigration, coined the term 'New Australians' to describe displaced people from the Baltic States and Eastern Europe. They were often referred to derogatively as 'Balts' or 'Reffos'.



Activity **6.3**

1 Divide into two groups.
- Group 1: Write a letter from a newly arrived migrant to their family back home about their experience in migrating to Australia.
- Group 2: Write a report from an immigration official to his supervisor reporting on the difficulties of processing and accommodating migrants.

Groups should present a role-play of their letter to the class, and elect a spokesperson to answer questions.

2 Look up the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights online at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks. Australia was one of the original signatories to this declaration. What impact do you think Article 14 might have had on immigration policy?

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Times gone by ...

> We disembarked in Melbourne on 17 November 1948 and went by train to Bonegilla. We arrived at night. The air was crisp, the grass was tall and all the mosquitoes were out singing; we all had mosquito bites the next day. The Bonegilla huts were just open huts. When we heard the kookaburra we did not know what it was, then one man said, 'Look, even the birds cry here!'

Source 6.16 Refugee Dragoslava Williams describes her arrival at Bonegilla

Read Source 6.16 and complete the following tasks.

1 In a short paragraph, describe the differences between Bonegilla and the parts of Northern Europe that individuals like Dragoslava Willams would have come from.

2 Do you think Dragoslava Williams would have been glad to reach Bonegilla? Give reasons to justify your answer.



Source 6.17 Bonegilla Migrant Reception and Training Centre (near Wodonga in Victoria) in 1954, where many thousands of displaced persons stayed in basic accommodation until work was found for them

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Times gone by ...

One of the things we had to go through was a medical examination. We were put in line, one behind the other, stripped to the waist and a doctor looked at us. I could see him writing 'good for hard work'. I protested because I had been a student all my life and I had never done any physical work and I told him I was very slim for my height but he cut me short and said – I am the doctor, not you!

Source 6.18 Svetoslav Jonkov, Bulgarian architecture student, describing his arrival at Northam Camp

[A]bsolutely soul destroying … the barracks, the tin roofs, the mattresses, the grey blankets, the shower facilities, everything was open, the toilets were open … oh … there was no privacy … you weren't like a human being really … that was very hard to take and we wanted to get away away away.

Source 6.19 Greta, a German woman, describing Northam Camp

Today a new camp came into being at the former (Northam) army camp – a town peopled by Czechoslovakians, Ukrainians, Poles, Yugoslavs, Russians, Estonians, Lithuanians and Latvians, who will soon give a cosmopolitan atmosphere to Northam's shopping centre.

… From the station the new arrivals were conveyed to the camp in a convoy of buses which passed through the headquarters gate under a decorated archway, the word 'welcome' being picked out in green material and wattle blossom. Either side was flanked with Australian flags fluttering gently in the breeze of a perfect early spring day!

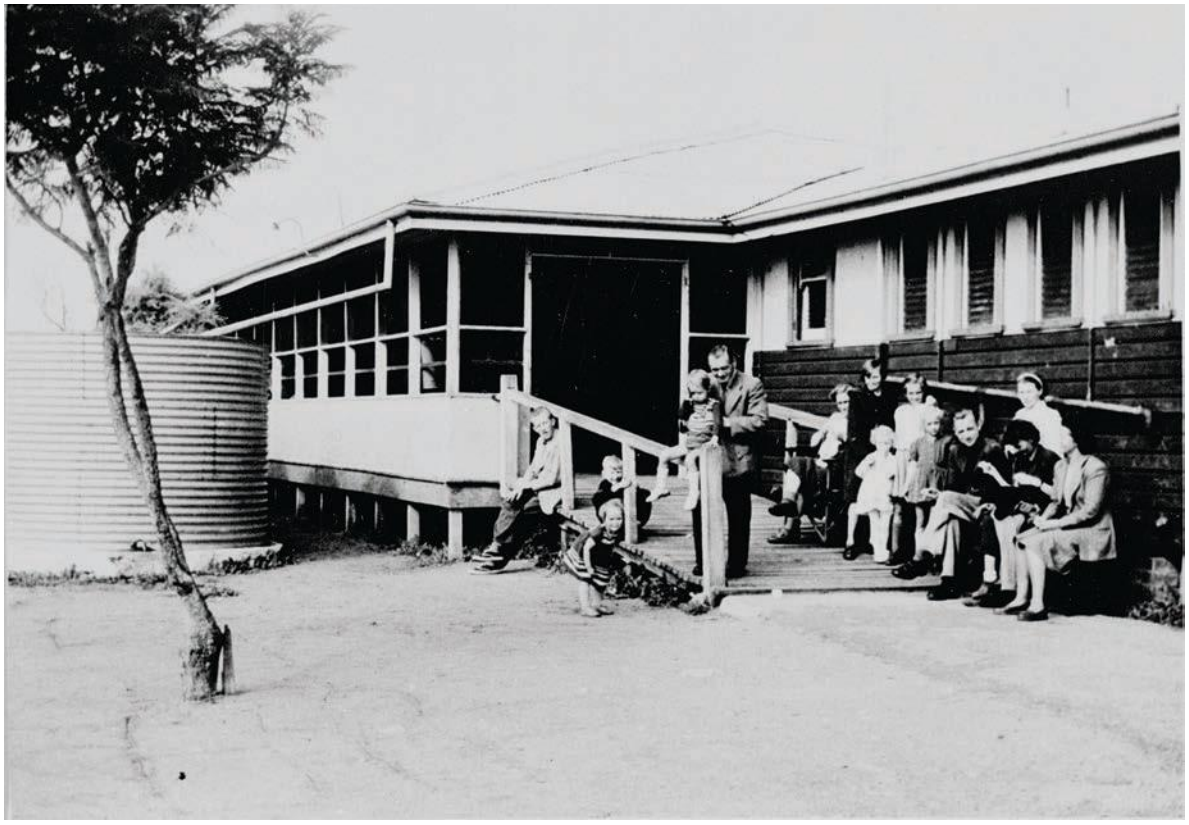
In six large dining rooms accommodating variously from 240 to 280 persons, continuous meals were served at attractively appointed tables.

All the beds in the many huts were made and identified. A few of the huts had been partitioned into rooms for larger family groups but families generally have been accommodated in huts that resemble American Pullman sleeping [rail] cars with blankets used as curtains between each groups [sic]. Other blocks of huts house single men, single women, and widows and mothers with children …

Source 6.20 Excerpt from an article in the *West Australian* newspaper, 25 August 1949

Compare and contrast the memories of people above who were housed at Northam Camp (Sources 6.18 and 6.19) with the newspaper article (Source 6.20).

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Source 6.21 Northam Camp, 1950; previously an army camp, it became the third largest migrant camp in Australia [State Library of Western Australia 061352PD]

HISTORICAL FACT

Some displaced persons were highly educated. But on arrival, because they could not pass the dictation test and their qualifications were not accepted, they had to take on unskilled or semi-skilled work. Engineers were employed as mechanics, nurses as domestic helpers, and lawyers as railway gangers.

In 1950 three of the DPs employed as orderlies at the hospital at the Northam Camp in Western Australia were actually fully qualified doctors. One had been a famous neurologist, another a paediatrician and the other had worked in public hospitals. A chef in the camp's kitchen was a medical specialist.

The needs of industry

After World War II it was feared that, without significant population growth, Australia would not have enough labour for the economic development necessary to achieve a higher standard of living. By 1947 the need for an expanded workforce was becoming critical. Large numbers of tradesmen and industrial workers were necessary to restore essential services to pre-war levels, and expand the growing **manufacturing** and construction industries.

manufacturing an industry based on the creation of products on a large scale, using machinery

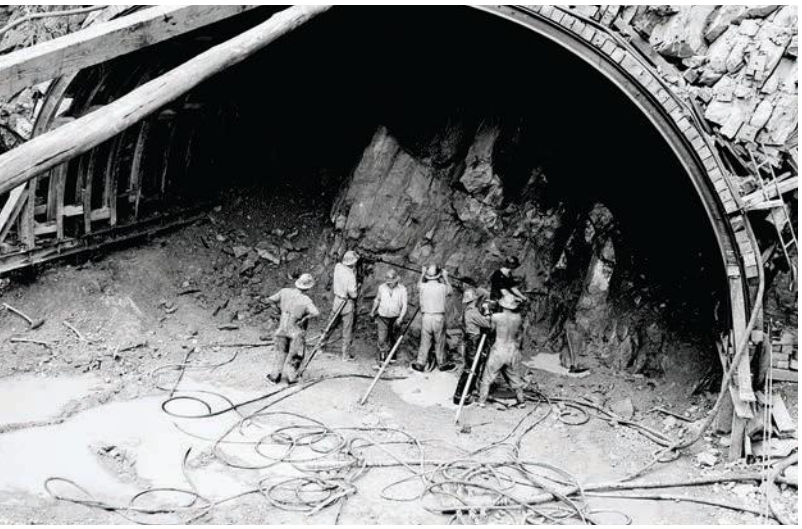
This was the era of big engineering projects and many migrants were needed for major projects such as the Snowy Mountains Hydro-electricity Scheme. The Scheme was the largest engineering project ever undertaken in Australia. It took 25 years to complete – from 1949 to 1974 – and provided power for the Australian

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Source 6.22 Displaced persons employed by the Snowy Mountains Hydro-electricity Scheme, in front of their demountable hut

Capital Territory, New South Wales and Victoria. Engineers and technicians were in short supply in Australia in 1949 and the Scheme employed people from 32 countries, many of whom were DPs from Europe. Engineer Sir William Hudson, who managed the project, encouraged a feeling of fellowship among the workers, saying: 'You aren't any longer Czechs or Germans, you are men of the Snowy'.



Source 6.23 Displaced persons working on the construction of the Eucumbene–Tumut tunnel, Snowy Mountains Hydro-electricity Scheme [NAA: A11016, 7924]

In 1947, the census showed that, for the first time, more Australians worked in manufacturing than in **primary production**. Migrant labour fuelled the expansion of manufacturing in the 1950s, especially the Australian automotive and iron and steel industries. It has been suggested that employers exploited mass immigration to drive down wages of those working in manufacturing in the early post-war decades, particularly in sectors that employed many unskilled migrant workers. In the 1950s the motor vehicle companies, for example, are said to have used the mass recruitment of Southern European labour to stop wage increases for workers.

primary production an industry based on the processing of natural resources for consumption; for example, farming or mining

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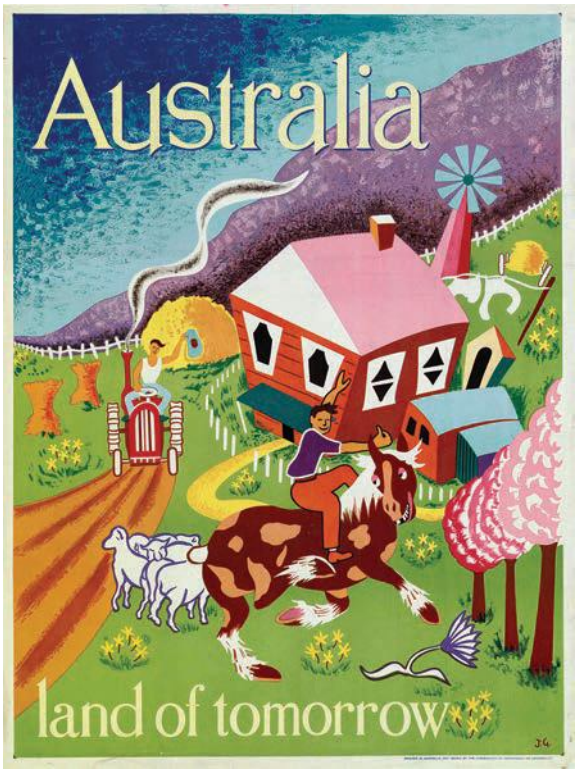
European migrants

Australia still needed to attract more migrants, but the displaced persons assisted passage scheme was coming to an end. So the government embarked on a campaign to attract migrants from Northern, Western and Southern Europe, as well as Britain.

Migrants came from all over Europe. As a result, the population mix in Australia changed. In 1933, 12 per cent of people in Australia had been born in the United Kingdom or Ireland. This fell to around 7.5 per cent in 1947 and remained at roughly that level over a number of censuses.

People from non-Anglo ethnicities, although still representing a very small percentage of the population, increased. The Australian Government had permitted ex-servicemen from Poland, the United States, the Netherlands, Norway, France, Belgium and Denmark to migrate soon after World War II, and had signed bilateral immigration agreements with Italy (1951); Greece, Austria and the Federal Republic of Germany (1952); Spain (1958); and Malta (1965). Apart from the British, the largest numbers of Australian residents by 1966 had been born in Italy, Germany, Greece and the Netherlands.

Immigration officials and publicity materials painted a glowing picture of life in Australia that

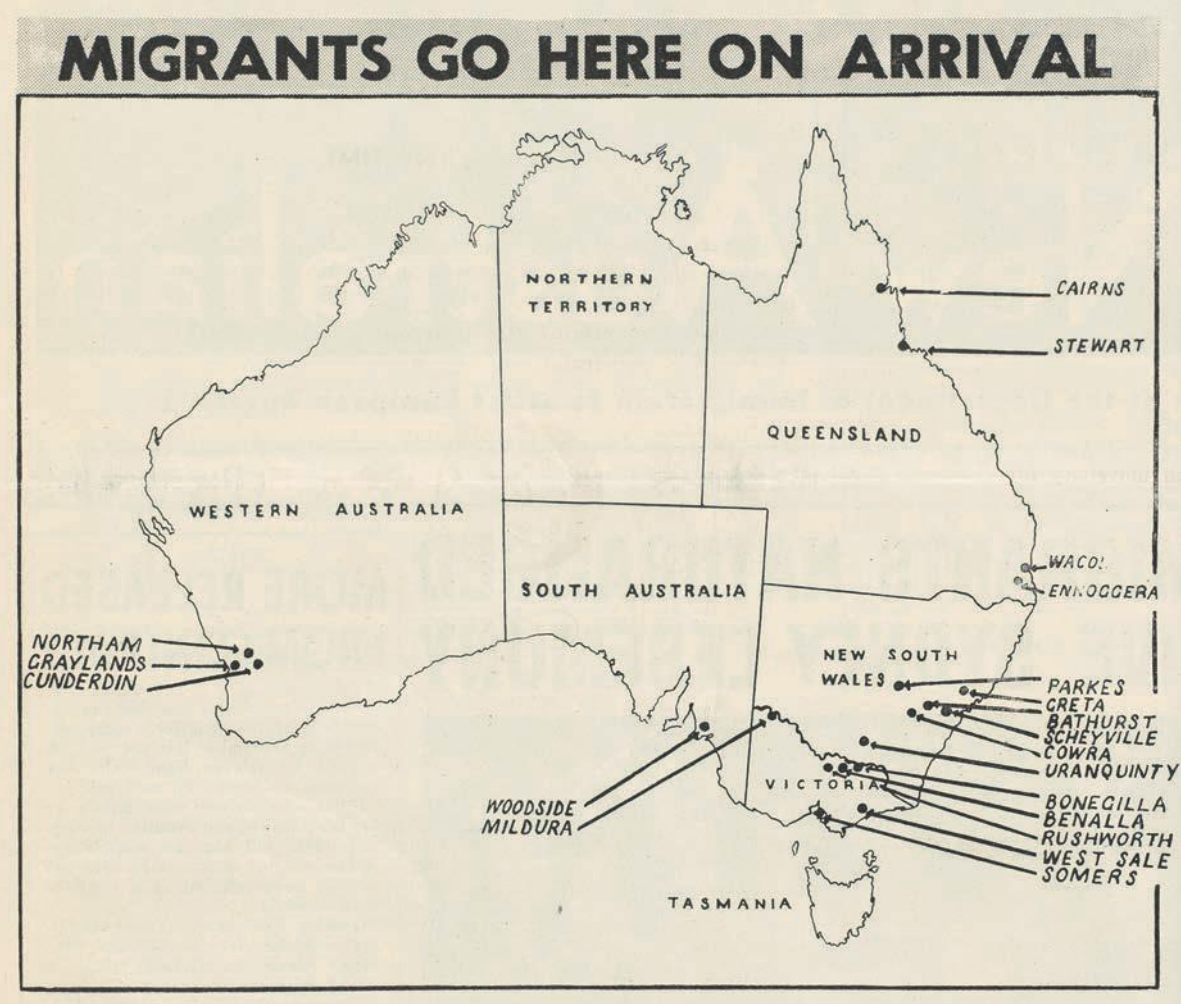


Source 6.25 An Australian Government poster that was displayed between 1949 and 1951 in reception rooms and dining halls at various migrant reception centres overseas and in Australia. The creator of this poster, Joe Greenberg, was told later by a Czech migrant that it had been displayed in all the migrant camps in Europe, and had influenced him to come to Australia.

Birthplace	1933	1966
England	486 831	681 526
Scotland	132 489	152 275
Wales	14 486	19 688
Ireland (Northern and Republic)	78 652	55 175
Total for United Kingdom and Ireland	**712 458**	**908 664**
Italy	26 756	267 325
Greece	8337	140 089
Germany	16 842	108 709
Netherlands	1274	99 549
Yugoslavia	3969	71 277
Poland	3239	61 641
Total for listed European countries	**60 417**	**748 590**

Source 6.24 Commonwealth census figures showing the birthplaces of the largest migrant groups in 1933 and 1966

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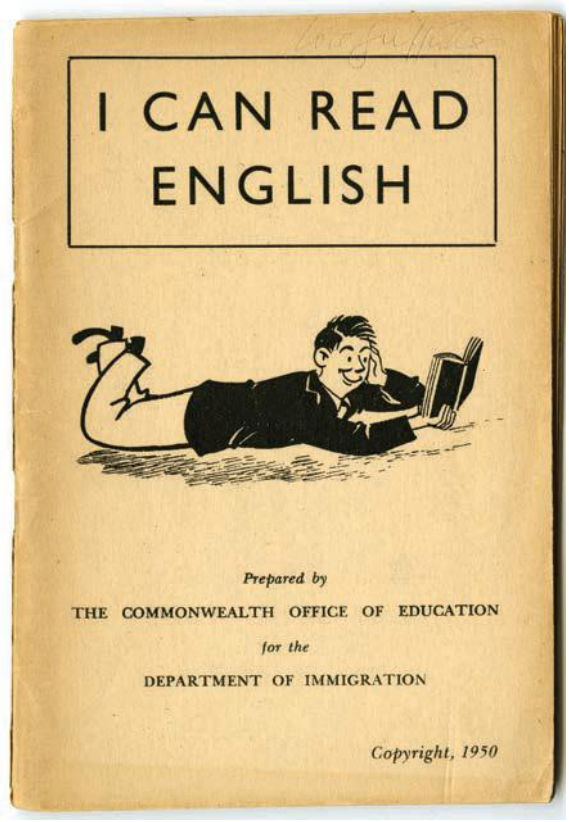


Source 6.26 This map shows the major migrant camps in Australia as it was originally published in *The New Australian*, 1949.



Source 6.27 An adult education class at Northam Camp, 1950; there was considerable emphasis on learning English in the migrant camps. [State Library of Western Australia, 005075D]

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Source 6.28 Books such as *I Can Read English* were published by the Commonwealth Office of Education to use in adult education classes. This book is from 1950.

exaggerated the opportunities for prospective immigrants.

After the long sea voyage, the European migrants were accommodated in a variety of housing. Most sites had been former military camps, which the government leased from the army. Some camps still housed DPs when later waves of migrants arrived.

Among the largest camps for the new wave of European migrants were Bonegilla Migrant Reception and Training Centre in Victoria and the Northam Reception and Training Centre in Western Australia, which had also been used as DP camps. Camp conditions had not changed since the first DPs had been accommodated there. Conditions were basic and life in the camp was regimented.

Italian migrants

Italians first came to Australia during the gold rushes of the 1850s. Most were single males who worked hard as miners, timber-fellers and sleeper-cutters, on railway construction gangs and as cane cutters in North Queensland. Often they were **sojourners**, sending money back home to Italy to support

sojourner a worker intending to stay in a place temporarily



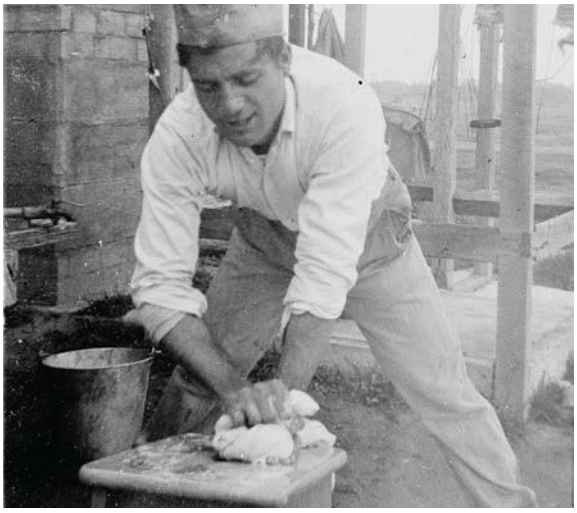
Source 6.29 Migrant Italian workers picking apricots on a farm in Werribee, Victoria, 1953

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their families. Despite being taunted as 'dagos' or 'dings', many also settled, bringing family members and brides out to join them and setting up small farms and market gardens. Sicilians came to dominate the fruit and vegetable trade in many Australian cities and large numbers worked in the fishing industry.

During World War II, Italians had been classified as 'enemy **aliens**' because Italy fought with Germany in the war. Italian men (and some women) living in Australia were forced into prisoner-of-war and internment camps. It was not until 1947 that Italians were permitted to migrate to Australia again. In 1951 the Australian and Italian Governments signed

alien someone who belongs to a foreign nation or country



Source 6.30 Italian migrant Marcello Ulgiati working at Northam Camp, 1953

Times gone by ...

> Italy after the war was destroyed and people fared badly. There wasn't much work so I thought of making a better life overseas, where there was more space … You did what you could. There was no set plan, one didn't think, 'I'll migrate to be an entrepreneur, a merchant or a farmer' … It was a matter of trying things out, seeing with your own eyes what was needed to get ahead … In those days Italians took all the worst jobs and the Australians got all the best jobs. They needed us. I heard a hundred times, 'Why don't you go home, you ding bastard?' I always answered in English, as I was beginning to get by then, saying, 'I'm going to stay here and prove what a ding can do'.

Source 6.31 Italian migrant Tony Fini explaining life after migration

Toni Fini migrated to Australia in 1951. He worked in labouring jobs, digging potatoes and laying concrete, until he obtained a job in the building industry as a plasterer and bricklayer. In 1956, he started his own business, Fini Homes. It became a large construction and property development company and he became a multi-millionaire. Not all Italian migrants fared so well, but his story is a post-war rags-to-riches success story.

Explain how migrants such as Tony Fini were able to create opportunity in Australia.

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HISTORICAL FACT

The lives of Italian migrants were sent up by John O'Grady in his best-selling novel *They're a Weird Mob* (1957), later made into a popular film, and its sequels *Cop This Lot* (1960), *Gone Gougin'* (1962), *Gone Troppo* (1968) and *Gone Fishin'* (1975). O'Grady wrote under the pseudonym 'Nino Culotta', the narrator of the book.

Nino is a journalist who migrates to Australia from Italy and gets a job as a brickie's labourer in Sydney. He is portrayed as a naive but lovable Italian migrant who has learnt English from a textbook and struggles to understand colloquial English, as spoken by workers of the 1950s and 1960s. He soon learns that a 'schooner' is not a sailing ship and a 'shout' is not a yell. His triumph is to be able to roar in a near perfect Aussie accent, 'Howyergoinmateorright?'

The book encouraged Australians to laugh at themselves, but at the expense of New Australians. It promoted **assimilation**; the ideal migrant merging and becoming indistinguishable from the host community.

assimilation to absorb and make alike; the process of cultural absorption



Source 6.32 A party in Brunswick, Melbourne, to celebrate migrant Maria Ruggeri's arrival from Italy and her proxy marriage to Ezio Ruggeri, 1957

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a bilateral immigration agreement, similar to agreements signed with other European nations. Victoria and New South Wales attracted the majority of the 360 000 Italians who migrated to Australia between 1947 and 1976. The Italian Government, struggling to cope with high **inflation** and unemployment during post-war reconstruction, saw migration as a way to ease social and economic discontent.

inflation a general rise in the level of prices and a fall in the purchasing value of money

The majority of Italian migrants who came to Australia in the post-war years were sponsored migrants from southern Italy. Racist notions implicit in the White Australia Policy meant the Southern Italians, who had darker skin than those from northern parts of Italy, were low on the list of 'acceptable' European migrants.

As in pre-war years, most Italian migrants were initially men. After a few years of hard work in Australia to set up a financial base, they would sponsor their wives, fiancées, mothers and other members of their immediate and extended families to come to Australia. This was known as 'chain migration'.

Large-scale emigration out of Italy reduced in the late 1960s as the Italian economy recovered and its industrial cities of the north boomed.

Greek migrants

There have been Greek migrants in Australia since the early nineteenth century – Greek Orthodox communities were established in Sydney and Melbourne by 1900. Their numbers grew rapidly during the inter-war years when ethnic cleansing occurred in the Balkans and Asia Minor, and the United States imposed strict immigration quotas. Many were sojourners; married or single poorly educated men who planned to stay only as long as it would take them to save enough money to go home and live comfortably in their home village. Like other Southern Europeans, all faced prejudice in a white society.



Source 6.33 Single Greek girls, who have migrated to Australia to work in domestic service, enjoying a milkshake in a Greek cafe [NAA: A12111, 1/1961/16/54]

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Source 6.34 Photos such as the ones above were published in booklets provided to migrants to show the opportunities that migration offered. In the top photo, a young Greek woman, Vassiliki Dalfou, is shown in traditional dress cooking at her home in Epiros, Greece, in 1961. The bottom photo shows her cooking happily on a modern stove in her workplace in a Sydney hospital a year later. [NAA: A12111, 62/4/43 and 62/4/44 (1413)]

Many of the Greeks who came to Australia are associated with the emergence of a cafe culture. Milk bars, cafes and fish and chip shops enabled generations of migrants from Greece to establish themselves in cities and towns all over Australia. A shopfront and some basic provisions were all that was needed to set up a business, as well as the will to work long, punishing hours.

After World War II, large numbers of Greeks were displaced as a result of enemy occupation and civil war, and in 1952 they too became eligible for assisted passages to Australia. Those sponsored by relatives had arrived in small but increasing numbers since the late 1940s. More than 160 000 Greeks migrated to Australia in the post-war years, mostly to Victoria, where many found work in factories and farms.

By 1966, 1.2 per cent of Australia's population was Greek, and they lived mostly in major cities. This was especially noticeable in Victoria, which had slightly more than 64 000 Greece-born people, almost 95 per cent of whom lived in Melbourne.

The occupational profile for Greek-born people changed dramatically in the last quarter of the twentieth century. At the 1971 census, the vast majority of Greeks in Victoria, for example, were tradesmen, factory workers and labourers – very small numbers held clerical, administration, technical or professional work. By 2001, although the majority were still blue-collar workers, the proportion of Greeks in professional, managerial, administrative and clerical occupations had increased considerably. This was not an unusual pattern among post-war migrants from Europe and was mirrored by the Italian-born population.

HISTORICAL FACT

For many years, Melbourne was said to be the fifth-largest Greek-populated city in the world, and today it is the largest Greek-populated city outside of Greece. The peak was in 1971 when nearly 80 000 Greece-born people lived in Melbourne.

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Source 6.35 Greek migrants on the tarmac after disembarking from a plane, c. 1962 [NAA: A12111, 1/1962/4/83]

German and Dutch migrants

German and Dutch migrations were the third- and fourth-largest migrant groups in Australia, respectively, at the 1966 census. In some ways they had an easier time on arrival in Australia than had Southern Europeans. Although they too met with a degree of prejudice, most Northern Europeans were fair-skinned and were able to merge more easily into white Australian society.

Despite Australia's involvement in two wars against Germany and the internment of Germans during both wars as 'enemy aliens', Germans were considered to be highly desirable migrants. There had been a long history of German migration to Australia and, until World War I, German Australians were the largest non-British ethnic group in Australia. After World War II, as a result of a 1952 agreement, over the next 20 years 150 000 migrants arrived from the Federal Republic of Germany, as well as about 30 000 Austrians and German-speaking Swiss. In 1966 there were nearly 109 000 German-born people living in Australia. However, the rising standard of living in their home countries led to a very high return rate and it is estimated that one-third returned to Europe.

By 1966 there were nearly 100 000 Netherlands-born people living in Australia. Many Dutch were eager to emigrate after World War II as the Nazi occupation had left many of their cities devastated. Mass unemployment, industrial stagnation and fear of overpopulation followed and the Dutch Government encouraged its people to move abroad. The massive floods of 1953 were a further blow to the country.

Nearly half a million people left the Netherlands after World War II, resettling throughout the world. Dutch people also migrated to Australia from Indonesia when it gained independence from the Netherlands in 1949.

From 1950 to 1963, the ship the SS *Johan van Oldenbarnevelt* was a frequent sight in Australian

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Source 6.36 German migrants Theresa and Gertraud Liewehr board the MS *Nelly* at Bremerhaven, Germany, bound for Australia, October 1952

waters. On its 44 voyages to Australia, the ship carried many Dutch and European migrants to our shores.

One of the most well-known Dutch migrants to Australia is Johnny Young (born John de Jong), Australian singer and host of the first run of television series *Young Talent Time* during the 1970s and 1980s. He was born in Rotterdam, the Netherlands, and migrated with his family as a boy, settling in Perth in the early 1950s.

Tradesmen from the Netherlands and Germany were highly sought after, as their training was considered equivalent to Australian training. Nearly 42 per cent of the Dutch adult males who migrated to Western Australia, for example, were skilled as carpenters, fitters, painters, electricians, bakers and toolmakers. However, before their skills could be recognised, they had to produce documentary evidence of their training and experience in Europe and pass a trade test. Often they had to sit the test a number of times before passing, because it was conducted in English and their English-language skills were regarded as inadequate.

Generally, the Dutch and German migrants came from a society with high standards of education, so that even unskilled workers could aspire to becoming self-employed in Australia. Many became taxi drivers, operated a milk round or became contract cleaners; they also ran small grocery shops; grew flowers, fruit or vegetables; or ran dairy cattle.



Source 6.37 Migrant ship SS *Johan van Oldenbarnevelt* arriving in Sydney, 1958 [NA: A12111, 1/1958/32/2]

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British migrants: Ten Pound Poms

The Australian Government's priority was always to attract migrants from Britain. Australia had been built by Britons, had been a loyal child of the British Empire, and in 1949 had become an integral member of the newly created British Commonwealth of Nations. The loyalty that most Australians felt toward the monarchy in the 1950s and 1960s was expressed by Prime Minister Robert Menzies when he famously declaimed, in the words of poet Thomas Ford, 'I did but see her passing by, and yet I love her till I die', during Queen Elizabeth II's 1963 tour of Australia.

In the immediate post-war years Minister for Immigration, Arthur Calwell, had declared that he hoped that for every 'foreign' migrant there would be 10 British migrants. Britain remained the source of about 50 per cent of migrants.

More than one million British migrants were assisted to come to Australia between 1945 and 1972. They were known as 'Ten Pound Poms' because adult migrants had to pay only £10 each to travel to Australia. Children travelled free. Those who were eligible for the scheme needed to be in good health and under the age of 45 years, and were required to stay in Australia for two years or refund their passage if they returned to Britain. People from other parts of the British Commonwealth were also eligible, although under the White Australia Policy people from mixed-race backgrounds found it very difficult to take advantage of the scheme. There were initially no skill restrictions, though mainly tradesmen and semi-skilled labourers were sought from Britain.

Those who arrived before 1951 had to be sponsored. Often they were sponsored by a government department, but they could also be sponsored by private Australian companies and by individuals, as long as those individuals were



Source 6.38 Migrants from the United Kingdom aboard the *New Australia*, 1954 [NAA: A12111, 1/1954/4/4]

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permanent Australian residents. As time went on, migrants were often sponsored by family members who had arrived in Australia some years earlier, thus following the pattern of chain migration that was common among most migrant groups.

The ships brought into service after World War II to carry migrants to Australia had often been used as troop ships. The *Fairsea* was one. Initially used to carry displaced persons to Australia between 1949 and 1951, the ship was refitted and chartered by the Australian Government in 1955 to transport assisted migrants from Britain to Australia. The experiences of the journey to Australia for a DP and a Ten Pound Pom could be very different.

> The *Fairsea* was huge, a converted troop ship with no cabins, just huge big open spaces with triple decked bunks, so cramped you couldn't sit up straight in them. Men were assigned to one section, women to the other. The toilet and shower facilities were one huge long one … and everywhere you went there was an awful reek of 'White King'. People threw up because of the smell not just the swell!
>
> **Source 6.39** An account from Frank Kriesl, a displaced person from Hungary, about his voyage on the *Fairsea* in 1951

Five years later, a Ten Pound Pom considered her journey on the Fairsea to be the 'best part of my early life' because of the 'lovely meals, dances, entertainment, deck games, swimming and many other pastimes'.

Immigration officials and publicity materials painted a glowing picture of life in Australia to prospective migrants, and exaggerated the opportunities available. Migrants who arrived between 1947 and 1951 had little idea of life in Australia and some expected to see kangaroos in the main streets or thought they could make a fortune mining gold. Britons who complained that employment and housing was not as expected were labelled 'whingeing Poms' by Australians.

Like the DPs before them, the Ten Pound Poms found that their accommodation was initially in migrant hostels, many of which had been army camps. Conditions varied. As time went on and improvements were made, they were generally better off than the DPs had been, though their accommodation was still very basic.



Source 6.40 A migrant family outside their hut at Graylands Migrant Hostel in Perth, 1953 [State Library of Western Australia, 061468PD]

HISTORICAL FACT

Prime Minister Julia Gillard was a Ten Pound Pom. She migrated with her family from Wales to South Australia in 1966 when she was four years old, after her parents were advised that her health would improve if they lived in a warmer climate.

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Times gone by ...

The Barrie family was part of the first large government-sponsored group of British tradesmen and their families to arrive in Western Australia.

> Archie (my husband) and I applied to Australia House in 1948. We were living in a small flat with our four children. Housing was very tight because of the bombing during the war … So we went to Australia House to explain it was our living conditions that made us want to migrate. They told us how much better off we would be in WA. The government would pay our fares and give my husband a job for two years. We would stay in Point Walter Camp for two days, then have a state flat for six months, and finally a state house. So we decided to come.

Source 6.41 An account from Beth Barrie, as told to Nonja Peters, 1995

1 Contrast the experience of the Barrie family with that of the earlier displaced people. Identify some points of difference.

2 Why did the Barries think they would be better off in Western Australia than in the United Kingdom?

Activity **6.4**

1 Summarise the differences in the ways that British and non-British immigrants were treated in the post-war years.

2 How did life differ for displaced persons, non-British migrants and British migrants?

3 Explain the Australian Government's main aim in encouraging immigration.

4 What is the difference between sojourning and chain migration?

HISTORICAL FACT

Singer Kylie Minogue's mother, Carol, was a Ten Pound Pom from Wales.



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Changing government policies

Populate or perish

During World War II, with the bombing of Darwin and north-west Australian towns, and the presence of Japanese submarines in Sydney Harbour, there was a very real fear of a Japanese invasion. The old fears of Asian hordes invading Australia were reinforced, which led to a new immigration policy.

In 1945, the Chifley Labor Government established the first Commonwealth Department of Immigration and appointed Australia's first Minister for Immigration, Arthur Calwell. Mass migration was the plan. According to Calwell, Australia would have to 'populate or perish'. The 'Ten Pound Pom' scheme was created as part of the 'populate or perish' policy to provide workers for Australia's post-war industrialisation.

From assimilation to integration

In the immediate post-war decades, migrants were expected to **assimilate** into Australian society; to shed their cultures and languages and blend into the host population as soon as possible.

assimilate when a minority culture merges into a dominate culture, with the minority being required to leave its own culture behind

The government's assimilation policies were based on an assumption that assimilation would not be difficult for new arrivals. This assumption was challenged on many levels. The assistance that the government gave to immigrants was limited to accommodation in migrant hostels and some language tuition. British migrants were treated as equal to Australians, but migrants who were not British subjects were designated as 'aliens', and this reduced their legal and political rights, their entry into particular jobs and their access to social security benefits, even though the number of non-British migrants was increasing. This policy continued until the mid-1960s.

It was not easy for migrants to advance in their new country. The Henderson Inquiry of

Times gone by ...

> We must populate or we will perish. We must fill this country or we will lose it. We need to protect ourselves against the yellow peril from the north. Our current population of 7391000 (about one person per square mile) leave[s] a land as vast as Australia under-protected.

Source 6.42 Excerpt from a speech by Arthur Calwell, after becoming Australia's first Minister for Immigration in 1947

1 Who made the speech in Source 6.42?
2 What position did he hold?
3 What was the 'yellow peril'?
4 What was the background to his views?
5 What was his goal?

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1966 showed that people for whom English was a second language tended to be isolated from the community and were often living in poverty. Another report in 1968 showed that they also suffered difficulties at school and in the workforce, that their qualifications were not recognised, and that they suffered prejudice in the housing market.

There was also concern about the high rate of departure, as some migrants were returning to their country of origin, particularly as economic conditions improved in Europe. In 1973 the government held an Inquiry into the Departure of Settlers. It concluded that if the departure rate was to be reduced, then better services had to be provided for immigrants.

This was the beginning of a move towards the goal of '**integration**' rather than 'assimilation'. Integration in this sense meant that people did not have to abandon their own culture and be absorbed by another, but it did suggest a merging of cultures where the non-dominant culture could exist, but exist discreetly. The Department of Immigration expanded its language teaching, and established a Child Migrant Education Program, a Translating and Interpreting Service and a Committee on Overseas Professional Qualifications.

integration where a people is able to maintain its own basic culture and have it respected, while living within and respecting the values of another culture

By this stage the severity of the White Australia Policy had further weakened. As early as 1958 the infamous requirement for prospective immigrants to be able to pass a dictation test in a European language, which had denied entry to many non-European applicants, was abolished by altering the *Migration Act*. Prime Minister Harold Holt extended the skilled migration program in 1966 to allow non-Europeans to apply, thus modifying the White Australia Policy. As well, the government established an immigration agreement with Turkey in 1967 to permit Turkish workers and their dependents to enter Australia. As a result of these changes, many Turkish, Lebanese, Sri Lankan, Filipino, Indian and other non-European workers migrated to Australia.

By the late 1960s, attitudes towards non-British immigrants were slowly beginning to change. British, Irish and New Zealanders still made up the largest groups of 'New Australians', but there was a slow intermingling of cultures and 'old Australians' were becoming accustomed to the millions of post-war immigrants that were now part of Australian society.

Despite this, many people still thought that immigrants should try harder to become assimilated into the 'Australian Way of Life'. Name-calling was still common and many Australians remained suspicious of newcomers. Public-opinion surveys, such as those undertaken in Melbourne in 1971, suggested that up to 90 per cent of Australians were opposed to multiculturalism.

Nevertheless, the assumption that everyone would and should assimilate into British–Australian culture began to dissolve. People gradually began to accept that migrants could speak their own languages, practise their own religions and follow the cultural practices of their homelands, but still be Australians.

Activity 6.5

1. Why would migrants want to return to their homelands?
2. In groups, make PowerPoint presentations detailing some of the contributions that migrants of this period have made to Australian society.

Abolition of the White Australia Policy

Immigration reform had started in the 1950s in various ways. The *Migration Act* had been amended in 1958 and in 1966 the Holt Coalition Government moved towards dismantling the White Australia Policy around the same time that Labor dropped its 'White Australia' **plank in the party platform**.

plank in the party platform an individual issue that a political party supports

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In the late 1960s and 1970s, other factors came into play to change the immigration policy as the level of social activism rose dramatically in most Western societies. The peace movement flourished, with protesters intent on achieving nuclear disarmament, and an end to the **conscription** of young men into the armed forces bound for an unwinnable war in Vietnam. 'Stop the war' became a catch-cry among protesters. A new desire for **equality** developed: the Women's Liberation Movement grew, gay rights were championed, and concern for minority groups became widespread. Concern for the environment also came to the fore. Groups that had previously gone unheard gained a voice; migrant groups among them.

conscription the process of mandatory participation in war, where men and women are forced to sign up to serve their country at war

equality the same treatment and opportunities available to all, regardless of race, gender or religion

In 1972, after 23 years of conservative rule, a new Federal Government under Labor Prime Minister Gough Whitlam championed equality. Changes to immigration policy included the removal of racial discrimination from immigration selection. This effectively abolished the White Australia Policy altogether.

Labor's Minister for Immigration, Al Grassby, was instrumental in shifting the idea of migrants as just a source of labour, to one of migrants as central to the building of Australia as a country. This change in immigration policy, however, did not mean an increase in migrant intake; in 1973, migrant intake was cut by 30 000 places.

As a result of the *Australian Citizenship Act 1973*, which ruled that Australians were no longer British subjects, the official advantages for British migrants ceased, and the number of years required for British and non-British migrants to reside in Australia before applying for citizenship was made the same. This changed the idea of nationality in Australia.

The conservative side of politics was concerned that these changes were eroding the core of Australian identity. Although the majority of migrants between 1971 and 1976 – at around 40 per cent of the total – were still Britons, newspapers reported dissatisfaction. Many people believed that Australia's traditional ties to Britain should be maintained and that a common culture and heritage helped migrants to integrate into Australian society more easily, and maintained social stability.

The *Racial Discrimination Act 1975*, introduced by the Whitlam Government, outlawed discrimination based on race and ethnic origin. Equal treatment for migrants of any ethnic origin became official policy.



Source 6.43 An anti-Vietnam War demonstration in Sydney, 1972

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Source 6.44 A Women's Liberation March, Sydney, 1970. Feminist and academic Germaine Greer is in the white dress, centre.

Times gone by ...

> British migrants have continued to be the cornerstone[;] the very real base of immigration to this country. The reason is not hard to ascertain; there is clear evidence that people from overseas who share with their new host country a common language, a common history, a common tradition and common institutions are very markedly advantaged in respect of integration.

Source 6.45 Excerpt of a speech made by Shadow Immigration Minister Phillip Lynch in parliament in 1973

Study Source 6.45 and complete the following questions.

1 What do you think of Lynch's argument?

2 Assess the degree to which Lynch's ideas would have been shaped by the then-dominant policy of integration.

3 Assess why Lynch thinks integration is the proper goal of immigration policy.

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Activity **6.6**

How and why did migration policies gradually change in the late 1960s and 1970s?

Multiculturalism

Alongside the abolishment of the White Australia Policy and removal of discrimination from the immigration process, the policy of **multiculturalism** was introduced. The most obvious reason for the shift to multiculturalism as a policy was the increasingly diverse immigration from Europe, and the failure of assimilation. The years of the Fraser Coalition Government, and the Hawke and Keating Labor Governments – between 1975 and 1996 – were marked by the expansion of multicultural programs, with strong efforts to promote multiculturalism as part of a national identity in which cultural diversity and tolerance were valued; and by a focus on strengthening relationships between ethnic communities and the Commonwealth and State Governments.

multiculturalism a policy that encourages migrant groups to embrace their ethnic culture, provided that they abide by Australian laws

The term 'multiculturalism' entered the Australian language on 11 August 1973, in a speech entitled 'A multicultural society for the future', delivered by Al Grassby, the Minister for Immigration in the Whitlam Labor Government. Australia was the second nation in the world (after Canada) to introduce a policy of multiculturalism.

The Grassby version of multiculturalism referred to 'a truly just society in which all components can enjoy freedom to make their own distinctive contribution to the family of the nation'. Ethnic groups were encouraged to maintain their cultural differences while working with all other Australians toward shared aims, in exchange for equal treatment. Both major political parties broadly agreed that the idea of a true multiculturalism was preferable to assimilation or integration. Multiculturalism was different from integration because it *outwardly* encouraged cultural diversity; several cultures sitting side by side rather than necessarily merging. As a result, task forces were set up to identify problems facing migrants, and community relations councils were proposed to deal directly with racism and unfair treatment.



Source 6.46 Prime Minister Gough Whitlam at the proclamation of the *Racial Discrimination Act 1975* [NAA: A6180, 4/11/75/23]

Multiculturalism as a policy was further developed in the late 1970s with the arrival of nearly 200 000 migrants from Asian nations, including nearly 56 000 refugees. This was a consequence of the abolition of the White Australia Policy, and the Fraser Coalition Government was the first to have to manage the results.

In 1977 a clear definition of multiculturalism was provided in the report *Australia as a Multicultural Society*, which identified three aspects of successful policy: social cohesion, cultural identity and equality. This was to remain the overriding description of multiculturalism for the next two decades. In this report, Jean Martin and Jerzy Zubrzycki concluded that: 'What we believe Australia should be working towards is

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HISTORICAL FACT

The term 'multiculturalism' is used in two ways. The first acknowledges the everyday reality of the diversity of cultures within Australia. The second refers to official policies on migrant settlement and integration, which support cultural diversity and help different cultural groups to maintain distinct identities while still living together within a single society.

not a oneness, but a unit; not a similarity, but a composite; not a melting pot but a voluntary bond of dissimilar people sharing a common political and institutional structure'.

The 1978 Review of Post Arrival Programs and Services (commonly referred to as the *Galbally Report*) recommended implementation of more migrant services. It emphasised the need for equality of opportunity, special services, self-help for migrants and cultural diversity. This was to be a cornerstone in directing the Fraser Government's implementation of services, with 57 recommendations costing $50 million to be carried out over three years. This included the transfer of funding from British migrant assistance to non-British migrants and ethnic community welfare organisations.

Multiculturalism gained a very public face in response to the *Galbally Report*. Most notable was the establishment of SBS (Special Broadcasting Service) radio (1975) and television (1980) by the Fraser Coalition Government. SBS explicitly aims 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'. The first program shown on SBS television was a documentary called *Who Are We?* By the mid-

Times gone by ...

> We are convinced that migrants have the right to maintain their cultural and racial identity and that it is certainly in the best interests of our nation that they should be encouraged and assisted to do so if they wish. Provided that ethnic identity is not stressed at the expense of society at large but is interwoven into the fabric of our nationhood by the process of multicultural interaction, then the community as a whole will benefit substantially.

Source 6.47 An extract from the *Galbally Report*, 1978

Analyse the text from the *Galbally Report*. Compare this with previous policies on ethnic diversity in Australia, such as the White Australia Policy.

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1980s, SBS radio was broadcasting in 47 languages and SBS television was broadcasting across Australia.

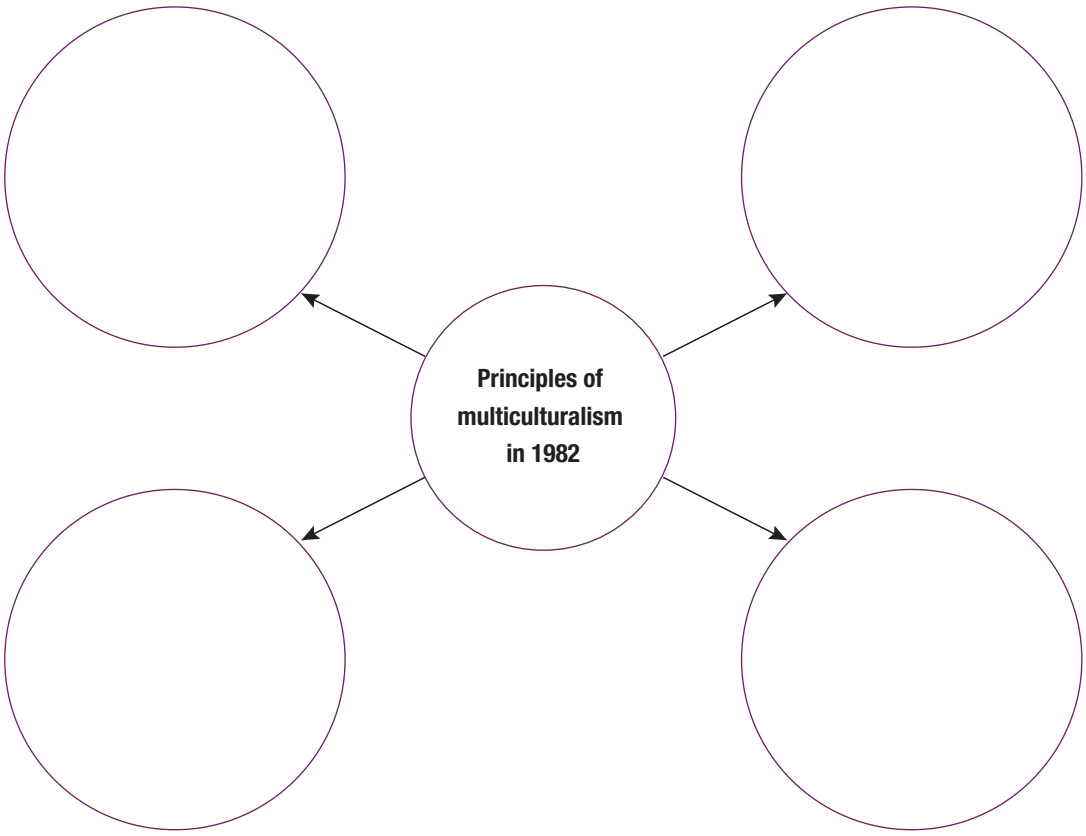
In the 1980s multicultural policies and institutions were consolidated. In 1982 the Australian Council on Population and Ethnic Affairs published a policy paper entitled *Multiculturalism for all Australians*. This paper recognised that there was still much community uncertainty about what multiculturalism meant for Australian society. It argued that multiculturalism meant more than providing special services to minority ethnic groups: it should mean that all Australians had a shared responsibility for living together with 'an awareness of cultural diversity'. This expanded the principles of multiculturalism established by the Ethnic Affairs Council in 1977.

At that point multiculturalism was based on four principles: social cohesion, cultural identity, equality of opportunity and access, and equal responsibility to commit to and participate in Australian society.

With the election of the Hawke Labor Government in 1983, there were a number of new initiatives in the area of multiculturalism. A Review of Migrant and Multicultural Programs and Services, chaired by James Jupp, led to the establishment of the Office of Multicultural Affairs in 1987 within the Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet, to act as a central coordinating agency for multicultural policy.

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the principles of multiculturalism in 1982.



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Activity 6.7

1 Multiculturalism is a complex term, the meaning of which has shifted over the years.
   a Analyse the differences in the meanings of 'multiculturalism'.
   b Which do you think has most relevance today?
2 Identify some of the key initiatives of the government's multicultural policy. Explain which one you think has had the greatest effect on Australian life.

Immigration: 1980s onwards

Australia had a high immigration intake in the late 1980s, but the number of immigrants from the United Kingdom, Ireland and New Zealand had been slowly falling since 1975. By the 1991 census, the number of people born overseas had increased to approximately 22 per cent of the population and approximately 58 per cent of the overseas-born people were from non-English speaking countries. Asian countries such as China, Vietnam and the Philippines were among the top 10 countries of birth for overseas-born people in Australia at the time.

By the 2001 census, the numbers of people in Australia born in the United Kingdom, Ireland or New Zealand had dropped to about 25 per cent of all foreign-born people. This was a major change from 1966, when the arrival of the Ten Pound Poms had swollen the percentage of people from the United Kingdom and Ireland among the overseas-born to more than 50 per cent.

Some people thought that these changes, coupled with the heightened visibility in the press of Indo-Chinese refugees, as well as Australia's commitment to multiculturalism, were a deliberate move by the government to change Australia.

Partly as a result of immigration after the Vietnam War, 27.6 per cent of all migrants entering Australia in 1982–83 were from Asia. Asia had become the largest source of migrants to Australia for the first time in more than a century. This figure was repeatedly used in arguments against Asian immigration, despite the fact that 30 per cent of immigrants in 1982–83 were also from the United Kingdom and Ireland, and a further 21.3 per cent were from continental Europe.

In 1984, Professor Geoffrey Blainey proposed that immigration from Asia should be limited. Although approximately 90 000 Indo-Chinese (South-East Asian) refugees were accepted into Australia between 1975 and 1984, they, together with other people in Australia who had been born in Asian countries, represented less than 2 per cent of the Australian population.

Blainey argued that the pace of Asian migration was too fast, that the numbers were too high, that it threatened social cohesion in Australia by reducing job opportunities for Australians, and that racial conflict and violence might follow unless there were major changes to immigration policy.

Many other historians and social scientists, as well as politicians and public figures, refuted Blainey's views, but they hit a chord among some Australians. The outrage that was sparked by Blainey's words kept his ideas in the media for some time and they led to a major public debate on immigration policy in the '80s.

The issue of Asian immigration became the subject of debate once again in the mid-1990s when Pauline Hanson was elected as an independent member of the Federal Parliament. She protested against Asian immigration and multiculturalism and, in the process, stirred up intense waves of both support and opposition.

But Australia in the 1990s was quite different from the Australia of a century before. Asian immigration since the 1970s had had a substantial

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Eligibility category	1990–91	1996–97	2003–04	2004–05
Family	53934	36490	29548	3182
Skill	48421	19697	51528	53133

Source 6.48 How the government's migration program has moved from encouraging family migration to skilled migration

effect on Australia and its influence was now part of the everyday Australian lifestyle. Hanson's arguments did not see a return to the White Australia Policy, although they did show that there were pockets of support for such ideas.

In the late 1990s under Prime Minister John Howard, there was a shift to a reaffirmation of 'Australian values', which emphasised unity above diversity. This idea was reflected in a citizenship test instituted in 2007 that required prospective citizens to demonstrate 'adequate knowledge of Australia', including knowledge of history and culture as well as rights and responsibilities.

In the 2000s, under the Labor Governments of Kevin Rudd and Julia Gillard, there was a revival of multiculturalism. The citizenship test was revised to make it less 'intimidating' and 'discriminatory' and more educational, and an Australian Multicultural Advisory Council was established.

However, in recent years there have also been concerns about **population sustainability**, with debate on the level of population that can be sustained on the Australian continent, especially at a time of climate change. Federal Minister Chris Bowen discussed this in a speech on 'The Population 2050' at the national summit in June 2010. Expressing pride in Australia's immigration history, he pointed out that in 1945 Australia was the first country in the world to establish a government agency dedicated wholly to immigration and that, since then, seven million people had migrated to Australia. He argued that because the numbers of Australians aged between 15 and 65 is projected to fall, and the fertility rate is expected to remain below replacement level, Australia's immigration programs 'will assist us to meet such challenges'.

population sustainability the capacity of a country to support the number of people living within it

Skilled migrants

Australia has welcomed migrants who have the skills to aid Australia's economic and industrial needs. Despite cutbacks to immigration programs during the Hawke and Keating Labor Governments (1983–96), Prime Minister Paul Keating believed Australia should look to new alliances and attitudes that would create an economic, strategic and cultural future in its Asia-Pacific neighbourhood.

Unlike the approach of Australian governments in the immediate post-war years that focused on bringing in labour for industry and ignoring the skills of non-English speaking displaced people and migrants, the focus in the late twentieth century was on how a skilled workforce from many countries could benefit the economy.

A change in the focus of migration patterns over the last few years has been from permanent settlement to temporary migration to Australia, particularly by business and skilled migrants. More recently, skilled migration has been directed toward the needs of specific regions of Australia where skill shortages are evident. However, many regional areas are still desperate for skilled workers and tradespeople, and there has been some community debate on how effective the regional migration schemes actually are.

Refugees, asylum seekers and illegal immigrants



'Asylum' means refuge or protection. An **asylum seeker** is an migrant who arrives in a foreign country seeking refuge. An asylum seeker has to be formally assessed by the country they have arrived in before he or she

asylum seeker a person who has fled their own country and applies to the government of another country for protection as a refugee

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Times gone by ...

> By the year 2000 we should be able to say that we have learned to live securely, in peace and mutual prosperity among our Asian and Pacific neighbours. We will not be cut off from our British and European cultures and traditions or from those economies. On the contrary, the more engaged we are economically and politically with the region around us, the more value and relevance we bring to those old relationships. Far from putting our identity at risk, our relationships with the region will energise it.

Source 6.49 An excerpt from a speech by Paul Keating at his election campaign launch, 14 February 1996

What was the significance of Paul Keating's speech about being 'part of Asia'?

can be judged to be a refugee. They will then be given a visa to allow them to remain legally in the host country for a certain period of time. Since 1991, asylum seekers in Australia have been held in detention centres while their claims to be refugees are processed. This **mandatory detention** of asylum seekers has attracted criticism from humanitarian groups and others.

mandatory detention an Australian Government policy whereby all people thought to have entered the country illegally are compulsorily detained

We briefly mentioned refugees earlier in this chapter. A refugee is a person who, 'owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, unwilling, to avail himself of the protection of that country'.

An illegal immigrant is someone who arrives unauthorised in a country (and is not an asylum seeker), or stays longer than their authorisation has allowed. Most of the estimated 60 000 illegal immigrants in Australia are *not* asylum seekers who arrive by boat hoping to be assessed as refugees. Most illegal immigrants actually arrive by air and overstay their visas. They are generally tourists, students or people who have been granted temporary-residence permits. They do not get much media attention and the government does not appear to consider them a serious threat.

Activity 6.8

1. Summarise the differences between asylum seekers, refugees and illegal immigrants.
2. Imagine that you are an asylum seeker and it is your first day in detention. Write a diary entry describing your experiences.

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HISTORICAL FACT

In 1979, Australia increased its annual refugee resettlement program to 14000 people. The following year a Special Humanitarian Program (SHP) for people in need (suffering human rights violations or serious discrimination, but not strictly refugees under the UN definition) was also introduced. This was open to people from places such as the Middle East, Africa and South America. In 1981–82 the number of refugees and those accepted under SHP was 21917. The number reduced to 17054 persons in 1982–83. This was around a quarter of the then overall immigration intake of around 70000 per year.

Impact of the Vietnam War on immigration and refugee intake

As well as immigrants, Australia has accepted refugees for many years in response to various international crises: displaced Europeans at the end of World War II, Hungarians after the Soviets crushed the Hungarian Revolt in 1956, Czechs after the Soviets suppressed the Prague Spring in 1968, Indochinese after the end of the Vietnam War in 1975, Chileans after the army-backed **revolution** that overthrew the Allende Government in 1973, and Polish after martial law was declared in Poland in 1981. Australia also signed the UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (developed in 1951, though Australia signed in 1954). However, there was no obligation to stop the entry of refugees being determined by race, so Europeans still tended to dominate this selection process in Australia.

revolution the overthrowing of a government in favour of a new system

The Vietnam War lasted for 20 years, from 1955 to 1975; Australia's involvement began in 1962. Australian troops had played an integral part as allies of the United States, supporting South Vietnam against the **communist** rebels from the north. The war cost the lives of 500 Australian soldiers and wounded 3000. But millions of Vietnamese had lost their lives and millions more were made refugees. Australia felt an obligation to assist these refugees, and a refugee program was established to process them.

communism the political practice of Marxism in which the state or government controls most of the nation's wealth and private property is restricted

The Australian Government's position in the late 1970s is summed up by a statement made by Immigration and Ethnic Affairs Minister Ian Mackellar in 1977. The four key principles of the policy, described by Mackellar, were:

- Australia fully recognises its humanitarian commitment and responsibility to admit refugees for resettlement.
- The decision to accept refugees must always remain with the government of Australia.
- Special assistance will often need to be provided for the movement of refugees in designated situations or for their resettlement in Australia.
- It may not be in the interest of some refugees to settle in Australia. Their interests may be better served by resettlement elsewhere.

There had been Vietnamese in Australia since the 1950s, when the Colombo Plan allowed thousands of Asian students to study at Australian universities. While a few of these students stayed, most returned to Vietnam after finishing their studies. During the Vietnam War, more than half the population was displaced and millions were killed; there were more than 800000 orphans in South Vietnam as a result of the war. Australian families adopted nearly 600 orphans between 1972 and 1975.

The Vietnam-born population in Australia grew rapidly, from less than 2500 at the 1976 census to around 150000 in the 1996 census. These numbers then began to level out, so that in 2006

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Source 6.50 South Vietnamese refugees fleeing from the North Vietnamese Army and being transported in a RAAF 36 Squadron Hercules transport aircraft in April 1975

there were around 160 000 Vietnam-born people living in Australia. Not since the migration of large numbers of Chinese during the nineteenth-century gold rushes had there been such an influx of Asians into Australia. As a percentage of the population, Indo-Chinese refugees were not a large group, but they were new and they were visible. Small areas of Australia's major cities, such as Sydney's Cabramatta, were dramatically changed by their presence.

Beginnings of post-war Vietnamese migration

Refugees escaping from Vietnam left in secret, often after a number of attempts and at great expense. They risked jail and re-education (prison) camps if they were caught. Often people couldn't say goodbye to family for fear that their plans would be sabotaged by informers. Thousands died of exposure, drowning, or as victims of piracy in rickety boats at sea.

The first boat carrying asylum seekers from Vietnam arrived on Australia's northern shores in April 1976 and, in the next five years, more than 50 more boats carrying more than 2000 people arrived. This was part of a vast outflow of people from Vietnam, most travelling by boat to nearby Asian countries from where they were resettled in third countries such as the United States, Canada and Australia. A small number of asylum seekers came directly to Australia. All of these asylum seekers were detained so that their eligibility as refugees could be assessed, and some were **repatriated**.

repatriate to send someone back to their country of origin

What was significant about the intake of Vietnamese, and later more broadly Indo-Chinese refugees, was that a comparatively small number actually arrived by boat. However, these boat arrivals attracted most of the attention by the press and the refugees were called '**boat people**'.

boat people refugees and asylum seekers who flee from their native country by boat

The urgent need to resettle the large numbers of Vietnamese refugees led to international discussions and agreements. Australia began to develop its own refugee policy in conjunction

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Source 6.51 Two of several small wooden fishing vessels in Darwin Harbour on 2 November 1977. These vessels brought 259 Vietnamese refugees to Australia – 126 men, 44 women and 89 children. [NAA: A6180, 8/12/78/24]

with the United Nations. Between 1975 and 1981, 43 393 Vietnamese refugees were resettled in Australia. Overall, the Fraser Government's response to Vietnamese and other refugees was humanitarian, and seen as generous.

Australia also developed an Orderly Departure Program with the Vietnamese Government in 1982, through which Vietnamese could apply to migrate to Australia. A similar program had been developed between Vietnam and the United States in 1979.

Australia accepted its first Vietnamese migrants through the Vietnamese Family Migration Program in 1982. This enabled those with relatives in Australia to migrate directly from Vietnam. It became the main means of migration from Vietnam, so that gradually refugees who were accepted on humanitarian grounds were replaced by settlers with relatives in Australia. This followed the pattern of chain migration established by many migrant groups.



Source 6.52 Vietnamese refugees await processing at Melbourne Airport in the late 1970s

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Source 6.53 In 1979 when these Vietnamese refugees arrived in Canberra, the government was becoming concerned that too many refugees were arriving in Australia.



Source 6.54 The Vietnamese community holds an Open Day, Perth, 1979 [State Library of Western Australia, 000977D]

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Times gone by ...

CONG D TRAN: We left with small boat, carried 60 people that Friday on the sea. After [19]75, it's hard, very hard. Everything hard. My family lost everything. After five years living, then there's, you know, a new regime. And we have to decide to escape from Vietnam.

MECA HO: I can remember when I was on a boat, Mum was carrying me. And my grandma was holding my hand and she was crying as the boat started quietly moving, slowly drifting away. I see a lot of people on the boat. But they're always cramped in just one boat and underneath of the boat.

MECA HO: Mum and Dad started to build up some money and save. And then our first restaurant ever was down here, in Richmond back in '84, I remember. Mum was a jeweller in Vietnam – she was always business-oriented. Dad was an educated person. He was never into business as much as Mum.

Well, my skin colour is Oriental, Asian. But because I live here so long, I have adopted the Australian culture. So I consider myself as an Australian citizen now. And I'm Australian, but an Australian in Vietnamese way.

CONG D TRAN: Like, my kids, you know – not Australian, not Vietnamese. Their minds are different. They grow up here, their education here. So they are Vietnamese, but they are not Vietnamese. Australian. Australian teen, yeah.

Source 6.55 The stories of Vietnamese refugees Cong D Tran and Meca Ho

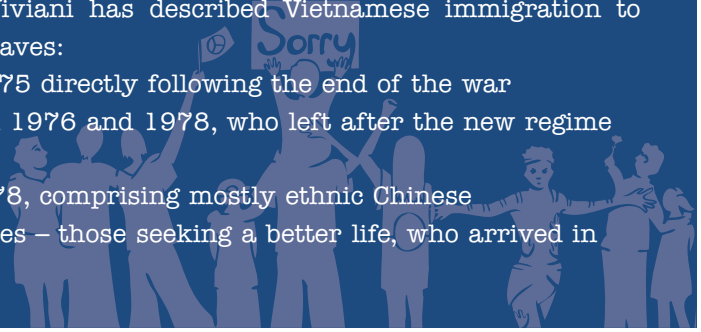
1 Explain some of the dangers that immigrants from Vietnam would have faced in their journey from Vietnam.

2 What do you think Meca Ho's statement 'I'm Australian, but an Australian in Vietnamese way' means?

HISTORICAL FACT

Immigration historian Nancy Viviani has described Vietnamese immigration to Australia as occurring in four waves:

1 those who left Vietnam in 1975 directly following the end of the war
2 a second small wave between 1976 and 1978, who left after the new regime came to power
3 the largest number, after 1978, comprising mostly ethnic Chinese
4 the so-called economic refugees – those seeking a better life, who arrived in 1989.



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Source 6.56 A shopping arcade off John St, Cabramatta

The Cabramatta story

The suburb of Cabramatta in Sydney has been noted for the ethnic and racial diversity of its population. Since the 1950s, a migrant hostel has been situated in the suburb alongside Cabramatta High School. Large numbers of the children of post-war European immigrants attended the school and, later, large numbers of children of Vietnamese refugees did the same. A study showed that, in the 1980s, only 10 per cent of children at the school had both parents born in Australia and it was the most ethnically and racially diverse school population in Sydney.

According to the 2006 census, Cabramatta had a population of 19812. There were more residents born in Vietnam (31 per cent) than in Australia (28 per cent) and the percentage of people speaking Vietnamese at home (34 per cent) was three times higher than the percentage that spoke English only (11 per cent). Other languages commonly spoken in the area included Cantonese, Thai, Khmer, Laotian, Mandarin and Serbian. Buddhism and Catholicism are the main religions of people living in Cabramatta. At nearly 16 per cent, the level of unemployment in Cabramatta in 2006 was considerably higher than the Australian average of 5.2 per cent. Most people in Cabramatta who were employed worked in blue-collar jobs: labourers, machinery operators and drivers, and technicians and trades workers. The median weekly income for households (i.e. the midpoint of all household incomes) was only half the Australian median.

Although Cabramatta is noted for its diversity and has one of the largest multicultural restaurant and shopping precincts in Sydney, it has a longstanding image problem. This is because of its reputation for drug dealing and a number of drug-related deaths in the 1980s and '90s. This was fuelled by sensational media stories with headlines such as 'Asian gangs spread fear in Cabramatta' (*Sunday Telegraph*, 1988) and the use of phrases such as 'street warfare', 'gang-land shoot-out' or 'organised crimes', even when it was clear that only one or two people were involved.

In early 2012, SBS television broadcast a documentary series titled *Once Upon a Time in Cabramatta*. It explored Vietnamese settlement

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in Cabramatta and traced how the suburb has grown into what it is today under Vietnamese influence. It also explored the history of racism in the area.

Non-Vietnamese refugees in Australia: 1970s and 1980s

Although the Vietnamese still made up the largest number of refugees arriving in the 1970s and 1980s, they were not the only refugees arriving in Australia in these years. Between 1975 and 1981, Australia resettled a total of 5050 Laotians and 3276 Kampucheans. Most were selected from camps of first asylum in Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand, with smaller numbers coming from Hong Kong, the Philippines and other countries.

Different international instabilities led to specific intakes of other refugees. In a virtual roll-call of the world's trouble spots during the 1980s, Australia also received refugees from Afghanistan, Chile, China, Czechoslovakia, El Salvador, Ethiopia, Hungary, Iraq, Lebanon, Poland, Romania, Sri Lanka, East Timor and Yugoslavia. Soviet Jews from Eastern Europe and White Russians from China also came to Australia as refugees.

Refugee policy after the 1990s

During the 1990s, significant changes occurred in government responses to refugees as the numbers of unauthorised arrivals by boat increased. Legislation enacted in 1989 centred on mandatory detention and the return of unauthorised boat arrivals to their home country. However, it was in 1991 and 1992 that this policy was cemented. In 1991 it was announced that a new facility would be built in Port Hedland, Western Australia, to process arrivals. This ushered in a new era of policy where asylum seekers would be detained and processed in remote areas of Australia.

The *Migration Reform Act* was passed in 1992, which made Australia the fourth Western nation to have mandatory detention for all unauthorised arrivals. Mandatory detention did not deter boat arrivals: 2000 mostly Cambodian refugees escaped the horrors of the Pol Pot **regime** and arrived by boat between 1990 and 1995.

regime an oppressive and undemocratic government

Between 1992 and 2002, 70 per cent of refugees to Australia came from the former Yugoslavia and the Middle East, of which 60 per cent were Iraqis fleeing Saddam Hussein's regime and the Gulf War.

Wars in the Balkans prompted the establishment of 'Operation Safe Haven' in 1999. This was the largest single humanitarian evacuation ever undertaken in Australia and set important precedents for the future. It offered temporary rather than permanent protection to refugees, and included a 'reintegration package' that provided financial incentives for refugees to return home as soon as stability was regained in their homeland.

In 1999 there was once more an increase in unauthorised arrivals by boat. In response, the Howard Government set up a Coastal Surveillance Task Force to review illegal immigration issues. This resulted in legislation aimed at deterring **people smugglers**, though the number of arrivals by boat were still relatively small: 4000 in 2000–01.

people smuggler someone who organises the illegal passage of an asylum seeker to another country

HISTORICAL FACT

Historical fact

Between 1972 and 2002, more than 320 000 refugees arrived in Australia. The vast majority were actually processed offshore and arrived by plane, not by boat. Between 1976 and 1989, only 2059 refugees arrived by boat. No boat arrivals occurred at all from 1982 to late 1989.



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2001: a pivotal year in refugee policy

There were three pivotal events in 2001 that contributed to asylum seeker issues in Australia: the '*Tampa* incident', the terrorist attacks in the United States on 11 September and the 'children overboard' affair. These events shaped a growing antagonism and anxiety surrounding 'boat people' and national security.

The *Tampa* incident

The event that has now become known as the '*Tampa* incident' was a defining moment in the shift in policies about asylum seekers in Australia. On 26 August 2001 a Norwegian freighter called the MV *Tampa* rescued 438 asylum seekers from a fishing boat in distress in international waters off Christmas Island, one of Australia's Indian Ocean territories. The captain of the *Tampa* was told he was not permitted to enter Australian waters. When he attempted to bring the *Tampa* to Christmas Island, Prime Minister Howard ordered members of the Australian Special Forces to board the boat and take control of it.

The Australian Government tried to convince Indonesia to accept the asylum seekers. Indonesia refused. The government also introduced an emergency Border Protection Bill on 29 August 2001 but, although passed by the House of Representatives, the bill was rejected in the Senate. Eventually the asylum seekers, a number of whom were ill, were transported by a navy vessel to Nauru as part of the Howard Government's new **Pacific Solution**. Most were held in detention camps on Nauru, but some were accepted by New Zealand.

Pacific Solution an Australian Government policy between 2001 and 2007 of transporting asylum seekers (who reach Australian territory) to Pacific island nations such as Nauru and Manus Island for detention and processing



Source 6.57 The Norwegian freighter MV *Tampa* with an Australian naval ship in the background

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Activity **6.9**

1 a What was the Australian Government's reason for not allowing the *Tampa* to enter Australian waters?

b Develop some arguments for and against the government's decision.

2 a How would you characterise Immigration Minister Phillip Ruddock's statement that the asylum seekers had thrown their children overboard?

b How does the finding of the Senate Committee on this issue affect your judgement of his actions?

The *Tampa* incident was broadcast around the world. It caused a diplomatic dispute between Australia and Norway and frosty relations with Indonesia. Many countries accused Australia of evading its human rights responsibilities.

September 11

The terrorist attacks on the United States on 11 September 2001 were events of global significance that completely altered foreign relations. On the morning of that day, the al-Qaeda organisation hijacked commercial aeroplanes in the United States and crashed them into the World Trade Center and the Pentagon, with the White House a potential target of another hijacked aircraft that crashed in Pennsylvania. One of the specific effects was that Australia, as a United States ally, chose to commit to waging a 'war on terrorism' in Iraq and Afghanistan alongside the United States and Britain.

'Children overboard'

On 7 October 2001, a boat carrying Iraqi asylum seekers was intercepted off Christmas Island by an Australian navy vessel. Immigration Minister Phillip Ruddock made the statement that these asylum seekers, desperate to force Australia to accept them into the country, had thrown their children overboard. Ruddock argued that these were not the types of people we wanted in Australia, and that this was a 'clearly planned and premeditated attempt to force their way into Australia'. A later Senate Committee, composed mainly of non-government senators, concluded that no children were actually thrown overboard.

The fallout

These three events – *Tampa*, September 11 and the 'children overboard' allegations – occurred in the context of a looming federal election. Media and political debate became heated as the issue of border protection and national security became central to election campaigning.

One of the primary measures that the government had taken in response to these events was to enact what was to become known as the Pacific Solution. This relied on neighbouring Pacific island nations, such as Papua New Guinea, Manus Island and Nauru, taking asylum seekers intercepted in Australian waters, and detaining and processing them there. It also denied permanent residence to asylum seekers arriving by boat and denied them resources provided to other refugees.

This was thought to be an effective deterrent to potential 'boat people', as people smugglers would quickly learn that Australia was tough on border security. But the Pacific Solution was problematic, both in terms of the constitutions of the countries it affected, and also because it was seen as a rejection of the United Nations obligations towards refugees, by which Australia was supposed to abide. It was also extremely expensive, costing millions of dollars to process all the applicants off-shore, as well as providing all the resources to house and support them.

The Gillard Labor Government's 2011 proposed **Malaysia Solution** was an attempt to develop a new solution to the problem of

Malaysia Solution A proposed Australian Government policy to transport asylum seekers (who reach Australian territory) to Malaysia for detention and processing

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Activity 6.10

What are the differences between the proposed Malaysia Solution and the Howard Government's Pacific Solution?

Research 6.1

Undertake research to find out why the High Court ruled that the Malaysia Solution was invalid. Do you think this was a good decision?

unauthorised asylum seekers arriving by boat, by establishing an agreement to process them in Malaysia. The deal was struck down by the High Court and the government was unable to pass new laws to resuscitate it.

Challenges of refugee policy

It is clear that the problem of asylum seekers and refugees is not just something that occurred many years ago after World War II, when displaced people from European countries had been forced from their homes by war. Today a major challenge for Australia, and for the world as a whole, is finding a way to protect refugees who have been forced by war, conflict and human rights abuses to leave their homes. The UN estimates that there were nearly 44 million people forcibly displaced in the world in 2010.

Australia helps to alleviate their plight through its Humanitarian Program, but accepts very small numbers of refugees compared to other countries. Today's refugees face similar problems to the displaced persons of the post-war years. They were accommodated in camps with the most basic facilities, their qualifications were not accepted, they had to work in unskilled jobs, they had to learn English and adjust to a different culture, and many Australians were suspicious of them and called them names because they came from a different culture. Little has changed.

Impact of migration on Australian national identity

Australian society is comprised of people from a rich and complex variety of racial, ethnic, linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Most Australians, except those of fully Indigenous descent, are immigrants or the descendants of immigrants.

Migration has had a major impact on Australia's national identity, both internally and internationally. This can be seen by examining its demographic impact, its economic impact and its social and cultural impact.

While it should be remembered that natural increase has been the main source of population growth in Australia over the past 100 years, contributing two-thirds of the increase between 1901 and 2001, immigration has also been a significant contributor to Australia's population growth. The government expects that

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	1933		1971		2006	
	Number	% of total pop.	Number	% of total pop.	Number	% of total pop.
United Kingdom and Ireland	712 458	10.7	1 088 210	9	1 084 009	6
Europe*	95 181	1	1 108 268	9	993 910	5
Asia*	24 840	0.4	167 226	1	1 208 742	7

* Includes all countries in continent

Source 6.58 Numbers of Australian residents born in the United Kingdom/Ireland, Europe and Asia at the 1933, 1971 and 2006 censuses

immigration's contribution to population growth is likely to increase during the next 30 years as the ageing of Australia's population means that deaths will increasingly catch up with births.

Source 6.58 shows the broad demographic shifts that have occurred those Australian residents born in the United Kingdom/Ireland, Europe and Asia since the 1933 Census.

The post-war immigration to Australia of displaced people and immigrants from continental Europe changed the balance of the population significantly.

The percentage of the total Australian population born in the United Kingdom and Ireland fell from 10.7 per cent in 1933 to 6 per cent in 2006. At the same time the percentage of people born in continental Europe increased from 1 per cent in 1933 to 5 per cent in 2006.

The abolition of the White Australia Policy in 1973, and then increasing numbers of refugees from Asia, also had a major impact on the balance of the Australian population. People born in Asia made up 0.4 per cent in 1933 but by 2006 had risen to 7 per cent.

More broadly, 25 per cent of people living in Australia in 2006 had been born overseas (and not only in those countries/continents shown in Source 6.58), compared with only 14 per cent

Birthplace	% of Australian population
Australian-born	75
Total overseas-born	25
Oceania and Antarctica*	3
United Kingdom and Ireland	6
North-west Europe	1
Southern and Eastern Europe	4
North Africa and the Middle East	1
Sub-Saharan Africa	1
South-East Asia	3
North-East Asia	2
Southern and Central Asia	2
The Americas	1

* Excluding Australia

Source 6.59 Birthplace of Australia's population by region, 2006 Census

Research 6.2

What types of situations turn people into refugees? Choose one group of refugees and research the situation in their homeland prior to their departure. Present your findings as a poster.

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in 1933. The development of policies such as multiculturalism was a response to this shift.

Source 6.59 shows that, at the 2006 census, the Australian population was made up of about 75 per cent born in Australia and 25 per cent born overseas. Of the overseas-born, 6 per cent were born in the United Kingdom and Ireland, 5 per cent in European countries and 7 per cent in Asian countries. Another 3 per cent were born in Oceania (primarily New Zealand), 2 per cent in Africa and the Middle East, and 1 per cent in the Americas.

Australia has remarkable linguistic diversity as a direct result of immigration. In 2006 there were 210 languages spoken in Australian homes as well as 130 Indigenous languages. Foreign languages are taught in most Australian schools and universities, as well as in community ethnic schools. There are now more than 100 metropolitan and regional TV and radio stations in Australia broadcasting in 100 languages, and more than 100 ethnic newspapers published in more than 40 languages. The 10 most commonly spoken languages other than English are Italian, Greek, Cantonese, Arabic, Mandarin, Vietnamese, Spanish, German, Hindi and Macedonian.

This diversity can also be seen in many aspects of Australia's social and cultural life. The changes in Australian cuisine provide an example. Immigrants have introduced the cuisine of many nations into Australia and have greatly enriched our food culture.

Australia's diverse multicultural society links us to the world. Many Australians have family members in other parts of the world and travel between continents is becoming common. Australia is now part of a global world and the movement of people and capital is a key aspect of a globalised society.

Activity **6.11**

How many different food dishes can you identify that have been introduced to Australia by migrants since World War II? List them, detailing which country they came from and in which decade they are likely to have been introduced. Compare your list with that of your classmates – are there any dishes that you haven't tried yet?

Research **6.3**

Use the internet to research one of the following people and their impact on immigration policy in more detail.

- Al Grassby
- Malcolm Fraser
- Paul Keating

Be sure to research the major achievements of the person you choose and to use reliable websites. Present your findings to the class as a PowerPoint presentation.

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Chapter summary

- British migrants dominated immigration patterns to Australia prior to World War II, but this has now changed.
- Since World War II there have been waves of immigrants to Australia: displaced people from war-torn Europe, immigrants from Britain and Europe, immigrants with skills needed in the Australian economy, and refugees from Asia and other parts of the world.
- Immediately after the war, government policies were dominated by the White Australia Policy, the idea that Australia must 'populate or perish' and that migrants should assimilate into Australian society.
- At the end of the Vietnam War many thousands of people, who faced persecution in their homelands, sought asylum and were accepted as refugees in Australia.
- In the 1970s the policies of assimilation and integration were replaced by the policy of multiculturalism as a reflection of the changing racial and ethnic composition of the Australian population.
- Australia has become one of the most multicultural countries in the world. Its many ethnicities contribute to its national identity and link the nation to the global society.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1 Which one of these events didn't prompt significant migration to Australia in the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s?

A the end of the Vietnam War
B the declaration of martial law in Poland in 1981
C the Chilean revolution
D the end of the Falklands War

2 Why did Australia want European migrants after World War II?

A to provide workers for industry
B to prevent the 'yellow peril' from invading Australia
C to provide a home for refugees
D because it couldn't get migrants from anywhere else

3 The Snowy Mountains Hydro-electricity Scheme is recognised as a great civil engineering triumph. Which of the following statements is not true?

A The workers on the project forged a bond through working together.
B It provided a new source of power for the Australian Capital Territory, Victoria and New South Wales.
C It was built in five years.
D The workers who built it came from more than 30 different countries.

4 After the war, the Australian Government followed a policy of assimilation. This meant that:

A immigrants of all races were treated equally
B people for whom English was a second language prospered
C many immigrants eventually returned to their native countries
D all immigrants had access to the same jobs and government benefits

5 Italian immigrants:

A first came to Australia in the 1880s
B have never been subject to immigration restriction
C increased in number during the late 1960s
D were encouraged to come to Australia after the end of World War II

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Short answer

1 Explain why Australia encouraged immigration after World War II.

2 How did Australia help settle its migrants?

3 Migration to Australia has been based on three overarching government policies. What were they and what impact did they have?

4 Describe how the Hawke and Keating governments' policy of multiculturalism rejected the assimilation policy of prior governments.

5 Why have Australian people been fearful of immigrants? How have they displayed this fear?

Source analysis

Strong opposition to foreign immigrants being allowed to enter Australia was voiced at the fourth annual conference of the State branch of the Australian Legion of Ex-service Men and Women in Perth on Saturday. Members referred particularly to immigrants who arrived recently in the *Misr*. It was said that there were thousands of British ex-service men waiting to come to Australia and that they should be given preference. The conference agreed to the following motion: That conference expresses extreme disgust at migrants of 17 nations who arrived in the *Misr* being granted landing permits, while British ex-servicemen are still waiting to enter this country. It was agreed that the resolution should be sent to the Minister for Immigration (Mr Calwell).

Source 6.60 Excerpt from an article in the *West Australian*, 21 April 1947

Press reports criticising the migrant passengers who arrived on the *Misr* last month were grossly misleading, unfair, and entirely unwarranted, according to a report tabled in Parliament today by the Minister for Immigration, Mr Calwell.

The report was compiled by two migration officers who travelled on the *Misr* from Fremantle to Melbourne to investigate conditions. The Leader of the Opposition, Mr Menzies, had asked Mr Calwell for a report.

Mr W. Weale, one of the officers, said that some of the passengers who travelled first class made complaints obviously to impress that they were used to 'only the very best'.

The lavatory accommodation was not adequate for mixed passengers. Many passengers had never known Western sanitary conditions, and stewards had to be constantly on duty. By the end of the voyage, however, sanitation was good.

The ship had fountains of iced water and a canteen for the purchase of cigarettes, sweets and soft drinks. The food was good, ample and well cooked, and the service excellent.

Mr Weale said he had investigated many complaints about the food in the third-class dining-room, but had had to dismiss them all.

Some of the British passengers complained that it was an insult to have to eat with foreigners, and asked for a separate dining-room, but they had no complaints against the food.

Mr Weale added that the alien passengers were not undesirable types to be allowed to settle in Australia, and no exception could be taken to any of them.

Source 6.61 Excerpt from an article in the *West Australian*, 15 May 1947

1 Identify the main issues surrounding the SS *Misr* controversy in the newspaper articles.

2 Analyse the differing points of view in these articles.

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3 What was Mr Calwell's goal in arranging for a report?

4 Search Trove (National Library of Australia) at www.cambridge.edu.au/history10weblinks for other articles about the SS *Misr*'s arrival in April 1947.

Extended response

Describe and analyse Australia's response to the needs of refugees in the 1950s or the 1970s. Take into account the different government policies of the time and the impact they had on who was offered refuge in Australia. Also consider the different ways in which asylum seekers and refugees arrived and were processed in Australia.

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Glossary

abstain to formally decline

acclimatise to adapt to local climate

action serial a fast-moving adventure film, told in 15-minute episodes shown weekly

alien someone who belongs to a foreign nation or country

alienated isolated

American Civil War A war between the Northern (Union) states and the Southern (Confederate) states of the United States, fought between 1861 and 1865 and won by the North

Analects a Chinese collection of short literary and philosophical extracts, derived from the conversations of Confucius

anti-Semitism prejudice, hatred and violence directed at the Jewish community

anti-social not sociable; harmful to the existing order

ANZUS Treaty the Australia, New Zealand, United States Security Treaty; a military alliance between the United States and Australia, and separately between Australia and New Zealand

Apartheid a system of racial segregation and discrimination in South Africa (1948–94)

appeasement the policy adopted by Britain and France to negotiate rather than fight Hitler

arbitrary without reason

Arrernte Aboriginal nation of the Central Australia/Alice Springs region

Aryan race the race of Germanic peoples, as propagated by the Nazi party; the word 'Aryan' comes from ancient Indo-European languages where it meant nothing more than 'people of Iran'

assimilate when a minority culture merges into a dominate culture, with the minority being required to leave its own culture behind

assimilation to absorb and make alike; the process of cultural absorption

asylum seeker a person who has fled their own country and applies to the government of another country for protection as a refugee

atomic bomb a bomb that relies on nuclear fission for its destructive power; the United States dropped two atomic/nuclear bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, ending World War II in the Asia-Pacific

audacious especially daring

Auschwitz-Birkenau the largest Nazi death camp, located in Poland

Austerity Campaign a campaign begun by the Australian Government in 1942, in which serious and strict controls were placed over every aspect of daily life in Australia in order to help financially support the war effort

Australian Constitution the written set of principles for governing Australia

Australian Imperial Force (AIF) the name given to army forces sent to fight overseas

backbeat a secondary accent on the second and fourth beats of the bar of music, rather than the first and third

barnstorm a very quick tour of an area

besotted infatuated; enamoured by

bestial like a beast

biased having a particular interest or view that limits one's ability to make a fair judgement

Bill of Rights official statement of a people's rights and freedoms

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biodiversity the variety of all life forms on earth, including plants, animals and micro-organisms

biosphere layers of the Earth's land, oceans and atmosphere containing living organisms

black ban the banning of any involvement in a particular activity

Black Panther Party an African-American organisation to promote the Black Power Movement in the late 1960s

Black Power the movement to advance the political and personal power of Indigenous peoples

Blitzkrieg a term created by Hitler to describe a new type of rapid mobile warfare: attacking effectively and rapidly from the air and the ground simultaneously to swiftly break through enemy lines

blues African-American folk music, often arranged in a 12-bar chord progression

boat people refugees and asylum seekers who flee from their native country by boat

boom a period of rapid growth

boycott the act of people coming together to refuse cooperation

cakewalk an African-American dance, with a cake as a prize

capitalism an economic system based on private ownership and free market enterprise

censorship government control over the type of information that can be included in all forms of communication, such as news media and private letters

champagne television high-class, polished, quality television productions

civil disobedience peaceful refusal to obey certain laws, or pay taxes and fines

Cold War the political and military tension between the Soviet Union and the United States from 1945 to 1989; the term was coined to indicate rivalry and hostility short of military conflict, but in fact the Cold War included several actual wars as well

colour bar the denial of services or facilities to non-whites

commission a group entrusted by a government to undertake specific tasks and duties

common law law that is based on previous court decisions; this sits alongside parliamentary legislation in Australia's legal system

communism the political practice of Marxism in which the state or government controls most of the nation's wealth and private property is restricted. A communist state has only one political party and the rights of individuals are limited in favour of the whole of society

conferring giving to, bestowing upon

conformist in agreement with existing social standards, attitudes and practices

conscription the process of mandatory participation in war, where men and women are forced to sign up to serve their country at war

consensus general agreement

conservationist someone who advocates the preservation of nature and all its resources

constructing building an idea or argument using evidence and resources

consumer durables goods able to be kept

contestability when particular interpretations about the past are open to debate; for example, as a result of a lack of evidence or different perspectives

counter-culture people, beliefs and actions that are seen as being outside, against or challenging those regarded as 'normal' by society

covenant agreement or contract

customary law law based on established practice rather than statute

de-colonisation the freeing of colonies formally controlled by Western powers

deep ecology a branch of the ecology movement that views each part of the Earth and its natural systems as being of equal value

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deforestation major loss of forest cover through excessive clearance

delegation a group appointed to represent others

delinquency misbehaviour, especially of young people

de-Nazification the ending of Nazi policies and systems by victorious Allies after World War II

disarmament reduction of a state's military forces and weapons

disenfranchise to deprive someone of the right to citizenship or the right to vote

disillusioned feeling disenchanted

displacement the process of being shifted from one's homeland

dispossession taking a people's land or dislodging and removing them from their territory

dissent opposition

doctrine a set of ideas or a theory

Dolchstosslegende the ideology adopted by Hitler during his rise to power, which blamed internal enemies for Germany's loss in World War I

dominions the colonies of the British Empire, which included Australia, New Zealand and Canada, among others

dysfunctional impairing usual practice

ecological footprint a measure of the demands that humans make on the Earth's ecosystem

ecologist a scientist who studies the interaction between organisms and their environment

ecology the scientific study of the relationship between all the elements of the natural environment

Einsatzgruppen the mobile killing squads who travelled behind the German Army with orders to carry out genocide

enfranchise to give someone the right to citizenship or the right to vote

environment the air, water and land in or on which people, animals and plants live

environmental history a term used to describe people's relationships with the environment over time, which attempts to show the connection between nature and culture and combines the natural, social, economic and political aspects within an historical framework

environmentalism a social movement that seeks to influence leaders, businesses and governments to protect natural resources

environmental movement a broad set of beliefs, ideas and ideals that guide the actions of people in terms of how they care for the environment

equality the same treatment and opportunities available to all, regardless of race, gender or religion

escapist running away from reality

exile to expel one from one's native land

exodus a mass departure

expansionism the policy of extending the territory and/or economy of a country

Fat Man bomb name of the atomic bomb dropped on the Japanese city of Nagasaki during World War II

fauna the animals in a particular area

feminist a person who believes that women and men are equals and should enjoy all the same rights

field centre an organisation focused on educating school students

flora the plants in a particular area

freehold title land tenure held for life

fringe camps Aboriginal campsites, restricted to the margins or fringes of townships and regions

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Gaia Theory James Lovelock's theory that Earth is a self-regulating, natural, interconnected system

genocide full or attempted extermination of a certain ethnic, cultural or religious group

genre a type or style

Gestapo the German secret police

ghetto an inner-city area, occupied mainly by one minority group

glam rock rock music of the early 1970s, performed with glamorous costumes and males wearing make-up; there was an emphasis on sexual ambiguity

green ban industrial action in support of an environmental or heritage cause

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) the market value of all goods and services produced in a country or the world in a given time period

Group of Eight (G8) a group representing the world's most developed and industrialised nations; a forum (also called a summit) for the world leaders and industrialists to discuss economic issues

hire purchase buying an item by making regular incremental payments while owning it outright

Holocaust a word derived from the Greek, meaning 'completely burnt'; refers to the extermination of Jews in Europe during World War II

hyperinflation when inflation is extremely high and a country's currency loses value as a result

ideology a set of ideas or beliefs that form a framework for a person's or country's point of view and actions

idiosyncrasy a characteristic feature

Inca and Aztec Codes legal systems of Central Andes and Mexico before Spanish conquest

incremental increasing by small amounts

inflation a general rise in the level of prices and a fall in the purchasing value of money

integration where a people is able to maintain its own basic culture and have it respected, while living within and respecting another culture

intergenerational equity a principle that requires all parties to the UNFCCC to protect the climate system now and in the future according to their specific capacity to do so

internment camps camps established throughout Australia where prisoners of war and people suspected of having links with the enemy were held

Iroquois Constitution the Book of the Great Law of the Iroquois Indians of the United States

isolationism the policy adopted by the United States in the 1930s when they refused to become involved in international problems

Isurava a village where a crucial battle was fought on the Kokoda track that slowed down the Japanese advance

Jazz Age 1920s United States; a carefree time

Jim Crow a policy of racial segregation and discrimination against African-Americans, named after a stage dance of the 1840s

kamikaze Japanese suicide pilots who crashed their planes, full of explosives, into US ships

Kokoda Track the track linking Port Moresby to the north coast of Papua New Guinea; it runs through difficult terrain

kosher refers to food prepared in accordance with Jewish religious dietary laws, which include specific ways in which animals must be slaughtered, the removal of all traces of blood prior to cooking and a ban on combining meat and dairy products

Law man an Aboriginal Elder who interprets and enforces Aboriginal Law

Lebensraum the policy adopted by Hitler to justify his drive to conquer more land: to create more living space for the German people

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Little Boy bomb name of the atomic bomb dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima during World War II

longevity length or duration of life

lynching an illegal killing by a mob, usually by hanging and/or burning

Malaysia Solution a proposed Australian Government policy to transport asylum seekers (who reach Australian territory) to Malaysia for detention and processing

mandatory detention an Australian Government policy whereby all people thought to have entered the country illegally are compulsorily detained

manifesto a public statement of aims and policy

manufacturing an industry based on the creation of products on a large scale, using machinery

marginalised treated as insignificant

marine parks preserved marine areas designed to protect coastal waters, marine habitats and species, and cultural heritage sites

megadiverse areas of the Earth containing a large number of plant and animal species

militia a military force made up of ordinary citizens rather than highly trained soldiers

Milne Bay a bay where a crucial battle was fought at the north-east tip of Papua New Guinea that stopped the continued Japanese invasion of New Guinea

multiculturalism a policy that encourages migrant groups to embrace their ethnic culture, provided that they abide by Australian laws

nationalism a political movement characterised by excessive pride in one's country and the promotion of those interests to the detriment of others

national park a bushland area of scenic or historical importance maintained by government

National Reserve System Australia's network of parks, reserves and protected areas, whose purpose is to conserve biodiversity

native title official recognition of Aboriginal land ownership

naturalist a person who is involved in the science of nature

Nazi Axis the right-wing, authoritarian regime formed in 1930s Germany along with its allies (such as Italy and Japan)

non-renewable resources forms of energy such as coal, oil and gas, which take long periods of time to form and, once they are used, cannot be replaced or renewed

nuclear family a 'typical' family; a man and a woman and their dependent children

nuclear non-proliferation efforts to stop the spread of nuclear weapons in the world

ocker a crude Australian male character, first developed on television in the mid-1960s

off-shore processing a system of processing and detaining asylum seekers (who reach Australian territory) in offshore locations, such as Christmas Island

Pacific Solution an Australian Government policy between 2001 and 2007 of transporting asylum seekers (who reach Australian territory) to Pacific Island nations such as Nauru and Manus Island for detention and processing

parity a state of being equal

'parkland' tradition the English Victorian tradition where the natural fauna and flora of an environment was removed to cater for people

pastoral lease government (Crown) land that has been leased for the farming of livestock

patronage customer support

Pearl Harbor the US naval base in Hawaii that suffered a surprise attack from Japanese bombers on 7 December 1941

pediment the triangular front part of a classical building

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people smuggler someone who organises the illegal passage of an asylum seeker to another country

permaculture an environmental movement that teaches the techniques required to ensure that the soil produces abundant crops using natural methods

persecution any form of undeserved punishment

persuade to try to gain support for an idea or beliefs using a sound argument

picketing a group protest outside a workplace to disrupt business or work

placard a sign or poster

plank in the party platform an individual issue that a political party supports

population sustainability the capacity of a country to support the number of people living within it

portico a roof supported by columns at regular intervals

Port Moresby the capital of New Guinea; it was of strategic importance to Japan during World War II

precautionary principle a principle that requires nations to seek cost-effective measures to protect the environment from harm

preservation the protection of natural resources that are seen as being of value for their own sake

primary production an industry based on the processing of natural resources for consumption; for example, farming or mining

prisoners of war (POWs) Servicemen and women taken captive by the enemy during war

propaganda the communication of a message to either change another's mind or to reinforce an existing idea that agrees with that of the propagator

quota a fixed amount or share

Qur'an (or Koran) the holy book of Islam

ragtime syncopated modern piano music from the early twentieth century, invented by African-Americans

ratify to confirm by formal signature

raucous loud and boisterous

re-earthing an environmental movement based on communicating with Earth's natural systems in order to be renewed and in tune with the environment

refugee a person who, due to a well-founded fear of persecution, is outside their country of nationality and is unable or (due to such fear) unwilling to return to that country

regime an oppressive and undemocratic government

reparation making amends or providing compensation

repatriate to send someone back to their country of origin

repeal to remove a law

resource a stock or supply that can be drawn upon

revolution the overthrowing of a government in favour of a new system

riotous involving wild behaviour or public disorder

roaring twenties the period during the 1920s when lifestyles changed and technology boomed; the term 'roaring' refers to the speed and noise associated with cars and aeroplanes, and the excitement of jazz music and dances

Royal Commission an official committee of inquiry appointed by the Crown

satirical using ridicule or sarcasm to attempt to expose error

sedate quiet and dignified

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segregation separation of classes of people; applied to racial segregation in the twentieth century, such as in South Africa under Apartheid; the American South until the 1950s–60s; and in some parts of Australia, particularly up to the 1960s

self-determination the power to determine one's own political destiny and control one's own affairs

separate but equal a concept where facilities were divided but supposedly equal in quality (usually they were not)

separate development a policy developed during Apartheid in South Africa, whereby different racial groups within in the same country were governed by separate administrations

socialism a political ideology based on shared contributions to and shared benefits from society and the economy

sojourner a worker intending to stay in a place temporarily

Southern Democrats Democratic politicians representing the Southern segregation states of the United States

sovereignty self-government

Soviet Bloc the eastern and central European communist nations under the political influence of the Soviet Union

SS the *Shutzstaffel*, a powerful paramilitary group that carried out Hitler's most violent orders during his reign

state parks areas that are generally smaller than national parks but are managed under similar guidelines and reflect the major natural landforms, flora and fauna of the state

stock type a character based on a social stereotype

sub-culture a cultural group within an overall culture, which has different values and interests from the overall culture

suffrage the right to vote in political elections

sustainability the concept that the environment and all its parts must be used and managed, protected, conserved and respected so that they remain viable for future generations

sustainable designed to be able to operate perpetually, without depleting natural resources or harming the natural environment

swastika the symbol of the Nazi Party in Germany

synthesise to bring evidence together to develop a sound interpretation or argument

totalitarianism a centralised system of government where total power is held by one person or group

United Nations (UN) an international organisation founded in 1945 to work towards world peace and cooperation

Vedas the most ancient and sacred literature of the Hindu religion

veto the right to reject a proposal

vigoro a sport similar to cricket and baseball, usually played by women

vilify to verbally attack

White Australia Policy a racist policy introduced in Australia from 1901, designed to intentionally restrict 'non-white' immigration to Australia; it was finally abolished in the 1970s

wilderness large, natural areas of land that, together with their native plants and animals, remain essentially unchanged by modern human activity

wolfram tungsten; a hard metal used in electronics and in industry

World Heritage areas areas deemed to be of value to the world; Australia has 17 World Heritage-listed areas

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