Good History

NSW Stage 5

Paul Ashton
Mark Anderson
Annika Fawcett
Aleryk Fricker

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AUTHORS

Paul Ashton
Mark Anderson
Annika Fawcett
Aleryk Fricker
Phillip O'Brien
Damien Green
Natalie Shephard
Ben Lawless
Sally Elliot

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Text design: Jo Groud, Paul Ryan

Typesetters: Dominic D'Monte, Paul Ryan

Cartography: Wayne Murphy

Illustrator: QBS Learning

Indexer: Mary Russell

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How can I understand the modern world?

New ideas, the movements of people, technological developments, industrialisation, global trade, political change, revolutions and wars all shaped the modern world. But these processes were uneven and unequal.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression

	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: The Australian Imperial Force (AIF) was formed in August 1914 and began recruiting for men to serve the British Empire in fighting World War I. [Australian War Memorial, ARTV06766-1]

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

1.1

What factors shaped the modern world?

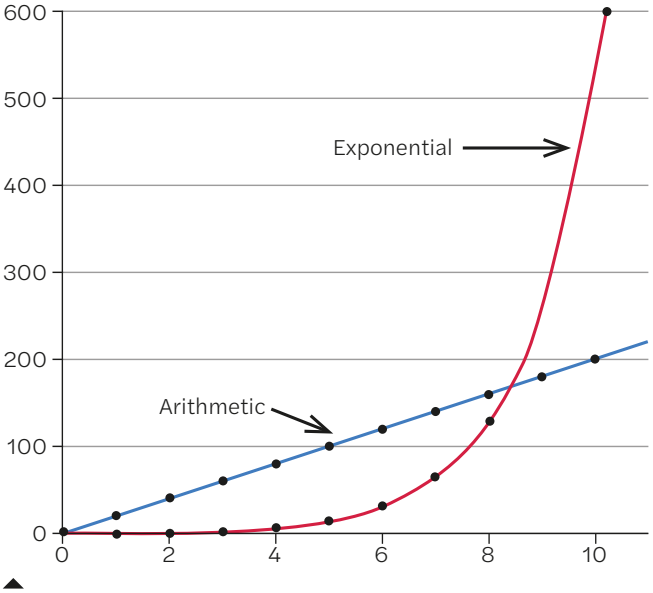
The period from the mid–18th century to the mid–20th century was a time of staggering change, completely transforming almost every society on Earth. The events and advances of this period shaped the 20th-century world, and we continue to feel their effects today.

A period of exponential change

In maths, rates of growth and change can be described as **arithmetic** or **exponential**. Arithmetic growth changes at the same rate over time – if you draw it on a graph, it's a gentle, straight diagonal line. Exponential growth gets faster and faster over time, changing more and more – on a graph, it is represented by a line that starts flat and then curves up to become extremely steep.

The period between 1750 and 1945 was one of exponential change in almost every aspect of human knowledge, science and society. Someone born in the beginning of this period, after thousands of years of gradual change, could never have imagined what the world would look like at its end. Social, cultural, economic and political change, technological advances and conflict between powerful nations fuelled a rapid transformation of society, and shaped the world we live in today.

A comparison of arithmetic and exponential change



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 1: Arithmetic change is steady and consistent, while exponential change starts slowly but speeds up so rapidly it quickly goes 'off the chart'.

Technology and industrialisation

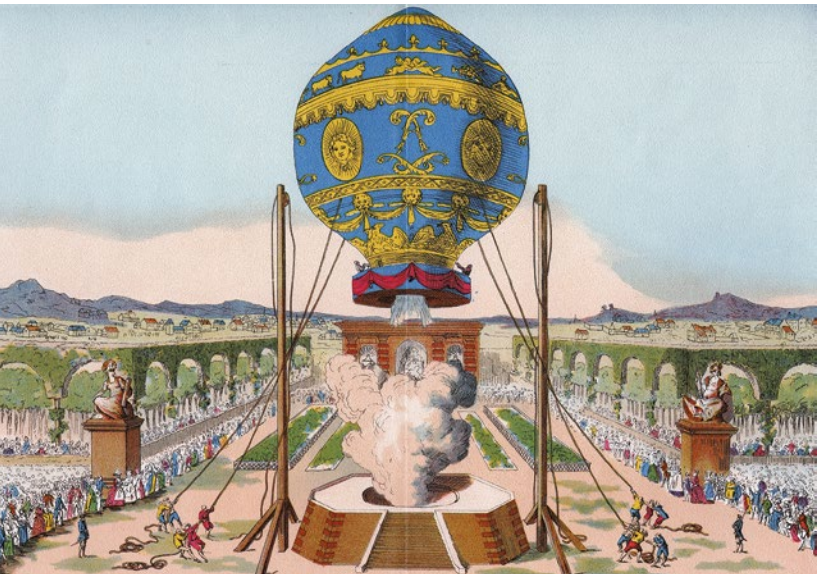
Perhaps no change is so obvious, dramatic and wide reaching during this period than the changes in technology that followed the invention of the steam engine in 1765. For the first time, humans could generate and direct more energy than could be harnessed from natural sources like horses or the wind. This opened up incredible new possibilities, and inventors around the world created a series of new machines, each more wondrous than the last.

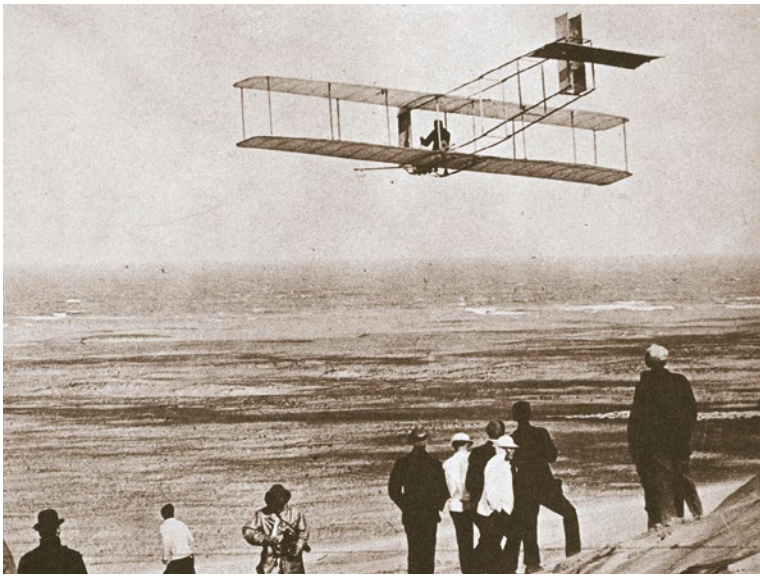
At the start of the 18th century, the sailing ship was the most advanced means of travel, and sending letters by ship was the best way to deliver information over long distances. By 1920, aeroplanes were powerful enough to fly across the Atlantic Ocean, and radio messages could be sent almost instantly around the world.

These technological advances also changed society. Wealthy nations underwent **industrialisation**, adopting the use of advanced technology. Machines could perform tasks faster, more cheaply and in greater volume than human workers could, which led those wealthy nations to become even wealthier and more powerful. However, the wealth was not shared evenly, with many workers left without jobs. At the same time, less advanced nations became vulnerable.

Imperialism and nationalism

By the 18th century, the great empires of Africa and Asia had been overtaken by the rising powers of Europe. England, France, Spain, Germany and other nations used their wealth and technology to spread their power around the globe. This was an age of imperialism, as these European (and later American) empires used their more advanced weapons, naval power and technology to seize control of countries in Asia and Africa.





Source 2: (Left) The Montgolfier brothers, a pair of French inventors, developed the hot air balloon in 1783. (Right) In 1903, 120 years after the first hot air balloon flight, the Wright brothers of the United States invented and flew the first aeroplane.

Along with the growth of empires came a growth in **nationalism**. For most of history, people had primarily identified with and been loyal to small political entities – a clan, tribe, village or city–state. Now people increasingly saw themselves as part of a country or nation, with many believing that their nation was superior to all others. This attitude underpinned the expansion of empires, but also motivated subjugated peoples to fight to reclaim their lands.

Source 3: Britain founded 13 colonies in North America in the early 17th century. In 1776, these colonies came together to declare their independence, and waged war against their British rulers. In 1783, the United States of America became a major new figure in international politics. This Revolutionary War painting shows the surrender of British General John Burgoyne at Saratoga in 1777. [John Trumbull, *The Surrender of General Burgoyne*, 1821]

New nations and ancient peoples

The rise of the **nation–state**, along with the expansion of empires, meant that many new countries came into existence during this period. Some of these new nations emerged from old empires and gained their own **sovereignty**, such as Belgium (which was part of the Netherlands until 1830) and Kuwait (which separated from the Khalidi Emirate in 1752). Sometimes, this sovereignty was achieved through revolution. For the United States of America, although independence was declared in 1776, they then had to fight against the British to ultimately achieve independence in 1783.

Other nations were formed when empires invaded and **colonised** new lands – the most obvious example for us is Australia, which was claimed by the British in 1770. But the new lands claimed by these empires were rarely uninhabited – they were the homes of many different **Indigenous** peoples with their own societies and cultures.

Thanks to the racism and prejudice of the Europeans, these traditional inhabitants – such as the First Nations Peoples of North America, Australia and New Zealand – were typically treated as inferior, unimportant or even less than human. Their homes were taken from them, and natural resources were stripped from their lands to meet the needs of European nations. It took many, many years for these Peoples to reclaim their rights and homelands, and many are still fighting for those rights today.

Global concerns, global conflicts

The expansion of empires, and the need for resources to fuel industrialisation efforts, meant that powerful nations such as Britain, France and the United States came into conflict. In previous centuries, wars were a common event between powerful nations, but they occurred somewhat less often during the modern period. Leaders regarded open warfare as too great a drain on resources, and as too difficult to coordinate on the fringes of an empire. When they could, the great nations preferred to use diplomacy, spying or economic bargains to settle conflicts.

But battles and conflicts did not become a thing of the past. Empires used their soldiers and weapons to conquer less advanced nations, and wars were still fought to gain territory or increase power. In 1914, one such war erupted between European states, and expanded rapidly to involve almost every country in Europe, as well as nations all around the world. It lasted for less than five years, but by the end, the political landscape of Europe had permanently changed, and 20 million people had been killed.

Afterwards, people called it 'The War to End All Wars' – but they were wrong. In hindsight, it became known as World War I.

Intellectual and social change

Industrialisation and warfare were not the only changes sweeping the world at this time. Following the Renaissance and the Scientific Revolution of previous centuries, the 17th and 18th centuries became known as the Age of Reason, or the Age of Enlightenment. Scientists, thinkers, philosophers

Source 5: In France, gatherings of intellectuals – and their wealthy patrons – were common from the 17th until the mid-19th century. These salons gave rise to political, economic and philosophical theories that are still discussed today. [Lemonnier, *Reading of Voltaire's tragedy of the Orphan of China in the salon of Marie Thérèse Rodet Geoffrin 1755*, painted in 1812]

Source 4: Key events for the period 1750–1945

key ideas timeline.

- 1763 – End of the Seven Years' War between England and France
- 1770 – Captain James Cook lands at Botany Bay in Australia
- 1775–1783 – American Revolutionary War
- 1776 – The American colonies claim independence from Britain
- 1788 – British colony established in Australia
- 1789–1799 – The French Revolution
- 1819 – Founding of Singapore by British East India Company
- 1825 – First public railway in the world opens in Britain
- 1833 – Britain abolishes the slave trade throughout its empire
- 1840 – Founding of New Zealand

and academics began to suggest new models of thought, and new ideas about how humanity could live, learn and prosper. Many of these ideas were **humanistic** and promoted the view that human achievements and discoveries in this world were more important or helpful than religious ideas of a reward in the 'next world'.

In addition to moral and ethical philosophies, there were also practical ideas about politics, society and economics. Many of these were revolutionary ideas that called for the destruction of the old order, and the replacement of ruling families and monarchies with more democratic forms of government. Over the course of the 19th and 20th centuries, many nations let go of their traditional ways and highly structured cultures to embrace fairer and more open societies.

Learning ladder 1.1

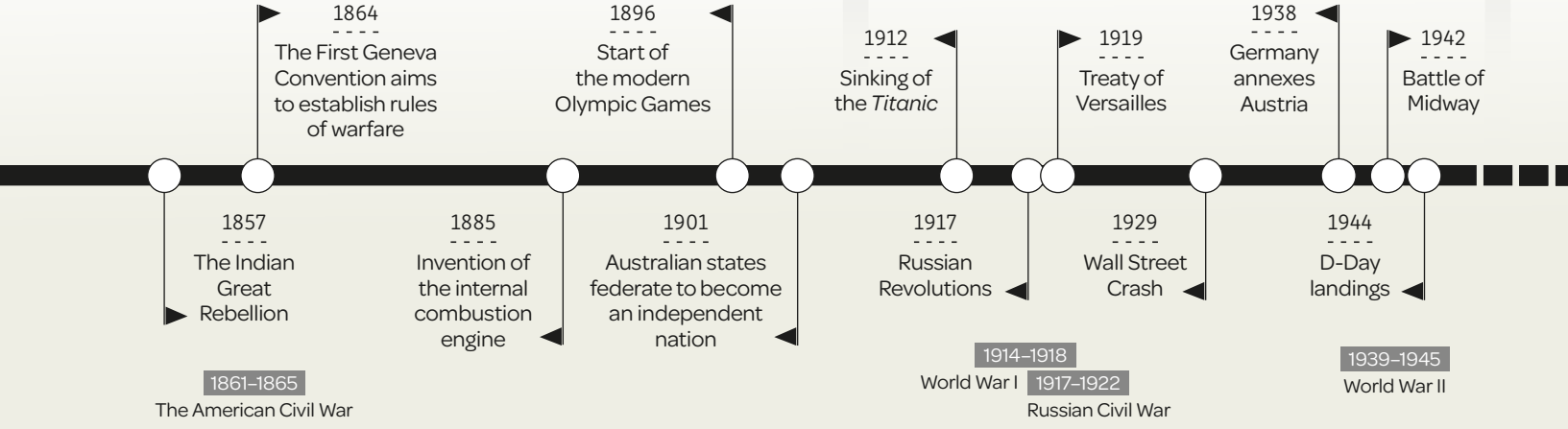
Background and origins

1. Describe the difference between arithmetic and exponential change.
2. Describe how the invention of the steam engine created change.
3. Explain the origins of imperialism and nationalism.
4. Evaluate the impact of the forces of change on society in the period 1750 to 1945.

Continuity and change

1. Describe how battles and conflicts changed in the period 1750 to 1945.
2. Explain how technology led to change.
3. Explain what changes led to the rise of nation–states and empires.
4. Evaluate the impact of intellectual thinking and philosophy on maintaining continuity or creating change in society.

HOW TO
Continuity and change, page 495



1.2

What was the significance of the Industrial Revolution?

The period from the middle of the 18th century to the early 20th century was characterised by industrialisation and rapid change in the ways people lived, worked and thought. The term 'Industrial Revolution' is used by historians to describe these massive changes.

Impact of the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution began in Britain in the second half of the 18th century. It transformed the country's economy from one based on agriculture to one based on manufacturing, and led to radical changes in technology, machinery and transport. It also transformed the three main elements in the process of production: land, labour and capital.

A major effect of the Industrial Revolution was population shifts. In Britain, people moved from rural areas into towns and cities. This process is called **urbanisation**. Massive ironworks were also built in areas where coal was located. People were attracted to these places for work.

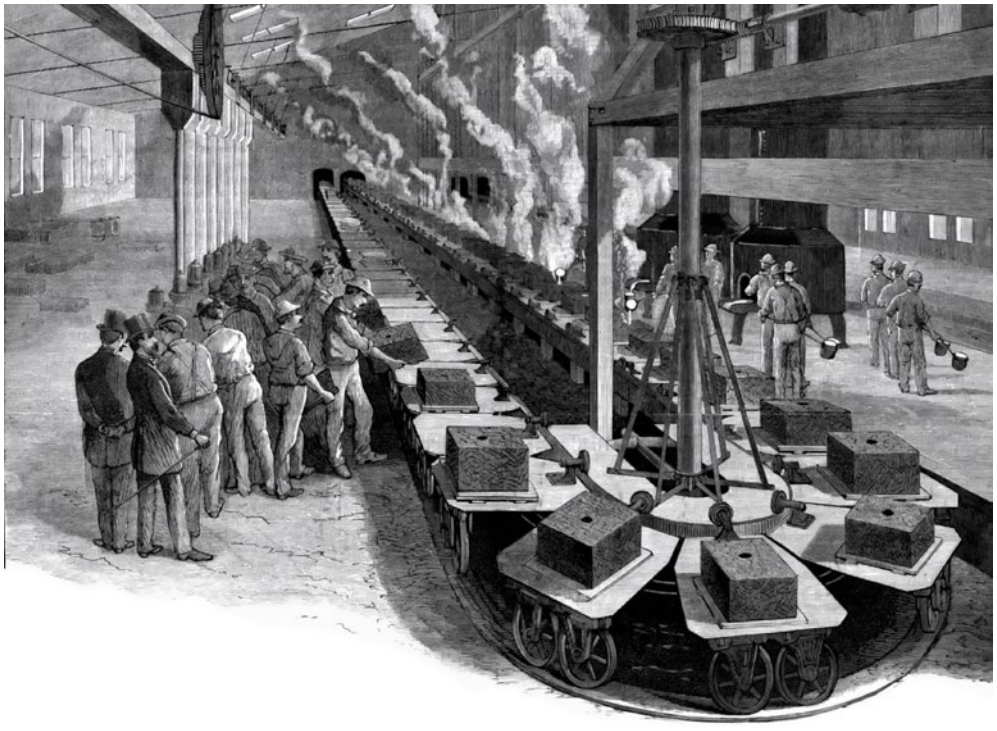
While the Industrial Revolution created wealth for some, it led to a life affected by unemployment, economic depression and slum-living for others.

The new factory system was more efficient, but it was also generally brutal. Men, women and children were exploited in dirty and often dangerous working environments. Working hours were long and employers kept wages as low as possible. Overcrowded and insanitary **slums** grew up around the factories or in poor, working-class parts of towns and cities.

By the end of the 18th century, industrialisation was spreading into the rest of Europe and North America. It was also at this time that Britain colonised Australia. The First Fleet anchored in Sydney Cove in January 1788.

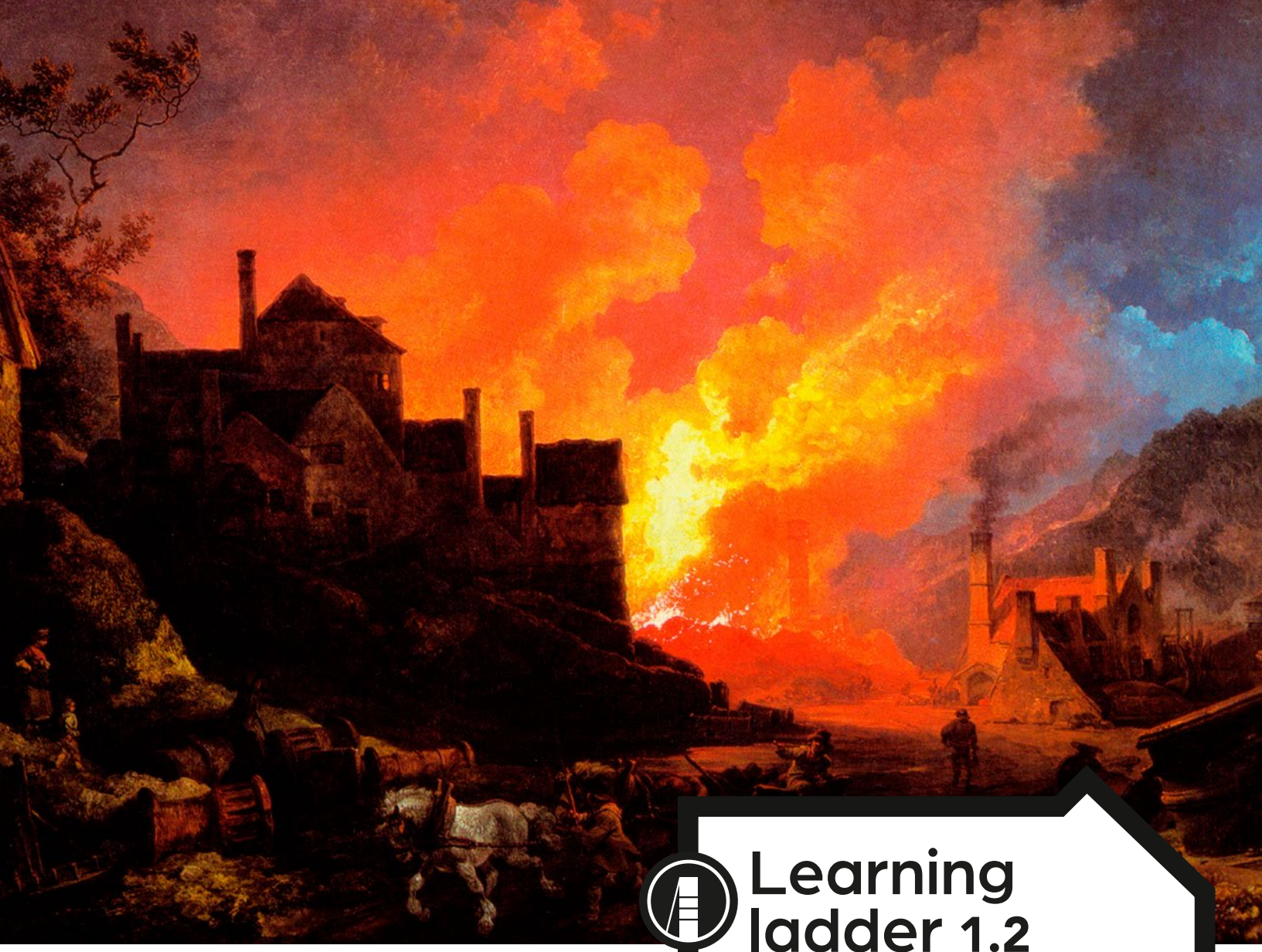
Before long, the technologies that gave rise to industrialisation were being employed in Australia. A steam mill, for example, was used in Sydney's Darling Harbour from 1813. However, for the next century Australia would mainly rely on the industrial output of Britain rather than develop its own manufacturing industries. Agriculture remained the primary industry of the country.

The Industrial Revolution had a significant impact on the lives of many people. It contributed to the rise of European nationalism and imperialism and led to new economic, social and political ideas.



Source 1: Early production line at a Westinghouse foundry in Pittsburgh, USA in 1890. A conveyor belt carries components to different parts of the factory to make railway brakes. The workers on the left are placing large casts (moulds) of the brakes on small trolleys. They move the casts to the men on the right for filling with molten metal, which is poured into the cast through the hole in the top

Production lines like this greatly speeded up manufacturing processes and allowed heavy industry to become more efficient.



Source 2: Coalbrookdale by Night, 1801. This oil painting by Philippe Jacques de Loutherbourg shows the Bedlam furnaces on the Severn River in England at night while the blast furnaces were being 'tapped' (when the molten metal is taken from the bottom).

Impact of mass production

The methods of **mass production** employed during the Industrial Revolution were not as sophisticated as they were to become in the 20th century. However, early mass production techniques allowed for huge increases in the volume of goods produced. Greater quantities of goods also meant lower per unit costs, making mass-produced goods cheaper and more available to the lower classes.

For example, porcelain dinner plates, produced in Europe from the 1700s, began to be mass-produced from around 1815. This made them increasingly affordable, so they were no longer only for wealthy people. Mass production also had a downside. It could flood markets and cause economic turmoil, such as the Great Depression of the 1930s.

Learning ladder 1.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Where and when did industrialisation begin?
2. Describe the effects of the Industrial Revolution on Britain.
3. Explain the impact of mass production.
4. Evaluate the significance of the Industrial Revolution on society.

Cause and effect

1. Describe what caused the population to relocate from rural areas to cities.
2. Source 2: Describe what this source tells us about the impact of industrialisation.
3. Explain the effect of the Industrial Revolution on the Australian manufacturing industry.
4. Explain how the Industrial Revolution caused negative impacts on the lives of working people and their families.

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1.3

Where and why did people move?

The Industrial Revolution resulted in the movement of peoples from the 'Old World' to the 'New World'. Slaves and convicts were transported across the ocean to work to supply factories in industrialised countries with raw materials.

Migration for work

The Industrial Revolution saw many millions of people move. However, not all of them wanted to move. Many were displaced, such as the English rural workers who lost their employment due to the **enclosure** movement (see 2.2). Likewise, the Scottish people of the Highlands were forced off their land in the 18th and 19th centuries. These 'Highland clearances' saw mass migration of people to other parts of Scotland and to North America.

For those who moved by choice, the main motivation was to find employment. People also wanted to make a better life for themselves and their children. Some moved within their country, from the rural areas to the city. Others left their country, with many British migrants moving to other parts of the British Empire, including Australia, America, Canada and South Africa.

> The great tide of Emigration flows steadily westward. The principal emigrants are Irish peasants and labourers. It is calculated that at least four out of every five persons who leave the shores of the old country to try their fortunes in the new, are Irish. Since the fatal years of the potato famine and the cholera, the annual numbers of emigrants have gone on increasing, until they have become so great as to suggest the idea, and almost justify the belief, of a gradual depopulation of Ireland.

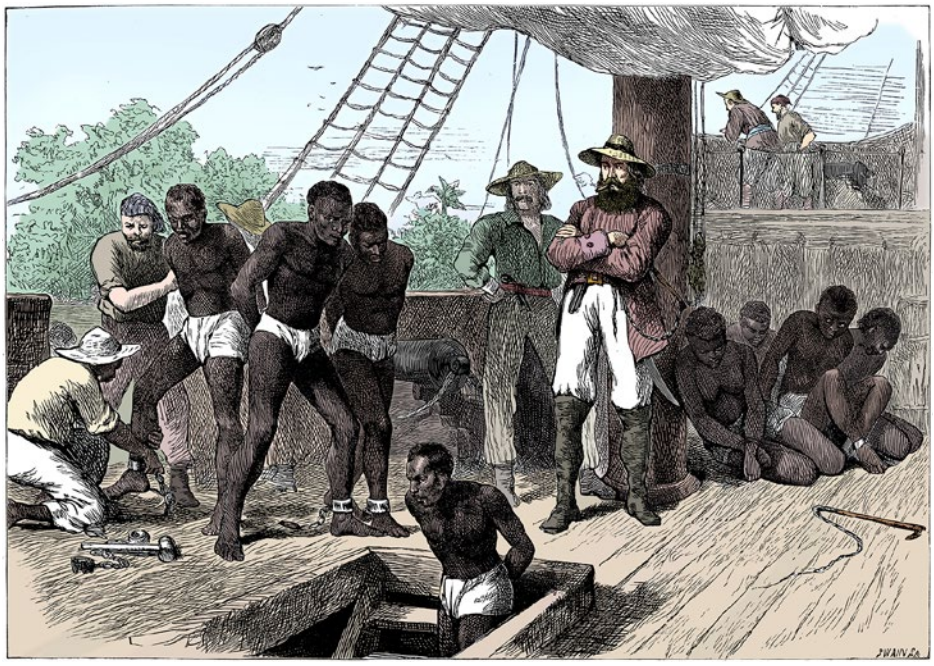
Source 1: *The Illustrated London News*, 6 July, 1850

Source 2: Irish emigrants leaving for the United States. 'As the ship is towed out, hats are raised, handkerchiefs are waved, and a loud and long-continued shout of farewell is raised from the shore, and cordially responded to from the ship. It is then, if at any time, that the eyes of the emigrants begin to moisten with regret at the thought that they are looking for the last time at the old country – that country which, although, in all probability, associated principally with the remembrance of sorrow and suffering, of semi-starvation, and a constant battle for the merest crust necessary to support existence is, nevertheless, the country of their fathers, the country of their childhood, and consecrated to their hearts by many a token.' [*The Illustrated London News*, 6 July, 1850]

Slaves and convicts

Around 12 500 000 slaves were forcibly removed from their countries from around 1500 to the 1850s. Approximately 50 000 British convicts were transported to the North American and West Indian colonies in the 17th and 18th centuries.

Australia was the first country to build a society based on convict labour. Between 1788 and 1852, over 152 000 convicts were sent to Eastern Australia, and around 9500 convicts were sent to Western Australia between 1849 and 1869. Convict labour was responsible for many of Australia's first government and commercial buildings, bridges and roads.



▲ **Source 3:** Captives being brought on board a slave ship on the West Coast of Africa bound for Brazil, c. 1880. Britain had outlawed slavery in 1833.

Learning ladder 1.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What were the 'Highland clearances'?
2. Describe the reasons why people from the United Kingdom chose to move.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain the events that led many people from Ireland to emigrate to new lands.
4. Explain the relationship between the Industrial Revolution and the rise of slavery.

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Describe the perspective this source provides of Irish emigrants.
2. Source 2: Describe the perspective this source provides of Irish emigrants.
3. Source 3: Explain the perspective of the slave traders towards people living on the West Coast of Africa.
4. Explain the perspective of the British Government towards convicts that led to the decision to introduce transportation.

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1.4

How did imperialism shape the world?

Early maritime exploration and the Industrial Revolution enabled European powers to forge vast empires, reconfigure borders and transform societies. The wealth of these empires was extracted from the colonised countries through the **exploitation** of both their natural and human resources.

What is imperialism?

Imperialism is a policy in which one nation extends its rule or influence over other nations by force or through political and economic control. Throughout history powerful countries expanded their borders in pursuit of wealth and resources. While imperialism affected many regions around the world – from Europe and Africa to the Americas and the Pacific – its effects in Asia were profound.

European imperial expansion and maritime exploration

Maritime exploration in the 15th century opened up the Atlantic to Europeans, while voyages across the Indian Ocean from the 1490s brought them into contact with Asia. The Portuguese discovered a **route** around the Cape of Good Hope in 1505 and by 1516 had established a vast empire in the East. In 1602 the Dutch East India Company was formed with its headquarters in Batavia (modern-day Jakarta, Indonesia) and soon ended the Portuguese trade **monopoly** by importing about 2.6 million tonnes of cargo from Asia over the next two centuries. Meanwhile, the British East India Company, set up in 1600, began trading with India and grew very powerful on the subcontinent.

Source 2: An 1892 caricature of businessman Cecil Rhodes, a major advocate of British imperialism. Rhodes led British efforts to exploit Africa and helped found the colonies that eventually become the nations of Zimbabwe (formerly known as Rhodesia) and South Africa.

Source 1: Major events for the period 1750–1900

key ideas timeline.

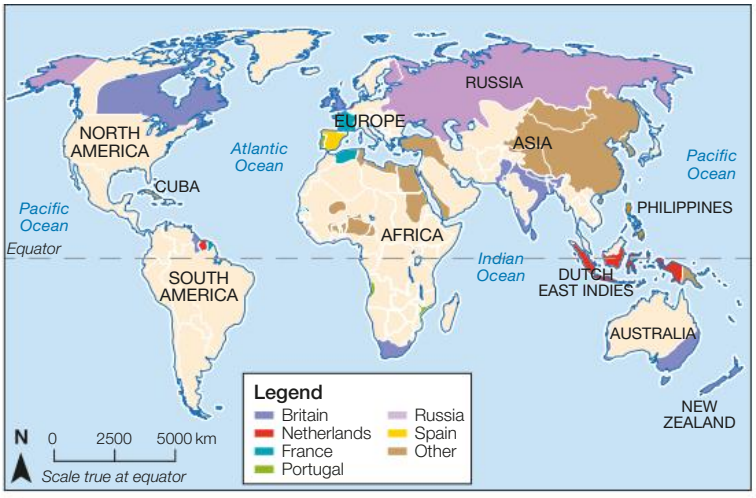
- **1763** – The Seven Years' War concludes, leaving Britain the major power in Europe
- **1783** – American colonies successfully revolt and leave British rule
- **1800** – The Dutch government takes control of the Dutch East India Company, creating the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia)
- **1819** – Singapore founded as an outpost of the British Empire
- **1839** – The Opium Wars occur between China and Britain
- **1842** – Treaty of Nanking cedes Hong Kong to the British

Initially driven by a desire for oriental merchandise, European imperialism was largely commercial. However, with the Industrial Revolution came a greater demand for raw materials, including tea, rubber, spices and silk. As industrialising nations such as Britain, France and later the United States looked to Asia – and even to places like Australia and Canada – the region became even more attractive. This phase of '**old imperialism**' eventually gave way to '**new imperialism**' in the later 19th century, when both established and rising powers expanded their formal control over territories.

Colonial expansion in Asia

In Asia, Western colonial powers rapidly established their presence. The British East India Company grew powerful enough to rule over India (later formally controlled by the British Raj) while the Dutch united much of the Indonesian archipelago as the Dutch East Indies. The French established **protectorates** and colonies in Indochina (covering Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos) and the Portuguese and Spanish secured territories such as Macau, the Philippine Islands and parts of India. Maps from the period reveal a mosaic of colonial holdings – territories like Siam (Thailand), Malaya (the Malay Peninsula region of South-East Asia) and Hong Kong emerged as key areas of economic and strategic importance.

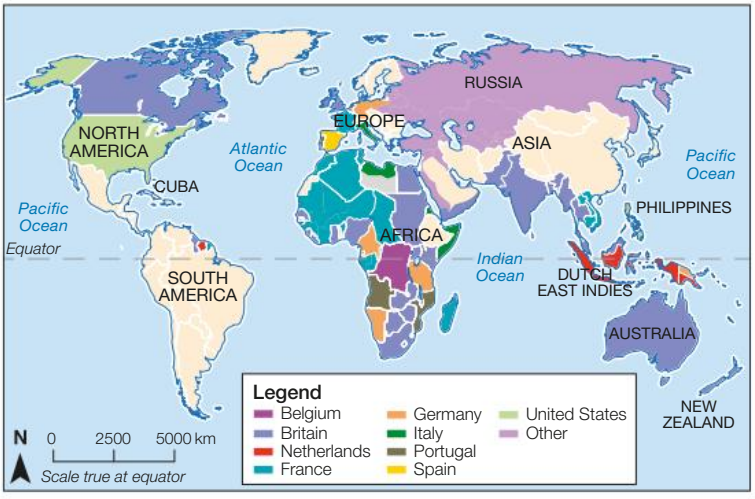
World empires in 1848



Source: John Haywood (ed.) (2009), *Atlas of World History: From the Ancient World to the Present*, Sandcastle Books, London, Map 5.02.

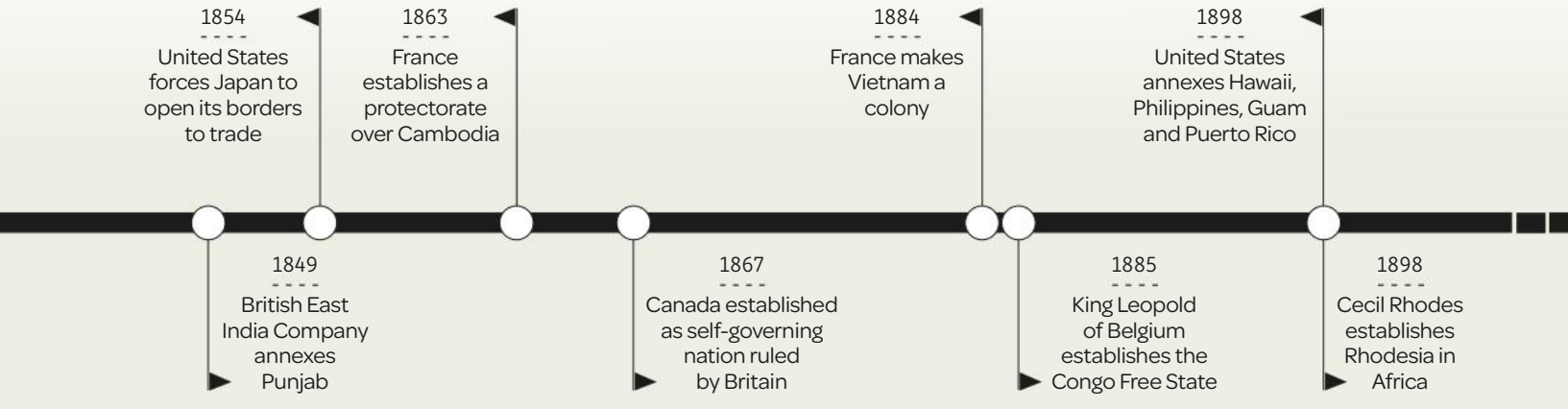
Source 3: Old imperialism saw the growth and spread of European empires, alongside the older empires of the Ottomans, Persians and Qing.

World empires 1914

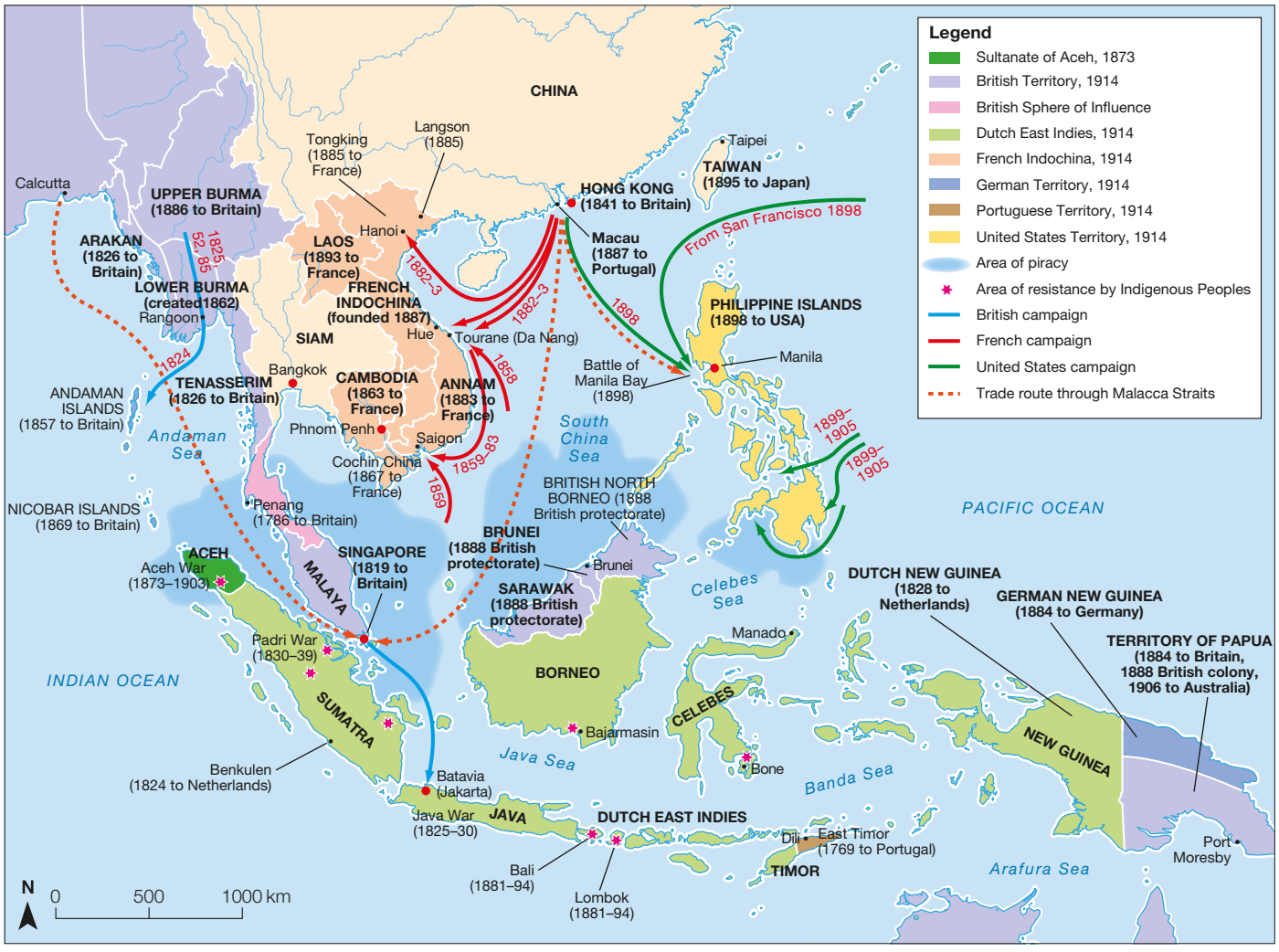


Source: John Haywood (ed.) (2009), *Atlas of World History: From the Ancient World to the Present*, Sandcastle Books, London, Map 5.04.

Source 4: Under new imperialism, large parts of the world were brought under colonial control.



Colonialism, South-East Asia, 1769 to 1914



Source 5: Western colonial powers vied for power and control over maritime trade with Asia.

Source: John Haywood (ed.) (2009), *Atlas of World History: From the Ancient World to the Present*, Sandcastle Books, London, Map 5.22.

Impact of imperial expansion

Imperialism transformed Asia in many ways. Colonial powers reorganised trade, exploited natural resources and imposed new laws and administrative systems. As they established colonies, they also introduced Christianity to local communities. Local populations were often **oppressed** and traditional cultures were disrupted – even as Western ideas and institutions such as railways and telegraph lines (originally built for commercial and administrative purposes) were introduced and later helped to unite vast regions. At the same time, fierce competition among imperial powers led to brutal conflicts and left a legacy of division that still affects the region today.

Source 6: Richard Paton, The Battle of Quiberon Bay, 20 November 1759, artwork undated

Source 7: Michael Angelo Hayes (artist) and James Henry Lynch (lithographer), *The 18th (Royal Irish) Regiment of Foot at the storming of the fort of Amoy, China, 26 August 1841* during the Opium Wars

Learning ladder 1.4

Background and origins

1. Which European country first opened up maritime trade with Asia?
2. Define the terms 'imperialism' and 'colonialism'.
3. Explain why European nations were so interested in establishing a presence in Asia.
4. Explain how new imperialism differed from old imperialism and how this would change international relations.
5. Source 2: Analyse this image and its caption. What does Rhodes' stance in this image tell you about British colonial ambitions in Africa?

Chronology

1. Source 1: Identify two major colonial events that happened before 1850.
2. Place these five events from Source 2 in chronological order: British annexation of Punjab, founding of Singapore, establishment of the Congo Free State, Opium Wars, United States annexes the Philippines.
3. What pattern can you see in the timing of imperial expansion across Asia from 1763 to 1898?
4. How did the pace or nature of imperialism change between the early 1800s and the late 1800s? Use dates and examples to support your answer.

Chronology, page 490

HOW TO

1.5

How did the American and French Revolutions change the world?

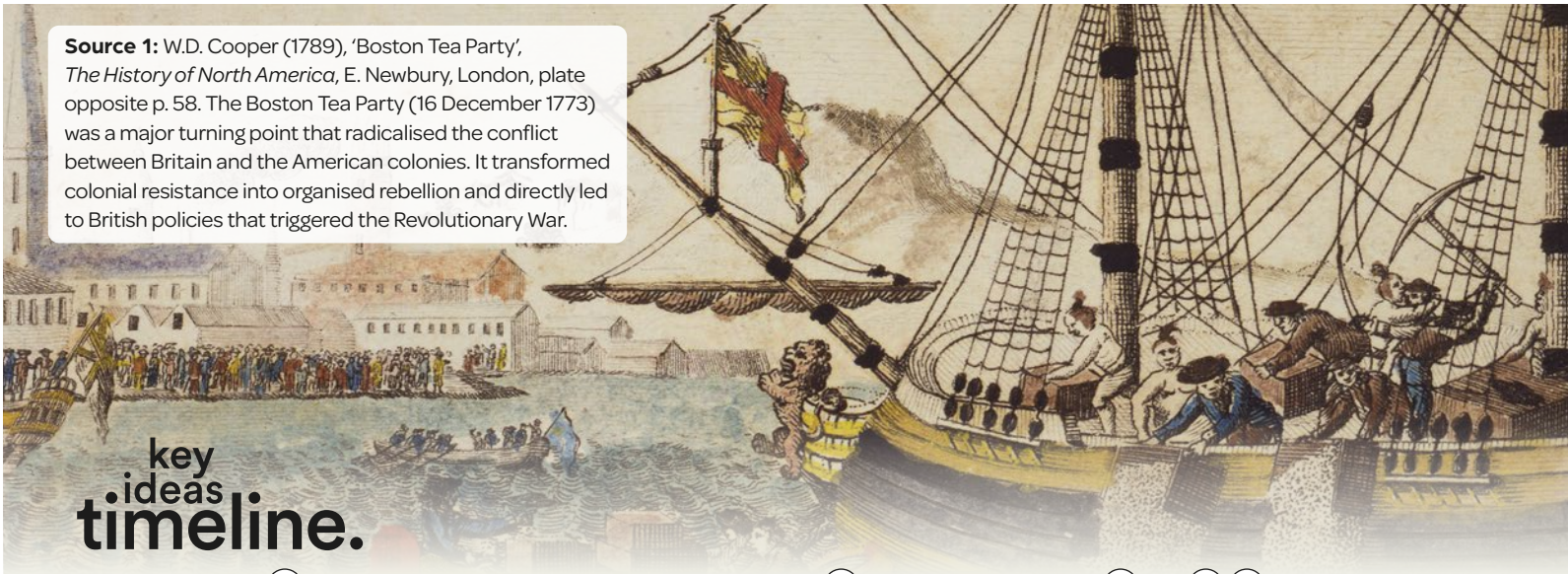
Influenced by the Enlightenment, the American Revolutionary War and the French Revolution provided part of the foundations for modern day human rights, democratic ideals and the rule of law in governance.

The American Revolution

In the American Revolutionary War (1775–1783), 13 North American British colonies broke free from the British Empire to form the United States of America. They objected to British-imposed taxes they saw as unfair, to restrictions on their colonial governments and to the stationing of British troops in America.

The American colonists used the Enlightenment thinker John Locke's ideas about natural rights (life, liberty and property) to argue against the rule of Britain and demand more democratic rights. This can be seen in the Declaration of Independence, which states that all men are endowed with 'unalienable Rights' to 'Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness' (Source 4). However, notably, Benjamin Franklin – the main editor of the Declaration – possessed several slaves of African descent.

Further, the US Constitution (1787) created a framework for representative democracy, separation of powers and constitutional governance. These ideas inspired subsequent democratic movements and legal protections worldwide, promoting the expansion of human rights, political participation and the rule of law in modern governance.



Source 1: W.D. Cooper (1789), 'Boston Tea Party', *The History of North America*, E. Newbury, London, plate opposite p. 58. The Boston Tea Party (16 December 1773) was a major turning point that radicalised the conflict between Britain and the American colonies. It transformed colonial resistance into organised rebellion and directly led to British policies that triggered the Revolutionary War.

key ideas **timeline.**

Source 2: Key events of the American and French Revolutions

- **1770** – Boston Massacre, British soldiers fire on a crowd of American protestors
- **1783** – Treaty of Paris ends American Revolutionary War
- **1789** – Storming of the Bastille
- **1791** – American Bill of Rights ratified
- **1792** – French Republic established

Source 3: An engraving produced by Paul Revere portraying the Boston Massacre. Images like this fuelled anti-British feelings in America.

In Congress, July 4, 1776
The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America
We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. – That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed, – That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness.

Source 4: Part of the American Declaration of Independence

Source 5: The Storming of the Bastille took place on 14 July 1789. The Bastille was a fortress and prison in Paris, and it symbolised royal authority. This event marked the start of the French Revolution and showed the people's anger against the king's power.

The French Revolution

Unlike the American Revolution, the French Revolution (1789–1799) was a movement to overthrow a monarchy. It did not involve breaking off from an empire. However, it was inspired by the American Revolution and also sought to establish a new democratic system based on the Enlightenment ideals of liberty, equality and human rights.

Ironically, the French, under King Louis XVI, had supplied troops, ammunition and arms to the American Continental Army to fight the British. The massive debt built up by France was one of the factors that made life for its lower classes miserable. This inequality brought on the French Revolution.

Despite being driven by Enlightenment ideas, the French Revolution was notoriously bloody. Initially, the nobility and supporters of the monarchy were publicly executed; later, the revolutionaries turned on each other. During the **Reign of Terror** (1793–1794) around 28 000 people were executed or massacred and a further 10 000 died in prison. Nevertheless, the revolution resulted in the abolition of feudal privileges (e.g. peasants having to give part of their harvest to a local lord) and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. This established fundamental human rights, emphasising individual freedoms and the equality of all citizens before the law.

Source 6: The execution of Marie Antoinette (wife of King Louis XVI), 16 October 1793, during the Reign of Terror period of the French Revolution. Marie Antoninette became a scapegoat during this period due to her lavish lifestyle and perceived indifference to the French people. Her execution was part of a wider effort by revolutionaries to remove political threats, such as the royal family.

Source 7: The motto of the French Revolution – Liberty, Equality, Fraternity – became a central part of modern French identity. These ideas continue to underpin modern democratic systems.

Learning ladder 1.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What were the three areas at the centre of John Locke's ideas about natural rights?
2. Describe how the American colonists used Enlightenment ideas to justify independence.
3. Explain the historical significance of the American Revolutionary War.
4. Explain the historical significance of the French Revolution.
5. Evaluate the impact of Enlightenment ideas on bringing about change in both revolutions.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Identify the source type and explain how it may have influenced public opinion at the time.
2. Source 7: Describe how the message in this source reflects the values of the French Revolution.
3. Source 4: Explain how the Declaration of Independence uses Enlightenment ideas to justify revolution.
4. Source 6: How does this source reflect the goals and contradictions of the French Revolution?
5. Sources 1, 4 and 5: Evaluate which of these sources best helps a historian understand why these revolutions were turning points in world history. Justify your answer.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

1.6

What caused World War I and what was the war's significance?

World War I was caused by long- and short-term factors. These included international tensions over trade, naval rivalries and colonial jealousies. Sixteen million people died during the war and over 20 million were wounded. By the end of the war, the world had been fundamentally changed.

Causes of World War I

The main causes of World War I were rooted in a combination of political, economic and social tensions in Europe.

- **Militarism** led to an **arms race**. European powers built up massive militaries, increasing the likelihood of conflict.
- **Alliances** formed between major powers, such as the Triple Entente (France, Russia and the United Kingdom) and the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy). This drew multiple countries into the conflict once war began.
- Nationalism fuelled desires for territorial expansion and independence, particularly in the Balkans.

The trigger for the war was the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in June 1914 by a Serbian nationalist. This set off a chain reaction of military mobilisations and declarations of war.

The significance of World War I

By the start of the 20th century, tension had developed between the European powers. Much of this could be linked to the outcomes of the Industrial Revolution – rivalry for markets, desire for colonies and new ideas about nationalism. The outbreak of World War I in 1914 led to the worst global destruction in world history to that time.

Source 1: Embroidered postcard from World War I, celebrating the 'sincere friendship' between France and Great Britain.

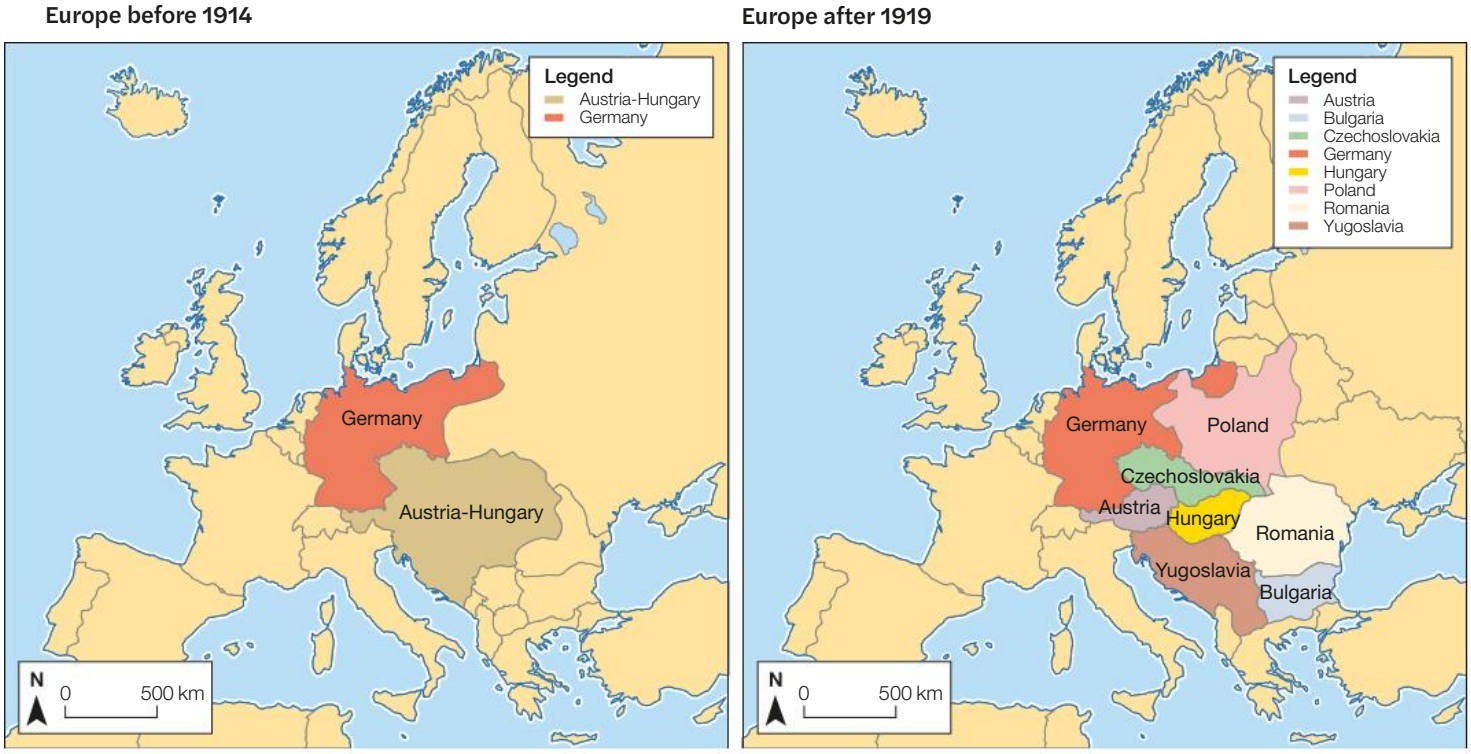
Germany was blamed for causing the war, and its traditional enemy, France, ensured that the peace settlement punished the Germans and made the country pay heavily for the cost of the war. The map of Europe was redrawn after World War I, without the former empires of Russia, Austria-Hungary or Türkiye. New countries such as Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia were created. The first communist state also emerged from the collapse of the Russian monarchy.

The end of World War I saw an international desire to create an organisation that would ensure world peace. Led by the United States in its new role as a world power, the **League of Nations** was formed.

The Paris Peace Conference and The Treaty of Versailles

At the end of World War I, leaders from 32 countries met at the Paris Peace Conference, which began on 12 January 1919, to discuss the treaties to be made with each of the defeated powers. Negotiations were dominated by Britain (represented by prime minister David Lloyd George), France (represented by prime minister Georges Clemenceau), Italy (represented by prime minister Vittorio Orlando), Japan (represented by a former prime minister, Saionji Kinmochi) and the United States (represented by president Woodrow Wilson). Australia was represented by its prime minister, William (Billy) Hughes.

Division existed among these representatives on how harshly the defeated countries should be treated. The United States wanted a fair and just settlement, for example, whereas France (and Australia) wanted Germany to be severely punished.



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: Europe before and after World War I

The French were to have their way. Under the terms of the **Treaty of Versailles**, signed on 28 June 1919, Germany:

- was reduced in size
- lost its overseas colonies
- was demilitarised (its army was capped at 100 000 people, and it was limited in the weaponry it could have)
- could not unite with Austria
- had to pay £6600 million in **reparations** to the Allies for the cost of the war. (This is equivalent to $2.6 trillion today.)

Germany protested the severity of the treaty but they eventually signed it. The alternative was invasion by the Allied powers.

Some historians have argued that the Treaty of Versailles helped the Nazis come to power. The harshness of the treaty caused economic problems in Germany and created a desire for revenge. In Germany, demonstrations and protests were held against the treaty. Even Prince August Wilhelm, one of Kaiser Wilhelm's sons, became a great supporter of Adolf Hitler and joined in the protests.

Learning ladder 1.6

Impact and legacies

1. Name three causes of World War I.
2. Source 2: Describe what happens to the map of Europe after World War I.
3. Describe a positive legacy that came out of World War I.
4. Explain what some historians see as the legacy of the Treaty of Versailles.

Cause and effect

1. What was the effect of the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in June 1914?
2. Describe what caused tension between the European powers in the lead up to World War I.
3. Explain the effect of the Treaty of Versailles on Germany.
4. Analyse the main causes of World War I and suggest which one was most responsible for creating a world war.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

1.7

What political ideologies proliferated during the interwar period?

Between the wars, two key political ideologies thrived. These were fascism and socialism. The social, economic and political instability that followed World War I generated social unrest, and created the conditions necessary for the spread of these ideologies.

The Russian Revolutions

In March and October 1917, two revolutions occurred as part of the Russian Civil War. The two main groups in this war were the White Russians and the **socialist** Bolsheviks. The March revolution overthrew the Russian Empire, and the Bolsheviks' success in the October revolution led to the formation of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, headed by Vladimir Lenin. This made Russia the first communist state, and with Russia serving as a model and source of inspiration, **communist** ideals became appealing to people during the interwar years.

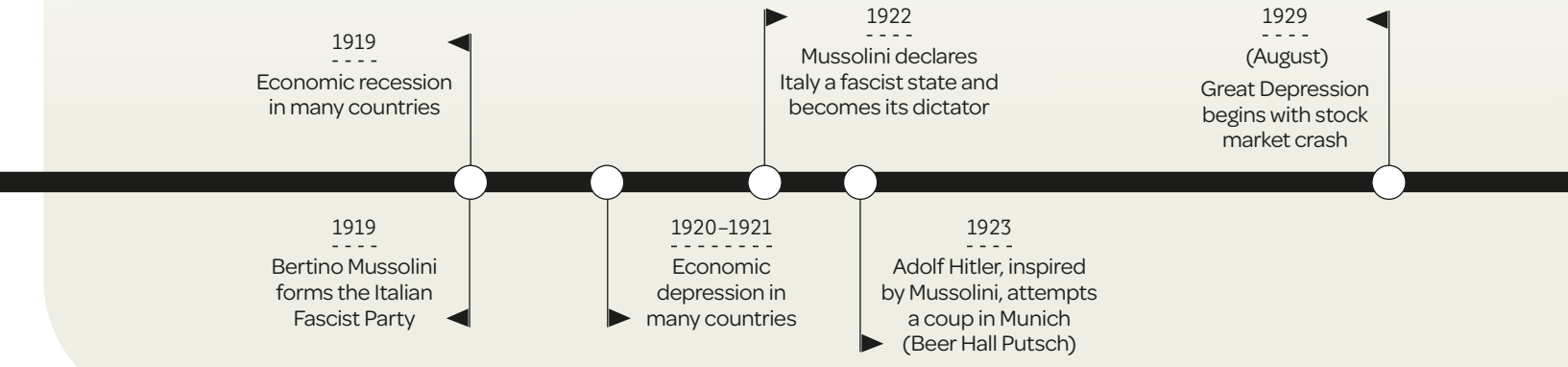
In the capitalist countries, however, the emergence of a communist state was seen as a major threat. Anti-socialist and anti-communist feelings were critical to the British Conservative Party's electoral dominance during the interwar period. In the United States, too, the 'Red Scare' played an important role in politics. There was a growing fear of communist **infiltration** and revolution, especially in the context of labour strikes, the rise of labour unions and the global spread of communist ideology.

Who did communism appeal to?

People affected by economic hardship	Attracted by the promise of the redistribution of wealth, nationalisation of industry and end to private property
Working class and rural populations	Tired of the social inequality under capitalism; found communism's ideals of social justice, workers' rights and a classless society attractive
Trade unions and labour movements	Drawn to the ideals of empowering workers and dismantling capitalism
Intellectuals	Fascinated by Soviet achievements, such as in land reform and social welfare

key ideas timeline.

Source 1: Timeline of the spread of fascism



Source 2: Propaganda was an important tool used by the Bolsheviks. This poster, from the Civil War period, reads: 'Wrangel (a key White military figure of the 1920s) still lives. Finish him off without mercy.'

Source 3: Anti-communist poster from the United States, c.1920

1931 — Formation of The New Guard (fascist-inspired, right-wing paramilitary organisation) in NSW

1932 — British Labour conservative Oswald Mosely forms the British Union of Fascists

1933 — Nazi Party comes to power in Germany

1933 — Portugal becomes a fascist state under António de Oliveira Salazar

1934 — French fascist insurrection in Paris

1936 — German American Bund formed in the United States

1939 — Spain becomes a fascist state under Francisco Franco

The rise of fascism

With the demise of the European empires during WWI, many people thought this would pave the way for new nations founded on the democratic values of legal and social justice for all, tolerance and universal suffrage. However, in reality, politics took a turn to the right, leading to the rise of fascism.

This happened for a number of reasons:

- economic recession and depression
- fear of the growing power of the working classes
- propaganda
- different types of nationalism
- social instability
- political instability.

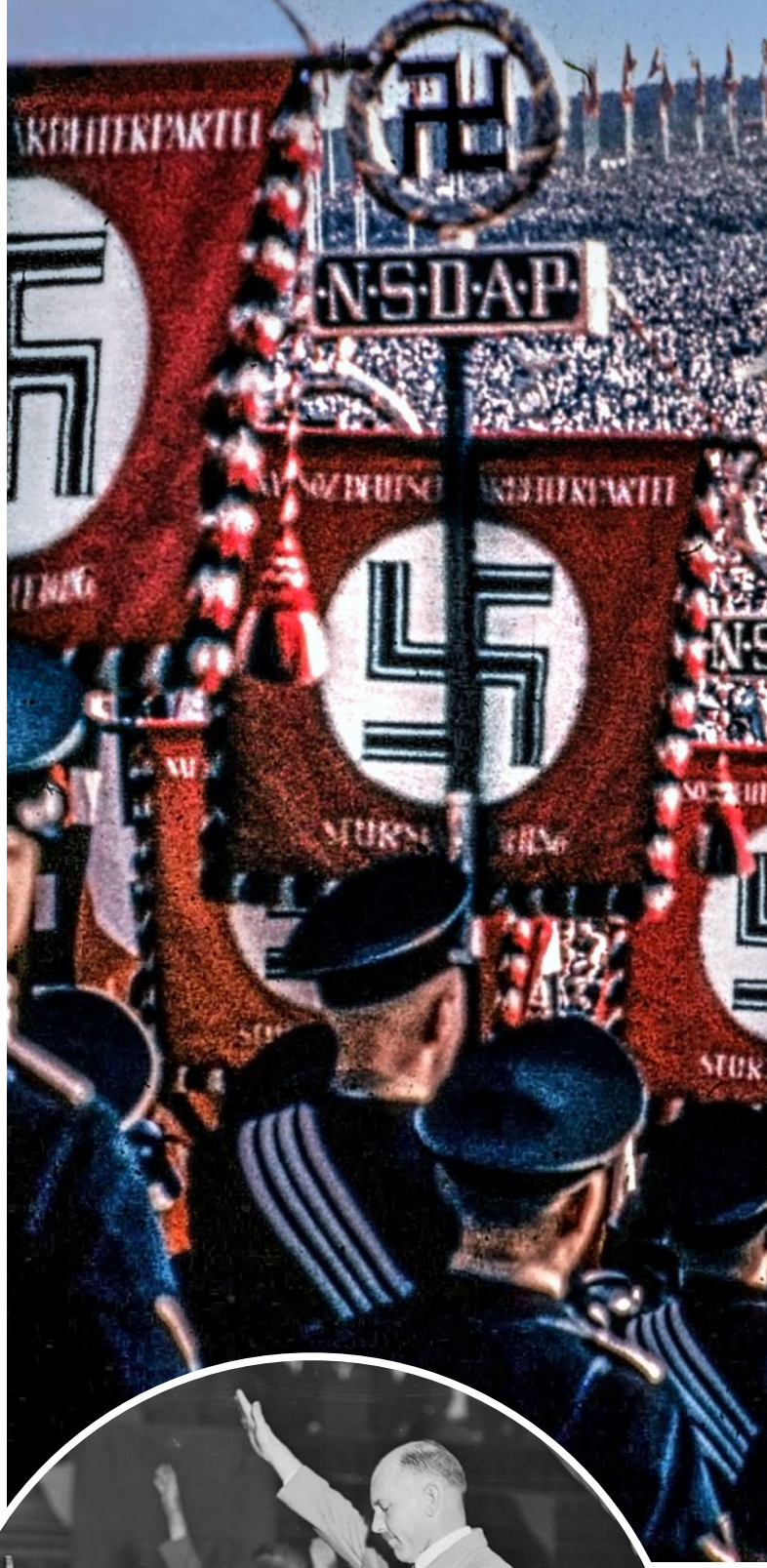
Fascism emerged in Italy, with the formation of the Fascist Party in 1919 under Benito Mussolini. Fascism was strongly anti-communist and anti-leftist, and instead advocated radical nationalism, militarism and a **totalitarian state**. Fascism was also associated with **eugenics** – the creation of a 'pure' race.

Who did fascism appeal to?

Disillusioned war veterans	Attracted by its focus on militarism and restoring national pride
The middle and upper classes	Feared communism and saw fascism as a way to protect their property and the social order
Nationalists	Attracted by the ideals of national unity, pride and expansion through militarism
Anti-communists	Found fascism's violent stance against leftists appealing
Churches	Sought to fight against atheistic communism

Politics in Australia

Between the wars, Australia quarantined itself from the rest of the world. Many Australians feared the political forces that had been unleashed by war, such as communism and fascism. This period saw the establishment of a new right-wing democratic political party: the Country Party (now the Nationals), formed in 1920. In 1922, this new party formed a coalition with the Nationalist Party (which would become the United Australia Party in 1931 and then the Liberal Party as of 1944). This coalition kept the conservatives in power in Australia for much of the inter-war period (1919–1929 under Billy Hughes and Stanley Bruce; then again in 1932–1939 under Joseph Lyons).



Source 4: Leader of Australia's 'New Guard', Colonel Eric Campbell, saluting the organisation's members, NSW, 17 December 1931. Fascism never found much of a following in Australia.

Source 5: The Nuremberg Rallies were critical in spreading fascism. They used spectacle, propaganda and mass mobilisation to glorify Nazi ideology, unify followers and demonstrate the Nazi regime's power and control. The largest Nuremberg rally was held in 1938, with an estimated 700 000 people attending.

Learning ladder 1.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Vladimir Lenin?
2. Describe how the communists came to power in Russia.
3. Explain the appeal of fascism to sections of society.
4. The ideologies of communism and fascism became popular in Europe between the wars but not so in Australia. Evaluate these ideologies and suggest why they were less significant in Australia.

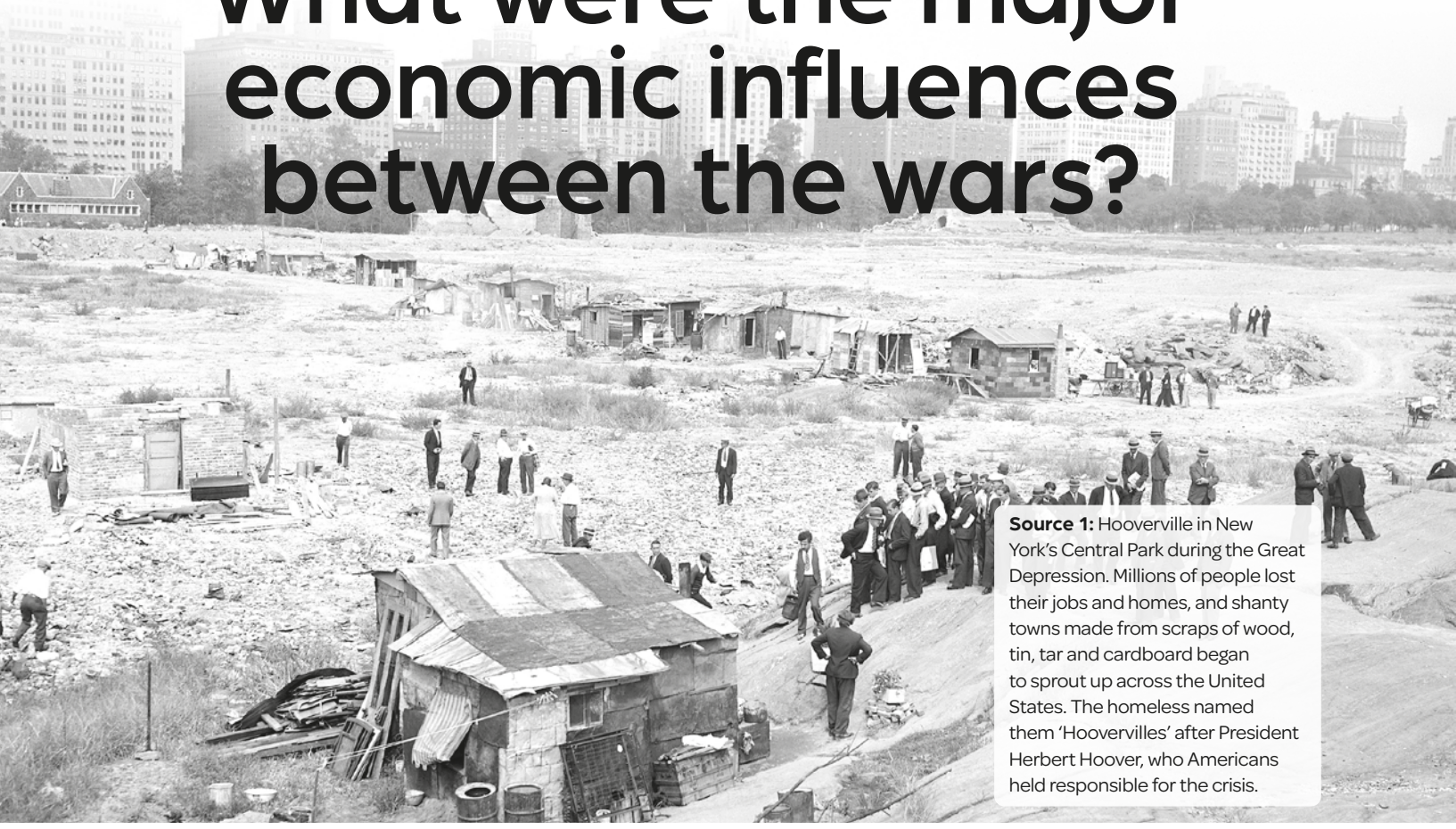
Perspectives

1. Describe the political perspective of Benito Mussolini.
2. Describe the perspective of British conservatives towards communism.
3. Source 3: Explain the perspective of communism presented in this poster.
4. Explain how social, economic and political instability can influence a person's perspective of society and their choice of ideologies such as communism and fascism.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

1.8

What were the major economic influences between the wars?



Source 1: Hooverville in New York's Central Park during the Great Depression. Millions of people lost their jobs and homes, and shanty towns made from scraps of wood, tin, tar and cardboard began to sprout up across the United States. The homeless named them 'Hoovervilles' after President Herbert Hoover, who Americans held responsible for the crisis.

After World War I, countries faced the challenge of recovering from war debts and rebuilding their societies. When the Great Depression hit in the 1930s, it was felt around the world, and continued to be felt right up to the start of World War II.

Post–war recovery and debt

After World War I, Australia faced the dual challenge of managing significant war debts and reintegrating over 300 000 returning soldiers into society. The Australian Government invested heavily in soldier settlement schemes, infrastructure projects and public works. To pay for this, loans were taken from Britain, adding to Australia's debt.

The Great Depression

In October 1929, the New York Stock Exchange, located on Wall Street, experienced a loss of confidence by share traders. Prices of stocks dropped dramatically, leading to a financial crisis that would affect the world (Source 3). International borrowing during World War I meant that the economies of many countries were linked. Although historians use 1929 to define the start of the Great Depression, its causes can be linked to financial decisions made by countries and individuals throughout the 1920s.

In Britain, the once strong manufacturing and mining industries of the Industrial Revolution had declined in the 1920s. With the crash on Wall Street, the United States called on countries, including Britain, to repay war loans. This worsened economic conditions, and, by 1933, unemployment in Britain had risen to 2.5 million, or 25 per cent of the workforce.

In Germany, the effects of the Great Depression were felt when the United States stopped providing loans after the Wall Street Crash. By 1931, as factories and businesses closed, over 5 million Germans were unemployed. In the 1933 election campaign, Adolf Hitler promised that if he was elected, he would tear up the Treaty of Versailles, end unemployment and make the nation strong once more.

On coming to power that year, he commenced actions that reduced the effects of the Great Depression for many German people. By 1936, Hitler had almost eliminated unemployment by increasing government spending, particularly in the manufacuring of machinery and weapons in preparation for war. This increase in spending was the opposite to the approach taken by other governments at the time.

In the United States, the 1920s had been a decade of prosperity. Many Americans invested their savings in shares and during the boom time they watched the value of their shares rise. All this came to an end when the stock market crashed.

Consumer spending (in billions)	1929	1933
Food	$19.5	$11.5
Housing	$11.5	$7.5
Clothing	$11.2	$5.4
Cars	$2.6	$0.8
Medical care	$2.9	$1.9
Value of shares on Wall Street	$89.0	$19.0

▲ **Source 2:** Effect of the Great Depression consumer spending in the United States [*Historical Statistics of the United States*, p. 319]

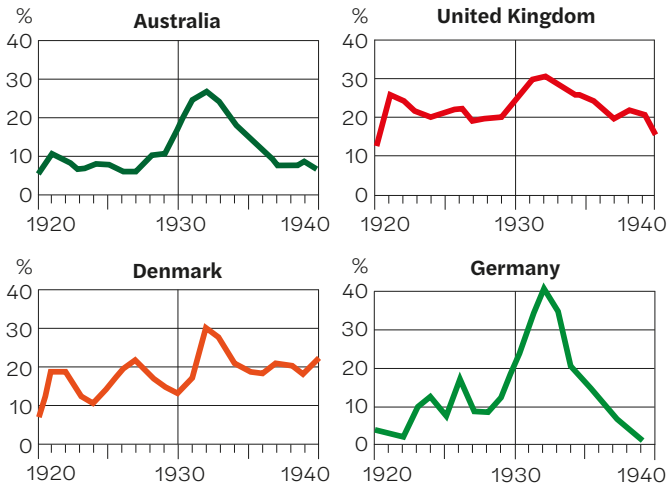
Effect in Australia

The Great Depression affected Australia because of its overseas borrowing, mainly with Britain. Between 1919 and 1929, the Australian government had borrowed over £200 million. With the United States demanding that Britain pay back its war loans, the British government in turn called on Australia to pay back its loans. To resolve this economic crisis, the Australian Government was advised to:

- cut costs and reduce spending
- pay back its loans to England
- reduce wages and the standard of living of the Australian people.

Australia's heavy reliance on agricultural exports made it vulnerable. The country suffered high unemployment, wage cuts and widespread poverty. To assist the unemployed, sustenance payments were introduced. These were coupons that could be exchanged for food. Some states, including New South Wales, provided relief work to the unemployed, such as road building and other construction projects. By 1938, the worst of the Great Depression was over.

Unemployment rate in selected countries, 1920–1940



▲ **Source 3:** The Great Depression affected countries around the world. [Data from Walter Galenson and Arnold Zellner (1957), 'International Comparison of Unemployment Rates', in NBER (ed), *The Measurement and Behavior of Unemployment*, pp. 439–584]

Learning ladder 1.8

Background and origins

1. Describe the background to the Great Depression in Australia.
2. Describe the origins of the Great Depression in Germany.
3. Explain how Hitler was able to come to power in Germany.
4. Evaluate the impact of the Great Depression on the rise and fall of the United States.

Cause and effect

1. Describe the effect of war debts and returning soldiers on Australia's economy.
2. Describe what caused the crash of the New York Stock Exchange (Wall Street).
3. Source 3: Explain the effect on unemployment in each country shown. When was unemployment at its worst?
4. Analyse the actions of Adolf Hitler to end the impact of the Great Depression in Germany. How was his approach different to others and how successful was he?

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

1.9

What was the significance of WWII?

World War II involved total war. All of the major powers channelled their human and material resources into a global conflict that would eventually cost around 65 million lives. It was also the only war in which nuclear weapons have been used.

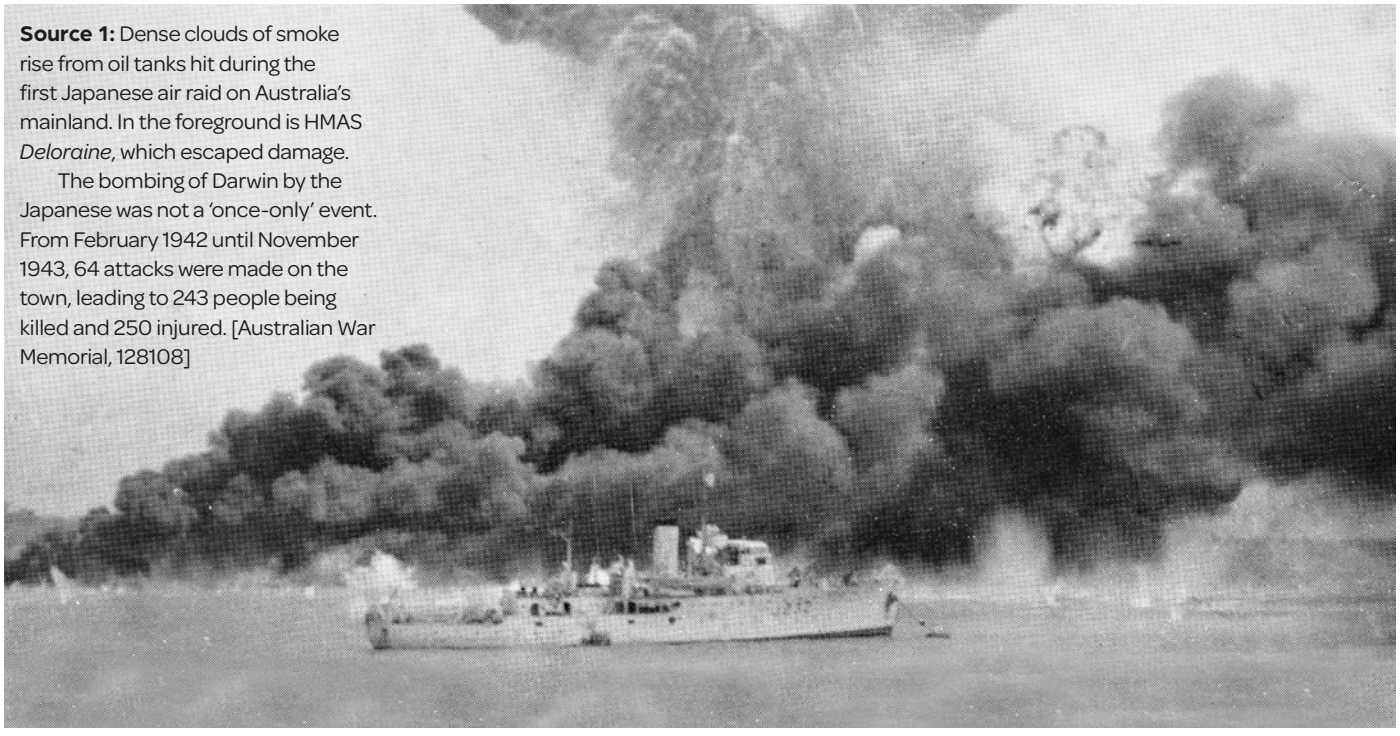
The significance of WWII

The rise of Hitler in Germany is seen by many historians as the main cause of World War II. A longer-term cause was German grievances over the treatment of their country during and after the Treaty of Versailles.

The war began on 3 September 1939, when Germany refused to accept an **ultimatum** from Britain and France to leave Poland after occupying the country. In 1940, Italy and Japan joined Germany to form an alliance known as 'the Axis powers'. Australia followed Britain into war as soon as the conflict started. In the European arena, Australian servicemen fought mainly in the Mediterranean, the Middle East and North Africa. After the commencement of the war in the Pacific, Australia focused its war efforts there.

World War II was the most significant event of the 20th century. Unlike World War I, which was mainly fought in Europe, the entry of Japan on the side of Germany made World War II a more global war. Unlike the situation in World War I, it was a real possibility that Australia could be invaded during World War II, especially following the fall of Singapore. The bombing of Darwin and the submarine attacks on Sydney Harbour brought home to Australian civilians just how real this possibility was.

World War II also signalled the beginning of the nuclear age. The dropping of atomic bombs on Japan led to the nuclear arms race that continues today. The devastation caused across the world by World War II was immense, with military and civilian deaths estimated at 65 million, accounting for 3 per cent of the global population at the time. Around 40 000 Australians died in the conflict.



Source 1: Dense clouds of smoke rise from oil tanks hit during the first Japanese air raid on Australia's mainland. In the foreground is HMAS *Deloraine*, which escaped damage.

The bombing of Darwin by the Japanese was not a 'once-only' event. From February 1942 until November 1943, 64 attacks were made on the town, leading to 243 people being killed and 250 injured. [Australian War Memorial, 128108]

Source 2: The Genbaku Dome was the only structure left standing in the area where the first atomic bomb exploded at Hiroshima in Japan on 6 August 1945. The building remains a stark reminder of war and the destructive force of nuclear weapons, but also expresses a hope for world peace.

Nazi Germany, led by Adolf Hitler, systemically and brutally killed more than 6 million European Jews. Millions of other people were also exterminated, including Roma (Gypsies), homosexuals, people with disabilities, Soviet prisoners of war, and other political and religious opponents. This mass murdering of people on a scale unimagined is known as the Holocaust.

When World War II ended in 1945, the major powers had hopes that The United Nations would be able to maintain world peace. The postwar era saw significant migration from Europe to other parts of the world, including Australia. Many of the old empires and colonies in parts of Asia and Africa (whose origins lay in the Industrial Revolution) crumbled as colonised nations asserted their independence. French Indochina eventually saw the rise of Vietnam, and the Dutch East-Indies gave way to a self-governing Indonesia. Australia moved from its traditional dependence on Britain to determining its own course in foreign affairs. However, it would be several decades before Australia would begin to view itself as part of the Asian region.

The developments in technology that came out of the war effort paved the way for an improved lifestyle in Western countries in the 1950s – from jet aeroplanes and portable radios to microwave ovens and penicillin. The world was ready to become 'modern'.

Learning ladder 1.9

Impact and legacies

1. Give a reason why World War II was a legacy of World War I.
2. Describe why a legacy of World War II was the nuclear age.
3. Explain the impact of Nazism on European Jews.
4. Analyse the legacies of World War II on Europe, Asia and Australia.

Significance

1. Source 1: What was the significance of Japanese attacks on the Australian mainland?
2. Source 2: Describe the significance of this building.
3. Explain why World War II has been called the most significant event of the 20th century.
4. Evaluate the long-term impact of World War II on technology, migration and imperialism.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

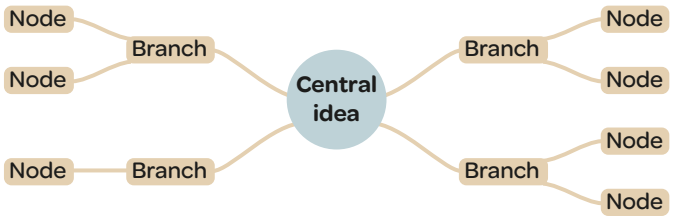
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to the making of the modern world.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Movement of people, 1.3
- Imperialism, 1.4
- American or French Revolution, 1.5
- Causes of WWI, 1.6
- Political ideologies, 1.7
- The Great Depression, 1.8

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

The Industrial Revolution (1750–1850)

2

How can I understand the Industrial Revolution?

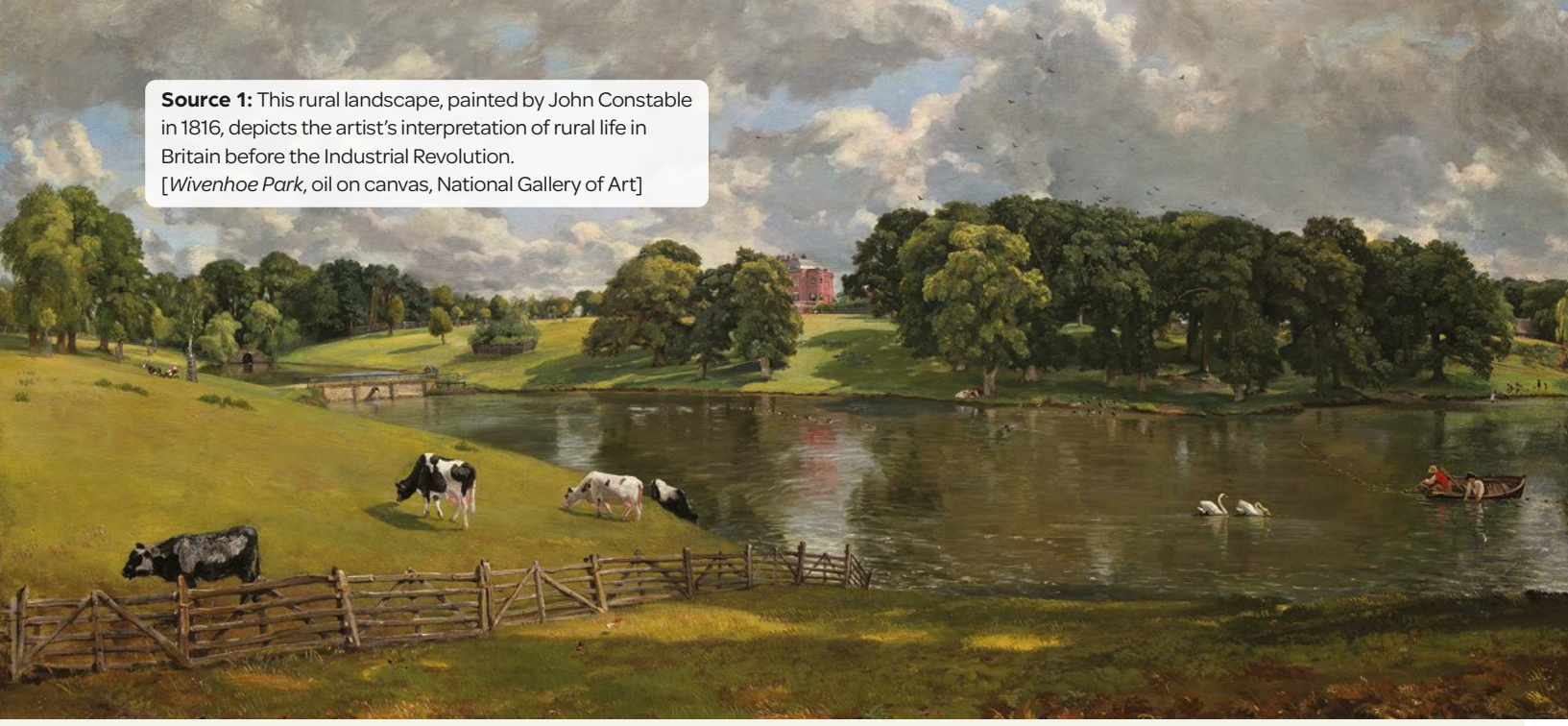
The Industrial Revolution spanned from approximately 1760 to 1820, during which time new inventions and processes replaced traditional industries and systems. The changes that occurred during this period significantly altered politics, economics, society and technology. The effects of the Industrial Revolution are still felt today.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: This rural landscape, painted by John Constable in 1816, depicts the artist's interpretation of rural life in Britain before the Industrial Revolution.
[*Wivenhoe Park*, oil on canvas, National Gallery of Art]

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

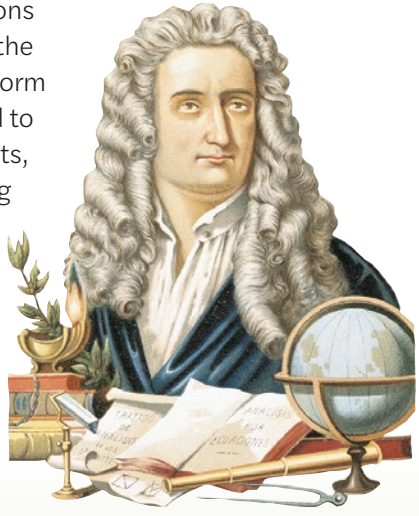
2.1

What is a revolution?

A **revolution** is a radical change in the way something is done that results in major changes and far-reaching consequences. Political revolutions may cause sudden and even violent change to the way a country is governed. Other revolutions may be slower and less obvious, but their effects can be just as dramatic. All revolutions have both intended and unintended consequences, and can create positive and negative changes.

Source 1: In 2011, Egyptian protesters overthrew their government, which had been in power for almost 30 years.

In 1848, revolutionary movements developed across Europe, leading to both political and social change. In France, the success of the February Revolution led to, among other things, the introduction of **universal suffrage**. While the revolutions in other nations were unsuccessful, in the long term they led to constitutional reform and a rise in **nationalism**. They also led to the growth of working-class movements, which demanded the reform of working conditions.

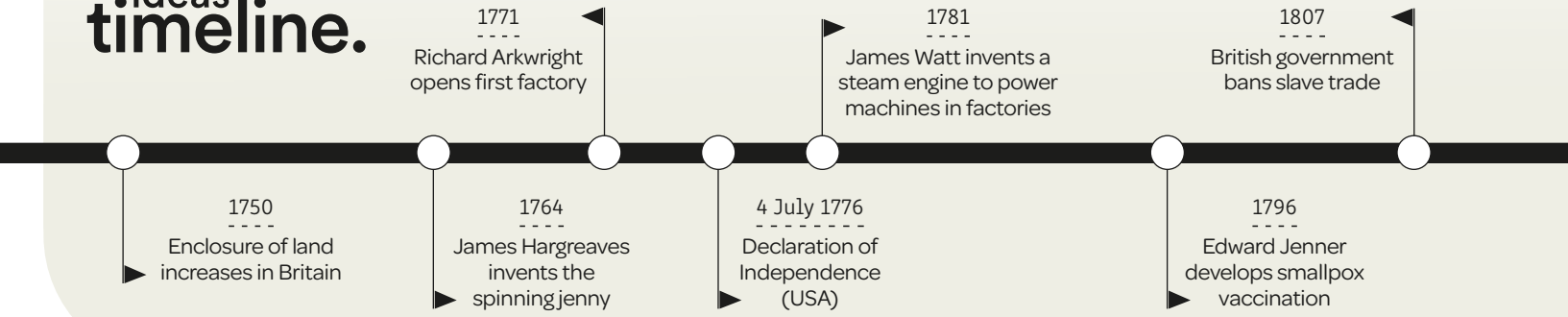


Source 2: During the scientific revolution, visionaries such as Isaac Newton made great advances in science and mathematics, changing the ways in which people viewed the world.

Source 3: Edward Jenner develops smallpox vaccination, 1796

Source 4: Timeline of revolution, 1750–1850

key ideas timeline.



Manifest

der

Kommunistischen Partei.

Veröffentlicht im Februar 1848.

Proletarier aller Länder vereinigt Euch!

London.

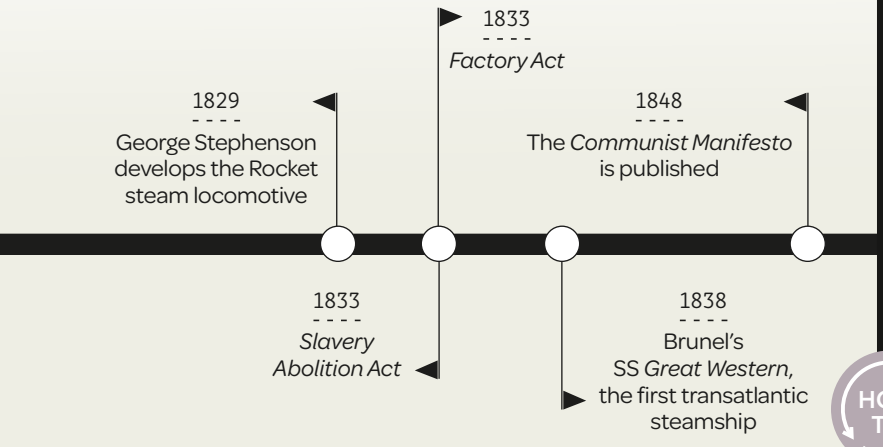
Gedruckt in der Office der „Bildungs-Gesellschaft für Arbeiter" von J. E. Burghard.

46, Liverpool Street, Bishopsgate.

▲ **Source 5:** The *Communist Manifesto,* 1848

▲ **Source 6:** In 2015, same-sex marriage was legalised in Ireland after the world's first national vote on the issue.

▲ **Source 7:** Samuel Morse invents the electric telegraph and Morse Code, 1837



Learning ladder 2.1

Background and origins

1. Identify the type of change caused by a revolution.
2. Describe the features of all revolutions.
3. Explain how the 1848 revolutionary movements influenced events in Europe.
4. Sources 1–7: In evaluating each of the events shown, which one do you think had the greatest impact on society? Give reasons for your answer.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Use the caption and the photograph to describe how change occurred.
2. Source 7: Describe how the invention of the telegraph would have revolutionised communication.
3. Source 3: Explain why a major discovery in medicine would change society.
4. Revolutions can create positive and negative changes. Evaluate how important continuity is to a society.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

Why did the Industrial Revolution occur?

The causes of revolutions are complex and involve many different factors. The Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain before spreading to Europe and the rest of the world, was caused by a combination of political, economic, social and technological (PEST) factors.

Social and economic factors

In the early 19th century, Britain experienced a dramatic population increase. Immigrants from Europe and the rest of the world flocked to cities throughout Britain. By the second half of the 19th century, London's population had more than doubled. **Urbanisation** occurred, whereby an increasing number of people relocated to British cities from the countryside in search of work. This resulted in increased demands on basic resources, such as housing, infrastructure and food. The agricultural and textile industries were therefore the first areas in which **innovation** occurred to meet the growing social needs.

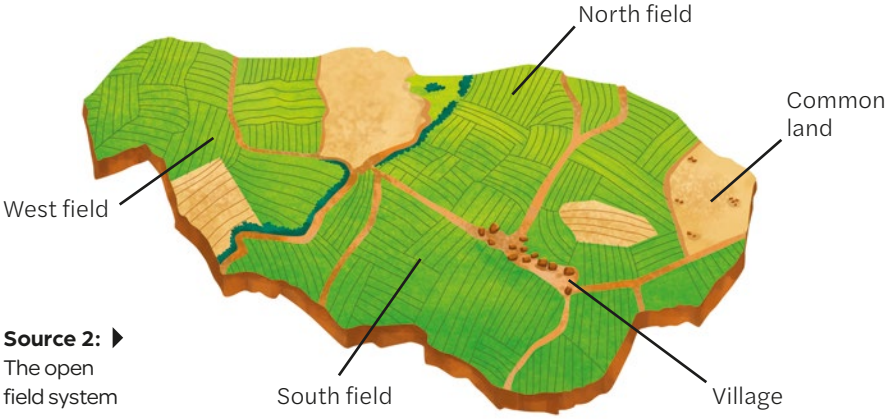
Trade boomed in Britain, its colonies and in other countries. Unlike Europe, Britain had no internal duties or tariffs on goods moved from one region to another. Every time goods were transported across borders in Europe, taxes were added, which increased the price when sold.

	1750	1850
Population	6 million 	30 million 
Percentage of people living in towns	15% 	80% 
Life expectancy	Between 30 and 40 years for both males and females 	Males: 40 years Females: 42 years 

Source 1: How the British population changed between 1750 and 1850

Technological factors – the agricultural revolution

Britain was also dealing with the effects of an '**agricultural revolution**' that reshaped the farming industry. The land in Britain was owned by wealthy landowners or the aristocracy. They rented land to tenant farmers as well as working some of it themselves. Farm labourers worked the land for wages. Food was required to feed the growing population, so farmers had to find innovative and efficient ways of increasing food production. Most farmers in Britain still used the open field system, which had been in use since the medieval period.

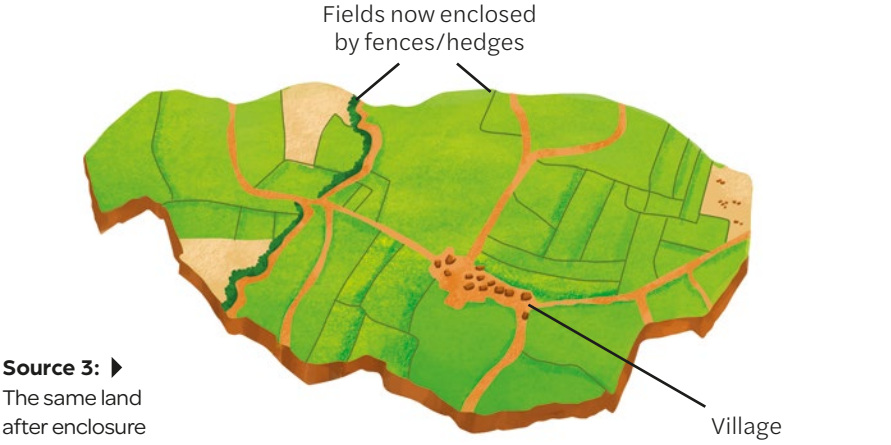


Source 2: ▶ The open field system

Under the open field system, farming land around a village was divided into three fields. Each field was divided into strips, and villagers grew their own food on their own strip of land. There was also common land where villagers could graze their animals, collect firewood, and gather fruit and herbs that were growing wild. However, the system was inefficient. Time and land were wasted, with one field always being left fallow (not in use).

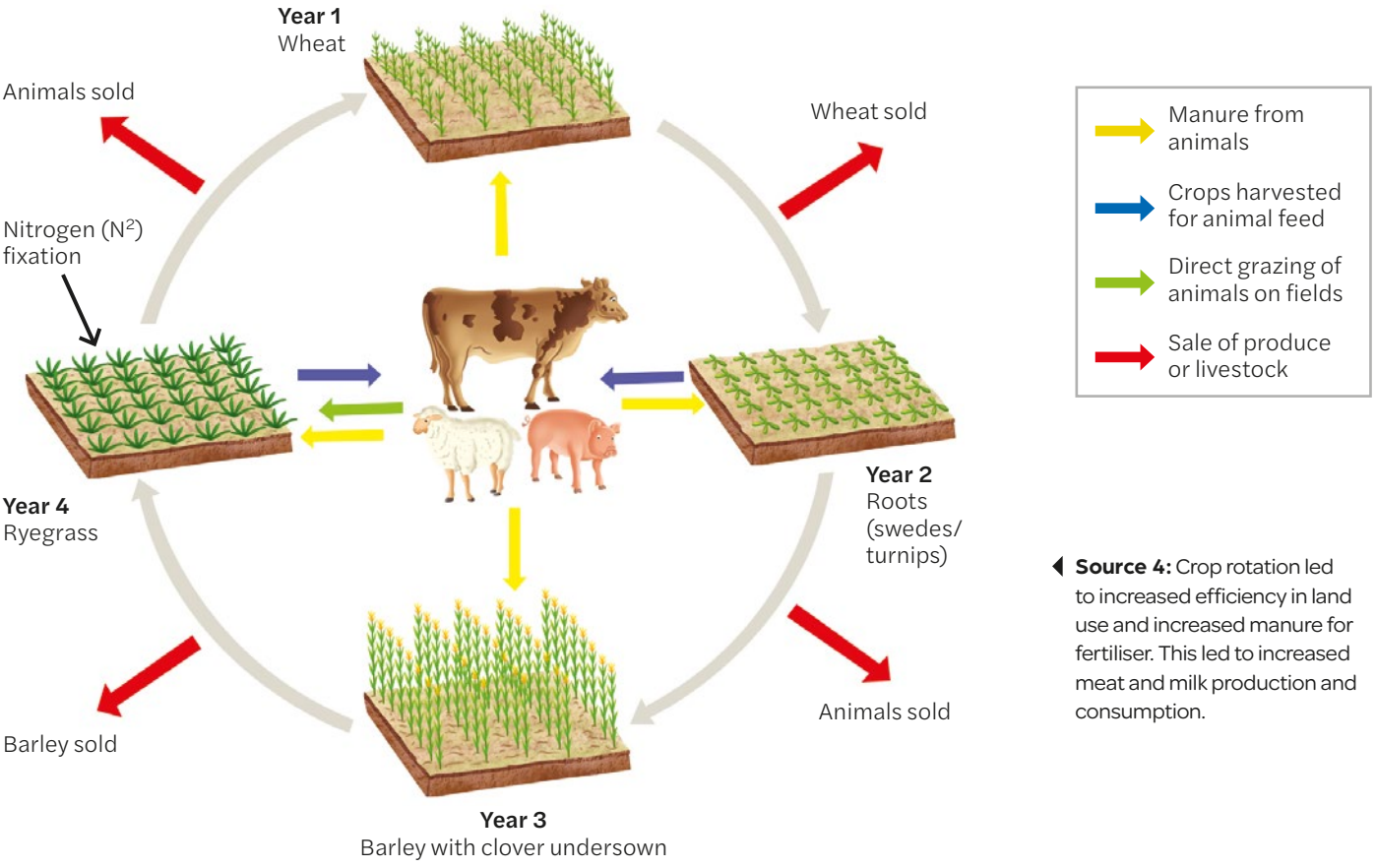
From the 1740s, landowners lobbied parliament in favour of **enclosure**. Enclosure divided land into farms surrounded by fences or hedges. Villagers were given plots of land equal to their strips. By 1790, three-quarters of farming land in Britain had been enclosed.

But not everyone benefited. Tenant farmers were evicted. People who did not own their land, or who could not prove ownership, lost their land and the right to access common land.



Source 3: ▶ The same land after enclosure

Despite the hardship and social unrest caused by enclosure, the ability to farm larger blocks of land resulted in innovation that increased food production. Along with innovation in animal breeding methods to increase meat and wool production, there were also improvements in crop production, such as the Norfolk **crop rotation** system. Introduced by Lord Charles Townshend (who earned the name Turnip Townshend), the system worked on the premise that four different crops could be grown in a field over four years, so no field was ever left fallow (Source 4). This gave farmers the ability to produce food for the growing population and, as there was winter food for cattle, for people to enjoy fresh meat and milk all year round.



Source 4: Crop rotation led to increased efficiency in land use and increased manure for fertiliser. This led to increased meat and milk production and consumption.

Selective breeding

Experiments in selective breeding aimed to increase meat and wool production. For example, Robert Bakewell focused on selective breeding in sheep and produced a breed called the New Leicestershire, which produced good quality fleece as well as more meat.

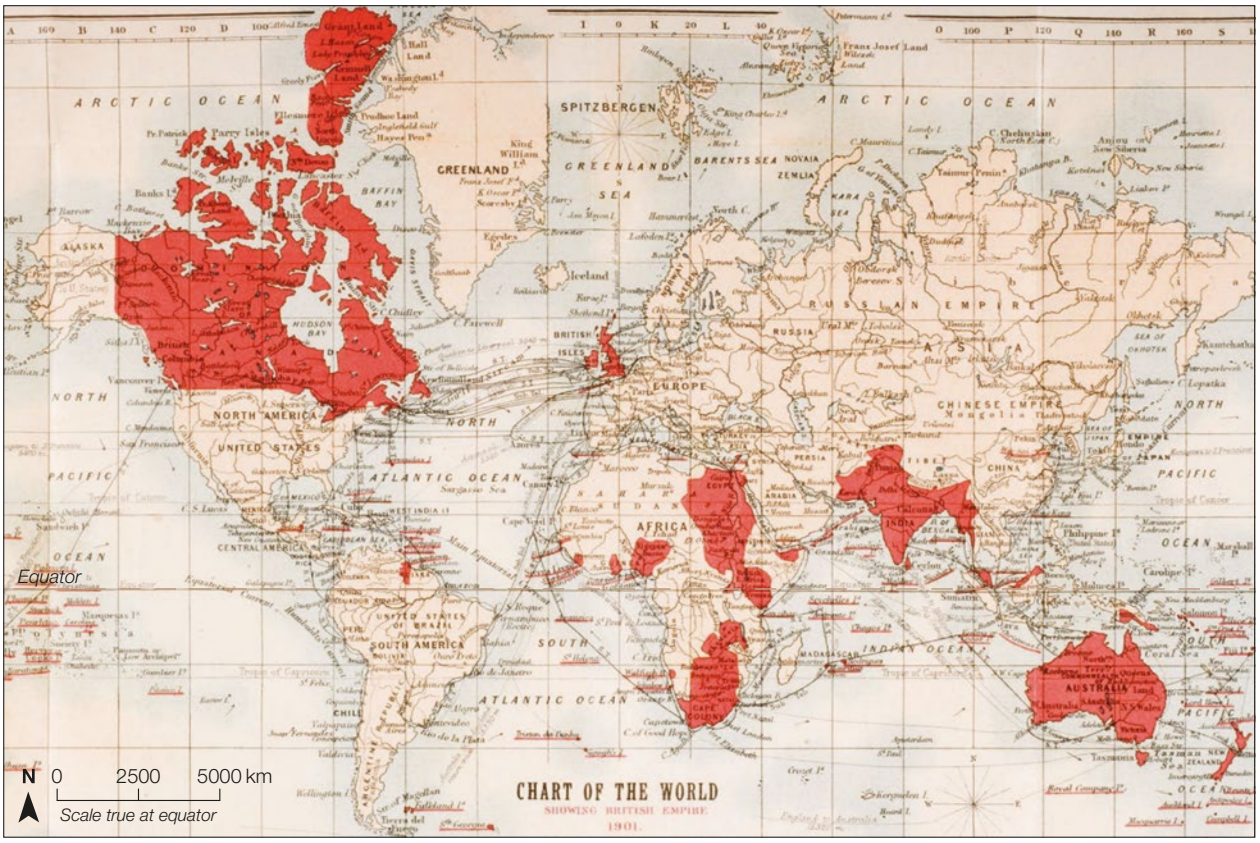
A report to the British parliament by Sir John Sinclair in 1795 stated that the average weight of animals sold at Smithfield Market had more than doubled from 1710 to 1795, as shown in Source 5.

Livestock/ Year	1710	1795
Cattle	370 lb	800 lb
Sheep	28 lb	80 lb

Source 5: Average weight of animals sold (in pounds)

Changes in the agricultural industry meant that fewer labourers were required. Labourers in search of work moved from rural to urban areas, which led to increased urbanisation. The larger urban population gave emerging industrialists a ready-made supply of workers for their newly built factories. Increased food production meant that the growing urban population could be fed, and it also resulted in greater profits for farmers, who could invest this money into other innovations.

The British Empire in the 18th century



Alamy/Classic Image

▲ **Source 6:** Britain's large empire (shown here in red) gave it ready access to the resources it needed to power growing industries at home.

Political factors

Britain had a strong and stable government. This gave people the confidence to invest in businesses. Throughout the 1700s, Britain had expanded its empire, including the colonisation of Australia in 1788. Having a vast empire gave Britain access to the raw materials, such as cotton, needed in industry. The British adopted a policy of **mercantilism**, and ensured that its colonies only traded with Britain, thus increasing its wealth and power.

Imperialism is the control of countries or territories by a more powerful nation. The nation then imposes its political, economic and cultural beliefs on the peoples living in its colonies. European countries had begun expanding their empires in the 17th century and, by the late 19th century, Britain's empire covered a quarter of the world's land surface.

Learning ladder 2.2

Background and origins

1. Identify the country where the Industrial Revolution began.
2. Describe the main social and economic factors that influenced the Industrial Revolution.
3. Explain how enclosure led to the agricultural revolution.
4. In evaluating the factors that led to the Industrial Revolution in Britain, which one do you believe was the most important? Give reasons for your answer.

Continuity and change

1. Source 1: Identify how the British population changed between 1750 and 1850.
2. Describe the changes to farming methods that occurred during the agricultural revolution.
3. Explain how imperialism would have changed countries that became part of Britain's empire.
4. Explain why the period between 1750 and 1850 can be considered one of great change rather than one of continuity.

Continuity and change, page 495

HOW TO

2.3

What other factors contributed to the Industrial Revolution?

Changes in the way people thought about economics also contributed to the Industrial Revolution. A new approach to economic management emerged known as *laissez-faire* (a French term meaning 'let do'). This economic theory meant that individuals had more freedom to conduct their business, rather than having their actions dictated by government policies, such as tariffs and subsidies. Technological changes and innovations in manufacturing and transport resulted in production becoming more efficient and cheaper. This created more affordable goods, which increased demand.

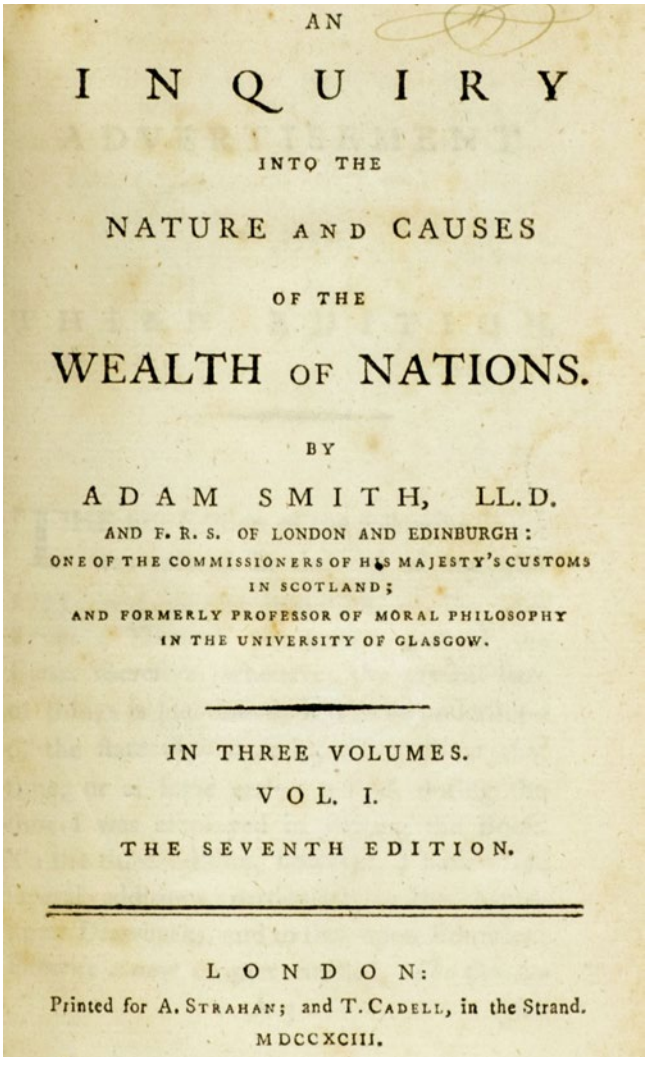
The Enlightenment

The Enlightenment, also known as the Age of Reason, began in the mid-17th century when thinkers began to challenge the traditional teachings of religious authorities. Thinking was based on reason rather than belief, and new scientific theories and principles emerged, put forward by people such as Isaac Newton.

The Enlightenment also challenged the way that countries were governed. Ideas such as John Locke's natural rights (life, liberty and property) and his argument that the purpose of government was to protect these rights had a strong influence on the American and French Revolutions. Ideas about social good were also important. New knowledge should be used to build better societies. New knowledge was to be gained by using scientific methods. Orthodox religions were also questioned.

Advances in economic thinking

Britain had an established banking system that was much more advanced than any other in Europe. The growth of the British Empire, and the increase in trade that came with it, required financial services to support it. The Bank of England (established in 1694) ensured that there was **capital** for investment and protection for trade through insurance. Low interest rates encouraged individuals to take risks on innovative technologies. Economists like Adam Smith promoted ideas about free markets and productivity.



AN

INQUIRY

INTO THE

NATURE AND CAUSES

OF THE

WEALTH OF NATIONS.

BY

ADAM SMITH, LL.D.

AND F. R. S. OF LONDON AND EDINBURGH:

ONE OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF HIS MAJESTY'S CUSTOMS IN SCOTLAND;

AND FORMERLY PROFESSOR OF MORAL PHILOSOPHY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.

IN THREE VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

THE SEVENTH EDITION.

LONDON:

Printed for A. STRAHAN; and T. CADELL, in the Strand.

M DCC XCIII.

▲ **Source 1:** In 1776, Adam Smith published his ground-breaking book about economics, commonly known as *The Wealth of Nations*.

Source 2: This painting from 1768 shows people gathered in wonder around an experiment. [Joseph Wright (1768), *An Experiment on a Bird in the Air Pump*, oil on canvas]

Merchants benefited from the fact there were no internal tariffs in Britain, and this made trading much easier. Britain's large empire meant that there was also an easily accessible international market.

The Enlightenment gave rise to new ideas about economics, and these new ideas played an important role in the Industrial Revolution. Adam Smith wrote about a **laissez-faire** approach to the economy in his book, *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), in which he argued against the established principle of mercantilism. Smith argued that governments should not control the economy, but instead let the market forces of supply and demand dictate economic activity. This allowed individuals far greater freedom. Adam Smith is often called the father of modern capitalism, without which the Industrial Revolution would not have been possible.

Capitalism

Capitalism is an economic system in which private individuals and companies own property and goods, rather than the government. The companies then compete to make a profit.

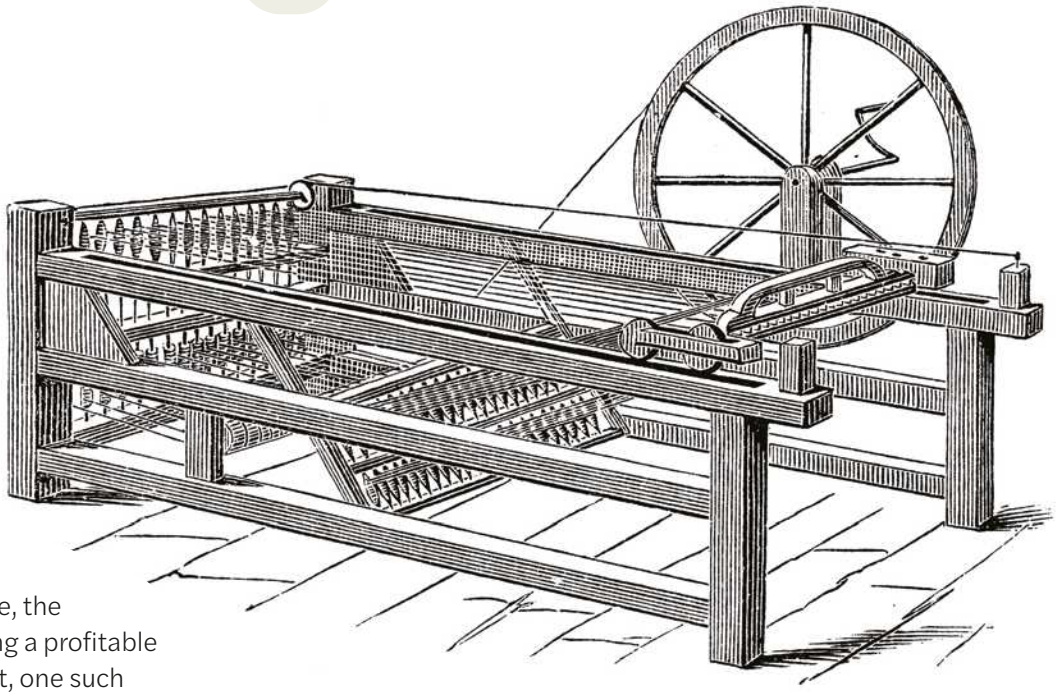
Technological developments such as the **steam engine** enabled the factory system to develop. Private entrepreneurs and industrialists took calculated financial risks and invested in new business ventures. This meant that goods could be produced quickly and in large quantities. They were then able to generate greater revenue by exporting their goods across the British Empire, which provided a readily available market.

Britain also had the advantage of possessing the raw materials necessary for industrialisation. Coal was vital because it was the fuel used by the newly developed steam engines. Britain had large coal deposits, unlike other European nations, and this easy access reduced energy costs.

Entrepreneurs

Entrepreneurs were vitally important to the Industrial Revolution. They were talented, ambitious and from the growing middle class. They took calculated risks and invested money in innovative technologies that increased the speed of production. This meant that profits increased as production costs were reduced.

Entrepreneurs also invested in the factories and mines necessary for industrialisation. With the advent of the steam engine, the increased need for coal made mining a profitable business venture. Richard Arkwright, one such entrepreneur, established the first spinning mill in Britain. Both talented and ambitious, Arkwright was able to turn new developments in technology into a successful business.

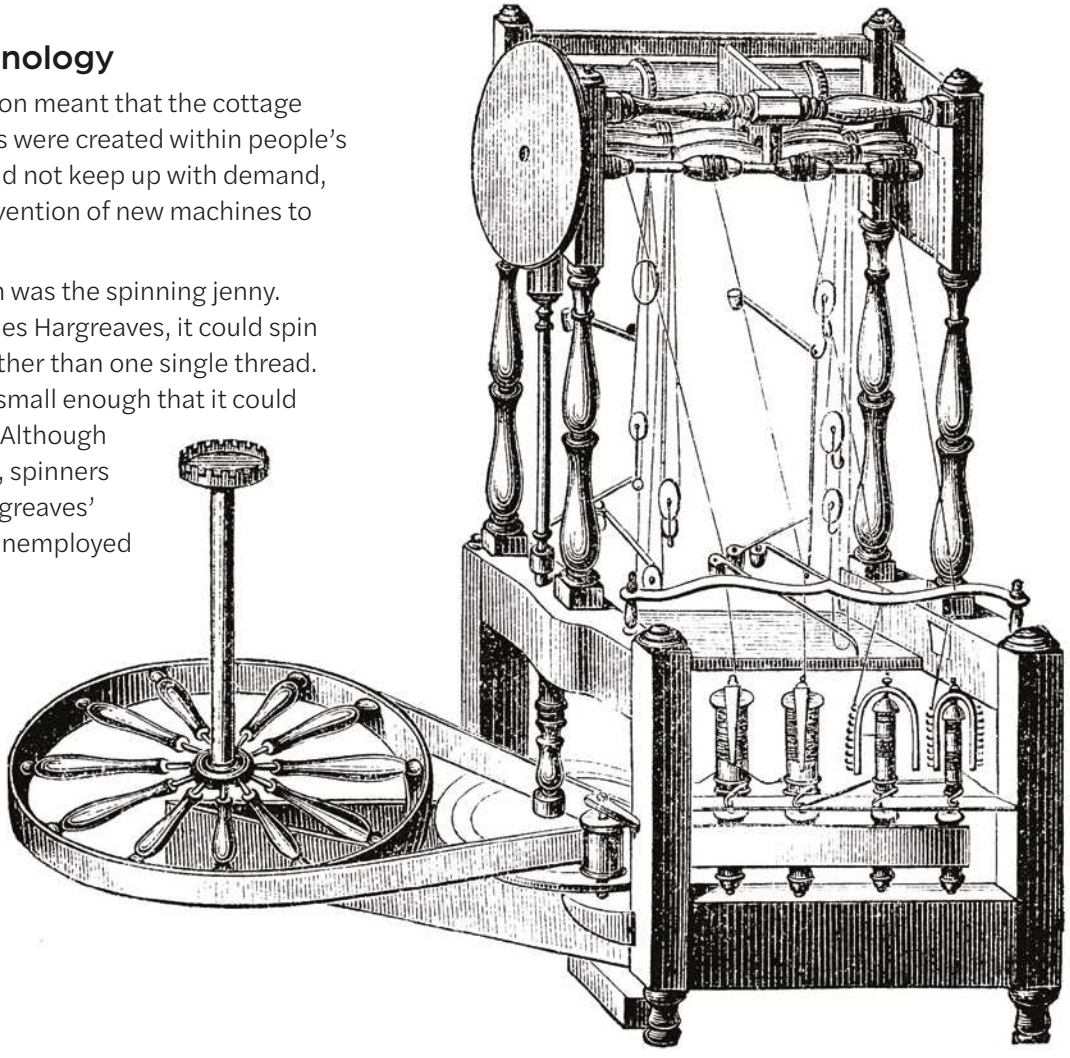


▲ **Source 3:** Invented by James Hargreaves in 1764, the spinning jenny sped up weaving production.

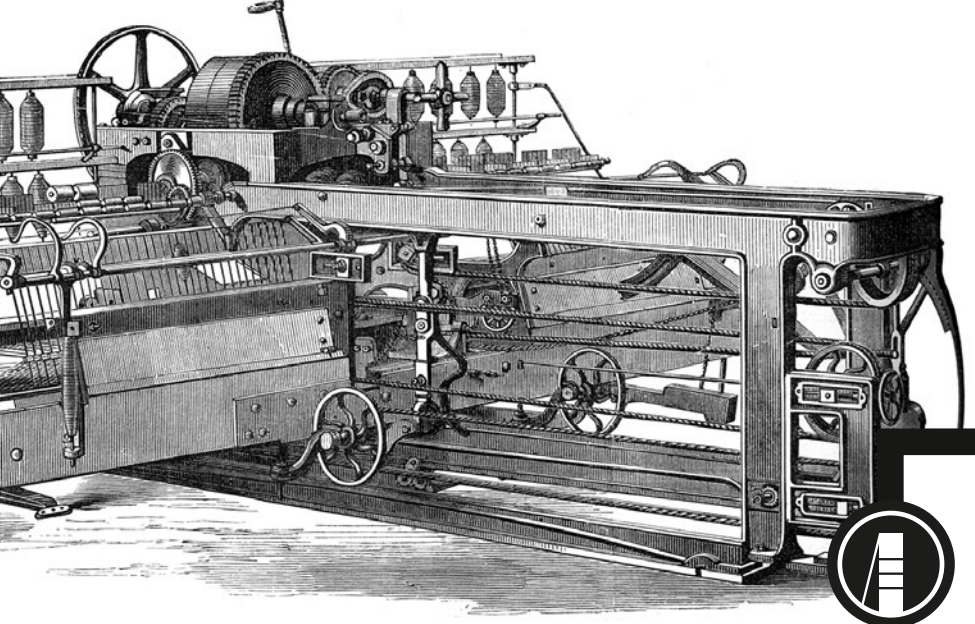
Advances in technology

The increase in population meant that the cottage industry (in which goods were created within people's homes or cottages) could not keep up with demand, which stimulated the invention of new machines to speed up production.

One such innovation was the spinning jenny. Invented in 1764 by James Hargreaves, it could spin eight threads at once rather than one single thread. The spinning jenny was small enough that it could fit into people's homes. Although this sped up production, spinners were not happy and Hargreaves' home was attacked by unemployed workers.



Source 4: ▶ Richard Arkwright designed the spinning frame in 1769, which used water as a power source.



Source 5: The spinning mule, built by inventor Samuel Crompton in 1779, was used to spin cotton and other fibres in mills across Britain. It capitalised on the previous designs by Hargreaves and Arkwright to produce a better quality of thread in a higher volume.

Later spinning machines were far too big for people's homes, which created the need for factories. Richard Arkwright invented the spinning frame in 1769, which was powered by water and made much stronger thread. Samuel Crompton built on this idea in 1779 to produce thread that was both strong and fine with his spinning mule. By 1786, Edmund Cartwright had developed the power loom, which allowed even quicker cloth production.

Most of these machines could be operated by unskilled workers, with the exception of Crompton's mule. To begin with, machines were powered by water, but following the invention of the steam engine, steam was the dominant power source.

Sources of power

Before the Industrial Revolution, agriculture relied on human and horse power. Wind and water were used in the milling process. The cottage industry had run on human labour alone, so the most important development of the Industrial Revolution was the steam engine.

Early steam engines were developed by Thomas Savery (in 1698) and Thomas Newcomen (in 1712) and used to pump water from mines. In 1763, James Watt improved on their designs by adding a condensing cylinder, which made the steam engine more powerful. However, Watt's initial steam engine could not drive machinery. In 1781, Watt added a flywheel that allowed the engine to drive machinery. Known as the rotary steam engine, this revolutionised factories; they no longer needed to be built next to a strong, fast-flowing water source.

Learning ladder 2.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify one idea that influenced the Industrial Revolution.
2. Describe the significance of the Enlightenment as an influence for change.
3. Explain the technological changes that occurred during the Industrial Revolution.
4. Explain how entrepreneurs contributed to the advancement of technology and business during the Industrial Revolution.
5. Evaluate the significance of advances in economic thinking as a factor for creating the Industrial Revolution in Britain.

Cause and effect

1. Match the cause with its effect.

Britain had no internal trading tariffs.	There was easy access to raw materials.
Bigger machines would not fit in people's homes.	They invested money, which helped industrialisation.
Britain had a large empire.	Goods could be produced more cheaply and more efficiently.
There were many entrepreneurs.	Trading was easy in Britain.
New inventions sped up production.	Factories were built.

2. Describe the industrial needs that led James Watt to develop the steam engine.
3. Explain how the textile industry changed during the Industrial Revolution. Include the contributions of James Hargreaves, Richard Arkwright and Samuel Crompton.
4. Evaluate the influence of the ideas of Adam Smith on the success of the Industrial Revolution.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

2.4

How did the textile industry transform?

The development of steam engines in the 18th century saw a huge expansion in productivity in the textile industry. Whereas water-powered mills had to be located near rivers or streams, steam power allowed mills to be located near raw materials and labour.

Changing technology

The manufacturing of cloth before the Industrial Revolution was a cottage industry. Most work was done by hand, as it had been since the time of the Romans. Workers would receive the raw materials, take them home and build whatever was required, and then return the finished product. Usually the work was done in the labourer's own home, although in the late 16th and early 17th centuries, some labourers worked together in large 'factories' or work rooms.

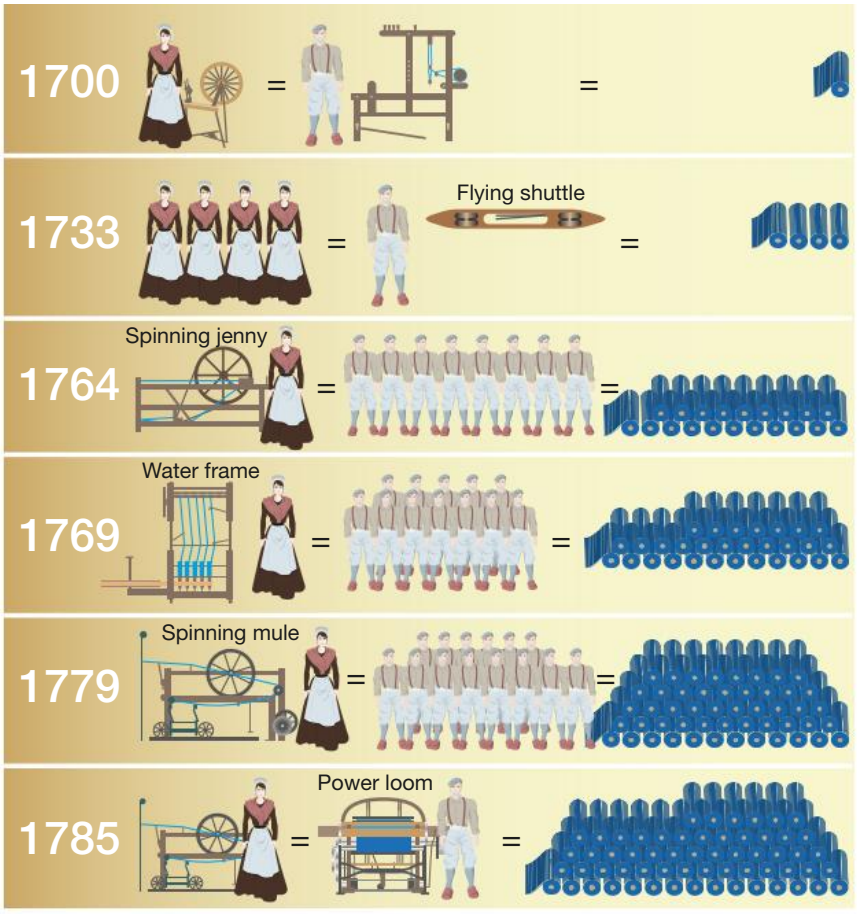
The cottage industry was replaced by the factory system in the late 18th century, chiefly due to the advances being made in the textile industry. The invention of the flying shuttle and the spinning jenny, for example, made cloth production much faster, and able to be done on a much larger scale. As a result, hand weavers were driven out of business by big new factories.

Factories used an 'assembly-line' approach, which greatly improved efficiency. Instead of one worker completing an item, such as a length of material, a variety of machines made the fabric. Instead of one worker completing all stages of the manufacturing process (e.g. turning raw wool into dyed cloth), each worker concentrated on only one task.

Source 1: An overseer checks on the output of a power loom weaving machine at the Swainson, Birley & Co cotton mill in Lancashire, England. [Thomas Allom, c. 1834]

Rapid **mechanisation** of the textile industry decreased the time taken to produce cloth and lowered the cost of production. By 1860, there were 2650 cotton mills in Lancashire. They employed 440 000 people and produced half of the world's cotton cloth until the start of the 20th century. Some key inventions during this period were:

- **Flying shuttle (1733):** invented by John Kay. This improvement to looms enabled weavers to weave faster.
- **Spinning jenny (1764):** invented by James Hargreaves. The first machine to improve on the spinning wheel.
- **Water frame (1769):** invented by Richard Arkwright. This was the first powered textile machine.
- **Spinning mule (1779):** invented by Samuel Crompton. This allowed for greater control over the weaving process.
- **Power loom (1785):** invented by Edmund Cartwright. Mechanising the loom using a large shaft sped up the process of manufacturing textiles. The machine also simplified the weaving process, meaning the operator did not need to be as skilled, so could be replaced with cheaper labour.



Source 2: Increased mechanisation increased the amount of cotton that could be produced.

Spinner Weaver Roll of cloth

Learning ladder 2.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who invented the spinning jenny and what did it do?
2. Describe how the invention of the power loom changed textile production.
3. Explain how the shift from cottage industry to the factory system affected how textiles were made.
4. Explain why new inventions in the textile industry led to major changes in how people worked.
5. Evaluate how the ideas and inventions of key individuals helped drive industrial change in the textile industry.

Chronology

1. Place the following inventions on a timeline: spinning jenny, power loom, flying shuttle, water frame, spinning mule.
2. Review the timeline you created for Question 1. Which of the following timeline conventions did you apply, and which do you need to add: a timescale, chronological order, a date and summary of the event
3. Source 2: Explain how mechanisation changed the amount of cloth that could be produced by each worker.
4. Source 2: Evaluate how the changes in textile technology between 1733 and 1785 transformed how and where cloth was produced.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

2.5

What was the effect of revolutionising transport?

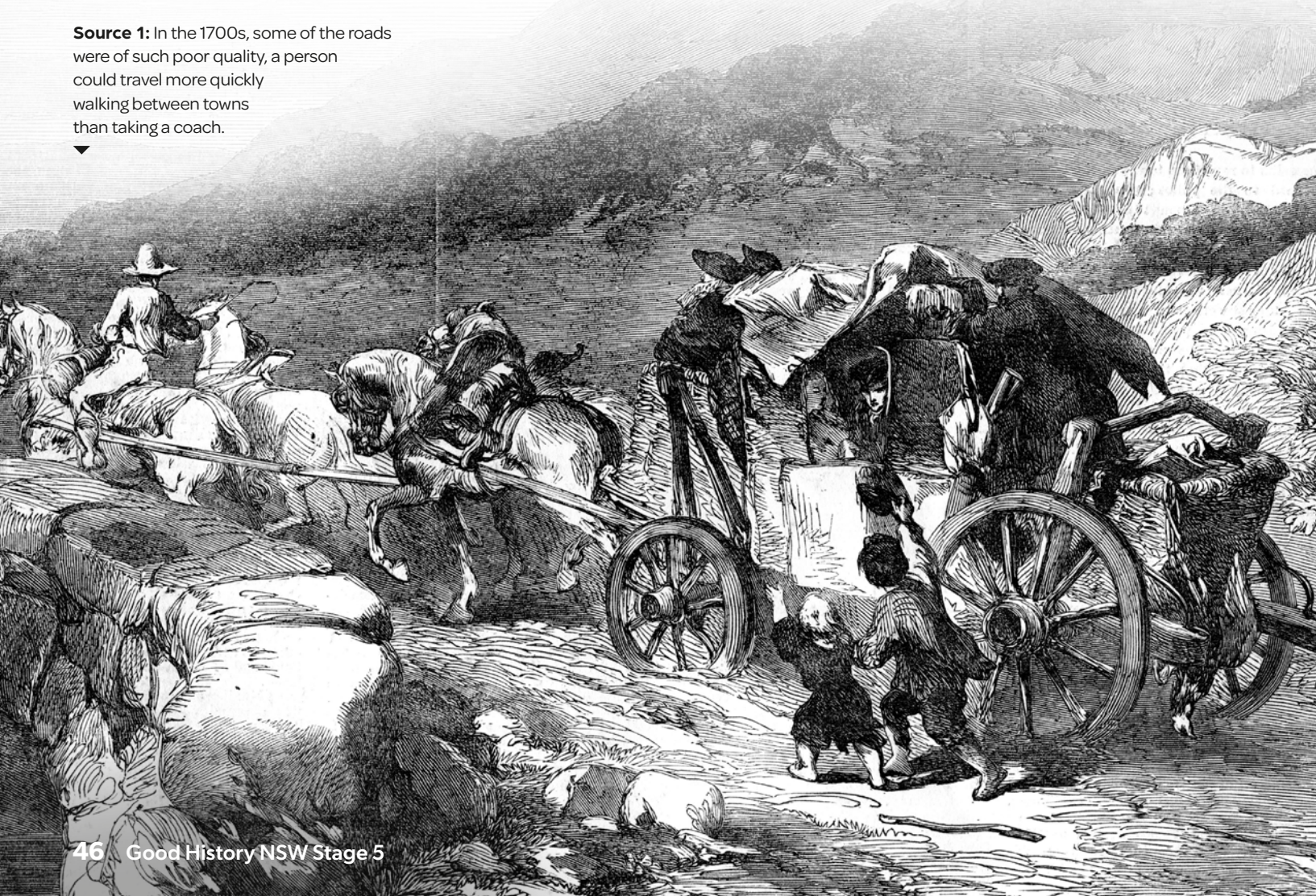
One aspect of life greatly changed by the Industrial Revolution was transport. The first area of development was roads, followed by canals. However, it was the invention of railway and motor vehicles that completely revolutionised the movement of people and goods.

Roads

Travel around Britain was very slow at the start of the Industrial Revolution. Where possible, goods were transported by boat as it was considerably faster; for example, the journey from London to Edinburgh took a week by boat and 10 to 12 days by road.

Good roads, however, were critical for the local networks. They allowed people and goods to move around efficiently once they had come off railways and canals. This became especially important during the Industrial Revolution, since goods had to be transported over longer distances.

To address this problem, the British government set up turnpike trusts between 1750 and 1825. These groups charged local tolls and used the money for road resurfacing and repairs. This greatly increased the speed of travel, and most travellers were pleased with the improvements, especially merchants and manufacturers, whose profits increased with quicker



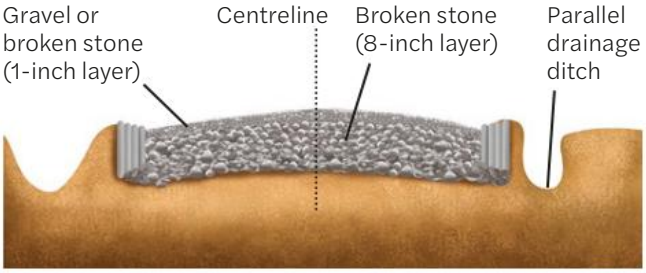
Source 1: In the 1700s, some of the roads were of such poor quality, a person could travel more quickly walking between towns than taking a coach.

Source 2: The Rebecca Riots were protests against the turnpike trusts in Wales. Men dressed as women attacked gates and toll houses. It is thought the women's clothes were partly a disguise, but it also suggested the idea that women were entitled to act to defend their families. [*The Illustrated London News*, 1855]

road travel. However, some protested against the new tolls. In Wales, a series of protests known as the Rebecca Riots occurred, in which men dressed as women attacked gates and toll houses (Source 2). In response, the British parliament introduced a law stating that a person could be hanged for destroying turnpikes.

Canals

Canals were the next development. They allowed heavy goods such as coal to be transported across the country rather than via the coast. After the first canal was built, the price of coal in Manchester halved. Canals provided the best method to transport goods at a time when Britain's industry was growing. By 1840, merchants had funded the creation of over 6400 kilometres of canals.



▲ **Source 3:** John McAdam, a Scottish engineer, developed a system of road building in 1816 that improved the quality of roads. This diagram shows his innovative road design.

Source 4: Canals were an effective way to move goods to and from factories. ▼

Railways

The emergence of railways completely revolutionised transport. The first railway line opened between Stockton and Darlington in 1825. Between 1830 and 1870, 11 200 kilometres of rail track were constructed. Transport became reliable and efficient.

Journey times from London (in hours)

Horse-drawn carriage		Rail
43	Edinburgh	12¼
24	Liverpool	6½
18	Exeter	4¾
11	Birmingham	3
6	Brighton	1¼

▲ **Source 5:** The time difference between horse-drawn versus railway transport

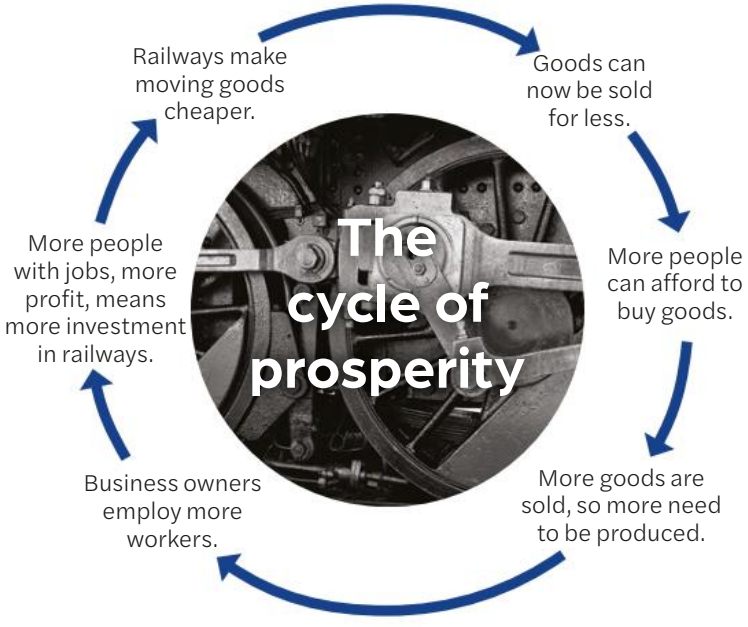
The speed of rail transport meant that the British urban population was able to receive meat, fish, milk and vegetables while they were still fresh. This gave rise to the meal of 'fish and chips', which is still popular today.

Rail also had a huge impact on communication. Previously, newspapers were printed on a single sheet and transported by road, but now London newspapers could quickly reach cities around the country. The invention of the cylindrical printing press further increased the size of the newspapers, enabling double-sided printing. Thus, newspapers expanded in size and circulation.

Letters could also be sent and received quickly. This greatly improved communication, resulting in the spread of ideas, which increased people's interest in the issues of the time, such as politics and social changes.

> [The Rocket] wasn't Britain's first steam locomotive. There were others, like Stephenson's own Locomotive 1, which had served on the Stockton and Darlington Railway, but this was different. The others were slower and less reliable, more dangerous. The Rocket was a watershed. The Rocket's power and performance changed everything. There were so many small improvements in the Rocket that taken together represent a giant leap forward. Twenty-five fire tubes sucked the heat of the fire into the water, creating more steam and more power. Rival locomotives were slow and frequently broke down. The Rocket was superbly reliable and consistently fast, and it was the speed that was shocking. Twenty-nine miles per hour on a steady run, twice as fast as older locomotives. The Rocket could go faster than anything else built by humans in the history of the world. It was so well designed that it would become the blueprint for all steam engines for the next 130 years.

Source 6: Dan Snow (2013), *Locomotion: Dan Snow's History of Railways*, episode 1, BBC.



▲ **Source 7:** The invention of rail transport led to goods being moved much more quickly and cheaply, which ultimately resulted in more jobs.

▲ **Source 8:** Railway transport led to increased communication, as passengers could now read and write as they travelled.

Steamships

Steam engines were also used in ships. Although the amount of coal required for a journey across the Atlantic reduced cargo space, the use of steam was far more reliable and faster than wind-powered sailing ships. The first purpose-built transatlantic steamship was Isambard Kingdom Brunel's SS *Great Western*, which was launched in 1838 and took 15 days to complete the crossing. By 1900, the journey time had been reduced to five or six days.

Internal combustion engine

Initially, steam engines were not practical for smaller vehicles. In 1859, Étienne Lenoir developed the **internal combustion engine**. Its design formed the basis for all modern cars and engines. By 1885, Karl Benz had produced a petrol-powered car. In 1908, Henry Ford applied the assembly-line process to car manufacturing to produce the Model T Ford. Cars could now be manufactured cheaply and quickly, making them accessible to a wider market, not just the wealthy.

Learning ladder 2.5

Impact and legacies

1. Source 5: Identify the advantages of travel by train.
2. Source 4: Describe the impact of canals on industrialisation.
3. Source 7: Explain the impact of railways on life in Britain.
4. Source 6: Explain the legacy of Stephenson's Rocket on the development of steam engines for rail transport.

Significance

1. Identify one transport innovation that was historically significant during the Industrial Revolution.
2. Describe how transport innovations made goods cheaper and more widely available.
3. Explain how railways changed everyday life for people in Britain.
4. Why was Stephenson's Rocket considered a significant development in railway history?
5. Evaluate which transport innovation (roads, canals, railways, steamships or motor vehicles) had the most significant long-term impact. Justify your response.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

How did the Industrial Revolution change how and where people lived?

Industrialisation meant that more opportunities for work lay in the cities compared to the country. By 1801, the urban population of England and Wales was 31 per cent of the total population; by 1851, 50 per cent of the population lived in cities, and by 1881 the figure had risen to 68 per cent. Houses were built quickly, cheaply and as close to factories as possible, as most people started work at 6 am and had to walk to work.

The growth of cities

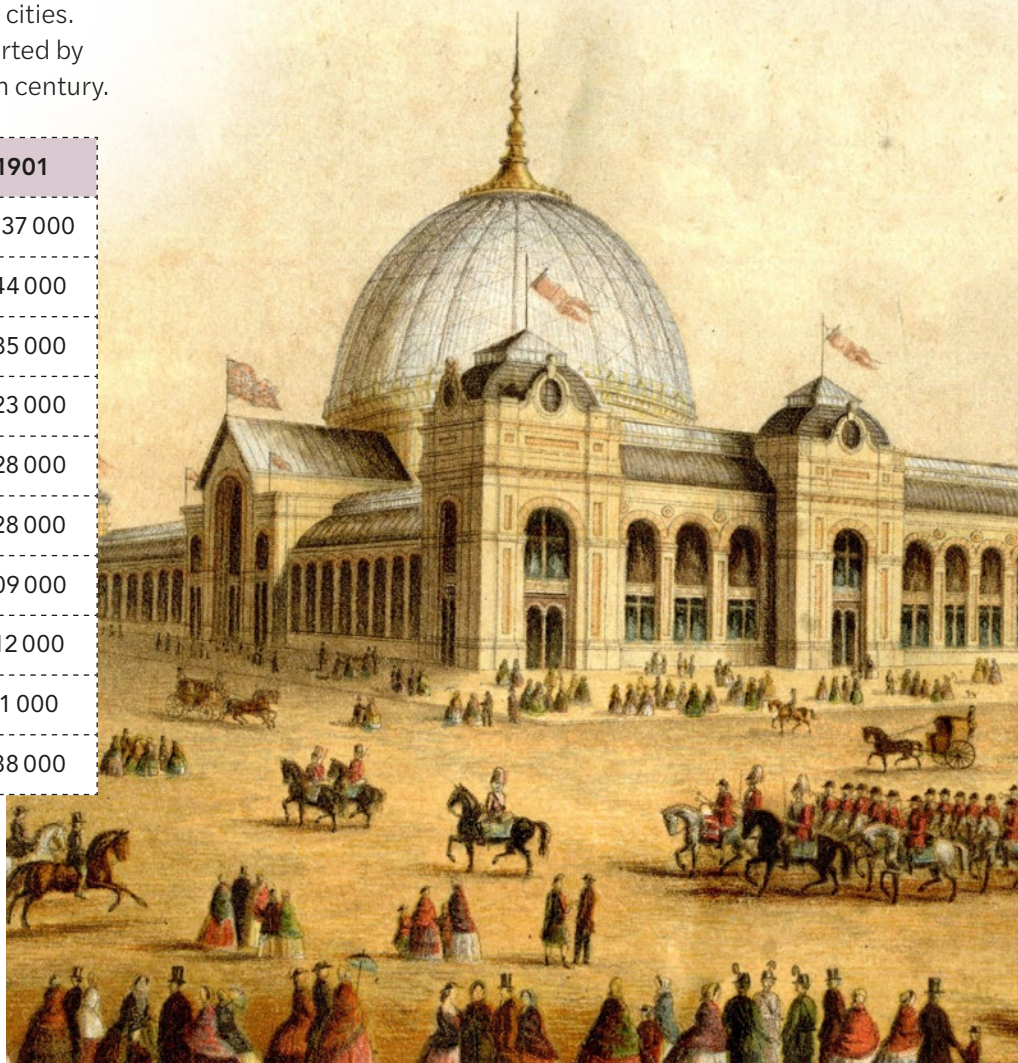
In Britain, the Industrial Revolution influenced many people to move from rural areas into towns and cities. This movement of people, which largely took place from the late 1700s until World War I, had a huge impact on people's lives.

The agricultural revolution, and enclosure in particular, fuelled the movement of people to cities. The pace of this internal migration was supported by the rise and spread of railways during the 19th century.

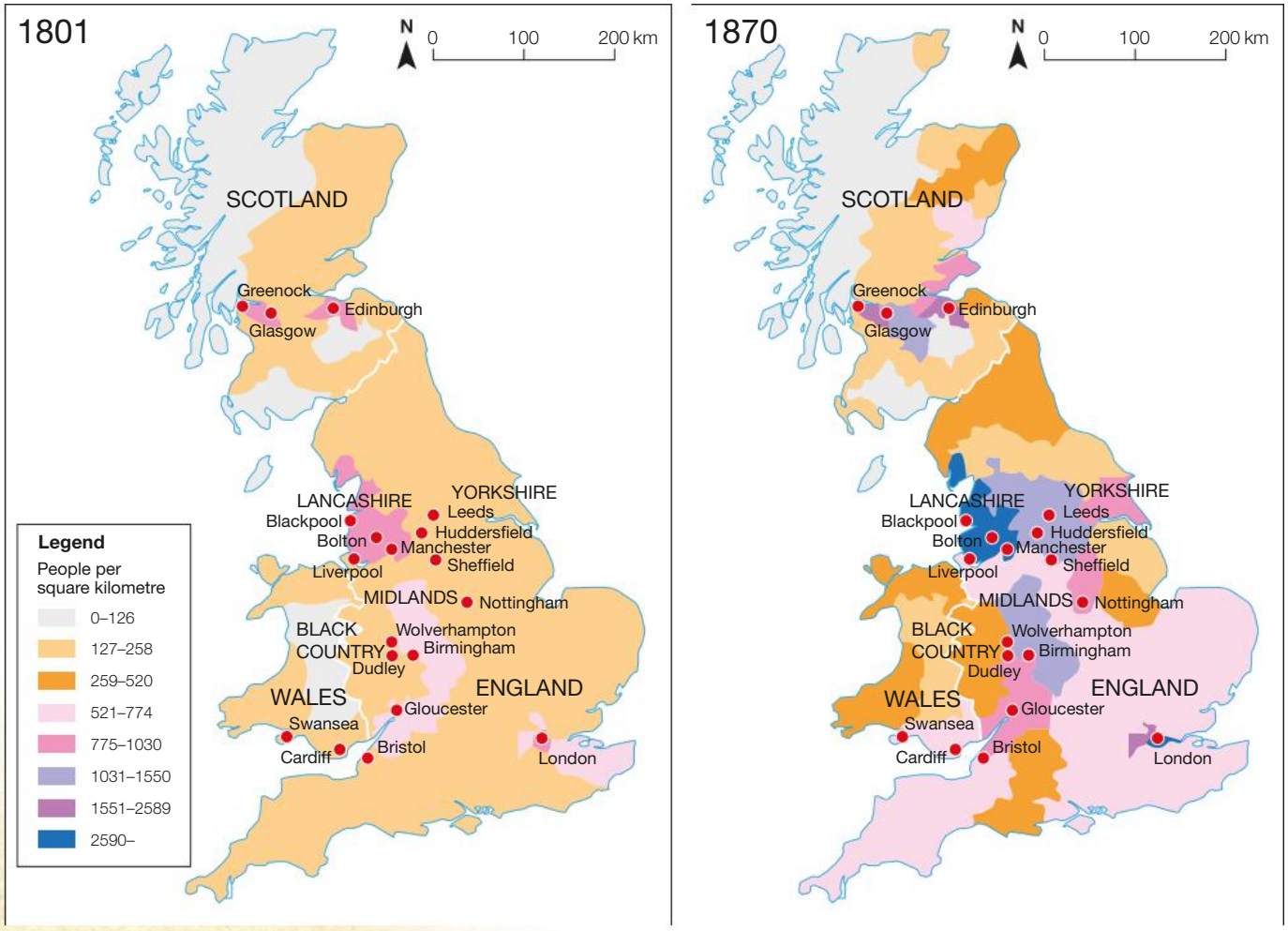
For those displaced from the countryside, the only alternative to city life was overseas migration. From the mid-1840s, large numbers of people left Britain, moving to British colonies such as Australia and Canada, and to the United States.

City	1750	1850	1901
London	675 000	2 804 000	4 537 000
Manchester	18 000	338 000	544 000
Liverpool	22 000	376 000	685 000
Birmingham	24 000	296 000	523 000
Bristol	45 000	154 000	328 000
Leeds	16 000	207 000	428 000
Sheffield	12 000	185 000	409 000
Norwich	60 000	68 000	112 000
Bath	30 000	58 000	51 000
Portsmouth	25 000	94 500	188 000

▲ **Source 1:** Population of 10 British cities in 1750, 1850 and 1901, to the nearest thousand.



Population density of England, Scotland and Wales in 1801 and 1870



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: The International Exhibition Building at South Kensington in London, where the Great London Exhibition was held from 1 May to 1 November 1862. First held in 1851, these exhibitions were later called World Fairs. They allowed countries across the globe to exhibit their manufactured products, latest machinery and local commodities. They provided nations with an opportunity to sell their goods and commodities and to display their wealth and progress to other countries.

Source 3: The population of England, Scotland and Wales increased significantly during the 19th century.

Changing landscapes

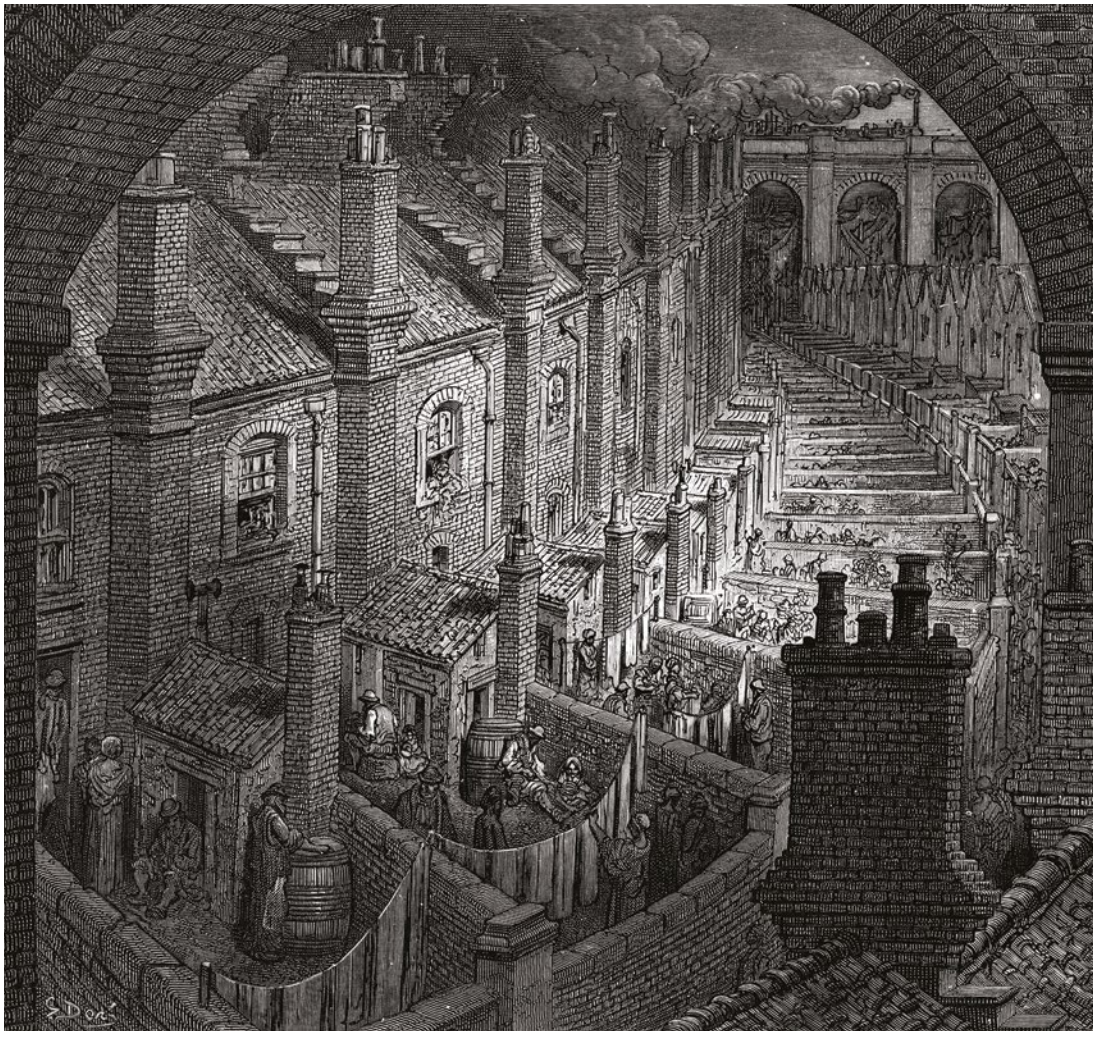
Industrialisation sped up urbanisation. Before the Industrial Revolution, urban growth took place slowly and on a very small scale. As a result of the Industrial Revolution, city and townscapes radically changed as factories sprang up and people flooded to urban areas for work. Ports were modernised and canal systems were built or extended. Warehousing was erected to store the products of the new factories.

Grand streets and public buildings, and large industrial and commercial premises reflected 'wealth and progress'. But not all did well in this process. **Slums** spread through parts of cities and towns. Poor levels of sanitation and hygiene led to outbreaks of disease. Overcrowding, too, became a major problem for working-class families.

Living conditions

In order to make a profit, building companies constructed small, narrow, terraced houses, squeezing in as many dwellings as they could without much thought for their occupants. The rapid development of towns and cities occurred without adequate government supervision, and no provision was made for sanitation.

Houses had no running water or indoor toilets. **Privies** were shared by many, and the waste was collected in cesspits. The cesspits frequently overflowed and contaminated drinking water supplies. These unsanitary conditions led to epidemics of cholera and typhus.

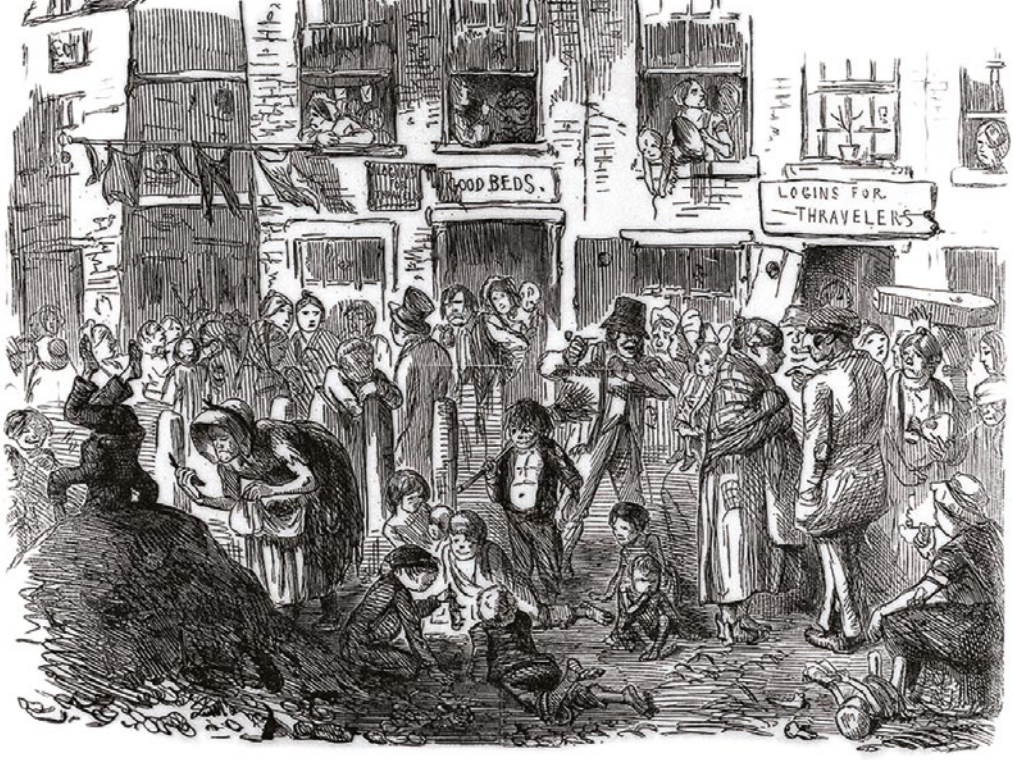


Source 4: The rapid development of towns without government regulation resulted in crowded living conditions and poor sanitation, which meant that diseases could spread quickly.

Source 5: The notorious, 'Seven Dials' was a breeding ground for disease and crime.

From the irregular square into which he has plunged, the streets and courts dart in all directions, until they are lost in the unwholesome vapour which hangs over the house-tops, and renders the dirty perspective uncertain and confined; and lounging at every corner, as if they came there to take a few gasps of such fresh air as has found its way so far, but is too much exhausted already, to be enabled to force itself into the narrow alleys around, are groups of people, whose appearance and dwellings would fill any mind but a regular Londoner's with astonishment.

Source 6: Charles Dickens (1812–1870), writing about The Seven Dials slum, described its residents as living in squalor. ['Scenes and Characters No. 1' (1835), *Bell's Life in London*]



Source 7: A contemporary cartoon highlights factory workers' deplorable living conditions, which enabled diseases such as cholera to thrive and spread.

Reforms

During the 19th century, social reformers agitated for the cleansing or removal of slums. Flora Tristan, a French **socialist** and women's rights advocate, wrote in her journal in 1842:

> Most of the workers lack clothing, a bed, furniture, a fire, wholesome food, and often even potatoes! They are shut up twelve to fourteen hours a day in mean rooms where they breathe in, along with foul air, cotton, wool, and linen fibers, particles of copper, lead iron, etc., and frequently go from insufficient nourishment to excessive drinking. These unfortunates are also pale, rickety, and sickly; they have thin, feeble bodies with weak arms, wan complexions, and dull eyes; one cannot help thinking that all them must have lung disease. ... In English factories there isn't any singing, chatting, or laughter, such as there is in ours. The master does not want his workers distracted for a minute by any reminders of life ...

Source 8: Doris Beik (transl; 1993), *Flora Tristen, Utopian Feminist: Her Travel Diaries and Personal Crusade,* Indiana University Press. (Originally published Flora Tristan (1840), *Promenades dans Londres.*)

Reforms did not come about for another six years, when the British government, in response to a severe cholera epidemic, introduced the *Public Health Act* of 1848. This act was a milestone in public health history, as it forced local governments to take responsibility for drainage and water supplies, which helped to improve the health of the population.

Learning ladder 2.6

Background and origins

1. Identify the changes to the urban population of England and Wales between 1801, 1851 and 1881.
2. Sources 5 and 6: Describe what life was like for people living in The Seven Dials district of London.
3. Explain the origin of slums.
4. Explain why society in Britain became urbanised during the Industrial Revolution.

Source analysis

1. Source 6: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 5: Describe this source.
3. Source 4: Describe the historical context of this source.
4. Source 8: How useful is this source for understanding working conditions during the Industrial Revolution?

HOW TO
Source analysis, page 493

2.7

How did industrialisation change how people worked?

The Industrial Revolution changed people's lives radically. Before the 1740s, people in Britain lived a traditional rural lifestyle, with around 80 per cent of the population living and working in the countryside. Families worked together, and the hours of work revolved around what needed to be done on the farm. After the introduction of enclosure, many people were forced to move to urban areas to work in newly built factories.

Source 1: Print from *The History of the Cotton Manufacture in Great Britain*, which was published in 1835 and written by Edward Baines. Baines was a newspaper editor for *The Leeds Mercury*. The newspaper was widely read by the mill owners in the north.

Working conditions in factories

Work on farms involved hard physical labour from dawn until dusk. Machines, however, didn't require natural sunlight for work to be completed; nor did they require hard labour, as they were powered by water or steam. This meant that working hours increased. Workers in factories could work between 12 and 16 hours a day.

In order to make as much profit as possible, factory and mine owners paid very low wages. Workers were subject to dangerous working conditions, as machines had no safety guards and there was no government regulation. The dangerous machinery and repetitive nature of the work meant accidents were frequent and the death rate was high. Women and children also worked in factories and were a source of cheap labour.

The advent of steam power also created a massive demand for coal. Although workers in mines were better paid than those working in mills, the working conditions were hard and dangerous. Deeper mines increased the risks of cave-ins, floods and explosions from using naked flames as light.

Child labour was also to become a major issue. Working-class children started work at around five years of age. Children worked long hours and often seven days a week. They were paid less than adults.

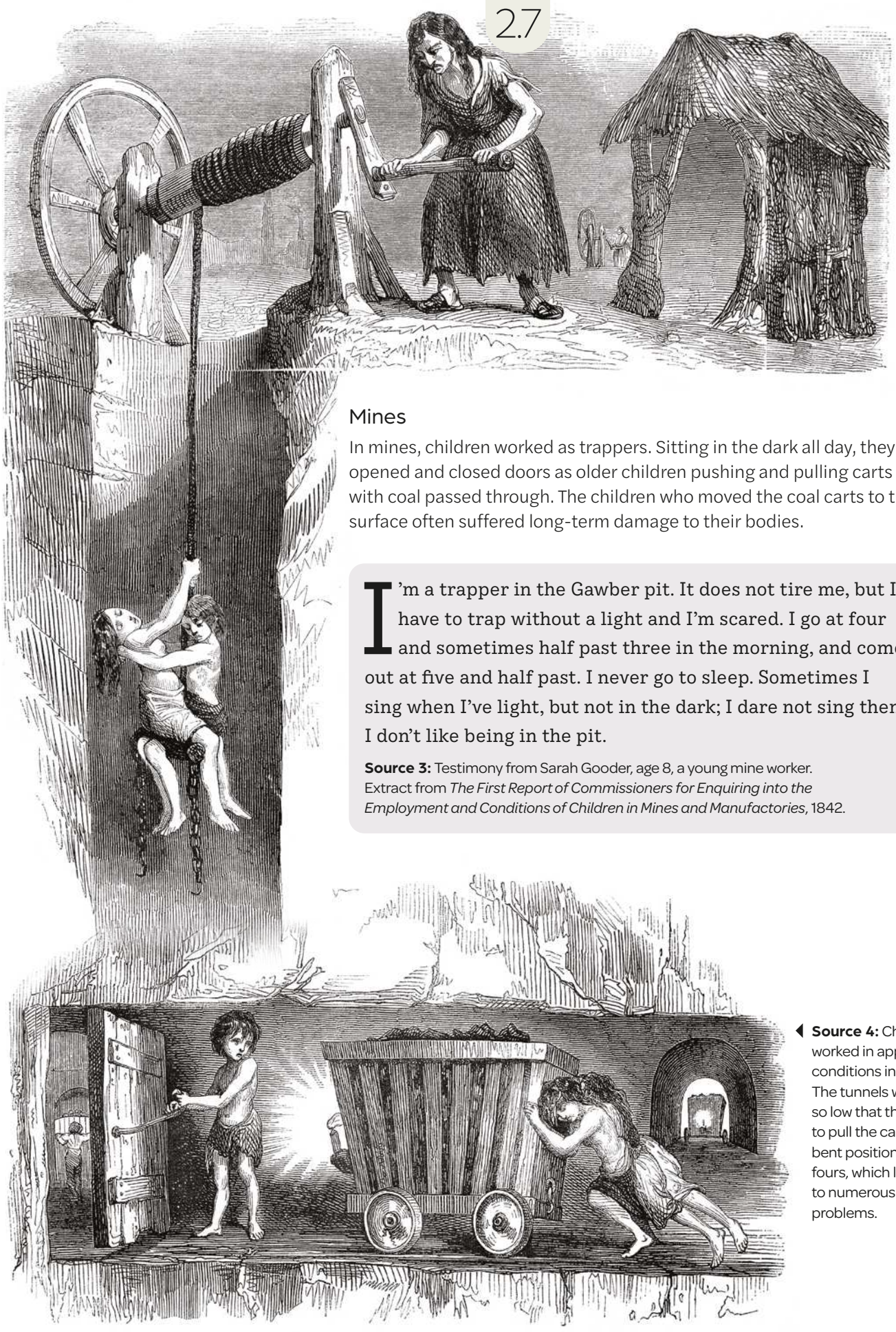
I have a belt round my waist, and a chain passing between my legs, and I go on my hands and feet. The road is very steep, and we have to hold by a rope; and when there is no rope, by anything we can catch hold of. The pit is very wet where I work, and the water comes over our clog-tops always, and I have seen it up to my thighs; it rains in at the roof terribly. My clothes are wet through almost all day long. I have drawn till I have bathe skin off me; the belt and chain is worse when we are in the family way.

Source 2: Testimony from a female coal-mine worker, Betty Harris, aged 37. Extract from *The First Report of Commissioners for Enquiring into the Employment and Conditions of Children in Mines and Manufactories*, 1842.

Cheap child labour

Factories

Many early mill owners employed children, as they were a very cheap source of labour as well as being small and agile. When threads broke during cloth manufacturing, children could fit underneath the machines to repair the breaks without the machine being turned off, even though this was dangerous. Many children were 'apprentices' – orphans who were sent to work in the factories by local authorities. They had few rights and little protection.



Mines

In mines, children worked as trappers. Sitting in the dark all day, they opened and closed doors as older children pushing and pulling carts filled with coal passed through. The children who moved the coal carts to the surface often suffered long-term damage to their bodies.

> I'm a trapper in the Gawber pit. It does not tire me, but I have to trap without a light and I'm scared. I go at four and sometimes half past three in the morning, and come out at five and half past. I never go to sleep. Sometimes I sing when I've light, but not in the dark; I dare not sing then. I don't like being in the pit.

Source 3: Testimony from Sarah Gooder, age 8, a young mine worker. Extract from *The First Report of Commissioners for Enquiring into the Employment and Conditions of Children in Mines and Manufactories*, 1842.

Source 4: Children worked in appalling conditions in the mines. The tunnels were often so low that they had to pull the carts in a bent position or on all fours, which later led to numerous health problems.

Child labour reform

Child labour had been common in England prior to the Industrial Revolution – most children had done agricultural or domestic work. However, greater numbers of children were now entering the workforce at younger ages and being treated more harshly. Reformers began to demand change.

In 1833, the British government passed the *Factory Act* to improve conditions for children working in factories. The act stipulated that no children under nine years of age were allowed to work in textile factories. Children aged between nine and 13 were only permitted to work for eight hours per day.

In 1840, Anthony Ashley Cooper, the seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, instigated the Royal Commission of Enquiry into Children's Employment. A quote from his final report is shown as Source 5. The findings of the report were published in 1842 and included testimony from many child and female labourers (Sources 2 and 3).

The report shocked society, and writers such as Charles Dickens published texts (such as *Oliver Twist* and *A Christmas Carol*) that protested against the use of child labour and workers' conditions. Legislation restricting the employment of children under the age of 10 in mines was passed in 1842.

> There is, however, one case of peculiar difficulty, viz., that in which all the subterranean roadways, and especially the side passages, are below a certain height, by the Evidence collected under this Commission, it is proved that there are coal mines at present in work in which these passages are so small, that even the youngest Children cannot move along them without crawling on their hands and feet, in which unnatural and constrained posture they drag the loaded carriages after them; and yet, as it is impossible, by any outlay compatible with a profitable return, to render such coal mines, happily not numerous nor of great extent, fit for human beings to work in, they never will be placed in such a condition, and consequently they never can be worked without inflicting great and irreparable injury on the health of the Children.

Source 5: Thos Tooke, T. Southwood Smith, Leonard Horner and Robert J. Saunders (1842), *Children's Employment Commission (Mines)*, vol. XV, pp. 225–59.

Learning ladder 2.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the number of hours a day worked by factory employees.
2. Describe the working conditions in factories.
3. Sources 3 and 4: Explain why children were used in mining operations. What tasks did they perform?
4. Evaluate the influence of Anthony Ashley Cooper, the seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, on raising society's awareness of the working conditions of children during the Industrial Revolution.

Source analysis

1. Sources 2 and 3: Identify the origin of these sources.
2. Source 5: Describe this source.
3. Source 4: Apply your historical knowledge of child labour during the Industrial Revolution to explain this source.
4. Source 1: Evaluate the accuracy, usefulness and reliability of this source to an historian investigating the working conditions in factories during the Industrial Revolution. Give reasons for your answer.

Source analysis, page 493

HOW TO

2.8

Who challenged the status quo?

Just as the Enlightenment brought about a new way of thinking based on reason and science, the Industrial Revolution gave rise to a number of free thinkers. Robert Owen, Friedrich Engels and Mary Wollstonecraft all challenged the social **status quo**, while Charles Darwin's scientific theories, seemingly radical at the time, are today widespread and generally accepted.

Robert Owen

Robert Owen became owner of the New Lanark mills in Scotland in 1799. As an advocate of **socialism**, he believed looking after the welfare of his workers was as important as making a profit for his company.

This contrast in attitude to many factory owners at the time was met with suspicion. Owen was highly critical of child labour and, following his purchase of the New Lanark mills, stopped the employment of children under 10. Instead, he set up a school for them to attend. Physical punishments were banned and the working hours of children over 10 were limited so they could continue their education.

Owen also provided his workers with housing and ensured they had access to doctors. Despite the fears of his partners that this would reduce profits, the New Lanark mills were a commercial success. However, Owen alienated other factory owners when he began to call for mill profits to be shared with workers. He was also credited with devising the slogan '8 hours work, 8 hours recreation and 8 hours rest' that was adopted by the 8 Hours Movement in Victoria in 1856.

▲ **Source 1:** In 2013, this street art image of Mary Wollstonecraft appeared on the wall of New Unity Unitarian Church, where she worshipped in the 18th century.

◀ **Source 2:** The New Lanark cotton mills, now a world heritage site

Friedrich Engels

German philosopher Friedrich Engels was a socialist and co-authored *The Communist Manifesto* with Karl Marx in 1848. Engels wrote:

> Nobody troubles about the poor as they struggle helplessly in the whirlpool of modern industrial life. The working man may be lucky enough to find employment, if by his labour he can enrich some member of the middle classes. But his wages are so low that they hardly keep body and soul together. If he cannot find work, he can steal, unless he is afraid of the police; or he can go hungry and then the police will see to it that he will die of hunger in such a way as not to disturb the equanimity of the middle classes.

Source 3: Friedrich Engels (1844), *The Condition of the Working Class in England*.

Mary Wollstonecraft

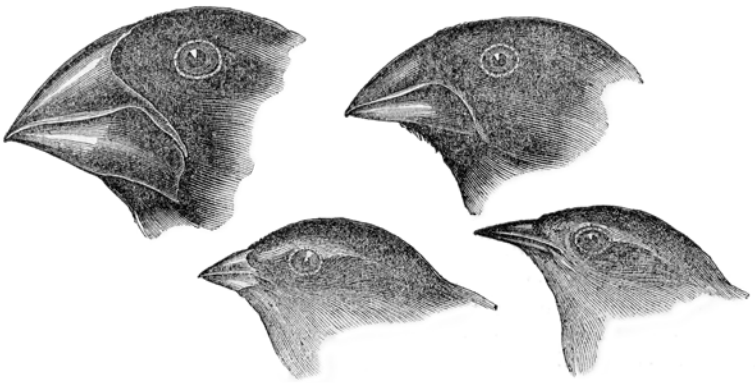
Mary Wollstonecraft lacked a formal education, so she studied on her own and taught herself instead. She became a major British writer and philosopher, advocating for equality and education for women. Her publisher, Joseph Johnson, held weekly dinners where she met radical thinkers such as Thomas Paine and William Goodwin, whom she later married.

In her book, *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792), Wollstonecraft argued that men and women should be treated equally, and that if women were afforded the same opportunities and education as men, they could equally contribute to society. This led to the establishment of many women's rights groups across Europe and North America.

Charles Darwin

In 1859, Charles Darwin published *On the Origin of Species*. The English clergy saw the book and Darwin's theory of evolution as a threat to everything that mattered most to British society.

Darwin had just left university in 1831 when he was presented with an opportunity to sail around the world on a scientific expedition. Darwin set sail with the HMS *Beagle* in December 1831. His observations on the Galapagos Islands helped him formulate his ideas regarding evolution. Darwin theorised that different species of plants and animals had evolved to suit their environment to ensure their ongoing survival. He called this 'natural selection'. However, his theory shocked the Church, as it challenged the Christian doctrine that God had created all plants and animals.



▲ **Source 4:** On the Galapagos Islands, Darwin observed that finches developed different beak shapes depending on the available food sources. This contributed to his ideas around natural selection.

Learning ladder 2.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify a significant impact of Mary Wollstonecraft's book on women's rights.
2. Describe how Robert Owen looked after his workers.
3. Source 3: Explain the issues Friedrich Engels saw with working conditions.
4. Explain why Charles Darwin's ideas were viewed as a threat.
5. Evaluate Engels' ideas about the middle class. What social group might have been influenced by his writings?

Perspectives

1. What was Mary Wollstonecraft's perspective on the rights of women?
2. Describe Robert Owen's perspective on how workers should be treated.
3. Explain the perspective of Engels in describing the working class.
4. If you compared the perspective of Robert Owen to other factory owners during the Industrial Revolution, how might they differ?

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

2.9

What groups fought for social and political change?

The 19th century was a period of social inequality. While wealthy men had power, working class men were prohibited from voting and discouraged from forming trade unions, and women of all classes had very limited rights. However, alongside the economic changes during this period, movements and ideologies grew that sought social change.

▲ **Source 1:** The Tolpuddle Martyrs

Tolpuddle Martyrs

The fall in farm labourers' wages prompted George Loveless, a ploughman and Wesleyan preacher, to form a 'friendly society' to support the farm workers of Tolpuddle, Dorset. But, fearing that workers who had joined would be sacked, they decided to swear an oath of secrecy. It was this oath that allowed the government to arrest this particular trade union, having passed a law in 1797 prohibiting secret oaths.

In February 1834, six men were sentenced to seven years' transportation to Australia as an 'example to the working-class men'. However, there was such a public outcry against their sentence that they were pardoned in 1836 and given free passage home from Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) in 1837.

Trade unions

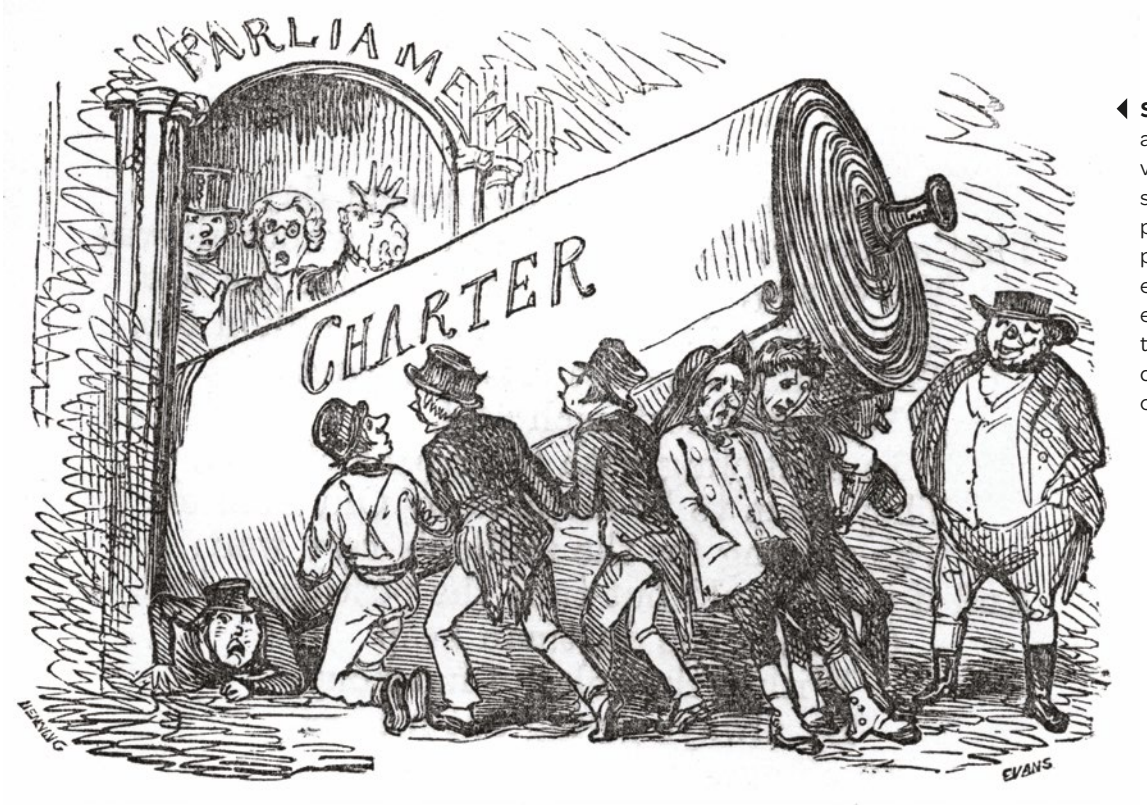
The changes brought about by the agricultural revolution and industrialisation had greatly affected people's lives and caused significant social unrest. In 1799, the British government, fearing the influence of the French Revolution coupled with pressure from employers, banned **trade unions**.

Despite this repression, workers continued to meet illegally to fight for better working conditions. In 1818, the General Union of Trades was founded in Manchester. It was also known as the Philanthropic Society, to hide the organisation's real purpose. In 1824, the ban on trade unions was repealed. However, workers still faced a long struggle for better working conditions. To meet this need, the trade union movement grew throughout the 19th century.

Chartism

Chartism was a movement in Britain that demanded electoral reform in order to secure the vote for all working-class men. The Chartists named themselves after the *People's Charter*, an 1838 document that called for an end to the domination of the British political system by wealthy landowners, who were the only men eligible to become members of parliament.

Although the Chartists' petition of 1842 was rejected, they won several small victories: the property qualifications were lowered in 1867, and by 1884 two-thirds of all men could vote. However, a universal suffrage bill for all men was not passed until 1918.



Source 2: The Chartists argued for six main points: votes for every man, a secret ballot for voting, payment of members of parliament, equal sizes of electoral districts, an annual election for parliament and the abolition of property qualifications for members of parliament.

Several key Chartist leaders, such as John Basson Humffray, were transported to Australia. They later became involved in Australian protests against unfair working conditions and demands for political equality, such as the Eureka Rebellion.

> ... in the long run Chartism by no means failed ... the principles of the Charter have gradually become parts of the British constitution ... its restricted platform of political reform, though denounced as revolutionary at the time, was afterwards substantially adopted by the British State ... before all the Chartist leaders had passed away, most of the famous Six Points became the law of the land ... the Chartists have substantially won their case. England has become a democracy, as the Chartists wished, and the domination of the middle class ... is at least as much a matter of ancient history as the power of the landed aristocracy.

Source 3: One interpretation of the impact of the Chartist movement on British politics came from Mark Hovell, from his book, *The Chartist Movement*, 1918.

Learning ladder 2.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the group the Tolpuddle friendly society supported.
2. Source 2: Describe the key ideas of the Chartists.
3. Explain why the General Union of Trades was known as the Philanthropic Society.
4. Source 3: Evaluate the influence of the Chartists on society a) in 1842 and b) over the next decades.

Perspectives

1. Identify the perspective of British lawmakers towards trade unions in 1799.
2. Describe the perspective of the British government towards the Tolpuddle Martyrs.
3. Explain how the perspective of the British public on the sentencing of the Tolpuddle Martyrs was different to that of the judge who made the decision.
4. Source 3: How would you evaluate the perspective of Mark Hovell on the Chartists?

HOW TO

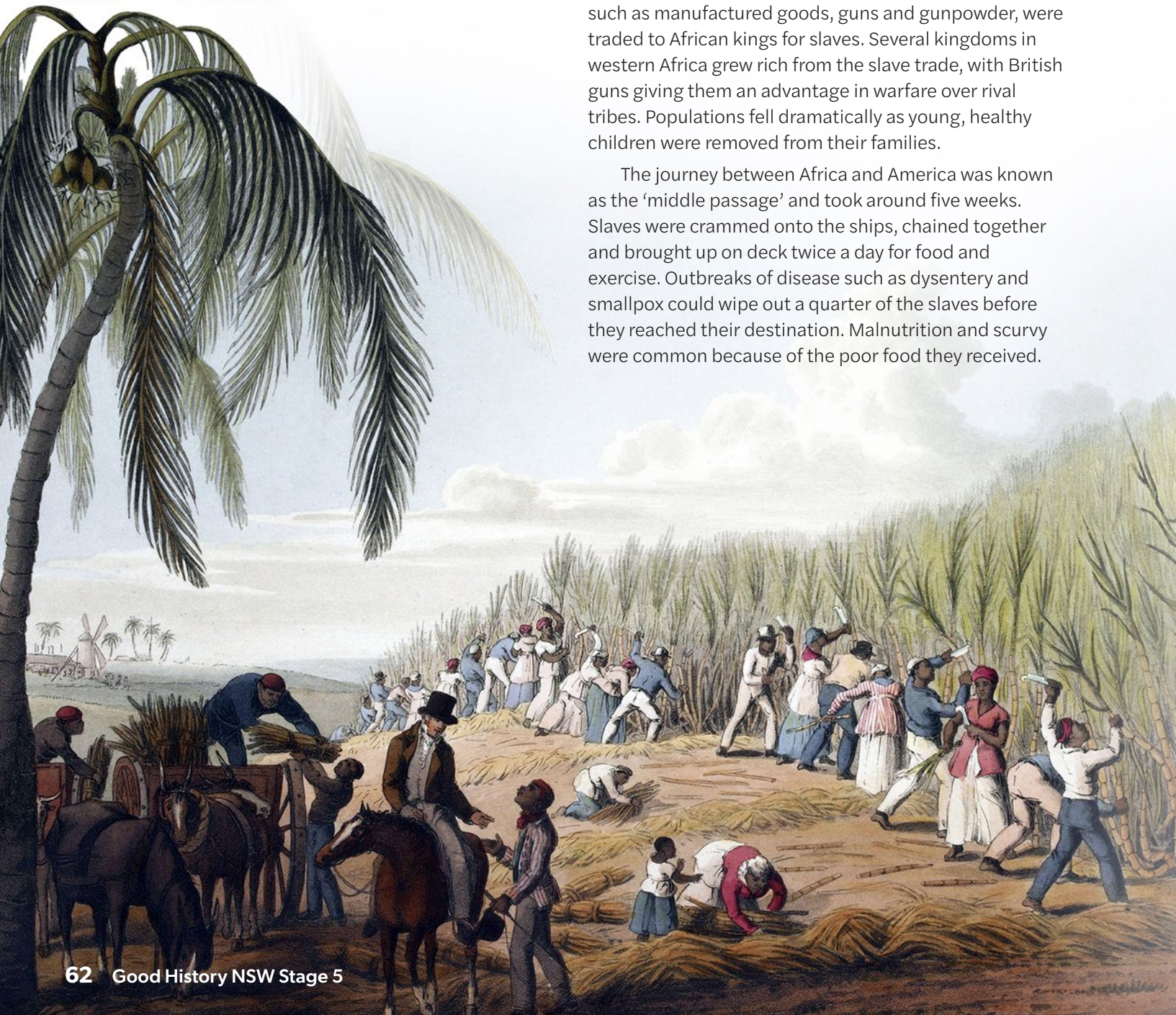
Perspectives, page 502

2.10

Why were more people enslaved?

Slavery existed around the world long before the Industrial Revolution. But with the expansion of European empires, particularly in the Americas where cotton, tobacco and sugar were grown, those in power demanded more and more slaves to work the land.

Source 1: A painting of a sugar plantation worked by slaves in the British colony of Antigua, 1823



The slave trade

By 1750, a third of the British merchant navy was involved in the slave trade. Goods that were desirable in Africa, such as manufactured goods, guns and gunpowder, were traded to African kings for slaves. Several kingdoms in western Africa grew rich from the slave trade, with British guns giving them an advantage in warfare over rival tribes. Populations fell dramatically as young, healthy children were removed from their families.

The journey between Africa and America was known as the 'middle passage' and took around five weeks. Slaves were crammed onto the ships, chained together and brought up on deck twice a day for food and exercise. Outbreaks of disease such as dysentery and smallpox could wipe out a quarter of the slaves before they reached their destination. Malnutrition and scurvy were common because of the poor food they received.

Slaves were considered property and nothing more. In 1782, the captain of the slave ship *Zong* ordered 130 sick slaves to be thrown overboard to prevent the spread of disease. He did this so that the owners would be able to claim insurance on the dead slaves.

Slave labour was used in the colonies to supply raw materials to be processed in industrialising countries. Slaves were also needed to build fences and make roads and bridges. By the mid-1850s, over 12 500 000 people had been enslaved by imperial powers, including Britain, Spain, France and the United States.

On arrival, the slaves would be inspected and then sold at auction. The best slaves would fetch £60 or more each. Others were sold for as low as £1. Any slaves who were too weak or sick to sell were left to die on the waterfront. Once sold, slaves faced a lifetime of misery, working from dawn until dusk on the sugar, cotton and tobacco plantations.

The abolition movement

The horrors of the slave trade resulted in a growing abolition movement. In May 1787, the Society for Effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade was formed. Thomas Clarkson, a leading member of the anti-slavery campaign, investigated slavery conditions. He was supported by William Wilberforce, a British MP.

In 1807, the British government banned the sale of slaves throughout its empire; however, slavery itself was not banned until 36 years later.

> I am sure that the immediate abolition of the slave trade is the first, the principal, the most indispensable act of policy, of duty, and of justice that this country has to take. There are, however, arguments set up to [defend the slave trade]. The slave system, it is supposed, has taken such deep root in Africa that it is absurd to think of it being eradicated. 'We are friends,' they say, 'to humanity. We are second to none of you in our zeal for the good of Africa – but the French will not abolish – the Dutch will not abolish. We wait, therefore, till they join us or set us an example.' How, sire, is this enormous evil ever to be eradicated, if every nation waits?

Source 2: Extract from a speech made by the British Prime Minister, William Pitt, 2 April 1792.

Source 3: Medallion produced by Josiah Wedgwood in support of the abolition movement. Benjamin Franklin declared that the medallion's effectiveness was 'equal to that of the best written Pamphlet, in procuring favour to those oppressed People'.

Learning ladder 2.10

Background and origins

1. Identify from where slaves were captured during the time of the Industrial Revolution.
2. Describe the treatment of slaves.
3. Explain how moves were made in Britain to end slavery.
4. Source 2: Explain why some of Britain's parliamentarians were reluctant to end slavery.

Source analysis

1. Identify the origin of Source 2.
2. Describe Source 3.
3. Apply your historical knowledge to explain what is shown in Source 1.
4. Evaluate the accuracy, usefulness and reliability of Source 1.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

How did the Industrial Revolution affect the environment?

The rapid development that occurred during the Industrial Revolution came at a great cost. Industrialisation had, and continues to have, a devastating impact on the environment. Land was increasingly cleared, rivers were dammed and the air and water became polluted. Many of these patterns of environmental exploitation and degradation continue today.

Source 1: A 'pea souper': a very thick, yellow, green or black fog that occurred during the 19th and 20th centuries because of air pollution from coal fires. This image depicts the thick fog at Ludgate Circus, London, in the late 19th century.

Deforestation

At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, forests were cleared for timber and to increase the land available for farming. But as industrialisation gained momentum, land was cleared for factories and to make way for urban development.

Deforestation still occurs, as economic factors further drive the need for agricultural land. This has extended the impact on the environment because land degradation can lead to problems such as erosion and loss of habitat. These further endanger vulnerable species and increase the risk of natural disasters, such as flooding and landslides.

Air pollution

The invention of steam-driven machines created a demand for coal. The negative impact of this was that the smoke from coal-driven factories created significant **air pollution**. When the smoke mixed with fog, it created a deadly smog. During the 1800s this led to numerous problems in London, such as traffic accidents and the deaths of animals at markets. It continued to be a problem into the mid-20th century; in 1952, five days of thick smog led to the deaths of thousands of Londoners. Today, countries such as China and India continue to suffer from poor air quality as a result of reliance on fossil fuels for manufacturing.

Burning fossil fuels, such as coal, oil and natural gas, releases carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. It is now well recognised that the exponential increase in harmful emissions during and since the Industrial Revolution has led to **climate change**. The effects of this are increasingly apparent, with warmer temperatures, rising sea levels and melting glaciers, all of which are having a significant impact on Earth's ecosystems. As our awareness of the damage being done to the planet has increased, so have our efforts to control these emissions. From the late 1960s, a broad movement aiming to stem the tide of global environmental destruction emerged, leading to international agreements like the United Nations Environment Programme (1972).

Source 3: The infamous 1952 smog almost brought London to a standstill and led to the death of thousands.

Water pollution

Poor sanitation in cities during the Industrial Revolution led to water supplies becoming polluted, causing epidemics of dangerous diseases such as cholera, typhus and typhoid.

Waste from industries also contaminated water, which led to further environmental and health problems, including damage to aquatic ecosystems, the poisoning of surrounding landscapes and long-term health conditions for people consuming dangerous chemicals.

> And what cities! ... smoke hung over them and filth impregnated them, the elementary public services – water supply, sanitation, street-cleaning, open spaces, and so on – could not keep pace with the mass migration of men into the cities, thus producing, especially after 1830, epidemics of cholera, typhoid and an appalling constant toll of the two great groups of 19th century urban killers – air pollution and water pollution or respiratory and intestinal disease.

Source 2: Extract from E.J. Hobsbawm (1969), *The Pelican Economic History of Britain, Volume 3, Industry and Empire,* Harmondsworth, p. 86.

Learning ladder 2.11

Impacts and legacies

1. Identify one impact of burning coal.
2. Describe the effects of the Industrial Revolution on the environment.
3. Explain the impact of water pollution created by industrialisation on a society.
4. Explain the legacy of air pollution on London.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: What causes smog?
2. Describe how deforestation affects the environment.
3. How did the Industrial Revolution contribute to water pollution?
4. Source 2: Explain the link between pollution and disease.
5. Analyse the environmental impacts of industrialisation and decide which has been most significant. Provide evidence to support your opinion.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

Site study

How is the Industrial Revolution represented at Manchester's Science and Industry Museum?

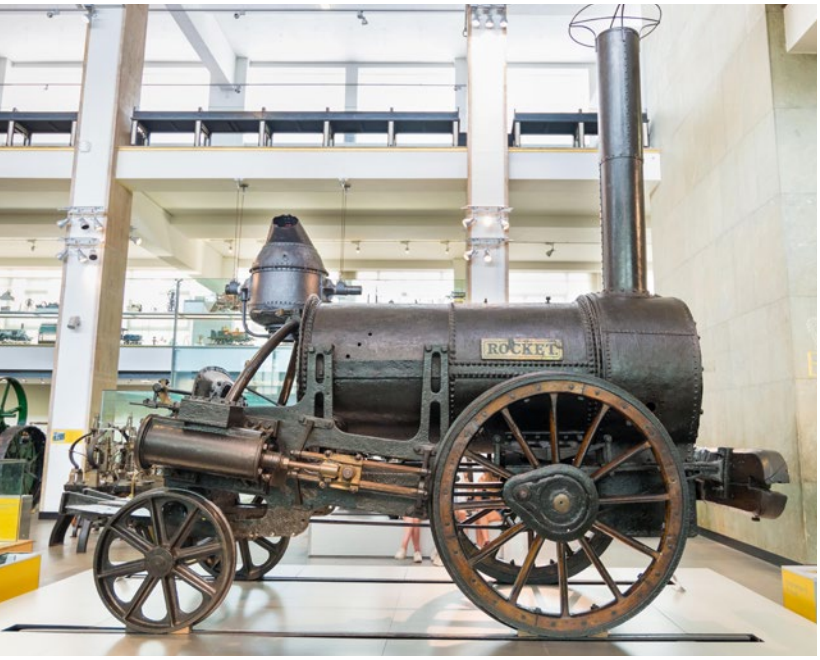
The Science and Industry Museum at Manchester was opened in 1969. Among its collection is a vast array of objects from the time of the Industrial Revolution.

Background to Manchester

Manchester was the world's first industrial city. During the Industrial Revolution, it was transformed from a rural town into a bustling hub of manufacturing, with cotton mills, new machinery, canals, factory jobs, overcrowding and pollution. The city experienced both significant wealth and severe poverty as a result.

Source 1: 17th-century spinning wheel. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, cotton was spun to yarn by hand. [Science Museum Group Collection Online]

Source 2: A water frame, a water-powered spinning machine, made by Richard Arkwright, c. 1775. This is a four-spindled example of Richard Arkwright's water frame, possibly the earliest surviving production example of the machine that triggered a transformation in cotton spinning. The water frame made the mass production of cotton yarn possible for the first time. Driven by a water wheel, its moving rollers thinned out the cotton, then its rotating spindles twisted it into yarn. [Science Museum Group Collection Online]



Source 3: Robert Stephenson's 'Rocket', built in 1829. It set the pattern for the future and remains the most significant of all early railway locomotives. It represented a substantial technical advance over previous designs, bringing together in one machine such developments as the multi-tube boiler and the blast-pipe. [Science Museum Group Collection Online]

Source 4: Steam locomotive, built in 1822 at Hetton Collery. The date is contested by some historians, who believe this locomotive was actually built in 1851–1852. [Science Museum Group Collection Online]

Source 5: Railway carriage, built in 1847. Its shape and style are reminiscent of road stagecoaches of the same era. [Science Museum Group Collection Online]

Learning ladder 2.12

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the event in c. 1775 that transformed the spinning of cotton.
2. Describe the advances of Stephenson's 'Rocket'.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain the differences in spinning cotton shown in these sources.
4. Sources 2 and 3: Using your historical knowledge, explain how the ideas that led to these inventions changed society.

Source analysis

1. Describe Source 5.
2. Sources 1–5: Select one of these sources and explain its historical context based on your knowledge of the Industrial Revolution.
3. Source 2: Evaluate the accuracy, usefulness and reliability of this source for understanding how a water frame operated in 1775.
4. Source 4: The date this steam locomotive was built is contested. Evaluate the accuracy and reliability of this source compared to Source 3.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

2.13

What are the legacies of the Industrial Revolution?

Much of what we know as the modern world can be traced back to the Industrial Revolution. From this era would come changes to social, political and economic structures that still affect how we live today. How these legacies are viewed – as positive or negative – is often contested.

Transforming societies and economies

As the Industrial Revolution spread from Britain to Western Europe and then to the United States and later Australia, it changed not only how people lived and worked, but also the structure of society and the nature of politics and international relations.

The Industrial Revolution transformed societies and economies from agrarian (farm based) to manufacturing-based, where products were generally made by machines rather than by hand. This led to increased production and efficiency, and further migration from rural areas to industrial centres. Living in a city or town became the norm and has remained so to this day.

Industrialisation led to great improvements in transportation both on land and by sea. Travel by rail and ship became faster, allowing goods and people to move quickly between destinations. By the 1880s, trains were reaching speeds of 120 kph and the time to sail from England to Australia had been reduced from over 100 days to around 60 days.

Workers' rights and movements

The rise of the working class led to movements such as trade unionism and the founding of political parties to represent them. These ranged from the Labour Party in Britain to socialist and communist parties across the world. In Russia, industrialisation and the rise of

Source 1: Manufacturing in factories – a legacy of the Industrial Revolution. Shown here is the Olympic Tyre Factory, Footscray, Victoria, 1949.

Source 2: Chinese factories, although more high tech, use the same assembly-line process introduced during the Industrial Revolution. Just as during the Industrial Revolution, workers in many of these factories face poor wages and working conditions.

the working class contributed to revolutionary movements and eventually the overthrow of the Russian royal family. The Industrial Revolution brought about political change that supported the growth and spread of democracy, such as removing property qualifications to be eligible to vote. Industrialisation is also associated with capitalism, although not all industrialised countries adopted a capitalist political and economic system.

Responses to the unsafe and tyrannical working environments in factories resulted, over time, in laws to protect the health and safety of workers, and to ensure fair payment and working conditions. In developed countries today, workers' rights are generally protected, but this is not the case in some parts of the world.

From imperialism to globalisation

Combined with imperialism, industrialisation created world powers. The United States would emerge as a super power by the mid-20th century and its strength was founded in its industrialisation. While Britain today is no longer the world power it once was, the financial system established there during the Industrial Revolution remains an important part of global commerce.

The need to find markets in which to sell mass-produced goods led to globalisation in the 20th century. Globalisation typically involves removing the constraints on companies so they can do business in any part of the world. While globalisation can often bring cheaper prices to consumers, it can mean outsourcing of work to developing countries where wages are lower and working conditions are not regulated, including the use of child labour.

Differing perspectives

Historians agree that the Industrial Revolution was one of the most important events in human history, but they disagree about some aspects of its impact. The two opposing perspectives can be summarised as:

- The standard of living fell for ordinary people, especially the working class, with capitalists (factory owners) squeezing more and more profit out of their workers.
- The standard of living rose and consumer goods became increasingly available to ordinary people.

Learning ladder 2.13

Impact and legacies

1. Sources 1 and 2: Identify the similarities in how the work is being performed compared to the Industrial Revolution.
2. Describe the impact of the Industrial Revolution on societies and economies.
3. Explain the legacy of trade unionism on working conditions.
4. Evaluate the legacy of the Industrial Revolution. Do its benefits outweigh its disadvantages?

Contestability

1. Identify the area of agreement between historians on the significance of the Industrial Revolution.
2. Describe the interpretation of how the Industrial Revolution changed transport.
3. Explain why the view that globalisation is good for society might be contested.
4. Compare the interpretations of how the Industrial Revolution changed the standard of living for ordinary people. What evidence would you seek to determine which view to take?

HOW TO

Contestability, page 506

2.14

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

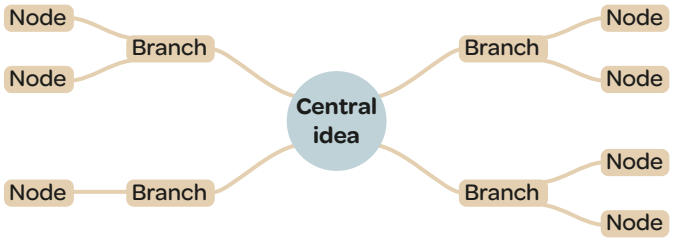
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to the Industrial Revolution.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Technological innovations, 2.3–2.5
- Urbanisation and living conditions, 2.6
- Child labour, 2.7
- Social movements, 2.8, 2.9
- Slavery, 2.10
- Environmental impacts, 2.11

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative (see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

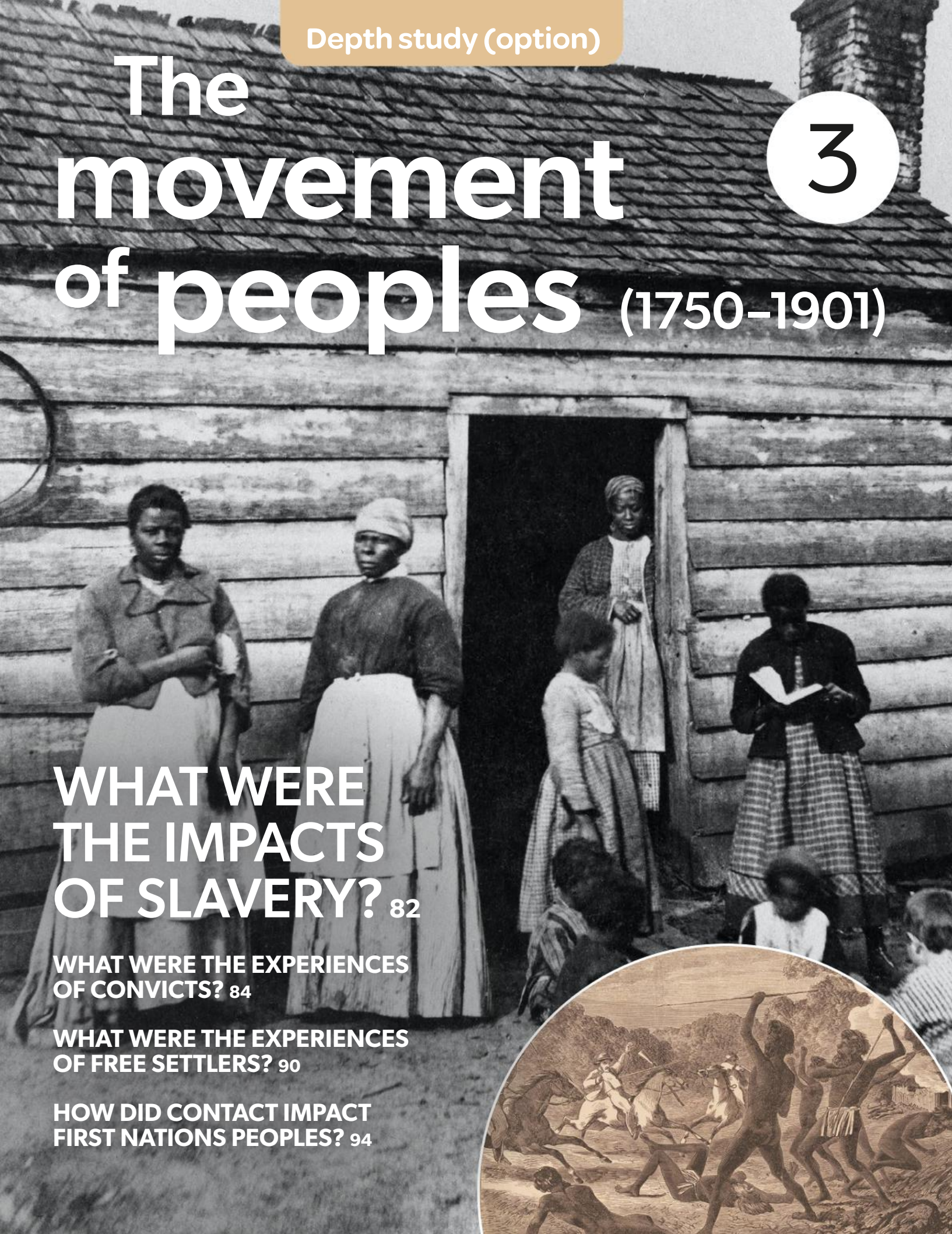
Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

The movement of peoples (1750–1901)

3



WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF SLAVERY? 82

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES OF CONVICTS? 84

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES OF FREE SETTLERS? 90

HOW DID CONTACT IMPACT FIRST NATIONS PEOPLES? 94

3.0

How can I understand movement of peoples?

Mass movement of people around the world began with slaves, who were forcibly taken to far-off colonies to work. During the 18th century, enslaved peoples of Africa represented the largest movement of people in the world. The criminals of Britain became the next group to be unwillingly transported, as convicts.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: Auguste-Francois Biard (1840), *The Slave Trade*.

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

3.1

How did industrialisation affect the movement of people?

In Britain, the Industrial Revolution forced many people to move from rural areas into towns and cities. This changed the nature of society. Globally, it also drove a demand for resources, which manufacturers looked to other parts of the world to supply. Rapid growth in resource production resulted in growth of the forced use of slaves and convicts.

Agricultural revolution

An **agricultural revolution** took place in Britain in the century after 1750. New farming systems evolved that used crop rotation to improve soil quality, and high-yielding crops such as wheat and barley were increasingly planted. This made agricultural workers more productive, reducing the proportion of the workforce in agriculture to 22 per cent by 1850, down from around 60 per cent in 1750.

Source 1: G. Pickering, *Panoramic View of Manchester from Kersal Moor*, c. 1834

Source 2: Workers in a knitting mill, c. 1850

Urbanisation

A major effect of the Industrial Revolution was population shifts. In Britain, people moved from rural areas into towns and cities in a process is called **urbanisation**. The rise and spread of railways during the 19th century also quickened the pace of this internal migration. In 1801, London was the only city in Britain with a population of over 100 000, with most people living in rural areas. By the 1860s, over a dozen cities had 100 000 or more residents, and two-thirds of British people lived in an urban area. By 1900, over 30 cities had more than 100 000 people.

> The bourgeoisie has subjected the country to the rule of the towns. It has created enormous cities, has greatly increased the urban population as compared with the rural, and has thus rescued a considerable part of the population from the idiocy of rural life.
>
> **Source 3:** Karl Marx, *The Communist Manifesto*, 1848

Industrialisation

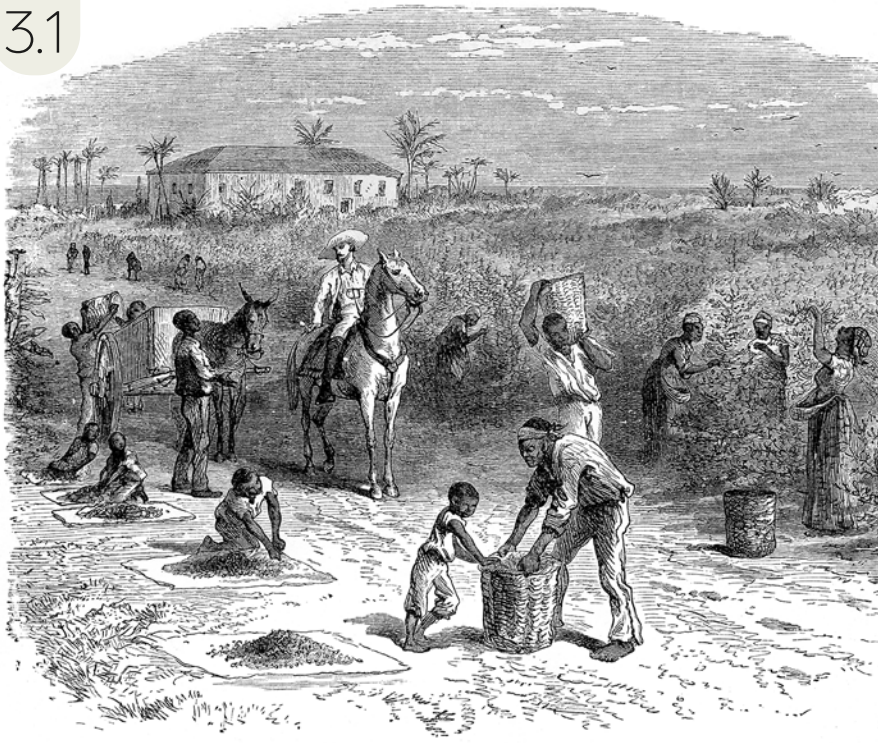
The Industrial Revolution saw the rise of large-scale enterprises that could produce goods more cheaply compared to cottage industries. An inability to compete meant that cottage industries collapsed, artisans lost their livelihoods, and the traditional system of apprenticeships broke down. This further drove people to the cities, to work in factories, and live in the housing that was springing up around them.

In Britain, **industrialisation** did not bring wealth to the majority of the population. Poor living conditions led to increased crime due to hunger and poverty. Criminals could be transported to faraway colonies as punishment for even minor crimes. This was also a time when many Europeans chose to move away from their 'homeland' for the chance of a better life as **free settlers** in the colonies.

Resources and markets

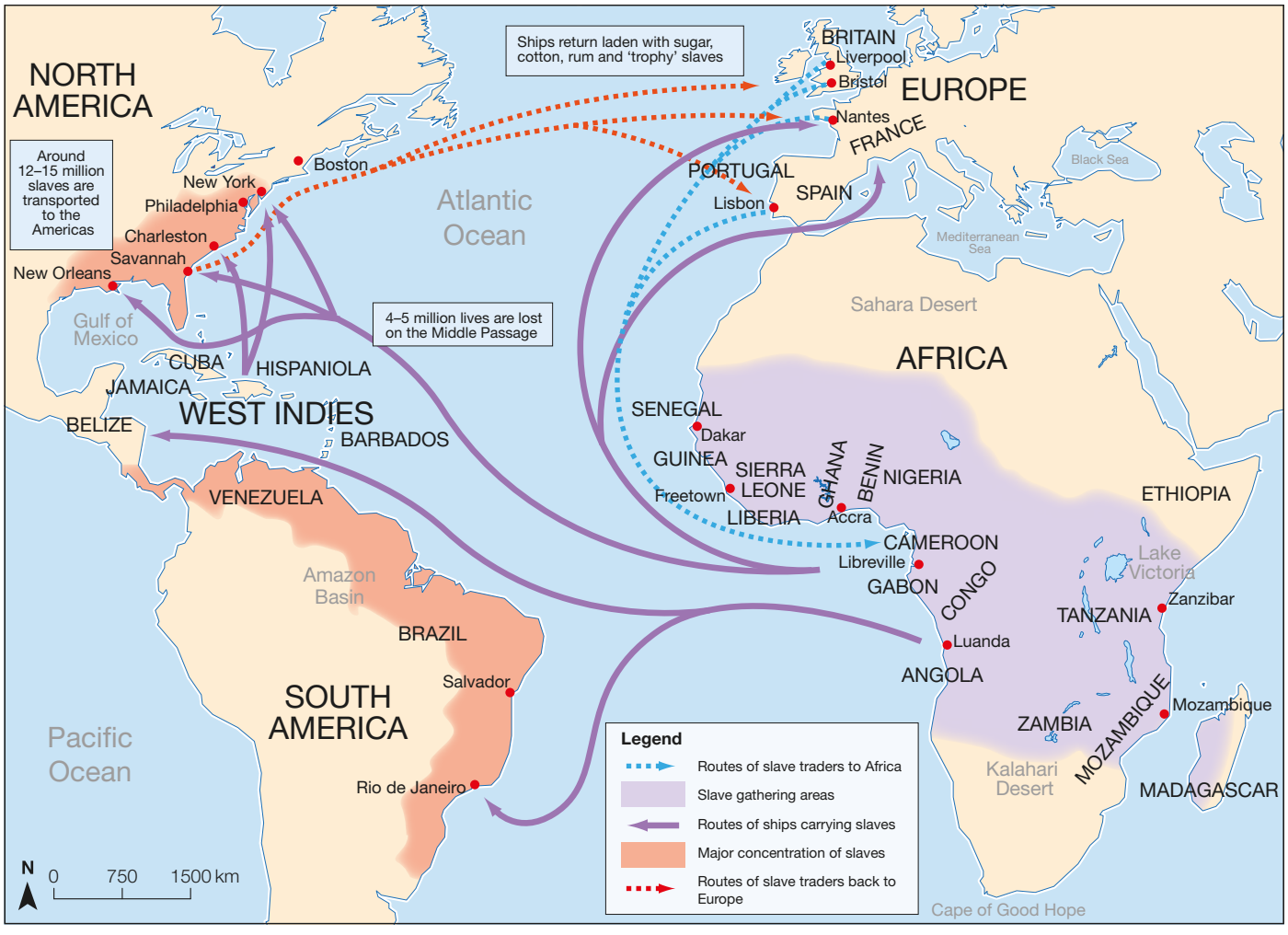
The Industrial Revolution created a need for large supplies of raw materials. When countries did not have enough of the resources they needed for manufacturing goods, they looked to other parts of the world to get them. This often involved conquering weaker countries in order to get the resources cheaply. Once conquered, these countries might become colonies and part of an empire.

Forced labour often went hand-in-hand with imperialism. For example, to supply European clothing factories with enough cotton, **plantations** were established in the **'New World'** and slaves were used to do the work. The victims of slavery, mostly from Africa, were taken against their will and brought in dreadful conditions upon packed ships to New World countries, often in South, Central and North America.



▲ **Source 4:** Brazilian coffee plantation, c. 1800

Transatlantic slave trade, 1400–1800



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 5:** Transatlantic slave trade (1400–1800) developed as a three stage system known as triangular trade.
1 Goods were sent from Europe to exchange for slaves. **2** Slaves were shipped across the Atlantic Ocean.
3 Crops and goods produced by slaves are sent back to Europe.

Year	Spain/ Uruguay	Portugal/ Brazil	Great Britain	Netherlands	USA	France	Denmark/ Baltic	Totals
1501–1525	6363	7000	0	0	0	0	0	13 363
1526–1550	25 375	25 387	0	0	0	0	0	50 763
1551–1575	28 167	31 089	1685	0	0	66	0	61 007
1576–1600	60 056	90 715	237	1365	0	0	0	152 373
1601–1625	83 496	26 7519	0	1829	0	0	0	352 843
1626–1650	44 313	201 609	33 695	31 729	824	1827	1053	315 050
1651–1675	12 601	244 793	122 367	100 526	0	7125	653	488 064
1676–1700	5860	297 272	272 200	85 847	3327	29 484	25 685	719 674
1701–1725	0	474 447	410 597	73 816	3277	120 939	5833	1 088 909
1726–1750	0	536 696	554 042	83 095	34 004	259 095	4793	1 471 725
1751–1775	4239	528 693	832 047	132 330	84 580	325 918	17 508	1 925 314
1776–1800	6415	673 167	748 612	40 773	67 443	433 061	39 199	2 008 670
1801–1825	168 087	1 160 601	283 959	2669	109 545	135 815	16 316	1 876 992
1826–1850	400 728	1 299 969	0	357	1850	68 074	0	1 770 979
1851–1866	215 824	9309	0	0	476	0	0	225 609
Totals	1 061 524	5 848 265	3 259 440	554 336	305 326	1 381 404	111 041	12 521 336

Source 6: Shippers of slaves by numbers embarked, transatlantic slave trade, 1501–1866. [Emory University, 'Assessing the slave trade', The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade Database, 2008, www.slavevoyages]

The slave trade and convicts

The Industrial Revolution resulted in the movement of peoples from the 'Old World' to the 'New', either to seek opportunities or because of **forced migration**. Slaves were transported across the Atlantic Ocean to work on plantations in the colonies. The colonies supplied raw materials to be processed in industrialising countries. They also provided food to feed growing populations of urban workers. Growing food in the colonies was cheaper, but the colonies needed labour to shepherd sheep, tend cattle, grow crops, build fences and make roads.

Britain had been transporting convicts to its colonies in North America from the early 1700s. The loss of these colonies after the American War of Independence in 1776 led Britain to establish a colony on the east coast of Australia 12 years later. Many people from colonising countries did not want to move to work in distant lands. The answer to Britain's labour shortage in its newest colony, Australia, was **transportation**. By 1850, over 142 000 convicts had been transported to Australia. This, however, was a tiny number compared with the estimated 12 500 000 enslaved people who were transported around the world between the early 1500s and the 1860s.

Learning ladder 3.1

Background and origins

1. Identify the background to the agricultural revolution.
2. Describe the origin of urbanisation.
3. Explain how British society developed as the result of industrialisation.
4. Evaluate the impact of industrialisation on the forced movement of people.

Cause and effect

1. Identify what caused Britain to establish a colony in Australia?
2. Describe the effect of transportation on Australia.
3. Source 6: The Industrial Revolution peaked between 1700 and 1850. Explain the effect on the number of slaves moved during this time.
4. Source 5: Analyse this source to explain the cause of the 'triangular trade'.
5. Evaluate the long-term consequences of industrialisation for colonised societies that supplied resources and labour.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

3.2

How did the slave trade operate?

Millions of slaves were forcibly taken from Africa and sailed across the world in horrendous conditions to work on plantations in New World countries to create goods for rapidly industrialising nations.

The slaves' journey

Around 11 million Africans were victims of slavery. Every major European trading nation participated in this cruel trade, which lasted 400 years from the beginning of the 16th century. Historians estimate that from 1451 to 1870 between 10 and 12 million slaves were forcibly taken from Africa.

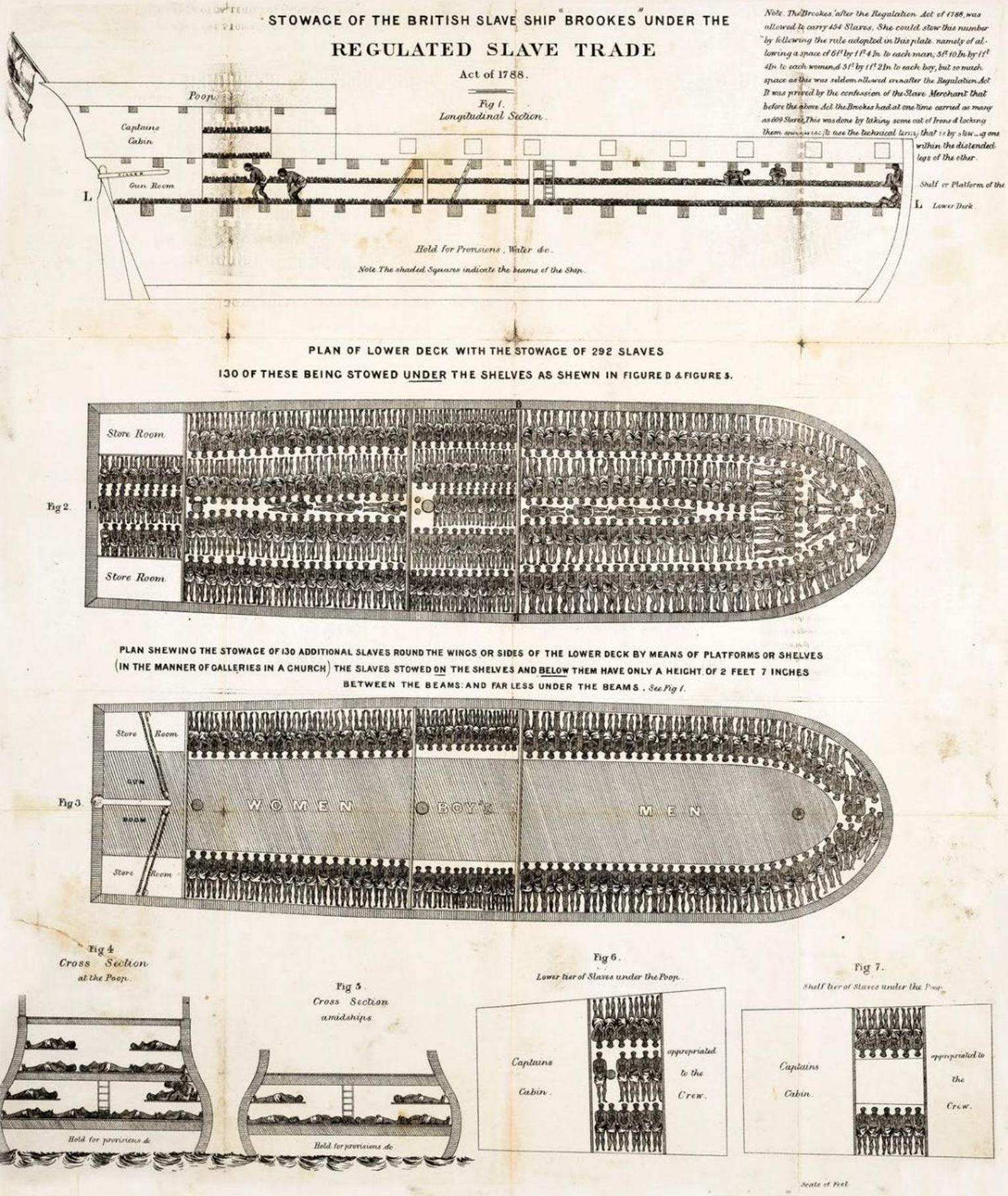
Slave ships criss-crossed the oceans, loaded with human cargo in such a way as to maximise profit for slavers (Source 3). The result was horrific and dehumanising conditions for people being transported as slaves (Sources 1 and 2), causing them significant suffering and often resulting in deaths. The mortality rate during the journey was about 10 per cent, or 1.2 million deaths.

> The poor captives were in a wretched condition – all of them naked; and the greater part seemed to have been half starved. They were packed closely together, and covered with dirt and vermin … The slave-schooner had two decks and between them the captives were packed in such a manner that they had scarcely room to move. During each day of the voyage they sat in a painful posture, 18 inches only being allowed for each to turn in … in a deck room of 30 feet in length … [they were] brought up in platoons once every day to get a small portion of fresh air.

Source 1: Letter to a newspaper editor describing conditions on board the slave ship *Zeldina* in 1857.

> I was soon put down under the decks, and there I received such a greeting in my nostrils as I had never experienced in my life; so that, with the loathsomeness of the stench, and crying together, I became so sick and low that I was not able to eat, nor had I the least desire to taste anything. I now wished for the last friend, death, to relieve me; but soon, to my grief, two of the white men offered me eatables; and, on my refusing to eat, one of them held me fast by the hands, and laid me across, I think, the windlass, and tied my feet, while the other flogged me severely.
>
> The white people looked and acted, as I thought, in so savage a manner; for I had never seen among my people such instances of brutal cruelty. The closeness of the place, and the heat of the climate, added to the number in the ship, which was so crowded that each had scarcely room to turn himself, almost suffocated us.
>
> The air soon became unfit for respiration, from a variety of loathsome smells, and brought on a sickness among the slaves, of which many died. The wretched situation was again aggravated by the chains, now unsupportable, and the filth of the necessary tubs, into which the children often fell, and were almost suffocated. The shrieks of the women, and the groans of the dying, rendered the whole a scene of horror almost inconceivable.

Source 2: Olaudah Equiano was captured and sold as a slave in the kingdom of Benin in Africa. He wrote about his experiences in 1789 in *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano or Gustavus Vassa the African*, London, 1789, ch. 2.



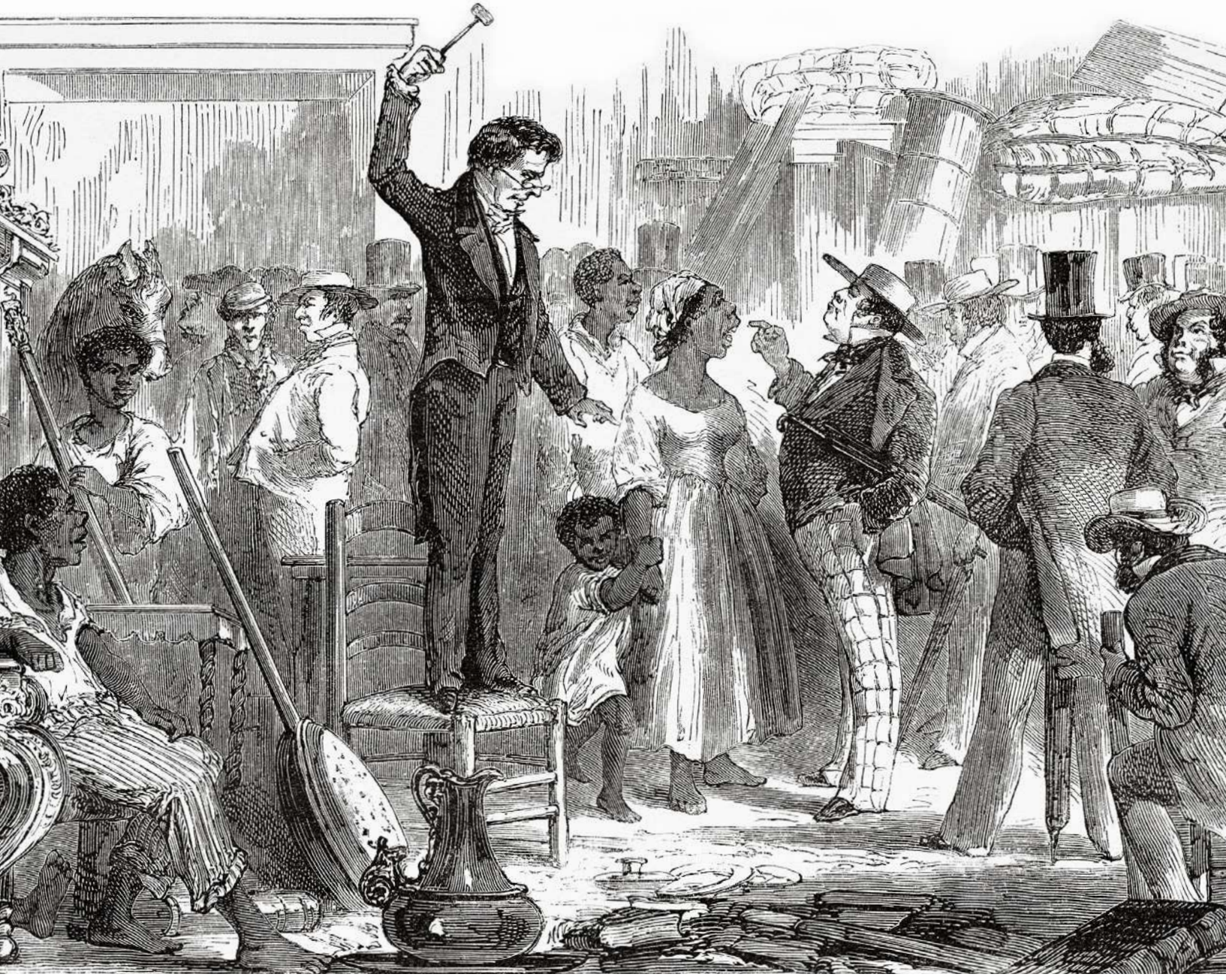
Source 3: Diagrams representing how the stowage of slaves would work on the British slave ship *Brookes*, c. 1788

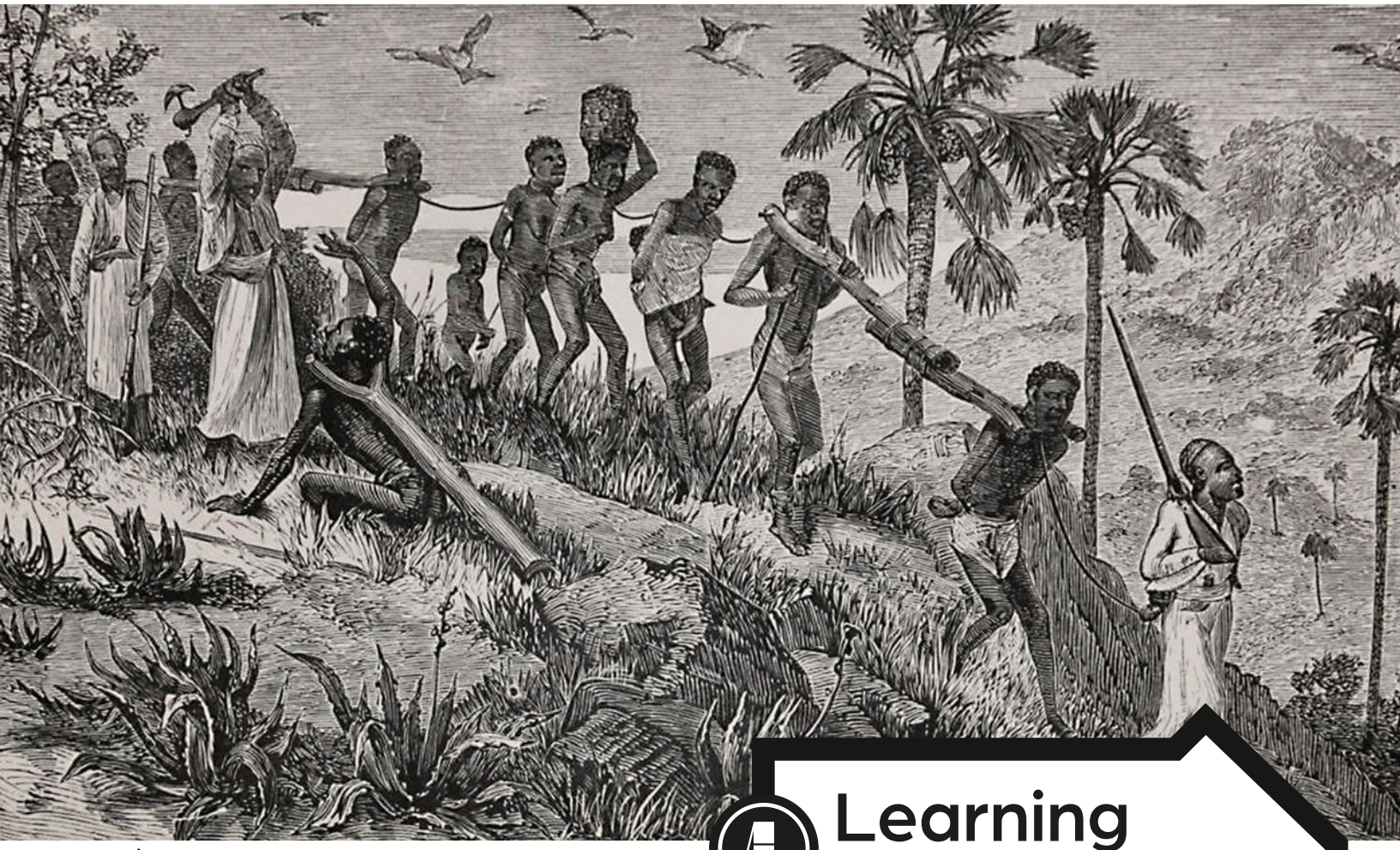
Reaction on arrival

We can only guess at the reactions of the slaves when they arrived in the New World. They had been taken from their families and homeland, transported in horrific conditions, and then put ashore in a foreign land. Those taken to America would have seen a landscape, culture and way of life totally different to what they had known in the past. Everything, from language and food to the sights, would have been extraordinary. They would have felt fear and sadness.

Any history of the experiences of the first slaves was not recorded by them, other than sharing their stories orally with each other. However, a number of accounts were written by later slaves. Ottobah Cugoano was born in Africa about 1757. As a child, he was kidnapped and sold as a slave to plantation owners in the West Indies until he was purchased by an English merchant. Cugoano was taken to England in 1772, where he was taught to read and write and was later set free. In 1787, he published an account of his experiences.

Source 4: Slaves are treated as objects at this slave sale in Rio de Janeiro. The etching shows the auctioneer standing on a chair while a prospective buyer examines a slave woman with a child clinging to her arm. Other slaves are also shown, along with household furniture and musical instruments that were being sold at the same auction. Illustration by Édouard Riou, published in the magazine *Le Tour du Monde*, 1861.





Source 5: An Arab slaver murders a captive unable to keep up with the rest. These people were taken across Central Africa to the east coast of Africa, c. 1875.

> But it would be needless to give a description of all the horrible scenes which we saw, and the base treatment which we met with in this dreadful captive situation, as the similar cases of thousands, which suffer by this infernal traffic, are well known ... I was thus lost to my dear indulgent parents and relations, and they to me ... Brought from a state of innocence and freedom, and, in a barbarous and cruel manner, conveyed to a state of horror and slavery, this abandoned situation may be easier conceived than described.

Source 6: Extract from Ottobah Cugoano, *Narrative of the Enslavement of Ottobah Cugoano, a Native of America*, London, 1787.

Learning ladder 3.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Ottobah Cugoano?
2. Describe a slave's journey.
3. Explain how European ideas on African slaves at the time influenced how slaves were treated. Refer to sources in your answer.
4. Explain why slavery can be considered a significant event in history.

Perspectives

1. Sources 1 and 6: What perspective do these sources provide about the treatment of slaves at the time?
2. Source 3: Describe the perspective we gain of slave traders on slaves from this source.
3. Source 2: Explain the perspective of Olaudah Equiano on 'white people'.
4. Sources 1–6: Compare the perspectives contained in the sources. How are they consistent in the views presented?

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3.3

What were the impacts of slavery?

Slavery had a devastating impact on Africa, causing widespread depopulation, economic disruption and social instability. Millions of Africans were forcibly taken, disrupting communities and cultures. The loss of individuals, particularly the young and strong, weakened local economies and hindered development, with long-lasting effects for the continent's growth.

The impact of slavery in Africa

The slave trade devastated the peoples of West Africa as millions of men, women and children were shipped to the Americas and elsewhere . European traders bought Africans from local dealers, who established trading networks to collect people for sale.

Most Africans sold into slavery were kidnapped, captured in battles between tribes or being punished for a crime. Two-thirds of Africans sold to European traders were men. Enslaved females were usually young women of childbearing age whose skills as farmers and craft workers contributed most to the workforce in their societies.

Incentives to provide more slaves changed the way tribes governed themselves. Enslavement became a punishment for even minor crimes. Firearms were included in goods traded for slaves, increasing warfare and war captives for the slave trade. Wars also interrupted farming, which led to food shortages in West Africa.

Food supply, and the economies of West Africa generally, were affected by the change to raising crops and cattle for trade with Europe rather than for local food supply. In addition, as trade brought more people in contact with one another, new European diseases spread throughout Africa.

There came to Africa an end of industry, especially industry guided by taste and art. Cheap European goods pushed in and threw the native products out of competition. Rum and gin displaced the milder native drinks. The beautiful patterned cloth, brocades and velvets disappeared before their cheap imitations in Manchester [England] calicos. Methods of work were lost and forgotten.

With all this went the fall and disruption of the family, the deliberate attack upon the ancient African clan by missionaries. The invading investors who wanted cheap labor at the gold mines, the diamond mines, the copper and tin mines, the oil forests and cocoa fields, followed the missionaries. The authority of the family was broken up; the authority and tradition of the clan disappeared; the power of the chief was transmuted into the rule of the white district commissioner. The old religion was held up to ridicule, the old culture and ethical standards were degraded or disappeared, and gradually all over Africa spread the inferiority complex, the fear of color, the worship of white skin, the imitation of white ways of doing and thinking, whether good, bad or indifferent. By the end of the 19th century the degradation of Africa was as complete as organized human means could make it. Chieftains, representing a thousand years of striving human culture, were decked out in second-hand London top hats, while Europe snickered.

Source 1: The impact of slavery in Africa as explained by the African-American activist and writer W.E. DuBois in *The World and Africa and Color and Democracy*, OUP, 2007

▲ **Source 2:** Thomas Nast's celebration of the emancipation of Southern slaves with the end of the Civil War. Wood engraving, 1865.

The abolition of slavery

In the late 1700s, ideas of equality and liberty began to shape societies with the dawning of the Age of Revolution. In 1807, the British Parliament passed the *Slave Trade Act* to outlaw the trade of slaves. In 1811, the *Slave Trade Felony Act* made slavery a crime.

The moral arguments against slavery were supported by changing economic conditions. Workers in Europe protested against slavery to protect their rights and working conditions. Slave labour led to the unemployment of free citizens. More paid workers were needed to buy the goods being manufactured.

In 1861, Abraham Lincoln became president of the United States of America. He was opposed to the expansion of slavery into the newly settled western territories. Eleven southern states, who were dependent on slavery for their plantations, removed themselves from the Union to form the Confederate States of America. Civil War raged for four years between the Confederates and the Union.

In 1863, Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation declared, 'that all persons held as slaves', within the rebellious states 'are, and henceforward shall be free.'

Learning ladder 3.3

Impact and legacies

1. Describe how incentives to provide more slaves affected African society.
2. Source 1: Describe the legacy of the slave trade on African society.
3. Explain how the laws passed by the British Parliament in 1807 and 1811 would have impacted on slavery.
4. Evaluate the legacy of Abraham Lincoln in relation to slavery.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Identify three changes that emancipation offered slaves in the United States of America?
2. Source 1: Describe changes to the African way of life as a result of the slave trade.
3. Explain what led to the abolition of slavery.
4. According to Source 1, a 'thousand years of striving human culture' had been impacted by interaction with European traders. Why was African culture disrupted and unable to continue as it had?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

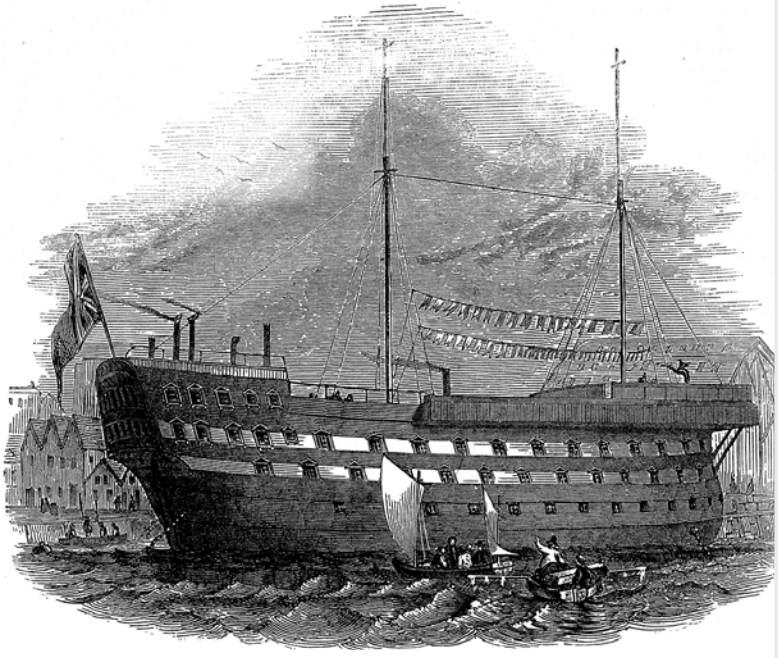
What were the experiences of convicts?

Forced movement was an ordeal also experienced by convicts. They struggled through inhumane conditions during transportation to Australia, where they would supply the cheap labour required to sustain and build the new colony.

Life on the hulks

After Britain lost the American War of Independence in 1783, it needed to find an alternative place to send its unwanted convicts. British jails were already overcrowded. Growing numbers of convicts, along with court sentences that involved transportation out of England, made this imperative.

One strategy adopted in England was to imprison convicts in **hulks**. These were decommissioned warships that floated but could not go to sea. Conditions aboard hulks were extremely poor. Deadly diseases broke out in these prisons, with death rates of convicts over 30 per cent. Ultimately, this was a temporary solution; transportation to Australia offered a more permanent alternative.



Source 1: The hulk *Warrior,* anchored off Woolwich, England, 1781

Source 2: James Hardy Vaux was a prisoner on the *Retribution*, a hulk moored at Woolwich, England, during the early 1800s. He wrote this around 1809, while waiting to be transported for a second time to New South Wales.

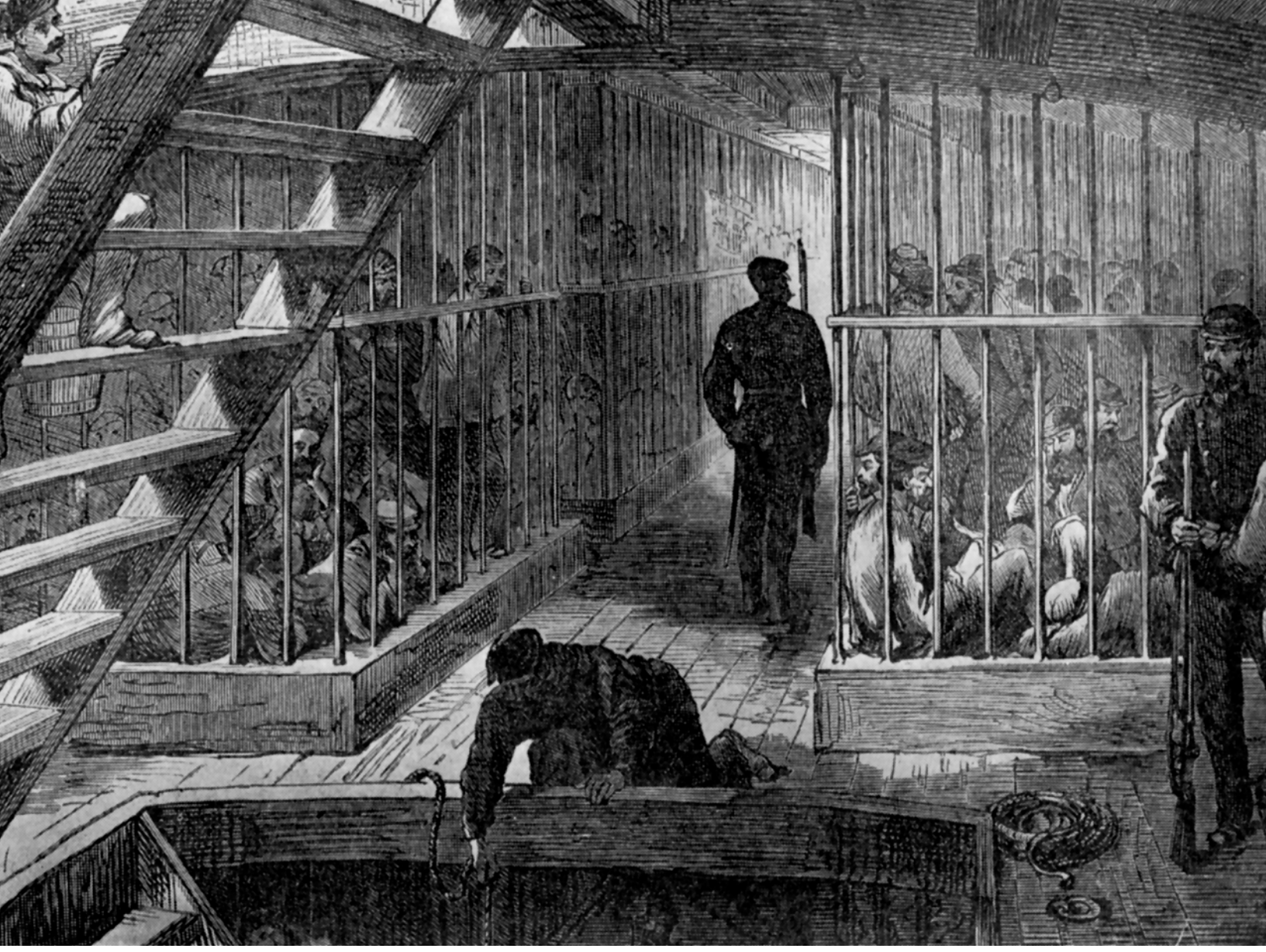
They were confined in this floating dungeon nearly 600 men, most of them double ironed; and the reader may conceive the horrible effects arising from the continual rattling of chains, the filth and vermin naturally produced by such a crowd of miserable inhabitants …

On arriving on board, we were all immediately stripped and washed in two large tubs of water, then, after putting on each a suit of coarse slop clothing, we were ironed and sent below; our own clothes being taken from us …

Every morning, at seven o'clock, all the convicts capable of work, or, in fact, all who are capable of getting into the boats, are taken ashore … and there employed at various kinds of labour … and while so employed, each gang of sixteen or twenty men is watched and directed by a fellow called a guard.

These guards are commonly of the lowest class of human beings; wretches devoid of feeling; ignorant in the extreme, brutal by nature, and rendered tyrannical and cruel by the consciousness of the power they possess …

They invariably carry a large and ponderous stick, with which, without the smallest provocation, they fell an unfortunate convict to the ground, and frequently repeat their blows long after the poor fellow is insensible.



▲ **Source 3:** Caged prisoners in a transport ship on the way to Australia. Between 1788 and 1868, approximately 162 000 convicts were transported from Britain to various penal colonies in Australia.

Transportation to Australia

On 13 May 1787, the **First Fleet** left England for Australia. These convict ships were designed to keep the prisoners in one area, away from the crew and officers. During the crossing of the Atlantic Ocean, the heat and humidity made life on board the convict ships unbearable. Because supplies were short, the First Fleet's commander, Captain Arthur Phillip, had to limit everyone's drinking water to 700 millilitres a day. The crossing took seven weeks, after which time the fleet stayed in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, for a month. During this time, the convicts kept below decks, often confined behind bars. In many cases, they were placed in chains and only allowed on deck for fresh air and exercise.

Although the convicts of the 1788 First Fleet arrived in fairly good condition, the same cannot be said for those that followed. Cruel captains, harsh discipline and diseases resulted in a high loss of life. To reduce the chance of escape, convicts were commonly put in ankle chains until the ship was well out at sea.

Convicts had to endure a five-month voyage in crowded and unhygienic living conditions. Dysentery and scurvy remained a constant threat on transportation ships, with 10 per cent of convicts dying onboard between 1795 and 1801.

After 1801, the convict ships departed twice a year, at the end of May and the beginning of September, to avoid the dangerous winters of the southern hemisphere. Surgeons were appointed as private contractors to ensure hygiene standards and convict health were maintained. These surgeons had little authority and their guidelines could be overruled.

From 1815, surgeons from the Royal Navy were given ultimate authority over the convicts during the voyage. By the time convicts were being transported in the 1840s and onwards, a strict timetable was in place for what was to occur each day during the voyage.

Convict life in Australia

Convict transportation from Britain to Australia was the first attempt in the world to build a new society on the labour of convicted prisoners. Between 1788 and 1868 around 166 000 men, women and children were transported to Australia.

> The landing of these people was truly affecting and shocking; great numbers were not able to walk, nor to move hand or foot; such were slung over the ship side in the same manner as they would sling a cask, a box or anything of that nature. Upon their being brought up to the open air some fainted, some died upon deck, and others in the boat before they reached the shore. When come on shore many were not able to walk, to stand or to stir themselves in the least, hence some were led by others. Some creeped upon their hands and knees, and some were carried on the backs of others.

Source 4: Chaplain of the prison colony, Richard Johnson, described the state of the convicts on the arrival of the Second Fleet in Sydney Cove in 1790.

Convicts were met with an unfamiliar landscape with no roads, buildings or fences. Australia was inhabited by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples with different cultural and social practices to their own. They lived under the threat of flogging or execution for not following the rules.

Australia's first **penal colony** was established at Sydney Cove in New South Wales in 1788. An outpost was established at Norfolk Island five weeks later. Starvation was a real threat to the colony, and Governor Phillip directed convict farms to be established on Norfolk Island and at Parramatta. Convicts were also put to work on public works, such as road and bridge building and the development of public buildings. Convicts were controlled through floggings and hard labour. Locking prisoners away was seen as a last resort; convict labour was required to build the infrastructure and supply the food required for the colony to survive.

The first convicts mainly worked for the government and by 1822 a system of convict **assignment** became more common. Assignment meant that convicts worked for free settlers, mainly on farms far away from Sydney. Convicts worked on assigned tasks for nine hours per day and in return they were fed, clothed and supplied with housing. Convicts could work for money after their assigned tasks were done, most commonly as builders, farmers, servants or shepherds.

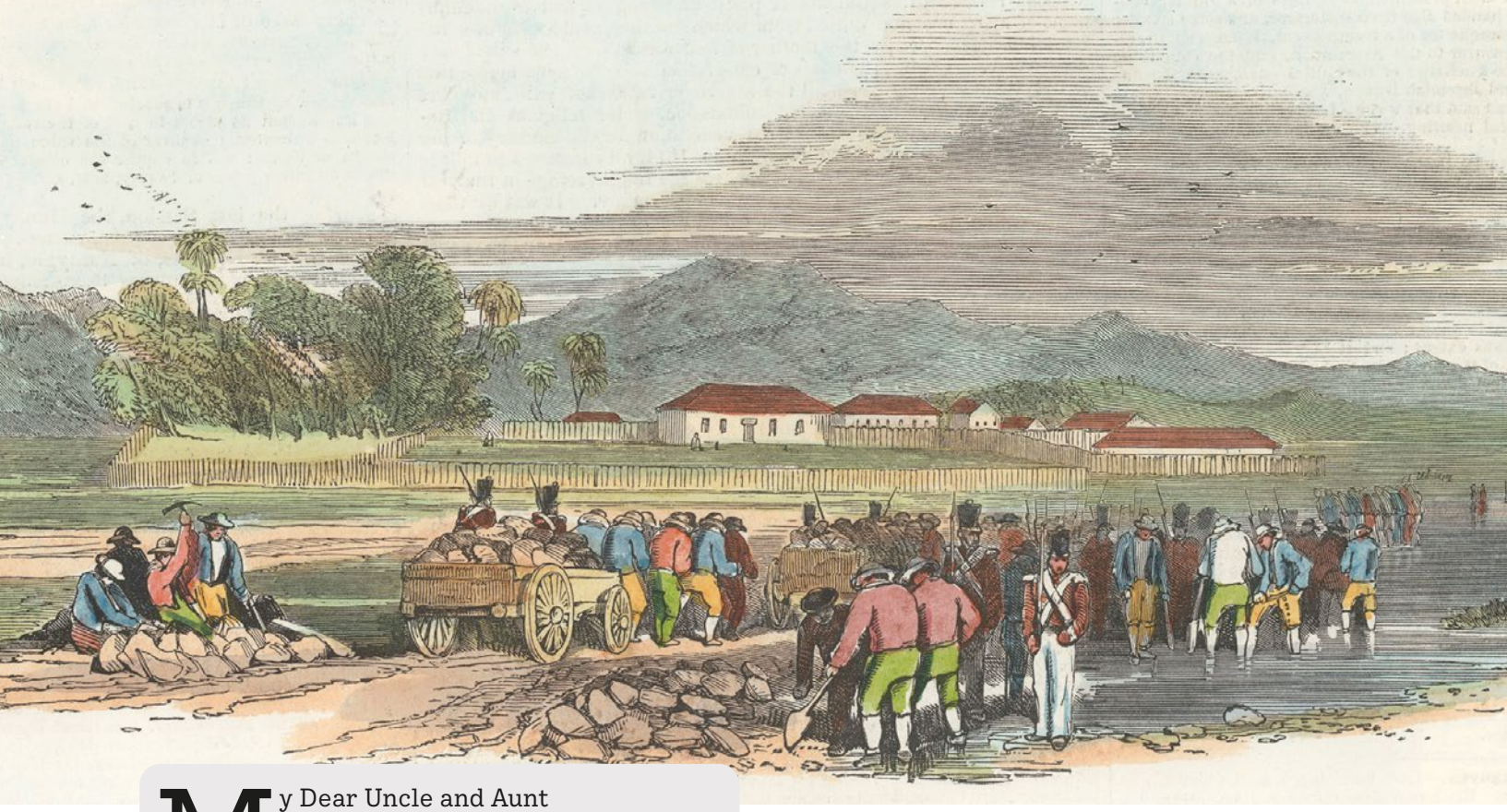
Margaret Catchpole – convict

Margaret Catchpole was born in England in 1762. She worked as a servant for the Cobbold family. In May 1797, due to falling on hard times, she stole John Cobbold's horse and rode it to London. For this, she was arrested and sentenced to death; however, the sentence was changed to transportation.

In 1800, she escaped from Ipswich jail using a clothesline to scale a 6.7 metre wall. Upon being recaptured, she was given another death penalty, which was again later changed to seven years transportation. She left England on board the *Nile* and reached Sydney on 14 December 1801.

Margaret was pardoned in 1814, becoming a free woman and **emancipist**. She remained in Australia, running a drapery shop and working as a midwife. She died of influenza in Richmond, New South Wales, in 1819.

> Honoured Madam
> With great pleasure I take up my pen to acquaint you, my good lady, of my safe arrival at Port Jackson New South Wales Sydney on the 20th day of December 1801.
>
> ... It is a great deal more like England then ever I did expect ... but I must say this is the most wicked place I have ever been in ...
>
> [Convicts who get into trouble] have their poor heads shaved and sent up to the Coal River and there they carry coal from daylight in the morning till dark at night, and half starved ...
>
> Norfolk Island is a bad place enough to send any poor creature, with a steel collar on their poor necks, but I will take good care of myself from that.



▲ **Source 5:** A group of convicts pull a cart while others labour on the road under military guard on Norfolk Island in 1847. [National Library of Australia]

My Dear Uncle and Aunt

... Time here is long – it's enough to make me go out of my mind to see so many letters come from London and poor I cannot get not one – I always thought that Mrs Cobbold would send me one before this time ...

This is a very dangerous country to live in for the natives they are black men and women – they go naked – they used to kill the white people very much but they are better ... the black snakes is very bad for they will fly at you like a dog and if they bite us we die at sundown – Here some [are] 12 feet long and as big as your thigh ...

This is a very hot country – the ground burns our feet in the Summer part – which is at this time – and in the Winter it is very cold, but no snow – just very white frosts – It is a great deal colder than it used to be for it was a very woody places but now it only is in some places – it will be a very populated place in time – it is a great deal better than it was when I first come here.

Source 6: Letters from Margaret Catchpole to Mrs Cobbold in January 1802, and to her uncle and aunt in December 1804. [State Library of New South Wales]

Learning ladder 3.4

Background and origins

1. Describe the background to the use of hulks as prisons.
2. Describe the background to transportation.
3. Explain how convict society developed in Australia.
4. Source 6: How does this source provide background to how those transported to Australia had to adjust.

Perspectives

1. Source 2: What perspective of life on the hulks is given in this source?
2. Source 4: Describe the perspective given of transported convicts arriving in Australia.
3. How might the perspective of a guard differ to that of a chaplain?
4. Source 4: How valuable is the perspective of Margaret Catchpole in understanding convict experiences?

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Site study

What was the Parramatta Female Factory?

Overview of the site and its significance

The Parramatta Female Factory, located in the city of Parramatta, was used from 1821 to house 'unmanageable' female convicts. Originally designed for 300 women, the buildings held 600 women by the late 1830s.

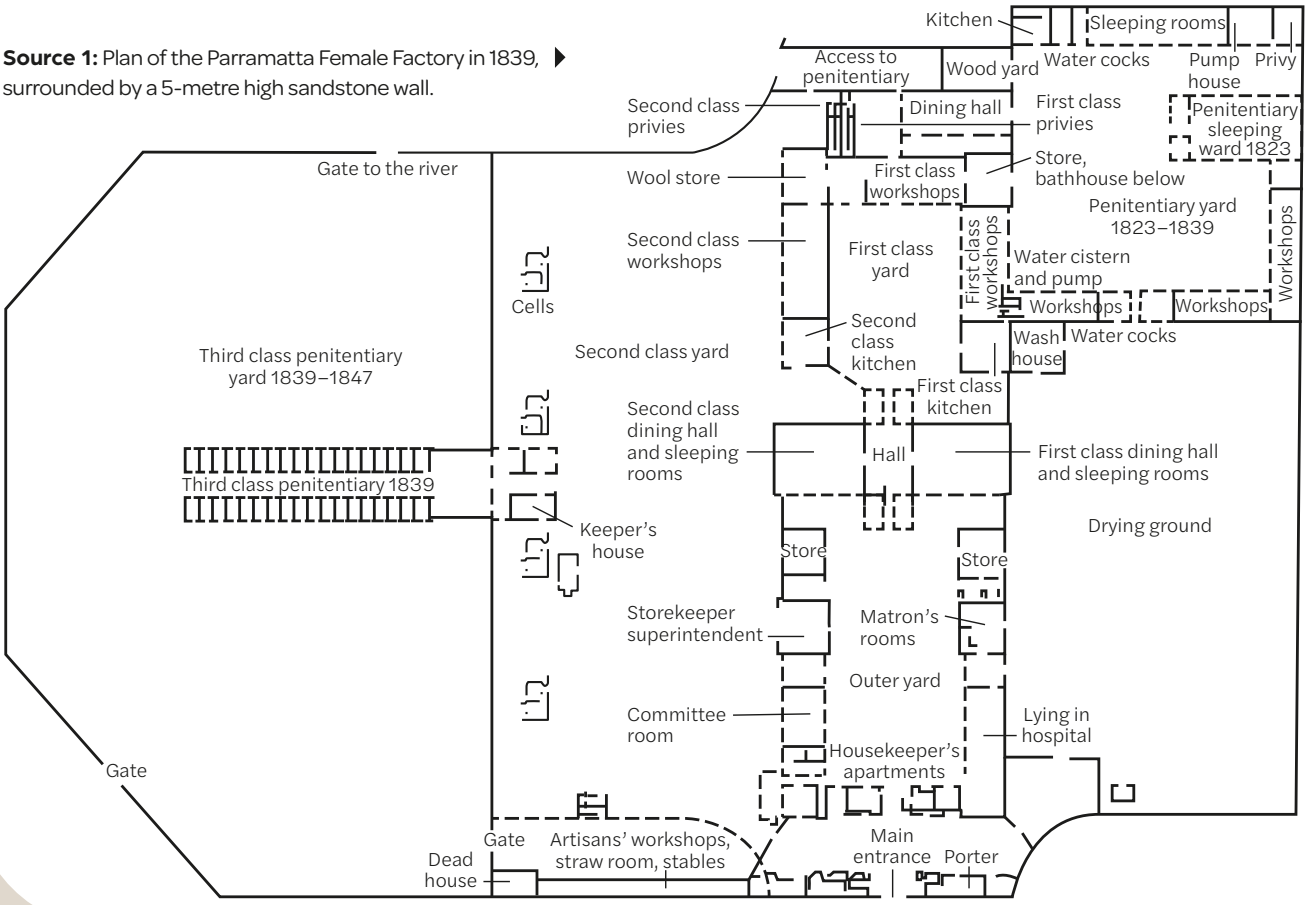
Over 25 000 women were transported as convicts to Australia. Most were assigned as servants to officers and free settlers; however, those who were found to be unmanageable were often sent to a **female factory** to be reformed. From 1821 to 1840, unassigned convict women were also sent to the Parramatta Female Factory, as were some destitute free women. It was a place of work and punishment, a labour for hire depot, a marriage bureau as well as a shelter for ill, pregnant or unemployed women.

The Parramatta Female Factory was modelled on the **workhouses** and bridewell's (reform schools) of England. The women housed there were divided into three classes:

- First-class women were eligible for assignment
- Second-class women were either on probation or were medically unfit for assignment
- Third-class women were put to hard labour and otherwise confined to their cells.

The significance of this site lies in the insight it provides into the nature of female convicts' experiences and the social attitudes towards them at the time.

Source 1: Plan of the Parramatta Female Factory in 1839, surrounded by a 5-metre high sandstone wall.

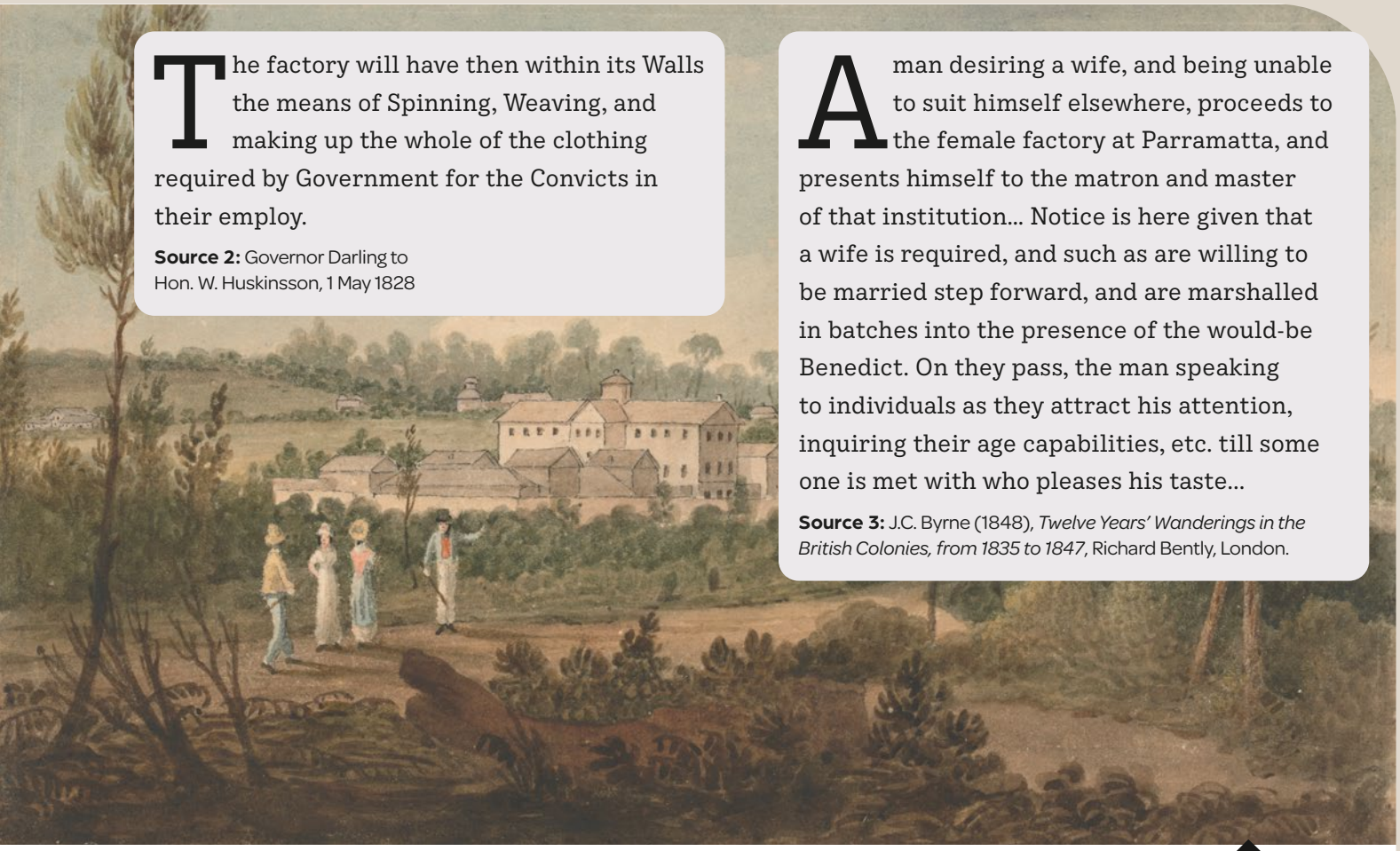


The factory will have then within its Walls the means of Spinning, Weaving, and making up the whole of the clothing required by Government for the Convicts in their employ.

Source 2: Governor Darling to Hon. W. Huskinsson, 1 May 1828

A man desiring a wife, and being unable to suit himself elsewhere, proceeds to the female factory at Parramatta, and presents himself to the matron and master of that institution... Notice is here given that a wife is required, and such as are willing to be married step forward, and are marshalled in batches into the presence of the would-be Benedict. On they pass, the man speaking to individuals as they attract his attention, inquiring their age capabilities, etc. till some one is met with who pleases his taste...

Source 3: J.C. Byrne (1848), *Twelve Years' Wanderings in the British Colonies, from 1835 to 1847*, Richard Bently, London.



▲ **Source 4:** Parramatta Female Factory c. 1826, watercolour, Augustus Earle

▲ **Source 5:** In 1827, 'third-class' women rioted when their rations were cut. About 200 women broke down the Factory gates and escaped to Parramatta, attacking bakers' shops. This was Australia's first women's action for rights.

Learning ladder 3.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the main purpose of female factories.
2. Describe the three classes of women housed in the Parramatta Female Factory.
3. Source 3: Explain how the wife selection process was undertaken at the Parramatta Female Factory. What conclusions do you draw about the status of this group of women in society at the time?
4. Source 5: Explain the significance of the event depicted in this source.

Source analysis

1. Source 4: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 3: Describe this source.
3. Sources 1–4: Which of these sources is more useful in investigating the purpose of the Parramatta Female Factory? Give reasons for your answer.
4. Explain the historical context of Source 2.

HOW TO

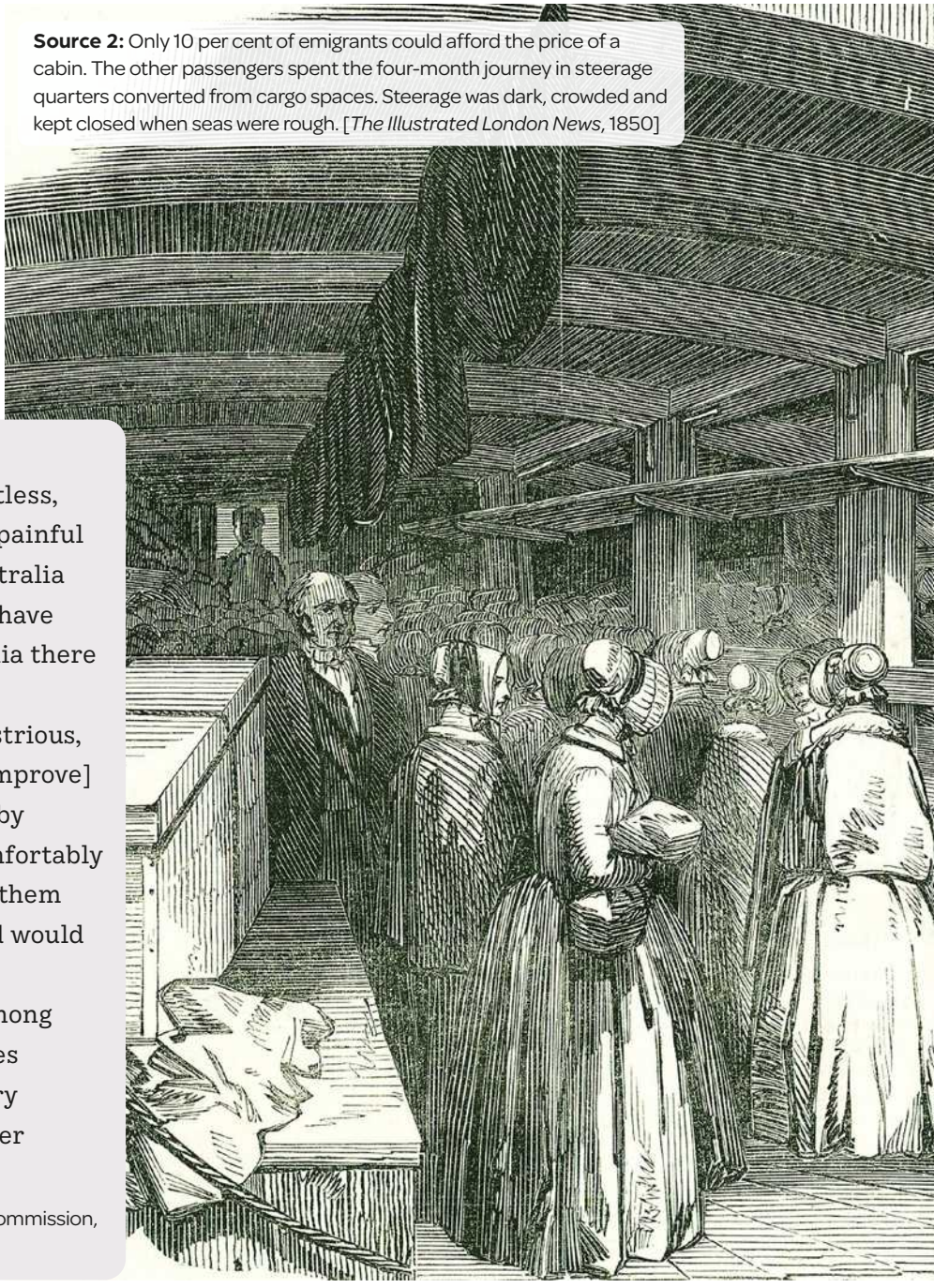
Source analysis, page 493

What experiences did free settlers have?

Life was hard for most of Australia's free settlers. Most were farmers who struggled to find fertile land and adjust to the hotter and drier climate of Australia. Many squatters successfully developed their land with cheap convict labour.

Free settlers come to Australia

From some British points of view, the settlement of Australia is the story of an adventurous voyage to a mysterious part of the world, and the heroic struggle to overcome the difficulties of surviving in a new and sometimes hostile environment. Although Australia was originally a penal colony, free settlers soon began to make it home. From a First Nations perspective, the arrival of European settlers is viewed as an invasion.



Source 2: Only 10 per cent of emigrants could afford the price of a cabin. The other passengers spent the four-month journey in steerage quarters converted from cargo spaces. Steerage was dark, crowded and kept closed when seas were rough. [*The Illustrated London News*, 1850]

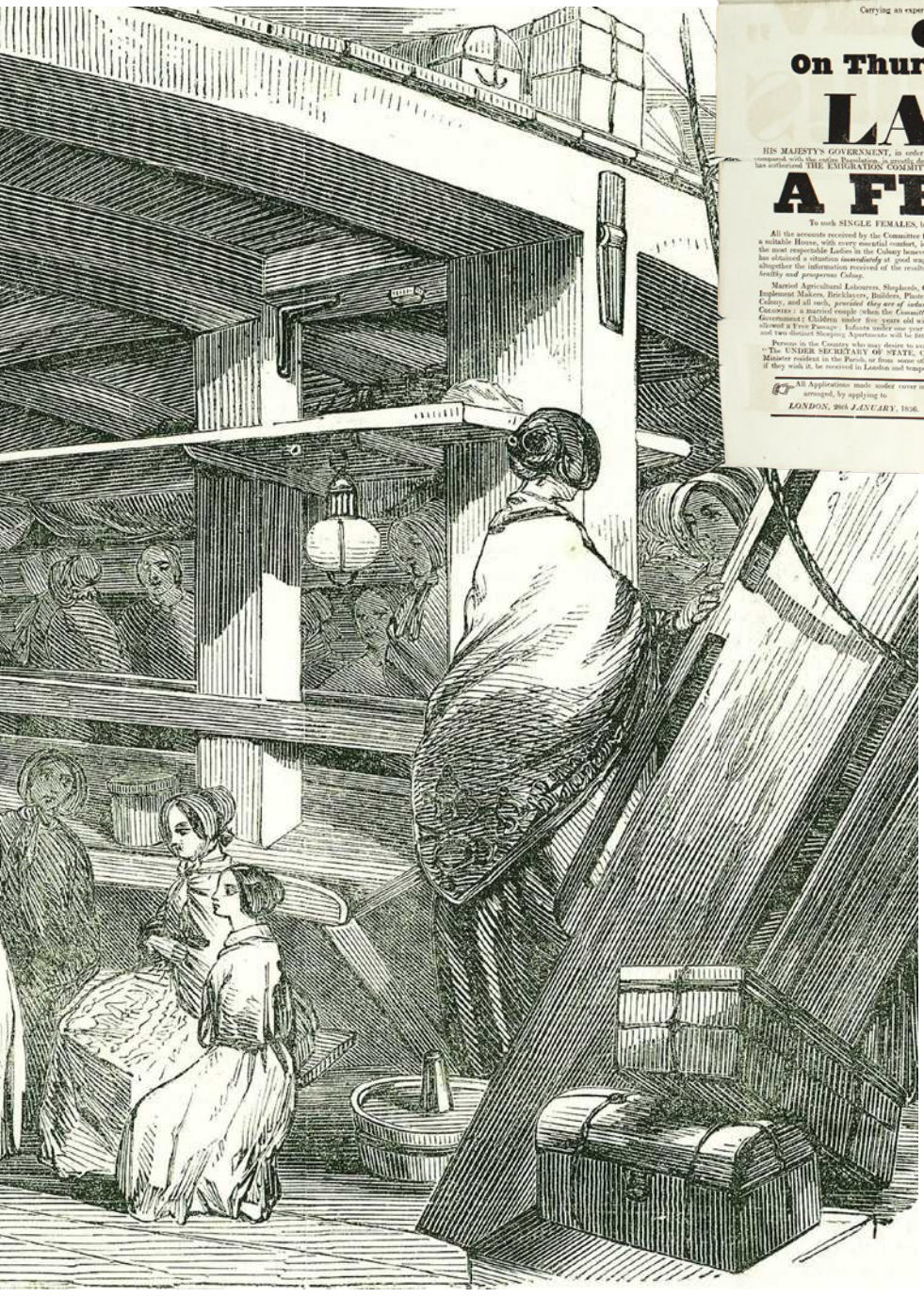
The separation from your friends, kindred, and native land, is, doubtless, a severe trial, and attended with painful emotions … The difference between Australia and England is this: That in England we have more mouths than meat while in Australia there is more meat than mouths.

By steadily pursuing a prudent industrious, and virtuous course in life, you may … [improve] your condition … perhaps fortune, thereby securing to yourselves the means of comfortably providing for your families, and placing them in situations that no industry in England would enable you to obtain for them.

[To the] young unmarried females among you … it must be well known to yourselves that a comfortable provision awaits every well-conducted female in Australia, either by marriage or respectable service …

Source 1: Mr Wilcocks, Colonial Land and Emigration Commission, quoted in *The South Australian News*, December 1846.

By 1800, about 1100 free settlers were in Australia. Around 1815, the colony began to grow rapidly as **emigrants** arrived from Britain and Ireland. By 1830, about 43 500 free settlers were in Australia, and by 1860, there were just over 600 000. The length of a voyage to Australia depended on wind conditions and the weather. A trip could be three months of smooth sailing but, more often than not, it was dangerous. The loss of life on some of these journeys was very high; in particular, among women and children. At times, the death rate was as high as 10 per cent.



EMIGRATION
TO
Van Diemen's Land.

COMMITTEE:
EDWARD FORSTER, Esq. F. R. S. Chairman.

THE BISHOP OF AUSTRALIA.
CHARLES HOLTE BRACEBRIDGE, Esq.
NADIR BAXTER, Esq.
WILLIAM CRAWFORD, Esq.
SAMUEL HOARE, Esq.
CHARLES LUSHINGTON, Esq., M.P.
THOMAS LEWIN, Esq.
GEORGE LONG, Esq.
HENRY WALTER PARKER, Esq.
JOHN PIRIE, Esq. *Alderman.*
CAPTAIN SIR EDWARD PARRY, R.N.
CAPTAIN DANIEL PRING, R.N.
JOHN S. REYNOLDS, Esq.
JOHN ABEL SMITH, Esq. M.P.
S. H. STERRY, Esq.
JOHN TAYLOR, Esq.

J. DENHAM PINNOCK, Esq. His Majesty's Agent-General for Emigration.

The Committee for promoting the Emigration
OF
Single Women

To AUSTRALIA, acting under the Authority of His Majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, HEREBY GIVE NOTICE, That
THE SUPERIOR FIRST CLASS SHIP,
"AMELIA THOMPSON,"
OF 411 TONS,
Carrying an experienced Surgeon and Matrons, to secure the Comfort and Protection of the Emigrants during the Voyage, will Sail from
GRAVESEND
On Thursday, the 28th of April next,
(Beyond which day she will on no account be detained) direct for
LAUNCESTON.

HIS MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT, in order to encourage the Emigration of **Single Women and Widows** of Good Character to *Van Diemen's Land*, where the number of Females, as compared with the entire Population, is greatly deficient, and where consequently all who may conduct themselves with discretion and industry, may calculate on time importantly to benefit their condition, has authorized THE EMIGRATION COMMITTEE to grant

A FREE PASSAGE

To such SINGLE FEMALES, between 15 and 30 years of Age, *as the Committee may ascertain to be likely to conduct themselves creditably and usefully in the Colony.*

All the accounts received by the Committee from VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, respecting the Females who had arrived there in the Ships sent out by them, are highly satisfactory and encouraging:—a suitable House, with every essential comfort, is provided ready for their reception on arrival; they are received and protected by the Governor until placed in suitable situations, and a Committee of the most respectable Ladies in the Colony benevolently superintend and advise them from the moment of their arrival, *and see to their being placed in proper families*, and every well conducted Female has obtained a situation *immediately* at good wages, in the choice of which they are perfectly at liberty to judge and decide for themselves.—A large proportion have married respectable settlers, and altogether the information received of the results of Emigration to young Women of discreet conduct, clearly demonstrates that *all such have importantly benefitted their condition by proceeding to this healthy and prosperous Colony.*

Married Agricultural Labourers, Shepherds, Gardeners, Millers, and Farriers; and also Mechanics and Artizans particularly Blacksmiths, Carpenters, Joiners, Millwrights, Wheelwrights, Agricultural Implement Makers, Bricklayers, Builders, Plasterers, Stone Masons, Stone Cutters, Painters, Saddlers and Harness Makers, Sawyers, &c. &c. were, by the last advices, in great demand in the above Colony, and all such, *provided they are of industrious and steady character, are certain of immediate and constant employment.*—With a view to enable such persons to emigrate to the AUSTRALIAN COLONIES: a married couple (when the Committee are satisfied as to their character) will be conveyed, and in the Ships fitted under their direction, at a charge of £10 only, beyond the aid afforded by Government: Children under five years old will be charged £5 each, and those above that age £1 per year in addition, but Daughters above 12 years old, when accompanying their Parents, will be allowed a Free Passage. Infants under one year old, will not be charged for.—In order to preserve decency and comfort on the voyage *new bedding will be provided for the use of the Passengers*, and two distinct Sleeping Apartments will be fitted up, in one of which the Male Passengers will be accommodated, and the Females in the other.

Persons in the Country who may desire to avail themselves of the important advantages thus offered them, should apply by Letter to "*The Emigration Committee, London*," under Cover, addressed to "The UNDER SECRETARY OF STATE, COLONIAL DEPARTMENT, LONDON." It will be necessary that the Application be accompanied by a satisfactory Certificate of Character from a Minister resident in the Parish, or from some other respectable Persons to whom the Applicant is well known. Females when approved by the Committee as proper Persons to go by this Conveyance, will, if they wish it, be received in London and temporarily boarded, under the care of the Committee, prior to Embarkation.

All Applications made under cover in the foregoing manner, or personally, will receive prompt attention, and all necessary information and advice, and the Government assistance will be arranged, by applying to

Mr. JOHN MARSHALL, Agent to the Committee, 26, Birchin Lane, Cornhill, London.

LONDON, 20th JANUARY, 1836.

EDWARD FORSTER, *Chairman.*

By Authority:
PRINTED BY JOSEPH HARTNELL, FLEET STREET, FOR HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE.

▲ **Source 3:** Poster advertising free passage for emigrant women to sail to Australia on the *Amelia Thompson* in 1836. Between 1833 and 1837, 14 ships delivered more than 2700 women to ports at Sydney, Hobart and Launceston under the first Emigration Commission scheme for females between Great Britain and the Australian colonies.

Attracting women to Australia

As men made up over 70 per cent of the population of the colony, the British government decided on a scheme to bring women to the Australia. More than 2700 young women were brought to Australia by the London Emigration Committee between August 1833 and February 1837. Fourteen ships of women made the journey from London and Ireland, destined for Sydney, Hobart and Launceston. Although the British government paid for the women to migrate, it made no arrangements for them to find suitable work or accommodation on their arrival in the colony.

Free settlers in Australia

First arriving in 1793, the free settlers were granted the largest and best landholdings, were elected to government, had links to the military and had connections to people of influence in England. Also known as **exclusives** and **squatters**, the free settlers tried to create a class system in which they enjoyed a higher status to former convicts.

In addition to receiving large tracts of land seized from First Nations peoples, free settlers could 'squat' (rent and run livestock) on Crown Land in addition to their own, were supplied with food until they could be self-sufficient, were given seeds and farming implements, and were provided with convicts as free labour.

Although they were given every opportunity to succeed, most of the original free settler farmers had experiences from England that did not necessarily transport well to the climate and soils of New South Wales. Their assigned convicts were nearly always from cities, and had little farming experience.

Free settlers worked to identify which crops would be successful in their new environment. Establishing a supply of grain to make bread, using the seeds brought on the First Fleet (e.g. wheat and maize) was an important priority. In 1789, ex-convict James Ruse produced the first successful wheat harvest in New South Wales and from then on wheat remained a staple crop.

The powerful squatters

By the mid-19th century, resourceful and successful squatters took control of most of the best farming land in south-east Australia. They established large properties with homesteads and high-quality breeding animals. Their farms spread over millions of hectares.

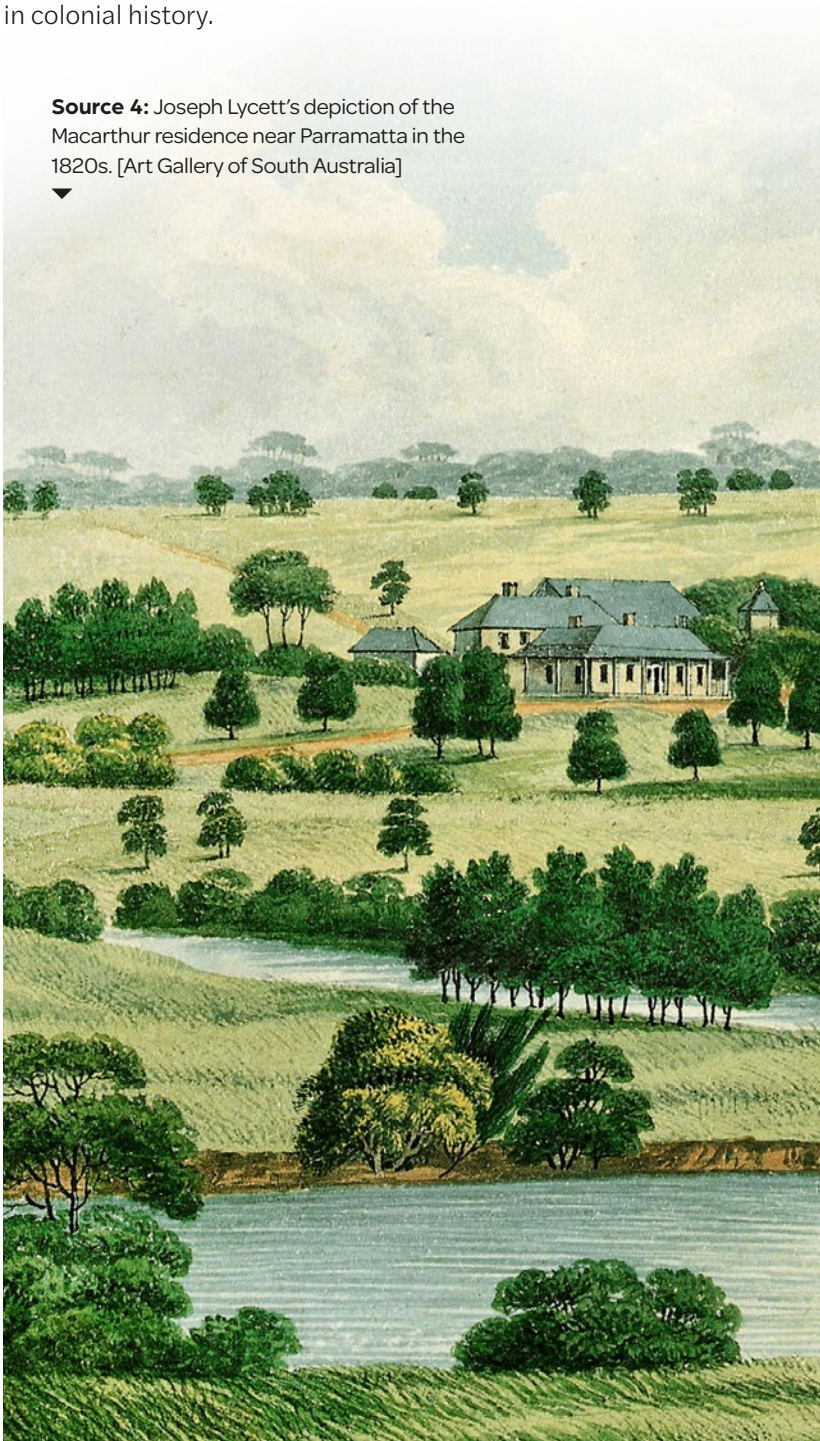
New free settlers, known as **selectors**, were forced to take land in more remote and unproductive areas. Many selectors were forced to work for other farmers as shearers, labourers and drovers. While the men were away, women and children were left to look after the sheep and crops, and undertake farm maintenance like mending fences. Many selectors resented the privileged position of squatters.

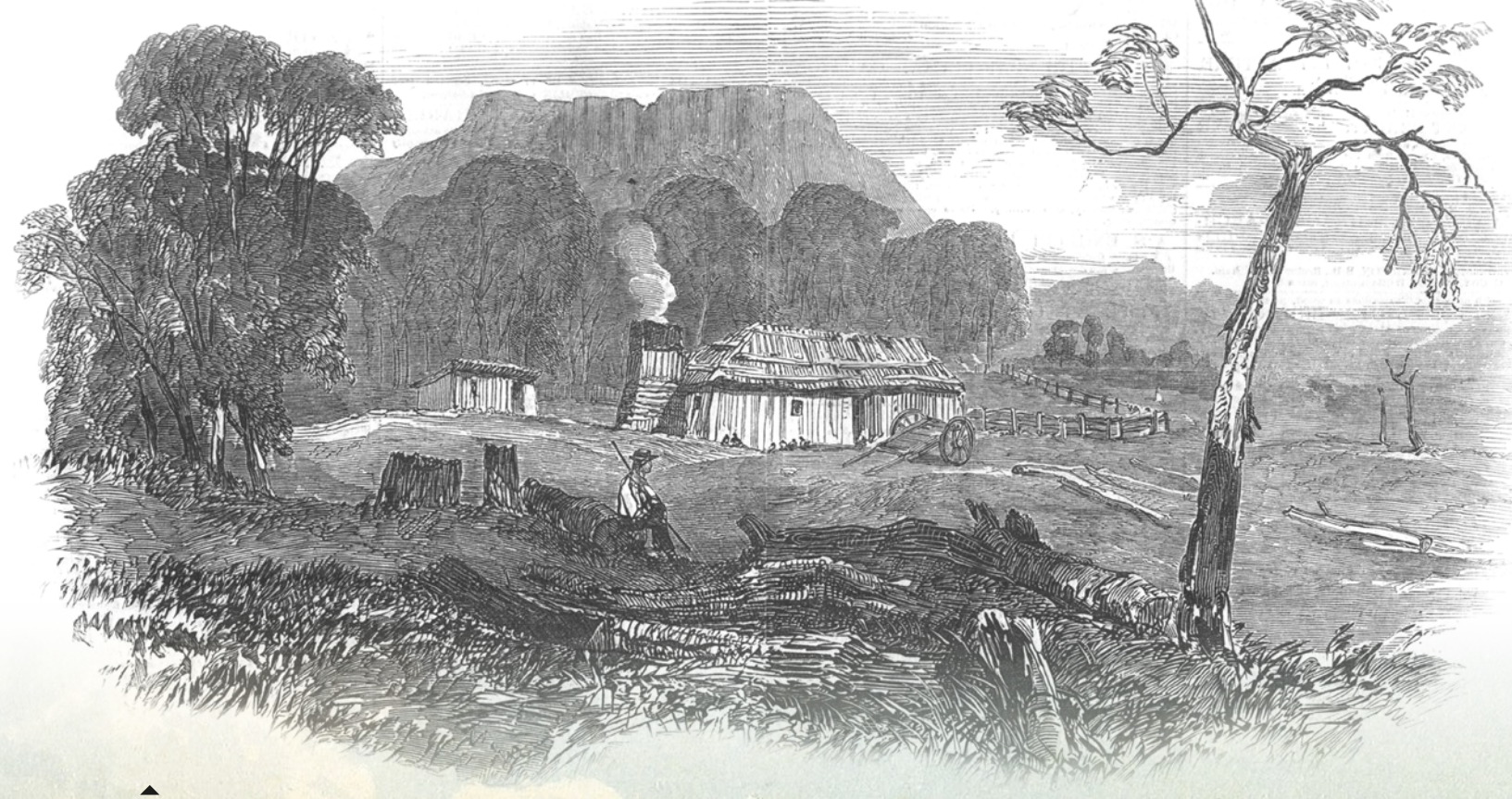
John Macarthur: Hero of the fleece

Squatter John Macarthur was a prominent soldier, entrepreneur and politician. He is best known as the pioneer of the Australian wool industry. His high-quality wool won numerous awards and earned him the title, 'the hero of the fleece'. Macarthur wanted to establish the free settlers as the 'landed gentry' of the colony, proposing a government structure like that of Britain's House of Lords.

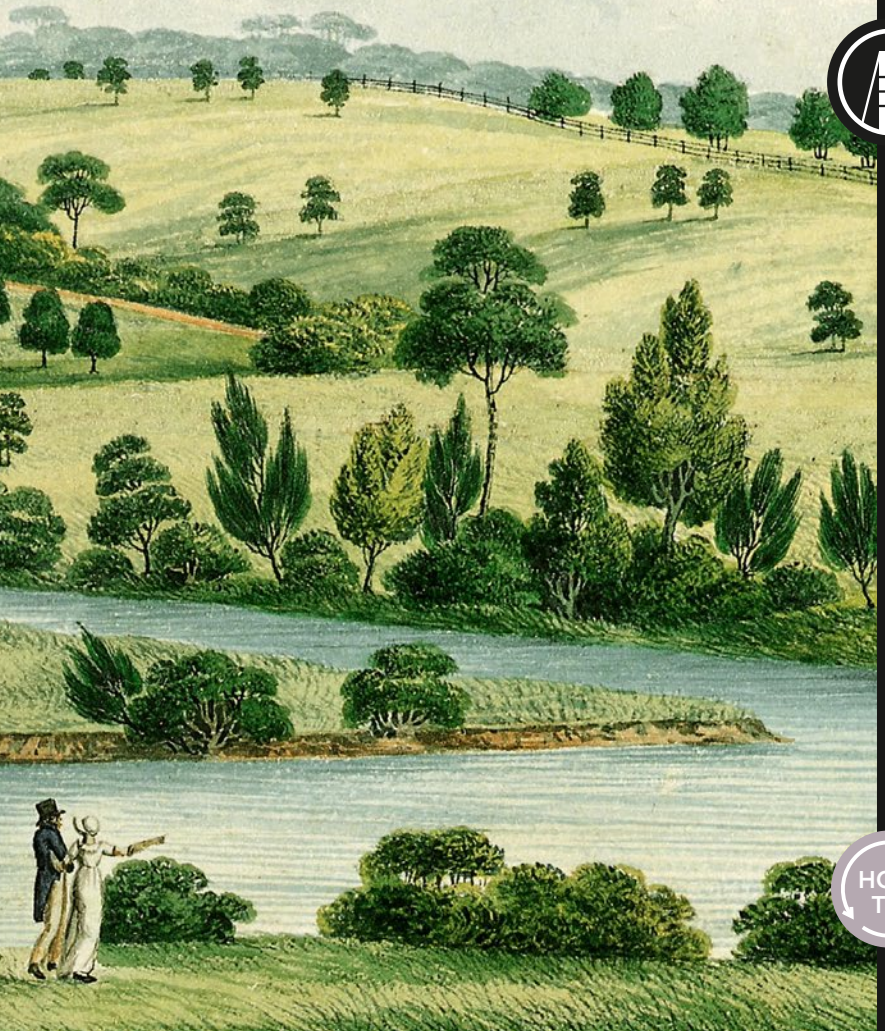
Macarthur significantly developed the wool industry by introducing more Merino sheep to Australia. High-quality wool exports, along with whaling, sealing and coal industries, established New South Wales' role as a key supplier of resources for nations undergoing industrialisation. The success of agriculturalists such as Macarthur led the colony closer to food and economic security. His house, Elizabeth Farm, still exists to this day as a national trust. This indicates his significance in colonial history.

Source 4: Joseph Lycett's depiction of the Macarthur residence near Parramatta in the 1820s. [Art Gallery of South Australia]





Source 5: Selector's slab hut, from the *Illustrated London News*, 1849. To build slab huts, settlers used timber logs to make a frame and split pieces of timber to use as rough slabs to form the walls. The roof could be thatched, or shingles split from trees. Some slab huts had bark roofs modelled on shelters used by First Nations peoples.



Learning ladder 3.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who were the 'exclusives'?
2. Describe the ideas free settlers had for an Australian society.
3. Explain the significance of the contribution of John Macarthur to the colony.
4. How did powerful free settlers influence the development of colonial Australia?

Chronology

1. Place the following dates on a timeline: 1793, 1800, 1815, 1830 and 1860.
2. On your timeline, summarise the events that occurred for each date.
3. Using your timeline, explain the changes to the number of free settlers.
4. Explain the value of using a timeline when communicating historical events.

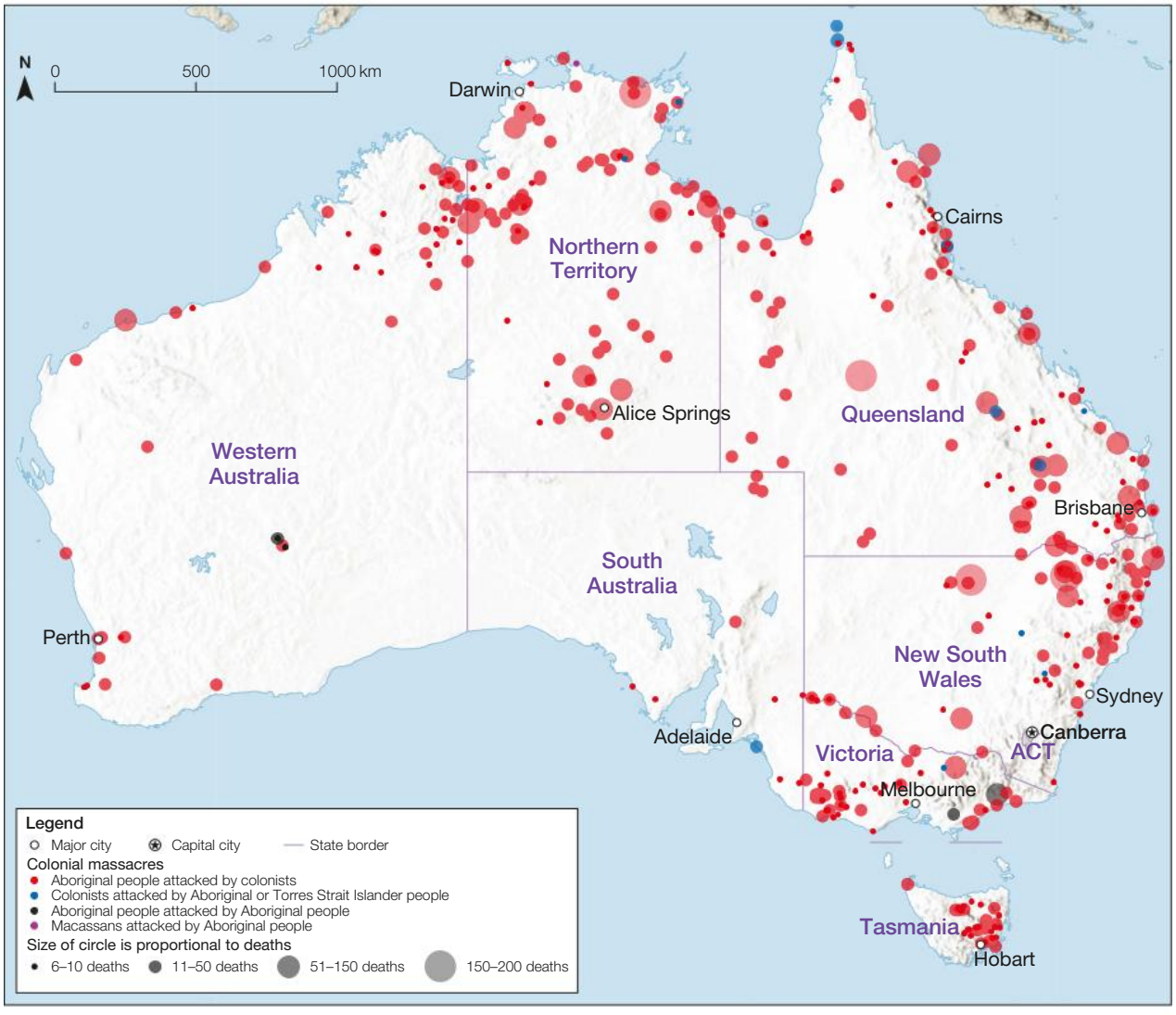
HOW TO Chronology, page 490

3.7

How did European settlement impact First Nations Peoples?

With the arrival of the European colonists in 1788 began the invasion across the Australian continent and the adjacent islands. The greed and cruelty of the Europeans resulted in genocide. The massacre of people and the destruction of many First Nations cultures also directly impacted Country and changed how the environment was cared for. For many First Nations people, the colonisation of Australia has been experienced as an apocalypse.

Massacres during the Frontier Wars



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** Over the past few years, researchers have been working on a large project to collect evidence of the Australian Genocide. The result is a map of massacres across Australia. Each red dot on the map represents a massacre where at least six First Nations people were killed. This shows that conflicts during the Frontier Wars were widespread and not uncommon.

The Australian Genocide

In 1951, the United Nations adopted the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide in response to the Holocaust during World War II. This document defines genocide as actions committed with the intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnic, racial or religious group. These actions include:

1. Killing members of the group
2. Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group
3. Deliberately creating conditions of life designed to destroy the group in whole or in part
4. Imposing measures to prevent births within the group
5. Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group.

As European invaders spread across Australia and nearby islands, their policies and actions met this definition of genocide.

Killing members of the group

Shortly after the colonists arrived, it became clear that friendly relations would not last. The colonists focused on seizing land illegally and removing the rightful owners. Conflict escalated when First Nations people realised the newcomers would not leave and continued breaking tribal laws.

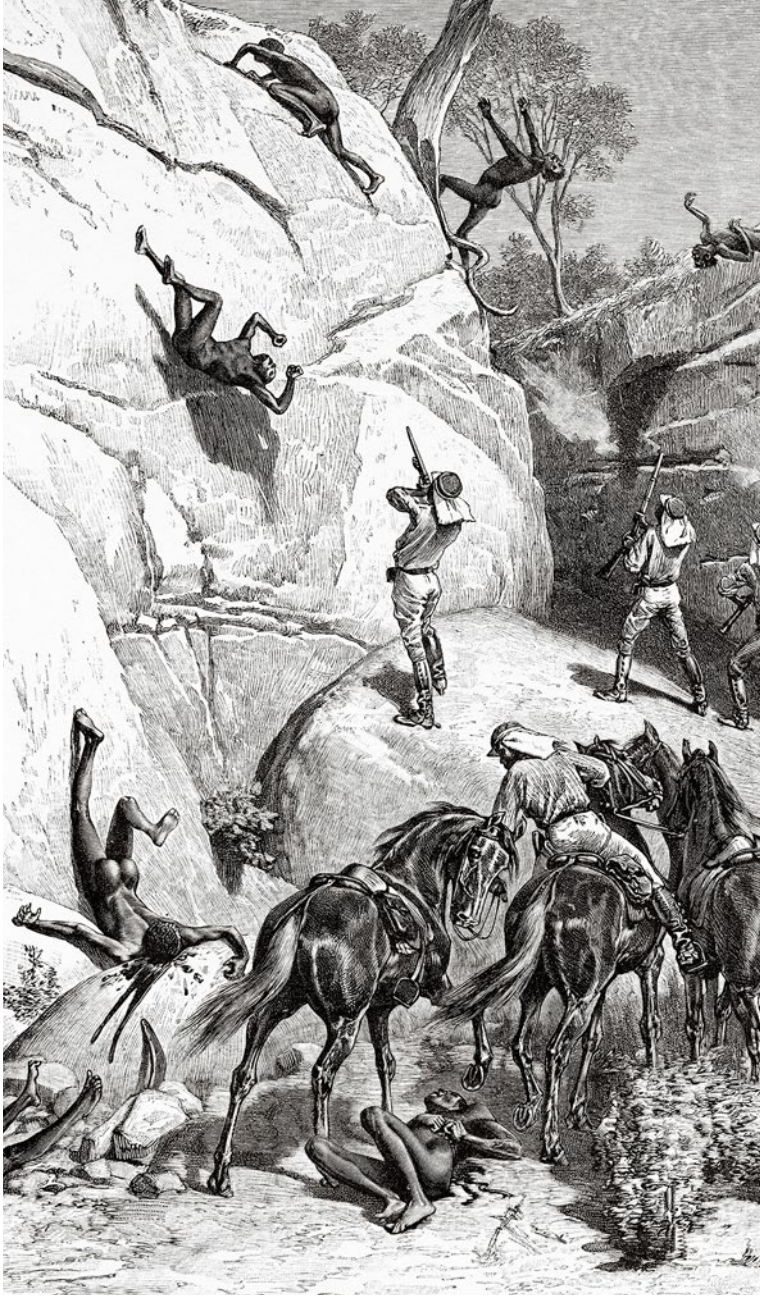
Despite fierce resistance, the colonists used advanced military technology and brutal tactics against First Nations Peoples. The invasion caused devastating loss of life and ongoing conflicts for nearly 150 years. These conflicts, known as the Frontier Wars, included deliberate, violent actions that constitute genocide.

Causing serious bodily or mental harm

Colonists not only massacred First Nations people but also caused lasting physical and mental trauma. Survivors of attacks often lived with severe injuries or emotional scars.

There is also evidence suggesting that the smallpox virus was deliberately introduced to First Nations communities in New South Wales shortly after 1788. While evidence is circumstantial, it includes the following:

- Two vials of smallpox matter were listed on the First Fleet's cargo.
- No smallpox cases were present when the colonists arrived.
- Colonists had prior experience using smallpox as a biological weapon in the Americas.



Source 2: Massacre at Skull Hole, Mistake Creek, Queensland, 1888. A Norwegian scientist, Carl Lumholtz, drew this after being shown 'a large number of skulls of natives who had been shot by the black police'.

> Blacks played sad havoc with Faithfull's cattle and sheep, whereupon the stockmen, shepherds, and hut keepers turned out, mounted and armed, to the number of about 18, fell upon the blacks in camp on the bank of the King above Oxley, and massacred them. About 200 were killed on the spot, and others were pursued miles up the river, until all, with one or two exceptions, were exterminated.

Source 3: An eyewitness account of a massacre near modern day Wangaratta. [*Argus*, 13 September 1883, p. 9.]

The smallpox epidemic devastated First Nations populations, with death rates estimated at 50–90 per cent. Even if the infection was not deliberate, the colonists made no effort to prevent its spread, further supporting claims of genocide.

Creating destructive conditions of life

As the Frontier Wars displaced First Nations Peoples, many became refugees. Colonial governments responded by creating **missions** (often church-controlled) and **reserves** (often government-controlled) to house them.

Conditions in missions and reserves were harsh. First Nations people were denied basic human rights, such as access to food, safety and the ability to speak their languages or practise their cultures. Many people, especially children, died in these environments due to the poor living conditions.

Preventing births

On missions and reserves, policies were implemented to stop First Nations people from starting families. For example, individuals had to obtain written permission from the Protector of Aborigines to marry. Many requests were denied, preventing families from forming. This was a deliberate act to reduce the First Nations population.

Source 4: Alexander Schramm, Adelaide, *A Tribe of Natives on the Banks of the River Torrens*, oil on canvas, 1850. Schramm's idyllic portrayals of First Nations subjects should be viewed cautiously due to his European coloniser gaze. However, he was a contemporary observer and his work is useful as a historical artefact, even if the picture it provides is incomplete.

Forcibly transferring children

Up to one in three First Nations children were forcibly removed from their families because they were First Nations. These children were placed in homes, adopted by non-Indigenous families or sent to orphanages. Many suffered physical, emotional and cultural abuse. This practice is known as the **Stolen Generations**.

In 2008, Prime Minister Kevin Rudd delivered a formal apology to the Stolen Generations. While this was a step forward, there is still much work needed to reconcile with this dark history.

Ongoing legacy

The impacts of colonisation and genocide are still felt today. Many First Nations people face challenges accessing healthcare, education and other essential services, resulting in poorer outcomes in health, education, justice and welfare.

Additionally, the removal of First Nations people from Country has harmed the landscape, which has suffered without First Nations people present to care for Country. There is still much that contemporary Australia must do to reverse this legacy.

Learning ladder 3.7

Impacts and legacies

1. Identify one immediate impact of colonisation on First Nations peoples.
2. Describe the conditions faced by First Nations people on missions and reserves.
3. Explain how to removal of First Nations people from their land affected the environment.
4. Why do First Nations people today often face challenges accessing services like healthcare and education?
5. Evaluate how the Australian Genocide has shaped contemporary Australia.

Significance

1. When did European colonisation of Australia begin?
2. Describe the five actions that constitute genocide. Which do you think were most significant in the Australian context?
3. Explain the significance of the introduction of smallpox in the context of genocide.
4. Explain why people argue there was an Australian Genocide. Provide at least four pieces of evidence.
5. Explain why the Stolen Generations is a significant event in Australian history.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

What are the legacies of the movement of peoples?

The transportation of enslaved peoples to countries like the Americas (via the slave trade) and Australia (through blackbirding) has left many legacies. These legacies continue to affect life for people in the societies affected by these practices. This influences how people wish to remember the historical events associated with them.

Wide-ranging legacies

The legacies of the slave trade and **blackbirding** can be categorised as cultural, genetic, economic and political.

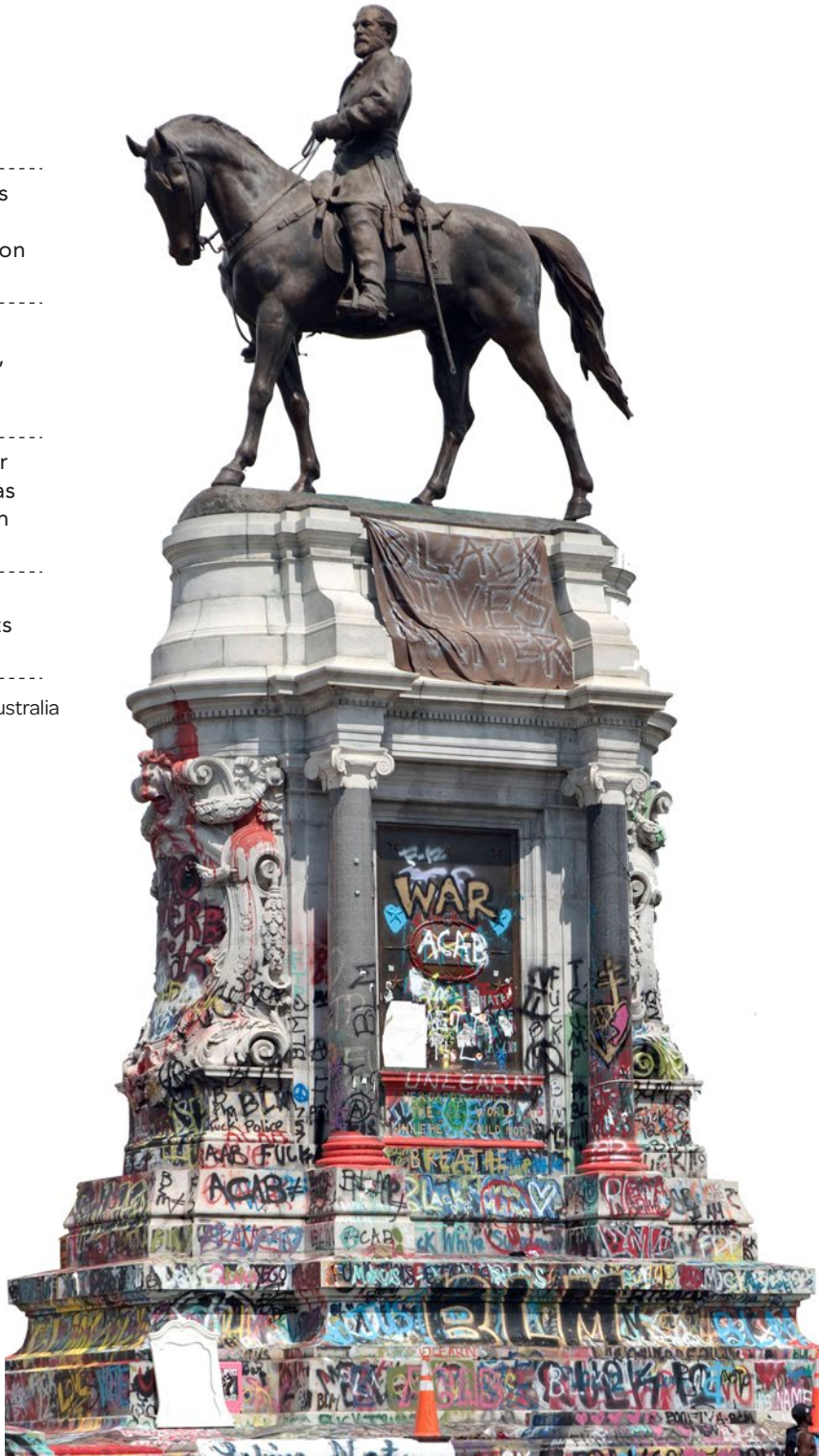
Cultural	Continuation or loss of cultural traditions (e.g. music, language, religion) has influenced identity, cultural representation and marginalisation.
Genetic	Mixing (including forced) with European settlers has had implications for identity, marginalisation and intergenerational trauma.
Economic	Exploitation as labour to build wealth for non-enslaved families and institutions has left a legacy of economic marginalisation for formerly enslaved peoples.
Political	Systematic inequality has given rise to civil rights and other political movements aimed at addressing inequalities.

Source 1: Legacies of the movement of people to the United States and Australia

The Statue Wars

The Black Lives Matter movement, which started in 2013 in the United States, is an important contemporary political movement with deep historical roots. As part of this movement, and in response to a number of horrific attacks against African Americans, there have been calls to remove statues commemorating events related to white supremacy and slavery.

In Richmond, Virginia – which served as the Confederate capital during the American civil war – the main thoroughfare, Monument Avenue, featured many monuments and memorials to people with connections to slavery. During 2017, the Richmond City Council set up a Commission to look into the future of these monuments (Source 3). In 2021, Monument Avenue became a focus of Black Lives Matter protests (Source 2).



The *Monument Avenue Commission Report* identified four 'main opinion groups' with views about the future of Monument Avenue's Confederate monuments:

1. Keep the monuments – This group was largely concerned about their heritage being destroyed, with someone arguing that the monuments should 'not be erased' ...
2. Keep and contextualise – This group wanted to keep the monuments but contextualise them, use them for education or add additional monuments ...
3. Relocate the monuments – This group wanted to move the monuments to, among other suggestions, a Fallen Monuments Park ('as other countries have done') or a Jim Crow Museum.
4. Remove the monuments – This group simply wanted the monuments removed, with comments referencing both history and current events. It was argued that the monuments were offensive 'relics of white supremacy'. At the same time, it was pointed out that they had now been 'formalized as racist symbols after the Alt-right rallies'.

Source 3: Paul Kiem (2021), 'Righting History: Monument Avenue, Richmond, Virginia', *Public History Review*, vol 28.

Robert Towns and 'blackbirding'

In June 2020, a statue of Robert Towns was vandalised in Townsville. Towns, who is considered the founder of Townsville, was a colonial-era businessman who worked with human traffickers involved in 'blackbirding' (kidnapping and otherwise forcibly coercing Pacific Islander people to work as indentured labour on Australian plantations). His hands were painted red, symbolising the blood on his hands due to his involvement in this horrific practice, which helped to establish the sugar cane industry in Queensland.

Source 2: The Monument Avenue statue of Robert E. Lee, a general in the Confederate Army, which fought to retain slavery. This statue was unveiled in 1890. On 8 September 2021, as part of a larger national reckoning with racial injustice, the statue was removed. Here, the statue is shown vandalised as part of the 2021 BLM protests.

My grandfather was 12-years-old, that's my mother's father. He was taken off the island of Vanuatu and brought to Australia and forced to work in the cane fields of Queensland ... This is not a happy narrative and this is not something we gained wealth and success through in being displaced peoples or stolen generations ... I think it's wrong that they've defaced it, but I understand where the anger is coming from and the frustration ... Despite the fact that Robert Towns might not have direct links to blackbirding, he actually hired a notorious recruiter, (Henry Ross) Lewin, who was horrific and renowned for his treatment of South Sea Islanders.

Source 4: Interview with Emelda Davis, a South Sea Islander whose grandfather was a 'sugar slave', partly reproduced in Douglas Smith (2020, 22 June), 'Statue of Slave Trader Painted with Bloodied Hands in Townsville', SBS, NITV.

Learning ladder 3.8

Impact and legacies

1. What are the four categories that can be used when investigating the legacies of the forced movement of peoples?
2. Describe what led to calls to remove statues related to slavery.
3. Explain how the legacy of Robert Towns has been viewed differently since 2020.
4. Source 3: Evaluate the views expressed to the Commission and decide how the legacy of slavery should be remembered on Monument Avenue. Give reasons for your decision.

Contestability

1. What is the debate at the centre of the 'Statue Wars'?
2. Describe how the interpretation of Robert E. Lee's contribution to history changed as part of Black Lives Matter protests.
3. Source 4: Explain Emelda Davis's interpretation of Robert Towns and the vandalising of his statue.
4. Evaluate the evidence Emelda Davis puts forward to support her interpretation of Robert Towns.

HOW TO
Contestability, page 506

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

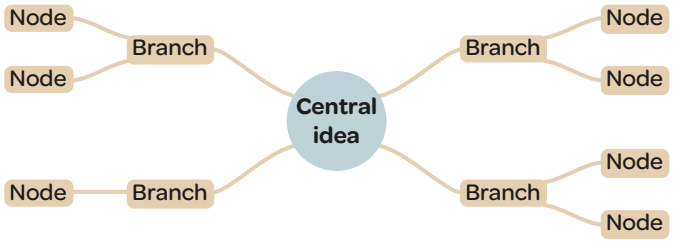
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to the movement of people.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Resources and markets, 3.1
- Slaves' journeys, 3.2, 3.3
- Convict experiences, 3.4, 3.5
- Free settler experiences, 3.6
- First Nations Peoples' experiences, 3.7
- The Statue Wars, 3.8

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

Imperialism in India (1750–1918)

4

HOW DID INDIA BECOME PART OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE? 4.2

HOW DID BRITISH RULE CHANGE INDIA 4.3

HOW DID NATIONALIST MOVEMENTS DEVELOP? 4.5

How can I understand imperialism in India?

During the peak of British expansion, India was hailed as 'the brightest jewel in the imperial crown'. Following a series of wars, Britain assumed direct political control, establishing a colonial administration famously known as 'the Raj'. This era fundamentally altered India's political and economic landscape, leaving an enduring legacy that resonates to this day.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: Victoria Terminus Station was built in 19th century Bombay (now Mumbai) by the British. This railway hub connected trade and communication across British India. It also stands as a lasting reminder of the enormous colonial power of Britain, and the profound transformations their influence brought to India.

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

What was life like in India prior to British rule?

Much of the area we call India was part of the Mughal Empire from 1526 onwards. In this society, social class was important, and life was influenced by different cultures and religious beliefs. By the time the British colonised India in the mid–19th century, internal conflicts and external forces had caused the empire to decline. However, much evidence of society during this time has survived, especially in the form of art and buildings, providing insight into what life was like in India prior to British rule.

The Mughal Empire

By the early 16th century, most of the northern parts of India had been conquered by the Mughals, who came from the area around Persia (Iran) and Türkiye. Other parts of India were divided into various Rajput kingdoms, several independent Hindu states and the Ahom Kingdom. The first Mughal ruler of India was Zahiruddin Muhammad Babur, a Muslim from Persia. He captured Delhi in 1526 thanks to superior military strategy. This left northern India, which was mostly Hindu, under Muslim control. Babur believed in religious tolerance, so long as there was no resistance to his rule, and this helped establish Mughal rule over India.

Babur was followed by his son Humayun then, in 1556, Akbar the Great became ruler until 1605. Under Akbar, the empire expanded and new religious policies were introduced that helped create a more tolerant society. Akbar also established a structure to efficiently govern the country and created great wealth through trade and the textile industry.

Under this government structure, both Muslims and Hindus could become officials called *mansabdars*. As part of being appointed to office, *mansabdars* were given land, the power to collect taxes and permission to maintain an army. Over the next 150 years, this group became more powerful to the point that they could challenge central rule. During the reign of the fifth Moghul emperor, Shah Jahan, from 1628 to 1658, many monuments were built, including the famous Taj Mahal at Agra.

In 1658, Shah Jahan's son, Aurangzeb, became emperor. Over the next 49 years peace was rare as he led campaigns to conquer territory or defeat his internal enemies. He expanded the Mughal Empire to its greatest extent, but he also imposed strict Islamic policies that enraged Hindus and Sikhs. It is estimated that millions of people died as the result of battles or from natural disasters during his rule. The death of Aurangzeb in 1707 marked the end of the Mughal Empire's **golden age**.

Society and culture

India prior to British rule was a combination of Persian, Mongol and Indian culture. The Mughals had brought with them the Persian culture. This mixed with Hindi culture, particularly in art, music and poetry. Generally, until the reign of Aurangzeb, there was tolerance of Hinduism by the Islamic Mughals.

The structure of society was similar to that of European countries at the time and was divided into different classes. At the top was the emperor, under the emperor was a noble class (*mansabdars*) and below this was a middle class made up of professionals, merchants and traders. At the bottom of the social pyramid were the 'common people' – peasants and workers who made up the majority of the population.

The common people were often poor and had limited access to education, employment and political power. They were divided into different **castes**, with each caste occupying a particular place in the social hierarchy. The lower castes, such as the Dalits or untouchables, faced discrimination and were often excluded from the mainstream of society. A culture of **child marriage**, brides requiring a **dowry** and prohibition of second marriage was strongly embedded.

Growth of the Mughal Empire, 1526–1707

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 1: The Mughal Empire, at its height, covered much of modern-day India.

Women in the royal and upper classes had access to education and the right to inherit property. However, for women of the lower classes, there were strict gender roles and work was restricted to domestic tasks. Most people living in India at the time were poor, but that does not mean the country was poor. The middle and upper classes had great wealth, which they used to purse higher learning and the arts.

> Before the British occupation, India was not a poor backwater, but a culturally and economically prosperous civilisation that had existed for millennia. India was home to the oldest university in the world, had originated our numerical system, had produced countless thinkers, philosophers, poets, and scientists. It had given the world Buddhism and Hinduism.'

Source 2: Omer Aziz (2018), *Blighted by Empire: What the British Did to India*, Hurst.

Source 3: The Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb leads his final expedition (1705). [Metropolitan Museum of Art]

The arts and architecture

The Mughal emperors were great supporters of the arts. Paintings at the time depicted scenes from royal life such as hunting, portraits of the emperors and their families, and religious images. The style of painting was a blend of Persian and Indian styles.

Music was an important part of life in the Mughal court. It was played in ceremonies and for entertaining visitors to royal palaces. During the Mughal period new instruments were invented such as the *sarangi*, a stringed instrument that became widely used in Indian classical music. Dance was also an important part of the culture of the privileged.

From 1526 to 1707, architecture and monument-building flourished. Designs combined Indian and Islamic elements. Common features were arches, domes and the minaret, with intricate details such as calligraphy and geometric patterns (see the Taj Mahal in Source 1, 4.2).

Source 4: Man's robe (*Jama*) with poppies, from the 17th century. Sometimes individual nobles were given robes by the emperor as a sign of honour. [Metropolitan Museum of Art]

Source 5: A *sarangi* [Metropolitan Museum of Art]

Learning ladder 4.1

Background and origins

1. Source 1: Describe how the Mughal Empire expanded from 1525 to 1707.
2. Describe the social classes in India by using a diagram.
3. Explain the different cultures in India before British rule.
4. Explain how Indian society was similar to that in Europe at the time.

Perspectives

1. Source 2: Describe the perspective of India given in this source.
2. Sources 4 and 5: Describe the perspective of India given by these sources.
3. Source 3: Explain the perspective of the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb presented in this source.
4. Compare the perspective you had of India before its colonisation with that presented in the sources and text.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

How did India become part of the British Empire?

The Mughal Empire had ruled India for centuries, but was in decline by the mid-18th century. The British East India Company, a powerful international trading business, made deals with regional rulers, took over provinces and established a government that applied British laws.

Decline of the Mughal Empire

By 1750, the Mughal Empire was in decline. Expensive wars, high taxes and conflict over **succession** had resulted in the emperor, based in Delhi, having little control. Rulers of local provinces sought to increase their own territory and power. This decline can be traced to Emperor Aurangzeb's introduction of religious restrictions, which led to thousands of Hindu temples being destroyed. Aurangzeb's intolerant and warlike attitude led to revolts. In southern India, the governor rebelled and reintroduced religious toleration. Other Hindu provinces also resisted, often assisted by British and French forces.

From this power struggle, the Marathas, who were Hindu warlords from Maharashtra, emerged victorious. The resulting Maratha Empire covered a large part of the Indian subcontinent. At the same time, the power and influence in the region of European countries, who had been trading with India since the mid-16th century, began to grow.

Source 1: The Taj Mahal was built as a mausoleum for the favourite wife of Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan. Completed in 1653, it shows the architectural styles and influence of the Mughal Empire.

Source 2: Major events for the period 1757–1885

key ideas **timeline.**

- **1757** – British East India Company forces the defeat of the Nawab of Bengal at the Battle of Plassey
- **1765** – Robert Clive declares himself Governor of Bengal
- **1833** – The first *Government of India Act* establishes British rule
- **1857** – The Indian Rebellion
- **1877** – Queen Victoria declared Empress of India
- **1885** – Indian National Congress (INC) formed

Source 3: The pink areas on the two maps show the Indian territory controlled by the British East India Company in 1765 (left) and 1805 (right).

The British East India Company

The British East India Company, a massive international trading and shipping business, entered India in 1600 and began to influence local politics in the region. The company helped to undermine the Mughal Empire, making separate deals with local rulers.

In 1756, as part of the Seven Years' War, the British East India Company was able to drive its French rivals out of India. A year later, the company took military control of the Bengal region in the Battle of Plassey. In 1765, Lord Robert Clive, a high-ranking member of the company, declared himself Governor of Bengal.

The company expanded its control over the next decade, taking over more provinces and cities. It introduced British law, replacing *maharajahs* (local rulers) with its own governors, as part of the Company **Raj** (a Hindi word meaning 'rule'). After he took office in 1774, Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General of India, tried to make the company into a political institution, not just a commercial one.

In 1833, after financial problems and accusations of corruption, the British parliament reduced the independence of the East India Company. It stopped trading and became an agency of the British government, focusing only on governing India. By 1857, unrest and resentment at the British East India Company had grown to the point of rebellion.

Learning ladder 4.2

Background and origins

1. Identify who won in the struggle for power after the decline of the Mughal Empire.
2. Describe why the Mughal Empire was in decline by 1750.
3. Explain the likely role of the British East India Company in Hindu resistance against the Mughal Empire.
4. Explain why control of India was taken away from the British East India Company, making India part of the British Empire.

Chronology

1. Source 2: In which year did the British East India Company take military control of Bengal.
2. Place these events on the timeline: Warren Hastings becomes Governor-General of India, The British East India Company enters India.
3. Describe how the British East India Company's role in India changed between 1757 and 1833.
4. Summarise the major steps that led from the company's commercial entry in 1600 to the rebellion in 1857.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

What impact did British rule have on India?

The presence of British rule had many economic, social and political impacts, both positive and negative. While the British Empire was motivated primarily by economic factors, it was also driven by the belief that the English were the superior race.

Land ownership changes

Before British colonisation, the Indian people had the right to use the land under collective ownership, while the ruling *zamindars* collected tax from peasant farmers. However, the Company Raj introduced a system of private property in 1793, which gave *zamindars* private property rights. This changed communities, as the rights to land had passed from one generation to the next under the Mughal Empire. Wealthier *zamindars* became powerful as they increased their land holdings, while peasant farmers lost their collective rights to land.

The higher land taxes demanded by the company meant that little improvement was made to land, and many *zamindars* turned to new crops that would generate greater profit. Farmland previously used for food production was instead used for growing cash crops such as cotton, **indigo** and tea. This, coupled with poor weather, caused a series of devastating famines in 1876–1877 and 1899–1900.

Agriculture

Opium and tea became essential crops in British India. While Britain bought many goods from China, the Chinese had little demand for British goods. In order to change this trading imbalance, the Company Raj began to sell Indian opium to China. This highly addictive drug was very lucrative, and the company's monopoly on opium contributed to as much as 20 per cent of British India's income.

There was also an incredibly high demand for tea in England. Prior to British colonisation, no tea trade existed in India, although wild tea grew in Assam. In 1833, the British East India Company began commercial tea growing in this region; by the early 20th century, Assam had become the largest tea-producing region in the world. Darjeeling in West Bengal also became an important tea-growing area, with Darjeeling tea known as the 'champagne of teas'. Much of the tea grown in this region was actually cultivated from plants smuggled out of China.

Source 1: An 1850 photograph of workers weighing harvested tea in Assam. The British East India Company drove the development of the tea industry in Assam and by the early 1900s it had become the largest tea-producing region in the world. The modern state of Assam is in far north-east India, on the Brahmaputra River. Assam borders Bhutan, Bangladesh, Myanmar and is very close to China. Assam remains the world's largest tea-growing region by production today.

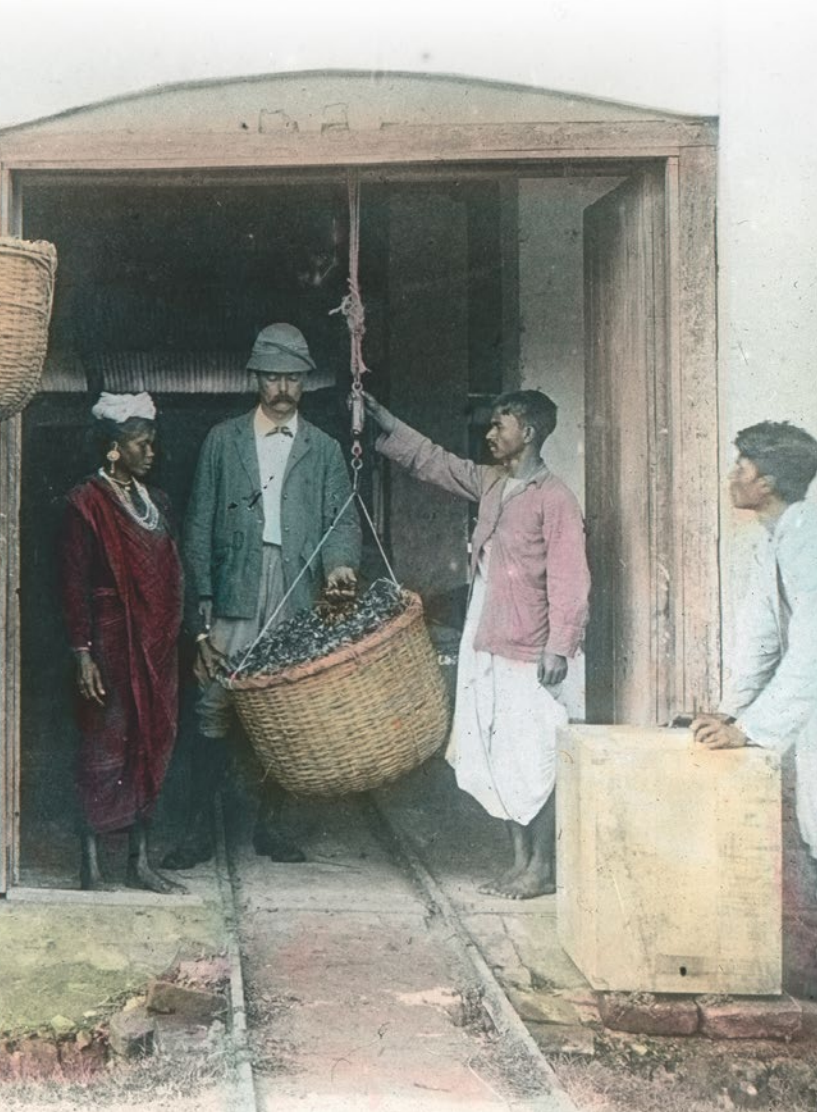
Destruction of the textile economy

Unlike previous rulers, who had made few changes to the country's economic structure, the British changed India's traditional trading practices. Many rural economies relied on making and selling **handicrafts**, especially textiles and clothing, for nobles and *maharajahs*. The British East India Company introduced mechanised looms and encouraged *maharajahs* to buy British manufactured textiles. As a result, demand for locally produced, hand-woven cotton garments fell, and the Indian textile market suffered.

The disruption caused by agricultural changes also altered rural economic patterns, and the introduction of railways disrupted traditional Indian industries. Silk and woollen textile production suffered the same fate as cotton-weaving, as it became cheaper and politically safer to buy British fabrics. Formerly a world-leading exporter of clothes, India became an exporter of raw cotton.

The introduction of import duties and restrictions on Indian goods, along with administration costs, further served to weaken the Indian economy.

Source 2: India's weavers were famed across the world for their light muslins. Production of these hand-made textiles declined following the arrival of the British.



> Britain's rise for 200 years was financed by its depredations in India. In fact, Britain's industrial revolution was actually premised upon the de-industrialisation of India.
>
> The handloom weavers, for example, famed across the world whose products were exported around the world, Britain came right in. There were actually these weavers making fine muslin as light as woven air, it was said, and Britain came right in, smashed their thumbs, broke their looms, imposed tariffs and duties on their cloth and products and started, of course, taking their raw material from India and shipping back manufactured cloth flooding the world's markets with what became the products of the dark and satanic mills of Victorian England.

Source 3: Extract from a 2015 speech by Indian politician Shashi Tharoor, arguing that Britain owed India reparations to make up for 200 years of colonial rule.

Religion

India has been a land of diverse religious beliefs for thousands of years, and is the place where four of the world's major religions – Hinduism, Buddhism, Sikhism and Jainism – were founded. While Hinduism was the dominant religion at the time of British colonisation, many other faiths also thrived in India – particularly Islam, as the Mughals were Muslims.

The British did not bring Christianity to India; missionaries had visited India since the time of the Mughals. In fact, the British East India Company actually banned Christian missionaries from coming to India! The company had a policy of 'religious neutrality', but not for moral or ethical reasons – its leaders simply wanted to avoid religious protests and uprisings. Fearing that an increased Christian presence would cause unrest, they banned missionaries and instead supported Hindu festivals.

Britain's rulers disapproved of this, and by the 1830s the company was forced to stop promoting Hinduism and to let missionaries in. Christianity started to develop a larger presence within India, which, as predicted, contributed to growing unrest within the Hindu community.

The Indian Rebellion

The domination of India by the British East India Company resulted in previously independent kingdoms falling under company control. In 1833, the company lost its trade monopoly, which led it to increase the size of its army to protect its interests. The company employed professional Indian soldiers, known as *sepoys*. By 1852, the army of *sepoys* numbered 233 000.

However, the lack of respect given to Indian soldiers, and the British belief that their own civilisation was superior, contributed to growing feelings of resentment among the Indian soldiers. In May 1857, the *sepoy* forces started a rebellion. This rebellion is known by many names, including the Indian Rebellion or the Sepoy Mutiny.

Source 4: An 1859 illustration by George Francklin Anderson of *sepoy* troops during the failed Indian Rebellion.

The immediate cause of the uprising was the introduction of the new Lee Enfield rifle. These rifles were loaded with paper cartridges that contained a bullet and gunpowder, and were sealed with grease to keep the powder dry. In order to load the rifle, the end of the greased cartridge had to be bitten off. While there is little evidence to support the claim, a rumour spread that the grease was made from a mix of pig and cow fat. This caused offence to both Muslim and Hindu *sepoys*.

The longer-term causes of the rebellion were the policies used by the company to increase its power and territory in India, such as the 'doctrine of lapse'. This allowed them to annex land if a Hindu ruler had no natural heir and replace the traditional rulers with their own officials. Hindus were also concerned about the spread of Christianity in India.

The uprising spread across India. Both elites and commoners joined the rebellion, united in their dislike of British rule, as did landlords who had been left impoverished by the company's economic policies. The British government sent troops and, amid atrocities on both sides, eventually defeated the *sepoys* in November 1858.

Source 5: Queen Victoria, engraving, c. 1887

The British Raj

In June 1858, during the uprising, the British government took over control of India from the company, replacing the Company Raj with the British Raj. This meant that Britain now ruled India directly without the British East India Company's involvement. Some regions remained under the control of native princes, but these 'princely states' were fundamentally **vassal states** of the Raj.

In November 1858, Queen Victoria made promises to rule India for the good of its people. Indian subjects would be protected under British law and the land rights of native princes would be acknowledged. The Viceroy of India was to be responsible for both British India and Princely India, while the Governor-General ruled over British India.

In order to further strengthen political ties, Benjamin Disraeli, the British Prime Minister, and Lord Lytton, the Viceroy of India, declared Queen Victoria to be Empress of India in January 1877. Britain's ability to control India made it powerful, both economically and politically. Prime Minister Disraeli called India 'the brightest jewel in the crown'.

Learning ladder 4.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who became the Empress of India in 1877?
2. Describe the significance of the introduction of tea growing in India.
3. Explain the cause of the Indian Rebellion.
4. Explain why British Prime Minister Disraeli would have called India 'the brightest jewel in the crown'.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: What is the origin of this source?
2. Describe the purpose of this source.
3. How does Shashi Tharoor endeavour to convince his audience to share his perspective on British colonial rule in India?
4. Assess the value and limitations of this source for understanding British rule in India.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

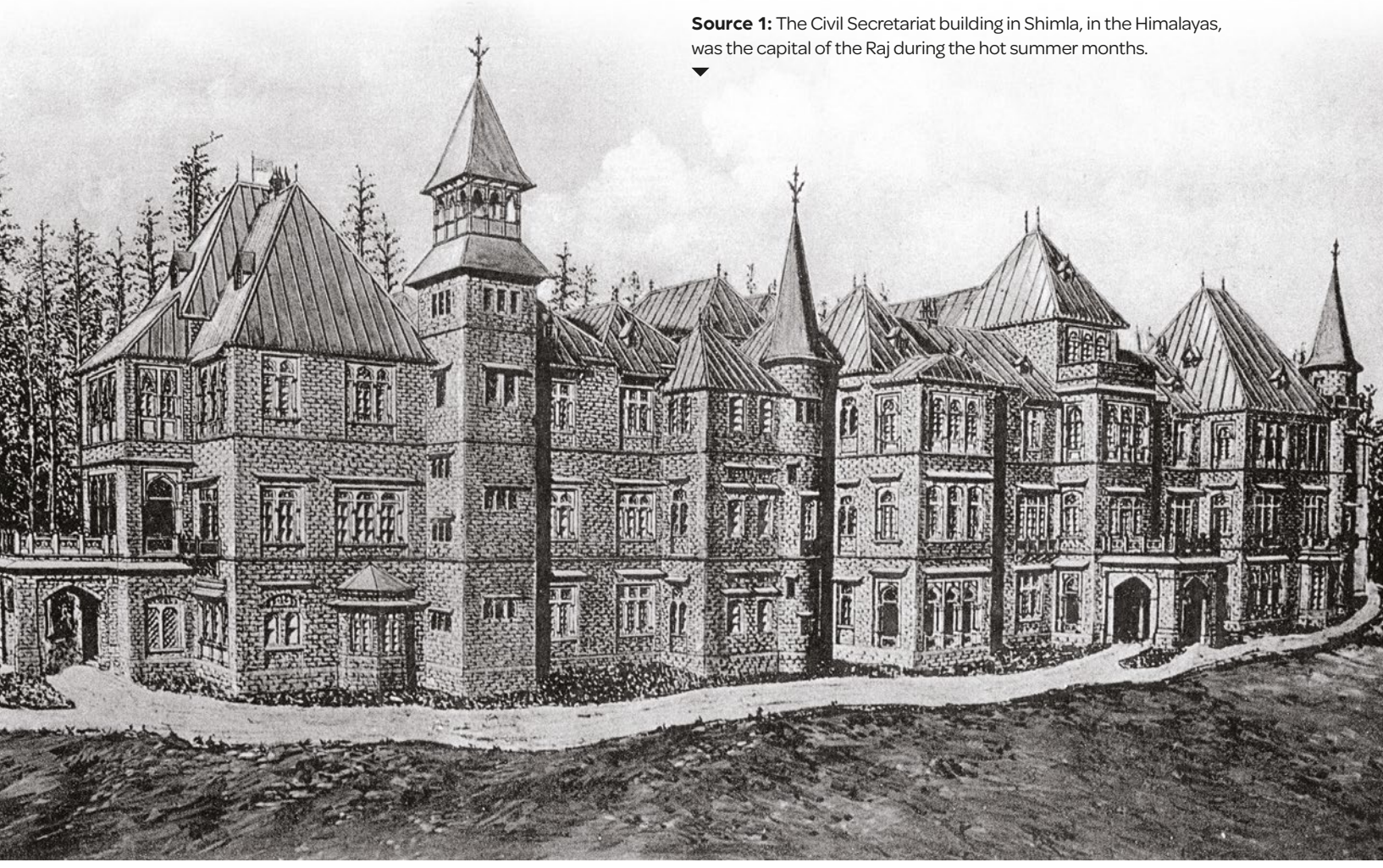
What was life like under the British Raj?

British rule in India brought technological and cultural change. Social reforms often conflicted with traditional Indian practices and began to change Indian society. However, some reforms were also supported by Indian citizens.

Britons abroad

The British population of India was small; there were never more than 100 000 Britons living there at one time. The wealthiest of them – politicians, businessmen and highly educated civil servants – lived lives of luxury on palatial estates with small armies of servants. However, the majority of Britons were workers, soldiers or Raj employees; they lived simpler lives, but still enjoyed a more privileged status than most indigenous Indians.

The British built leisure facilities to make India more enjoyable for them, such as racetracks, private clubs, golf courses and even ski resorts. Hill stations, such as Shimla (Source 1), were built in the cooler mountainous areas. Originally built by the British East India Company for civil servants and their families, these served as a retreat from the hot, overcrowded cities. They also reinforced the belief in British superiority; for example, no Indians were allowed on the mall (the main street) in Shimla during the day.



Source 1: The Civil Secretariat building in Shimla, in the Himalayas, was the capital of the Raj during the hot summer months.

Source 2: Coronation portrait of the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1911. Indian rulers in 19th-century paintings wore loose garments like the man on the left. Under the rule of the British Raj, the garments of royals became more fitted. The rest of the men shown here are wearing sherwanis, a combination of English and Indian styles. Sherwanis are popular wedding attire today.

Indians at home

The British held the first census of India in 1871; by 1881, there were estimated to be 255 million people living in the country. The majority lived in rural areas, working on farms held by *zamindars*. Others lived in urban centres, many of them working for British inhabitants or as employees of the Raj.

Exposure to Western ideas did not cause Indians to jettison their culture as liberal reformers had anticipated. Rather, they reinvented and reinvigorated it, synthesising the differing cultures and creating new approaches. Western ideas and social models were adapted by a people operating within their own powerful traditions.

The legal system

The Raj implemented a system of Anglo–Hindu law, primarily based on British rather than Indian laws. A penal code was introduced in 1861, and other laws followed. One of them, passed in 1872, sanctioned inter-caste and inter-communal marriages. This challenged the caste system that existed within India.

The caste system, which divided Indian Hindus into four groups, was seen as contrary to the ideas of liberty and equality that Britain brought to India. Individuals, such as reformer Raja Mohan Roy, began to criticise the rigid caste system and social practices such as *sati* (the ritual burning of a widow at her husband's funeral). This practice was banned in 1829.

Other changes to laws, such as the *Hindu Widows Remarriage Act* in 1856, also helped to improve the status of women in Indian society. Female **infanticide** was banned, and attempts were made to prevent child marriage (although this did not happen until the *Sharda Act* of 1926).

However, there was significant inequality within the legal system. Poor people found it difficult to access the law courts, and Europeans received preferential sentences and decisions compared with Indians.

Education

British politician Thomas Macaulay introduced a national system of education to India, something that didn't even exist in Britain at the time. A British supremacist, Macaulay argued that an education that stressed the value of British rule would result in Indians who were more English in their outlook, and that students should be taught in English.

Although schools were established across India, only 5 per cent of the Indian population could read by the end of the 19th century. In 1857, the first universities in India were founded in Bombay, Bengal and Madras. The children of wealthier Indians attended English-speaking universities in the hope that they would be able to enter the British civil service.

Education resulted in a new Indian middle class who, rather than being 'English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect' as Macaulay proposed, began to challenge British rule in India.

New technologies

Prompted by the need for faster transportation of cotton, Lord Dalhousie (Governor-General of India from 1848 to 1856) pushed for the development of railways in India. The railways were intended to meet the Raj's economic and administrative needs; travel between cities by Indians was a by-product. The first railway opened in India in 1851, while the first passenger train ran from Bombay to Thane in April 1853 and carried about 400 passengers. Most of the passengers travelled in third class, as only about 10 per cent could afford first- or second-class travel. By 1890, India's largest cities were linked by approximately 14 500 kilometres of rail; by 1904, 45 000 kilometres of track had been laid.

Newspapers and print media were also popular in India at this time. By 1885, there were almost 100 English-language newspapers published within India, with a circulation of nearly 60 000 copies each week. There were also many Indian newspapers and journals, in native languages and with small print runs, circulating thanks to the rail network and an efficient postal system.

The first recorded game of cricket played in India was in 1721, when sailors from the British East India Company played in western India. However, it wasn't until 100 years later that the sport became popular in India, as British colonists brought the game with them. The first Indian community to adopt cricket was the Parsi community of Bombay (now Mumbai), who established the Oriental Cricket Club in 1848. Cricket's popularity grew exponentially from that date, to the point where it is now considered the unofficial national sport of India.

Source 3: The Loop at 'Agony Point' on the Darjeeling Himalayan Railway

Source 4: A hand-coloured photograph of soldiers of different Indian cavalry units, 1901

The military

The British Raj abolished the company armies and created a new British Indian Army. *Sepoys* were banned from some divisions and could not become officers. Most regiments consisted of soldiers from a single religious group – Hindus, Sikhs, Christians or Muslims.

During World War I, approximately 1.2 million Indians served in the Indian and British Army – more than the combined numbers of Australians, New Zealanders, Canadians and South Africans. Of these, around 74 000 were killed during the fighting.

Indian soldiers served across all theatres of war. These included 700 000 *sepoys*, the majority of whom were Muslim; they served in Mesopotamia, fighting against fellow Muslims in defence of the British Empire. Five thousand Indian soldiers lost their lives at Gallipoli. Indian soldiers won numerous medals, including nine Victoria Crosses – the highest accolade that can be won in the British armed forces in the battlefield.

The names of 412 Indian soldiers who have no known graves are inscribed on the Menin Gate in Belgium. However, for those soldiers that survived World War I, their heroism was ignored or denigrated back at home because Indian nationalists felt they had fought in the service of a foreign master.

Learning ladder 4.4

Impact and legacies

1. Describe the impact of the British on traditional Indian culture.
2. Describe the legacy of the Raj on the Indian legal system.
3. Explain the legacy of Thomas Macaulay's national system of education.
4. Explain the impact of new technologies on India.

Continuity and change

1. Describe the change to reading following the establishment of a national school system.
2. Describe continuity and change in Indian culture following exposure to Western ideas.
3. Explain how British ideas of liberty and equality impacted the continuity of the caste system.
4. Explain the changes to the military under the British Raj.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

4.5

How did nationalist movements gain influence in India?

Concepts such as liberty, equality and self-government resonated with Indians who felt oppressed by the policies of the British Empire. Indian identity was promoted by individuals who revived a sense of pride in Indian culture and heritage. Nationalist groups led, sometimes violent, political campaigns against British rule.

Communication and unity

The British introduced new communications technologies and platforms to India, such as newspapers, railways and national and international telegraph networks. However, the colonialists of the Raj did not foresee that these new technologies would actually help **nationalist** movements gain influence across India.

Source 1: A modern-day Ganesh Chaturthi festival. Bal Gangadhar Tilak popularised this and other festivals in the late 19th century as a platform for anti-British protests.

India was (and still is) a vast country, containing many different cultures and languages. The lack of a single common language caused communication issues throughout India's history and, during the Raj, made it harder for those who opposed British rule to coordinate with allies or connect with supporters. This changed once the British introduced the national education system. Indians who received a Western education now had a means of communicating across the country, not only thanks to new technologies but because they spoke a common language – English.

Similarly, while the British introduced railways and telegraphs for their own convenience, Indian citizens used these technologies to exchange information. This helped to support a growing sense of Indian unity. Across the country, groups formed to discuss political issues and express their unhappiness with British rule.

The Indian Congress Party

The Indian Congress Party was one of the most prominent nationalist groups. In 1885, it established the Indian National Congress (INC) and began lobbying for Indian involvement in government. However, the prevailing British attitude was that Indians were unfit to run their own country.

Indian nationalists promoted the idea of *swaraj*, or self-rule. Individuals such as Dadabhai Naoroji, who became the first Indian member of parliament in 1892, argued that the British ruled in order to further their interests, rather than for the good of Indians.

The early nationalists were highly critical of the economic exploitation that had occurred under the Raj, and sought constitutional changes so that India could be governed by Indians but remain part of the British Empire. They favoured protest and petition as methods of trying to effect change in India. However, following the famine of 1899–1900, the INC adopted more direct methods in their attempts to achieve *swaraj*. Leaders advocated **boycotting** British goods and passive **resistance**.

Bal Gangadhar Tilak

Bal Gangadhar Tilak was a key independence activist who wanted to spread the idea of nationalism beyond those elite Indians who had received a British education. The British authorities banned protests, so Tilak used Hindu religious festivals such as Ganesh Chaturthi (a celebration of the god Ganesh) as opportunities to promote Indian nationalism to large numbers of people.

Source 2:
Bal Gangadhar Tilak

Tilak split with the INC in 1907, as he believed that Indians should use whatever means necessary to achieve self-rule, whereas moderates in the party believed in using only non-violent methods. In July 1908, following his public support of two men who had failed in their attempt to assassinate the chief presidency magistrate, Tilak was imprisoned by the British government for **sedition**. British officials realised how Tilak was using festivals to gain influence and labelled him 'the father of Indian unrest' in 1910.

In 1916, Tilak formed a radical party, the All India Home Rule League, in conjunction with British activist Annie Besant and fellow Indian activist G.S. Khaparde. The League promoted **home rule** – the promise of an India governed by Indians, not the British – and had more than 30 000 members by 1917. It promoted the idea of home rule through education and propaganda.

While the Home Rule Movement ultimately failed to reach the masses, it created links between urban and rural areas that were later used by Mahatma Gandhi, whose leadership was able to propel the Indian nationalist movement forward.

Post–war protests

Following the end of World War I, protests in favour of Indian self-rule became more frequent. It was felt that India's sacrifice during the war should be rewarded. Britain felt differently and, despite high expectations in India, clamped down on protests. In 1919, the British Parliament passed the *Rowlatt Act*, a law that gave authorities the power to crack down on what they considered **subversive** activities.

An example of the *Rowlatt Act* in action was the Amritsar Massacre of 1919. A crowd of over 10 000 people had gathered at Jallianwala Bagh for a protest meeting. General Reginald Dyer, commander of the local British Indian Army, ordered his troops to open fire without warning on the peaceful crowd. Over 400 men, women and children were killed and 1200 more were wounded.

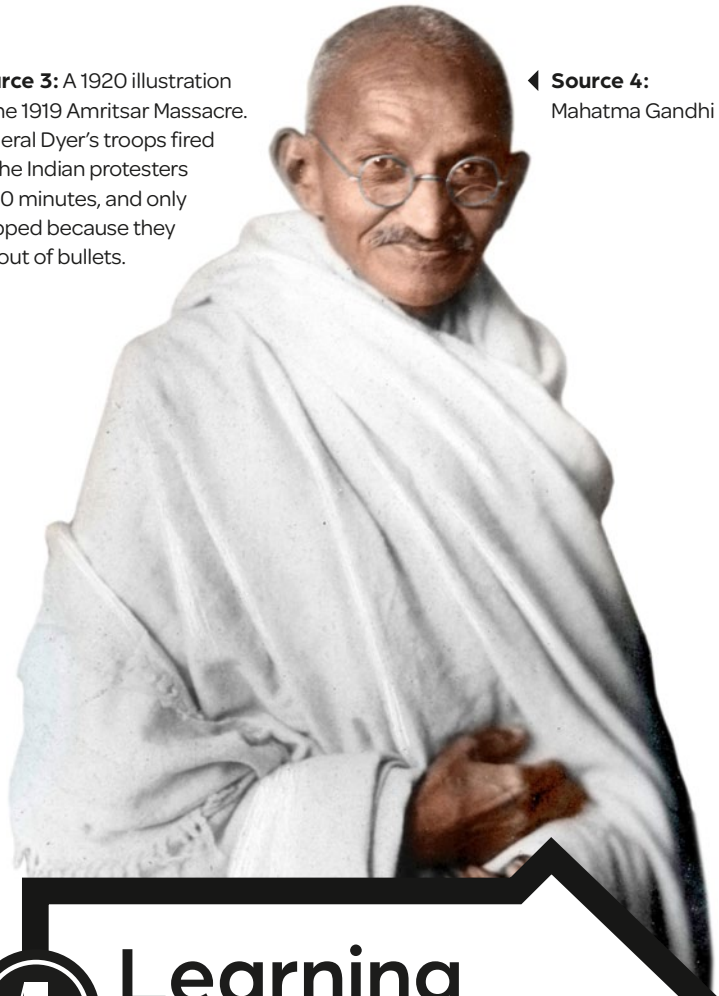
While some British leaders were horrified by the massacre, others applauded Dyer for taking decisive action. Rather than stifling dissent, the brutality of the killings and lack of remorse from the British only increased the sense of anger and nationalist sentiment in the Indian community.

Mahatma Gandhi

One of the most important figures in the campaign for Indian independence made his political debut during World War I, but would not rise to global prominence for another decade

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was an Indian lawyer living in South Africa, where he became known as a civil rights activist for his work helping Indian **expatriates**.

Source 3: A 1920 illustration of the 1919 Amritsar Massacre. General Dyer's troops fired on the Indian protesters for 10 minutes, and only stopped because they ran out of bullets.



Source 4: Mahatma Gandhi

The Indian community in South Africa gave him the **honorific** *Mahatma* (a Sanskrit word meaning 'the great souled one'), which stayed with him throughout his life.

Gandhi returned to India in 1915 and became involved in the nationalist movement. While he supported Britain's war effort, and the deployment of Indian soldiers, he was critical of inequality and injustice against Indians living under the Raj. Gandhi promoted a form of **civil disobedience** called *satyagraha* ('truth force'). This non-violent protest movement involved boycotting British goods and institutions, among other methods.

Gandhi went on to lead the INC in the 1920s and became the most prominent figure in the Indian independence movement, as well as one of the most recognised people in the world.

Learning ladder 4.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was the Indian National Congress and when did it form?
2. Who was Bal Gangadhar Tilak and how did he encourage nationalism?
3. Describe the events of the Amritsar Massacre.
4. Explain which protest methods were most effective in the Indian Home Rule campaign.

Significance

1. What was the significance of new communications technologies for nationalism in India?
2. Describe the significance of the Indian National Congress to the nationalist movement.
3. Explain the significance of Mahatma Gandhi to the nationalist movement.
4. Explain the most important factors in the campaign for Indian self-rule.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

What was the legacy of British rule in India?

An assessment of whether a legacy is a good or bad one will depend on a person's perspective. Views on the legacy of British rule in India written from a pro-colonial perspective have been contested in recent times. So, was India left better or worse as the result of being governed by Britain between 1858 and 1947?

British colonist perspective

The attitude of many British colonists towards the Indian population is reflected in the poem 'The White Man's Burden' written by the British imperialist poet Rudyard Kipling in 1899. The poet expresses the view that people from non-white countries are inferior to the British and it is the duty of 'the white man' to civilise these 'half-devil and half-child' natives.

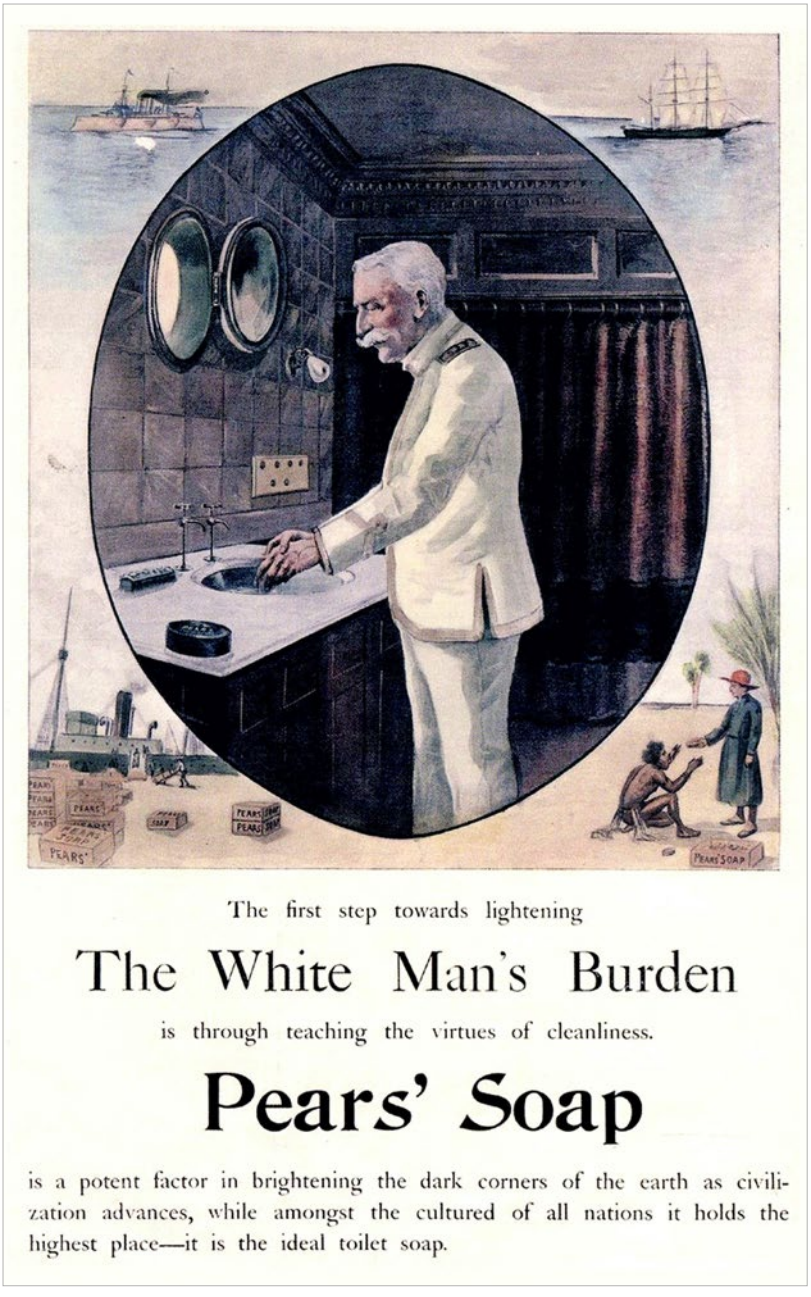
Those with a pro-British Empire perspective see a positive legacy of British rule in India by noting the 'good' things India gained; for example, Britain built and left behind a system of railways and roads, gave India democracy and a fair legal system, established the tea industry, introduced the game of cricket (which remains a major national sport in India today), and embedded the English language.

It would be argued that India was a more developed and 'civilised' country at the end of British rule in 1947 compared to what it was in 1858.

A different perspective

The pro-British Empire perspective is contested by those historians who view the legacy of British rule as having damaged India, with some effects continuing to the present day. In this view, India was exploited by the British and whatever benefits were left, these were at a significant cost both economically and socially.

Britain also left its former colony partitioned (divided) into India and Pakistan. The imposed borders caused conflict resulting in the estimated loss of one to two million lives and over 15 million people uprooted from their homes. The hostility between the two countries continues today.



Source 1: An English advertisement from c. 1900 based on the poem, 'The White Man's Burden', by Rudyard Kipling

Source 2: Poverty, famine and disease went unchecked during the British Raj – a reflection of the colonial power's attitude to 'the natives'.

It is argued it is not valid to compare conditions in India in 1858 with those in 1947, as this falsely assumes there would have been no development without the British. To consider India prior to the British as uncivilised is to ignore India's great historical achievements in mathematics, literature, arts, architecture, music, medicine and astronomy.

> Unemployment, famine, poor sanitary conditions, lack of access to education and healthcare, caste-based oppression, religious violence and gender-based violence are all a part of the legacy of colonialism. In 40 years, between 1880 and 1920, British colonialism killed 100 million Indians and, according to research by economic historian, Robert Allen, extreme poverty in India increased under British rule, from 23% in 1810 to more than 50% in the mid-20th century.

Source 3: Mirha Butt (2023, 12 July), *Beyond the Raj: How British Colonialism Continues to Impact Human Rights in India*, London School of Economics and Political Science.

Learning ladder 4.6

Impact and legacies

1. List two positive and two negative impacts of British rule in India.
2. Describe the legacy of British rule from a British perspective.
3. Source 3: Describe the legacy of British rule expressed in this source.
4. Evaluate the legacy of British rule.

Contestability

1. Identify two different interpretations of the legacy of British rule in India presented here.
2. Source 3: Describe the interpretation of British rule presented in this source.
3. Explain how the pro-British perspective justifies its interpretation of colonial rule in India.
4. Sources 1 and 3: Compare the interpretation of British rule in Source 3 with that of the British colonist perspective in Source 1.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 506

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

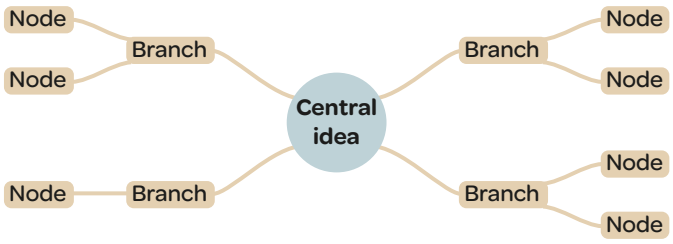
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to India.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Mughal Empire, 4.1
- British East India Company, 4.2
- Indian Rebellion, 4.3
- British Raj, 4.4
- Mahatma Gandhi, 4.5
- Nationalist movements, 4.5

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative (see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

Imperialism in China (1750–1918)

5

WHO WAS CHINA'S DOWAGER EMPRESS? 116

WHAT WERE THE OPIUM WARS? 110

WHAT WAS THE BOXER REBELLION? 124

5.0

How can I understand imperialism in China?

China was never completely colonised like some of its neighbours; instead, it was coerced into signing agreements that diminished its economic and political sovereignty. Notably, Britain asserted its influence by taking over Hong Kong, granting it significant social and political control over the local population. The repercussions of these unequal treaties and external influences have left deep imprints on modern China.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: Firing Chinese porcelain ('China'), c. 1790. The insatiable demand among Europeans for Chinese goods drove Western efforts to expand their trade and influence in China.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What was life like in China's Qing dynasty?

In the middle of the 17th century, China was a vast and powerful nation. Emperor Qianlong ruled over 250 million people in a wealthy empire that included Mongolia, Xinjiang and Tibet. Emperor Qianlong, the absolute ruler of this empire, was the richest person in the world.

The Qing dynasty

The Qing **dynasty** – also known as the Manchu dynasty – ruled China from 1644 to 1911. The Qing (pronounced Ch'ing, meaning 'pure') had come from the north and conquered the Ming dynasty of the Han Chinese.

The Chinese did not believe in the 'divine right of kings'. Rather, they believed that an emperor had to be an exceptional person who could control the cosmic forces. The right to rule was called the 'mandate of heaven'. If this control was lost, the emperor could be overthrown, and this would be considered fair. If this occurred, it was believed that the emperor had lost the mandate of heaven. When a new dynasty was established, it was believed that the mandate of heaven had passed to the new rulers. Therefore, the Ming dynasty officially lost the mandate of heaven when the Manchus sacked the Ming capital of Beijing and established the Qing dynasty.

The Qing took many Buddhist religious beliefs from the Han Chinese. They made offerings to ancestors in small shrines on the west side of their bedrooms. They believed the dead travelled to another world. Corpses traditionally were removed through windows, as doorways were only for the living.

However, the Qing also kept themselves apart from the Han Chinese. They banned marriage between themselves and the Chinese, they continued to speak their own language and they did not make their documents available to the Chinese. The Qing also maintained military strength over the Chinese by separating the duties of the Chinese troops from those of their own troops. To keep the Chinese weak, they were not trained as an attacking force.

Source 1: A 1758 portrait of Emperor Qianlong by Giuseppe Castiglione, depicting him as a monarch riding into battle – a theme from European painting traditions.

The Qing dynasty, China, 1644–1750

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 2:** By 1750, the Qing dynasty controlled most of what is currently understood as 'China'.

Under the Qing, women were allowed more freedoms, such as riding horses and practising archery. The Manchu emperor also forbade women from binding their feet, starting the gradual demise of this practice. Men were required to wear a Manchu-style pigtail haircut, and decapitation was the punishment for not complying.

The Qing expanded into Central and South-East Asia in the 17th century, and by the middle of the 18th century they had also brought outer regions such as Mongolia and Tibet under Qing control. China's size nearly doubled, and Manchu people were encouraged to migrate to different regions.

In the years between 1762 and 1830, the population of China nearly doubled, from 200 million people to 395 million people.

Emperor Qianlong

In 1736, Emperor Qianlong commenced his 60-year reign and became the longest serving monarch in Chinese history. He came to the throne at the age of 26. As well as running government business, Qianlong enjoyed the arts. He made six tours to the south of China to inspect building projects and to observe ordinary people's lives. During the tours, he composed many poems and had the royal artists record them through paintings.

Qianlong administered China by ensuring strong internal government and protecting the country's borders. He won 10 military victories during his reign.

The emperor reduced rents, cut taxes, encouraged new agricultural methods, implemented flood-control measures on rivers, secured China's borders, maintained peace and travelled widely.

Emperor Qianlong and the arts

As a ruler, Emperor Qianlong was a scholar who tried to embody Confucian values. He loved beautiful objects and artworks, and collected works from throughout China. He also admired the works of European artists and even recruited the Italian artist Giuseppe Castiglione to serve as a painter in his court. Creativity flourished under Emperor Qianlong, and he became a major patron of the arts. Aside from being a prolific poet and essayist – he wrote over 44 000 poems and thousands of essays – he also painted, did calligraphy and loved music.

Emperor Qianlong had scholars to organise and catalogue his collections of art, which included ceramics, jade, enamel, bronze and other metal work. Many of the paintings and sculptures he collected have his poems written directly onto them.

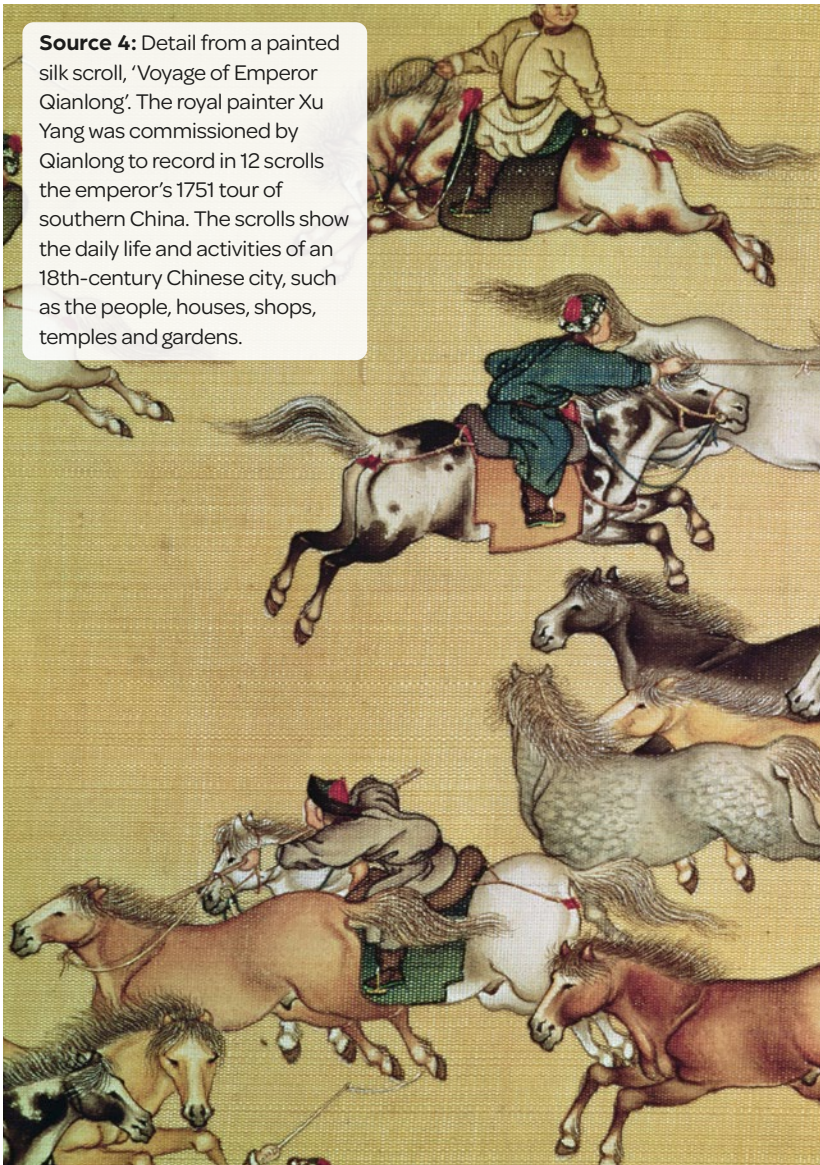
The emperor conducted a project to copy all surviving Chinese writing. This task took over 300 scholars and roughly 3600 scribes 10 years to complete, producing 2.3 million pages. However, at the same time, he destroyed almost as many books as he saved, by banning and ordering the burning of books that he viewed as anti-Qing or morally unfit.

The impressive temple of Puning Si was one of eight temples built by Qianlong outside the Imperial Summer Villa. Combining Han and Tibetan architectural styles, Puning Si demonstrates the strong influence of Tibetan Buddhism on Chinese culture. The temple houses the world's largest wooden statue – of Guanyin, the Buddhist goddess of mercy – and several towers, pavilions and halls containing inscriptions, paintings and statues.

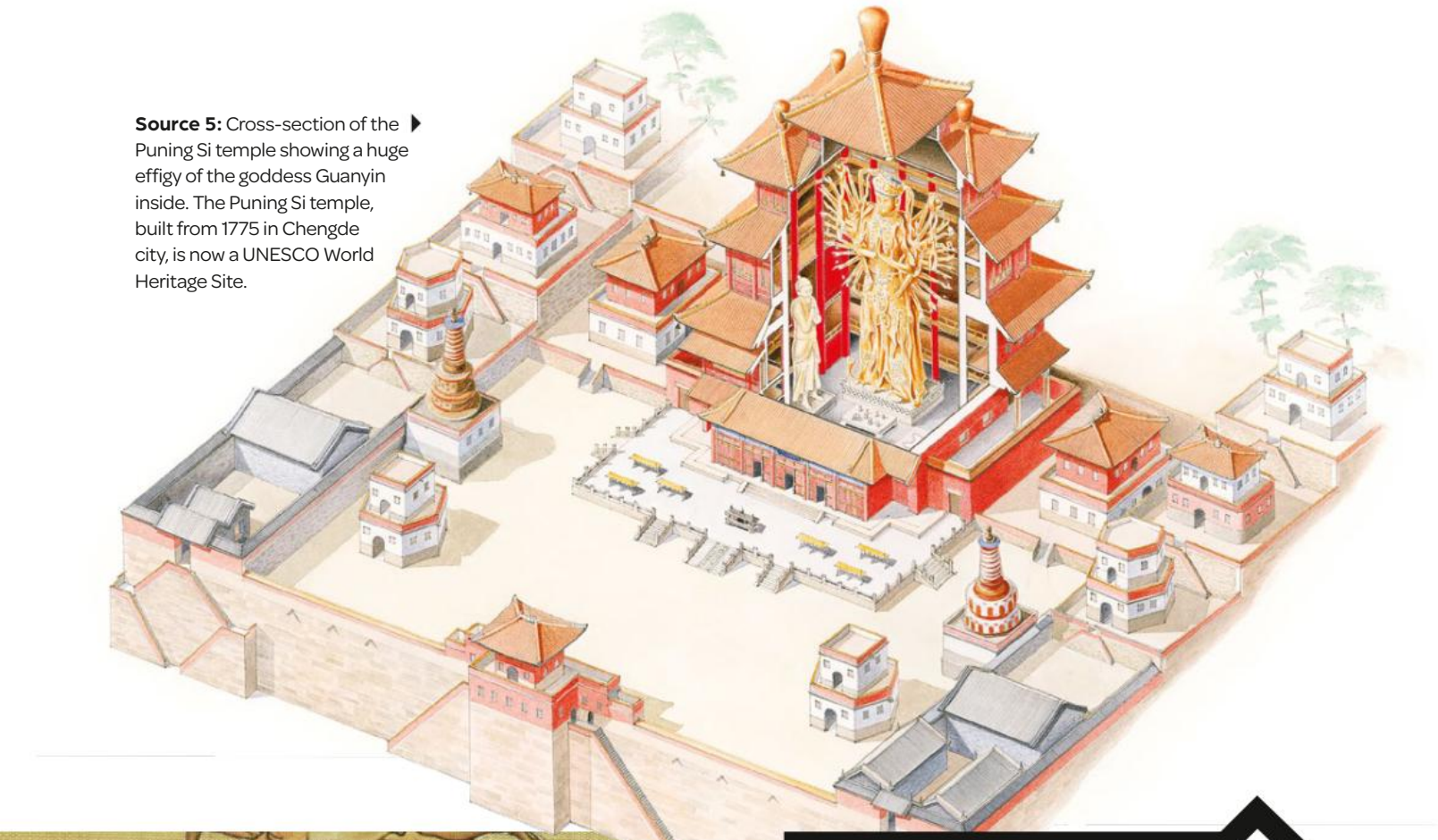
In China, paintings were thought to be a way to communicate with dead relatives. The Chinese believed the dead did not die; they just went to a different world where they could be contacted by the living.

The Chinese also believed good things would happen to them if they drew symbols of good fortune such as birds, flowers and fine weather conditions. The crane was a symbol of a lucky bird, often shown in embroideries and paintings. Animals, celestial bodies and landscape features, among other things, made up the 12 symbols of sovereignty. These symbols had appeared on the five-clawed dragon robes of the emperor since the Western Zhou dynasty (1050–771 BCE). They were a symbolic interpretation of the universe and symbols of Chinese imperial authority.

▲ **Source 3:** Dragon robe from 18th-century China



Source 4: Detail from a painted silk scroll, 'Voyage of Emperor Qianlong'. The royal painter Xu Yang was commissioned by Qianlong to record in 12 scrolls the emperor's 1751 tour of southern China. The scrolls show the daily life and activities of an 18th-century Chinese city, such as the people, houses, shops, temples and gardens.



Source 5: Cross-section of the Puning Si temple showing a huge effigy of the goddess Guanyin inside. The Puning Si temple, built from 1775 in Chengde city, is now a UNESCO World Heritage Site.

Learning ladder 5.1

Background and origins

1. Who were the Qing and how long did their dynasty last?
2. Describe what the Chinese believed about their rulers.
3. Source 2: Explain how the Qing Empire expanded.
4. Explain, using examples, how the Qing dynasty maintained its power.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Who would have worn the garment shown in this source? What is important about the symbols shown on it?
2. Source 4: Explain this source using your knowledge of the Qing dynasty.
3. Source 5: How does this source help in understanding the Qing dynasty?
4. Assess the value and usefulness of each of the sources for gaining knowledge about the Qing dynasty.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

How did foreign powers interact with China?

China developed relationships with countries such as Britain and Russia, but imposed limits and taxes on foreign trade. The Western nations, in particular Britain, destabilised the Qing dynasty and provoked China into wars over opium.

China had been governed by successive dynasties for thousands of years, ever since the mythical Xia dynasty allegedly claimed power around 2070 BCE. The Qing dynasty took power in 1644, and ruled China until the early 20th century. As we have learned, the Qing promoted Confucian principles in order to organise Chinese society.

Emperor Qianlong

In the middle of the 17th century, China was a vast and powerful nation. As well as ruling Mongolia, Xinjiang and Tibet, Emperor Qianlong also ruled several **vassal** kingdoms that paid tribute to the emperor, such as Annam (Vietnam), Cambodia, Japan, Korea and Thailand.

Although Qianlong did much to maintain peace within his own kingdom, he was less friendly towards European diplomats, and implemented business and bureaucratic reforms that favoured China. His approach to foreign diplomats was to generously welcome them, and then turn down all their requests.

Christianity

Reports by explorers inspired Christian missionaries to go out into 'heathen' countries. In 1750, French Catholic missionary Jean Joseph Marie Amiot persuaded Emperor Qianlong to allow Christian missionaries to come to China, effectively opening up the empire to the West.

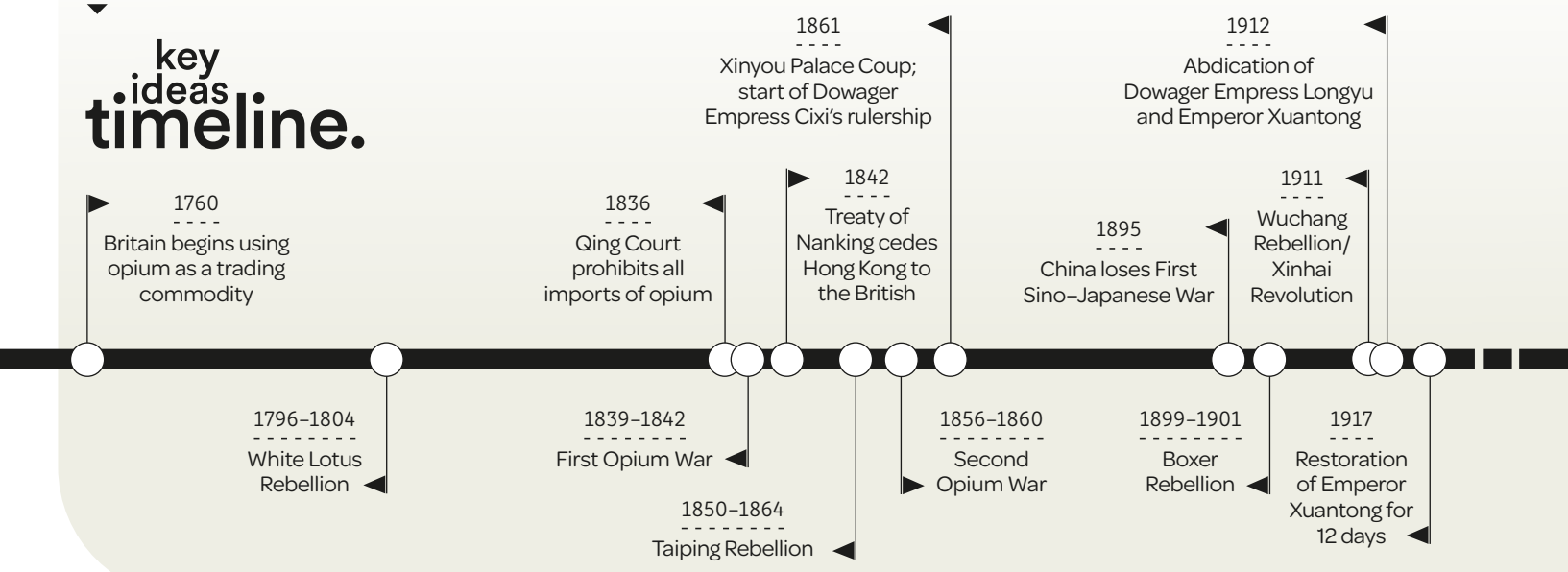
Initially, foreign missionaries were only allowed in the port cities of Canton (modern-day Guangzhou) and Macau. Over time, their access was extended to Shanghai and other ports. The Christian missions in the port cities introduced Western languages and customs to China, and helped foreign traders deal with Chinese officials.

Trade

As successive Chinese emperors feared foreign traders may exploit their country, only the port of Canton was opened to foreign trade from 1684. In 1711, the British East India Company established a trading post in Macau.

Source 1: Major events for the period 1760–1917

key ideas timeline.



Source 2: The Western compound in Canton. Each foreign country had a 'factory' in the compound and a Chinese merchant agent responsible for them. [*The Hongs of Canton*, artist unknown, c. 1805]

Trade was heavily regulated. Foreign traders were effectively locked inside a compound, known as a *hong* or a 'factory', and they could not venture out without a Chinese escort. All foreign traders had to have a Chinese merchant act as their agent, collecting customs duties and taxes. Traders protested at the taxes, shipping tolls (called 'chops') and prices for goods, but persisted in trading because it was so lucrative.

Britain became China's largest foreign trading partner. Tea was incredibly popular in England, and British companies also bought luxury goods such as silk and porcelain. However, Chinese markets were uninterested in British goods, and Britain had a huge trade deficit with China. This lasted until British traders developed a new strategy – they started to smuggle smokable opium, an illegal drug, into China. This proved so profitable that, when the Qing tried to prohibit this trade, it sparked war.

Source 3: Emperor Qianlong accepts a horse as tribute from Tartar (Russian) envoys. The envoys had to *kowtow* (bow) nine times in front of the emperor and provide a gift, known as a tribute. This ceremony was a public demonstration of the superiority of China and its emperor. This image was painted by Giuseppe Castiglione, an Italian missionary in China, where he became a painter at the court of Emperor Qianlong.

Learning ladder 5.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Where and when were ports first opened to foreign traders?
2. Describe the empire of Emperor Qianlong.
3. Explain what was a `hong' and how trade was controlled.
4. Explain what led Britain to trade opium with the Chinese.

Cause and effect

1. What was the effect of Emperor Qianlong allowing Christian missionaries to come to China?
2. Source 3: Why is the person *kowtowing* to Emperor Qianlong in this source?
3. Explain why foreign countries continued to trade with China even though it was highly regulated and taxed.
4. Explain what caused war between Britain and China in 1839.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

5.3

What were the Opium Wars?

Foreign traders had to pay for Chinese goods in silver, rather than in foreign currency. The lack of desire for Western goods in China resulted in large debts to the Chinese and difficulties in obtaining enough silver to pay them. To counter this imbalance, the British East India Company grew opium in India and smuggled it into China.

Opium

Opium is a narcotic extracted from poppy plants. While it had been used for centuries as a painkiller, it is also an addictive drug. Opium was already known in China for its medical properties. During the 16th and 17th centuries, Portuguese and Dutch traders combined opium with smokable tobacco and supplied a growing Chinese market. Smokable opium was officially banned in China in 1637, but its use spread despite being illegal.

Opium use was illegal in Britain, but it was legal for the British to sell it to other countries, and Indian smokable opium was a popular trading commodity. The British East India Company developed a monopoly over the opium trade through Bengal. Using 'private traders' to circumvent official bans and edicts, they bribed key officials and smuggled opium into China. With the money from these illicit sales, the company now had enough silver to purchase goods at the official ports.

Source 1: Opium smokers in a Chinese den, c. 1880. These dens became common across China as addiction spread despite government bans.

A huge demand for smokable opium soon grew within China. 'Opium dens', houses where men could stay and smoke opium all day, sprang up in almost every Chinese town and city. The rise of opium addiction caused significant damage to China's society and economy. Earlier emperors had banned its importation and distribution, and in 1796 Emperor Jiaqing added a ban to smoking opium, but these edicts had little effect.

The First Opium War (1839–1842)

By 1838, the British were selling almost 1300 tonnes of opium per year to China. The trade was so lucrative that it paid for the British Raj in India. Because of this, the British government was determined that the opium trade must continue.

In China, Special Imperial Commissioner Lin Zexu was appointed by the emperor to eradicate the opium trade. Lin led the arrests of more than 1500 addicts and the confiscation of tens of millions of pipes. He also wrote a letter to Queen Victoria, which was later published in the London *Times*, urging her to put a stop to the opium trade. The letter never reached her.

Source 2: Opium is a highly addictive drug that is extracted from the milky fluid that pours from the poppy pod when it is cut.

In 1839, Lin confiscated 1000 tonnes of opium from British ships in Canton. In response, the British Superintendent of Trade declared the British government **guarantor** of the confiscated opium. This meant that traders could hand over their opium to Chinese officials, confident that they would be compensated by the British government. When Lin destroyed the opium, this gave Britain an excuse to declare war and send naval forces to China.

The war continued until 1842, and was primarily a naval conflict around port cities and major rivers. While the Chinese defending forces vastly outnumbered the invading army, the British Royal Navy's long-range weapons were far superior to the **antiquated** cannons, muskets and martial-arts weapons of the Chinese.

The invaders also had the *Nemesis,* a **paddle steamer** far more advanced than any Chinese boat. Its flat bottom allowed it to traverse rivers, regardless of wind or tide, and its iron armour resisted the Chinese cannons.

After British forces occupied major trading ports, and were poised to capture the city of Jiangning (Nanjing), Chinese commanders admitted defeat.

The defeat led to the signing of the Treaty of Nanking (1842). The Articles of the treaty:

- allowed Consuls appointed by Queen Victoria to collect dues, taxes and tariffs
- opened the cities of Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo and Shanghai to foreigners
- **indemnified** any Chinese people who worked on behalf of foreign traders, meaning they could not be punished for helping the British
- ceded the island of Hong Kong to the British, making it part of their empire; it soon became the centre of British activity in China.

A year later, the Treaty of the Bogue (1843) granted British citizens further rights, such as the right to be tried in British courts if they committed crimes in China. It also granted Britain 'most favoured nation' status for trading with China. These and other treaties with European and Asian countries (such as Japan) became known in Chinese history as the 'unequal treaties'.

The Second Opium War (1856–1860)

In the years after the First Opium War, opium remained illegal in China, but the British East India Company continued to smuggle it into the country and make huge profits. The British Empire grew during this period, and the British government was determined to gain more power within Asia.

In October 1856, Chinese forces in Canton seized a cargo ship called *The Arrow* on suspicion of piracy. *The Arrow* was a Chinese ship, but it had been sold to British traders and flew a British flag. The British demanded the crew be released without charge; when Qing officials didn't comply, a British warship attacked sites on the Pearl River. Locals in Canton set fire to the foreign trade warehouses, which was answered by military force – a second Opium War had begun.

A large number of British forces were deployed in India, so a coalition of British, US and French forces attacked China. Once again, superior technology and experience in modern warfare prevailed. Although they were outnumbered 10 to 1, the Western infantry and naval forces bombed river ports and routed the Chinese army.

Qing officials were forced to sign the Treaty of Tianjin (1858). Under the terms of this treaty:

- more ports were opened for Western use
- trading rights were granted to all Western nations, including the United States and Russia
- the Kowloon Peninsula near Hong Kong was ceded to Britain
- opium was legalised.

The treaty was signed in 1858 but Chinese military **resistance** continued, which led to retaliation on the part of the Western allies. Western forces advanced through China to Beijing. They stopped short of entering the Forbidden City, but destroyed part of the Summer Palace instead.

At the end of the war, more trading rights and land were ceded to Britain. Traders and Christian missions gained access to the interior of the country, not just the port cities, and the foreigners offered Chinese people opportunities and passage on their boats. The Western powers established foreign **envoys** in Beijing, and China's isolationist policy was effectively finished.

Source 3: This 1843 painting by Edward Duncan shows the *Nemesis* (on the right) destroying Chinese junks (ships) during the First Opium War.

Source 4: An illustration of Qing officials taking down the British flag on *The Arrow*, the trigger for the Second Opium War.

Learning ladder 5.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who initially introduced smokable opium to China?
2. Who was Commissioner Lin? Describe how he attempted to end the opium trade.
3. Explain how the British East India Company got around the emperors' measures. What consequences did this have?
4. Source 3: Explain the event shown in this source and the outcome.

Significance

1. Describe the treaties signed after the Opium Wars.
2. Explain the historical significance of the First and Second Opium Wars.
3. Explain the historical significance of the Treaty of Tianjin.
4. Evaluate the significance of technology in determining the outcomes of the First and Second Opium Wars.

HOW TO Significance, page 504

5.4

How did China change politically in the 19th century?

After the reign of Emperor Qianlong, the power of the Qing dynasty began to wane. In the aftermath of the Opium Wars, China owed massive amounts of money to Britain, France and the United States. The Western powers now had much greater influence over China's economy and infrastructure and could demand political concessions from the country's leaders.

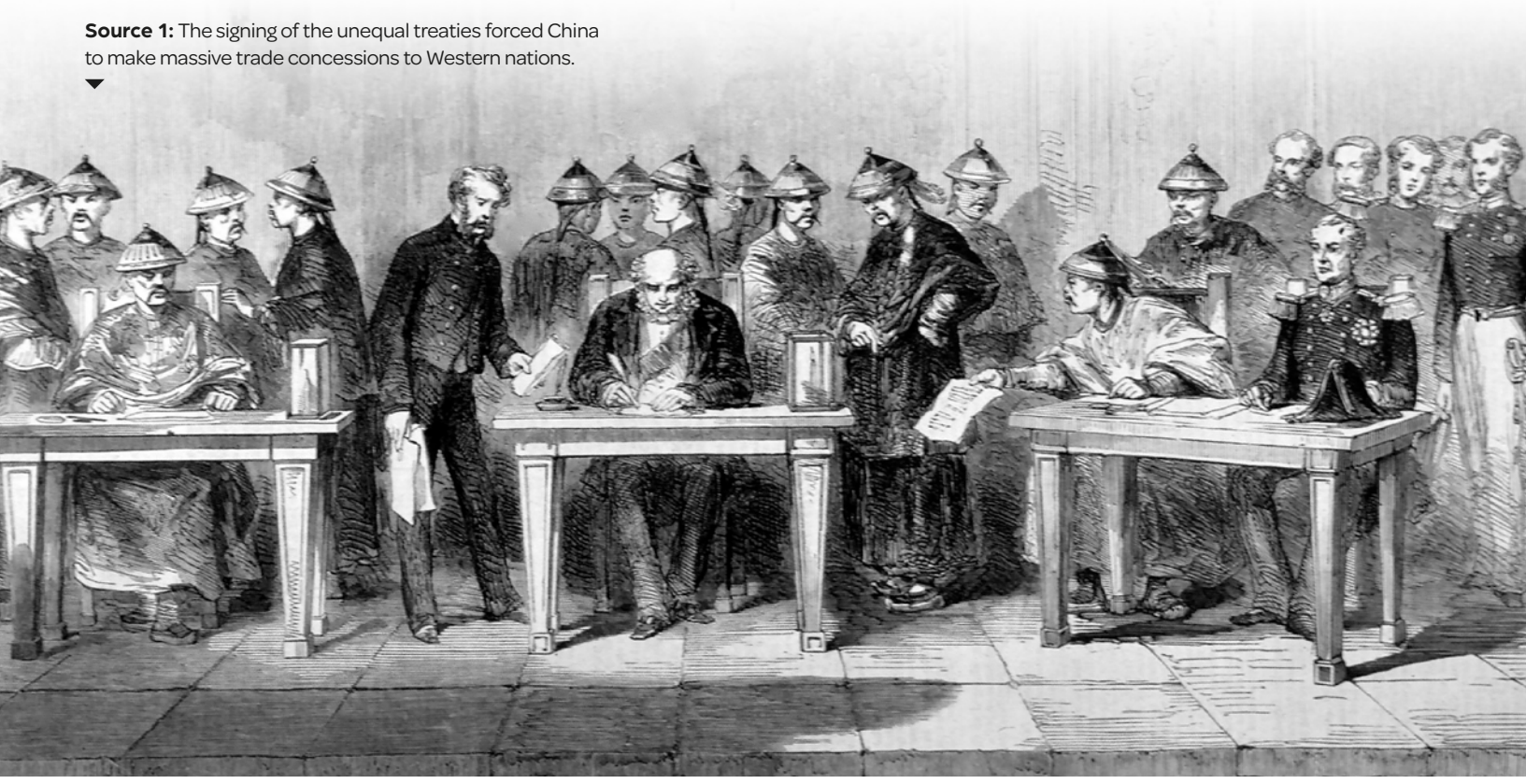
The decline of the Qing dynasty

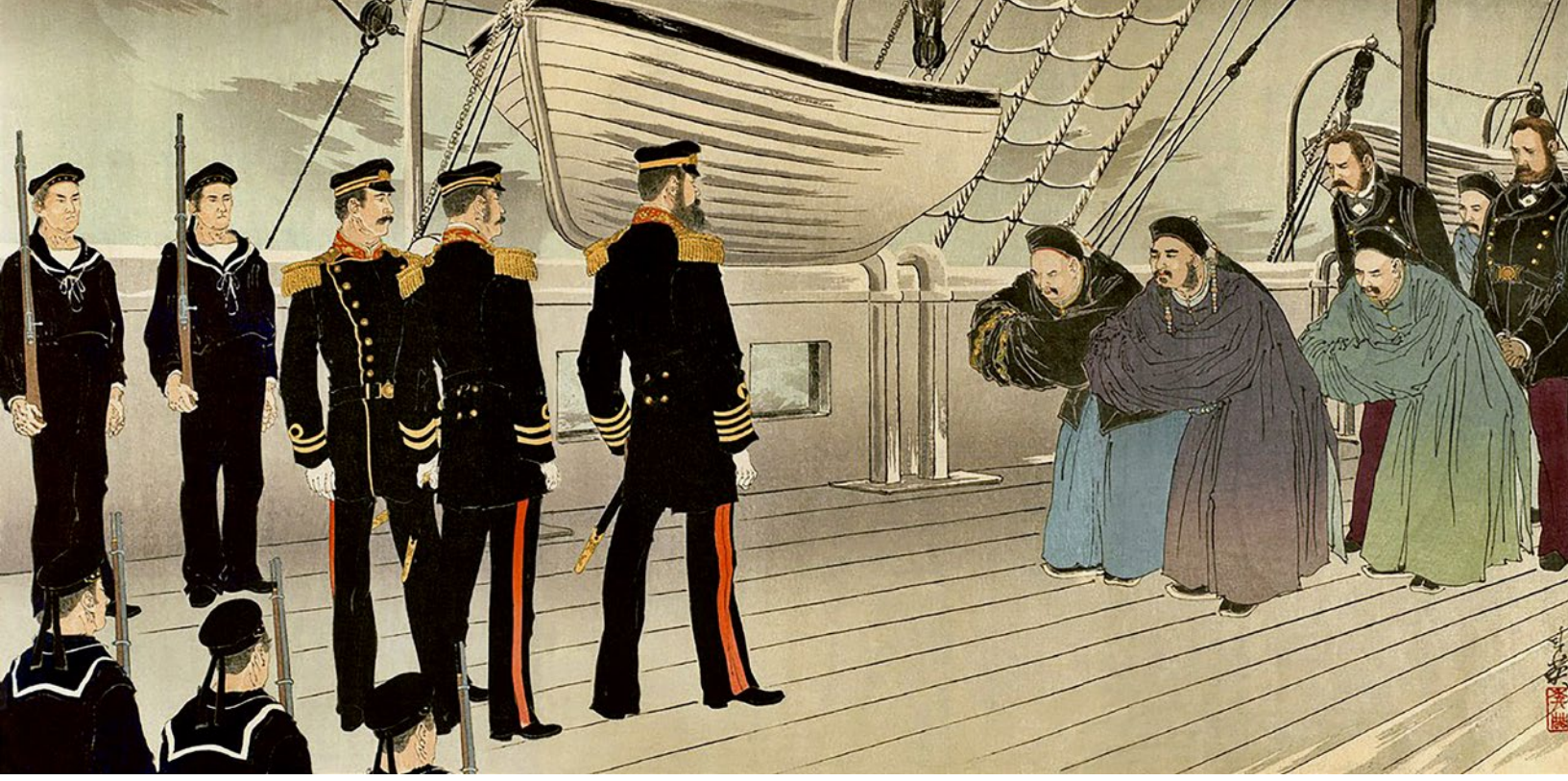
Emperor Qianlong officially stepped down as emperor in 1796, but in truth he maintained control over China until his death in 1799.

While his reign seemed like one of peace and prosperity, Qianlong had turned a blind eye to extensive corruption in the imperial bureaucracy. During his rule there had also been a period of huge population growth in China, which led to shortages of land, resources and food for almost 300 million peasants.

His son, Emperor Jiaqing, inherited these problems, as did the emperors that followed. While the Qing emperors attempted to address these issues, they had limited levels of success. A number of rebellions and popular uprisings, such as the White Lotus Rebellion (1796–1804) and the Eight Trigrams Uprising (1813), tested the dynasty's ability to control Chinese society. Although these rebellions were suppressed, anti-Qing sentiment began to increase around the country.

Source 1: The signing of the unequal treaties forced China to make massive trade concessions to Western nations.





Source 2: The Chinese commander Ding Ruchang surrenders to Japan's Admiral Ito after the Battle of Weihaiwei in the First Sino-Japanese War. By surrendering, Ding Ruchang was, in fact, committing suicide. Japanese woodblock print by Mizuno Toshikata, 1895.

Western interference also damaged the power of the Qing dynasty. The opium market shifted the balance of power and trade, making the British wealthier and the Chinese poorer. Widespread opium addiction damaged the fabric of Chinese society, and the imperial government's failed attempts to outlaw the trade only made them look ineffectual. Ultimately, this culminated in the Opium Wars, which left the Chinese imperial court deeply in debt and greatly reduced in political power.

The Century of Humiliation

The period beginning with the First Opium War has come to be known by some as the 'Century of Humiliation'. This was a period of continued loss and embarrassment for the Qing dynasty.

A number of significant Chinese losses and setbacks occurred during this time, including:

- defeat in the First Opium War
- the 'unequal treaties', which made massive trade concessions to Britain and other Western countries
- the Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864)
- defeat in the Second Opium War
- defeat in the Sino–French War (1884–1885), in which France took control over the Tonkin region, which would later become modern Vietnam
- defeat in the First Sino–Japanese War (1894–1895), in which Japan took control of Korea.

Source 3: An 1898 *Punch* magazine cartoon showing foreign nations carving out their own spheres of influence in China. Britain holds the body (China), while France, Germany and Russia grab the limbs to make sure they get their piece of China.

This was also a period in which foreign nations negotiated their own 'spheres of influence' in China, often dealing with regional powerbrokers rather than the Qing bureaucracy. Multiple foreign enclaves were established within China, and these enclaves followed their own laws rather than Chinese law.

Finally, it was a period of natural disasters, including floods and droughts. A famine in northern China from 1876 to 1879 resulted in the deaths of between 9 and 13 million people. The famine also caused great economic distress, which led to further civil unrest.

These events raised difficult questions over whether the Qing dynasty had lost the 'mandate of heaven'.

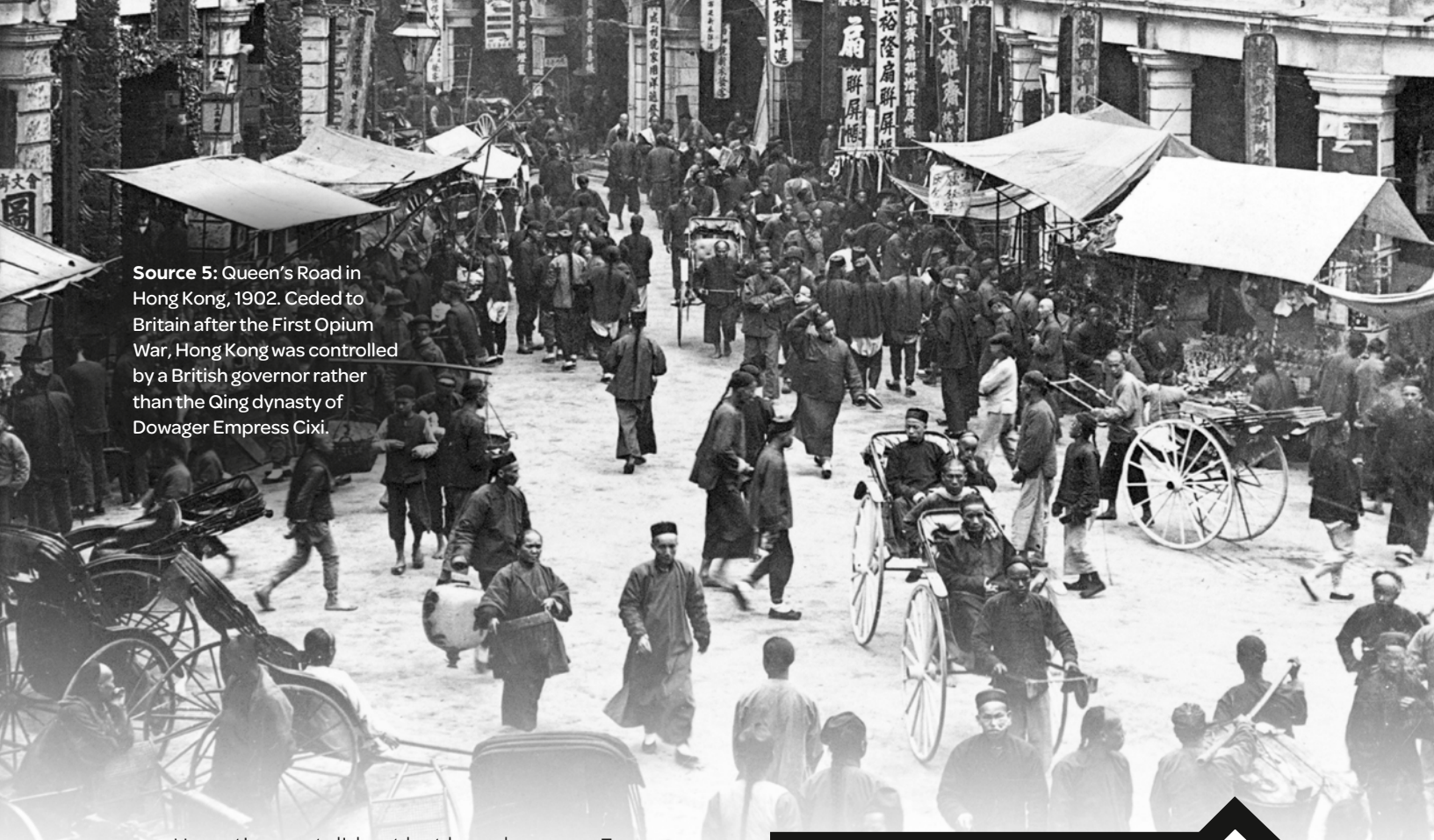
Reign of the Dowager Empress

While officially only acting as **regent** on behalf of underage male emperors, the true ruler of China in the second half of the 19th century was **Dowager** Empress Cixi, who ran the Qing court from 1861 until her death in 1908.

The woman who became the Dowager Empress was named Yehenara. She entered Emperor Xianfeng's court as one of his **concubines** in 1851, and gave birth to his only son in 1856. When Xianfeng died in 1860, he nominated their five-year-old son as Emperor Tongzhi and eight prince regents to rule until he had come of age. Lady Yehenara orchestrated the Xinyou Palace Coup in 1861, in which all eight regents were killed or forced to commit suicide. Her ally Prince Gong became sole regent, and she assumed the title Dowager Empress Cixi.

Empress Cixi began to rule 'behind the curtain' as the real decision-maker, with Prince-Regent Gong as her agent in the *Junchichu*, or Grand Council. In 1873, Emperor Tongzhi was put in charge of state affairs, but in name only, and in 1874 he died. Empress Cixi nominated her three-year-old nephew to become heir, Emperor Guangxu, and she continued to rule China until officially retiring in 1889.

Source 4: An oil painting, by Dutch painter Hubert Vos, of the Dowager Empress Cixi of the Qing dynasty, 1906



Source 5: Queen's Road in Hong Kong, 1902. Ceded to Britain after the First Opium War, Hong Kong was controlled by a British governor rather than the Qing dynasty of Dowager Empress Cixi.

Her retirement did not last long, however. Emperor Guangxu signed edicts to implement a reform agenda, such as building more railways and forming a national budget. Empress Cixi was not happy with the rapid pace of change. She arrested the emperor within the palace, squashed the reforms and did not allow Guangxu to reign. She took back control over China and remained in power until 1908; she died one day after the death of Emperor Guangxu (under possibly suspicious circumstances).

Known for her conservatism, cultivation of palace intrigues and the murder of a number of people (including one of Emperor Guangxu's favourite concubines), Cixi has often been portrayed as a **despot**. Such over-simplifications obscure her brilliance as a tactician who overcame traditional male power structures. Cixi did advocate for some modernisation, such as developing railways, but not if they ran through sensitive cultural places. She refused to introduce widespread industrialisation at any cost, as it would crush cottage industries such as spinning, but she also removed medieval punishments from the law codes.

She trod a difficult path. Each decision she made was complicated by maintaining a lopsided relationship with foreign powers, multiple internal rebellions and trying to develop the empire from within the Forbidden City. Critiques of her as a sinful poisoner and instigator of palace intrigues overlook the extent of the challenges and crises that she had to overcome.

Learning ladder 5.4

Background and origins

1. Who was the Dowager Empress?
2. Describe the events that weakened the Qing dynasty in the 19th century.
3. Explain why historians refer to the period after the First Opium War as the `Century of Humiliation'.
4. Explain why ruling China was a complicated task for Empress Cixi.

Contestability

1. Identify two different historical interpretations of Empress Cixi.
2. Describe how Empress Cixi has been portrayed as both a villain and a skilled ruler.
3. Explain how the text challenges some of the negative historical interpretations of Empress Cixi.
4. Compare the view of Empress Cixi as a despot with the view of her as a brilliant tactician.
5. Evaluate which interpretation of Empress Cixi is better supported. Justify your answer with evidence.

HOW TO Contestability, page 506

5.5

How did Chinese technology change during the 19th century?

For most Chinese peasants, life during the tumultuous 19th century wasn't very different to that of their grandparents. China did not industrialise until relatively late, and the technology of daily life changed very little. Things were different in the port cities, where Western inventions and ideas began to dominate society.

Market towns and trade

The Qing dynasty promoted a primarily agricultural economy, in which small farmers and market gardeners were given incentives to develop land for agricultural use. Emperor Qianlong's reign saw the construction of weirs and canals. These opened up more land to farming, which led to a proliferation of market towns. In these towns, the money that changed hands for goods became the taxes paid to Qing officials, so taxation drove **monetisation** and economic growth.

Markets were initially held in central towns (usually a day's journey away) on certain days of the week. Under the Qing dynasty, sections of towns became permanent markets and merchant classes emerged to sell goods. Trade networks were sufficiently organised for goods to travel freely across provinces. Medicines from the north went south; cotton went from the periphery of the empire to be made into fabric in the centre.

A system of banks called the *Piaohao* would take deposits in one location, issue a remittance certificate and allow the redemption of goods in other towns and cities. One of the fastest ways to modernise a country is to monetise it, and this is what happened during the Qing dynasty.

Early Chinese coins were 'cast' by pouring metal into a mould. This led to a problem of people smelting the coins to make utensils. Emperor Qianlong devised a plan to make coins out of alloys, which made them more valuable as coins than as raw metals. He also offered incentives for mints to buy back utensils for metal to make coins during metal shortages. Copper coins (called *wen*) had a hole in the centre, so they could be put on strings and tied to a belt. The value of a silver ingot (or *tael*) varied, from 1000 wen (before 1820) to 2000 wen (after 1840).

New crops were introduced from Europe and the United States, such as corn, chilli, pepper, peanuts, potatoes and tomatoes. These allowed farmers to plant beyond their staple crops of rice and other vegetables, and expanded the repertoire of recipes and menus that can still be found today.

Source 1: Bronze coins from the Qing dynasty stamped with the name of Emperor Qianlong

Source 2: A full mahjong set could be very expensive. The tiles were crafted from bone, often backed with bamboo, and they were usually carried in ornate wood or metal cases.

Under the Qing dynasty, the population increased fourfold. The increase in mouths to feed was supported by increasing the amount of fertile land. This was made possible by managing water resources and offering incentives to farmers. Embracing these reforms meant that food production could increase; however, droughts and warfare (which prevented seed planting) still affected food security. These food shortage pressures sometimes led to insurrections and rebellions.

The wealthy and the Westernised

Life was less difficult for the wealthy nobles of the court and for the officials of the Chinese imperial bureaucracy. The Qing dynasty introduced a variety of new noble titles and positions, meaning that the Qing court became larger and busier. These nobles had administrative roles to play in the imperial bureaucracy and had to contribute a portion of their wealth to the emperor's coffers. Many nobles developed their own networks of power in regional areas and used these to negotiate deals with Western traders to make more money.

One way nobles passed the time was by playing *mahjong*, a tile-laying game. The exact origins of *mahjong* are unknown; it likely developed from a variety of games, including a card game called *ya pei* and another game called *madiao*. No matter its origin, *mahjong* became a popular pastime among those who could afford a set of playing pieces.

After the Opium Wars, a third way of life developed for some Chinese citizens. The British influence in port cities such as Shanghai, not to mention direct British control in Hong Kong, meant that Western dress, education and culture became much more common. Some Chinese locals were forced to adopt Western ways in order to find work; others chose to adopt these ways to gain social advantages. Western styles of dress, such as suits, ties and hats, became common, and some men cut off their plaits and grew their hair in Western styles. Hong Kong in particular became dominated by British culture, with the Chinese locals segregated from their new English rulers. The east portion of Hong Kong was mostly occupied by the British, who built racecourses, mansions and polo fields – and barracks to house large numbers of British soldiers.

Tea and other exports

Tea was so popular as a stimulant and a medicine that it became the national drink of China, and was taxed during the Tang dynasty (618–907 CE). Tea houses existed in every city and town, and were popular places to meet, gossip and socialise for peasants and nobles alike. Unhappily for the Qing dynasty, tea houses were also places where the social classes mixed, providing opportunities for everyone to share their discontent with the current political order.

Tea was also one of China's primary exports, especially to Britain, where it became incredibly popular. The popularity of tea, along with items such as porcelain tea sets, was one of the factors that led to Britain's massive trade deficit with China, which Britain ultimately addressed through the sale of opium and the Opium Wars. The British East India Company also worked to break China's monopoly over tea. One of the company's agents, botanist Robert Fortune, stole tea plants and seedlings during trips to China and took them to India's Darjeeling region to develop India's tea industry.

Chinese artisans had been making porcelain and ceramics for thousands of years using various techniques and materials. Under the Qing dynasty, there was an emphasis on developing more colours, rather than just the blue and white designs popular during the Ming dynasty. Thanks in part to its connection to tea, porcelain became another major Chinese export – to the point that it became known as 'china' in many parts of the British Empire. For many British families, tea services (sets of matching cups, plates, bowls and tea pots) were often collected, treasured and handed down to successive generations. China (porcelain) also diversified into figurines, vases, statuettes and other art objects, which also became popular and valuable collectables.

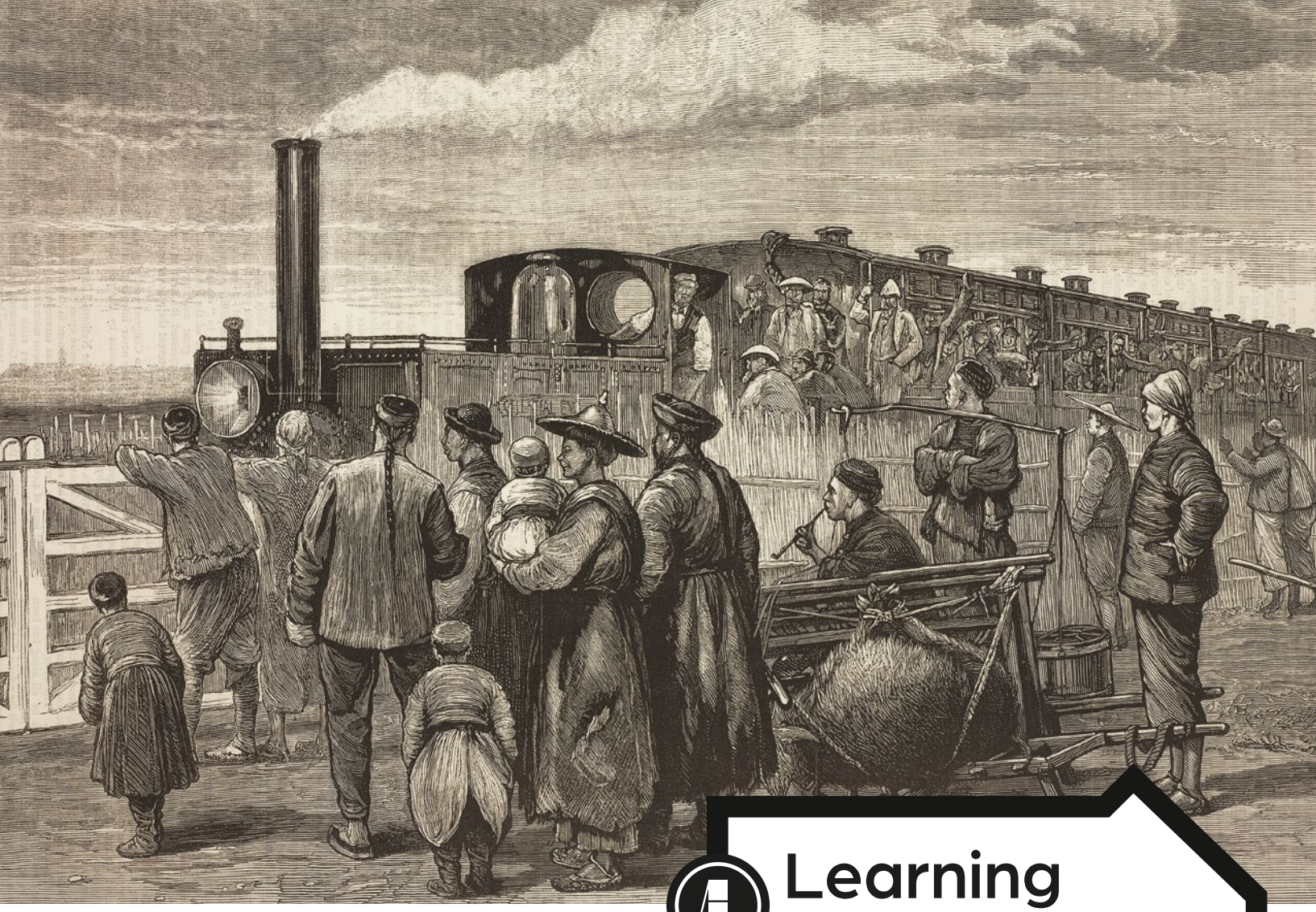
Silk was another luxury export, not just to the British, but around the world. For 6000 years, silk had been part of China's export economy; it's what gave the 'Silk Road' trading network its name. Sericulture (silk production) had been a closely guarded secret all that time. Silk was usually sold as fabric, rather than as Chinese clothing, so it could be used to create clothing in the styles popular in other countries. Within China, only nobles had been allowed to wear silk. Under Qing rule, peasants were also permitted to wear it. Silk was also used for decoration, fishing and making bows.

Industrialisation

The Industrial Revolution that changed Britain, the United States and other nations did not occur in China at the same time. The controls that Emperor Qianlong and his successors placed on foreign traders also prevented many foreign innovations and inventions from entering China. During an audience with foreign ambassadors Qianlong said, 'I set no value on objects strange or ingenious, and have no use for your country's manufactures'. This demonstrated his unwillingness to allow foreign technology into his country.

Resistance to industrialisation also affected the militarisation of the Qing dynasty. The most advanced weapons in China at this time were gunpowder-fired cannons, which had been introduced during the previous Ming dynasty. The Qing emperors did not allow their armies to use guns or rifles, preferring traditional weapons, such as bows and arrows, swords and spears. These weapons failed when they faced the technologically superior munitions of the British during the First Opium War.

Source 3: This valuable Dragon jar is from the Ming dynasty and was created c. 1403–1424.



Source 4: The grand opening of the Woosung railway, China's first railway line, in 1876. It was dismantled in 1877. [From *The Graphic* magazine, 23 December 1876]

After the Opium Wars, more foreign technology was imported into China, and a desire for industrialisation began to grow. There was a demand not only for foreign weaponry and munitions, but also for steam power, mining equipment and better agricultural technology. The Qing authorities remained reluctant to allow new technology, so Chinese officials and traders often worked around them, dealing directly with foreigners and leaving out the bureaucracy.

Trains are a good example of the slow process of industrialisation in China. The first Chinese railway was built by the British in 1876 and operated near Shanghai, but it was closed and then destroyed by Qing authorities in 1877. Emperor Guangxu wanted to implement reforms and build more railways, but the conservative Dowager Empress Cixi deposed him and cancelled the reforms. By 1894, only around 480 kilometres of railway tracks had been built throughout China – far less than existed in England, a much smaller country.

Learning ladder 5.5

Impact and legacies

1. What was the impact of the Qing dynasty monetising the Chinese economy?
2. Describe the impact of British influence in port cities after the Opium Wars.
3. Describe the legacy of Chinese artisans.
4. Explain the legacy of Empress Cixi on China as a result of her anti-industrialisation attitude.

Continuity and change

1. What caused sections of some towns to become permanent markets?
2. Describe the effect of the introduction of new crops from Europe and the United States.
3. Explain why resistance to industrialisation caused military weakness for China.
4. Analyse the cause and effect of the trade deficit on tea, porcelain and silk on relations between Western European nations and the Qing Empire.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

5.6

How did rebellions and revolutions change China?

Growing discontent with the rule of the Qing dynasty led to a number of rebellions and uprisings. In order to defeat them, the Qing brutally suppressed their own citizens, which weakened them politically. The 1911 revolution ended the reign of the Qing and the dynastic system, creating an entirely new government.

The White Lotus Rebellion (1796–1804)

The *Bai Lian Jiao* (White Lotus Society) was a **populist** Chinese secret society, based on a mixture of Taoist and Buddhist ideas, with a long history that stretched back to the Song dynasty. Secret societies were fairly common during this period; people from the lower classes, who bore the real hardships of agricultural failures and government corruption, joined such societies in order to vent their discontent.

The White Lotus Society didn't have much support until 1796, when high levels of immigration into Sichuan province from other provinces upset the local populace. Inadequate resources and high taxation angered the locals, who joined the White Lotus Society to express that anger. The people rallied beneath a banner that was openly anti-Qing and called for the return of the Ming dynasty.

Military forces struggled to suppress the growing rebellion. Local nobility had to recruit and pay exorbitant fees to mercenaries and bribe White Lotus members to change sides; the cost of fighting the rebellion ran to 100–200 million *taels* of silver. The mercenaries also required training, as they struggled to counter the White Lotus's **guerrilla** tactics of attacking and then disappearing.

The White Lotus Society members were eventually routed in 1804, after the deaths of around 100 000 rebels. While the rebellion was suppressed, the damage had been done to the Qing dynasty. Poor people had shown their dissent openly to their rulers, which inspired others to do the same.

Source 1: The White Lotus Society [Handscroll; ink on paper, unidentified artist, c. 1041–1106]

Source 2: Wu Youru's 1886 painting *Regaining Jinling* from the book, *A Scene of the Taiping Rebellion, 1850–1864*

The Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864)

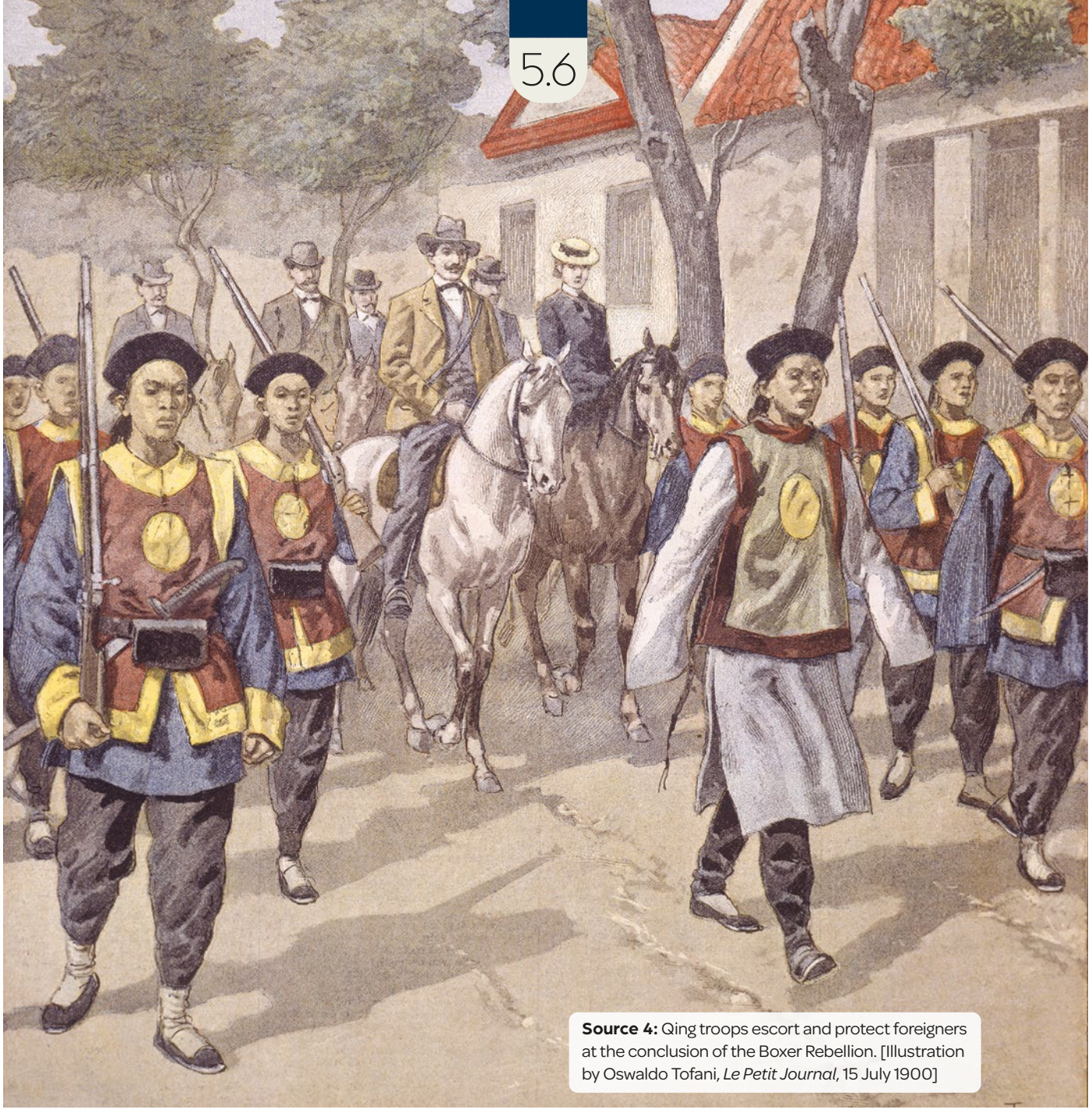
A change of reign occurred in 1850, from Emperor Daoguang to Emperor Xianfeng; in the same year, a famine and other economic hardships affected the lower levels of society. During this period, a group called the *Bai Shangdi Hui* (God Worshipping Society) instigated a four-year rebellion that led to the occupation of the city of Nanjing and the death of 20–70 million people.

It began with a man named Hong Xiuquan. Fusing Christian ideas with Chinese thought, he convinced a large number of followers that he was either a **messiah** or the emperor of a future dynasty, with a mandate to vanquish the Qing. In 1850, Hong amassed approximately two million followers into military units and began to purchase weapons and supplies. Initial victories were seen as a sign from Heaven, and Hong declared the 'Taiping Heavenly Kingdom' as a new state.

Hong captured the major cities of Wuchan and Anqing but was met by Qing military forces at Beijing. The strength of the *Bai Shangdi Hui* forced Emperor Xianfeng and his troops to retreat during the attack on Tianjin. They then occupied the city of Nanjing in 1853; however, corruption set in among Hong's officials and advisers.

After the Treaty of Tianjin was signed following the Second Opium War, the British helped Emperor Xianfeng to crush the Taiping Rebellion as a show of good faith. The army besieged Nanjing in May 1862, and it fell in July 1864, a few weeks after Hong Xiuquan died of food poisoning.

Source 3: Hong Xiuquan, self-proclaimed 'Brother of Jesus' and leader of the Taiping Rebellion



Source 4: Qing troops escort and protect foreigners at the conclusion of the Boxer Rebellion. [Illustration by Oswaldo Tofani, *Le Petit Journal*, 15 July 1900]

The Boxer Rebellion (1899–1901)

In the north of China, secret societies stirred up **nationalist** discontent and began training rebellion troops. The largest of these societies was the Society of the Righteous and Harmonious Fists, or *I-ho ch'uan* ('The Boxers'). The Boxers called for a return to the 'traditional source' of Chinese warfare, such as spirituality and martial arts prowess; some even claimed (or truly believed) that they were immune to swords and bullets. Their war cry – 'Support the Qing, death to all foreigners' – united a people fed up with defeat after defeat.

The Boxers began their rebellion with attacks on Christian missionaries in 1899 and the destruction of railways and telegraphs in 1900. These attacks earned the love of the Chinese people but angered Western governments, who implored Emperor Guangxu to suppress the Boxers. Instead, Empress Dowager Cixi actually supported the Boxer campaign because of its popularity.

To protect their diplomatic missions in Beijing from the Boxers, and the Qing Army that supported them, the Western powers sent more than 50 000 troops to China. The Eight-Nation Alliance was formed, made up of Austria–Hungary, Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia and the United States. (The British forces included Indian *sepoys* and Australian colonial militias.)

On 12 August 1900, Boxers and Qing troops attacked the diplomatic missions; on 14 August, Eight-Nation Alliance forces divided and attacked each gate of Beijing. Over the following months, tens of thousands of Chinese people (mostly civilians) were killed. Empress Cixi changed course, and ordered the Qing Army to assist the Western forces and arrest the Boxers. However, it was too late and, as the allied forces invaded, she left the Forbidden City in disguise. Meanwhile thieves sacked the city, taking palace antiques by the cartload.

Most of Chinese society had unified to reject the foreigners, and they had lost. The result was another 'unequal treaty': The Boxer Protocol of 1901. Under the terms of the treaty, the Chinese government had to pay 450 million *taels* of silver to the Eight-Nation Alliance countries and participation in anti-foreigner secret societies became a capital offence.

The Xinhai Revolution (1911)

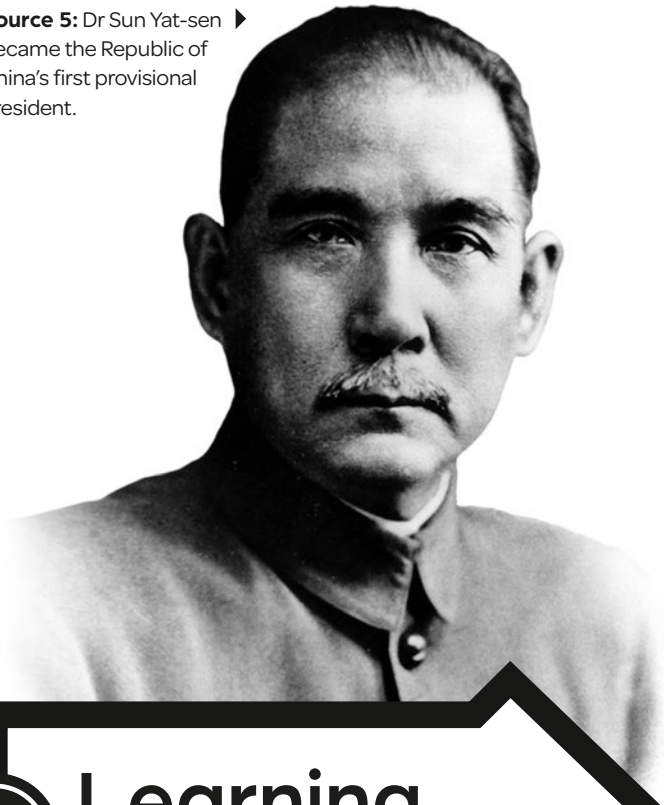
Annoyed at government corruption and the Qing dynasty's inability to prevent invasions, many people in China felt that their country was in decline. A young leader called Sun Yat-sen organised his own revolution in 1895. It was suppressed, but from this experience he learned to use secret society networks across China and formed his own league, the *Tongmenghui*.

When the imperial court ordered the suppression of the Wuchang Rebellion in October 1911, the Qing Army refused to obey. The rebellion grew into a full-blown revolution, named the Xinhai Revolution; the army seized power from the Qing rulers and declared a new Chinese **republic**.

Sun Yat-sen returned from exile to become the first provisional president of the republic. Without armed forces to support him, Sun gave power to General Yuan Shikai, who recommended that the Empress Dowager Longyu, Prince Regent and three-year-old Emperor Xuantong abdicate, which they did on 12 February 1912.

Elections in February 1913 saw the election of the Chinese Nationalist Party, the Kuomintang (also spelled 'Guomindang'), which remains active to this day in Taiwan. Extraordinary events saw Yuan Shikai declared as the Hongxian Emperor for 83 days before being removed from office; he died in 1916. Emperor Xuantong was reinstated for 12 days in 1917 by a coup, which was defeated by other Chinese republican forces.

The **abdication** of Emperor Xuantong in 1912 brought an end to the Qing dynasty, as well as to the institution of imperial rule in China, which had lasted for more than two millennia.



Source 5: Dr Sun Yat-sen became the Republic of China's first provisional president.

Learning ladder 5.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Describe the significance of the White Lotus Rebellion.
2. Describe the significance of Hong Xiuquan to the Taiping Rebellion.
3. Explain the significance of the Boxer Rebellion in influencing Chinese people to oppose Western control.
4. Explain the significance of Sun Yat-sen to ending the Qing dynasty.

Chronology

1. Identify which rebellion came first: the White Lotus Rebellion, the Boxer Rebellion, or the Xinhai Revolution.
2. Place these four events in the correct chronological order: Boxer Rebellion, White Lotus Rebellion, Abdication of Emperor Xuantong, Sun Yat-sen becomes provisional president.
3. Explain how the pattern of rebellions across the 19th and early 20th centuries shows a growing challenge to Qing rule.
4. Explain how the failure of earlier rebellions contributed to the success of the 1911 revolution.

HOW TO Chronology, page 490

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

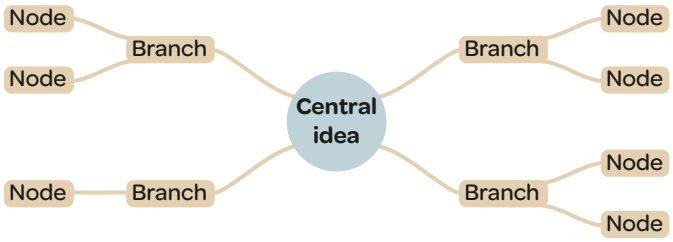
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to China.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Life in Qing China, 5.1
- Early foreign influence, 5.2
- Opium Wars, 5.3
- Rule of Empress Cixi, 5.4
- Industrialisation in China, 5.5
- Rebellion and revolution, 5.6

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

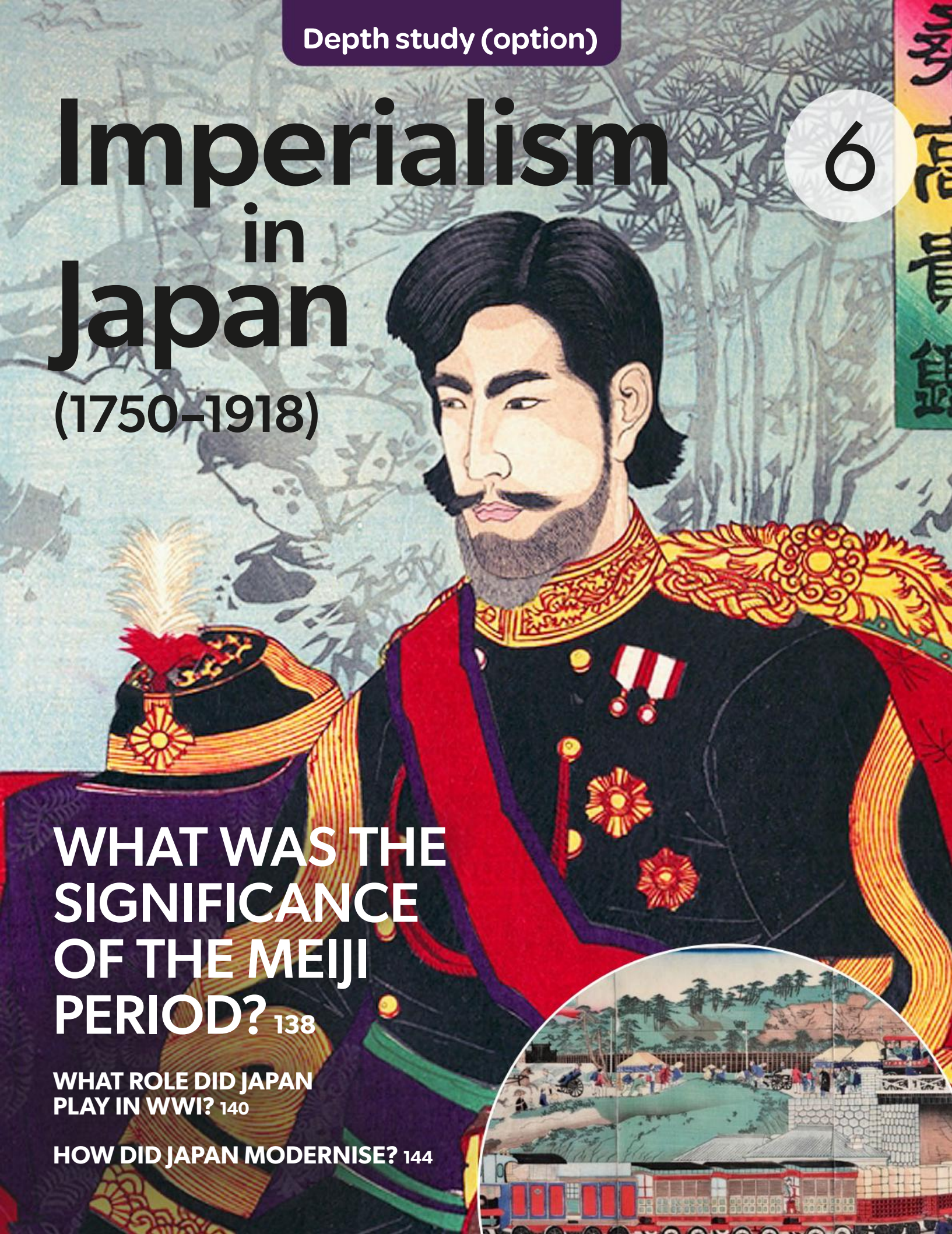
Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

Imperialism in Japan (1750–1918)

6



WHAT WAS THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MEIJI PERIOD? 138

WHAT ROLE DID JAPAN PLAY IN WWI? 140

HOW DID JAPAN MODERNISE? 144

6.0

How can I understand imperialism in Japan?

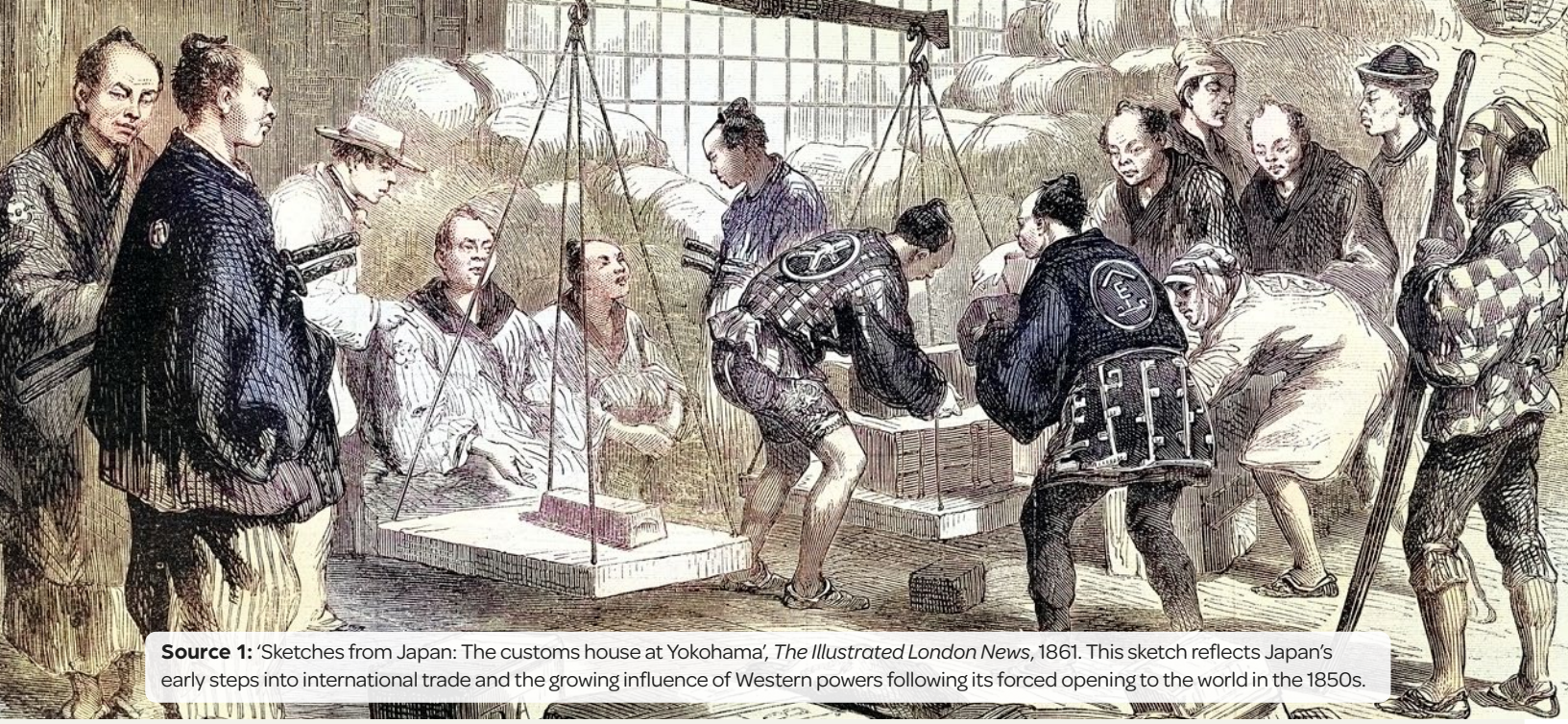
During the 18th and 19th centuries, Japan was forced to sign an agreement with the United States that compelled it to open its doors to international trade. Rather than succumbing to external domination, Japan redirected that pressure into a vigorous program of modernisation and empire-building. This strategic shift not only transformed its society but also laid the foundations for its unique path to power.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: 'Sketches from Japan: The customs house at Yokohama', *The Illustrated London News*, 1861. This sketch reflects Japan's early steps into international trade and the growing influence of Western powers following its forced opening to the world in the 1850s.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

6.1

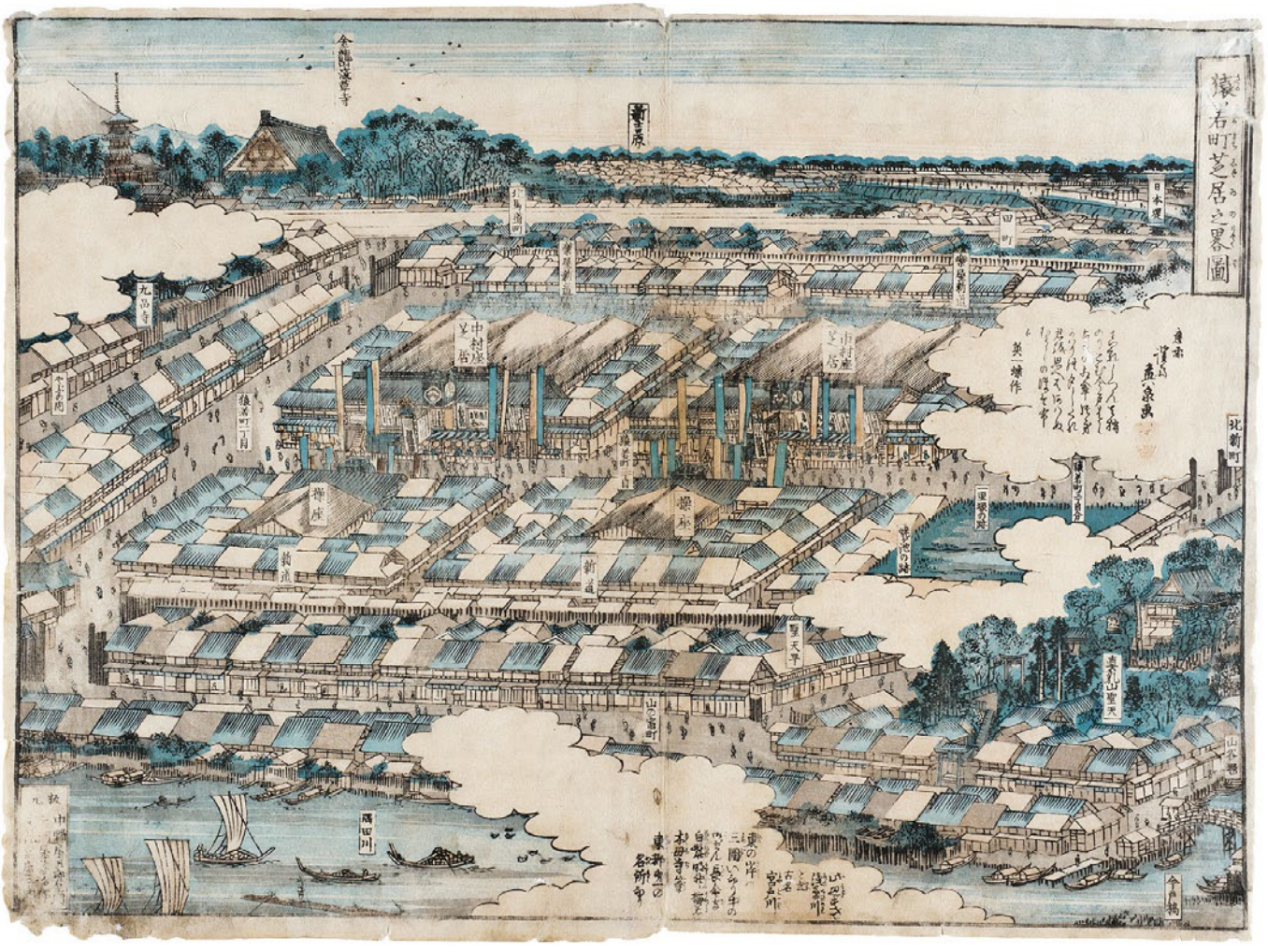
What were the key features of Japanese society around 1750?

By 1750, Edo (modern-day Tokyo) was the world's largest city, with more than one million inhabitants. When the Tokugawa shōgunate established their government there in 1603, Edo was still a small fishing village. The Edo period was one of peace and isolation from the world.

Society and politics

Japanese society in 1750 was organised as a **feudal system**. Although the head of the society was an emperor, real power was with the shōgun (military dictator). From 1603 onwards, the Tokugawa shōgunate had ruled Japan. The shōgun ruled from the city of Edo, known now as Tokyo.

Source 1: Colour woodblock print of a Kabuki theatre district in Edo, 1820. Kabuki theatre, which has its roots in this period, mixes dramatic performances with traditional dance. Edo grew to become the largest city in the world by 1750.



Japanese government in the Edo period was a confederation. Different powers were given to the *daimyo* (feudal warlords who lived in castle-towns) and the shōgun (the most powerful warlords). *Daimyos* and shōguns were given specific areas. Villagers in the area paid them taxes. Only the shōgun could deal with external countries. This stopped *daimyos* from making alliances that might have threatened the central government.

The Tokugawa government also insisted that *daimyo* stay a part of the year in the capital, Edo. When they went back to their province, their family had to stay in Edo as hostages.

Edo became a major urban area. By 1750, it had a population of around 1.22 million people. Merchants in the city and surrounds became very wealthy.

Social classes in feudal Japan

Life in Tokugawa Japan was based on a strict class system.

Emperor: The emperor and his family had the highest social status in Japanese society, but the emperor had little actual power. The people of all other classes provided for the emperor and the imperial family.

Shōgun: The shōgun was the commander of the military and the leader of the most powerful clan. The clans often fought for their leader to gain this high social status. The shōgun held the real political control in Japan.

Daimyos: *Daimyos* were the territorial lords, and the most powerful leaders under the shōgun. Within their territory they held military and economic power, but they had to follow the shōgun's rules. As top members of the warrior class they lived in large castles.

Source 2: Copper *mon* coins used in Tokugawa Japan. Despite their low social status, merchants became wealthy through trade and taxation.

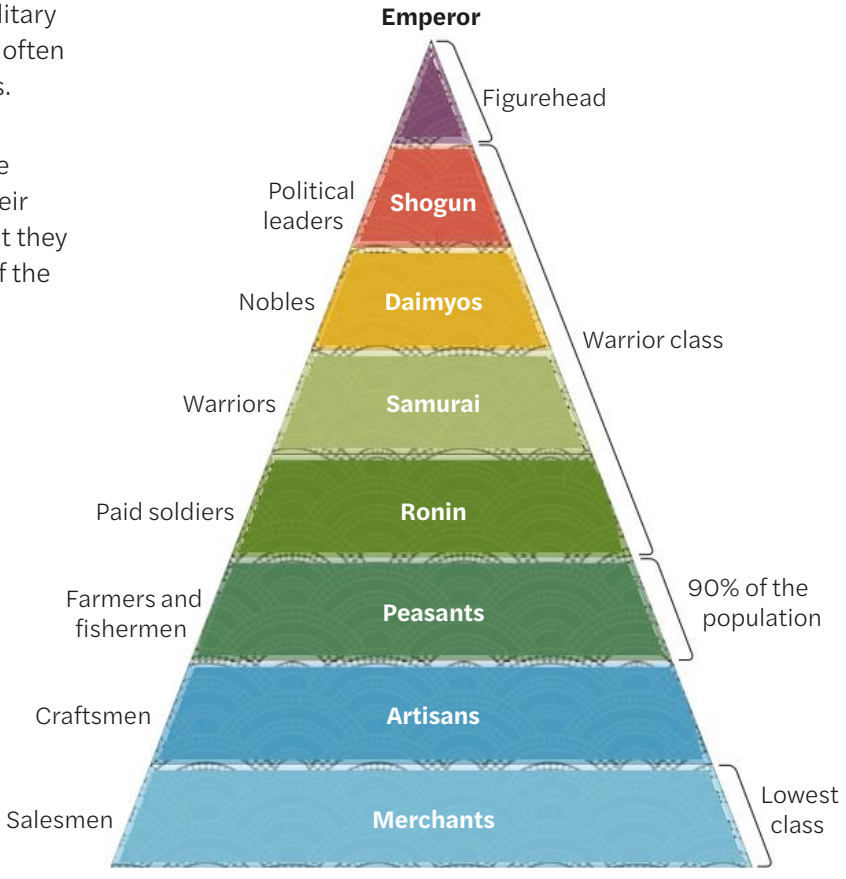
Samurai: Samurai were professional warriors and were loyal to the shōgun and *daimyos*. They had a higher social status than common people, and enjoyed additional privileges.

Ronin: Ronin were masterless samurai who had no *daimyo*. They had low social status and had to depend on others for their income. They typically worked as **mercenaries** because they could not legally work without a *daimyo*.

Peasants: Peasants, who made up 90 per cent of the population, included farmers and fishers. Their social status was low but they could be landowners, and they were respected because they produced the food for all other classes. They had to pay high taxes to the *daimyos*.

Artisans: Artisans, or craftspeople, lived in the cities and made a variety of products for the higher-ranking classes, such as farm tools, utensils and swords. They were below peasants in ranking because they did not make or grow their own food.

Merchants: Merchants were seen as profiting off other people's work, so they had the lowest social status. They had to live in their own quarters in the city, and were only allowed to mix with others for business.



Source 3: The eight social classes of Japan's feudal system, c. 1750

The Edo period was characterised by almost 250 years of uninterrupted peace and relative isolation from the outside world. These factors contributed to the rise in wealth of a merchant class, *chonin*, who had no political power. Their aspirations and desires were expressed in a lively and carefree urban culture. To represent their new aesthetic, the Edo townsmen borrowed the ancient Buddhist term *ukiyo*. It originally meant the impermanence of life, but was used to denote a 'floating world' unfettered by daily concerns ...

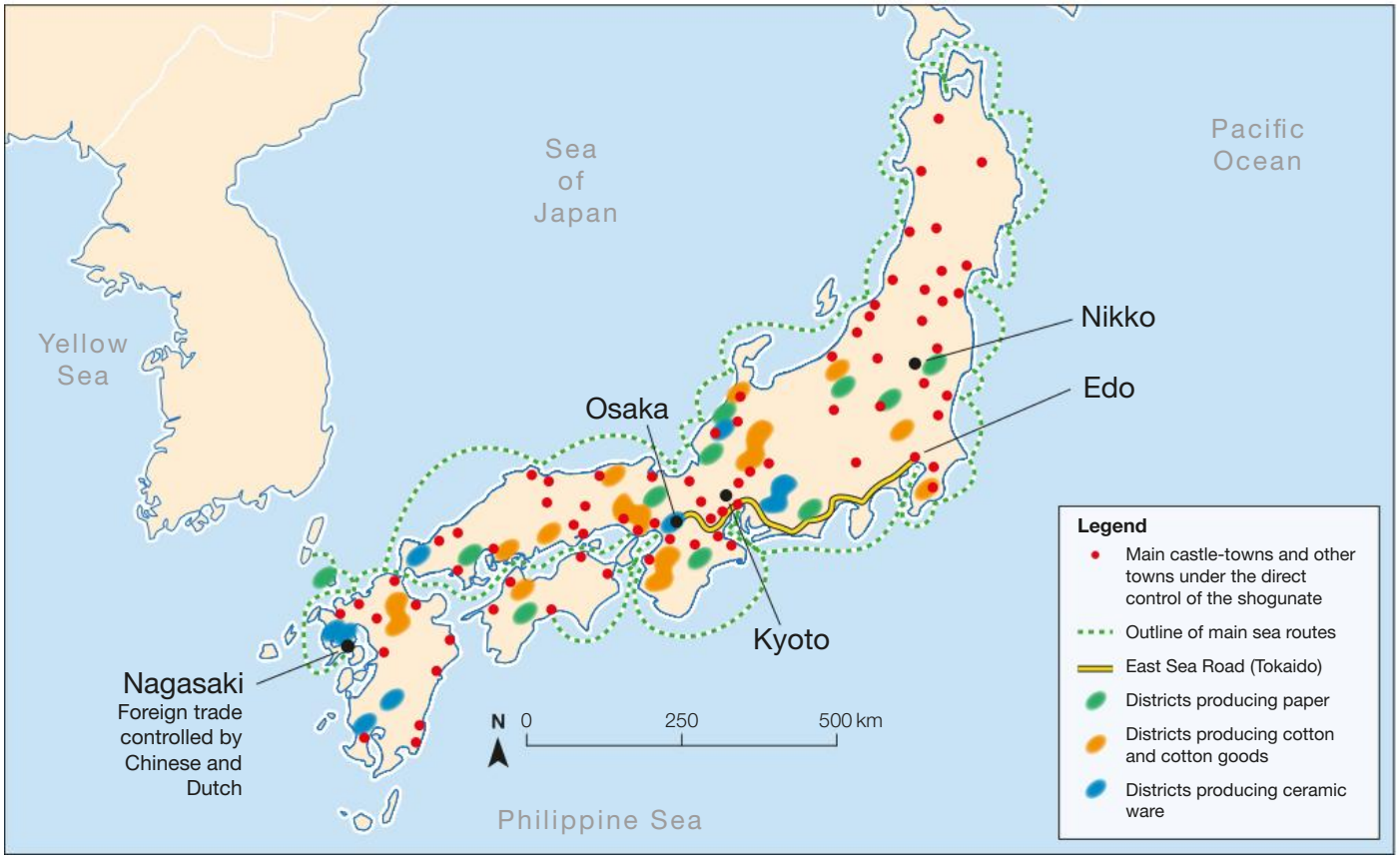
New egalitarian ideals demanded a more accessible art, so the ancient technique of woodblock printing was revived. Courtesans, sporting outrageous hair styles and dressed in the latest kimono designs, represented the height of Edo aesthetic taste. Parading in festivals, parodied in the theatre by the female impersonators, or depicted in erotic works, these women became the main subject matter for the *ukiyo-e* artists.

Source 4: National Gallery of Australia (1998), *Beauty and Desire in Edo Period Japan*.

Source 5: Tokugawa Ieyasu, late 19th – early 20th century (woodcut), Ashmolean Museum

Source 6: Towns and commerce in the Edo period from 1635, when Japan closed its borders to the outside world.

Edo period Japan



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 7: People on the Nihonbashi Bridge in Edo in 1786. The girl in the green kimono is returning from a visit to the shrine at Enoshima. The woman with the black hood – popular at the time – is married and from the wealthy merchant class. Her maid is beside her. She is carrying a child's kite and a bunch of plum blossoms. The woman wearing the black *uchikake* (outer kimono) is from a samurai family. She is talking to her maids and a young boy. The *ageböshi* (hat) she is wearing indicates her military-class status. The image shows the city's main centre of distribution, with storehouses along the river. Edo Castle is shown in the middle and Mt Fuji is behind the castle.

Economy

After 1700, Japan experienced major growth throughout its villages in the production of items for the home, including ceramics and cotton goods. While rice and fish remained an important part of the Japanese diet, industrial crops such as fruit, tea and mulberries increased significantly. (Mulberry leaves were used to feed silkworms in the production of silk.) This meant that Japan developed a **proto-industrial** economy, which laid the basis for Japan's later industrial expansion.

Learning ladder 6.1

Background and origins

1. How was Japanese society organised in 1750?
2. Describe the Japanese economy after 1750.
3. Explain how the Japanese government operated during the Edo period.
4. Explain why peasants had a higher social status than artisans and merchants.

Source analysis

1. Source 5: What is the origin of this source?
2. Source 7: Describe this source.
3. Sources 3, 4 and 7: How do these sources help in understanding social classes in Edo Japan?
4. Sources 1–7: Assess the value and limitations of these sources in undertaking a historical enquiry into life in Tokugawa Japan.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

6.2

Why did the Tokugawa shōgunate close Japan's borders?

The Tokugawa shōgun, Japan's effective ruler, outlawed travel in and out of Japan in 1635. This prevented foreign ideas and religion from influencing Japanese society, and reduced the power and wealth of the shōgun's rivals.

In 1600, Tokugawa Ieyasu became the nation's military leader, or shōgun, beginning a dynasty that would last for almost three centuries.

While the emperor was Japan's official ruler, real power lay with the shōgun, who oversaw national matters, including trade and defence. For the most part, peace reigned in Japan, although conflict persisted with the Indigenous Ainu people of Ezo (modern-day Hokkaido), who clashed with Japanese settler colonies on the south of the island. Provincial lords, known as *daimyo*, retained their own samurai and controlled their lands in exchange for tribute and loyalty to the shōgun.

Source 1: This map shows Japan's proximity to China (the Qing Empire) and the Korean (Joseon) Peninsula (independent but under the Chinese tributary system).

Source 2: Major events for the period 1600–1918

Sakoku

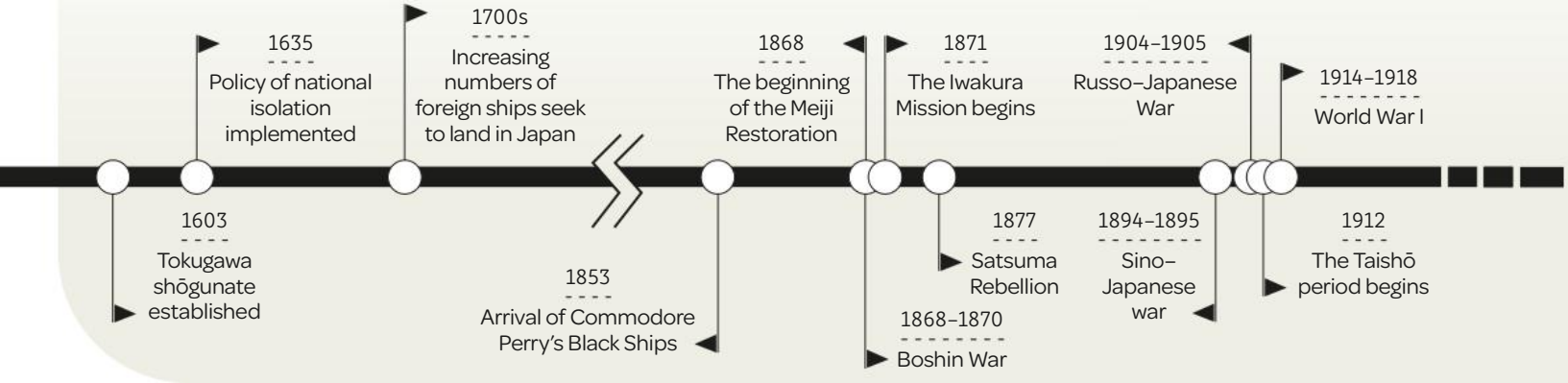
In 1635, the shōgunate implanted a policy of *sakoku* ('closed country'), which severely limited Japanese contact and trade with other countries.

Before *sakoku*, international trade and travel were largely unrestricted. Japanese sailors traded throughout Asia, and official envoys visited nations in Asia,

18th-century Japan

Source: Matilda Education Australia

key ideas timeline.



Source 3: A Dutch ship at the Dejima trading post in the bay of Nagasaki. [*Nagasaki: Dejima Island* (1804), painting]

South America and Europe. Large numbers of foreign traders lived in Japan, and foreign pirate ships were active in the seas surrounding the island.

Sakoku was a response to growing concern about the threat of these foreign traders and pirates. Christian missionaries were also seen as a danger to Japanese religion and *kokutai*, the national essence; the Catholic Portuguese and Spanish were seen as especially zealous in this regard.

Under *sakoku*, the shōgun officially forbade all foreigners from entering Japan or Japanese waters. Japanese citizens who returned from abroad were to be executed. For more than 200 years, Japan would remain isolated from the rest of the world.

Exceptions to the policy

Two exceptions to the *sakoku* restrictions existed in Nagasaki: a small community of Chinese traders could operate and Dutch traders were allowed on Dejima, an artificial island in Nagasaki harbour, although they could not set foot on Japanese soil.

Controlling trade in this way not only prevented creeping foreign influence, but also stopped regional *daimyo* from growing too wealthy by trading with outsiders. In turn, this restricted their ability to raise large armies and present any kind of threat to the Tokugawa dynasty.

Through official channels Japan maintained *tongsinsa*, or goodwill embassies, which facilitated trade and contact between Joseon Korea and Imperial China, along with the Ryukyu Islands to the south. Silver proved a particularly valuable export, and Chinese goods, developments and technology flowed into Japan in return.

Learning ladder 6.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was the *sakoku* policy?
2. Describe what led to the *sakoku* policy.
3. Explain the exceptions to the *sakoku* restrictions.
4. Evaluate the benefits and weaknesses of the *sakoku* policy. How might it have impacted the development of Japan?
5. How significant was the threat of Christianity in prompting the *sakoku* policy, compared with other foreign influences?

Continuity and change

1. Describe Japanese trade and travel before and after *sakoku*.
2. Explain how *sakoku* prevented change to the power of the Tokugawa dynasty.
3. Explain why Christianity was seen as a threat to national unity in Japan.
4. The policy of *sakoku* isolated Japan from the rest of the world for 200 years. In your view, how important is isolation in ensuring continuity and preventing change in a society?
5. Evaluate whether isolation was a sustainable strategy for managing internal threats such as *daimyo* power and foreign religion.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

What was life like during the Tokugawa shōgunate?

Japan during the Tokugawa shōgunate operated under a feudal system. Everyone belonged to a particular class, with which came specific obligations and expectations. Japan's closed borders prevented foreign influences from changing society.

The feudal system

The Japanese emperor stood at the very top of the system and was considered to be a descendant of Amaterasu, the sun goddess. During the Tokugawa shōgunate, he was considered to be a spiritual head who held little real power or influence. His court was supported by *kuge*: nobles, aristocrats and bureaucrats.

Real power lay with the shōgun, the emperor's leading general, who lived in Edo and ran the nation's domestic welfare and foreign affairs. The Tokugawa family held this role for centuries, primarily because of their large wealth and landholdings across key trade routes.

The nation was divided into approximately 250 *han* (domains), each ruled by a local hereditary lord (*daimyo*), who retained a private army and controlled laws and taxes. In order to ensure the *daimyo* could not become wealthy and pose any potential threat, the shōgun spied on them and placed controls on their behaviour. He demanded they regularly upgrade roads and seawalls, regularly required them to live in Edo and prohibited alliances between *daimyo*, including those created through marriage.

The samurai were the warriors who made up the army of each *daimyo*. They commanded significant respect and lower classes were expected to show deference to them. They carried swords and lived according to the *bushido* (warrior code). By 1750, Japan had been relatively peaceful for more than a century, and the role of the samurai had become more administrative. Some had fallen on hard times and taken to gambling and other vices.

Everyone else was broadly classified according to the *shinokosho* (the four divisions of society): *shi* (samurai), *no* (farmers/peasants), *ko* (artisans/craftspeople) and *sho* (merchants/traders). Confucian traditions valued the role of farmers, who produced goods essential to society, over that of craftspeople. Merchants were considered of less value, as they generated wealth without producing goods.

Source 1: A 19th-century depiction of women in the *Ooku* quarters of Edo Castle. These women included the wives and concubines of current and former shōguns; they were not allowed to have relationships with other men. [Hashimoto Chikanobu, *Ukiyo-e depiction of the Ōoku,* 2 March 1895]

Some groups fell outside the feudal system, notably the *eta* (those who worked in 'tainted' industries such as leather-working, undertaking or animal slaughter) and *hinin* (people in indentured labour, ex-convicts, beggars and vagrants). These groups were considered untouchable and discrimination against them was widespread.

The role of women

Life for women in Tokugawa Japan was very different from that of men and depended greatly on their social status. They were expected to adhere to the Confucian tradition of the *Three Obediences*:

- as a maiden daughter
- as a chaste wife
- as a dedicated widow.

Marriages were generally arranged by parents and women held few rights. Female illiteracy was widespread; a woman could not own property and could be killed by her own husband if she were perceived to be lazy or unfaithful. Some were retained in entertainment and service, such as the *Ooku* women of Edo Castle. Some women also trained as warriors; known as *onna-musha*, they prepared to defend their household and their honour. In times of war, they also fought alongside men.

Limited change

Through contact with Imperial China, new ideas, developments and technologies entered Japan, although the *sakoku* restrictions meant that the nation remained less open to change. *Rangaku* (Dutch studies) was a notable exception; books and texts obtained from Dutch traders at Dejima introduced new ideas around science, astronomy, medicine, languages and the natural world.

As swampland was filled and marshes drained, Edo grew during this period to become one of the largest cities in the world, although the crowded conditions and widespread use of wood created a risk of fires. Devastating fires proved a regular occurrence throughout the 16th and 17th centuries. As a result, thatched roofs were banned in favour of tiles and fire-prevention laws were enacted.

As urban centres grew, lifestyles began to change for many. The rise of *ukiyo* ('floating worlds', or urban culture) saw a growth in new forms of entertainment, art (such as *ukiyo-e*) and business, and a gradual blurring of many of the older social hierarchies.

▲ **Source 2:** A map of the city of Edo (modern-day Tokyo) from the 1840s. Edo was the location of the shōgun's palace.

Learning ladder 6.3

Background and origins

1. What was the *shinokosho*?
2. Describe the groups who fell outside the feudal system.
3. Explain life for women during the Tokugawa shōgunate.
4. Explain how *rangaku* influenced ideas in Japan at the time.

Perspectives

1. Describe what you think a merchant's perspective of their status in the feudal system might have been.
2. Source 1: Describe the perspective we are given of women in this source.
3. Explain how the shōgun's view of the *daimyo* influenced his treatment of them.
4. Explain why views about the *eta* and *hinin* would have led to discrimination against them.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

6.4

What caused Japan to re-engage with the West?

The arrival of US forces in 1853 marked a significant turning point in Japan's political outlook. It ended the *sakoku* period and began a growing internal push to modernise Japan. The Western powers clamoured to help accelerate this process.

Commodore Perry's Black Ships

By the mid-19th century, the United States was building its own empire of trade and **vassal states**, and was looking for ways to take power from its European rivals. Japan was seen as a strong potential trading partner within Asia, and the United States had made multiple unsuccessful attempts to establish diplomatic and trading ties with the isolated nation.

In 1853, the United States government sent Commodore Matthew Perry, commanding four steam-powered warships, to present a letter from President Filmore to the Japanese Emperor. Perry's fleet of 'black ships' sailed around Japan, intimidating local *daimyos* who had never seen such advanced technology before. Arriving at the shōgun's palace in Edo, Perry showed off the fleet's military power, firing cannons and making threats of force before delivering the President's letter to the shōgun's aide. When the fleet left, Perry made it clear that the United States demanded Japan re-open its borders, and promised to return in a year's time for their reply.

Shōgun Ieyoshi died a few days after Perry left, and his successor was in poor health, so it was left to the court's Council of Elders to decide how to respond to the threat. However, they were paralysed by indecision, unsure how to handle the situation.

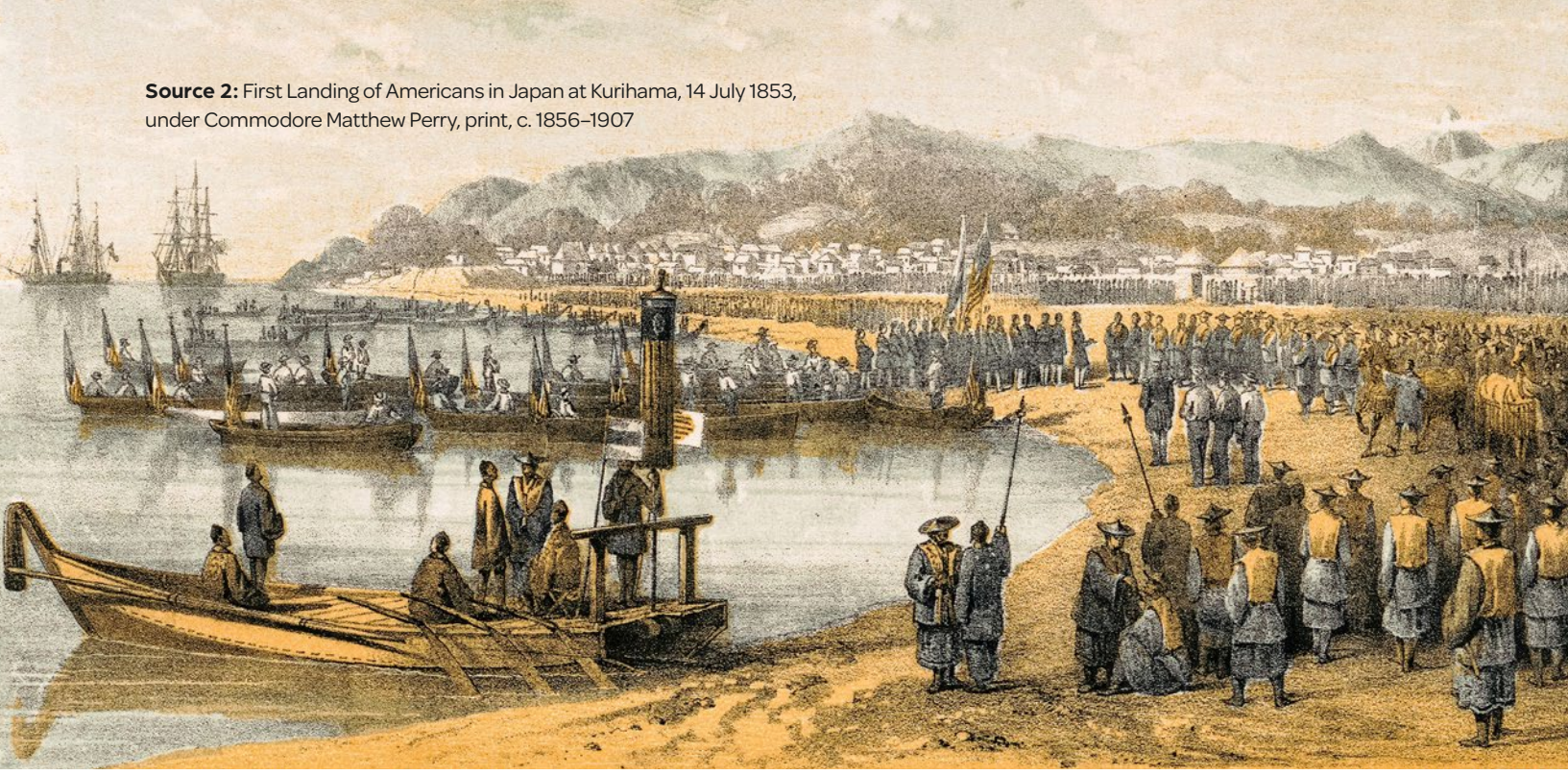
Perry returned in 1854 after only six months, this time with a fleet of 10 steamships and 1600 men. The Elders gave in to almost all of the US demands, and the Convention of Kanagawa was signed. This treaty opened the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate, established a US embassy and gave the United States preferential trading rights. It effectively ended the policy of *sakoku* and forced Japan to open its borders to the rest of the world.

Still, unrest lingered and, in August 1863, this erupted into the three-day Anglo-Satsuma War, during which British ships bombarding the city of Kagoshima in response to being fired upon by coastal batteries.

The Meiji Restoration

The capitulation cost the shōgunate a great deal of power and respect, and its control over Japanese society slipped. In late 1867, Shōgun Yoshinobu was forced to resign, allowing Emperor Meiji to take back political control of the country. For the first time in centuries, Japan's emperor was a ruler rather than a figurehead. The period from 1868 is thus called the Meiji Restoration, and was a period of enormous change.

Source 1: Detail from a depiction of Commodore Perry's flagship by Tsukioka Yoshitoshi, 1876. The Japanese were unfamiliar with industrial technology, and Perry's ships were far more powerful than the shōgun's.



Source 2: First Landing of Americans in Japan at Kurihama, 14 July 1853, under Commodore Matthew Perry, print, c. 1856–1907

Japan began to define its own future. The emperor moved the capital city from Kyoto to Edo, which was renamed Tokyo, and the feudal domains ended in favour of a national government. In 1889, a new constitution created the imperial *diet* (parliament), sidelining the emperor and putting decision-making powers into the hands of the *genro*, older oligarchic advisors.

Renewed trade with the West brought modernisation and prosperity. Industrial development and foreign investment brought greater wealth, particularly to the *zaibutsu*, the large business **conglomerates** that dominated industry. Japan's overseas colonies delivered raw materials, such as coal and iron. These were particularly valuable for the growing Japanese military, which greatly increased Japan's presence in Manchuria, a region of north-eastern China.

Military expansion

The modernisation of Japan's military was a top priority during the Meiji Restoration. The Sino–Japanese war (1894–1895) resulted in Japan's victory over Qing dynasty China, which established Japan as a regional power and handed them control of Korea and some Chinese territories. The 1905 Eulsa Treaty formalised the Japanese sphere of influence on the Korean Peninsula, depriving Korea of its independence.

Growing tension between Japan and Russia over China brought the two nations into conflict. The Russo–Japanese War (1904–1905) was a comprehensive victory for Japan, the first victory by an Asian power over a European power in modern times.

The outcome effectively announced Japan as a growing power, and European nations, particularly Britain, clamoured to build mutually beneficial agreements.

Learning ladder 6.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Describe Matthew Perry's interaction with Japan.
2. Describe how the Convention of Kanagawa impacted Japan.
3. Explain why Emperor Meiji can be considered a significant person.
4. Evaluate the influence of the events following the arrival of Matthew Perry in 1853 on Japan's future.

Significance

1. Describe why trading with Japan was so significant for the Americans.
2. Describe the significance of Emperor Meiji taking back control from the shōgunate.
3. Explain the historical significance of the Sino–Japanese War and the Russo-Japanese War.
4. Evaluate the historical significance of the Meiji Restoration and Japan resuming trade with the West.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

6.5

How was Japan involved in World War I?

When Emperor Meiji died in 1912, Japan was seen as a strong country. Not only had it remained free from imperial domination, but it had also recently defeated Russia in the Russo–Japanese War (1904–1905). With the outbreak of World War I in 1914, Japan entered on the side of the UK and its allies, quickly seizing German territory in China.

After the death of Emperor Meiji in 1912, the Taishō period began in Japan. Although the economy was stable, there was conflict between the government, the military and the imperial court over rights and freedoms. Japan was also keen to build on its success in gaining control in southern Manchuria and Korea following the Russo-Japanese War.

Source 1: Banzai, banzai, the fall of Tsingtao, colour lithograph, 1914. The Siege of Tsingtao was the first battle between Japanese and German forces, and also the first joint British-Japanese operation during World War I.

Source 2: National assembly in Tokyo to celebrate victory over the Germans at Tsingtao, 1914

The Siege of Tsingtao (Qingdao)

The outbreak of World War I gave Japan an opportunity to expand into German territories in China and the Pacific. This arose in August 1914 when the United Kingdom made a request to Japan to attack the German navy based in Asia. Japan gladly accepted and declared war on Germany. On 31 October, the Japanese military, together with a small British force, attacked the Chinese port city of Tsingtao (now Qingdao), which was under German control.

Fierce fighting took place both on land and sea. The Germans in Tsingtao were surrounded and their supplies were cut off. The Japanese began bombing the city and, through a series of trenches, were able to get close enough to the German stronghold to launch an infantry attack. By the evening of 6 November 1914, the German defence of Tsingtao could not hold out any longer and the following day the Siege of Tsingtao was over. Japan took control of the area.

Other involvement in 1914

Japan used its involvement in World War I to take over German colonies in the Pacific, including the Mariana Islands, Caroline Islands and Marshall Islands. The Japanese forces also took control of German New Guinea. This was possible because Germany was concentrating on the battlefields of Europe.

The Japanese Navy gave support to the Allies' war effort by deterring German warships operating in the Indian and Pacific Oceans. It also protected merchant ships from German attack in the Asia–Pacific region, which allowed the United Kingdom to focus its naval power elsewhere. The Japanese warship *Ibuki* provided an escort to ANZACs sailing from Western Australia to Egypt.

Japanese industry supplied warships and munitions to the Allies, along with merchant ships. The Japanese Red Cross provided doctors and nurses to assist with Allied casualties on both the eastern and western fronts.

The Twenty-One Demands

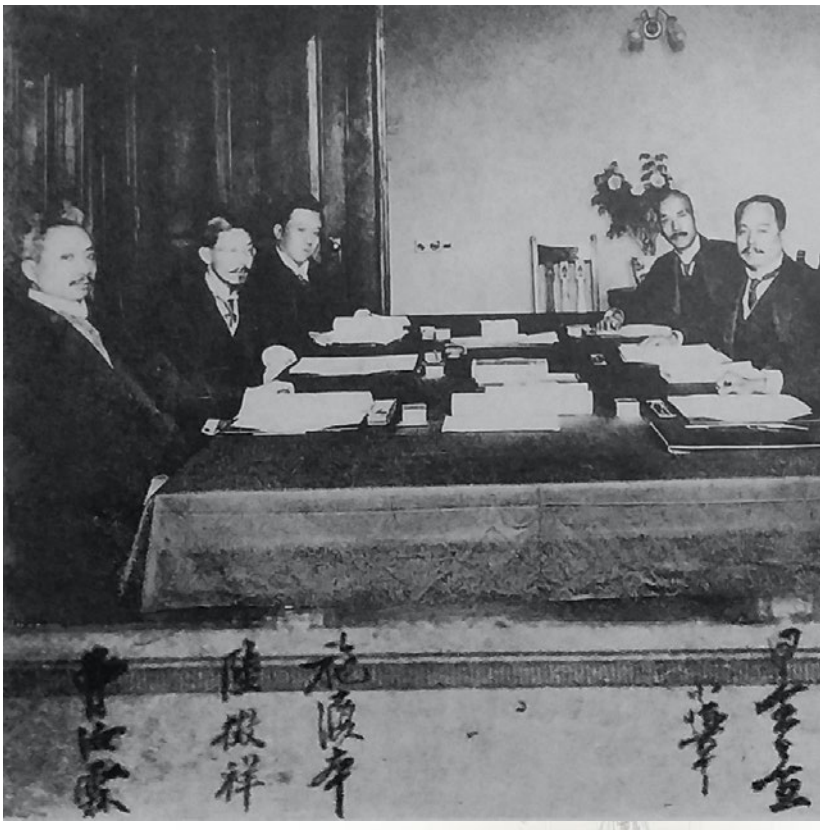
In 1915, Japan secretly presented the Chinese government with a set of demands, the Twenty-One Demands, aimed at extending Japan's control over China. The demands included:

- increased Japanese rights in areas such as Manchuria
- a prohibition on China leasing territory to other countries
- Japan being given control over railways and mining in Shandong province
- China agreeing to have Japanese 'advisors' make decisions for the Chinese government.

If China refused the demands, it faced being attacked by Japan.

The Chinese government made these demands known to the British and Americans, hoping to gain their support. This led to a series of negotiations on what the final demands should be. Japan dropped some of the demands but was able to gain more control over China.

The Chinese were humiliated by the imposition of the demands, leading to a growth in nationalism and anti-Japanese feeling in China. The United States also became wary of Japanese ambitions in the Asia-Pacific region.



Source 3: Representatives from China and Japan after signing the Twenty-One Demands, 1915

Source 4: The Japanese cruiser *Nisshin* was deployed in the Mediterranean Sea from 1917 to 1919 during World War I. The *Nisshan* helped to protect Allied shipping from German and Austro-Hungarian submarines.

1916–1918

Although Japan had fought a war against Russia in 1905, this did not prevent cooperation between the two nations in 1916 in dividing up German-occupied territory in China. Also in 1916, Japan deployed ships from its navy to assist the British in the Mediterranean.

> Germany renounces, in favour of Japan, all her rights, title and privileges [...] concerning the territory of Kiaochow, railways, mines and submarine cables [...] relative to the Province of Shantung. All German rights in the Tsingtao-Tsinanfu Railway [...] are and remain acquired by Japan.

Source 5: Extract from Article 156 of the Treaty of Versailles, 1919. Japan, having joined the Allies during World War I, was granted all former German rights in Shandong province. This confirmed Japanese territorial ambitions, first expressed in the Twenty-One Demands. While seen as a diplomatic victory for Japan, the decision sparked outrage in China and led to the May Fourth Movement.

American concerns about Japan's territorial ambitions following the Twenty-One Demands were heightened in 1917. That year, the United States joined the war and found itself fighting with the Japanese. Both countries were keen to increase their strategic position in the Pacific and this led to tension between them. An agreement was reached that demonstrated Japan's position as a major force in international relations.

Involvement with the Allies during World War I provided Japan a further opportunity in 1918 to be part of world political events. When the monarchy in Russia was overthrown by the Bolsheviks (communists), the Japanese Army deployed troops to Siberia to assist the anti-Bolsheviks.

Learning ladder 6.5

Impact and legacies

1. List the territories Japan was able to take control of during World War I.
2. Describe the impact of Japanese involvement in the Siege of Tsingtao.
3. Explain the legacy of the Twenty-One Demands on Japanese-Chinese relations.
4. Explain the impact of Japan's involvement in World War I on the efforts of the Allies to win the war.
5. Source 5: Evaluate the impact of the decision to give Shandong to Japan.

Cause and effect

1. How did World War I give Japan an opportunity to expand?
2. Describe the effect of the Twenty-One Demands on China.
3. Explain the cause of tensions between the United States and Japan, even though they were fighting on the same side.
4. Explain what led to Japan being able to play a significant role in the Asia–Pacific region during World War I.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

6.6

How did Japan modernise during the Taishō period?

The Taishō period began in 1912 and marked significant social change, particularly for women, following the end of World War I in 1918. Sometimes referred to as Japan's 'Jazz Age', a wave of prosperity, liberalism and intellectualism swept through urban centres.

The Meiji period ended with the death of Emperor Meiji. He was succeeded by his son, Prince Yoshihito, who declared his reign would be known as the Taishō ('great righteousness') period. To begin with, however, the Taishō period was one of upheaval and conflict. Japan had three different prime ministers between 1912 and 1913 because of conflicts between the civilian government, the military and the imperial court. Not long after the government stabilised, Japan entered World War I, allying with the United Kingdom against its enemies China and Germany.

Source 1: A steam engine at Tokyo in 1870. Railway lines increased from just 29 kilometres of track in 1872 to more than 11 000 kilometres of track by 1914. [Utagawa Kuniteru (1870), *The Takanawa Steam Railway, Tokyo*, Edo-Tokyo Museum]

Social change

In the post-war world, things changed dramatically for Japan, both at home and internationally. The country was granted a permanent seat on the Council of the League of Nations (the precursor to the modern United Nations) and was recognised as a world power.

In Japan's urban centres, a thriving film, music and literary culture rose to prominence, as did consumerism. *Moga* ('modern girl') and *mobo* ('modern boy') trends – heavily influenced by the West – became popular, and challenged traditional roles, fashions and expectations. People started to embrace the idea of the country becoming a democracy.

Source 2: A *moga*, or 'modern girl' – young people in Japan's urban centres were sophisticates heavily influenced by Western culture. [Kobayakawa Kiyoshi (1930), *Tipsy*, woodcut print]

However, life was different in rural areas: spiralling inflation, rising national debt and increased military spending drove up the price of rice and led to violent clashes in July 1918. The *Kome Sodo* ('Rice Riots') indicated growing discontent, and martial law soon followed. Landless farmers, riots and union activity saw an increased interest in socialism and Marxism.

To quell discontent and prevent the spread of dangerous ideas, the *Peace Preservation Act of 1925* banned anything that could be perceived as dangerous to *kokutai*, or 'the national essence'. Tightening government controls, growing military influence and concern over the liberal direction of urban areas increased national and regional tensions.

Technological change

Before the Meiji period, Japan had been a medieval society. A great industrial revolution began during the 1870s. Railroads, shipping, gas lighting, textile manufacturing and banking reforms were widespread. Japan went from having 26 steamships in 1873 to more than 1500 by 1913; and from 29 kilometres of train tracks in 1872 to more than 11 000 kilometres by 1914.

This rapid industrialisation was primarily due to the government's policy of *o-yatoi gaikokujin* (hired foreigners). Under this Meiji-era policy, up to 3000 foreign experts were brought into Japan to improve education, the sciences, engineering and the military. Japanese students were also sent to Europe and North America to acquire knowledge under an initiative known as the Iwakura Mission. The skills these students brought back shaped the advances of the Taishō period.

The Taishō period was one of tremendous change, but some historians believe that the seeds of modernisation were planted decades before, during the Meiji period. As the historian Frederick Dickinson (2018) explains, the Meiji period was an era 'vital to the global project for economic, political, and imperial development and ... Japan's critical contribution ... [as an] internationalist and integrated' society.

Learning ladder 6.6

Impact and legacies

1. Describe what caused instability in Japan at the beginning of the Taishō period.
2. Describe the legacy of the Meiji era that carried through to the Taishō period.
3. Explain the legacy of Japan's rapid industrialisation for the rural population.
4. Explain the legacy of the *o-yatoi gaikokujin* policy.

Contestability

1. Identify one interpretation of the Taishō period mentioned in the spread.
2. Describe how historian Frederick Dickinson interprets the roots of Japan's modernisation.
3. Explain how the experiences of urban and rural Japanese people during the Taishō period might lead to different interpretations of this era.
4. Compare the view of the Taishō period as a time of liberal change with the view that it was a time of growing repression.

HOW TO Contestability, page 506

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

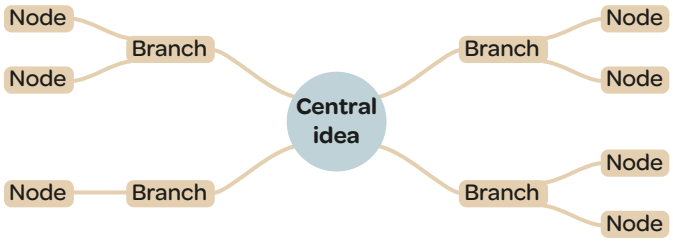
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to Japan.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- *Sakoku* policy, 6.2
- Life during the Tokugawa shōgunate, 6.3
- Meiji Restoration, 6.4
- Japan in World War I, 6.5
- The Twenty-One Demands, 6.5
- Modernisation in Japan, 6.6

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative (see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

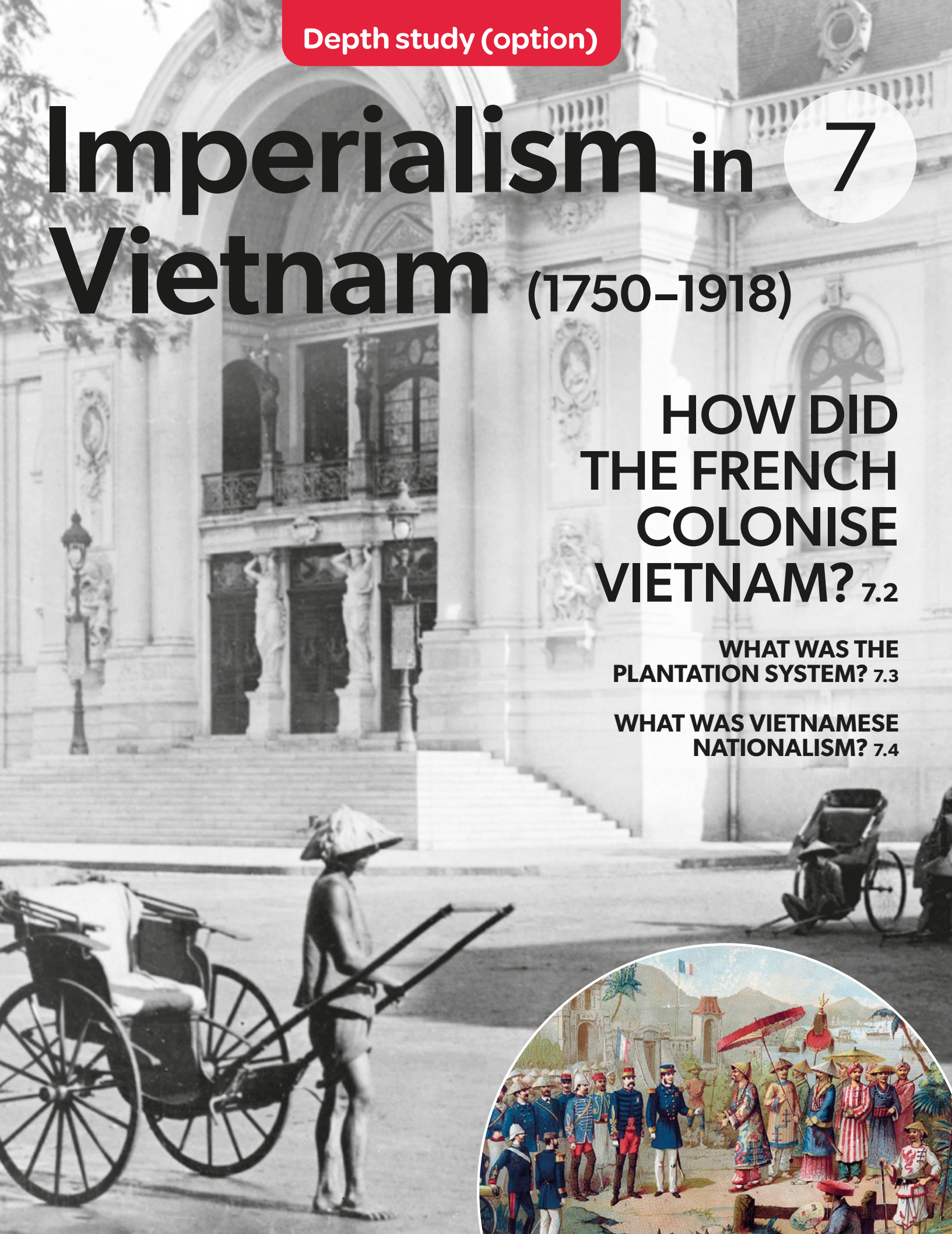
Imperialism in Vietnam (1750–1918)

7

HOW DID THE FRENCH COLONISE VIETNAM? 7.2

WHAT WAS THE PLANTATION SYSTEM? 7.3

WHAT WAS VIETNAMESE NATIONALISM? 7.4



How can I understand imperialism in Vietnam?

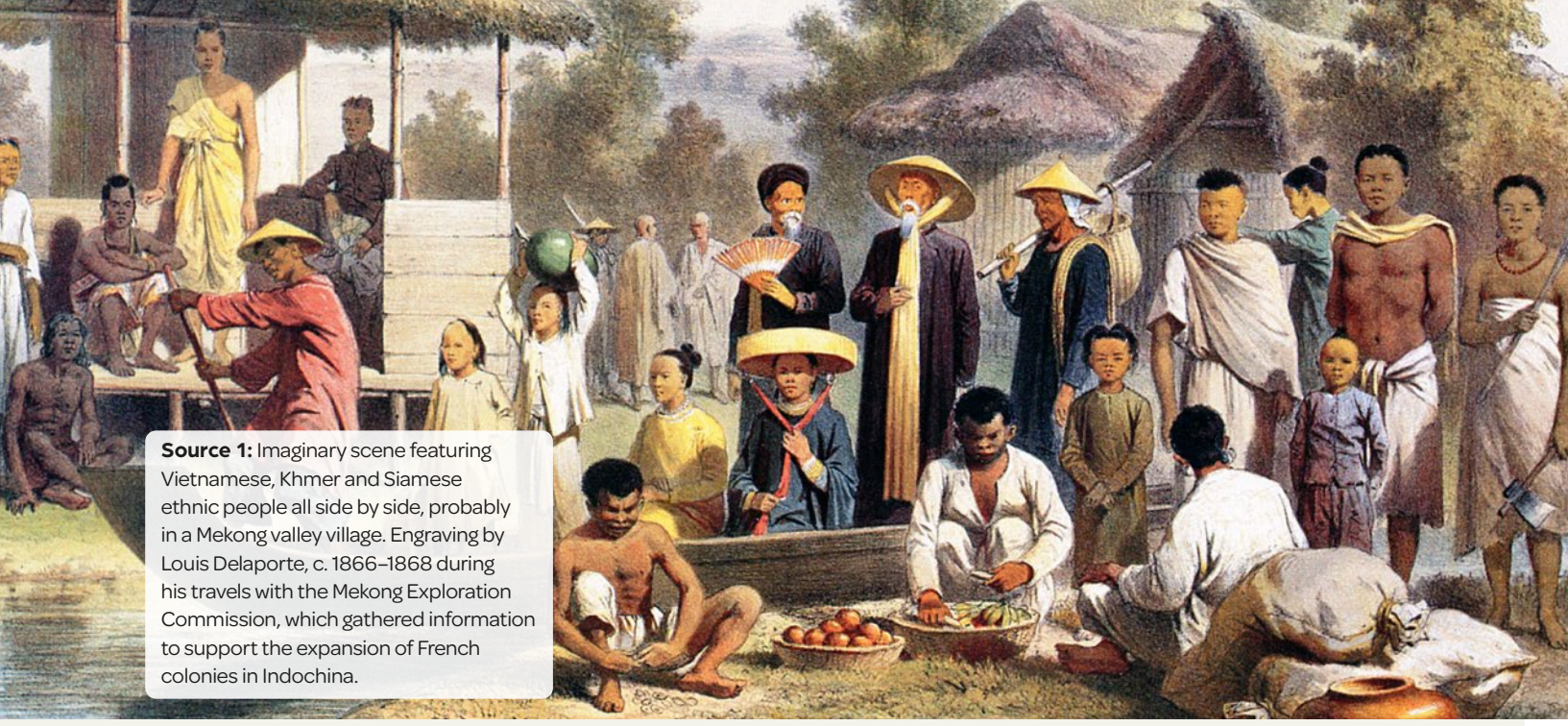
During the era of global imperial expansion, Vietnam was integrated into French Indochina alongside Cambodia and Laos. As industrialisation spread, European powers eyed the region's vast natural resources, with a particular emphasis on rubber production. This influx of external interest and exploitation led to profound changes that are still evident today.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: Imaginary scene featuring Vietnamese, Khmer and Siamese ethnic people all side by side, probably in a Mekong valley village. Engraving by Louis Delaporte, c. 1866–1868 during his travels with the Mekong Exploration Commission, which gathered information to support the expansion of French colonies in Indochina.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Who unified Vietnam?

Under the leadership of Gia Long, Vietnam was united for the first time. His reign saw a number of important developments for the country.

Gia Long (Source 1), born Nguyễn Phúc Ánh, united the lands of modern-day Vietnam into one nation for the first time in 1802. This marked the end of almost 25 years of conflict and negotiation, known as the Tây Sơn wars. Gia Long became the first emperor to rule over the country from China's southern border all the way to the Gulf of Siam (Thailand), and he gained official recognition from Qing dynasty China. Gia Long named the new country Việt Nam, a composition of the ancient Chinese names for the northern (An Nam) and southern (Việt Thường) lands of the Indochina Peninsula.

During this period, foreign trade was dwindling and external influence from China, European powers and the Catholic Church was falling increasingly under suspicion. The brothers Nguyễn Nhạc and Nguyễn Huệ, rulers of the Tay Son, exploited existing tensions between ethnic Vietnamese, Khmer, Cham and Chinese across the lands to build their power. Meanwhile, the Nguyen clan, led by Nguyen Phuc Anh, looked to the growing regional power of France for support.

From their settlement in Pondicherry, the French provided Nguyen Anh with muskets and soldiers. They also trained local soldiers (Source 3), equipped the navy and built key infrastructure, such as citadels.

Source 1: Nguyen Phuc Anh, known as Nguyen Anh, gained the imperial name of Gia Long after unifying Vietnam.

Vietnam at the end of the 18th century

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: In 1792, Vietnam was a land divided; the Nguyen clan ruled the south (green), while the brothers Nguyen Hue and Nguyen Nhac ruled the north (grey) and centre (yellow), respectively.

French Catholic missionaries and merchants, who had been active in the region for decades, helped to build further support for Nguyen Anh. Most prominent among these was Monsignor Pigneau de Bihaine, who had sheltered the young Nguyen Anh when he fled a Tay Son offensive in 1777 and who would go on to mentor and support him as he rose to prominence and power. In 1787, Pigneau travelled back to France, taking with him Prince Cảnh, Nguyen Anh's son, to seek support and funding for further French influence in the region. As he suggested to King Louis XVI himself, a strong French presence in Vietnam would put them in a position to dominate the sea trade of China, an area until then open primarily to the Portuguese via Macao.

After consolidating power, Nguyen Anh, now known as Gia Long, undertook a range of initiatives, including relocating the capital city from Hanoi in the north to central Hue, reimposing Confucian education and civil service systems, and permitting the activities of French missionaries. He built highways to connect the country, introduced a postal service and initiated projects to support the growing population. He continued to strengthen the military and turned Cambodia into a **vassal state**, using it as a **buffer** against the Kingdom of Siam (modern-day Thailand). Despite the presence in the country of French officers and missionaries, Gia Long rebuffed attempts to establish strong commercial trade, first with the French, then with other European powers, including the British East India Company and the Netherlands. The growing importance of Vietnamese sovereignty meant that foreign influence was largely unwelcome.

Source 3: Vietnamese *tirailleur* (light infantry) of the Nguyen dynasty; such soldiers were trained and equipped by the French.

Learning ladder 7.1

Background and origins

1. What was the origin of Vietnam?
2. Describe how France helped Nguyen Anh gain power.
3. Describe how Gia Long changed the country.
4. Explain why the French would have supported Nguyen Anh.

Significance

1. What were the Tay Son wars?
2. Describe the significance of the Nguyen clan.
3. Explain the significance of Gia Long in unifying Vietnam.
4. Evaluate the significance of French involvement in shaping Vietnam's history.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

What was French Indochina?

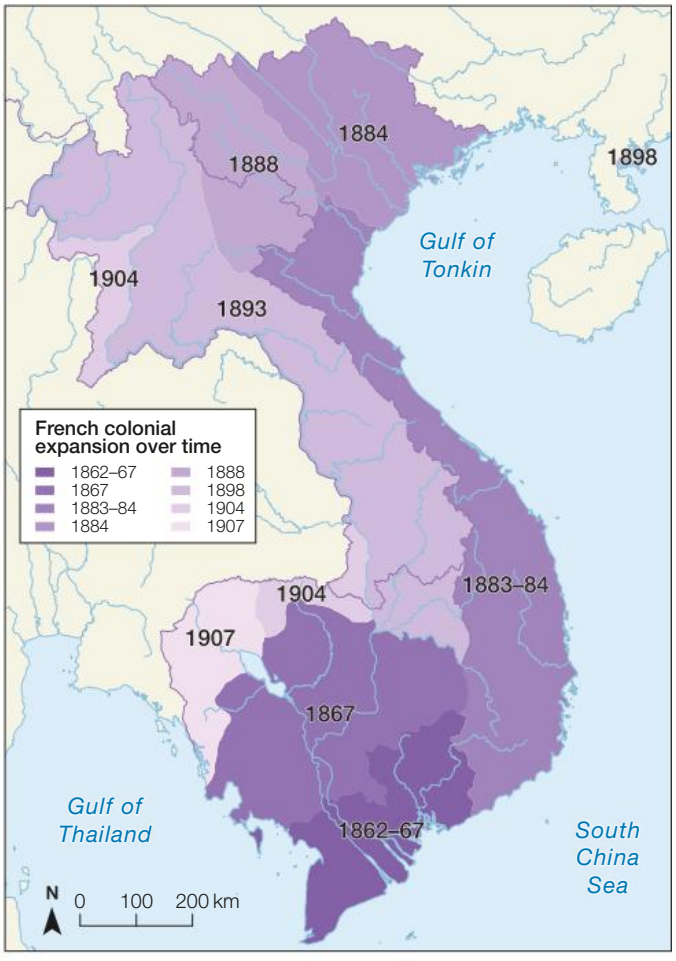
Although France had maintained a presence in Vietnam for hundreds of years through missionary work and military interventions, control and influence remained in Vietnamese hands through Gia Long from the turn of the 19th century. As the wheels of the Industrial Revolution began to turn across Europe, so too did French **mercantile interest** in the lands of Vietnam. While rice, tea and coffee had proven commercially viable, rubber and coal would be of particular economic and strategic importance for France.

Across the 1800s, a growing pattern emerged as French influence grew. Both the French East India Company and the Paris Foreign Missions Society were active in Vietnam. The Nguyen dynasty sought to mitigate and remove external threats to their way of life, such as Catholicism, but misunderstandings and disagreements were met by military intervention and political manoeuvring, with French diplomats appointed to replace local leaders and increasing amounts of territory falling under French control. By 1925, a bureaucracy of around 5000 French nationals effectively ruled over almost 30 million people across the lands of Laos, Cambodia and Vietnam, in an area now known as French Indochina.

In 1858, the unity of the Nguyen dynasty that began with Gia Long was ended when, under the orders of Napoleon III, the French attacked Da Nang and Saigon in 1859. By 1862, they had taken much of the Mekong Delta region in the south and negotiated increasingly favourable concessions across the country for themselves. Over the next few decades, negotiations and military superiority saw the establishment of French Indochina in 1887, a union of Cambodia and the three provinces of Tonkin (northern Vietnam), Annam (central Vietnam) and Cochinchina (southern Vietnam) under French control. In 1893, Laos was added to the union.

The French built railroads to connect the cities of the region, as well as widespread roads and electricity networks. Parks, public spaces, wide streets, boulevards and European architecture were all established, particularly in Saigon, and institutions for higher education in law and modern medicine were created. The new legal system was based on the French Napoleonic Code, with cases heard on trial or before a judge; previous local capital punishments, such as the beheading of robbers, were abolished. The French language gained increasing prominence and usage, and many children of prominent Vietnamese individuals were sent to France to further their education.

Expansion of French influence in Vietnam



Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** From the mid-19th century, French control increased, and French Indochina continued to expand.

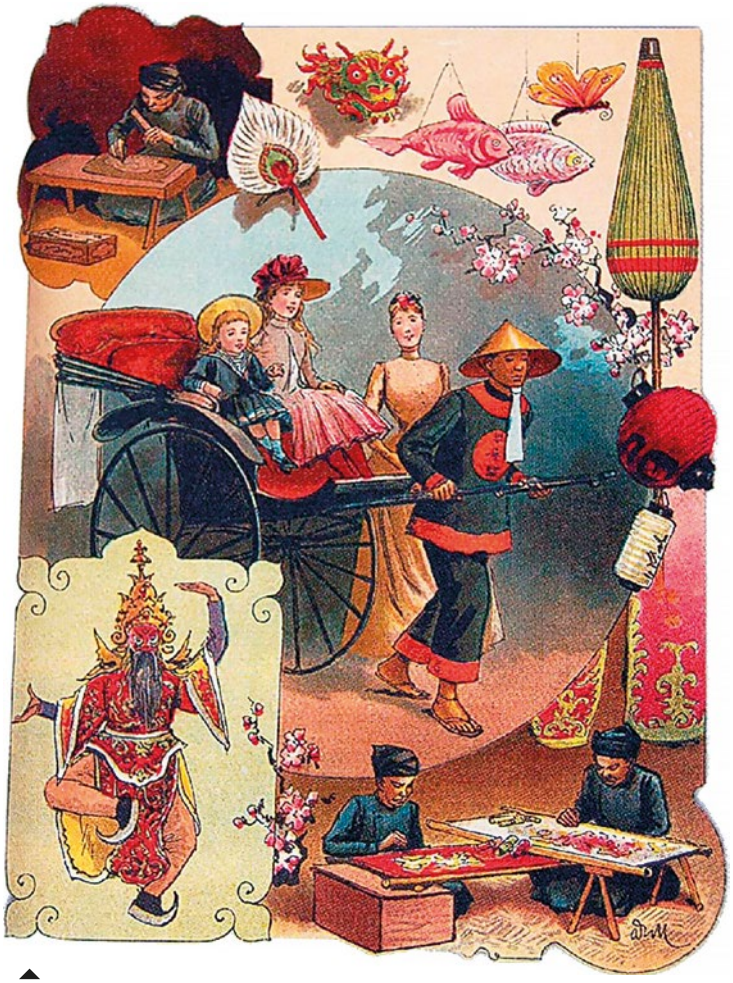
From the first days it was recognized that the Chinese language was a barrier between us and the natives; the education provided by means of the hieroglyphic characters was completely beyond us; this writing makes possible only with difficulty transmitting to the population the diverse ideas which are necessary for them at the level of their new political and commercial situation. Consequently we are obliged to follow the traditions of our own system of education; it is the only one which can bring close to us the Annamites of the colony by inculcating in them the principles of European civilization and isolating them from the hostile influence of our neighbors.

Source 2: Paulin Vial, Director of the Office of the Governor of Cochinchina, in a letter dated 15 January 1866

The Vietnamese language itself was changed to use the Roman alphabet, a marked departure from the historical system of writing based on Chinese characters. Although this romanised form of written Vietnamese developed over centuries through the work of missionaries and local Catholics, it remained a minority script until becoming standardised under the French (Source 2).

The experience of life in French Indochina was broadly divided into distinct groups: the French colonists, the local elites and the local masses. For the French colonists, life was often indulgent and exotic (Source 3). For the elites, the French period offered a Western education and opportunities for collaboration and power, along with positions of privilege in modernising cities like Saigon.

For the masses, the benefits of colonialism often remained relatively distant as farmers and labourers toiled in rural areas to support the growing population and economy. In time, the rising inequality bred tensions, and resistance against the French occupation arose. In response, dissenters were imprisoned or punished with increasing brutality, and thousands of political prisoners were held on Con Son Island. As the wealth of the colony grew, the gap between these social groups continued to expand, but money and resources were not the only benefit that Indochina brought to France; during World War I (1914–1918), more than 50 000 Indochinese soldiers were conscripted into the French Army and sent to fight on the battlefields of Europe.



Source 3: An advertisement in France for French Indochina (1889)

Learning ladder 7.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Which five regions made up French Indochina?
2. Describe how the French took control of the region.
3. Explain how French rule changed the country.
4. Explain the differences in French Indochina for the French colonists, the Vietnamese elite and the Vietnamese masses.

Source analysis

1. Source 3: Where is this source from?
2. Describe what is shown on Source 3.
3. Explain the historical context of Source 3.
4. Source 3: How accurate and useful is this source in understanding life in Vietnam at the time?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

What were the plantations?

The French considered their presence in Vietnam to be a *mission civilisatrice* (a 'civilising mission'). The French equivalent of the English 'White Man's Burden', the *mission* was the sense that 'privileged' France had a moral duty to modernise and support the peoples of Asia and Africa. Nevertheless, the underlying motives for colonisation were self-serving political and economic factors.

The rapid global rise of the automobile industry saw insatiable demand for rubber; in 1880, more than 25 large-scale rubber plantations had been established across southern Vietnam alone, and by the 1930s, the country was producing more than 60 000 tonnes of rubber annually, with major companies like Michelin well-established within the burgeoning industry. Mines for coal, zinc and tin had also been built and the extraction of these raw minerals proved wildly lucrative for France. The French also benefited from taxing existing agricultural industries, most notably salt, pepper, rice wine and opium. By the 1930s, 80 tonnes of opium were produced annually; not only did this bring in more the 600 million francs annually (the equivalent of $5 billion today), but the stupefying effects of opium helped to dull local resistance to colonial rule.

For the French colonists and their families, life on the plantations was idyllic. At the Societe des Caoutchoucs d'Extrême-Orient plantation in southern Vietnam, the red-roofed villas of the Europeans looked down over the hills and surrounding areas, with facilities including clay tennis courts and a swimming pool. Near Quan Loi, in central Vietnam, European villas, complete with wine cellars, had beautiful bougainvillea flowers alongside similarly extravagant swimming facilities. When time permitted, they travelled to Saigon or Hue by motor car, and they sent their children to France for a traditional education. While plantation

Source 1: Conditions on rubber plantations, such as Xatrach, were difficult and dangerous.

Source 2: *A Family of Lice Eaters* (1910) was a prominent postcard from French Indochina. It showed the French public the dreadful local conditions that French colonialism was valiantly trying to overcome.

owners grew wealthy, locals toiled under appalling conditions. Known as '**coolies**', they worked up to 15 hours a day in debilitating heat and humidity with limited breaks and access to fresh water (Source 1). Pay was very low and, often, workers were paid with rice rather than money. The death of workers was a daily occurrence; one Michelin-owned rubber plantation recorded more than 17 000 deaths over a 20-year period. Still, the plantations had a steady supply of workers: under French law, rural workers outside the plantations had to complete a ***corvée*** (unpaid public work). All adult males had to 'volunteer' 30 days of labour for the government; an essentially medieval lord–vassal system that had been created by colonialism.

As forest land cover was converted to agricultural land use during the colonial era, environmental degradation increased. Soil erosion led to more silt in local waterways, leading to downstream flooding, and the loss of habitats reduced biodiversity, particularly for larger species, such as elephants. By 1929, more than 90 000 hectares of land had been cleared for rubber plantations in southern Vietnam alone. This change in land use created ideal conditions for mosquitos, which spread malaria among the **malnourished** workers.

Learning ladder 7.3

Impact and legacies

1. Describe the impact of the European Industrial Revolution on Vietnam.
2. Describe how the plantations benefited France.
3. Explain the legacy of the plantations on Vietnamese workers and the landscape.
4. Evaluate the extent to which the intended French legacy of 'mission civilisatrice' was achieved.

Cause and effect

1. What were France's motives for establishing plantations?
2. Describe the short-term and long-term impacts of the plantations.
3. Explain how the *corvée* ensured a constant supply of workers.
4. Explain the cause of hardship for the Vietnamese people under French colonialism.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

How did the Vietnamese resist?

Opposition to the French in Vietnam, a constant theme since their arrival, grew increasingly stronger during the colonial period. Despite the modernisation of infrastructure and increased wealth, only a minority of Vietnamese benefited, and those who did were seen by many of their compatriots as collaborators.

Historical tensions between north and south, along with diverse religious and cultural views, created an uneasy mix that was made worse by the sense that the country was going backwards. Prior to French governance, it is estimated that more than 80 per cent of the population were literate and subsistence agriculture supported entire communities. By the 20th century, literacy had dropped to around 20 per cent and many villages struggled with malnutrition, their farmland now converted to French-owned plantations.

Voices for Vietnamese nationalism grew increasingly stronger. During the 19th century, the scholarly Văn Thân movement advocated for a return to Vietnamese and Confucian values with the motto: 'Demolish the Westerners; kill the heretics'. Throughout the 1860s–1880s, the movement targeted Catholic Vietnamese in villages across central Vietnam, claiming they had been stockpiling weapons.

The Cần Vương movement was even more widespread, drawing in larger cross-sections of Vietnamese society, including the 17-year-old Annamese Emperor Hàm Nghi, who refused to be a puppet of the French and led complaints against their presence and intentions. As French authorities sought direct rule, the movement pushed to restore the Nguyen dynasty's power and expel French forces from Vietnam. They gained significant support from the Vietnamese people, particularly in rural areas, and engaged in **guerrilla warfare** tactics against the French. Movement members sought to challenge French troops in Annam, but given their relatively low numbers compared to other regions of Vietnam, the movement turned its anger to local Christians, massacring more than 40 000 people.

Source 1: *Apotheosis of the Conquest of Tonkin,* c. 1885. This French artwork celebrates France's claimed victory and power in Tonkin.

▲ **Source 2:** Phan Boi Chau (right) with Prince Cuong De, c. 1907

After a series of French military interventions, Ham Nghi was captured in 1888 and exiled to Algeria, where he died in 1944. Although largely defeated, the movement continued to resist the French until almost the turn of the century, particularly across rural northern and central Vietnam.

Despite the end of the movement, **nationalist** voices lingered and Phan Bội Châu and Prince Cường Để (Source 2) founded the Duy Tân Hội (Association for Modernisation) in 1904 with the aim of defeating the invaders, restoring the Vietnamese State, and establishing an independent government. Well-educated and thoughtful, Phan saw that the infrastructure the French had built was a platform for potential nationhood (Source 3).

He sent Vietnamese students to Japan through the Đông Du (travel East) movement, helping them to understand how a new modern country might emerge without the French; the future didn't have to be a return to the past. Phan knew that independence required both organisation and finance, and from exile in Japan and China, he sought revolutionary change. He was inspired by the nationalism he saw in both countries, as Japan defeated Russia in the Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905) and Sun Yat-sen transitioned from

> L'oppression nous vient de France, mais l'esprit de libération aussi. [Oppression comes from France, but also the spirit of liberation.]
>
> **Source 3:** Phan Boi Chau, in a letter to his friend Léon Werth, 1926

monarchy to democracy. He realised that a new Vietnam should be independent and progressive. By 1912, the Việt Nam Quang Phục Hội (Vietnam Restoration League) had been formed and the push for self-determination continued. Phan later noted that for the movement to be truly successful, the hearts and minds of the peasants – who formed the overwhelming majority of society – would be needed.

Despite the growing enthusiasm for independence, French colonial rule continued well into the 20th century. The Great Depression and labour strikes would see troubling times for the plantations following World War I, but the regional ambitions of Japan during the late 1930s, combined with France's own internal struggles during World War II, would see the situation drastically change as the century progressed.

Learning ladder 7.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Describe the Van Than movement.
2. Describe Phan Boi Chau's vision for his country.
3. Explain why the Can Vuong movement was popular.
4. Explain how Phan Boi Chau's ideas were different from those of previous movements.

Perspectives

1. What was the aim of the Duy Tan Hoi?
2. Describe the changes to clothing worn by the Vietnamese people shown in Sources 1 and 2.
3. Explain what 'the future didn't have to be a return to the past' meant for bringing about change in Vietnam.
4. Evaluate the extent of change to Vietnam as a result of resistance movements in the period to 1912.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

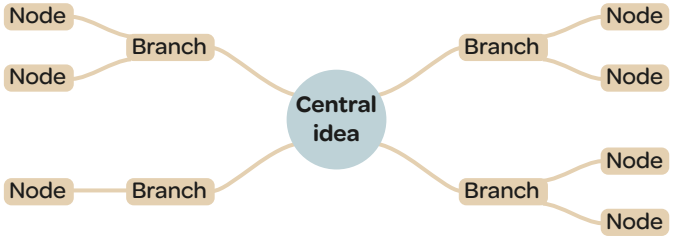
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to Vietnam.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Gia Long, 7.1
- French colonial expansion, 7.2
- Life in French Indochina, 7.2
- Plantation system, 7.3
- Nationalist movements, 7.4

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

8 Imperialism in Indonesia (1750–1918)

HOW WAS IMPERIALISM RESISTED? 8.4

WHAT WAS THE JAVA WAR? 8.3

WHAT WAS THE SPICE TRADE? 8.1

How can I understand imperialism in Indonesia?

During the 18th and 19th centuries, the Indonesian archipelago – was consolidated under the Dutch East Indies. The Netherlands established a lucrative trade monopoly amassing considerable wealth. However, this prosperity was often built on the exploitation of local populations, leaving a legacy that continues to influence Indonesia today.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

▲ **Source 1:** East Indian Market Stall in Batavia ('Dutch East Indies'), painting by Albert Eckhout (attributed), c. 1640-1666. By the time it was colonised, the Indonesian archipelago had long been known as rich in fruits and spices.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

How did the spice trade lead to imperialism in Indonesia?

Indonesia's history before 1750 is closely tied to its role in the global spice trade. Initially fragmented into various kingdoms, the region came under Dutch control through the **Dutch East India Company (VOC)**, which combined trade and colonial power to establish dominance, setting the stage for centuries of imperialism.

Indonesia, as a united country, did not exist at the time Europeans began exploration and trade in the region known as the East Indies. The archipelago, or chain of islands, which makes up Indonesia contains over 14 000 islands, with the largest being New Guinea, Borneo, Sumatra, Sulawesi (formerly Celebes) and Java. Within these islands were many kingdoms, often with different social customs and religious beliefs. The history of Indonesia prior to 1750 is closely tied to the **spice trade**.

During medieval times, the spices grown in this region, particularly nutmeg, cloves and cinnamon, attracted Arab and Ottoman traders. Parts of the Indonesian islands became known as the Spice Islands (Moluccas today). Spices were transported overland via China, India, the Red Sea and Türkiye to Venice, as there was no known direct sea route before 1498. From Venice, the spices were then distributed throughout Europe. Each merchant along the way

Source 1: The spices of Indonesia were highly sought after by Europeans both prior to and during the Age of Imperialism.

Source 2: Ottoman (Turkish) map of the Indian Ocean and China Sea showing the islands of Indonesia, engraved in 1728 by Ibrahim Müteferrika.

added their profit, so by the time the spices were sold in London, Paris and Amsterdam, only the very rich could afford them. Spices were said to be worth their weight in gold. Spices were prized because they made bland food tastier, and some were considered to have medicinal properties.

In 1498, the Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama navigated a sea route between Europe and India, thereby connecting the West with Asia. Further exploration by the Portuguese led to them establishing direct trade links with the Spice Islands in 1512. Soon British, Dutch (the Netherlands) and Spanish traders were competing with the Portuguese for control of the islands. Control of the spice trade made countries rich, and led to conflicts. The Dutch emerged as victorious in Indonesia.

The flow of spices from one part of the world to another sparked the need to develop extensive infrastructure on land and by the coast. This began in the Roman period, extending through the middle ages and is very much the start of globalisation. The result was a lasting change to people's diets in Europe, which became a lot less bland and monotonous. But more importantly, spices became another way to define what it meant to be wealthy and powerful. As a result, the hunger for spices went well beyond their aromatic flavour. In Europe they became a new symbol of high social status.

Source 3: Professor Marijke van der Veen, University of Leicester, 2019, on the importance of the spice trade

▲ **Source 4:** Map of Netherlands (Dutch) East Indies, produced by the American Central Intelligence Agency, 1946

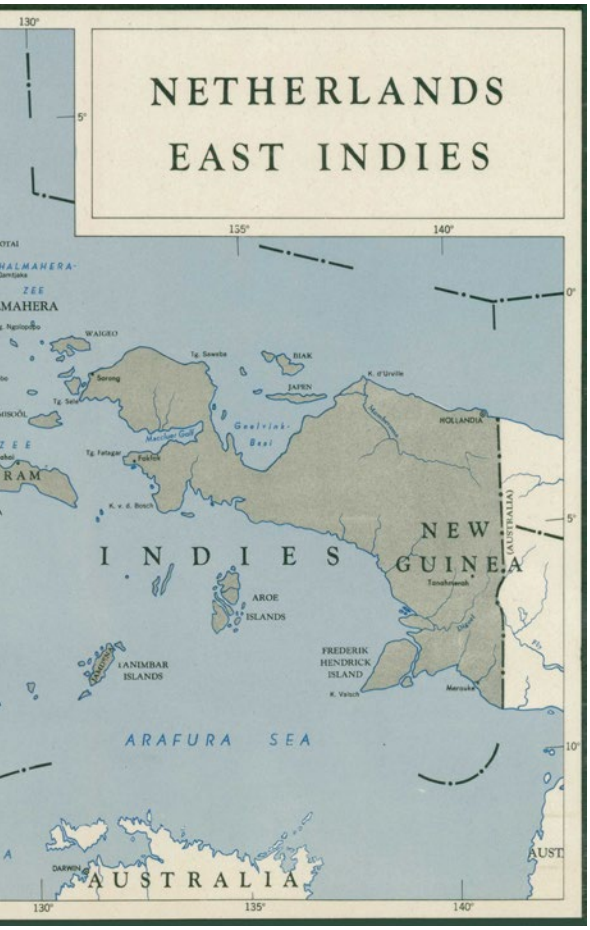
The arrival of the Dutch East India Company (VOC)

In 1579, the provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overijssel, Friesland and Groningen joined together as the Republic of the United Netherlands in an effort to gain independence from Spain. This strengthened their maritime ability, and in 1599 the first Dutch fleet set sail to the East Indies to try to break the Portuguese monopoly over the spice trade. Although not successful, it did lead to further attempts by several Dutch trading companies, each with their own fleet and competing with each other, to take control of Indonesian islands from the Portuguese.

In 1602, the Netherlands government issued an order to all the Dutch trading companies that they must merge into one company called the United Dutch East India Company (Vereenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie, abbreviated to VOC) so that trading could be carried out more efficiently. Only the VOC was allowed to carry out trade in Asia. It also had the power to start wars with island leaders who would not cooperate, create new colonies, set up government, build ports and fortifications, make treaties and even issue its own currency. It had its own army of 10 000 soldiers and 150 ships by 1650.

The VOC defeated the Portuguese at Amboina (now Ambon) in 1605 and established its headquarters there. In 1619, the VOC Governor-General, Jan Pieterszoon Coen, moved the VOC headquarters to Jayakerta (Jakarta today) in Java and renamed the city Batavia. Coen imposed harsh rule on the local population, including a massacre in 1622. When there were not enough local workers, the VOC brought in slaves from West Africa. Although the company's main purpose was trade, it became a colonial power.

Throughout the 17th century, the VOC produced great profits for its shareholders and the Dutch government. Its success during this time was the foundation of ongoing imperialism by the Netherlands in Indonesia.



Source 6: Coins issued by the Dutch East India Company (VOC) between 1700 and 1799

Source 5: VOC soldiers in uniform, 1783

Learning ladder 8.1

Background and origins

1. Source 4: Identify four islands that were part of the Netherlands (Dutch) East Indies.
2. Describe the origins of the spice trade.
3. Explain why the Dutch East India Company (VOC) was formed.
4. Explain the powers of the VOC and how those powers impacted the peoples of Indonesia.

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: In the opinion of Professor van der Veen, what impact did spices have on Europeans?
2. Describe the effect of the 1498 voyage of Vasco da Gama on the spice trade.
3. Explain how the formation of the Republic of the United Netherlands led to Dutch attempts to enter the spice trade in the East Indies.
4. Analyse the effects of the arrival of the VOC in the East Indies.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

How did colonialism develop in Indonesia under the Dutch?

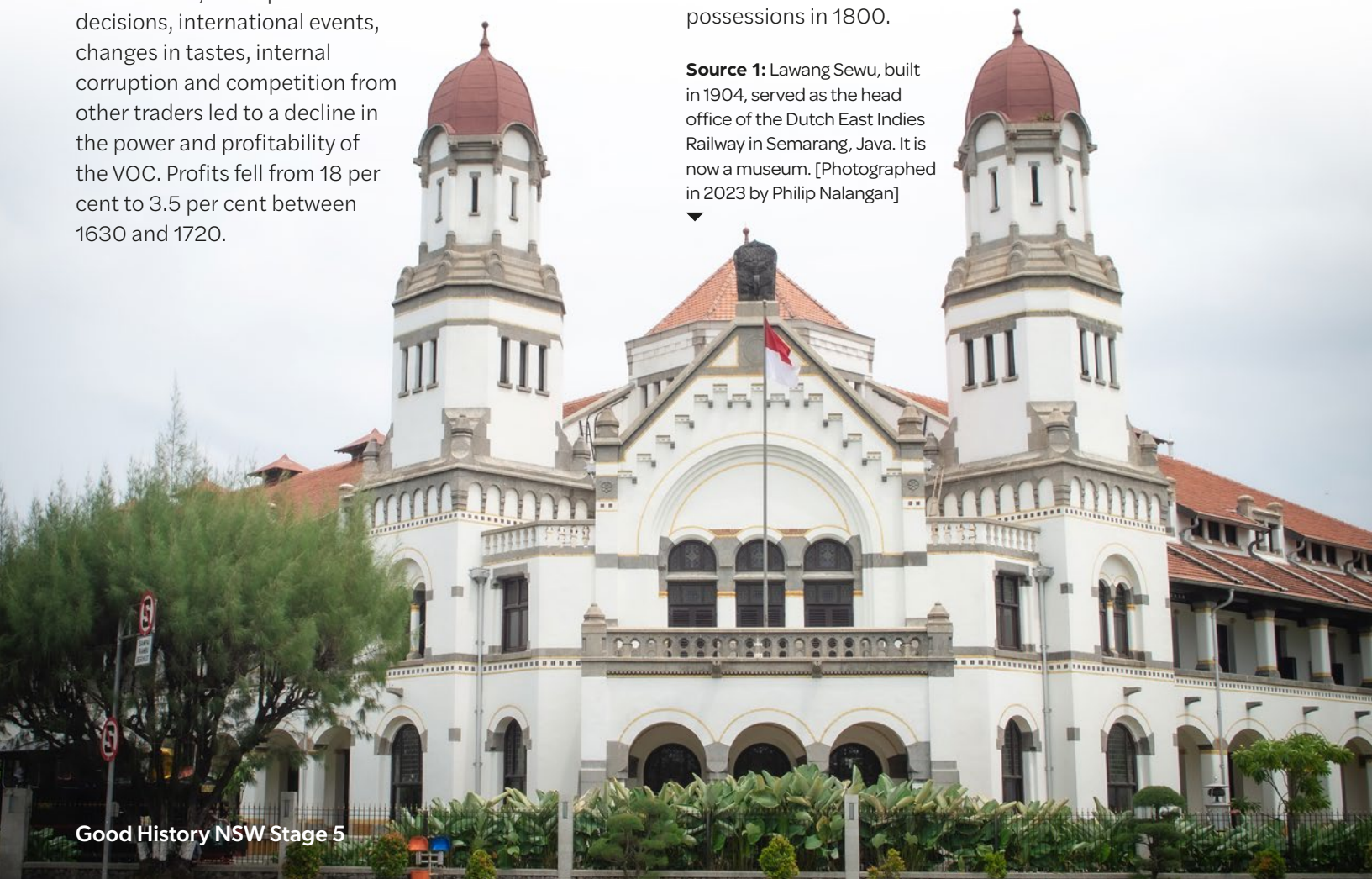
Dutch colonial rule in Indonesia evolved through several stages. When the VOC collapsed into bankruptcy in the 19th century, the Dutch government took over control of the colony, exploiting its wealth to support its own flagging economy. Although some efforts were made by the more liberal elements of the Dutch government to improve the conditions of Indonesia's peoples these reforms ultimately failed to end the rampant exploitation.

The collapse of the VOC

The VOC began to extend its dominance over the islands of Indonesia – particularly in Java – using force where necessary. By 1669, the VOC was the wealthiest company in the world and its shareholders in the Netherlands were receiving substantial dividends (payments) from the profits.

However, some poor business decisions, international events, changes in tastes, internal corruption and competition from other traders led to a decline in the power and profitability of the VOC. Profits fell from 18 per cent to 3.5 per cent between 1630 and 1720.

Between 1730 and 1799 the VOC started to lose its power and eventually went bankrupt. Its financial situation was severely worsened by the Fourth Anglo-Dutch War (1780–1784) when the British Royal Navy attacked VOC settlements and interrupted trade. The VOC's board of directors was sacked in 1796 and in 1799 the Dutch government cancelled the company's monopoly agreement in the East Indies, taking over its possessions in 1800.



Source 1: Lawang Sewu, built in 1904, served as the head office of the Dutch East Indies Railway in Semarang, Java. It is now a museum. [Photographed in 2023 by Philip Nalangan]

The colonisation of Indonesia by the Dutch, 1782–1920

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Dutch imperialism

At the time the Dutch government took control of the East Indies from the VOC, Napoleon of France was conquering Europe. Herman Daendels – although Dutch – was appointed by Napoleon as Governor-General of Java from 1808 to 1811. During this time, Daendels divided Java into districts and appointed Dutch administrators in each, who were responsible for laws, public affairs and agriculture.

The British, who were fighting Napoleon, took possession of Java and installed their own Governor-General, Sir Stamford Raffles, from 1811 to 1816. Raffles continued the reorganisation of Java's administration and introduced a land tax that required the Javanese to pay approximately two-fifths of the value of their annual harvests to the British colonial government. Following Napoleon's defeat, the British returned possession of the Dutch East Indies to the Netherlands in 1816. The administrative systems set up by Daendels and Raffles ensured the Dutch had an effective way of imposing colonial rule over the local populations and their leaders.

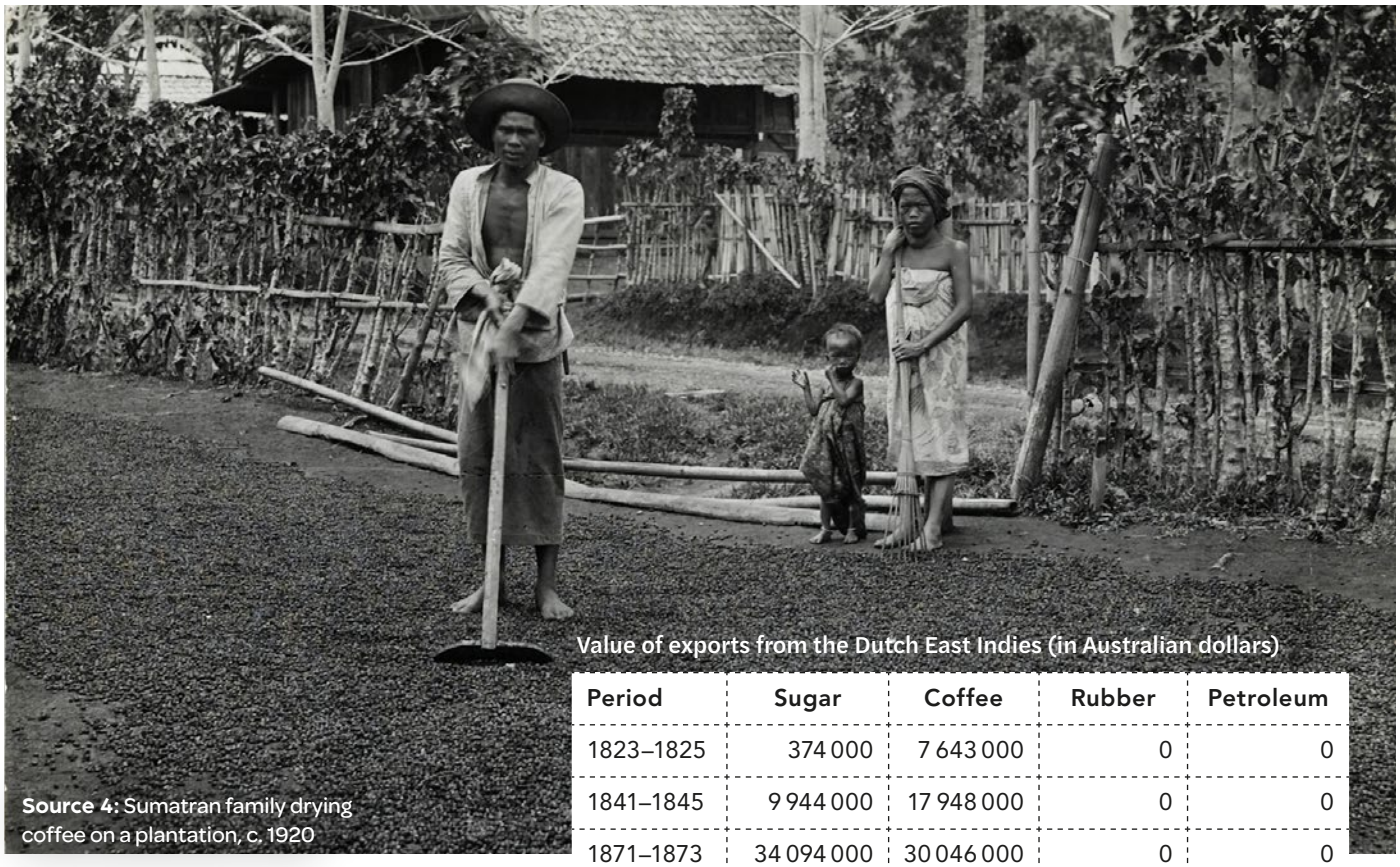
The Cultivation System

By the 1830s, the Dutch government was facing financial difficulties. They looked to Java to become a major source of income for the Netherlands, which they aimed to achieve by controlling what crops were grown and the prices that Javanese peasant farmers would be paid for them. This was known as the **Cultivation System** and led to oppressive conditions for those working on their own farms or on plantations. Not all the harshness inflicted under the Cultivation System was caused by the Dutch; local Javanese upper classes also profited from this approach to agriculture, price fixing and taxation.

Source 2: Initially, the Dutch only controlled small (but important) parts of the archipelago. Outside the Dutch-controlled areas of Java and the Moluccas, many regions of Indonesia were governed by native kingdoms and sultanates. These states often retained a high degree of autonomy, even as the Dutch expanded their influence in other regions.

Source 3: 'The sorting of coffee', postcard, 1910 (from a photograph taken c. 1905)

A further restructuring of the Cultivation System occurred in 1850. Up until this time, profits from the Dutch East Indies provided 19 per cent of the Netherlands' total income; after 1850, this grew to 33 per cent.



Source 4: Sumatran family drying coffee on a plantation, c. 1920

Value of exports from the Dutch East Indies (in Australian dollars)

Period	Sugar	Coffee	Rubber	Petroleum
1823–1825	374 000	7 643 000	0	0
1841–1845	9 944 000	17 948 000	0	0
1871–1873	34 094 000	30 046 000	0	0
1901–1905	55 907 000	17 714 000	1 414 000	11 954 000
1918	135 482 000	2 361 000	53 942 000	139 835 000

▲ **Source 6:** Adapted from Hiroyoshi Kano (2008), *Indonesian Exports, Peasant Agriculture, and the World Economy, 1850–2000*, Ohio University Press.

Source 5: Dutch colonial families at a celebratory dinner on a coffee and rubber plantation on Sumatra, c. 1910–1915

The Liberal Period

By 1870, the Dutch parliament in the Netherlands was being influenced by its more liberal members. They believed the Cultivation System was unfair, and they introduced reforms intended to make life better for the local population. This became known as the Liberal Period (c. 1870–1900). In practice, Javanese farmers and workers continued to endure foreign exploitation and control. Private enterprise also expanded.

Colonial expansion

A surge of European imperialism in the region in the later 19th century led the Dutch to expand their territory in the East Indies to prevent other nations from making a claim. Resistance to Dutch colonial expansion varied across Indonesia. In some regions, such as Aceh in Sumatra, rulers waged prolonged armed conflicts against the Dutch, sometimes lasting for decades (see 8.3 in this chapter). In other areas, local leaders opted for negotiation or limited non-cooperation with the Dutch. These efforts were ultimately no match for Dutch military and administrative efficiency, and by the early 20th century the incorporation of Java and other neighbouring islands into a single colonial entity had essentially been completed.

Sugar, coffee, pepper and tobacco continued to be common exports from the Dutch East Indies, but by 1900 petroleum, rubber, copra, palm oil and fibres were increasing in production as greater profit could be made. Agricultural exports were grown on large-scale European-owned plantations (called estates) and by local farmers on small plots of land. This meant that crops like rice for the local food supply were grown on poor-quality land, often leading to starvation. When oil became profitable, the Shell Group became the main producer of petroleum.

The Ethical Policy

From 1900 onwards, further concerns were expressed in the Netherlands about the poor treatment of the Indonesian peoples under Dutch colonialism. It was felt the Dutch owed a debt to Indonesia for the wealth they had extracted over the preceding decades. In her annual speech in 1901, Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands announced that a new policy – the Ethical Policy – would be launched to raise living standards, including by establishing schools and hospitals. This policy was largely a failure; education did not reach the majority of the population and death rates remained high. However, it did contribute to the growth of nationalism among educated Indonesians, although Indonesian independence would not come until after World War II.

> The history of Dutch colonial administration is one of the most extraordinary relations of treachery, bribery, massacre, and meanness … Wherever [the Dutch] set foot, devastation and depopulation followed. Banjuwangi, a province of Java, in 1750 numbered over 80 000 inhabitants, in 1811 only 18 000.
>
> **Source 7:** Karl Marx (1867), *Capital*, Vol. 1.

Learning ladder 8.2

Impact and legacies

1. Identify one enduring legacy of Dutch colonial rule in Indonesia mentioned in the text.
2. Describe how the Cultivation System represents a legacy of Dutch rule in Indonesia.
3. Explain how the introduction of the Cultivation System affected the economic and social conditions of Indigenous Indonesians.
4. Why did the Dutch government's liberal reforms fail to end exploitation of the Indonesian people?
5. Evaluate whether the overall legacy of Dutch colonialism was primarily beneficial or harmful to Indonesia.

Perspectives

1. Identify one historical figure or group mentioned in the text that held a particular viewpoint on Dutch colonial rule.
2. Describe the perspective of the Dutch authorities on colonial expansion or economic control in Indonesia.
3. Source 7: Explain Karl Marx's viewpoint on Dutch colonialism. How did he perceive the Dutch role in Indonesia?
4. Compare the perspectives of the Dutch colonial government and local Indonesian elites on the introduction of the Cultivation System.
5. Evaluate which perspective (Dutch government, liberal reformers or local Indonesians) you find most convincing, using evidence from the text to support your judgement.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

What was the significance of the Java War?

The Java War arose from economic exploitation, political interference and religious tensions under Dutch rule. Despite heavy casualties and Diponegoro's efforts, the uprising failed, strengthening Dutch control and leading to the exploitative Cultivation System. Diponegoro has since been honoured as a National Hero.

Source 1: Portrait of Prince Diponegoro by Carel Christiaan Anthony Last, 1835

Background to the war

The Java War was a major uprising led by Prince Diponegoro, a member of the royal family of Yogyakarta, against Dutch colonial rule between 1825 and 1830. The immediate cause of the conflict was a plan by the Dutch to build a road across land owned by Diponegoro where the tomb of his parents was situated.

Like most wars, there were background causes that created the conditions for a relatively minor event to trigger a large-scale effect. In the case of the Java War:

- the Javanese opposed being economically exploited by the Dutch, including through high taxes, low wages and being forced to grow the crops required by the Dutch
- members of the Javanese aristocracy resented the Dutch government's control over local decision making and increased taxation of their wealth
- there were religious differences between the Javanese followers of Islam and the Christian Dutch colonial rulers.

How was the war fought?

The war began with a spontaneous outburst of violence against the Dutch in rural areas in central Java. Coffee plantations, tax offices and toll gates were attacked, and the Chinese community was targeted. (The Chinese were viewed as outsiders, aligned with the Dutch colonisers, but there was also a long-standing history in the region of anti-Chinese prejudice.)

Prince Diponegoro emerged as a popular leader as he was able to appeal to both the upper class aristocracy and the common people. Fifteen of the Javanese 29 princes joined with him and villagers fought alongside local soldiers in an attempt to drive out all signs of Dutch colonialism. Also joining Diponegoro was Kyai Maja, an Islamic leader, and his followers; this group viewed the conflict as a holy war to establish an Islamic government rather than as an anti-colonial uprising against the Dutch.

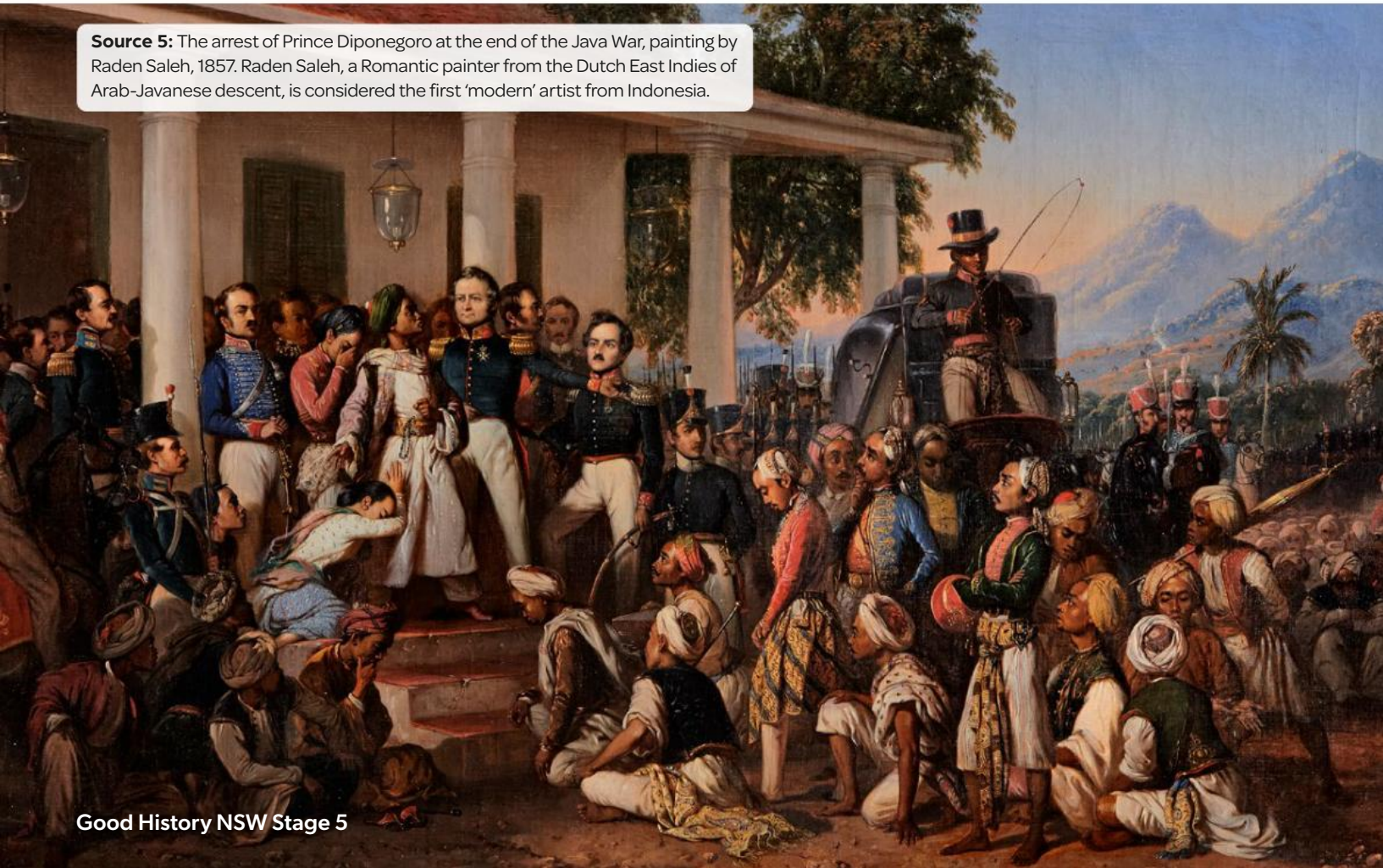
Source 2: Prince Diponegoro riding his horse. Statue by sculptor Munir Pamuntjak, 2005

The fighting strategy of Diponegoro's forces was **guerrilla warfare**. Rather than face the Dutch in a head-on battle, they used hit-and-run tactics and local knowledge to achieve victories in 1825. Villagers were recruited to block roads and burn bridges to prevent the Dutch from advancing. Despite early successes, Diponegoro's progress had stalled by the end of 1826, although he maintained control of central Java.

The Dutch realised their method of fighting was not effective. They appointed a new commander, Hendrik Merkus de Kock, who adopted a new fighting method known as the benteng strategy. This involved establishing a system of small, closely spaced forts that could support each other if under attack. Once the Dutch captured a piece of territory, they would gradually move to the next, then the next. Slowly, Diponegoro's forces became isolated, unable to receive the local support they needed to keep fighting. In November 1828, a further blow was struck when Kyai Maja and other Islamic leaders surrendered to the Dutch.

Source 3: Portrait of Hendrik Merkus, Baron de Kock, Army Commandant and, after 1826, Lieutenant Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies, by Cornelis Kruseman

Source 4: The submission of Diponegoro to Lieutenant-General Hendrik Merkus Baron de Kock by Dutch painter, Nicolaas Pieneman



Source 5: The arrest of Prince Diponegoro at the end of the Java War, painting by Raden Saleh, 1857. Raden Saleh, a Romantic painter from the Dutch East Indies of Arab-Javanese descent, is considered the first 'modern' artist from Indonesia.

Throughout 1829, the situation further worsened for Diponegoro. His uncle, Pangeran Mangkubumi, surrendered in September and was able to return to Yogyakarta and rejoin the Dutch-controlled aristocracy. The following month, his chief commander also surrendered after being promised a senior officer's role in the colonial army.

By 1830, Prince Diponegoro was on the run and his uprising was all but defeated. He was tricked into attending peace talks in Dutch-controlled territory. Here he was arrested and exiled to Manado, then later to Makassar, where he died in 1855.

Impact of the war

By the end of the Java War, 20 000 of those fighting on the side of Prince Diponegoro against Dutch colonialism had been killed. On the other side, 8000 Dutch soldiers along with 7000 local troops lay dead. The largest loss was the estimated 200 000 civilians who died from starvation, disease or other causes.

In terms of breaking free from Dutch colonial rule, nothing was achieved – in fact the princes in the kingdoms of Surakarta and Yogyakarta lost the political independence they had enjoyed before the Java War.

The war had been financially costly to the Dutch and would lead to the introduction of the Cultivation System, in which villagers were forced to grow export crops such as coffee, sugar, tea, cinnamon, pepper, tobacco, cotton and silk and sell these for fixed prices to the Dutch government. This system became very profitable for the Dutch and would allow them to continue to control the East Indies for more than another century.

In 1973, Prince Diponegoro was made a National Hero of Indonesia in recognition of his fight for independence of Dutch colonial rule.

> The Java War was not a modern anti-colonial movement. Diponegoro and his followers probably did not want to restore an idealized, precolonial past. Nor did they envision an independent, modern nation. Rather they sought a Javanese heartland free of Dutch rule. Because of his anti-Dutch role, Diponegoro is one of modern Indonesia's national heroes.
>
> **Source 6:** William H. Fredrick and Robert L. Worden (eds.) (1993), *Indonesia: A Country Study*, 5th edn, Library of Congress, p. 36.

Learning ladder 8.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Prince Diponegoro was not successful in the Java War. Why could he still be considered a significant individual?
2. Describe how Prince Diponegoro was able to gain mass support in 1825.
3. Explain what caused the Dutch to change their method of fighting and why this was successful.
4. Source 6: How does this help explain why Prince Diponegoro was made a National Hero in 1975?
5. Source 2: What feelings about Prince Diponegoro do you think the sculptor who created this statue wanted to communicate?

Source analysis

1. Source 5: Identify the source type and explain who created it.
2. Sources 4 and 5: Describe the similarities and differences in how Prince Diponegoro and the Dutch are depicted in these sources.
3. Source 6: Explain what kind of information a written source can provide that an artwork may not.
4. Source 4: How might the origin and purpose of this source affect how the event is portrayed?
5. Evaluate which source – a painting or a written historical account – is more useful for understanding the significance of Prince Diponegoro, giving reasons for your answer.

Source analysis, page 493

HOW TO

How was imperialism resisted in Indonesia?

Although 'Indonesia' at the time of Dutch colonisation was in fact 300 separate societies speaking over 700 languages, the islands' shared experiences of Dutch rule would lead to the rise of Indonesian nationalism, particularly in the 20th century. Despite numerous local uprisings to resist foreign control, unity and independence would not be achieved until after World War II.

Growth of nationalist movements

The beginnings of **nationalist** movements can be found in the actions of Dutch colonial governors who merged or 'reconciled' neighbouring states and small kingdoms as part of maintaining order and control, particularly in the islands outside of Java and Sumatra. Under the rule of Governor-General van der Wijck (served 1893–1899) and Governor-General van Heutz (served 1904–1909), reconciling was undertaken in Kalimantan (Borneo), Sulawesi and other eastern parts of the Dutch East Indies.

In May 1908, the Budi Utomo (meaning 'noble endeavour') organisation was founded in Batavia (now Jakarta) with the aim of developing the Javanese people. This is considered the first Indonesian nationalist movement; however, it was more of a Javanese cultural group comprised of upper class males than a political party aimed at overthrowing the Dutch. For these reasons, it never gained mass appeal and was tolerated by the Dutch.

Around the same time, journalist Tirto Adisuryo established the nationalist newspaper *Medan Prijaji* and used a Malay dialect as a common language for Indonesians to communicate with each other. He was critical of Dutch colonial rule and promoted his newspaper as an 'organ for the subjugated people in the Dutch East Indies' and 'a place for the native voices'. In 1912, the Dutch closed the paper down.

In 1909, Adisuryo founded Sarekat Dagang Islam (Islamic Association), which merged into the Islamic Society three years later. Its aims were self-government free from the Dutch and the establishment of an Islamic state. By 1916, it had 80 branches and 350 000 members.

The Dutch socialist Henk Sneevliet established the Indies Social Democratic Party in 1914, which introduced communism to Indonesia. The party worked in partnership with the Islamic Society for a period, as both were anti Dutch colonialism.

Ki Hajar Dewantara (Soewardi Soerjaningrat), 1889–1959

Ki Hajar Dewantara was born into the Javanese nobility. He began his working life as a journalist and developed an interest in political movements that aimed to weaken Dutch control. He joined Budi Utomo and wrote many newspaper articles with anti-colonial themes.

In 1913, the Dutch were planning celebrations to mark the 100-year anniversary of gaining independence from French control. Dewantara published an article titled 'If I Were a Dutchman' that criticised the Dutch plan to collect payments from the local population to finance the anniversary festivities. It also called for independence from colonial rule.

The Dutch authorities feared Dewantara's writings might cause a nationalist revolt. Dewantara and his colleagues were subsequently arrested and exiled to the Netherlands.

Due to the work of organisations such as the Budi Utomo and Islamic Society, and individuals such as Tirto Adisuryo and Ki Hajar Dewantara, the **Indonesian National Awakening** occurred in the early part of the 20th century.

Really, if I were Dutch, then I would never have wanted to celebrate a commemoration party like that here in a country we colonised. First give the oppressed people freedom, only after that we will commemorate our own independence!

Source 1: Ki Hajar Dewantara (1913), 'If I were a Dutchman', *De Expres*.

Source 2: Statue of Ki Hajar Dewantara

1780–1802	Seram Islanders, under the leadership of Prince Nuku, fought to unite North and South Maluku (Moluccas) and gain independence from Dutch control
1816	Battle between Dutch colonial forces and Moluccan rebels on Saparua Island
1825	Battle of Sulit Air in Sumatra; the Padri defeated the Dutch and expelled them from the area as part of spreading a form of Islam
1877–1904	Ongoing attempts to resist Dutch control of Aceh
1894	Lombok War; Balinese and Sasak people, led by the island's rulers, resisted the establishment of Dutch control of Lombok.

Source 3: Examples of resistance

Resistance

As there was no unified country of Indonesia in the period 1750–1918, there was no national mass opposition to Dutch control. However, that does not mean there were not rebellions to resist suppression by the colonial power.

The **resistance** efforts were typically local uprisings to either prevent Dutch occupation or seek freedom from oppression. There were also battles fought with religious motives.

The Aceh War and Tjut Nja Dhien

When the Dutch attempted to take control of Aceh in 1873, a series of wars broke out that would last until 1912. During this time, three major battles were fought, along with ongoing guerrilla warfare by local Acehnese resistance.

An increasing number of women became resistance fighters, including Tjut Nja Dhien (or Cut Nyak Dhien), the daughter of an aristocrat, who would lead an Acehnese guerrilla army.

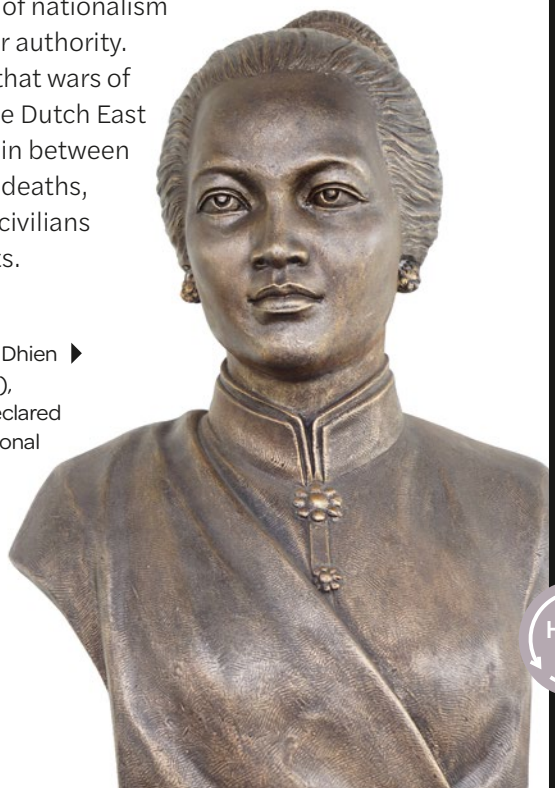
Source 4: *Lombok*, 1894, painting by J. Hoynck van Papendrecht (1858–1933), created in 1915

Source 5: *Dutch–Aceh War – the Battle of Samalanga, 26 August 1877*

Dhien's direct involvement was motivated by the killing of her father and first husband by Dutch colonial forces. She began leading her own fighters and eventually merged her army with that of Teuku Umar, a leader of the Aceh guerilla campaign. Dhien married Umar in 1880 on the condition that he would not stop her from continuing to fight.

Dhien was the chief strategist of the combined army and later would lead it, following the death of Umar in 1899. Despite major losses inflicted by the Dutch, she refused to surrender and maintained leadership of her guerrilla forces until 1905, when she was captured. Dhien was exiled to Java, where she continued to express anti-Dutch sentiment until her death in 1908.

The Dutch were able to consolidate their colonial rule throughout Indonesia from 1901 to 1918 and temporarily prevent a wave of nationalism weakening their authority. It is estimated that wars of resistance in the Dutch East Indies resulted in between 3 and 4 million deaths, including both civilians and combatants.



Source 6: Tjut Nja Dhien (or Cut Nyak Dhien), 1848–1908, was declared an Indonesian National Hero in 1964.

Learning ladder 8.4

Impact and legacies

1. Identify whether Budi Utomo was a nationalist movement. Why or why not?
2. Describe how Ki Hajar Dewantara and Tirto Adisuryo contributed to the Indonesian National Awakening.
3. Starting in 1873, the Dutch attempted to 'reconcile' Aceh, to bring it under Dutch control. Explain the impact of this policy for Aceh and local resistance efforts.
4. Explain why the Islamic Society gained a larger following compared to Budi Utomo, despite both being nationalist movements.
5. Evaluate the legacy of Tjut Nja Dhien and Ki Hajar Dewantara, who resisted Dutch control in different ways, to the eventual formation of a unified Indonesian identity.

Contestability

1. Identify the different interpretations of Budi Utomo as the first Indonesian nationalist organisation.
2. Source 1: Explain why Dutch authorities may have considered Ki Hajar Dewantara's article, 'If I Were a Dutchman', a threat, while some Indonesians saw it as an important call for independence?
3. Explain how the accounts of resistance fighters like Tjut Nja Dhien and their role in the Aceh War could be contested by different historians or sources.
4. Source 4: Explain how the Dutch perspective shapes this portrayal of the Lombok War, and how might Indonesian nationalists contest it?
5. Considering the varying perspectives of the Dutch colonial government, the Indonesian nationalist movements and modern historians, how can we determine which historical accounts of the Dutch East Indies are most reliable?

HOW TO Contestability, page 506

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

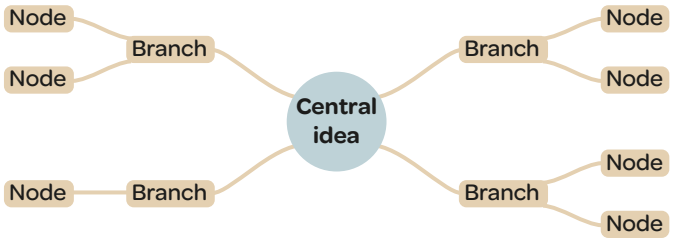
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to Indonesia.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Spice trade, 8.1
- Dutch East India Company, 8.1
- Cultivation System, 8.2
- Java War, 8.3
- Nationalist movements, 8.4
- Tjut Nja Dhien, 8.4

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative (see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

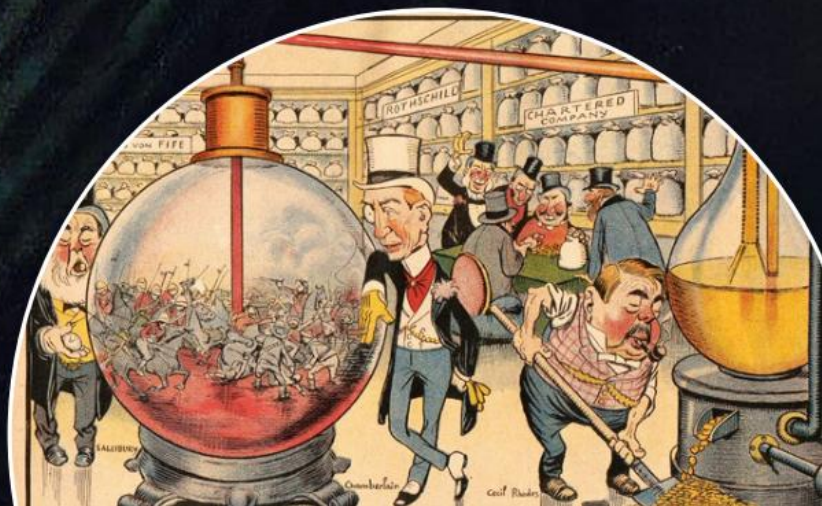
Key ideas and movements (1750–1918)

9

WHAT IS EGALITARIANISM? 9.5

HOW DID SOCIALISM DEVELOP? 9.8

HOW DID CAPITALISM CHANGE THE WORLD? 9.3



How can I understand key ideas and movements?

During the 17th and 18th centuries, an intellectual movement called the Enlightenment emerged in Europe. People's ideas about how the world worked, or how it should work, changed. Ways of looking at economics, politics, philosophy, art and humanity shifted. Conflicting views on these topics led to revolutions, both in people's minds and in the streets.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: George Cruikshank, 'Death or Liberty ... Or Britannia and the Virtues of the Constitution in Danger of the Great Political Libertine', 1819

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

Key ideas and movements

What key ideas emerged between 1750 and 1918?

The Industrial Revolution radically altered the environment, the workplace and patterns of migration around the world. Changes occurred in the relationships between people and in the ways people thought about the world. It was a time of new ideas.

Democracy

Democracy is sometimes referred to as 'rule by the people, for the people'. It is a system of government in which eligible people vote for their representatives. Philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau wrote about democracies in the mid-1700s. However, democratic institutions evolved very slowly and unevenly across the world.

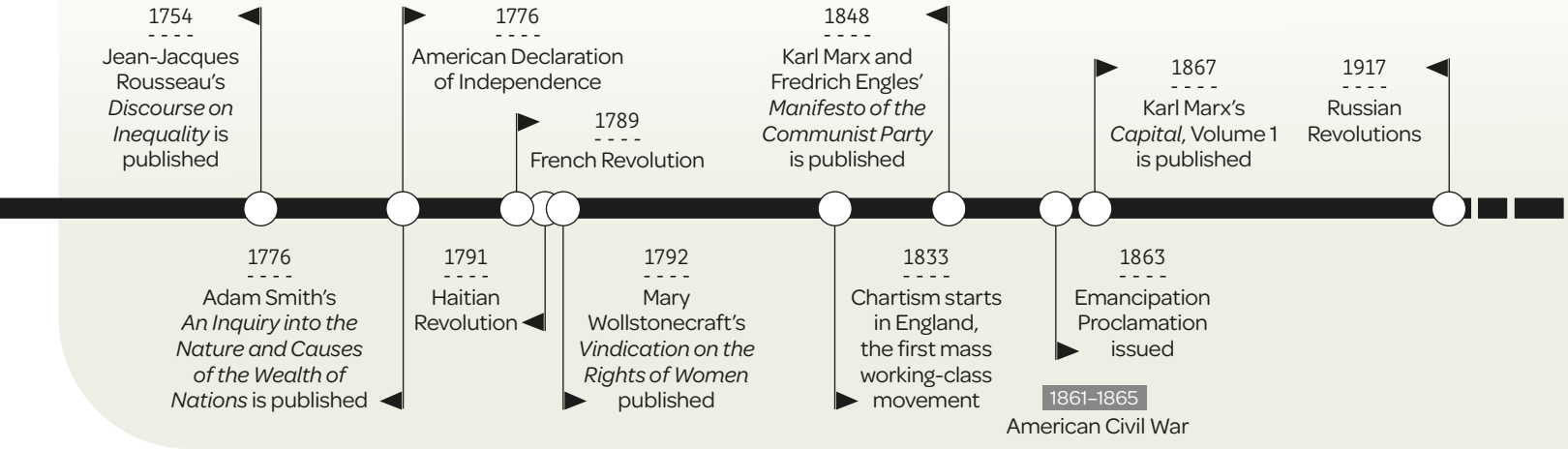
Capitalism

Capitalism is an economic system where individuals or businesses own and control the **means of production** (such as factories and resources) to create goods and services, with the primary goal of making a profit. This type of economic system grew out of a shift from **agrarian** economies to industrialised ones. Capitalism led to the rise of global trade networks and the rise of the middle class.

Source 1: Capitalism split society into factory owners and wage workers, creating clear economic classes.

Source 2: Timeline of key dates for new ideas

key ideas timeline.



Source 3: Sojourner Truth (born Isabella Baumfree) was a prominent African American abolitionist and women's rights activist. Born into slavery in Ulster County, New York in 1797, she self-liberated herself in 1826 and went on to play a significant role in the movement to abolish slavery in the United States.

The Enlightenment began in the late 17th century and was a time of new thinking about society based on reason, natural rights and scientific study, not traditional beliefs involving religion ... leading to new ideas about freedom and equality.

Source 4: How the Enlightenment led to new ideas

Abolition of slavery

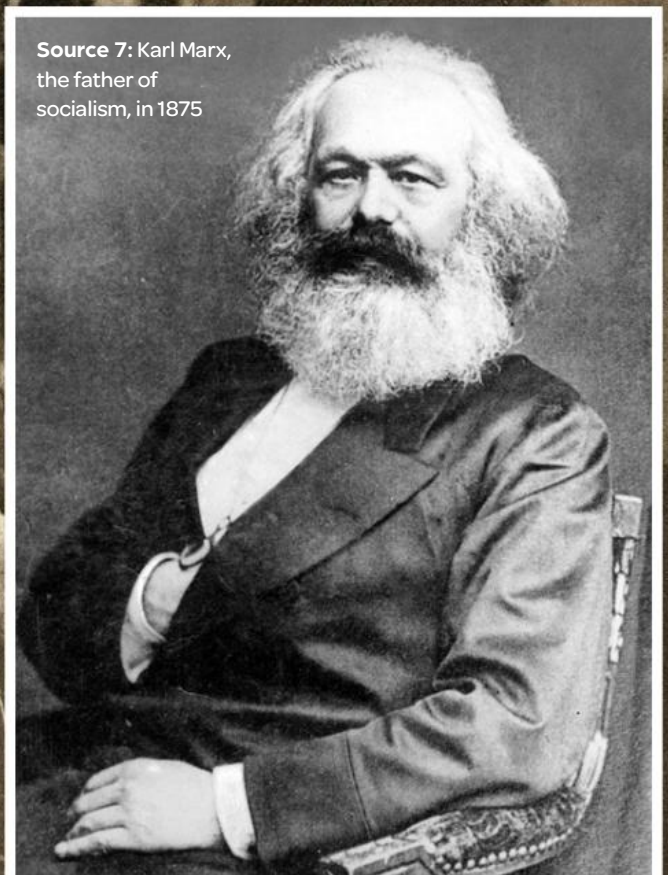
Britain's Industrial Revolution and European wealth in the 18th and 19th centuries was built on the blood, sweat and, often, death of slaves. Inspired by the **Enlightenment**, abolitionist movements in the West and the Americas began to agitate for the abolition of slavery from the mid-1770s. The process was slow and difficult.

That man over there says that women need to be helped into carriages, and lifted over ditches, and to have the best place everywhere. Nobody ever helps me into carriages, or over mud-puddles, or gives me any best place! And ain't I a woman? Look at me! Look at my arm! I have ploughed and planted, and gathered into barns, and no man could head me! And ain't I a woman? I could work as much and eat as much as a man – when I could get it – and bear the lash as well! And ain't I a woman? I have borne thirteen children, and seen most all sold off to slavery, and when I cried out with my mother's grief, none but Jesus heard me! And ain't I a woman? ...

If the first woman God ever made was strong enough to turn the world upside down all alone, these women together ought to be able to turn it back, and get it right side up again!

Source 5: Sojourner Truth, 'Ain't I A Woman?' speech, delivered 1851 in Akron, Ohio. In 1850, Sojourner had published her memoir, *The Narrative of Sojourner Truth: A Northern Slave*. Her firsthand account of the horrors of slavery was instrumental in gaining support for the abolitionist cause.

Source 6: Socialist thinkers were concerned that while industrialisation was generating huge wealth for a few, many people lived in poverty, such as these slum-dwellers in Glasgow in 1868.



Source 7: Karl Marx, the father of socialism, in 1875

Source 8: *Justice Demands the Vote*, American postcard, c. 1913 [Library of Congress (2019), Votes for Women! *The Suffrage Movement Book of Postcards*, Pomegranate]

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is concerned with different forms of equality, including social, civil, political and economic equality. Egalitarian ideals inspired both the French Revolution and the American Declaration of Independence.

Chartism

Chartism was a working-class movement that started in London in 1836. It spread quickly across Britain and was particularly active during the decade starting 1838. Chartists sought political rights and power for working-class people. To spread their message, they held mass meetings and published pamphlets.

Socialism

Socialist thinkers were concerned with ideas about the sharing of power and wealth, and why there were rich and poor people in society. The famous socialist, Karl Marx, argued that capitalists – the owners of industries – stole the economic value created by workers. (It was a bit like wage theft.) Marx's ideas about economic systems became known as Marxism. Marxism had a huge impact in many countries across the world.

Universal suffrage

Suffrage is the right to vote, and universal suffrage is the right for all eligible adults to vote, including women. While some gains were made towards universal suffrage during the 18th and early 19th centuries, major political wins would not come until the late 19th century.

Learning ladder 9.1

Background and origins

1. Who was Jean-Jacques Rousseau?
2. Describe the origin of capitalism.
3. Describe the background of Marxism.
4. Source 4: Explain how the Enlightenment would have led to new ideas about slavery and egalitarianism.
5. Evaluate how Enlightenment thinking influenced the development of both the abolitionist and suffrage movements.

Cause and effect

1. What was the effect of the Industrial Revolution?
2. Describe what caused the growth of capitalism.
3. Explain how new ideas can cause change.
4. Analyse the short-term effects of the new ideas on democracy, the abolition of slavery and universal suffrage.
5. Analyse how industrialisation and Enlightenment ideas combined to cause major social and political reforms between 1750 and 1918.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

What is a democracy?

Democracy is a system of government in which ultimate power is in the hands of the people. This power is used by them, or by the people elected to represent them. Representatives of the people are elected in a free electoral system.

Democracies and autocracies

Modern Western democracy is based on ideas and values that originated in Ancient Greece (civic republicanism) and Rome (the liberal tradition). Today, however, we would not recognise Greece or Rome as being democratic. Only men who had become adults and owned land could participate in 'democratic' processes. Women and slaves had no political rights.

Before the American and French Revolutions, there were effectively no democracies in the world. Since then, the number of democratic countries in the world has grown. Throughout the 19th century, these were mainly electoral autocracies, in which elections were subject to interference and citizens had limited rights (e.g. Russia under Tsar Nicholas). Liberal democracies, like Australia, Canada and New Zealand, which are early examples of this type of democracy, largely developed during the second half of the 20th century. The principles of modern democracy are:

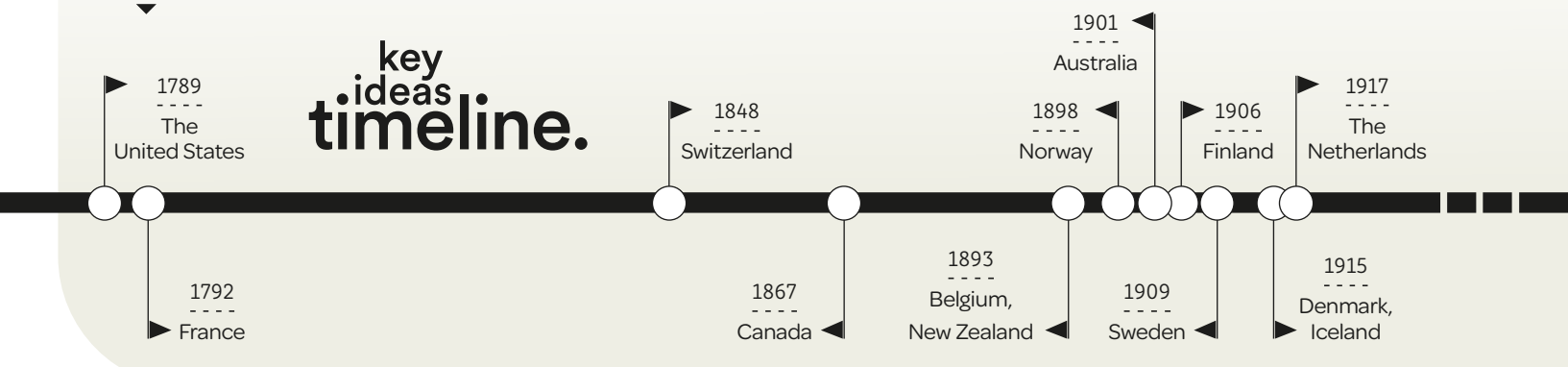
- Popular sovereignty
- Universal suffrage
- Rule of law
- Separation of powers
- Protection of rights and freedoms
- Free and fair elections
- Pluralism.

Now this here Bill, it puzzles me,
For I'll be darned if I can see
Its *Democratic* lines.
Some chaps of boasted intellects
(Whose Demo-cracy I suspects
A-judging by the signs)
Tells us we all will equal be,
And blessed by our prosperity –
If we Votes for the Bill.

Source 2: Poem by a contributor to the radical journal *Toscin* about the Bill for the Australian Constitution, 31 March 1898

Democracy in Australia is protected by the Constitution (1900). Australia's constitution is one of the earliest in the world. It lays down the system of government and separates powers between the federal and state governments. The Constitution contains a provision that prohibits any individual or group from taking absolute power, and it can only be changed through a **referendum**.

Source 1: Timeline of the establishment of modern democracies, 1750–1918



Source 3: An election tally board attached to the front of the *Sydney Morning Herald*'s building on the corner of Pitt and Hunter Streets for the first Australian Federal election in 1901. A policeman is keeping an eye on the board. [Photograph by Ethel Foster, State Library of New South Wales collections, ON 146/124]

Australia's first Federal election

On Friday 29 and Saturday 30 March 1901, the first Australian federal election took place. A few months later the progressive *Review of Reviews for Australasia* monthly said that 'Perhaps there never was a more distracted election. The issue in each State was different ... each State followed its own electoral method, and the result was the strangest patchwork of suffrages and of systems'. The *Review* also noted that there were probably as many as 31 000 informal votes (a vote that isn't counted towards the result) because of voters not completing the form correctly. This was out of a population of 1.3 million eligible voters. The situation would improve in the coming years, with Australia's electoral processes generally recognised as robust by 1918, and now.

Learning ladder 9.2

Background and origins

1. From where did modern democracies originate?
2. Describe the origins of democracy in America and France.
3. Explain the background to the establishment of democracy in Australia.
4. Explain why the democracies of Ancient Greece and Rome were not true democracies.

Significance

1. When was the first Australian federal election held?
2. Describe the significance of the *Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act* (1900).
3. Describe the significant features of modern democracies.
4. Explain the significance of Australians voting to create a democratic federal government.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

How did capitalism develop?

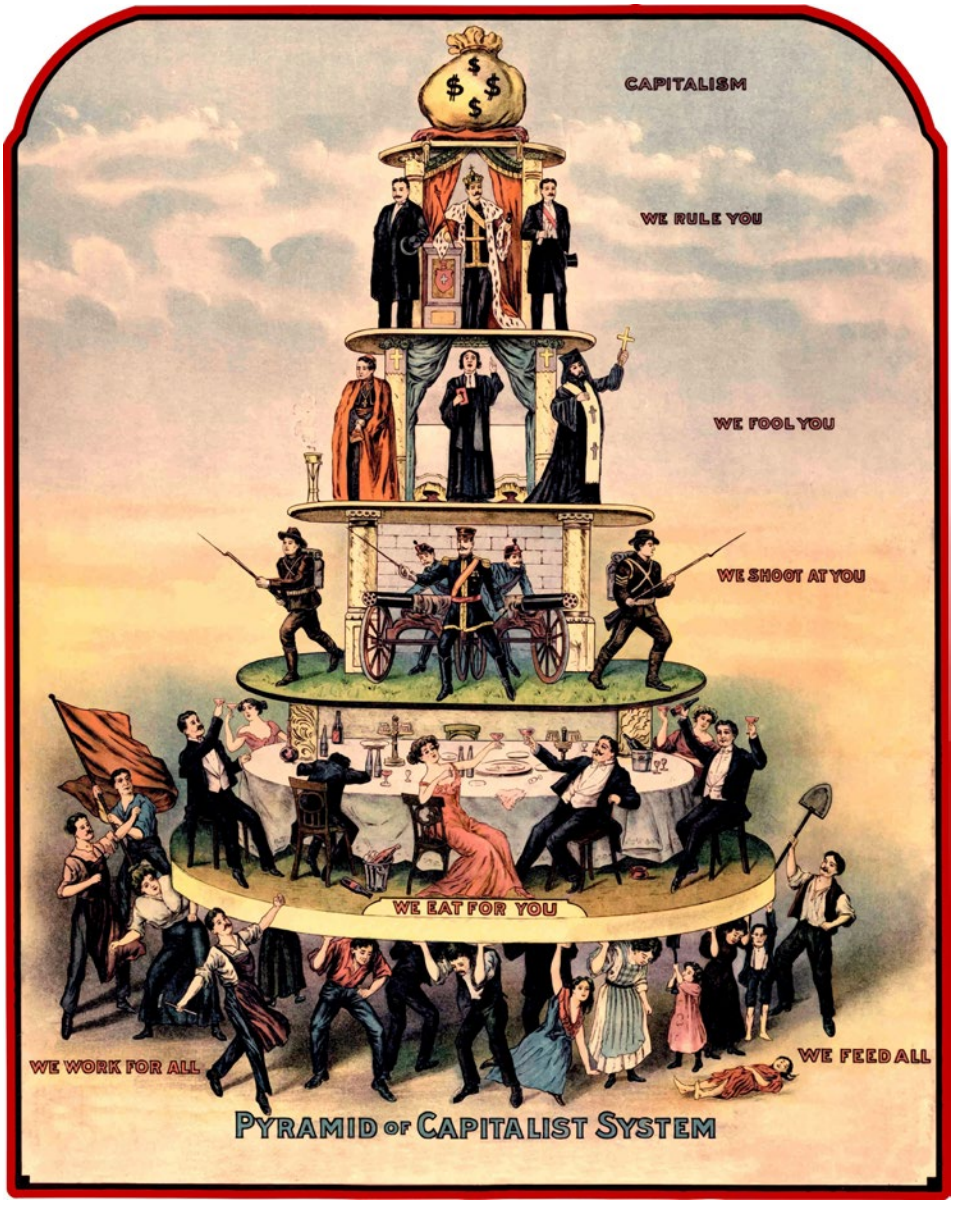
Capitalism is an economic system where production, distribution and exchange are controlled by private owners for profit. The word was used from the 1400s but its modern meaning emerged as a result of the Industrial Revolution.

A number of factors led to the development of capitalism in Europe:

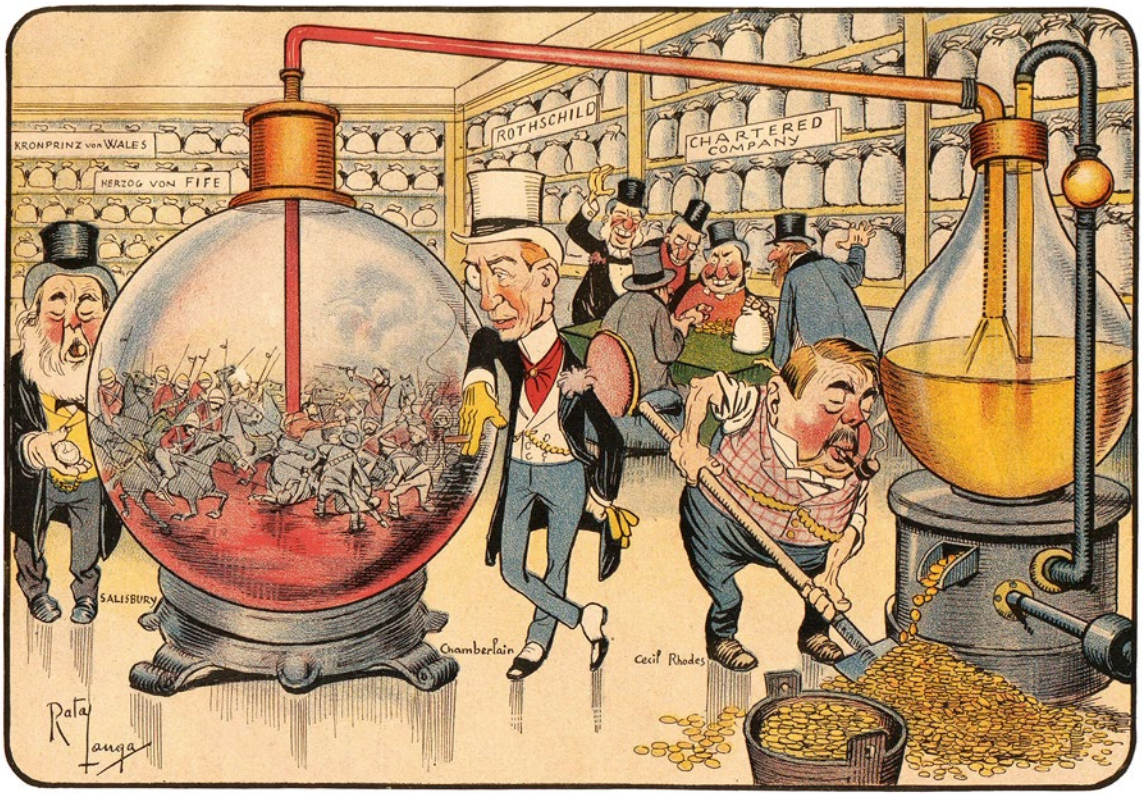
- expansion of trade
- new trading routes across the Atlantic
- forced migration and immigration, largely based on slavery
- massive accumulation of wealth from the exploitation of overseas colonies
- development of new technologies
- development of modern warfare
- new theories about economics and wealth.

> He, who before was the money-owner, now strides in front as capitalist; the possessor of labour-power follows as his labourer. The one with an air of importance, smirking, intent on business; the other, timid and holding back, like one who is bringing his own hide to market and has nothing to expect but – a hiding.
>
> **Source 1:** Karl Marx, *Capital Vol 1*, 1867

Under capitalism, private as opposed to public decisions decide what is produced and what it costs, who works, how much people are paid – based on bargaining – and where the profits go. Socialists argue that capitalists exploit workers' labour for profit.



Source 2: 'The Pyramid of Capitalist System' is a common name for a 1911 American cartoon caricature critical of capitalism, copied from a Russian flyer of c. 1901. The graphic represents social stratification by social class and economic inequality. It was published in the 1911 edition of *Industrial Worker* (The International Publishing Co., Cleveland, Ohio, US), a newspaper of the Industrial Workers of the World, and is attributed to 'Nedeljkovich, Brashich, & Kuharich'.



Source 3: Boer War 1899 German political cartoon 'England and the War in South Africa. War and Capitalism, or the Transmutation of Human Blood into Gold', published in *Der wahre Jacob* magazine in 1899.

Source 4 provides evidence about one way that people have thought about capitalism. It is taken from Adam Smith's famous book *The Wealth of Nations*, published in 1776. Smith (1723–1790) was a Scottish political economist. He argued that governments should interfere as little as possible in economic activities. He thought that free markets generated the greatest economic growth. This approach is called ***laissez-faire***.

Smith also claimed that private individuals driven by self-interest would create more wealth for society. This is called the 'trickle-down effect'. According to this idea, wealth created by capitalists flows down to the lower social orders.

> Every individual [capitalist] ... endeavours as much as he can both to employ his capital in the support of domestic industry ... and ... to direct that industry that its produce may be of the greatest value ... By ... directing that industry in such a manner produce only his own gain, and he is in this ... led by an invisible hand to promote an end which was no part of his intention ... [But by] ... pursuing his own interest he frequently promotes that of the society more effectually ...
>
> **Source 4:** Adam Smith, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, 1776, Book VI, ch 2.9.

Learning ladder 9.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What event gave capitalism its modern meaning?
2. Describe the events that led to the development of capitalism in Europe.
3. Explain how Adam Smith argued that capitalism would create more wealth for everyone.
4. Source 2: Explain the Pyramid of Capitalism.

Perspectives

1. Source 3: Is the perspective on capitalism positive or negative?
2. Source 4: Describe what Adam Smith believed individual capitalists would do indirectly if they pursued their own interests.
3. Source 1: Explain Karl Marx's perspective on capitalism.
4. Sources 2 and 4: Evaluate the views in these sources. Does the perspective in Source 2 support Adam Smith's claims?

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

What were the challenges for abolishing slavery?

While the Enlightenment promoted fact-based reason and inquiry, slavery remained central to empire building and wealth in the West. Even when campaigns called for its end, progress was slow and slavery was often replaced by other forms of cheap or unpaid labour.

Supporters of slavery

Wealthy merchants in London, Bristol, Liverpool and Glasgow, along with textile manufacturers in Manchester, backed slavery. The trade supplied cheap labour to cotton, tobacco, sugar and other plantations in the Americas. These plantations produced huge profits for owners and for linked industries such as shipbuilding, banking (Barclays) and insurance (Lloyd's of London). Many members of Britain's Parliament and local councils also had business interests tied to slavery.

In the United States, the southern states were largely agricultural and relied on enslaved labour, so most southern politicians also defended the practice.

The movement to abolish slavery

By the 1780s, growing numbers of people in Britain opposed slavery. In Parliament, William Wilberforce led the campaign to end the slave trade. In 1807, a law made it illegal for any British ship or subject to trade in enslaved people, yet slavery continued on plantations in British colonies and in America.

From 1861 to 1865, the anti-slavery northern states (the Union) fought a civil war against the pro-slavery southern states (the Confederacy). During the war, President Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, declaring enslaved people in Confederate states free. When the Union won in 1865, slavery was abolished across the nation.

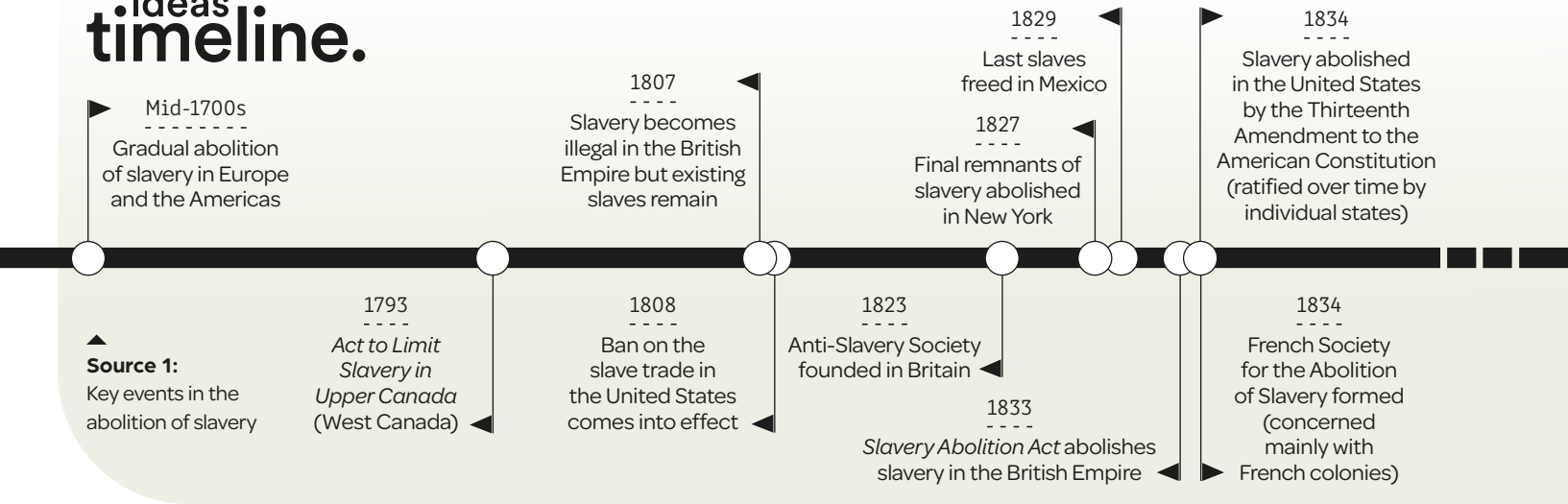
Slavery in Australia

Slavery took several forms in colonial Australia. Convicts transported from Britain after 1788 were forced into labour, and many First Nations people worked for little or no pay.

From 1847, men from Melanesia were taken – often kidnapped – to work on sugarcane plantations for little or no wages, a practice known as blackbirding.

After Federation, the new Commonwealth passed the Pacific Island Labourers Act 1901 and the Immigration Restriction Act 1901. These laws deported most Pacific Islander workers ('Kanakas') as part of the White Australia policy. Ending this form of slavery was driven less by humanitarian concern and more by a desire to exclude people of colour.

key ideas **timeline.**



Source 1: Key events in the abolition of slavery

Source 2: Colourised lithograph of slaves picking cotton, Charleston, United States

> Slavery is not a national evil; on the contrary, it is a national benefit. The agricultural wealth of the country is found in those states owning slaves, and a great portion of the revenue of the government is derived from the products of slave labor.

Source 3: Governor Stephen D. Miller in a speech in 1829. Miller served as the 52nd Governor of South Carolina from 1828 to 1830 and represented South Carolina as a US Senator from 1831 to 1833.

Source 4: Peter, an escaped American slave, was photographed around 1863 during the American Civil War to demonstrate the effects of whipping on his back. Abolitionists used these images very effectively to promote anti-slavery.

Learning ladder 9.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was 'blackbirding'?
2. Describe the events in America between 1861 and 1865 that led to the abolishing of slavery.
3. Source 3: Explain how slavery is justified by Governor Miller.
4. Evaluate the power of the supporters of slavery in Britain in the 1700s.

Continuity and change

1. Which American states wanted slavery to continue?
2. Describe the industries in Britain that wanted slavery to continue.
3. Explain how laws passed in Britain in 1807 changed slavery.
4. Evaluate the patterns of continuity and change that led to the abolition of slavery in Britain, America and Australia.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

How did egalitarianism impact the world?

Egalitarianism is a philosophical view that emphasises equality across economic position, gender, religion, race, legal rights, human rights and political beliefs. The ideas of egalitarianism have been used ideologically to support class systems and social orders, from communism to democracy.

Development of egalitarianism

English philosopher John Locke used an egalitarian perspective when he argued that individuals had natural rights to 'life, liberty, and property'. Karl Marx also used egalitarianism as the basis of his approach to analysing the political economies of different countries and the causes of poverty and disadvantage. As this suggests, egalitarianism evolved over a long time, in different ways in different places. At first, it was primarily concerned with the economic and political equality of white men, but over time the concept expanded to include equality across a range of areas for traditionally **marginalised** groups.

Some societies can be more egalitarian than others, and some ignore or emphasise different types of egalitarianism. Egalitarianism can also be used ideologically to support class systems and social orders. Economic – or material – egalitarianism, for example, is concerned with people's access to wealth in a society. Marxists and socialists contend that everyone should have reasonable levels of income. Many countries have tried to prove they were egalitarian using statistics and other evidence. Sometimes they were; often they weren't.

Egalitarianism can be emotionally appealing. It acknowledges less powerful and disadvantaged people's circumstances, recognises that they did not

Source 1: Queens Place Sydney, 1875 [State Library of New South Wales]

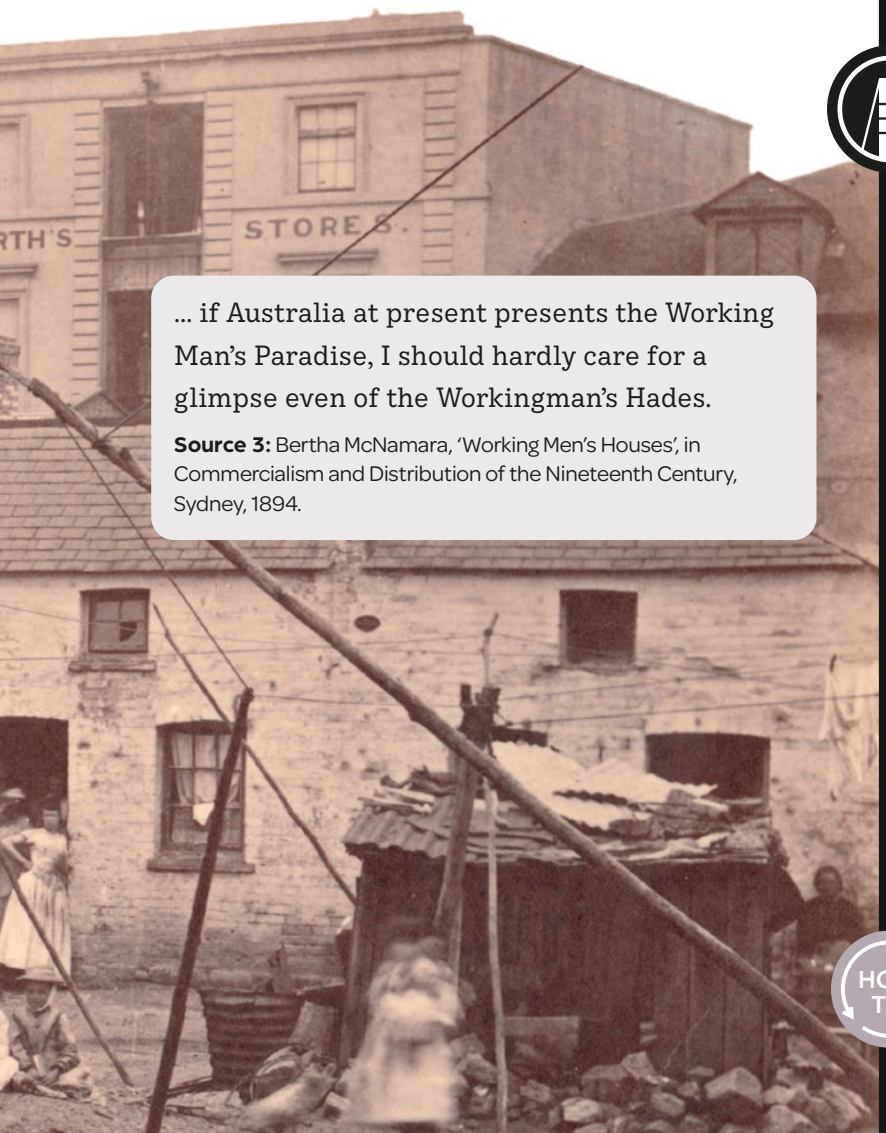
create those circumstances and gives hope by putting forward solutions to these problems. It can be politically appealing to lower classes but can lead to empty populism – unfulfilled promises that do not change the established order.

Was Australia egalitarian in the 19th century?

In the 19th century, some people claimed that Australia was an egalitarian society. Many conservative writers and social commentators built up a picture of Australia as a working man's paradise. But was this true?

> … our people … eat and drink and spend more, work less for the necessities of existence, have a larger share of food luxuries and in a general way get more out of life than the masses of any other country in the world.

Source 2: Frank J. Donohue, *Our Social Condition*, Government Printer, Sydney, 1896.



> … if Australia at present presents the Working Man's Paradise, I should hardly care for a glimpse even of the Workingman's Hades.

Source 3: Bertha McNamara, 'Working Men's Houses', in Commercialism and Distribution of the Nineteenth Century, Sydney, 1894.

> … [considering the] comprehensive documentary evidence available for the period [1860–1900], it become clear that by the century's close, Sydney's slum problem was acute … for city workers needing to reside near to their work, living conditions were as bad as they could be. Here was a major section of Sydney society a victim of … [slow] and largely disinterested government and living in sectors of the city where housing facilities, forgotten by absentee landlords, health authorities, city managers and parliament alike, were grim indeed.

Source 4: Max Kelly, *Picturesque and Pestilential: The Sydney Slum Observed 1860–1900*, Sydney University Press, 1978.

Learning ladder 9.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the seven areas of egalitarianism.
2. Describe the general perspective of egalitarianism.
3. Explain how John Locke and Karl Marx used egalitarianism to support their ideas.
4. Explain how the idea of Australia as a working man's paradise developed.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: Who published this source, and why might they have promoted this view?
2. Source 1: Describe this source. How valuable is it for understanding whether Australia was a working man's paradise?
3. Source 4: How accurate and useful is this source in deciding whether egalitarianism existed in Australia around 1900?
4. Source 2: Evaluate the accuracy, usefulness and reliability of this source, referring to the other sources provided.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

What was Chartism?

In 1832, property-owning middle-class men in Britain were given the vote under the *Great Reform Act*. Working-class men, however, remained voteless. Many of them began to agitate for political change. This started in London in 1836 and spread quickly across the country.

A charter of reforms, called the People's Charter, was drawn up in 1838 by the London Working Men's Association. The Chartists, who took their name from this charter, wanted all men of 21 years of age and older to vote for parliamentarians, and they also called for electoral districts of equal size. The following year, a national petition based on the Charter was drawn up and presented to parliament. However, it was rejected in the House of Commons by a large majority. Another much larger petition was put before parliament in 1848, but it was again rejected by Parliament.

Over time, the movement developed internal divisions, with some Chartists favouring violence over constitutional methods. The movement subsequently collapsed. However, even though Chartism did not achieve its aims, it laid the groundwork for later extensions of voting rights in Britain and beyond by highlighting electoral inequalities and mobilising mass support for democratic reforms.

Source 1: 'Not so very unreasonable!!! Eh?'
John – 'My Mistress says she hopes you won't call a Meeting of her Creditors; but if you will leave your bill in the usual way, it shall be properly attended to.'
Punch magazine, 1848.

We tell your Honourable House ... that the laws which make food dear, and those which by making money scarce, make labour cheap, must be abolished; that taxation must be made to fall on property [such as on big estates and grand homes], not on industry; that the good of the many, as it is the only legitimate end, so must it be the sole study of Government ...

We Demand Universal Suffrage

... The suffrage [voting] to be exempt from the corruption of the wealthy, and the violence of the powerful, must be secret.

We Demand the Ballot

... The connection between the representatives and the people, to be beneficial must be intimate.

We Demand Annual Parliaments

... To public safety as well as public confidence, frequent elections are essential ... We demand that in the future election of members of your Honourable House, the approbation [approval] of the constituency [voters] shall be the sole qualification; and that to every representative so chosen shall be assigned, out of the public taxes, a fair and adequate remuneration [pay] for the time which he is called upon to devote to the public service.

Source 3: The People's Petition, presented to the British Parliament, 1838

▼ **Source 2:** 'The Chartist Demonstration on Kennington Common', 1848. Illustration from Robert Wilson, *The Life and Times of Queen Victoria*, 1900.

Learning ladder 9.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the group in British society who called for change after 1832.
2. Describe the events involving the Chartists between 1838 and 1848.
3. Explain the changes the Chartists wanted in the British electoral system.
4. Explain why the ideas and actions of the Chartists were not successful.

Contestability

1. Identify two different views of the Chartist movement shown in the sources.
2. Describe how the British Parliament and the Chartists had different interpretations of political reform.
3. Source 1: Explain how the cartoon reflects a particular interpretation of the Chartist movement.
4. Evaluate whether the Chartist movement should be remembered as a failure or as a foundation for democratic change. Justify your response.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 506

Key ideas and movements

What were the impacts of nationalism?

Nationalism is, in many ways, about loyalty. The expression of loyalty is focused on the nation and the common bonds that holds its people together.

Defining nationalism

In 1983, historian and political scientist Benedict Anderson argued that nations had to be at least partly imagined because of their size. Nobody could know everyone. For Anderson, nationalism was a relatively recent creation but was universal, since everyone belongs to a nation. It is a powerful idea that people will die for.

According to Anderson, nationalism came about because many people stopped believing:

- languages like Latin were superior for accessing universal truths and connecting with God
- God gave kings, queens and emperors the right to rule society
- humans and the world had the same origin.

> By 'nationalism' I mean first of all the habit of assuming that human beings can be classified like insects and that whole blocks of millions or tens of millions of people can be confidently labelled 'good' or 'bad'. But secondly – and this is much more important – I mean the habit of identifying oneself with a single nation or other unit, placing it beyond good and evil and recognizing no other duty than that of advancing its interests. Nationalism is not to be confused with patriotism … By 'patriotism' I mean devotion to a particular place and a particular way of life, which one believes to be the best in the world but has no wish to force on other people. Patriotism is of its nature defensive, both militarily and culturally. Nationalism, on the other hand, is inseparable from the desire for power. The abiding purpose of every nationalist is to secure more power and more prestige, not for himself but for the nation or other unit in which he has chosen to sink his own individuality.

Source 1: George Orwell – novelist, journalist, critic and democratic socialist – published 'Notes on Nationalism' in the magazine *Polemic* in October 1945. Some people say that it is essential reading for understanding Orwell's famous novel *1984* (published in 1949), which is about an authoritarian state.

Source 2: Fred Rose's 'Angling in Troubled Waters: A Serio-Comic Map of Europe' (1899) shows different European powers 'fishing' for new territories. The US is not directly mentioned but the reference notes that: 'Spain, with hardly a leg to stand upon, is brought to his knees, and has the chagrin [humiliation] to see his own takings hooked by a more skillful competitor, whose $20 000 000 gaff [hook] has just secured a specimen of piscis Phillippinus.' In the bottom left corner, the US has also hooked Cuba and Porto Rico.

The placid shores of the Ipiranga hear
The resounding shout of a heroic folk
And the sun of liberty in shining beams
Shone in the homeland's sky at that instant.
If the pledge of this equality
We managed to conquer with strong arm,
In thy bosom, O Freedom
Our chest defies death itself!
O beloved,
Idolized homeland,
Hail, hail!

Source 3: Translated lyrics of the Brazilian National Anthem, written in 1909

Source 4: In 1876 Bulgarians staged the April Uprising, a rebellion against the rule of the Ottoman Empire. The revolution was quickly put down by the superior Ottoman forces and rebels and entire towns were slaughtered as punishment for their actions. The heavy-handed reply of the Ottomans caused outrage across Europe.

In 1877, Russia began to free Bulgaria from the oppression of the Ottoman Empire. One of the most important battles took place at Shipka Pass between Russian forces and Bulgarian volunteers and the Ottoman Empire (Türkiye). The pass was strategically vital and this battle marked a turning point in the war and helped to achieve autonomy for Bulgaria in 1878.

Different types of Australian nationalism

Nationalism is, in many ways, about loyalty. It can be defined by the country or countries a person is loyal to. It can also be defined by other things they are loyal to or proud of, such as traditions, values and social institutions. A range of different kinds of nationalism are possible.

Australian nationalists

A person may be loyal to Australia and may relate to the 'national identity' promoted in the country. They may feel that they share national values such as egalitarianism and giving people 'a fair go'. These people are 'Australian nationalists'.

Imperial nationalists

From the 19th century, many Australians developed a sense of being Australian. But they also felt a strong tie to Britain. People with this view were called 'imperial nationalists'. They saw Australia as being part of the British Empire.

Radical nationalists

As Australian nationalism grew in the 19th century, some people wanted to break ties with Britain. They were anti-imperial and were also anti-authoritarian. These people became known as 'radical nationalists'.

Social nationalists

Another form of nationalism is 'social nationalism'. This can be expressed in popular celebrations of place and society. Such celebrations might include festivals, parades, the singing of anthems and other songs, art, advertising, sport, cultural institutions such as museums, and monuments and memorials.

Nationalism involves a sense of sharing things in common. These can include common ancestry, language, customs, places of significance, heroes and significant historical events. Such things unite us.

However, nationalism allows little room for difference. Indeed, it draws attention away from such characteristics as class, gender and ethnicity. It is also a very slippery idea, and is something that many groups in society try to claim as their own. Weoften hear politicians attacking their opponents' ideas by saying that they are 'un-Australian'.

Eureka Stockade riot 1854

Diggers on the Victorian goldfields greatly suspected corruption among the officials administering the licences to mine for gold. They also objected to licence fees and the hunts for licences conducted by police. In response, the diggers set up the Ballarat Reform League, which called for:

- all men to get the vote
- salaries for parliamentarians
- access to land
- the removal of the requirement to own property to become a member of the Legislative Council.

These demands were similar to the kinds of demands made by the Chartists (see 9.6) in England in the 1830s and 1840s. Indeed, many Chartists had emigrated to Australia in the 1840s and 1850s. At a mass meeting in Ballarat on 28 November 1854, diggers decided to burn their mining licences. They also displayed the Southern Cross flag – now known as the Eureka flag – at the meeting. Subsequently, led by Irishman Peter Lalor, they built the Eureka Stockade (a defensive barrier). This was partly in response to the governor sending in more troops to the area.

The Eureka riot or rebellion took place early on Sunday 3 December 1854. Around 280 soldiers and police quickly overpowered the around 150 diggers. Five soldiers and police and around 30 diggers died. Although 100 diggers were taken prisoner and 13 were charged with **treason**, no convictions were made. Some people claim that the event at the Eureka Stockade was an expression of nationalism. Others disagree.

See how the loyal are storing up shame for us
Under the light of the Southern Cross.
Never! Oh! never be coward a name for us—
Fling out the flag of the Southern Cross!
England's red flag will bring hatred and worse to it,
Murder and rapine hath brought a black curse to it;
Fling out the flag of the Southern Cross!

Have we not breasts for the bullets of thunderers?
Fling out the flag of the Southern Cross!
Have we not steel for the bosoms of plunderers?
Fling out the flag of the Southern Cross!
Prove ourselves worthy the land we inherit now,
Feed till it blazes the National spirit now!
Fling out the flag of the Southern Cross!

Source 5: Henry Lawson, 'Flag of the Southern Cross', 1887

▲ **Source 6:** *Eureka Stockade riot, Ballarat, 1854,* painting by James Black Henderson

Nowadays it is common to see the noble Eureka flag and the rebellion of 1854 as the symbol of Australian independence, of freedom from foreign domination; but many saw the rebellion in 1854 as an uprising by outsiders who were exploiting the country's resources and refusing to pay their fair share of taxes. So we make history do its handsprings.

Source 7: Geoffrey Blainey, *A Land Half Won*, Sun Books, Melbourne, 1983.

Amongst the foreigners ... there was no democratic feeling, but merely a spirit of resistance to the licence fee ... May it please HER MAJESTY to cause inquiry to be made into the character of such that have branded the miners of Ballarat as disloyal to their QUEEN.

Source 8: Raffaello Carboni, *The Eureka Stockade*, 1854

Learning ladder 9.7

Impact and legacies

1. Identify two events in which nationalism played a role.
2. Describe how nationalism influenced the Bulgarian uprising.
3. Explain how nationalism was expressed during the Eureka Stockade.
4. Explain how different forms of nationalism have influenced Australian identity.
5. Evaluate the impact of nationalism across different contexts. Has it united or divided people?

Perspectives

1. Source 3: Which key terms linked to nationalism appear in the Brazilian National Anthem?
2. Source 7: Describe the perspectives on the Eureka rebellion shown in this source.
3. Source 1: According to George Orwell, what is the difference between nationalism and patriotism?
4. Sources 5–8: Explain the perspectives on the Eureka rebellion. Which sources present it as a nationalistic event, and which oppose that view?

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

How did socialism develop and grow?

The political ideology of socialism was a reaction to the capitalist developments that arose from the Industrial Revolution. There are different types of socialism. Some are radical or revolutionary; others are democratic or reformist.

What is socialism?

The Industrial Revolution had enormous, generally negative, impacts on working people's lives. The political ideology of socialism was a reaction to these developments.

Socialism is an ideology that supports public rather than private control of property and resources for the benefit of all its members. Individuals cooperate to produce outcomes and all contributors are entitled to share in the benefits.

The ideas of socialism are in opposition to capitalism, which is focused on private ownership. According to socialists, capitalism leads to the concentration of wealth and power in the hands of a few, and results in the exploitation of workers.

Reformist socialism

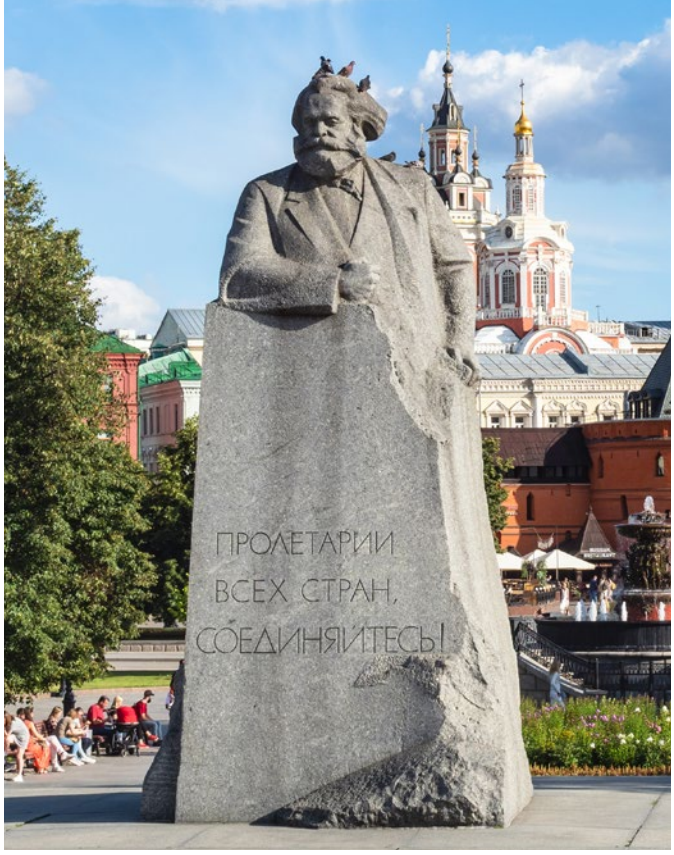
Owenites were inspired by the actions and ideas of Robert Owen (1771–1858), who at age 19 became the manager of a mill at New Lanark in Scotland with 500 workers. As an advocate of socialism, he believed that looking after the welfare of his workers was as important as making a profit for his company. He stopped the employment of children under 10 at his mill and set up a school for them to attend. Owen also provided his workers with housing and advocated for mill profits to be shared with workers. This was a form of reformist socialism.

Claude Henri de Saint-Simon (1760–1825) was another reformist. He was a French aristocrat and economist who argued that government should be directed by scientific experts rather than self-interested groups, and that change could be brought about through fair systems.

Utopian socialism

Utopian socialism views society as cooperative rather than competitive. An early advocate of utopian socialism was Charles Fourier (1772–1837), a French cloth manufacturer's son. He rejected industrialism, which he saw as a passing phase. He wanted a return to 'cottage industries' and **communes** where workers would be rewarded for their labours and undertake tasks that suited their interests and skills. Fourier inspired agrarian communes in America, such as Phalanx in New Jersey.

Source 1: Cosme utopian colony, Paraguay, c. 1895



Source 2: The ideas of Marxism stimulated the Russian Revolution, which became the world's first communist state. In the USSR, monuments to Marx, like this one, were common and many streets and cities were named after him.

In 1891 William Lane formed the New Australia Co-operative Settlement Association, with the intention of founding a utopian communist settlement. According to Lane, it would 'prove to the world that Communism is a practicable system of society' and be the foundations of a powerful communist state. Land in Paraguay was acquired [over 187 000 hectares], a ship bought, and in 1893 Lane and 220 other colonists sailed to found the New Australia commune. Lane's autocratic and even fanatical behaviour soon led to a schism. Less than a year later he and about 60 other settlers left New Australia and founded a new commune, called Cosme. However, Lane's vision of a sober, racially pure commune was to prove just as unattainable at Cosme. It was as a 'broken-hearted, disillusioned man' that he left Paraguay with his family in August 1899.

Source 3: Paul Goldstone, 'William Lane', in *The Encyclopedia of New Zealand, 1996*

Marxism

Marxism became a very influential type of socialism in countries with large concentrations of industrial workers. Developed by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels in *The Communist Manifesto* (1848), Marxism was taken up by working-class political parties in countries such as Belgium, France and Germany.

The philosophy of Marxism explores the impact of the relationship between the **bourgeoisie** (capitalists who own the factories and the tools that workers use) and the **proletariat** (the working class). Marxism argues that capitalists exploit the workers to create as much profit as possible for themselves. For Marxists, society should have no classes based on wealth and power.

Communist governments based on Marxism developed during the 20th century, including in Russia and Eastern Europe, in China and South-East Asia and in Africa. Today, there are five remaining communist governments: China, North Korea, Laos, Cuba and Vietnam are communist governments. In a communist state, the land, factories, machinery and resources are owned by the state, rather than by individuals. All people are supposed to share in the wealth that they work to create.

The bourgeoisie, wherever it has got the upper hand, has put an end to all feudal, patriarchal, idyllic relations. It has pitilessly torn asunder the motley feudal ties that bound man to his 'natural superiors', and has left remaining no other nexus between man and man than naked self-interest, than callous 'cash payment'. It has drowned the most heavenly ecstasies of religious fervour, of chivalrous enthusiasm, of philistine sentimentalism, in the icy water of egotistical calculation. It has resolved personal worth into exchange value, and in place of the numberless indefeasible chartered freedoms, has set up that single, unconscionable freedom – Free Trade. In one word, for exploitation, veiled by religious and political illusions, it has substituted naked, shameless, direct, brutal exploitation.

Source 4: Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, *The Communist Manifesto*, 1848

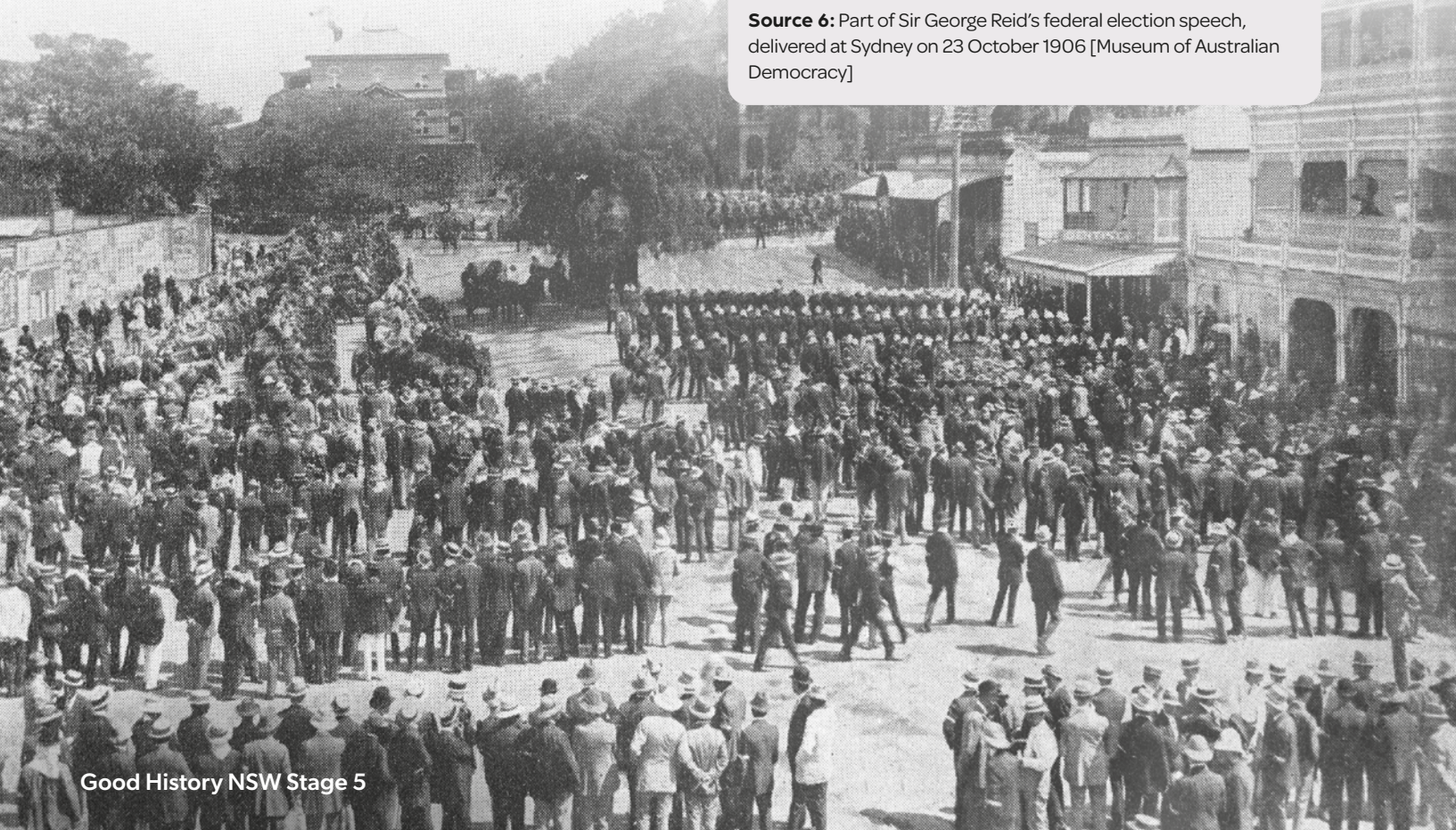
Australian socialism

The Australian Socialist League was formed in Sydney on 4 May 1887. It was influenced by socialist thinkers in the United Kingdom and the United States. The ideas of Continental European thinkers such as Karl Marx had little influence in Australia. Australian socialism was essentially reformist.

Australian and British trade unions fought for workers' rights but were isolated from socialist ideas. The trade union movement responded spontaneously to individual issues as they arose. The first attempts to introduce socialist ideology into early trade unions came from William Lane in the mid-1880s (see Source 3). Lane had some influence in moving trade unions towards socialist objectives, but any gains were lost after the strikes of the early 1890s.

Trade unions soon came to realise that they needed a political voice and a place in government. During the 1890s, trade unions formed the Australian Labor Party (ALP). The ALP won government for the first time in 1899 in Queensland. It was a social-democratic government. When the French sociologist and politician Albert Metin visited Australia in 1918, he said that the country had 'socialism with no doctrine'.

Source 5: 1912 Brisbane general strike, showing the power of the trade union movement in Australia



Australia's Anti–Socialist Party

George Reid was Australia's fourth Prime Minister. His party was defeated in 1905 and he became Leader of the Opposition for the next three years. During this time, he engineered a union of anti-Labor groups with his Free Trade Party and became leader of the new Anti-Socialist Party in 1906. His speeches were attacks on socialism and the Labor Party.

> In its practical operation this power [referring to the Contract Immigrants Act] enables trade unions to force every non-unionist out of a factory. Indeed, if there were 500 unionists and five non-unionists in a factory, the 500 are not allowed by the law, even if willing, to give their label to the manufacturer so long as the five remain! This Contract Immigrants Act makes things really worse for the best sort of immigrants – those who come out, not as adventurers, but under engagement to do work waiting for them. … These men are called 'slaves' or 'chattels'. As if an engagement to Labor left an Australian a free man, yet makes a European something less than a free man!

Source 6: Part of Sir George Reid's federal election speech, delivered at Sydney on 23 October 1906 [Museum of Australian Democracy]

Source 7: Emile Jean Horace Vernet, *The Scourges of the Nineteenth Century: Cholerae and Socialism*, 1850. Horace Vernet was famous for painting battle scenes. His most important patron was King Louis-Philippe. Republican riots in the French 1848 February Revolution forced the king to flee to England and led to Vernet's anti-socialist painting.

Learning ladder 9.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the development that inspired the political ideology of socialism.
2. Describe the ideology of socialism.
3. Describe how Robert Owen applied socialism at New Lanark.
4. Explain how Marxism and utopian socialism differ. What similarities do they share?

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

Cause and effect

1. Source 3: Describe the effect of William Lane's personality on the success of setting up a utopian communist settlement.
2. Describe what caused Australian trade unions to form the Australian Labor Party.
3. Explain what led to the creation of the Anti-Socialist Party.
4. Analyse what might cause a country to become socialist.

What are the legacies of these ideas today?

The ideas that emerged during the period 1750–1918 changed the world, and their legacy can still be felt today. In Australia, egalitarianism and universal suffrage have played an important role in shaping First Nations people's experiences. Egalitarianism also influenced human rights movements, with benefits for many marginalised groups.

The legacies for First Nations people

The ideas of universal suffrage and egalitarianism had mixed impacts on First Nations people in Australia. While colonial egalitarianism promoted ideas of equality and fairness among settlers, it was grounded in a Eurocentric worldview that failed to recognise the rights, cultures and sovereignty of First Nations Peoples. Instead, it reinforced their dispossession and marginalisation. Attempts to include First Nations people in colonial society lay behind the policy of assimilation, which cost people their languages, traditions, cultures and autonomy.

As the human rights movement grew, postcolonial notions of equality – along with an expanded understanding of universal suffrage – helped to include First Nations people in politics, with the right to vote federally granted in 1962. These ideas also supported the civil rights movement, leading to important changes like the 1967 Referendum, which gave the federal government power to make laws for First Nations people and include them in the census.

However, even after gaining voting rights, First Nations people faced barriers like discrimination and limited access to polling stations. Further, egalitarianism often focused on treating everyone the same, rather than addressing the unique needs and challenges faced by First Nations Peoples, like land rights and cultural sovereignty. Today, the legacy of these ideas is still felt, as First Nations Peoples continue to fight for self-determination, equality and recognition of their rights.

> Here is a schism [division] between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australia's understanding and perspectives of how our nation's history has shaped the contemporary circumstances of Indigenous communities, and their relationship with the Australian State. There is a discernible lack of appreciation by settler Australia about the grievances and sense of historical injustice that Indigenous people feel. This must be addressed for Australia to be reconciled.

Source 2: Patrick Dodson, *The State of Reconciliation in Australia*, 2016

Source 1: In 2023, a referendum was held to give First Nations Peoples a 'voice' to advise all levels of government about laws and policies that affect their lives. In support of the 'Yes' campaign, the Minister for Indigenous Australians, Linda Burney, said 'It's about drawing a line on the poor outcomes from the long legacy of failed programs and broken policies, and listening to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.'

The legacies for people with disability

The egalitarian ideals of individual rights and equality led to the human rights movements of the 20th century and became enshrined in international agreements such as the *United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. This declaration is underpinned by eight guiding principles:

- Respect for inherent dignity, individual autonomy including the freedom to make one's own choices, and independence of persons
- Non-discrimination
- Full and effective participation and inclusion in society
- Respect for difference and acceptance of persons with disabilities as part of human diversity and humanity
- Equality of opportunity
- Accessibility
- Equality between men and women
- Respect for the evolving capacities of children with disabilities and respect for the right of children with disabilities to preserve their identities.

These principles have since been enshrined in further conventions and covenants aimed at addressing specific inequalities, such as for women, children and people with disability. For example, in 2008, the United Nations ratified the *Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* to 'promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by all persons with disabilities, and to promote respect for their inherent dignity'.

This has had a significant impact in Australia, stimulating initiatives towards more inclusive education, greater accessibility, strengthened advocacy networks and representation, as well as the introduction of the National Disability Insurance Scheme (NDIS).

Source 3: Dylan Alcott was named the 2022 Australian of the Year. In his acceptance speech, he called on all Australians to challenge unconscious bias around disability.

Learning ladder 9.9

Impact and legacies

1. Identify one example of egalitarianism's impact on modern society.
2. Describe one legacy of universal suffrage for First Nations Peoples in Australia today.
3. Explain the role of egalitarianism in developing the *United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights*.
4. Explain the impact of egalitarianism on improving the lives of people with disability today.
5. Explain how past actions continue to affect First Nations Peoples in Australia today.

Chronology

1. Identify two historical events mentioned in the spread.
2. Describe how rights for people with disability have changed over time.
3. Summarise the key developments that led to greater political participation for First Nations Peoples.
4. Explain how understanding the sequence of reforms helps us evaluate the long-term impact of egalitarianism in Australia today.

Chronology, page 490

HOW TO

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

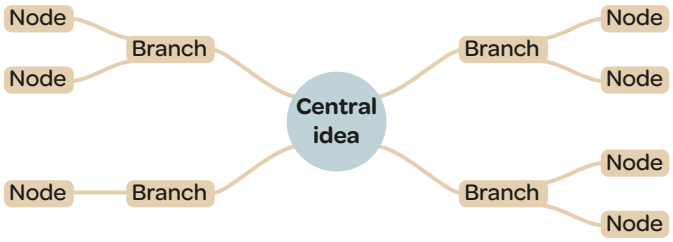
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to key ideas and movements (1750–1918).

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Democracy, 9.2
- Capitalism, 9.3
- Abolition of slavery, 9.4
- Egalitarianism, 9.5
- Nationalism, 9.7
- Socialism, 9.8

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (core)

10 Australia: Making a nation – from Federation to WWI (1889–c. 1919)

10.0

How can I understand the Australian nation

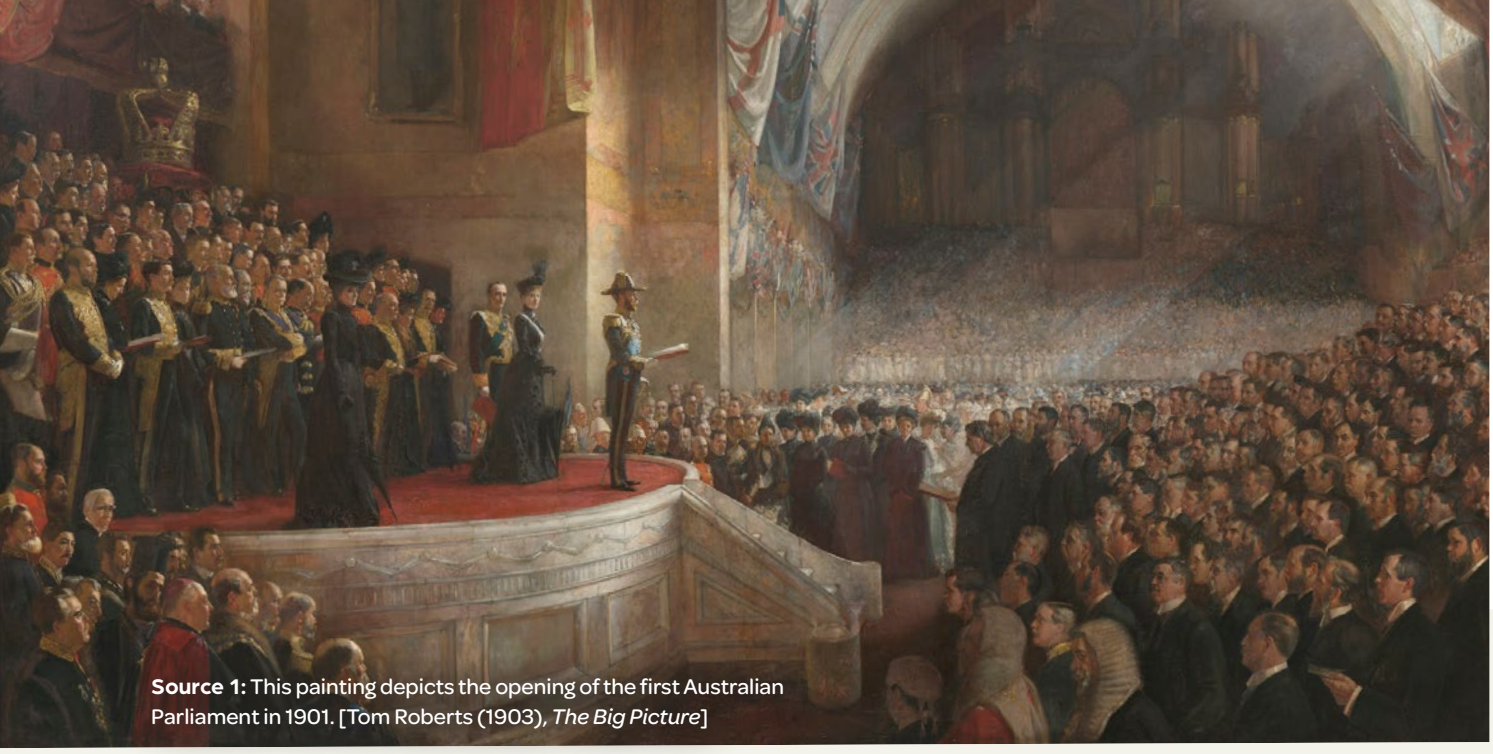
On 26 January 1901, six squabbling colonies formed the Commonwealth of Australia. Economic, ideological and other factors contributed to the colonies uniting. Divisions remained between the east and west coasts and northerners and southerners. However, an Australian identity and accompanying nationalism were forming. These were cemented by Australians' experiences in World War I.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: This painting depicts the opening of the first Australian Parliament in 1901. [Tom Roberts (1903), *The Big Picture*]

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

10.1

Which key developments led to Federation?

Although the overwhelming majority of the population of the Australian colonies was of British origin, a distinct Australian identity had begun to emerge by the second half of the 19th century. The growing population also led to challenges, such as how to manage postal services, immigration and transport. Momentum began to build towards Federation, and on 1 January 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed.

First steps towards Federation

When the Australian colonies federated on 1 January 1901, it was the result of a long process that had begun decades earlier. In 1881, Sir Henry Parkes – the Premier of New South Wales – called for a federal council to review and discuss matters of common interest to all the colonies. Despite being agreed to by the colonies in 1883 and established in 1885 as the Federal Council of Australasia, it had limited support and was eventually dissolved in 1899.

In 1889, Parkes raised the question of **Federation** again in Tenterfield, New South Wales, with a famous speech (Source 1) in which he called for a Parliamentary Convention of Australia. He envisioned a meeting of colonial delegates that would prepare a federal **Constitution** and lay the legal framework for unity. In 1891, the convention was held in Sydney, with seven delegates representing each colony and three from New Zealand (Aotearoa in Māori). Led by Sir Samuel Griffith, the Premier of Queensland, they prepared a draft constitution. Although momentum was building, the economic depression of 1891 curtailed progress.

Momentum grows

Popular support for Federation had also begun to grow across the colonies, and groups such as the **Australian Natives' Association** soon took a central role in promoting it. Founded in 1871, the Association was built on three key principles:

- the maintenance of a White Australia
- the 'Made in Australia' movement
- the broadening of a Commonwealth Constitution.

In line with these values, these groups met at Corowa, New South Wales, in 1893 to propose a second convention. The idea was that delegates would be elected by their respective colonies and take a draft Constitution back to those colonies for approval.

This took place across 1897 and 1898 in Adelaide, Sydney and Melbourne, and enthusiasm grew considerably (Source 3), leading to a series of referendums to ascertain public support. Although they had been invited, both New Zealand and Fiji declined to attend and become part of the Federation. By 1899, New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia and Tasmania all held majority 'yes' stances. Western Australia, enjoying relative prosperity after the discovery of gold in the early 1890s, was unconvinced that Federation offered the best way forward. It feared that a union might erode its prosperity (Source 2). After the federation of the five colonies was approved by the British parliament via the *Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act 1900*, Western Australia eventually became the sixth and final colony to throw their support behind Federation.

> The great question which they now had to consider was whether the time had not now come for the creation on this Australian continent of an Australian government … to preserve the security and integrity of these colonies the whole of their forces should be amalgamated into one great federal army … They had now, from South Australia to Queensland, a stretch of about 2000 miles of railway, and if the four colonies could only combine to adopt a uniform gauge, it would mean an immense advantage in the movement of troops.

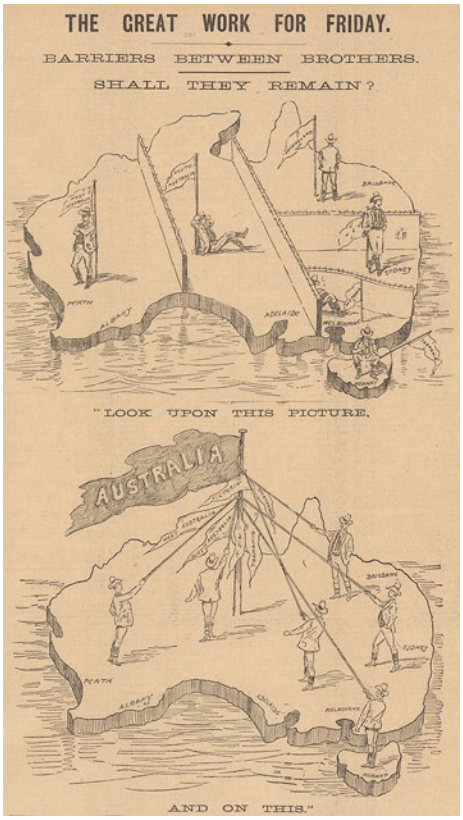
Source 1: This text is part of Henry Parkes' 'Tenterfield oration', as published in the *Sydney Morning Herald* on 25 October 1889.

A great deal of sentiment has been expressed with respect to 'one nation, one flag', as though that would bring in a reign of prosperity. For my part, I am unable to see that we are other than one nation at the present; in fact, we are more effectually so than any scheme of Federation can make us, and as to the 'one flag', well it might make a good coverlet for a bed, but I fear hardly large enough, to cover the unemployed in any one of the Eastern colonies.

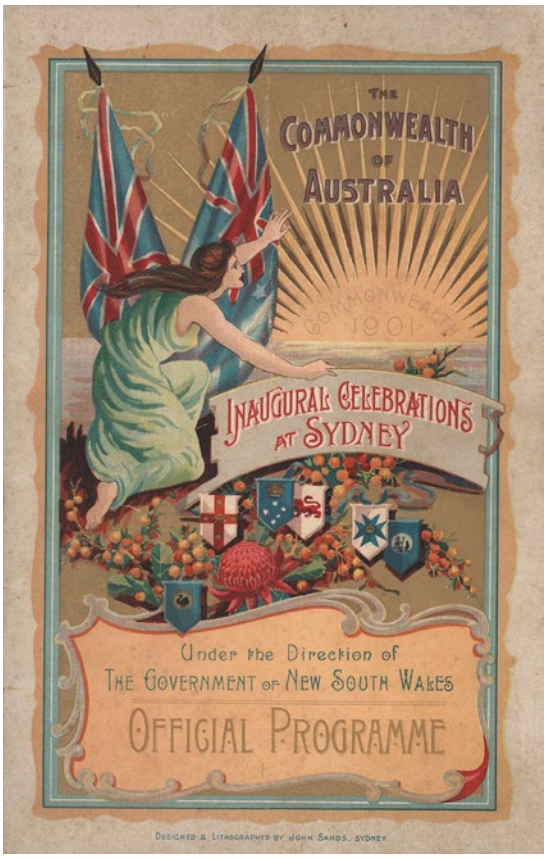
Source 2: This text is part of an article published in 1899. ['Progress', *The West Australian*, 21 August 1899]

Birthing of a nation

The dream of Federation became a reality on 1 January 1901 at Centennial Park in Sydney (Source 4), when Edmund Barton was sworn in as the nation's first prime minister and Lord Hopetoun was appointed its first governor-general. More than 100 000 people were present at the ceremony, and more than 500 000 came to see the Federation parade travel from the Domain to Centennial Park. As the new nation embraced self-determination and unity, celebrations took place across rural and urban regions in the form of parades, pageants, sporting events, fireworks displays and special dinners. The colonial period had now ended, and the Commonwealth of Australia was born.



Source 3: 'The Great Work for Friday', *The Argus*, 1 June 1898, heralded the second constitutional convention.



Source 4: The establishment of the Commonwealth of Australia was widely celebrated in 1901.

Learning ladder 10.1

Background and origins

1. Who proposed Federation in 1881?
2. Describe the role of the Australian Natives' Association in promoting Federation.
3. Explain how the colonies came together to form the Commonwealth of Australia.
4. Source 1: Explain why Henry Parkes supported Federation as a means of improving Australia's defence.

Chronology

1. Place the following dates on a timeline: 1871, 1881, 1883, 1889, 1893, 1899, 1901.
2. On your timeline, place a summary of the event that took place on each date.
3. Where on your timeline would you place Western Australia agreeing to be part of Federation?
4. Using your timeline, explain how momentum grew in support of Federation.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

10.2

What factors contributed to the development of democracy in Australia?

A cornerstone of the newly federated Australia was the idea of a progressive society built on egalitarian principles, where the divisive social class system of the Old World would be cast aside. Renowned as a 'working man's paradise', Australia would become a social laboratory of gender rights and political freedoms enshrined by law.

A shifting social order

The push for 'a fair go' – a characteristic that would go on to be a hallmark of the emerging Australian identity – did not begin with Federation. Initial waves of migration maintained the social order of Britain. Officers and unassisted colonists assuming roles of influence and command, while convicts occupied the lower ranks; among them were many Irish, whose homeland at the time had been under British rule for centuries. As such, they were often seen as less 'civilised' than people of British origin (Source 1).

> Gentlemen and savages, I have something to say and I intend to say it … men of Ballarat and fellows of Bungaree … eloquence has no effect on you, you are not used to it. The King of Bungaree has sent his subjects here and they must be indulged … gentlemen, you can now form an idea what kind of country this would be if the Bungaree element once became the governing power … I am in favour of missionaries being sent to Bungaree – under a rather strong escort – to distribute Protestant Bibles and to teach the hounds to read them, the results of which would show their course in three or four generations.

Source 1: This text is from the 1864 Ballarat East election campaign speech of Charles Edwin Jones, who was an English-born politician, with reference to the large Irish community in the nearby district of Bungaree.

The Eureka Stockade

The push for equality began to grow, and on the Victorian goldfields of the 1850s, tensions between the police and miners eventually erupted in the Eureka Stockade of 1854. Many of those involved in the stockade had been involved in the Chartist movement for political reform in Britain, and they brought these values with them to Australia. Rather than a struggle for territory or power, the stockade symbolised the push for three values that became central to the emerging Australian identity:

- freedom of speech, expression and religious belief
- freedom of assembly and political participation
- freedom of elections and the right to stand for election.

In time, increasing numbers of local-born colonists would further reinforce the ideals of equality among those of European stock, regardless of the status of their forefathers in Britain or Ireland.

Women in Australian society

Alongside the class divisions of the Old World, the Australian colonies imported conservative gender roles. Initial migration patterns (less than one in seven convicts were female) led to a gender imbalance. To address this issue, targeted transportation programs brought women and young girls from **workhouses** across Britain and Ireland, with the support of prominent advocates such as Caroline Chisholm. Although life in the colonies was challenging, many women went on to become active members of their communities, getting involved in the growing call for social change. This was despite the opposition of groups, such as the Anti-Female Suffrage League, which felt that a woman's primary role in society was as a homemaker and mother.

The **women's suffrage** movement (Source 2) grew increasingly prominent, and key figures such as Catherine Helen Spence (Source 3) pushed for lasting change. Spence was Australia's first female political candidate and an outspoken advocate for women's right to vote. She toured Britain and the United States and spoke on the topics of feminism and electoral reform, and was a key player in the push for **proportional representation**.

The push for gender equality formed an integral part of the broader movement towards genuine democracy in a newly federated Australia.

Source 2: This is a photo of the members of the Womanhood Suffrage League of New South Wales in 1902. The push for political equality gained momentum across the colonies and was galvanised further by Federation.

Source 3: This painting depicts Catherine Helen Spence, who was a leading figure in the women's suffrage movement in the Australian colonies and overseas. [Maude Gordon (c. 1900), *Catherine Helen Spence*]

Getting the vote

Following Federation in 1901, one of the first Acts of the new Australian Parliament was the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*; this gave both men and women over the age of 21 the right to vote and to stand in federal elections, provided they had been resident in Australia for at least six months. This made Australia the first country in the world to allow women the right to stand for election and the second – after New Zealand (Aotearoa in Māori) – to grant universal suffrage at a national level. At the same time, however, the First Nations Peoples of Australia, and people from Asia, Africa and the Pacific Islands (except for Māori) were excluded from voting, despite still being considered British subjects.

Learning ladder 10.2

Background and origins

1. Identify three reasons why people in the Australian colonies were seeking democracy and equality.
2. Describe the values present in the Eureka Stockade that would become part of the Australian identity.
3. Explain how the women's suffrage movement contributed to the development of democracy in Australia
4. Evaluate how democratic Australia was at the time of Federation.

Cause and effect

1. Identify one reason Australia became a society based on equality.
2. Describe what advocates such as Catherine Helen Spence (Source 3) sought to change.
3. Describe how people of Irish background shaped democracy in Australia.
4. Explain the effect of the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902* on creating Australian democracy.
5. Analyse how migration and social class contributed to calls for equality and democratic reform in colonial Australia.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

What were the different perspectives on Federation?

The Federation of Australia, which created a new nation, was a unique historical and political phenomenon. The Australian experience of Federation, which transferred power from the colonies to a federal government, demonstrated that this kind of momentous national event could be conducted peacefully. But it was not without controversy.

Who would be part of the new Australian Commonwealth?

The question of who would become part of the new Australian Commonwealth was explored early in the process. Two countries initially invited to join the Federation included Fiji and New Zealand (Aotearoa in Māori). In 1883, Fiji was invited to a Federation convention, but politely declined.

The situation in New Zealand was more complex. New Zealand had been considered part of New South Wales for several decades in the 19th century, and was formally declared part of the colony in 1840. But in 1841, the British Imperial government separated New Zealand from New South Wales and declared it a colony in its own right.

Representatives from New Zealand took part in the early constitutional conventions, and Sir Henry Parkes highlighted the common cultural connections shared between the Australian colonies and New Zealand by claiming that there was a 'crimson thread of kinship [that] runs through us all'.

Ultimately, New Zealand decided not to federate with Australia. New Zealand's premier, Sir John Hall, argued that there were '1200 reasons standing in the way of a union' referring to the 1200 miles of the Tasman Sea between Australia and New Zealand. Interestingly, clause 6 of the Australian Constitution still states that New Zealand is permitted to join Australia.

The support for Federation in Australia

As the colonies had grown, and especially after the gold rushes in Victoria and Western Australia, the volume of trade between the colonies had increased significantly. This, however, was curtailed by the **tariffs** that colonies imposed on imported goods. One popular reason for federating was the abolishment of tariffs.

HOW WE SEE IT
THE OGRE: 'Come into these arms.'
NEW ZEALAND: 'Nay sire, these arms bear chains.'

Source 1: This political cartoon was published in the *New Zealand Graphic* in 1900. In this cartoon, the central white female figure represents New Zealand; she is holding hands with a Pacific Islander to resist the clutches of an ogre in chains. The ogre represents Australia and the chains allude to Australia's penal colony past.

Source 2: Federation tableau, 'Unity is strength', c. 1899 [Mitchell Library, State Library of NSW, FL8868364]

Another reason for Federation was national defence. Each colony was responsible for the maintenance of their own military, which was expensive. They also relied on support from the British Navy to guard the Australian coastline. Supporters believed a federal government would be able to establish a national defence force.

Sons of the South, awake! arise!
Sons of the South, and do.
Banish from under your bonny skies
Those old-world errors and wrongs and lies.
Making a hell in a Paradise
That belongs to your sons and you.

Sons of the South, make choice between
(Sons of the South, choose true),
The Land of Morn and the Land of E'en,
The Old Dead Tree and the Young Tree Green,
The Land that belongs to the lord and the Queen,
And the Land that belongs to you.

Source 3: This text is part of the poem 'A Song of the Republic', Henry Lawson's first published poem. It was published on 1 October 1887 in *The Bulletin*, a Sydney-based magazine that championed the idea of a united Australia.

Also of particular concern to many colonists was immigration. Racism played a key role in anti-immigration feelings, because white colonists felt threatened by non-white workers, such as the Chinese and South Sea Islanders. They worried non-white workers would take jobs from white men, and force lower wages and worse working conditions.

The final reason for Federation was the colonists' growing **national identity** and realisation that, despite being separate colonies, the colonists had a significant amount in common.

One word, I may, however, add as your fellow elector. New South Wales is my native colony – it is my home. It is the birth-place of my children … In voting for the Bill, I am committing myself, and the happiness of my children, to the Australian future. You do no less, but you do no more.

Source 4: Edmund Barton, *Maitland Daily Mercury*, 1 June 1898

Advocates for Federation

Across the country, a number of key individuals and groups advocated for Federation.

Henry Parkes: Nicknamed the 'father of Federation', Parkes was the longest-serving Premier of New South Wales, and he tirelessly pushed for unifying Australia's colonies. His famous Tenterfield Oration in 1889 helped spark the movement that led to Australia's Federation in 1901.

Edmund Barton: Australia's first prime minister, Edmund Barton led the drafting of the Constitution, campaigned for its approval and became the nation's first leader in 1901.

Australian Natives' Association: Founded in 1871, the Australian Natives' Association (ANA) was a significant player in shaping early Australia. It advocated strongly for the unification of the colonies and functioned as a social and financial support system for its members, offering sickness, medical and funeral benefits. Association membership was restricted to white, native-born Australians; both First Nations Peoples and immigrants were excluded.

Women's suffrage advocates: Alongside growing calls for Federation, the female suffrage movement was gaining momentum across the colonies, driven by key advocates such as Catherine Helen Spence, Rose Scott and Vida Goldstein. Federation galvanised support and advocacy for female suffrage.

> The grand democratic basis of the Commonwealth constitution of 'one man one vote' needs to be expanded into 'one adult one vote' ... While half of the human race is shut out from public activities, no one can call the government really democratic.

Source 5: Catherine Helen Spence on 'Woman's Place in the Commonwealth', *United Australia Quarterly*, April 1900.

The opposition to Federation in Australia

Not every colony was in favour of Federation, and even those that were in favour had significant reservations. One sticking point was the location of the new national capital. New South Wales insisted that Sydney be named the capital, since this was the first colony on the continent. However, Victoria argued that the new capital should be Melbourne, as it was the largest and richest city. The eventual compromise was the establishment of Canberra as the new nation's capital, on Ngunnawal and Ngambri Countries.

The idea of a federated Australia did not have universal support. The less-populated colonies felt that, in a federal government, their voices would be lost to the larger and wealthier colonies of New South Wales and Victoria. This was made worse by the fact that, despite improved rail links, a great physical distance remained between the colonies, especially Western Australia. Disputes over trade also threatened to derail the union, with Victoria in favour of protectionism (tariffs to support local industries) and New South Wales in favour of free trade (no tariffs on imports). The sugar cane industry in Queensland feared that Federation would bring about the end of the exploitation of cheap labour from the Pacific Islands (Source 7). The question of Australian identity was also contested by some who saw themselves as British subjects living in a British colony.

The colony of Western Australia initially resisted Federation. It opposed Federation primarily for economic reasons. Along with not wanting to share its gold-rush wealth with the less-deserving eastern states, there were concerns that losing the revenue from import duties would have a negative impact on the colony's economy. Other opponents of Federation in Western Australia claimed the colony had not had enough time to consider Federation because it had only recently ratified its own constitution in 1889. However, Western Australia eventually voted in favour of joining the Federation in July 1900.

> Mr John Forrest, Premier of Western Australia [Western Australia] has few exports to the other colonies, and large importions from them. It seems to me that half our revenue is derived from Customs, and we would have to give up that to the central Government. Of course, it is said that a considerable portion of that will be refunded, but we have no guarantee of this. We have to face this difficulty that we have incurred large liabilities, and laid out considerable sums, and if we are deprived immediately of half our revenue, without any certainty that any portion will be returned, we will have to look about and tax ourselves in order to make up the deficiency.

Source 6: This text is part of an article published in *The West Australian* on 15 April 1891.

Source 7: Pacific Island labourers – known colloquially as 'Kanaka' workers – were the backbone of many plantations in Queensland, such as this sugar cane plantation in Cairns (c. 1890s). Many white Australians felt threatened by 'coloured labour'.

Learning ladder 10.3

Background and origins

1. Identify three background reasons that led to support for Federation.
2. Describe what is meant by 'growing national identity'.
3. Explain how the advocates for Federation developed support.
4. Explain the background to Western Australia's opposition to Federation.
5. Assess the significance of the inclusion and exclusion of different groups (e.g. women, Pacific Islanders, First Nations Peoples) in shaping early ideas about Australian nationhood.

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Identify the perspective of New Zealand in this source.
2. Source 5: Describe the perspective of Catherine Spence on who should have the right to vote.
3. Compare the perspectives of NSW unionists and Victorian unionists to Federation.
4. Evaluate the various perspectives on Federation. Would you agree that economic advantages and disadvantages were the main influences on people's views? Why or why not?

Perspectives, page 502

HOW TO

How does Australia's government work?

On 1 January 1901, the six colonies became states of the Commonwealth of Australia. They retained their separate parliaments, but handed over matters concerning the entire nation to a new federal government, which would operate under the guidelines set out in the Constitution in a new capital city – Canberra.

Australia's Constitution

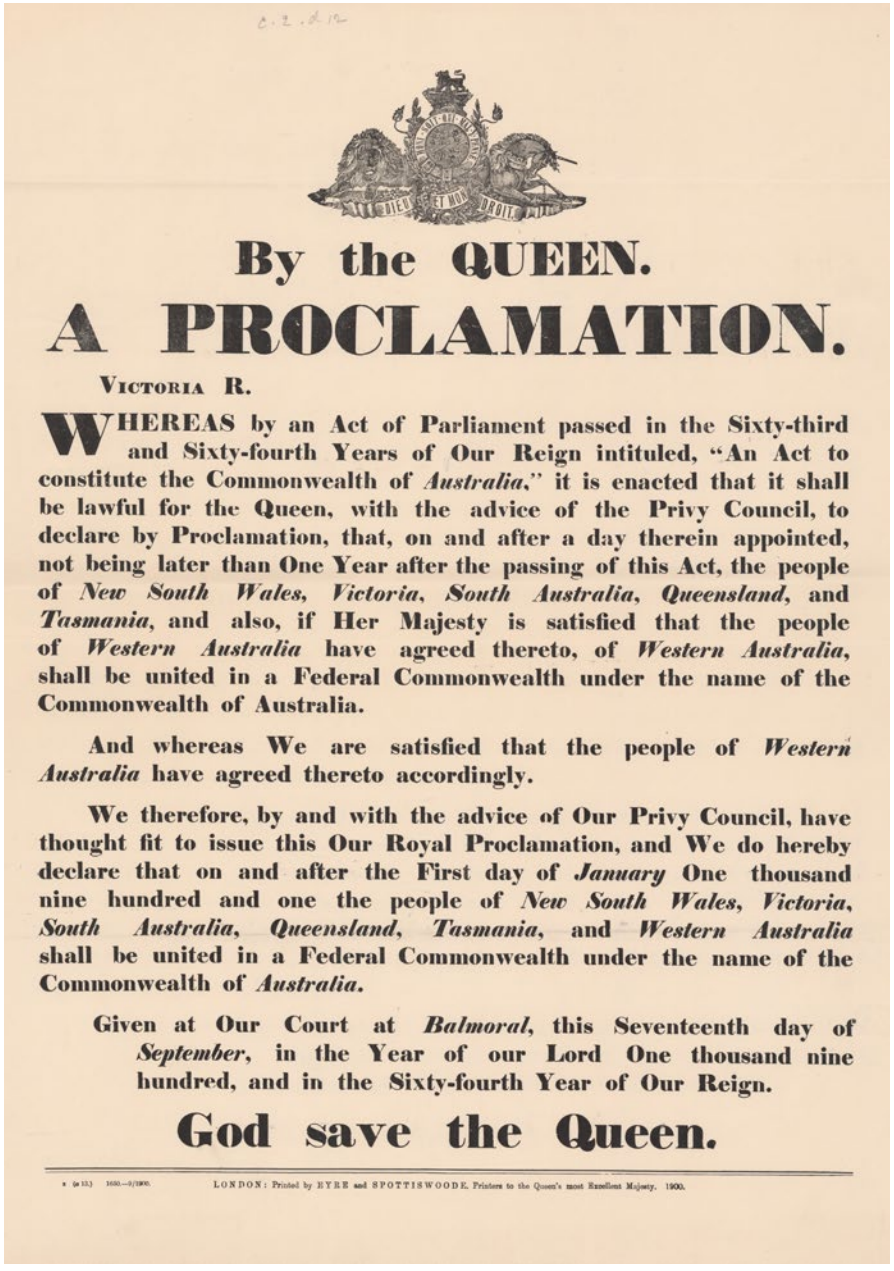
The *Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act 1900* was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The Act enabled Australia's Constitution – a set of principles that state how power is shared between a federal parliament and the six state parliaments.

The Constitution separates the government's powers into different branches. This prevents one group from having power over both the law-making and law-judging systems.

The federal government has three branches:

- **Executive:** the prime minister, along with senior government ministers and the governor-general, have the power to administer or implement the law
- **Legislature:** parliament has the power to make the law
- **Judiciary:** the courts have the power to interpret and apply the law.

Each of Australia's six states and two territories also has a parliament that makes laws on state matters, such as health, education and transport. The powers of state governments are also separated into branches. Changes to the Constitution can only be made by a referendum, where a majority of Australian voters and a majority of states vote to approve the changes proposed by parliament.



By the QUEEN.

A PROCLAMATION.

VICTORIA R.

WHEREAS by an Act of Parliament passed in the Sixty-third and Sixty-fourth Years of Our Reign intituled, "An Act to constitute the Commonwealth of *Australia*," it is enacted that it shall be lawful for the Queen, with the advice of the Privy Council, to declare by Proclamation, that, on and after a day therein appointed, not being later than One Year after the passing of this Act, the people of *New South Wales*, *Victoria*, *South Australia*, *Queensland*, and *Tasmania*, and also, if Her Majesty is satisfied that the people of *Western Australia* have agreed thereto, of *Western Australia*, shall be united in a Federal Commonwealth under the name of the Commonwealth of Australia.

And whereas We are satisfied that the people of *Western Australia* have agreed thereto accordingly.

We therefore, by and with the advice of Our Privy Council, have thought fit to issue this Our Royal Proclamation, and We do hereby declare that on and after the First day of *January* One thousand nine hundred and one the people of *New South Wales*, *Victoria*, *South Australia*, *Queensland*, *Tasmania*, and *Western Australia* shall be united in a Federal Commonwealth under the name of the Commonwealth of *Australia*.

Given at Our Court at *Balmoral*, this Seventeenth day of *September*, in the Year of our Lord One thousand nine hundred, and in the Sixty-fourth Year of Our Reign.

God save the Queen.

LONDON: Printed by EYRE and SPOTTISWOODE, Printers to the Queen's most Excellent Majesty. 1900.

Source 1: Proclamation by the Queen regarding Federation

Source 2: Old Parliament House. Canberra is the capital city of Australia, Australia's largest inland city and the eighth-largest Australian city overall. The capital city was founded and formally named as Canberra in 1913, becoming an entirely planned city outside of any of the existing Australian federal states. [Mitchell Library, State Library of New South Wales, FL1408966]

Parliament House

For 27 years, New South Wales and Victoria debated whether the nation's capital city should be Melbourne or Sydney. In 1908, it was decided that Australia's capital would be Canberra (meaning 'meeting place' in the local Ngunnawal language), and that it would be located between Sydney and Melbourne.

Old Parliament House (Source 2) was the home of the federal parliament in Canberra from 1927 to 1988. Australia's federal parliament consists of two houses: the House of Representatives and the Senate. In the 61 years the original building served as Parliament House, the size of the House of Representatives grew from 76 to 148 members (and is now 151 members). The Senate grew from 36 to 76 members. Old Parliament House had been designed to cater for a few hundred people, but by the 1980s there were nearly 3000 people working in the building. A new Parliament House replaced the old building in 1988, and Old Parliament House is now the Museum of Australian Democracy.

Federal parliament

Each member of the House of Representatives represents one local area of Australia, which is known as an electorate. They are elected for a term of three years. The government is formed by the political party with the most members in the House of Representatives, which then holds executive power.

Members of parliament (MPs) provide a direct link between the people in their electorate and the parliament. On average, each federal electorate has 100 000 voters. Each MP has an office in their electorate where they can hear the concerns of the voters. Some groups of voters may try to influence (or lobby) the local member to present their interests about a special issue. In parliament, MPs are expected to represent their voters on matters of interest to their electorate, such as a major road construction or the closure of a local industry.

The Senate has 76 members, elected for a term of six years. Half the senators face election every three years. Each of the six states has 12 senators, and the Australian Capital Territory and Northern Territory both have two senators. The main role of the Senate is to make laws in conjunction with the House of Representatives, review proposed laws (known as bills), and represent the interests of Australia's states and territories. It is commonly referred to as 'the house of review' as the government of the day rarely has a majority in the Senate, so the Senate is able to routinely perform this role. A government has not held a majority in the Senate since 2008!

The executive

In Australia's political system, the executive plays a crucial role in day-to-day governance and administration. The executive consists of the cabinet and ministry, led by the prime minister. It also includes the governor-general, who serves as the head of state.

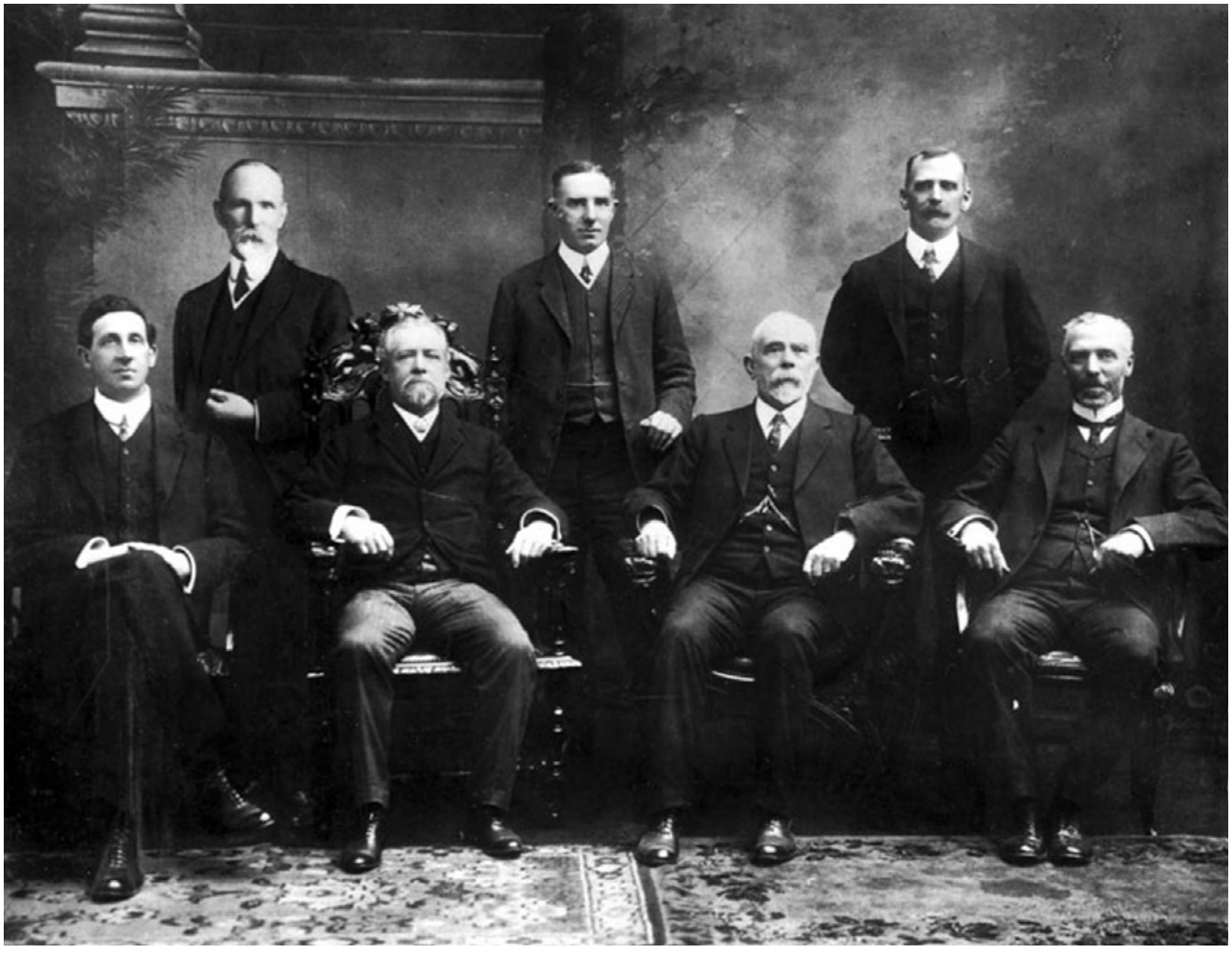
The executive proposes new laws, oversees the implementation of new and existing laws, and formulates important national policy. The prime minister, ministers and the governor-general are part of both the executive and the parliament. The Federation of Australia marked the unification of six British colonies into one nation, requiring the establishment of new national institutions and policies. The executive played a pivotal role in this transformative period.

Source 3: A man's world? Inaugural departmental heads of the Commonwealth public service, 1901: standing, Muirhead Collins (Defense), Atlee Hunt (External Affairs), David Miller (Home Affairs); seated, Robert Garren (Attorney General), Harry Wollaston (Trade and Customs), Robert Scott (Post Master General), George Allen (Treasury).

Development of a national defence force: The executive oversaw the creation of a national defence force, transitioning from state-based militias to a unified military structure. This ensured that Australia had a coordinated and effective defence strategy, crucial for national security and international standing.

Immigration policies and the White Australia policy: The executive introduced and administered immigration policies, including the **White Australia policy**, which aimed to restrict non-European immigration. These policies shaped the demographic and social landscape of the country, and reflected the priorities and values of the time.

Creation of the Commonwealth public service: The executive established the Commonwealth **public service** to manage federal government operations and ensure effective administration of national policies. This institution was essential for the efficient and professional management of government functions, ensuring the smooth implementation of policies.



Source 4: Invitation to Lieutenant Colonel William John Ferris (1855–1917) and his wife to attend the celebrations held in Sydney to mark the official Federation of Australia. The celebrations included a grand ceremony in Centennial Park, a public procession, banquets and general festivities. At the time, Ferris was the Protectionist Party member for Parramatta.

The legislature

The **legislature** is a crucial component of Australia's political system, functioning as the principal law-making body. The primary function of the legislature is to draft, debate and pass legislation. This ensures that laws reflect the will and needs of the population. It holds the government accountable, scrutinising policies and actions through debates, questions and committees. This ensures transparency and checks on executive power.

The passage of the right for women to vote in Australia is a historic example demonstrating the importance and function of the legislature. This legislative milestone was achieved with the passage of the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*. The Act extended the right to vote to women, making Australia one of the first countries in the world to grant women suffrage at the national level. The Act was the result of the growing movement for women's rights and the push for gender equality. It reflected the evolving views and interests of the Australian populace, which is a core function of the legislature.

Learning ladder 10.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. List the three branches of government.
2. Describe the composition of Australia's federal parliament.
3. Explain the role of the legislature in Australia's system of government.
4. Explain how ideas about immigration led to the White Australia policy.

Significance

1. What was the significance of the *The Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act 1900*?
2. Describe why MPs roles were significant.
3. Explain why creating Canberra as Australia's capital was significant.
4. Evaluate whether the requirements for changing the Australian Constitution are necessary.

HOW TO Significance, page 498

How has the government of NSW changed?

Federation was associated with increased stability in NSW governance. However, this came at the cost of financial and political sovereignty.

Increased government stability

Governments in the 19th century were formed by small factional political groups, many of which only lasted for a year or two. Sir Henry Parkes was probably the most successful colonial politician. He was Premier of New South Wales five times between 1872 and 1891. Around the time of Federation, however, governments become more stable. Most governments were now able to see out their three-year terms.

In New South Wales, politics was dominated by the Free Trade Party and the Protectionist Party, neither of which had a clear majority. This meant that these conservative parties often had to form alliances with the emerging Australian Labor Party, which was gaining significant influence by the early 1900s. In time, the Free Trade Party and Protectionist Party would merge to eventually become the Liberal Party of Australia, giving rise to the two-party system we still have.

Source 1: Australian Jockey Club meeting at Randwick Racecourse, 19 June 1920. Betting on horse races was one of the first forms of gambling taxed by the state.

Growth of the public service

Along with the increased stability in government, from the late 1800s the public service was professionalised. Older government departments expanded, and new departments and agencies were added over time. The Treasury, which had been established in 1824 and which was by far the most powerful government department, became even more powerful (Source 3).

Money matters

Federation created a number of problems for the NSW Government. Just before Federation, *The Bulletin*, the highly influential Sydney-based magazine, expressed concerns that New South Wales 'had conceded too much in terms of financial and political sovereignty'. And it had. Under federal arrangements, New South Wales lost many of its taxing powers. From World War I, it began to raise revenue from gambling to supplement state funds. Horse racing (Source 1) and lotteries were the most lucrative gambling activities for the state.

Source 2: The Treasury, Sydney, c. 1890s

> Many of the simple things that Australians aspired to – a rewarding job, a healthy family and a decent home – were materially assisted by the New South Wales Treasury over 1911–20. They were part of an evolving social contract, in which individuals forfeited their own self-interest to benefit the greater good. The most obvious means of monetising this exchange was via increased taxes, duties, licences and fees for government services. But this decade also saw Australians make unprecedented sacrifices in response to momentous global events, notably the Great War (1914–18) … By actively funding experiments in the new social contract, Treasury sought to replace [the existing British model] with more egalitarian State support.

Source 3: Peter Hobbins (2024), 'Monetising the Social Contract, 1911–20', in Paul Ashton (ed), *Walking a Tight Rope: Milestones and Moments in the History of the NSW Treasury*, NSW Treasury, Sydney, pp. 77–78.

Learning ladder 10.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Sir Henry Parkes?
2. Describe how the two-party system developed.
3. Explain how the NSW Treasury assisted people.
4. Explain how the NSW Government raised revenue.
5. Why was Federation a turning point for political parties in New South Wales?

Continuity and change

1. Identify the change that would lead to the formation of the Liberal Party.
2. Describe how Sir Henry Parkes provided continuity in politics.
3. Source 3: Explain the changes assisted by the NSW Treasury between 1911 and 1920.
4. Explain the changes criticised by *The Bulletin*.
5. Evaluate the extent to which Federation changed the financial independence of New South Wales.

HOW TO
Continuity and change, page 495

10.6

How were workers' rights protected?

Discoveries of gold transformed the colonies economically, socially and politically. Unlike in Europe and the Americas, there were no revolutions and civil wars in Australia. But many Australians felt isolated and threatened by surrounding Asian countries. People wanted their way of life and jobs protected.

The rise of trade unions

As the gold rushes faded, and many people found work in the factories emerging in Sydney and Melbourne during the second half of the 19th century, difficult working conditions and low wages gave rise to the trade union movement. Labour Day would first be celebrated in 1879, but by 1885 more than half the workers in New South Wales worked more than 60 hours per week. Smaller unions began to amalgamate (Source 2) and these 'new unions' used industrial action to advocate for improvements to pay and conditions. Unions empowered workers at a time when factories and automation were increasingly replacing traditional artisanal skills and jobs. When a series of strike actions was defeated in the 1890s, unionists sought alternatives to effect change, entering politics. New South Wales enacted its first major industrial law in 1896, the *Factories and Shops Act*. This Act was intended for factory workers and industrialists and discriminated against Chinese people. The Australian Labor Party was formed in May 1901.

Source 2: Trade union banner for the New South Wales branch of the Federated Miscellaneous Workers' Union of Australia [Edgar Whitbread (1910), Sydney Trades Hall]

The *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*

The arrival of Chinese migrants during the gold rushes, along with Japanese pearl divers in Broome and **hawkers** from the Ottoman Empire led to increasing tensions in the colonies, with many feeling that cheap 'foreign' labour would erode their opportunities. Although Chinese community members also sought to improve their conditions, unions rejected them, preventing them from marching in the May 1901 trade union procession.

Authorities sought to restrict the entry or activities of non-white migrants and, following Federation, the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* and the *Pacific Island Labourers Act 1901* would further consolidate these limitations and assuage fears of an influx of 'cheap labour'. The 'working man's paradise' would, it seemed, be restricted primarily to those of European ancestry (Source 1). Some non-European migrants with special skills or those who had been sponsored held certificates of exemption from the **dictation test**, although these generally did not apply to family members, meaning few remained in Australia in the long term.

> The continued influx of aliens, such as Syrians, Afghans, and other Asiatics, was a menace and danger to the peace and welfare of the European and native-born population, and that immediate steps be taken to prevent further arrivals of these people, and that separate quarters be allocated to those already here.
>
> **Source 1:** Letter to the Editor, *The Argus*, 18 January 1893, p. 6

Source 3: An eight-hour day procession in Centennial Park, Sydney, in the 1890s. The '888' on the wagon stood for 8 hours work, 8 hours play, 8 hours rest.

Legislating workers' rights

The movement for workers' rights had gained momentum in the post-gold rush era (Source 3). In the early years of Federation, workers' rights were protected by a range of legislation passed to establish egalitarian working conditions that supported and protected workers (Source 4).

Source 4: Acts that established egalitarian working conditions

Customs, Tariff and Excise Acts	A series of Acts designed to protect Australian industry and production by placing tariffs on cheaper imported goods, regulating producers and ensuring appropriate **excise** on goods.
Conciliation & Arbitration Act 1904	Gave the Commonwealth the power to settle industrial action, this would minimise the impacts of strikes and lock-outs.
Invalid & Old Age Pensions Act 1908	Entitled older people and those with disabilities to a maximum of £26 per annum (around $3500 per year today). This was the beginning of Australia as a **welfare state**.
Maternity Allowance Act 1912	Provided a payment of £5 (the equivalent of two weeks' wages) to new mothers. First Nations Australian, Papuan and Asian mothers were not eligible for the payment.

These Acts of parliament would soon be tested, most famously by the Harvester Judgement (1907), in which the basis for 'a fair and reasonable wage' for a man supporting a family would be established by the courts. This paved the way for a consistent minimum wage. In line with the overarching vision of Federation itself, working life in Australia was continuing to improve.

Learning ladder 10.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. When was the *Factories and Shops Act* enacted?
2. Describe the ideas that led to the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*.
3. Explain how legislation helped to protect the rights of workers.
4. Explain why the Harvester Judgement was a significant event.

Chronology

1. Construct a timeline and place these dates on it: 1896, 1901, 1904, 1907, 1908 and 1912.
2. Under each date, write a summary of the event that occurred at this time.
3. Construct a timeline that includes the following events: First Labour Day celebrated, Federated Miscellaneous Workers' Union established; Chinese workers prevented from marching in trade union procession.
4. How useful are the timelines you have created in explaining changes to workers' rights?

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

What were the impacts of Federation on Australians?

Federation was a momentous and important social, economic and political event in Australia's history. For many, it completely changed the everyday living conditions and established a robust framework for democracy in Australia. However, for others, Federation either changed nothing, or made life worse.

The impact of Federation for white Australians

The benefits of Federation for most non-Indigenous Australians cannot be understated Federation brought the colonies together on a platform of unity centred on an Australian identity. The progressive economic and social policies saw the new nation become the 'working man's paradise' and 'social laboratory' that it had sought to be, enshrining in law the emerging elements of 'a fair go' that began half a century earlier, a legacy that remains today. This unity was also evident in the international arena, where Australian sporting teams and athletes gained a unique identity as tough 'underdogs'.

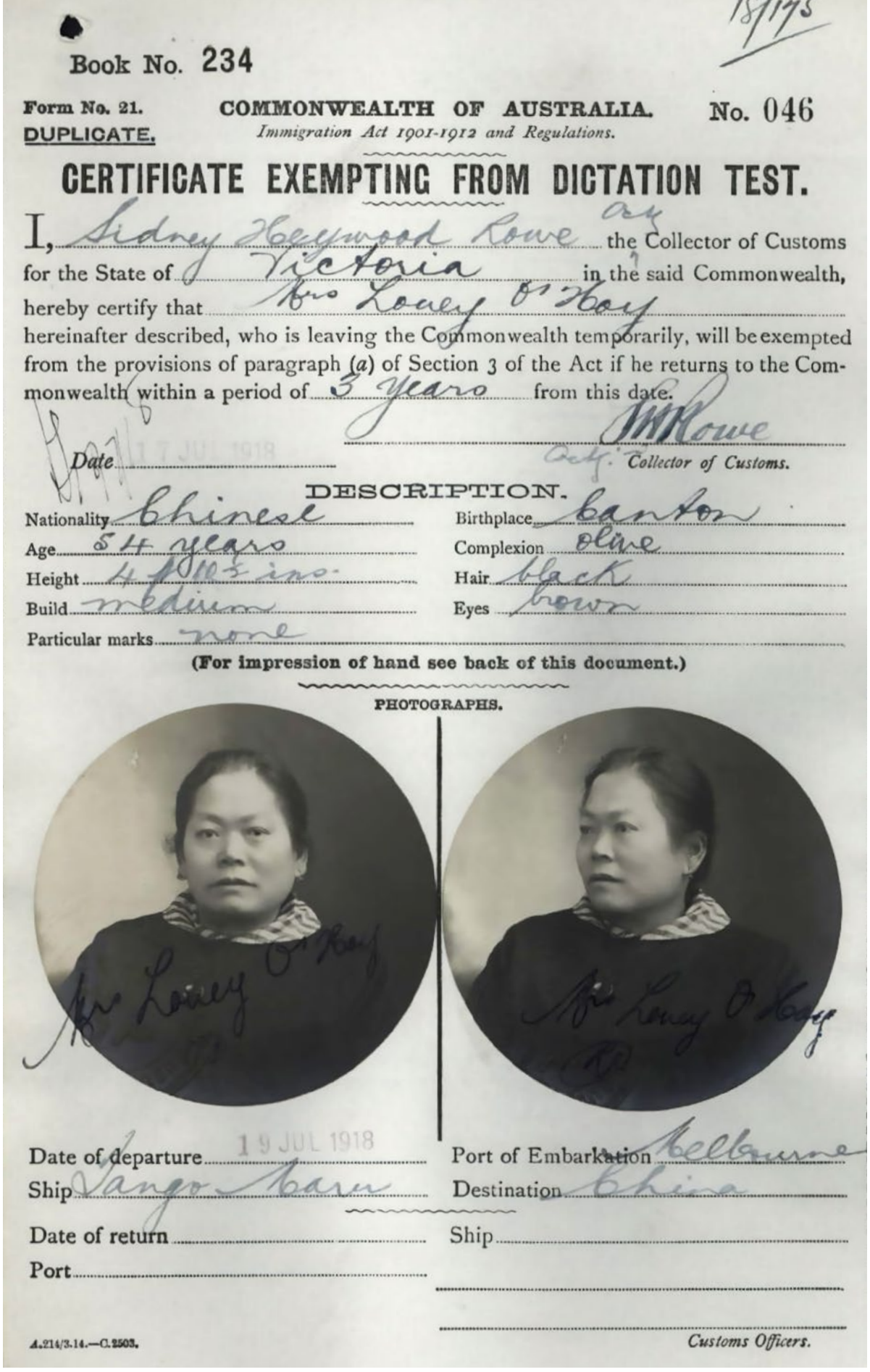
Federation also enshrined the democratic framework and principles enjoyed by Australians today. The Constitution allowed the former colonies to retain some aspects of self-government, and federal representation through the Senate prevented power from being seized by individuals or groups. The Constitution also guaranteed regular and free elections.

Australia had begun to engage in overseas conflicts in the lead up to Federation, including the Boxer Rebellion and the Boer War in 1899. After Federation, the maintenance of one military force rather than six made it cheaper and easier for Australia to engage in military actions. This would help in World War I, which was just around the corner.

One of Federation's additional impacts was the extension of suffrage in federal elections to women in 1902 (although First Nations women would not receive the federal vote until 1962, when suffrage was extended to all First Nations people). In time, Australians became distinct from their British and Irish forefathers in terms of identity, values and customs, although whiteness remained central to this identity (Source 1).

> [The White Australia Policy was] a vehement effort to maintain a high Western standard of economy, society and culture (necessitating at that stage, however it might be camouflaged, the rigid exclusion of Oriental peoples).
>
> **Source 2:** Charles Bean, prominent World War I photographer and historian [*From Anzac to Amiens*, Australian War Memorial, Canberra, 1946]

Source 1: A brass White Australia badge from 1906. The act of Federation was in part designed to make it easier to discriminate and ensure favourable migration from other 'white' nations.



Book No. 234

Form No. 21. DUPLICATE.

COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.
Immigration Act 1901-1912 and Regulations.

No. 046

CERTIFICATE EXEMPTING FROM DICTATION TEST.

I, Sidney Heywood Rowe acting the Collector of Customs for the State of Victoria in the said Commonwealth, hereby certify that Mrs Louey O'Hoy hereinafter described, who is leaving the Commonwealth temporarily, will be exempted from the provisions of paragraph (*a*) of Section 3 of the Act if he returns to the Commonwealth within a period of 3 years from this date.

Date 17 JUL 1918

S H Rowe
Acting Collector of Customs.

DESCRIPTION.

Nationality Chinese — Birthplace Canton
Age 54 years — Complexion olive
Height 4 ft 10½ ins. — Hair black
Build medium — Eyes brown
Particular marks none

(For impression of hand see back of this document.)

PHOTOGRAPHS.

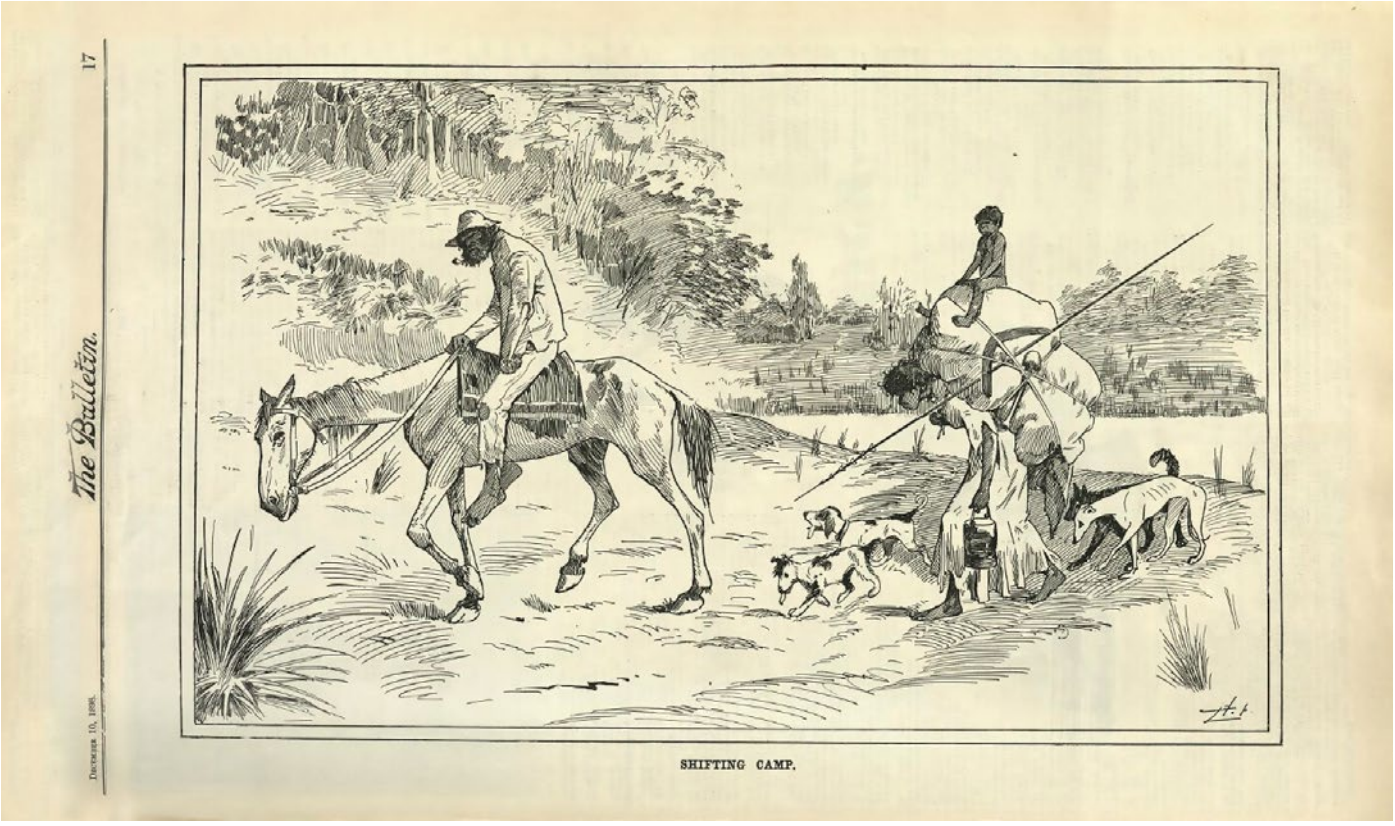
Date of departure 19 JUL 1918 — Port of Embarkation Melbourne
Ship Yango Maru — Destination China

Date of return — Ship
Port

4.214/3.14.—C.2503.

Customs Officers.

Source 3: The certificate exempting Mrs Louey O'Hoy from the dictation test, issued in 1918. These certificates were issued to migrants who were needed to work in occupations such as domestic service, rural industries and pearling in the Northern Territory and northern Western Australia. [National Archives of Australia, B13. 1918/19506]



Source 4: 'Shifting camp' by Livingstone Hopkins (Hop), *The Bulletin,* 1898.
The consolidation of White Australia impacted the movement of First Nations people.

Australia as a White Australia

The White Australia policy would have a significant impact on the nation for more than five decades following Federation; by 1947, only 2.7 per cent of the nation's population was born anywhere other than Australia, Britain or Ireland.

Through the use of a dictation test, immigration intakes were essentially restricted to the British Isles and other English-speaking white peoples, such as Americans, New Zealanders or Canadians.

In the decades that followed Federation, as the number of local-born citizens increased, the shrinking influence of outside forces, especially those of non-British origins, meant that the new Australian nation remained, in many ways, socially conservative.

The impact of Federation for First Nations Peoples

First Nations Peoples had little if any input into the Federation of Australia. The prevailing racist view at the time was that the First Nations Peoples were going to die out in the near future. Others believed that First Nations people were not capable of complex political thought, and as such, that little was to be gained from including them in the creation of the new Commonwealth.

The Constitution reflected these racist ideas by including two specific sections excluding First Nations Peoples from the Constitution. These were sections 51, subsection 26 and section 127. Section 51, subsection 26 allowed the federal government to pass laws relating to people of any race, with the exception of First Nations Peoples.

This meant that the federal government could not make any laws that related to First Nations people; this power remained with the states.

> The only sensible policy towards the blacks is to keep them carefully at a distance, and have nothing whatever to do with them under any circumstances whatsoever.

Source 5: Meston was an influential journalist during the colonial period across New South Wales and Queensland. His racist and violent views were incorporated into colonial and then state policies that negatively affected First Nations people and their communities when he later became Southern Protector of Aborigines in Queensland. [Archibald Meston, reproduced in *Telegraph* 1885, p.10].

> The ultimate reason why the very well intentioned laws for the protection of Aborigines frequently are ineffectual is probably because no one believes that they would achieve anything useful or worthwhile. In Australia the Aborigine is not needed … Australia is the land of the white man and every individual colonist in the continent knows and feels that the Australian Aborigine is superfluous, that he is but a burden and that it would be better if there were only whites in the county with no black or coloured people at all.

Source 6: Austrian anthropologist Rudolph Pöch, 1905, in Isabel McBryde (1978), Records of Times Past, Australian Institute of Aboriginal Studies, Canberra, p. 271.

Section 127 of the Constitution stated that 'in reckoning the numbers of the people of the Commonwealth, or of a State or other part of the Commonwealth, Aboriginal natives shall not be counted'. This idea was that the federal government did not need to calculate the number of First Nations people, because they were not responsible for legislation that affected them.

The impact of leaving law-making authority over First Nations people with the states was the continuation of genocide, frontier conflicts, Stolen Generations and assimilation of First Nations people. For many, life got worse after Federation, and this would only begin to be addressed after the 1967 referendum when section 51, subsection 26 was modified and section 127 was removed to allow the federal government to make laws relating to First Nations people and count them in the census.

The legacy of Federation for migrants in Australia

The impact and legacy of Federation for migrants in Australia is mixed. It is Australia's stable democracy that has allowed it to become one of the most successful multicultural countries in the world. However, the immediate legacy of Federation was the passing of the White Australia policy, which both adversely affected existing non-European populations in Australia and hampered Australia's social and economic growth. This had significant implications for manufacturing and business activities during the inter-war and post-war periods. The White Australia policy was eventually dismantled in the later part of the 20th century.

Learning ladder 10.7

Impact and legacies

1. Source 4: Identify the impact of White Australia on First Nations Peoples.
2. Describe the legacy of Federation for most non-Indigenous Australians.
3. Explain the legacy of the White Australia policy in the period to 1947.
4. Evaluate the opinion that Federation did not create a legacy of a 'working man's paradise' for many within the Australian population.
5. To what extent did the democratic framework established at Federation benefit all Australians equally?

Perspectives

1. Source 1: Whose perspective is reflected in this object?
2. Source 4: What is the perspective of the artist who created this cartoon?
3. Explain how the perspective in Source 2 relates to the opinion expressed in Source 5.
4. Source 3: From the knowledge you have gained in this unit, evaluate the historical perspective of Charles Bean.
5. Compare the perspectives of Federation's impact held by white Australians, First Nations Peoples and migrants.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

10.8

What was Australia like at the beginning of WWI?

A decade after Federation, Australia was a young, confident nation, enriched by the gold rushes of the 19th century. It was also a conservative country that often looked to the 'mother country', Britain, as a model to emulate.

Political position

Although Federation had made Australia into an independent nation, it was still part of the British Empire, and did not make its own decisions on foreign policy. The economy used British currency until 1910, and the Australian Government had strong ties to its British counterpart. The Australian military supported the British Empire in conflicts such as the Boer War in South Africa and the Boxer Rebellion in China. Australian soldiers followed a tradition of military service inherited from the British.

Society

In 1911, the first national census recorded Australia's population as 4 455 005, with the average age being 24 years. Men aged between 15 and 64 made up nearly two-thirds of the population. First Nations Australians were not counted.

The average life expectancy for a white male in the early 1900s was around 55 years, while for females it was around 59 years. It was significantly lower for First Nations people. The leading cause of death in children was infectious diseases.

Nearly 96 per cent of Australians identified as Christian, with 38 per cent belonging to the Church of England and 21 per cent to the Roman Catholic Church.

Agriculture, particularly the pastoral industry, was the main economic activity generating wealth for the country. With the introduction of steamships and refrigeration, exports to Britain increased. The basic wage, following the Harvester Judgement, was eight shillings a day (about $43 in today's money).

The two major cities were Sydney and Melbourne. Shopping arcades and large department stores were expanding at this time. In April 1914, the first Coles Variety Store opened in Melbourne. Most people in cities lived in small houses, despite often having large families. They lived close to their workplaces and had little or no opportunity to travel overseas.

Sport had become part of the fabric of Australian society. Reginald 'Snowy' Baker was an all-round athlete who played Rugby Union against Great Britain in 1904, boxed in the 1908 Olympics and gained celebrity status. In 1908, the first full season of Rugby League was played in Australia. At the 1912 Stockholm Olympic Games, swimmers Fanny Durack and Mina Wylie won gold and silver medals for Australia in the 100-metre freestyle final, building on the success of Frederic Lane, who had won two gold medals at the 1900 Paris Olympic Games. Australia's surfing culture was influenced by a demonstration of surfboard riding at Freshwater Beach by Duke Kahanamoku, a champion Hawaiian swimmer and surfer, in December 1914.

Source 1: Fanny Durack and Mina Wylie were Australia's first women Olympians, winning gold and silver in the 100-metre freestyle, Stockholm, 1912.

Source 3: Sydney was Australia's second largest city in 1914, and boasted electrical lights and trains. [Mitchell Library, State Library of New South Wales]

Following Federation and the merging of the Australian colonial forces to create an Australian Army (the Commonwealth Military Forces), compulsory military training was introduced in 1911 under the **Universal Service Scheme**. For the first time in Australia, males aged 14 to 26 were assigned to cadet or Citizens Military Force units. The Australian Government established the **Australian Imperial Force (AIF)** in August 1914 and immediately began recruiting men to serve the British Empire in World War I.

Communications and technology

Given Australia's size, the remoteness of many of its communities and its distance from Europe, communications technology played an important role in the country's development.

With Federation, communications became a federal responsibility under the Australian Constitution, leading to the creation of the Postmaster-General's (PMG) Department in 1901 to manage all postal and telegraph services in Australia. The first Australian postage stamp was issued in 1913 and featured a kangaroo in front of a map of Australia. The first airmail delivery between Melbourne and Sydney took place in July 1914, involving a nine-hour flight.

A telegraph cable across the Pacific between Canada and Australia was completed in October 1902. The Marconi wireless radio system was introduced to Australia in 1905.

Source 2: Australian fashions closely followed those popular in Britain.

A 'trunk' (long-distance) telephone line between Sydney and Melbourne was established in 1907.

The earliest feature-length film in the world was the Australian-produced *The Story of the Kelly Gang* in 1906. Written and directed by Charles Tait, it was also shown in the United Kingdom in January 1908.

Learning ladder 10.8

Background and origins

1. Identify Australia's ties with Britain in the 1900s.
2. Describe Australian society prior to WWI.
3. Explain why developments in telecommunications would be important to Australia in the lead up to WWI.
4. Evaluate the type of society Australia was becoming in the 1900s and how this might be used to promote participation in WWI.

Significance

1. What was significant about the visit of Duke Kahanamoku to Australia?
2. Describe the significance of establishing the Postmaster-General's (PMG) Department.
3. Explain the significance of the establishment of the Commonwealth Military Forces and the Universal Service Scheme.
4. Explain why success at the Olympic Games would be viewed as significant in the period from Federation to 1914.

HOW TO Significance, page 493

What were the causes of World War I?

In 1914, the world erupted into its first world war. Like all wars, World War I was caused by a combination of long-term, slow-moving societal causes, suddenly triggered by short-term events. The long-term factors behind the outbreak of World War I included the key countries' militarism, imperialism and nationalism, as well as their various contemporary alliances.

The short-term event that triggered World War I was the **assassination** of Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, and the subsequent political crisis the shooting caused. The long-term causes – militarism, alliances, nationalism and imperialism – are more complex. You can understand the short- and long-term causes using the acronym MANIAC.

Militarism

Militarism is the idea that a country should maintain a strong army to defend or promote its national interests. At the turn of the 20th century, the major powers tried to stay ahead of the others by investing in their military and navy.

An 'arms race' broke out between Germany and Britain. Wary of Germany's growing navy, Britain built the HMS *Dreadnought* in 1906, the largest, fastest and most modern battleship of its time. Soon Germany started to build its own dreadnoughts.

Alliances

In the years before World War I, European nations formed strategic military agreements (alliances) with each other. The most important of these were the **Triple Alliance** (known as the Central Powers) and the **Triple Entente** (known as the Allies or Allied Powers).

The Triple Alliance

The Triple Alliance was an agreement between Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy. These nations promised to support each other if one was attacked. However, when Austria-Hungary declared war in July 1914, Italy claimed to be neutral and did not enter the war.

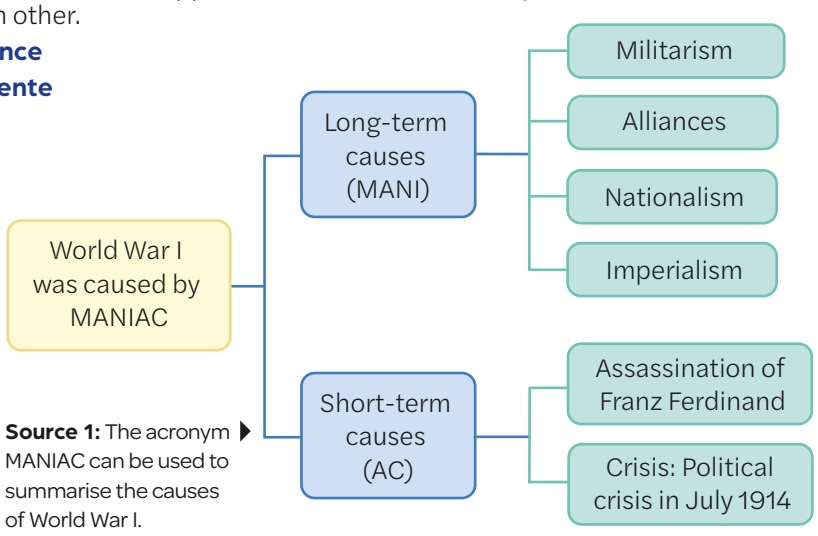
The Triple Entente

The word **entente** is French for 'friendly understanding'. In 1904, France and England formed an alliance called 'the Entente Cordiale'. Russia joined the agreement in 1907, and it became the Triple Entente. These agreements brought the countries together and solved arguments about territories in Asia and Africa.

Nationalism

Nationalism is a feeling of extreme loyalty to your nation-state, its people and culture, and involves promoting these interests ahead of other nations. The nation-state was relatively new to Europe. Austria–Hungary had become a nation in 1867, Italy unified in 1870 and Germany unified in 1871. Romania, Bulgaria and Serbia became sovereign nations in the late 1800s when the Ottoman Empire weakened its hold on eastern Europe.

By 1914, many of Europe's young nations were looking for a national identity to bind their peoples together. People were encouraged to be loyal to their own nation, so when war broke out, many enthusiastically enlisted to support and defend their country.



Source 1: The acronym MANIAC can be used to summarise the causes of World War I.

Source 2: Powerful new ships, such as the HMS *Dreadnought*, could easily outgun and outrun older vessels.

Imperialism

Imperialism is the expansion of a country's power and influence by colonising other countries, often by force. By 1900, France, Britain and Germany had large overseas empires. The size of their empires was a badge of honour for the major European powers, as well as an important engine to keep their economies going.

Source 3: Propaganda in WWI used iconic national figures to promote patriotism. Here, 'the Motherland', draped in flags, is welcoming home a soldier who has been successful in battle.

Learning ladder 10.9

Background and origins

1. What were the short-term causes of World War I?
2. Source 2: Which long-term cause of war is represented by the building of the HMS *Dreadnought*?
3. Source 3: Explain why nationalism might have encouraged nations to join the war.
4. Evaluate the causes of World War I and decide if it was inevitable.

Cause and effect

1. Define the term 'arms race'. What problems did it cause?
2. Describe the four main long-term causes of World War I.
3. Explain how each of the following factors contributed to the outbreak of war: militarism, alliances, nationalism, imperialism.
4. By analysing the causes of World War I, is any one factor more significant than the others? Give reasons for your answer.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

What triggered World War I?

The assassination of the Austro-Hungarian Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo by a Serbian-nationalist terrorist group called the Black Hand triggered a political crisis in the Balkans. When Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia following Ferdinand's assassination, the tensions on the existing chains of alliances escalated, ultimately leading to a global war.

Tensions in the Balkans

The Balkans, a region in south-eastern Europe, had been ruled by different empires for hundreds of years. The most recent power in the area was the Ottoman Empire, but it had started to crumble in the late 1800s. This caused the different nationalities in the Balkans to start declaring independence, often through war. Other empires, such as Russia and the Austro-Hungarian Empire, saw this as an opportunity to exert their influence.

In mid-1914, Serbia was a growing power in the Balkans. It was also dealing with ethnic and political tensions in the territories it had annexed during the Balkan Wars.

Source 1: Franz Ferdinand and his family in 1910. Ferdinand and his wife Sophie were using their trip to Sarajevo to celebrate their 14th wedding anniversary.

Source 2: Major events of the period 1882–1914

key ideas **timeline.**

1882 – Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy form the Triple Alliance

1901 – Australia becomes a Federation

1902 – Japan forms an alliance with the United Kingdom

1907 – The UK, France and Russia form the Triple Entente

28 June 1914 – Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie are assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia

Ethnic diversity of the Balkans region

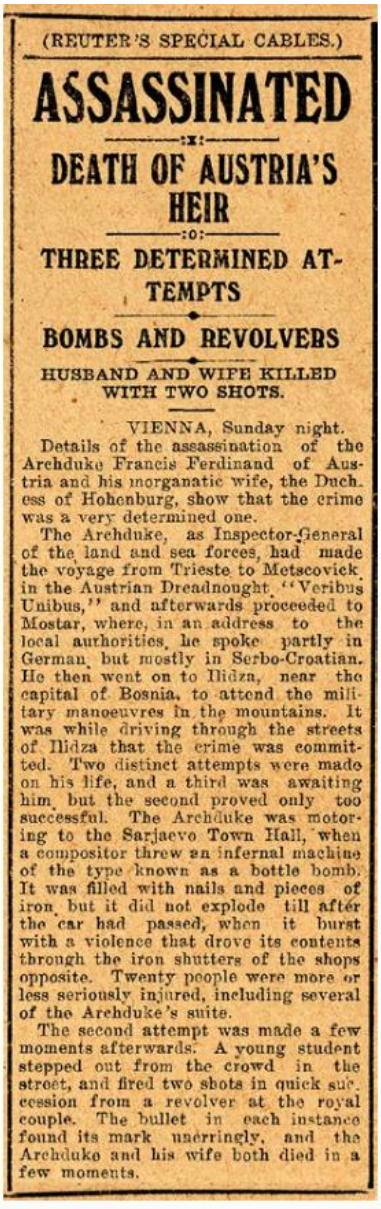
Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 3: The Balkans is one of the most ethnically and culturally diverse regions of Europe.

The shot heard around the world

Archduke Franz Ferdinand was the 55-year-old heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne and Inspector-General of the Austro-Hungarian Army. In June 1914, he and his wife Sophie went to Bosnia to inspect the Army's training and manoeuvres. This small country had recently been claimed by Austria–Hungary as part of its empire. Serbian ministers warned the Austrian government that it might be dangerous to visit Bosnia, but the Austrians did not take the warning seriously.

On 28 June 1914, in the Bosnian city of Sarajevo, Franz Ferdinand and his wife were shot and killed. The assassin, Gavrilo Princip, was a Bosnian-Serb nationalist and a member of the Black Hand, an organisation that wanted to unite all Serbians into one nation. The assassination – called 'the shot heard round the world' in the newspapers of the day – led to a **diplomatic crisis**.



(REUTER'S SPECIAL CABLES.)

ASSASSINATED

DEATH OF AUSTRIA'S HEIR

THREE DETERMINED ATTEMPTS

BOMBS AND REVOLVERS

HUSBAND AND WIFE KILLED WITH TWO SHOTS.

VIENNA, Sunday night.

Details of the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria and his morganatic wife, the Duchess of Hohenburg, show that the crime was a very determined one.

The Archduke, as Inspector-General of the land and sea forces, had made the voyage from Trieste to Metscovick in the Austrian Dreadnought "Veribus Unibus," and afterwards proceeded to Mostar, where, in an address to the local authorities, he spoke partly in German, but mostly in Serbo-Croatian. He then went on to Ilidza, near the capital of Bosnia, to attend the military manoeuvres in the mountains. It was while driving through the streets of Ilidza that the crime was committed. Two distinct attempts were made on his life, and a third was awaiting him, but the second proved only too successful. The Archduke was motoring to the Sarjaevo Town Hall, when a compositor threw an infernal machine of the type known as a bottle bomb. It was filled with nails and pieces of iron, but it did not explode till after the car had passed, when it burst with a violence that drove its contents through the iron shutters of the shops opposite. Twenty people were more or less seriously injured, including several of the Archduke's suite.

The second attempt was made a few moments afterwards. A young student stepped out from the crowd in the street, and fired two shots in quick succession from a revolver at the royal couple. The bullet in each instance found its mark unerringly, and the Archduke and his wife both died in a few moments.

Source 4: The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand made headlines around the world, including in Australia. This story appeared in the *Ballarat Evening Echo*, 29 June 1914.

3 August 1914
Australia offers a military force of 20 000 to the UK government

12 August 1914
Austria–Hungary invades Serbia; Britain and France declare war on Austria–Hungary

23–30 July 1914
Austria–Hungary blames Serbia for the assassination and declares war

17 August 1914
Russia invades Germany

1 August 1914
Germany declares war on Russia in support of its ally Austria–Hungary

3–6 August 1914
- Germany declares war on France and invades Belgium
- The UK declares war on Germany
- This means members of the British Empire, such as Australia, are also at war
- Austria–Hungary declares war on Russia

1 November 1914
The Ottoman Empire attacks Russia, entering the war on the side of the Triple Alliance

Source 5: Austrian and Serbian forces in conflict during the first days of the invasion of Serbia, near the bridge over the Sava River [Illustration by Achille Beltrame, from *La Domenica del Corriere*, 9 August 1914]

Weather Forecast: Cloudy Tonight and Wednesday

The Washington Times

HOME EDITION

NUMBER 8244. WASHINGTON, TUESDAY EVENING, JULY 28, 1914. PRICE ONE CENT.

AUSTRIA HAS CHOSEN WAR

TYPICAL SERVIAN SOLDIERS AND THEIR ANTIQUATED EQUIPMENT

At the left is shown a detachment of Serbs ready for action. These men have seen service in both the Balkan wars and have demonstrated their courage and discipline.

At the right is shown a group of artillery officers placing an old-time field piece in position, as a protection in one of the border towns against invasion. Servia's artillery has not kept pace with modern tendencies in military equipment.

MEDIATION REJECTED, EXCEPT TO PREVENT SPREAD OF CONFLICT

Occupation of Belgrade Unofficially Reported—Servians Said to Have Withdrawn Without Contest—England Told Events Have Gone Too Far to Permit Turning Back.

LONDON, July 28—Austria today formally declared war against Servia, according to Vienna dispatches received here.

It is understood that Belgrade has already been occupied by the Austrians.

This announcement of war quickly followed the refusal of Austria to suspend hostilities at England's suggestion, pending mediation.

Foreign Minister Berchtold, of Austria, made it

MME. CAILLAUX, IN Letters to McAdoo Newsies Ask Friends' Help District to Share

Source 6: Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia when it failed to meet only one of the 10 conditions of the Austro-Hungarian ultimatum.

Crisis

Austria-Hungary blamed Serbia for the assassination and issued a harsh **ultimatum** – 10 demands that would have politically embarrassed Serbia's rulers and drastically reduced its power in the Balkans. Serbia complied with all but one of the 10 demands – it refused to allow Austro-Hungarian agents to manage the assassination investigation. Because Serbia did not bow to all its demands, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia on 28 July 1914 and invaded the country two weeks later.

Serbia's minor refusal was used by Austria-Hungary as an excuse to declare war with the aim of expanding its power in the Balkans. Austro–Hungarian leaders felt confident because their ally Germany had declared it would support them with a '**blank cheque**', meaning it would support Austria-Hungary both militarily and politically, without placing limits on the amount of assistance.

The first response to the declaration of war came from Russia, which backed its ally Serbia. As hostilities escalated, more allies entered the battle on both sides. Within four months, all the great powers of Europe were at war.

Learning ladder 10.10

Background and origins

1. What was the Black Hand group?
2. Describe the tensions that existed in the Balkans.
3. Explain what Austria-Hungary hoped to gain by declaring war on Serbia.
4. Explain how the crisis developed after the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand.

Cause and effect

1. Use the timeline to identify when the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife occurred.
2. Describe the effect of Serbia refusing to allow Austro-Hungarian agents to manage the assassination investigation.
3. Explain how the assassination of one man caused so many nations to enter into the conflict.
4. Explain the effect of Germany giving Austria a 'blank cheque'.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

10.11

Why did World War I become a global war?

The world was divided into a complex network of alliances long before the assassination of Franz Ferdinand. This meant the dispute soon escalated into a global war between the Allies and the Central Powers. Australia was drawn into the dispute due to its relationship with Britain, one of the Allies.

A global war

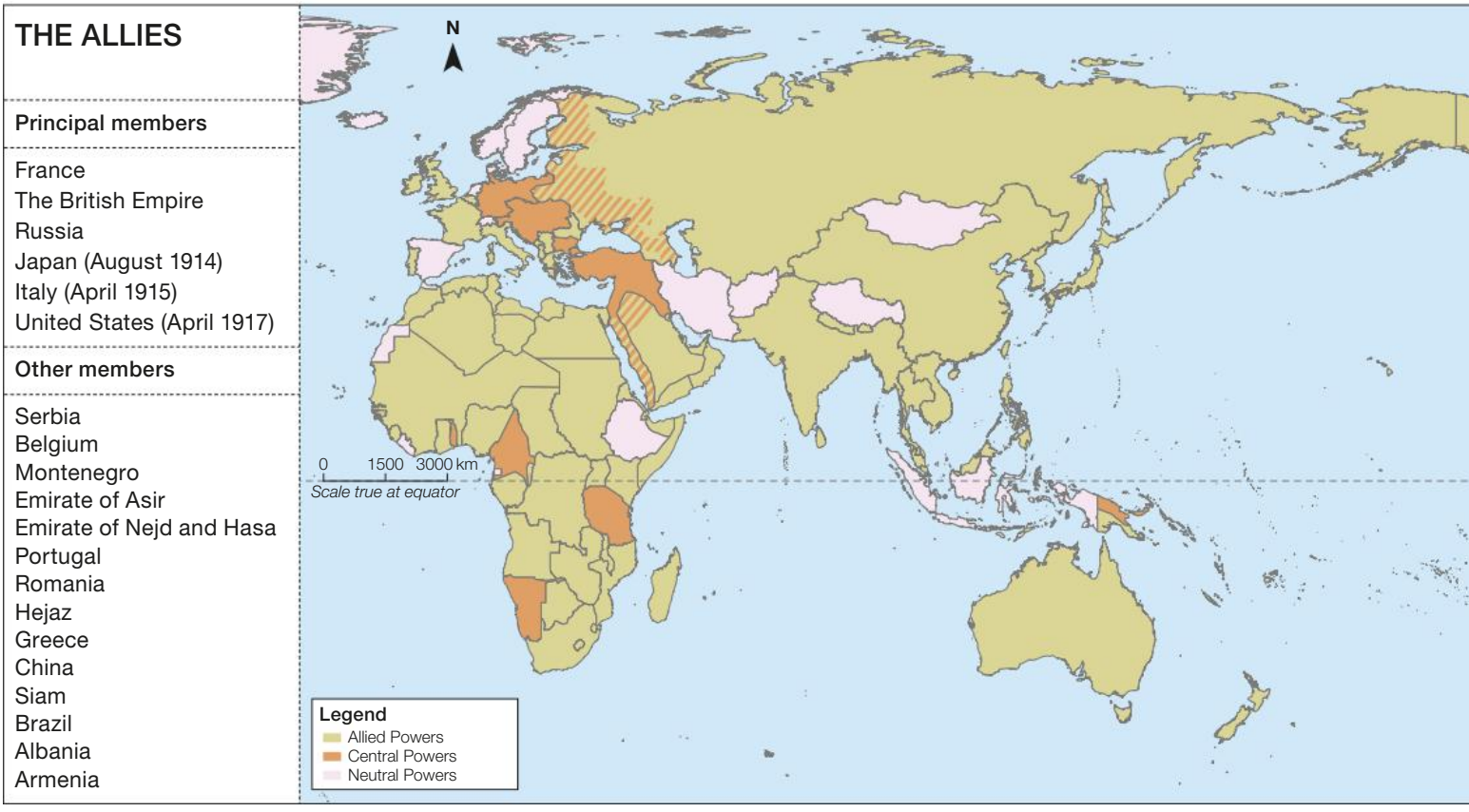
A local European quarrel quickly turned into a global war. The world became divided between the Allies (the Triple Entente, their colonies and territories and independent nations) and the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary and their allies). Not all countries sent troops, but many provided resources such as coal, oil, iron and food.

Although the war began in Europe, conflicts broke out across the world. Battles were fought in the colonies of the major empires, such as in German East Africa (modern-day Burundi, Rwanda and Tanzania) and Shandong in China. In India, the German Navy bombed British oil storage tanks in Madras (modern-day Chennai), and the coast of Chile was the site of several naval battles.

Nations in conflict

As the war continued, more nations took sides. The United States did not join the war until April 1917, but proved to be a key participant on the Allied side. Other nations played smaller roles, only providing resources or information – enough so that, if their side won, they might be rewarded. A few countries had little choice, as they were colonies or 'client states' of more powerful empires that ordered them to become involved.

Countries involved in World War I



International armies

Britain deployed units from across its empire. Soldiers from Canada, New Zealand and Australia were used in active combat. Men from the West Indies were not allowed to fight alongside white troops, and were mainly used in support roles.

More than 1 million Muslim, Sikh and Hindu soldiers from India and Gurkhas from Nepal volunteered for the British Indian Army. At the Battle of Gallipoli, about 16 000 troops from the Indian subcontinent fought alongside British, French and Anzac soldiers.

While the British colonial troops consisted of volunteers, the French colonial army included some men who were forced to fight. Soldiers from Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Madagascar and Somalia were conscripted by the French, and they too were mainly used in non-combat roles.

28 July 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Serbia.
1 August 1914	Germany declares war on Russia.
3 August 1914	Germany declares war on France.
4 August 1914	Britain declares war on Germany.
6 August 1914	Austria declares war on Russia.
23 August 1914	Japan declares war on Germany.
25 August 1914	Austria declares war on Japan.
6 April 1917	The US declares war on Germany.
7 December 1917	The US declares war on Austria–Hungary.

▲ **Source 2:** Timeline of entry into World War I by the world's most powerful countries and empires.

Source 1: What began as a conflict between European powers soon drew in most of the world, as colonies such as Australia sent forces to support the Allies and battles broke out in the colonies of the major empires.

THE CENTRAL POWERS

Principal members

German
Austria–Hungary
Ottoman Empire
Bulgaria

Other members

Azerbaijan
Belarus
Courland and Semigallia
Crimea
Don
Finland
Georgia
Jabal Shammar
Kuban
Lithuania
Northern Caucasus
Poland
Ukraine

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Learning ladder 10.11

Background and origins

1. Source 1: On which side was Australia in World War I?
2. Describe how Britain used its colonies as part of its war effort
3. Explain how France's use of its colonial troops differed from Britain's.
4. Explain how a European quarrel became a world war.

Chronology

1. Source 2: Create a timeline using the information in this source.
2. Use your timeline to answer true or false to the following:
   - Austria declared war on Russia before it declared war on Japan.
   - Germany declared war on Japan.
   - Germany declared war on Britain before declaring war on Russia.
   - Britain declared war on Russia.
3. Source 2 does not show when Australia entered the war. How would you determine when this occurred?
4. How does your timeline help to explain how quickly the war escalated?

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

Why did Australia become involved in the war?

During the early 20th century, Australia's ties to Britain were very strong. When Britain entered the war, Australia also joined by extension. Spurred by propaganda, large numbers of people enlisted to fight or support the troops. However, as the war continued, attitudes towards the conflict became less positive.

Initial response

When Britain declared war on Germany on 4 August 1914, Australia considered itself at war with Germany too. Reactions to the war varied; some people believed that it would be 'over by Christmas', while others were more sceptical and concerned. Most Australians believed that it was right to enter the war and support 'Mother England' in its hour of need.

Australia's combined state armies were small, and by law these Commonwealth Military Forces could not fight outside of Australia. Therefore, when war broke out, the Australian Imperial Force (AIF) was created. This was a volunteer 'expeditionary force', which meant it could fight overseas. The calls for enlistment started straight away.

> Whatever happens, Australia is part of the Empire right to the full. Remember that when the Empire is at war, so is Australia at war. That being so, you will see how grave is the situation. So far as the defences go here and now in Australia, I want to make it quite clear that all our resources in Australia are in the Empire and for the Empire and for the preservation and security of the Empire.

Source 1: Extract from Prime Minister Joseph Cook's speech, given in Horsham, Victoria, on 1 August 1914.

Australia's population was around 4 million people in 1914, which meant that there were about 820 000 men of fighting age (between 19 and 38). Australia offered 20 000 soldiers to the British government; the offer was accepted immediately.

AUSTRALIA'S OFFER ACCEPTED

TWENTY THOUSAND MEN WANTED

PRIME MINISTER RECEIVES MESSAGE

Official acceptance by the Imperial Government of the offer of the Commonwealth Government to provide a force of 20,000 men was announced by the Prime Minister today.

Mr Cook said that he had received the following message, through the Governor-General, from the Secretary of State for the Colonies:—

"His Majesty's Government gratefully accepts the offer of your Ministers to send a force of 20,000 men to this country."

The Prime Minister added: "We propose to send them at the earliest possible moment." He said that he could not say at this stage what the composition of the force would be.

Source 2: The ties between Britain and Australia remained strong, and Australian troops were sent to support the British abroad, as shown in this clipping from the *Melbourne Herald*, 7 August 1914.

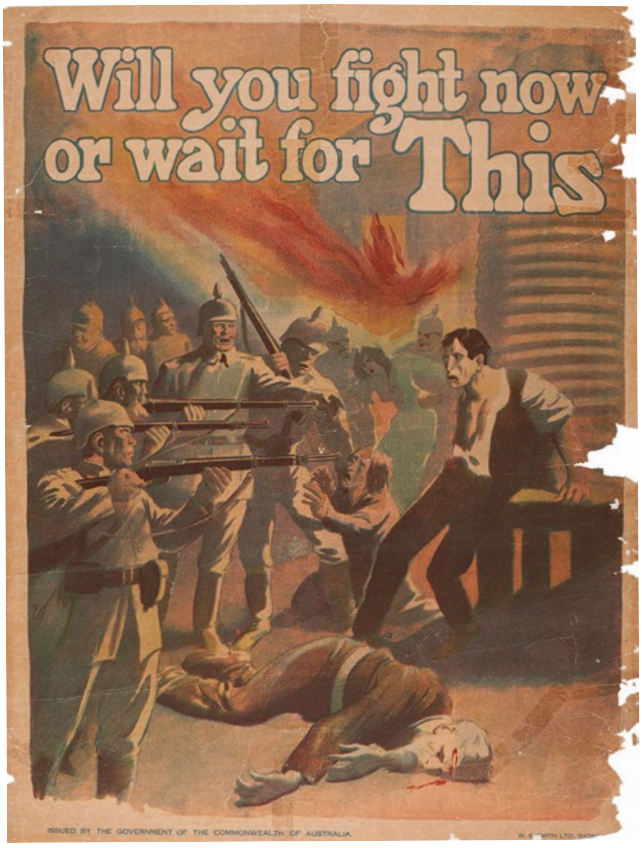
Reasons for enlisting

Thousands of Australians rushed to enlist for a variety of reasons.

- Many Australians still held strong familial and cultural ties to England, so fighting to protect the 'Mother Country' felt important.
- Australians were proud of their new nation; they wanted to represent their country overseas and show Europeans what Australians could do.
- Australia, a mostly rural nation, was very isolated. Travelling to Europe or the Middle East was an exciting idea.
- There was a lot of social pressure. Army **propaganda** posters were everywhere and enlistment became the main topic of conversation. Eligible men who did not enlist might find a white feather in their letterbox, suggesting that they were cowards.
- Football teams, cricket teams and groups from small towns would often all sign up together – keen to share the adventure.

Women signed up as nurses, with more than 2200 serving overseas. They also filled vital roles on the **home front**, doing the work of men who had gone abroad.

Source 3: Sport is often seen as a metaphor for war. Good sportsmen – men of bravery and action – were believed to make good soldiers.



Source 4: Some propaganda posters appealed to a sense of duty and moral obligation. This poster is from 1918.

Learning ladder 10.12

Background and origins

1. What was the origin of Australia's involvement in World War I?
2. Describe the background to the creation of the AIF.
3. Explain why Australian men enlisted to fight in World War I.
4. Explain why the Australian Government offered Britain 20 000 soldiers at the outbreak of the war.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: What is the origin of this source?
2. Source 2: Describe the historical context of this source.
3. Sources 3 and 4: Explain how useful these sources are for understanding how the government tried to convince Australian men to enlist.
4. Source 4: How reliable and accurate is this source in portraying how the war would affect Australia?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

10.13

How robust was Australia's democracy during World War I?

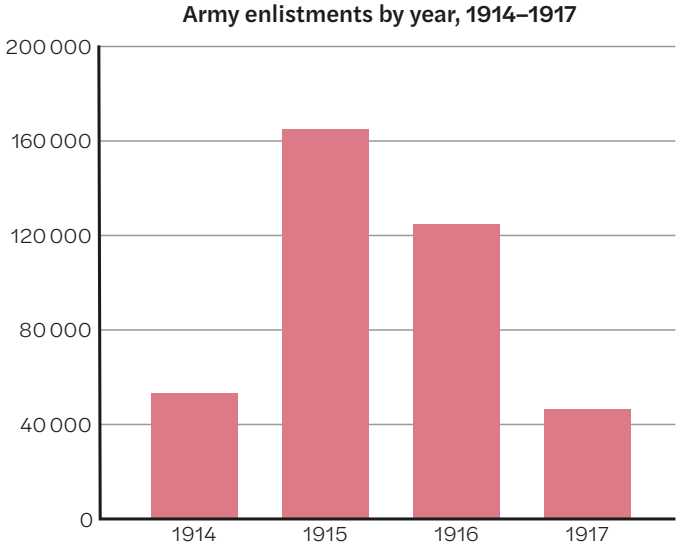
World War I placed significant pressure on Australia, yet throughout, democratic processes were used to make important decisions, shaping the nature of Australian democracy for generations to come.

Voting rights

Two federal elections were held during World War I, one in 1914 and one in 1917. To allow people serving overseas to vote, and thus maintain the robustness of Australian democracy, absentee voting was introduced in 1914. Servicemen received simplified ballot papers, which they could complete ahead of election day, to ensure their votes were counted.

However, this right did not extend to First Nations servicemen. First Nations Australians would not gain the right to vote in federal elections until 1962.

▲ **Source 1:** Members of the 7th Light Horse Regiment vote in the 1917 Federal Election at a desert outpost in Weli Sheikh Nuran, Palestine. [Australian War Memorial, P09606.003]



▲ **Source 2:** After an initial rush in 1915, Australia simply could not meet British calls for more troops. [Data from Australian War Memorial, 1943]

Physical requirements

In 1914, about 33 per cent of volunteers were rejected because of age, height and health restrictions. As the war went on, these restrictions were relaxed to take in more men.

Period	Age requirement	Minimum height requirement
August 1914	19–38 years	5 ft 6 in (170 cm)
June 1915	18–45 years	5 ft 2 in (158 cm)
April 1917	18–45 years	5 ft (152 cm)

▲ **Source 3:** The physical requirements for enlisting changed over the course of the war.

Source 4: Propaganda was used by both sides during the conscription plebiscites. [Poster on left: 'The Voice of the Tempter', David Low, Hector Lamond and F.J. Thomas John Sands Ltd; Courtesy of Australian War Memorial, ARTV10140]

Conscription debate

After the initial excitement, the number of recruits declined as the war went on and casualty rates increased. As news filtered back to Australia of the brutal nature of trench warfare, these numbers declined further.

By 1916, there was a shortage of people volunteering to enlist, and the Australian Government was not able to provide the troops needed by Britain. Prime Minister Billy Hughes proposed that Australia create an army based on **conscription**, meaning that eligible men would be forced to enter the army for a certain period.

The government had the power to introduce conscription laws, but Hughes needed to demonstrate public support in order to pass legislation in the Senate. He used democratic processes to do this, rather than raw political power. Hughes conducted two **plebiscites** during the war to try to bring in conscription. Like the 2017 marriage equality plebiscite, held a century later, these were non-binding national votes. (At the time, they were often incorrectly referred to as referendums.)

The first plebiscite to introduce conscription was held on 28 October 1916. It was narrowly rejected – 51 per cent of Australians voted against conscription. When Hughes was re-elected in 1917, he called for another plebiscite on conscription to solve the problem. On 20 December 1917 the plebiscite was rejected again, this time with a larger majority (54 per cent). The government did not try to implement conscription again during World War I.

The conscription debates were passionate and heated on both sides. Those in favour argued that Australia had a moral duty to support England, and that if the war was lost, Australia might also be invaded by Germany. There were various arguments against conscription; some were against war completely, while others supported the war effort but believed it was wrong to force men to become soldiers. The union movement argued against conscription because jobs would be taken by women or foreigners while men were on the frontlines.

Some arguments were along religious lines. Daniel Mannix, the Catholic Archbishop of Melbourne, declared that he was opposed to conscription. The Protestant majority then accused Australian Irish-Catholics of being anti-war and anti-empire.

Learning ladder 10.13

Impact and legacies

1. The legacy of Federation was the right to vote in federal elections. How is this shown in Source 1?
2. Source 2: Describe the impact of the horrors of the war on enlistments.
3. Explain how differences of opinion of conscription resulted in divisions among Australians.
4. Evaluate the legacy of World War I on Australia's democratic system.

Continuity and change

1. Describe how Australian democracy was maintained for Australians living outside the country during World War I.
2. Explain how the use of plebiscites can influence continuity or change in governing Australia.
3. Source 3: Explain why changes were made to enlistment requirements between 1914 and 1917.
4. Why do you think there was no change to the voting rights of First Nations Australians until 1962?

HOW TO
Continuity and change, page 495

10.14

Where did Australian soldiers serve?

As the global conflict escalated, Australian soldiers were drawn into battle in many different settings. With waves of volunteers drawn from across the nation, the Australians were keen to do themselves and their country proud.

Initial deployment

Australia's first active participation in combat actually occurred in Rabaul, a township in what is now Papua New Guinea. From the late 19th century, Germany had built a presence in the South Pacific with colonies in New Guinea, New Britain, the Solomon Islands, Palau, Nauru, Micronesia and the Marshall Islands.

The battle cruiser HMAS *Australia* of the Royal Australian Navy was sent to capture German New Guinea in September 1914. On 11 September, the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force attacked a wireless radio station. Six Australians lost their lives in that attack – the first Australian casualties of the war. By 21 September, all German forces in the colony surrendered. It remained under Australian occupation until the end of the war.

Formation of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps

The Australian Imperial Force (AIF) was a volunteer army. By September 1914, it consisted of 20 000 men, organised into a Light Horse Brigade and a 1st Infantry Division. By the end of the year they were in Egypt, training and getting to know the 10 000 soldiers from New Zealand who had joined them.

Together, these soldiers were known as the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC). Despite this title, the Corps also included a small number of British and Indian units.

Deployment

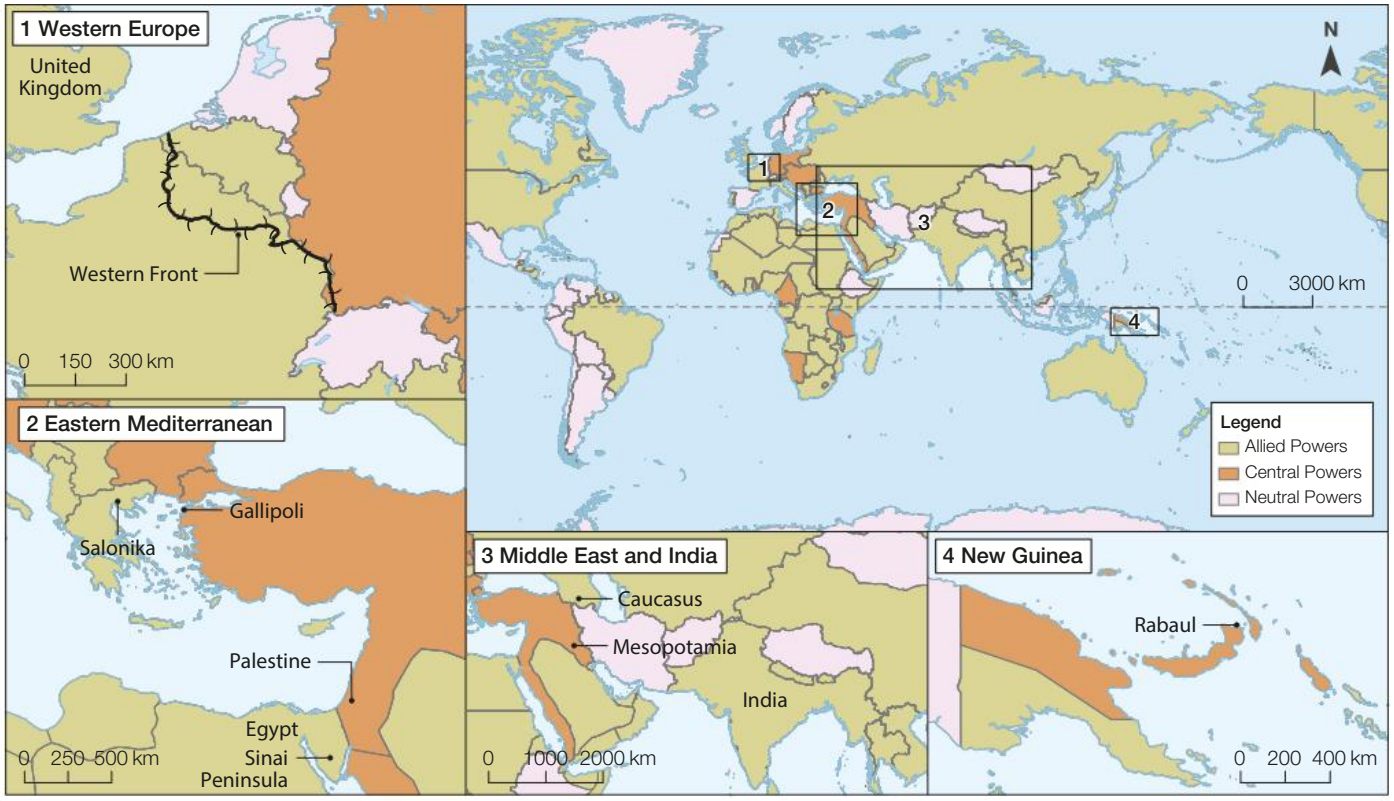
By November 1914, the Anzacs had completed their training in Egypt, which had previously been part of the Ottoman Empire but was declared a British protectorate once the war began. From here, they travelled to Gallipoli and then on to the Western Front.

Between 1916 and 1918, the Anzacs also participated in battles within both Egypt and Palestine – a period known as the Sinai and Palestine Campaign – in support of British forces fighting against Türkiye. Australian troops also supported the British in the Mesopotamian Campaign. Australian nurses served in Salonika and India, and the Australian Flying Corps flew in both France and the Middle East.

In total, 416 809 Australian men enlisted in World War I, of whom 331 781 served overseas. Of these, 61 720 died during the war and 170 000 were wounded.

Source 1: Australian troops training in Egypt, 1914. Several soldiers smuggled kangaroos into Egypt, where they were mascots and pets to the troops. [Photo from Australian War Memorial, C02588]

Regions where Australian servicemen and women were involved abroad in WWI



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2: Australian forces served in locations across the world.

Learning ladder 10.14

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What is the significance of 11 September 1914?
2. Describe the formation of the ANZACs.
3. Source 1: Explain how Australian soldiers developed an identity as being from Australia.
4. Source 2: Explain the places where Australian soldiers served during World War I.

Significance

1. Describe the significance of being part of the British Empire for Australian soldiers.
2. Explain the significance of Australia's involvement in Rabaul.
3. Explain why the AIF would have been sent to Egypt in 1914 rather than into battle.
4. Explain the significance of the number of Australian soldiers who were killed or wounded during World War I.

HOW TO Significance, page 504

10.15

How did Australian soldiers serve at Gallipoli?

Australian soldiers played a key role in the Battle of Gallipoli. In one of the bloodiest battles of World War I, 8700 Australian men died in the fight to control the Dardanelles. Allied forces ultimately withdrew, and the Ottoman Army declared victory.

The Gallipoli **peninsula** is a coastal region in Türkiye. It runs along a narrow sea passage called 'the Dardanelles', which opens up to the Sea of Marmara, leading ultimately to the Black Sea. This was a key transport route as well as a communications link with Russia.

When the Ottoman Empire joined the war, it closed the Dardanelles and the Bosporus Strait to ships from Russia, France and the United Kingdom. This meant that Russia could not easily receive supplies. To support its ally, the British Navy planned an attack to gain control of this strategic sea passage.

Landing of the Anzacs

After training in Egypt, the Anzac troops were transported to Gallipoli at short notice, landing before dawn on 25 April 1915. Anzac and Indian, British and French troops engaged with the defending Turks. They came under heavy fire from Turkish artillery and struggled to gain ground. Despite the Turks holding the higher terrain, the Allies managed to establish a foothold; a few square kilometres of cliffs, gullies and beach. Here, they dug in.

A long campaign

The quick, decisive victory envisioned by the Allies did not occur. Fighting dragged on for months, as the Allies sought to gain more territory and the Turks attempted to drive them back.

As the death toll rose, so did the risk of diseases such as typhoid and dysentery; the corpses of soldiers, rotting in the hot sun, attracted swarms of flies. Occasional breaks in fighting allowed both sides to clear their dead and attend to the wounded soldiers in No Man's Land. Such breaks often followed attacks and counterattacks, such as the massive Turkish push on 18–19 May, in which 42 000 Turks attempted to rush the Allies. The attempt was unsuccessful and more than 10 000 Turkish lives were lost.

Anzac forces played a major role in two key battles.

- The Battle of Lone Pine: the Anzacs created a diversion to distract the Turks, allowing Allied troops to land at Suvla Bay and threaten the high ridges.
- The Battle of the Nek: Australian Light Horse troops attempted to storm a ridge and capture the Turkish positions. An early naval bombardment was meant to disrupt Turkish troops, but too much time elapsed between the bombing and the charge. Turkish troops returned to their trenches and bombarded the Australians with machine-gun fire.

Withdrawal

By November 1915, Allied leaders decided to withdraw and redeploy the remaining soldiers to the Western Front. Under cover of darkness, the Anzacs withdrew without further loss.

Source 1: This photograph shows men of the Royal Naval Division and Australians in the same trench. One is using a 'sniperscope' and another a periscope.

The Battle of Gallipoli was lost. Of the approximately 44 250 Allied troops who died during the campaign, 8700 were Australian. Approximately 100 000 Allies were injured. The Ottoman Empire lost approximately 86 700 men, with hundreds of thousands injured. Australia's experience at Gallipoli is seen by many as the nation's 'baptism of fire', which helped to forge the national identity of the newly federated country.

Source 2: The Dardanelles was a shipping passage of the utmost importance. Whoever controlled Gallipoli would control the Dardanelles.

Learning ladder 10.15

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Describe how the landing at Gallipoli became the foundation of the Anzac legacy.
2. Explain how the Turkish defence of the Gallipoli peninsula contributed to the creation of the Anzac legacy.
3. Australia and Türkiye were enemies during World War I but now jointly commemorate Anzac Day. Explain how the events at Gallipoli have resulted in a shared legacy.
4. The Gallipoli campaign was a defeat, yet the Anzac legacy is a positive one. Evaluate the impact on the Australian national identity of the Anzacs at Gallipoli.

Contestability

1. Identify one way the Gallipoli campaign has been remembered in Australian history.
2. Describe how the Gallipoli campaign is interpreted as both a military defeat and a national legacy.
3. Explain why different people might interpret the Gallipoli campaign in different ways.
4. Compare the military outcome of Gallipoli with its long-term impact on Australia's national identity.

HOW TO Contestability, page 506

10.16

How did Australian soldiers serve on the Western Front?

The Western Front was the most renowned and deadliest battleground of the war. Close to half the Australians who fought there died.

Establishment of the Front

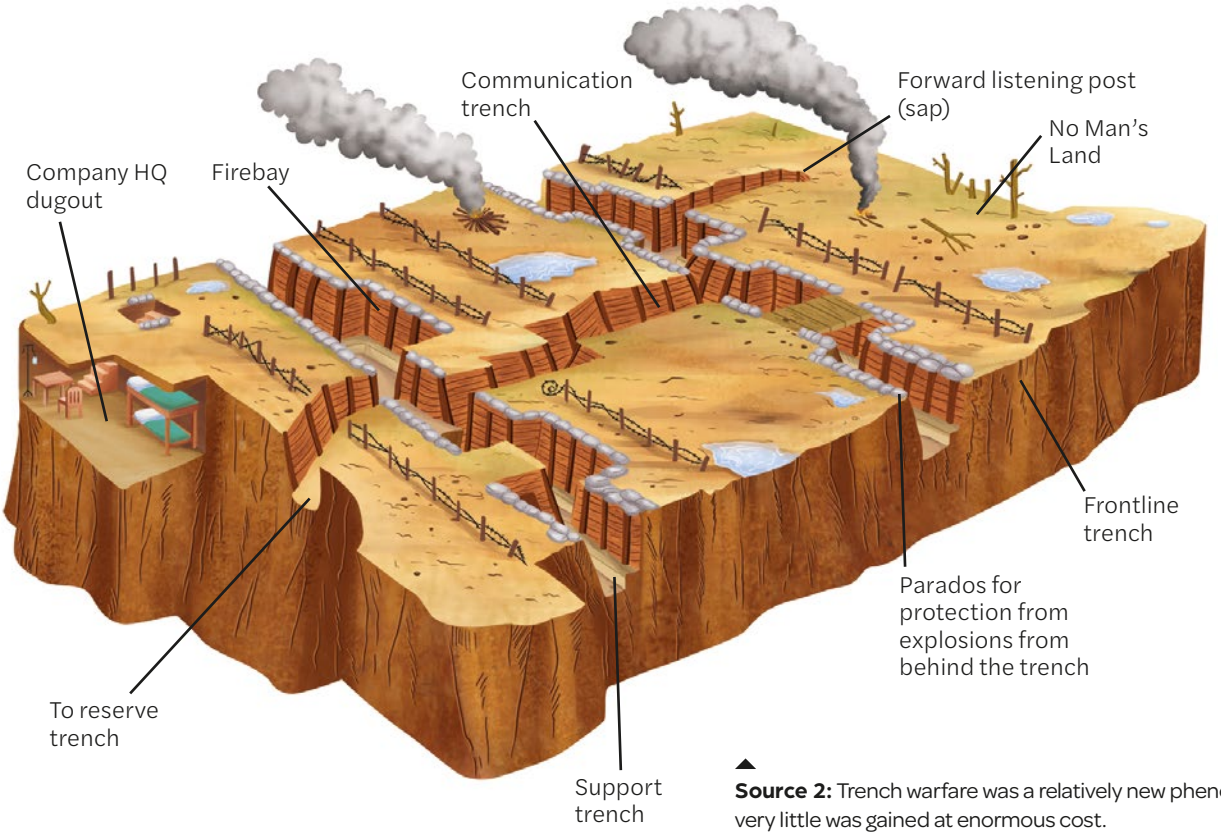
The Western Front was a stretch of land over 600 kilometres long, situated between the North Sea coast in the north of France and the German-Swiss border. Many of the worst and bloodiest battles of World War I were fought along this front.

The Western Front became a battleground early in the war, when Germany invaded Belgium on 3 August 1914. The German plan was to race through Belgium and conquer France within six weeks, and to then focus on fighting the Russians in the east. However, the small Belgian Army slowed the advance long enough for the Allies to mobilise and meet the Germans in the north of France. Both sides began to dig in – literally, as they dug defensive trenches – for a long conflict.

Location of the 1914–1918 battlefields of the Western Front

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** The Western Front saw Belgium and northern France turned into a series of trenches and devastated battlefields.



Source 2: Trench warfare was a relatively new phenomenon; very little was gained at enormous cost.

Stalemate

Hastily dug defensive trenches quickly developed into a sophisticated system of frontline and supply trenches. The Western Front ended up with 40 000 kilometres of trenches dug – enough to stretch around Australia's coastline 1.3 times.

From the North Sea to the Swiss border, the Western Front became the stage for four years of brutal and bloody battles, often for little gain and at the expense of many lives.

The Allies had more soldiers on the Front, but the German trenches were better defended and protected, so neither side made much progress. This stalemate would not be broken until 1918, when new offensive weaponry was used in more effective ways, most notably by the Australian general John Monash.

Australians on the Western Front

Australian soldiers were sent to the Western Front in March 1916. They were involved in almost 30 battles, including at the Somme, Fromelles, Pozieres and Villers-Bretonneux. More than 295 000 Australians served on the Front, and around 46 000 soldiers died there. Another 132 000 were wounded.

Learning ladder 10.16

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What led to the creation of the Western Front?
2. List the battles in which Australians were involved on the Western Front.
3. Explain trench warfare.
4. Explain why a stalemate occurred and how it was eventually broken.

Cause and effect

1. What was the effect of the Belgian Army slowing the German advance?
2. Describe what led to Australian soldiers being sent to the Western Front.
3. Explain what led to Germany having to fight on two fronts.
4. Explain why the Australian casualty rate was so high on the Western Front.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

What was Australia's First Nations Peoples' experience of war?

When World War I began, approximately 90 000 First Nations people lived in Australia. Although they did not have equal rights under Australian law, more than 1000 First Nations men served in the war. A quarter of these men gave their lives.

First Nations men enlist

In 1903, the *Defence Act* was passed by the federal parliament: it ruled that First Nations men could not enlist in the defence forces, even though they had served in the Boer War. The white colonial values that had directed immigration policy from 1901 now applied to Australia's armed forces.

In 1917, with demand for soldiers high and enlistment numbers falling, the *Defence Act* was amended. Volunteers from the First Nations could be accepted, provided they had one parent of European descent. Some men had actually enlisted before this, as recruiters often turned a blind eye to policy, particularly in rural and remote areas.

Why did these men volunteer to fight for a country that did not consider them equals? Many probably did so for the same reasons as other volunteers – loyalty to their friends and community, or a sense of duty. Others might have joined for financial reasons: privates were paid six shillings a day, which is more than they would have received working in Australia.

First Nations on the frontlines

Approximately 1000–1300 First Nations soldiers served in World War I. At least 70 of them saw action at Gallipoli, and 13 lost their lives there. Information about these soldiers is difficult to uncover. Military records often did not record Indigenous status on the records of individual soldiers, describing them instead by their physical features.

Contemporary research suggests that around 100 First Nations men served in the Australian Light Horse Brigade. One Light Horse troop, which consisted of 26 First Nations soldiers, was active in the Sinai and Palestine Campaign.

Source 1: An unidentified First Nations soldier from the 20th Battalion [Australian War Memorial, P01703.001]

Source 2: A group of recruits for the 9th Battalion in front of one of the huts at Enoggera Barracks, Brisbane. This group includes an unknown Aboriginal soldier, centre row, holding an accordion. [Australian War Memorial, P00889.010]

After the war

When the war ended, many First Nations soldiers returned to their lives as second-class citizens. They were often not invited to join Anzac Day marches, and were prevented from entering Returned Servicemen's League (RSL) facilities. Some First Nations soldiers returned home to find that their children had been taken as part of the **Stolen Generations** or their land seized from reserves to give to non-Indigenous returned servicemen as farm land.

As a minority group in their own homeland, the contribution of these soldiers long went almost completely unrecognised. Only in recent years has their service been celebrated and their stories told.

Men such as Douglas Grant, Harry Thorpe, Edmund Bilney, brothers Richard, Robert and George Kirby, Richard Martin and Chris Saunders are just some of the brave First Nations Anzacs. Marion Leane Smith, a First Nations woman from New South Wales, also served in World War I; she served in France in 1917 on an ambulance train, as part of the Canadian nursing division.

Learning ladder 10.17

Significant people, ideas and events

1. How many First Nations people joined the AIF during World War I?
2. Describe what prevented First Nations people from joining up in 1914.
3. Explain why First Nations people were able to volunteer.
4. Explain why military records did not identify First Nations soldiers

Continuity and change

1. Identify the change to the *Defence Act* in 1917.
2. Describe the changes in policy towards First Nations people joining the AIF.
3. Explain how First Nations soldiers were treated after World War I.
4. Explain why the service of First Nations people to Australia went unrecognised until recently.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

How did women and German–Australians experience the war?

For women, World War I created new opportunities, laying the foundations for the change that would come in the following decades. For German–Australians, their wartime experiences were characterised by suspicion, with their loyalty to Australia coming into question.

Changing roles for women

At the beginning of the 20th century, most women worked in the home or in jobs such as domestic service, cooking, nursing or teaching. When the war broke out, many women wanted to support the war effort, so thousands of women volunteered for local organisations. They sent packages to the frontlines, raised funds to support soldiers, sent food to soldiers and volunteered at hospitals.

The only way women could serve in the army during World War I was to become a nurse, and more than 2200 women signed up with the Australian Army Nursing Service. The nurses had to be 25 years or older, and be unmarried or widowed. Many women lied to get through the recruitment process, so some 21-year-olds signed up, as well as married women. They served on transport and hospital ships, as well as in war zones. During the war, 46 Australian women lost their lives. These included nurses, munition workers, stewardesses and a doctor.

Not all women supported the war. Adela Pankhurst, daughter of famous British suffragette Emmeline Pankhurst, migrated to Australia in 1914. She took up an active role with the Women's Peace Army, a movement against war and conscription, alongside Melbourne suffragette Vida Goldstein. Both were leading proponents of peace and staunch advocates for women's rights.

Persecution of German–Australians

In 1914, Australia had a small German population of about 100 000 people, or 2 per cent of the population. Life changed drastically for these people when war broke out. All Germans were required to report to the local police station weekly, sometimes daily. The police would then fill out a secret report, stating whether this person could be trusted or if they were 'anti-British'.

Internment camps were established in some states, such as Holsworthy Army Barracks in New South Wales and Langwarrin Camp in Victoria. Many German and Austrian men were put into these camps for the duration of the war; they were joined by others who had been detained in Asia by the British. Some voluntarily went into camps to ensure that their wives and children would receive a government allowance. Women and children were kept at Molonglo in New South Wales.

▲ **Source 1:** Women could not join the Australian military until World War II, and could not operate in combat roles until 1990. Most Australian women who served in World War I were nurses.

▲ **Source 2:** The Molonglo Internment Camp held more than 150 families of German descent. They attended school, played tennis and interacted well with the local community. In 1919, after the war, they were deported to Europe. [Australian War Memorial, H17413]

War Precautions Act 1914

Many people in Australia were on high alert for spies and enemy agents, despite the war being thousands of kilometres away. A significant minority of Australians could trace their roots to continental Europe, particularly Germany. Despite being born in Australia, or having lived in Australia for some time, they attracted suspicion.

Suspicion also fell on trade unions, pacifists, socialists and anti-conscriptionists, who were seen as dangerous to the war effort or critical of the government. Many were investigated and sometimes even prosecuted. Passed in August 1914, the *War Precautions Act* gave the government wide-ranging powers to control all aspects of daily life. It remained in place until 1920, and aimed to:

- prevent acts of espionage
- prevent activity or communication that could jeopardise military operations
- prevent the spread of reports that might cause alarm
- prohibit foreign nationals and naturalised citizens from entering Australia, and allow the deportation of those already present
- prohibit foreign nationals and naturalised citizens from living in certain areas
- control the registration, movements, work and place of residence of foreign nationals and naturalised citizens in Australia
- prevent money or materials being shipped out of Australia without permission.

Learning ladder 10.18

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Describe the ways women supported the war effort.
2. Describe the requirements for joining up as a nurse.
3. Explain the impact of the war on Germans living in Australia during World War I.
4. Explain the significance of the *War Precautions Act* and how it affected those living in Australia at the time.

Perspectives

1. Describe the perspective prior to World War I on 'women's work'.
2. Explain why nursing would have been viewed as a suitable role for women in the war.
3. Explain why the perspective on Germans living in Australia changed after 1914.
4. Compare the perspectives on the war of women who supported the war effort and those such as Adela Pankhurst and Vida Goldstein who did not.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

How did Australians contribute to the war effort on the home front?

Australia's participation in the war affected the whole population, both directly and indirectly. There was widespread support in schools, charities and communities for the war effort, as well as large scale efforts to support returning servicemen and their families.

Civilian mobilisation

Immediately after war was declared in August 1914, a huge civilian body of voluntary workers mobilised to support the war effort. Across Australia, men, women and children sold dolls, badges and other items in the streets and at public venues to raise funds. In 1916, the Australian Comforts Fund was formed to coordinate smaller state groups.

Fundraising was also carried out through events. Performers organised carnivals, concerts and parades; churches held fetes and garden parties; and sporting clubs ran tournaments and exhibition matches.

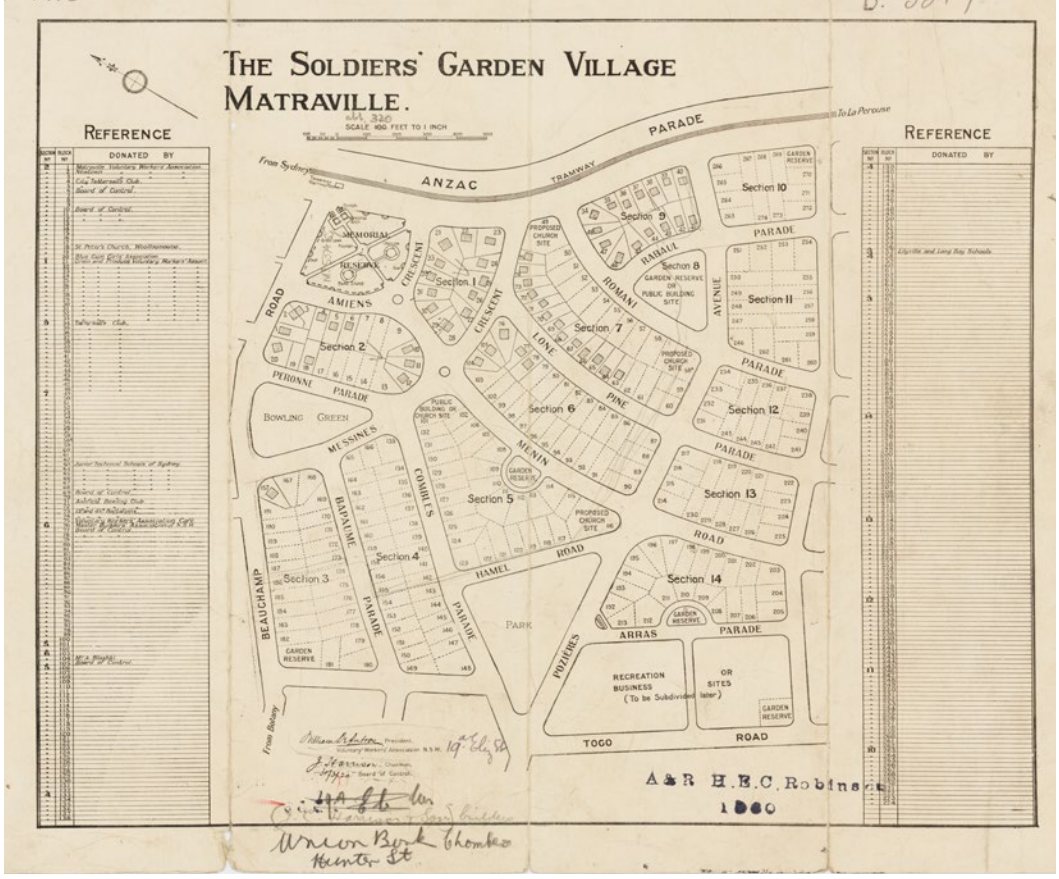
Source 1: Selling badges was particularly important for the war effort. In addition to raising money, they reminded people of their obligation to those risking their lives overseas.

Tasks for children

Children were engaged in supporting the war effort in many ways, including:

- preparing clothing and other goods to send to soldiers
- taking on more household duties to cover for fathers on the frontlines and mothers at work
- fundraising
- collecting scrap metal for recycling
- undergoing cadet training: military training was compulsory for boys aged 12 and over
- enlisting to fight: some teenage boys lied about their age to join the army.

Source 2: Children made socks and other supplies to send to soldiers on the frontline, part of a united push to support the war effort. [Australian War Memorial, H11581]



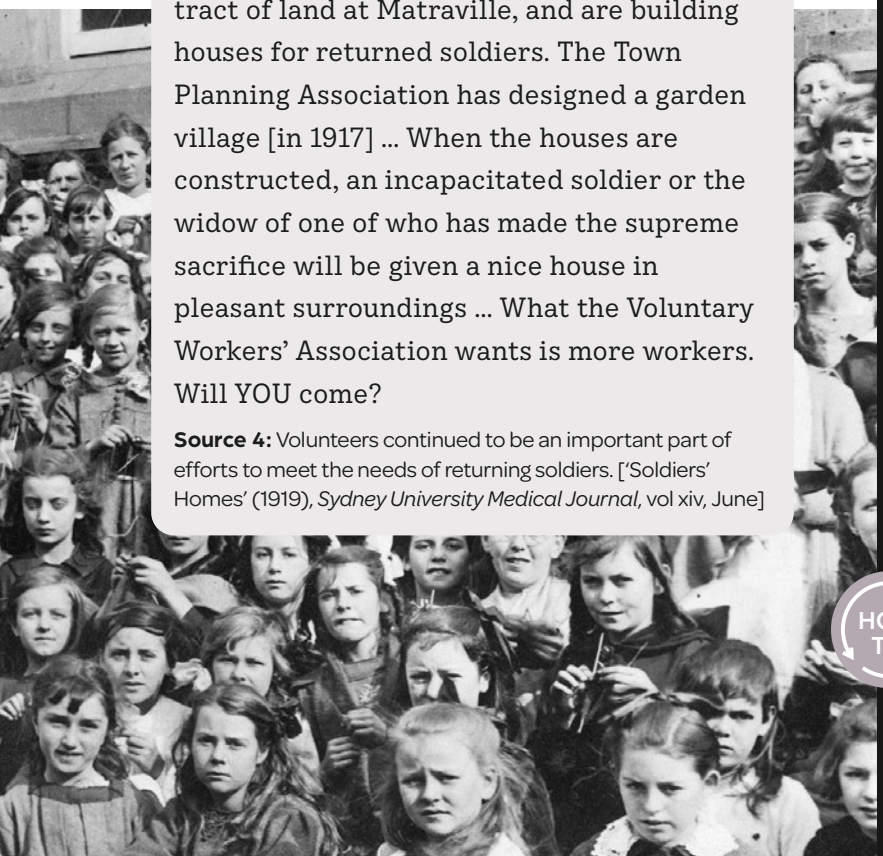
Soldiers' homes

As wounded servicemen started coming home, greater effort went into bodies like the Returned Soldiers Association (RSA, later to become the RSL). Funds were sought to build rehabilitation hospitals. A few groups made plans to build homes for disabled soldiers and war widows.

Source 3: Plans for Matraville Soldiers' Garden Village from 1920. Some houses had already been built by this time, as shown on the plans.

When our boys went off we promised that we would do everything we possibly could for them if they should come back wounded. How is each one of us honouring these silent promises? Let me tell you what the Voluntary Workers are doing. They have acquired a big tract of land at Matraville, and are building houses for returned soldiers. The Town Planning Association has designed a garden village [in 1917] ... When the houses are constructed, an incapacitated soldier or the widow of one of who has made the supreme sacrifice will be given a nice house in pleasant surroundings ... What the Voluntary Workers' Association wants is more workers. Will YOU come?

Source 4: Volunteers continued to be an important part of efforts to meet the needs of returning soldiers. ['Soldiers' Homes' (1919), *Sydney University Medical Journal*, vol xiv, June]



Learning ladder 10.19

Background and origins

1. What association preceded the RSL?
2. Describe the origin of the Australian Comforts Fund.
3. Describe the background to the 'garden village' concept of the Voluntary Workers Association.
4. Explain how returning wounded soldiers influenced the work of the RSA.

Significance

1. What was the significance of selling badges?
2. Describe the significance of the war efforts of children.
3. Explain the historical significance of the Soldiers' Garden Village at Matraville.
4. Explain the significance of organisations such as the Australian Comforts Fund and Returned Soldiers Association (RSA), which later became the Returned Services League (RSL).

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

How was peace achieved to end WWI?

World War I was an unprecedented event. It destroyed more human life and infrastructure than any conflict ever before. Dealing with the effects of this disaster was almost as large a challenge as fighting the war itself.

The surrender of Germany

When Germany's Spring Offensive in 1918 failed to break the long deadlock on the Western Front, the country found itself facing exhaustion, starvation and collapse. Added to this was America's entry into the war, which had brought fresh troops and supplies to the Allies. The German government requested an armistice in September 1918, and this was signed on 11 November 1918.

The aftermath of war

After four brutal years of slaughter and hardship, the Allies were looking for ways to settle the score. The armistice of 11 November may have ended the fighting, but loss and damage was widespread, particularly across continental Europe.

Trench warfare and new weapons technology had left significant environmental destruction, in addition to the huge death tolls, injuries and economic devastation. The empires of central and eastern Europe were broken, with new nations clawing for their own freedom amid widespread social unrest.

Treaties and agreements

Five treaties were signed in 1919 and 1920. They redrew borders, created new nations, restricted military capacities, forbade further alliances and provided restitution to the Allies.

Perhaps the most important was the Treaty of Versailles, signed at the Palace of Versailles on 28 June 1919 by the Allied Powers and Germany during the Paris Peace Conference. It imposed punitive measures on Germany. The new German government had to give up around 10 per cent of its pre-war territory and surrender all of its overseas possessions. Saarland, rich in coal, and Danzig's busy harbour (now Gdansk) were put under the control of the League of Nations, which was founded in January 1920.

European political borders after World War I

Source: Matilda Education Australia

▲ **Source 1:** The political borders of Europe shifted dramatically in only a decade.

Source 2: The signing of the Treaty of Versailles. Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes was present at the negotiations, and argued successfully for reparations for Australia. [Joseph Finnemore (1919), *Key to the Signing of the Treaty of Peace at Versailles*]

In the words of famous British economist John Maynard Keynes, the treaty gave Germany a 'Carthaginian peace' – one that imposed peace by crushing the enemy. The resulting economic hardships in Germany led to a bitterness that would, in time, contribute to the rise in power of Adolf Hitler.

Australia after the war

At war's end, more than a quarter of a million Australians needed to be returned to their country. But because of a lack of available ships, it took some up to 18 months to get home.

Unfortunately, returning to a 'normal' life was almost impossible. There was widespread unemployment, so many soldiers could not find jobs. The government gave pensions to returning soldiers, nurses and war widows. This provided support, but was a massive drain on the Australian economy.

Health was also a major post-war problem. As some soldiers had been exposed to the deadly influenza that swept through Europe in 1918–1919, they needed to be quarantined upon their return home. Despite this, the disease entered the country and caused almost 12 000 deaths. Nevertheless, Australia rose in stature and prominence politically as a result of its involvement in the war. Other countries now took the young nation much more seriously.

Learning ladder 10.20

Impact and legacies

1. Why was World War I described as 'an unprecedented war'?
2. Describe the impact of World War I.
3. Describe the impact of the peace treaty on Germany.
4. Explain the impact of the war on returning soldiers.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the change that led to the end of the war.
2. Describe the changes to Europe because of the treaties signed in 1919 and 1920.
3. Explain the effect of the 'Carthaginian peace' imposed on Germany for peace in Europe after World War I.
4. Compare Source 1 with a map of Europe from 1914. Evaluate the patterns of continuity and change from 1914 to 1919.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

What were the experiences of returning soldiers?

During World War I, 330 000 Australian men and 2000 women served overseas. While many returned soldiers went back to everyday life, others found themselves restless, unemployed and feeling misunderstood. Tens of thousands of soldiers returned home wounded and suffering 'shell shock' – their life would never be the same as it was prior to joining up.

Repatriation

The process for bringing soldiers home is called **repatriation**. This occurred both during and at the end of the war. Around 170 000 Australian soldiers were wounded, affected by gas, permanently disabled or suffered psychological injury. To manage repatriation, the Australian Government created the Repatriation Department in 1918 to assist returned soldiers settle back into the community and receive medical care. The department was also responsible for war pensions and loans, vocational training and employment assistance for **veterans**.

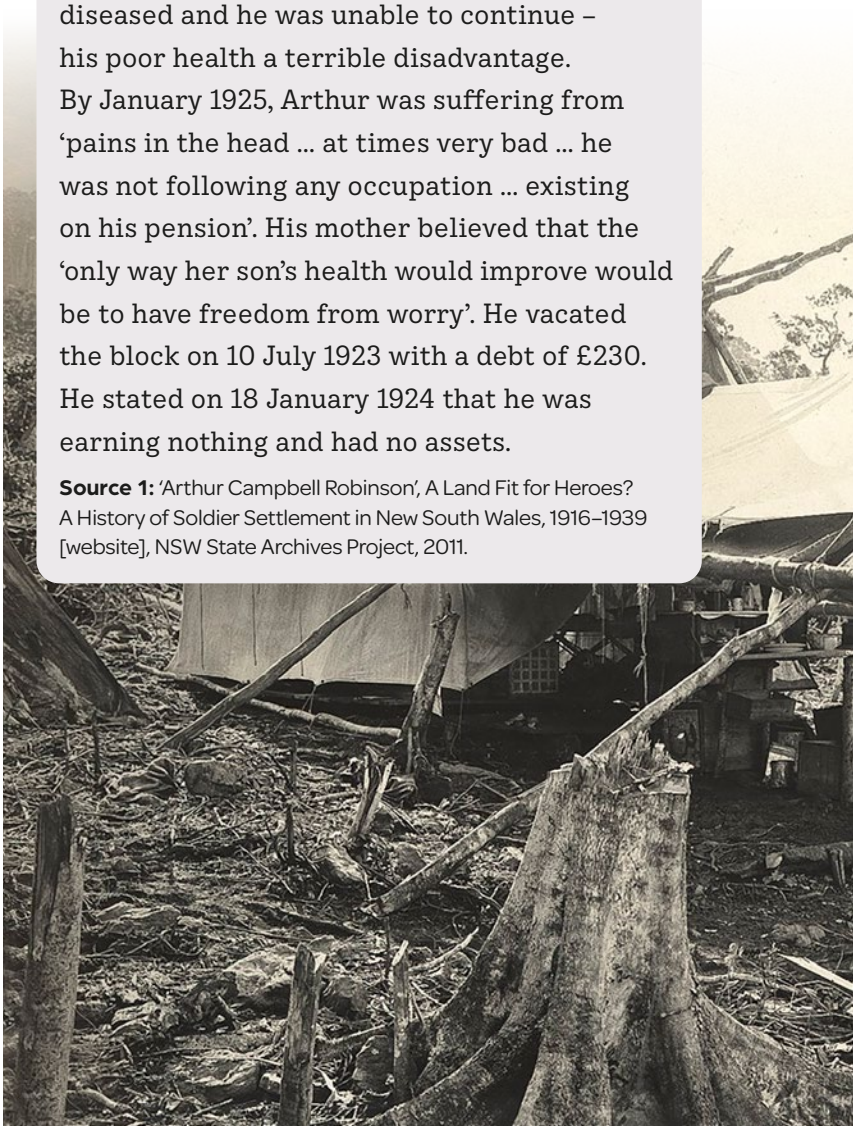
The word 'repat' became a common term in Australia at this time. For those ex-soldiers who were permanently incapacitated, their life was spent in repatriation hospitals such as the Randwick Military Hospital. Many returned soldiers had to rely on repat or volunteer services such as the Red Cross and the Returned Sailors and Soldiers Imperial League of Australia (today known as the RSL) for care and support.

Shell shock

It was not uncommon for soldiers who had experienced the terror of new weapons and witnessed the deaths of their mates to be left traumatised. Today we would call this PTSD (Post Traumatic Stress Disorder) but at the time of World War I it was known as **shell shock**. It was first thought to be caused by being near exploding shells on the battlefield. The symptoms included tiredness, 'the shakes', confusion, nightmares, headaches and nervousness. Unlike people with physical injuries that could be seen, those suffering from shell shock did not always receive the care and treatment they needed. Some turned to alcohol, some were placed in asylums for the insane and some took their own lives.

Arthur Campbell Robinson was wounded at Villers-Bretonneux in France by a German explosive bullet, which shattered the right side of his head. He was repatriated to Australia in 1918 and took up a block on Mullumbimby Soldier Settlement on 24 February 1919. The block was of poor quality on a clay ridge. His banana crop became diseased and he was unable to continue – his poor health a terrible disadvantage. By January 1925, Arthur was suffering from 'pains in the head … at times very bad … he was not following any occupation … existing on his pension'. His mother believed that the 'only way her son's health would improve would be to have freedom from worry'. He vacated the block on 10 July 1923 with a debt of £230. He stated on 18 January 1924 that he was earning nothing and had no assets.

Source 1: 'Arthur Campbell Robinson', A Land Fit for Heroes? A History of Soldier Settlement in New South Wales, 1916–1939 [website], NSW State Archives Project, 2011.



Soldier settlement scheme

In order to give work and an income to unemployed returned soldiers, a Soldier Settlement Scheme was established by each of the states. Under this scheme, returned soldiers were given small blocks of land to farm. Around 40 000 returned men took up the scheme; however, few were able to make a living due to the small size of the blocks and the low quality of the land.

The New South Wales Government began providing Crown land in rural areas to returned soldiers in 1916. Loans were made available to make improvements to the land or buy equipment. Settlements for groups were also set up where former soldiers worked together with the support of a farming expert. Clearing land was hard work and those without knowledge of farming had little success.

Source 2: Members of the Red Cross Society providing 'comforts' to returned troops at Randwick Military Hospital, later known as the Prince of Wales Hospital, Sydney, NSW [Australian War Memorial, H16130]

Source 3: Mullumbimby Soldiers' Settlement Estate, 1921

Learning ladder 10.21

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Source 1: Who was Arthur Robinson?
2. Describe how shell shock affected soldiers.
3. Describe the Soldier Settlement Scheme.
4. Explain the actions taken by the Australian Government to repatriate returned soldiers. Suggest how successful these schemes were.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify who created this source and what it is about.
2. Source 2: What does this source show about returned soldiers' experiences.
3. Source 1: Explain why Arthur Robinson's story is important for understanding veterans' challenges.
4. Source 1: Evaluate the usefulness of this source for understanding the long-term impacts of war on returned soldiers. Consider what it shows and what it might leave out.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

10.22

What does 'Anzac' mean today?

Even before World War I had ended, Australians began to **commemorate** the landing at Gallipoli and this began the tradition of Anzac Day. By the time the war was over, nearly every town had experienced losing people on the battlefronts. Remembering their sacrifice became important and various ways were developed to ensure this would not be forgotten by future generations.

Anzac Day

The most well known and important commemoration of World War I by Australians is Anzac Day. The first Anzac Day was held in 1916. In 1927, for the first time, every state observed some form of formal public holiday on 25 April.

By the mid-1930s, the program for commemorating Anzac Day included a dawn service, marches, one or two minutes of silence, wreath laying and reunions of military units. The Ode of Remembrance is also recited on Anzac Day. This verse comes from a poem by the English poet Laurence Binyon and was first used in Anzac Day services in 1921. In RSL clubs, the Ode continues to be recited every evening. Following World War II, Anzac Day became a commemoration for everyone who has served during wartime. A sprig of rosemary is traditionally worn as a symbol of remembrance on Anzac Day.

While Anzac Day is a popular and well-attended event today, it became less popular in the mid-1960s to the 1980s due to a strong anti-war feeling related to Australia's involvement in the Vietnam War. It was also viewed by some as a day when men got drunk and played two-up rather than showing respect to the war dead. This attitude changed in the later 1980s as new generations learned about the original Anzacs. In 1990, Bob Hawke became the first prime minister to spend Anzac Day at Gallipoli.

In 2007, First Nations communities began organising Anzac Day marches to commemorate the lives of First Nations soldiers who had served in the armed forces.

They shall grow not old,
as we that are left grow old:
Age shall not weary them,
nor the years condemn.
At the going down of the sun
and in the morning
We will remember them.
Response:
We will remember them.
Lest we forget.

Source 2: The Ode of Remembrance

Source 1: Anzac Day march in 1938 passing the Cenotaph, Martin Place, Sydney [Australian War Memorial, H17116]

Source 3: Traditionally, a red poppy is worn on Remembrance Day as these flowers grew on WWI battlefields.

Source 4: ANZAC War Memorial, Hyde Park, Sydney as drawn by its architect C. Bruce Dellit in 1930. It opened to the public in 1934. [State Library of New South Wales, FL3316414]

War memorials

More than 60 000 Australians died during World War I and their bodies were never returned to Australia. Families therefore did not have a local grave to visit. This led to public memorials being built as sites for remembering those killed and honouring those who had served. These memorials became the place for Anzac Day and Remembrance Day ceremonies (held on 11 November). They were often built at busy locations to be a daily reminder to people to never forget those who died for their country. War memorials typically commemorated fighting men, so the contribution of the 2200 Australian women who served in the Australian Army Nursing Service in World War I is hardly recognised.

The Australian War Memorial in Canberra is the nation's major memorial. It also serves as a museum and depository of records and artefacts. The main memorials in Sydney are the Anzac Memorial in Hyde Park, the Cenotaph in Martin Place and the Anzac Parade Obelisk. Many suburbs and towns built their own memorials, with the names of local men who served. Other forms of memorial included community halls, hospitals or an avenue of trees.

Memorials were designed to honour those who died or served their country during wartime. However, people who oppose war can view them as monuments glorifying war, making them targets for vandalism.

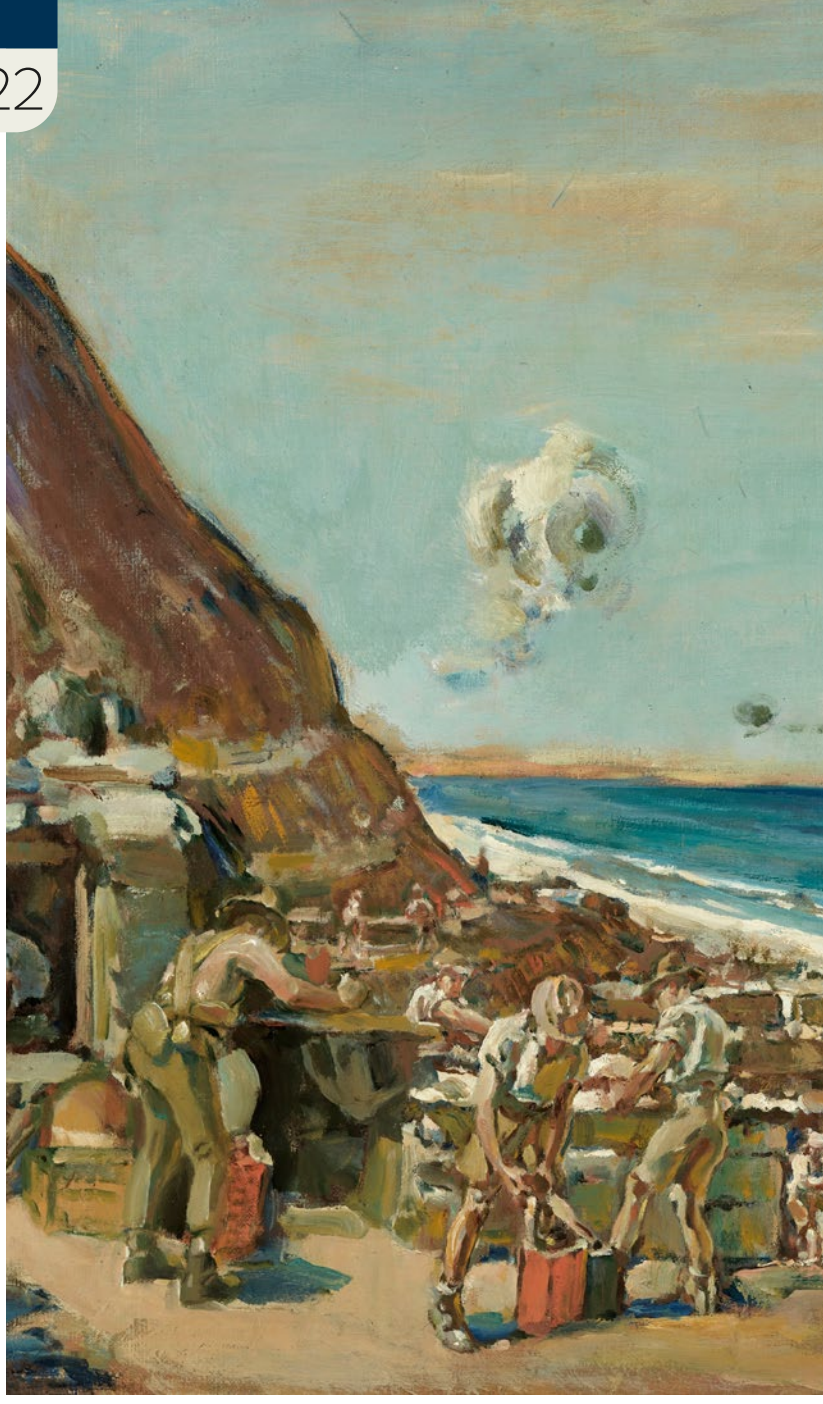
Source 5: Victoria Park war memorial, Dubbo

Source 6: George Lambert, *Charles E W Bean* (1924, oil on canvas, 90.7 x 71.1 cm) [Australian War Memorial, ART07545]

Origins of the Anzac legend

By far the most influential person in creating the Anzac legend was C.E.W. (Charles) Bean (1879–1968). Bean was a lawyer turned journalist, and worked as the leader writer for the *Sydney Morning Herald* from 1908. In 1914, he was appointed official war correspondent to the AIF, becoming a household name over the course of the war. His reporting played a significant role in shaping the image of the Australia 'digger' as resourceful, courageous and egalitarian. After the war, he wrote six volumes of the official histories of Australia in WWI and edited the other six. This took 20 years. He was also a key champion of the Australian War Memorial and became its first Chairman of the Board in 1952.

Bean loved England and its Empire but he was also an ardent nationalist. He declined a knighthood on more than one occasion. He also thought that Anglo-Saxon heritage and qualities had been enhanced by the Australian environment and way of life. Bean's writing focused on the values and spirit of the Australian soldier; however, there is no mention of the 23 000 men who deserted their posts or went 'AWOL' (absent without official leave), or those who wounded themselves to avoid the dangerous frontlines.



Source 7: Frank Crozier, *Sketch for painting 'Anzac Cove'* (1919, 50.4 x 61 cm) [Australian War Memorial, ART16637]. By 1919, the Anzac mythology had become a cornerstone of Australian identity. In his painting of Anzac Cove, done a few years after the Gallipoli Campaign (1915), Crozier shows no active fighting. Instead the focus appears to be on remembering the place and those that fought there.

Contesting the Anzac legend

The 1960s and the Vietnam war saw the national consciousness once again turn to the issues of conscription, the nature of war and national identity. Unsurprisingly, World War I and its legacies, including the Anzac legend, became the centre of renewed research and debate by academics. Historians began to question the origins of the Anzac legend and the implications of this.

The notion that the 'Anzac legend' was 'created' by C.E.W. Bean [historian and editor of the official history of Australia in World War I] or was a figment of his imagination seems to be becoming fashionable among a younger generation of historian ... The creators of the Anzac legend were, of course, the men themselves.

Source 8: John Robertson (1990), *Anzac and Empire: The Tragedy and Glory of Gallipoli*, Hamlyn.

Recent critics of the 'Anzac legend' have not sought to belittle the Australian soldiers. Rather, we have argued that, by explaining the Australian experience of war in terms of national character and achievement, Bean and his successors have narrowed the range of our understanding of Anzac, and have excluded or marginalised individual experiences that do not fit the homogeneous national legend ... these historians [also] neglect the ways in which the soldiers' story was regulated and shaped in particular ways by Anzac legend-makers.

Source 9: Alistair Thomson (1985), *Anzac Memories: Living with the Legend*, Oxford University Press.

Learning ladder 10.22

Impact and legacies

1. What role did C.E.W. Bean play in creating the Anzac legend?
2. Describe how Anzac Day has evolved since 1916.
3. Explain how war memorials help to keep a legacy alive.
4. Evaluate the importance of Anzac Day as a legacy and as part of Australia's history.

Contestability

1. What led to a decline in popularity of Anzac Day in the 1960–1980s?
2. Describe what led to a change in attitude towards Anzac Day in the 1980s–1990s.
3. Explain the differing views on war memorials.
4. Evaluate the interpretation of the Anzacs by C.E.W Bean and the 'Anzac legend'. Can Bean's interpretation be contested by evidence?

HOW TO Contestability, page 506

Site study

What is the Australian War Memorial?

The Australian War Memorial in Canberra was opened in 1941 to honour those who have served and died for our nation in wars. There are many collections in the memorial that commemorate members of the armed forces.

The Hall of Valour

One of the significant rooms within the Australian War Memorial is the Hall of Valour. It honours the nine Australian Defence personnel who have directly received the George Cross and the 101 Australians who have received the Victoria Cross.

The Victoria Cross is awarded for acts of extreme bravery in the presence of the enemy to members of the British Armed Forces and the armed forces of the Commonwealth countries, including Australia. In 1991, it was replaced for Australians by the Victoria Cross for Australia.

Source 1: Hall of Valour

Source 2: The Victoria Cross. The Hall of Valour honours the 101 Australians who have received the Victoria Cross, the highest award for bravery in the face of the enemy.

Source 3: Trench marker from Gallipoli. Originally painted red, the tin shows the text 'Q5 To Firing Line'. Q5 was a trench leading to the firing line. A door has been cut in the side of the tin for a candle to illuminate the text at night. [Australian War Memorial, RELAWM00418]

Source 4: Gunner Frank Lemmon sent this hardtack biscuit home to Australia from Gallipoli as a postcard, c. 1915. [Australian War Memorial, REL/00915]

Source 5: Commemorative service being held at the Australian War Memorial, with the Hall of Valour in the background

Source 6: Fromelles from the air, c. 1916. The Australian line of trenches is closest to the camera and the German line lies above it. The Australian 5th Division were the first involved in action on the Western Front. The Allies were forced to withdraw from Fromelles, with the Australian 5th Division suffering 5533 casualties and around 2000 fatalities. An additional 500 Allied troops were taken as prisoner. This was Australia's worst military defeat. [Australian War Memorial, E05990]

Learning ladder 10.23

Impact and legacies

1. What is the purpose of the Australian War Memorial?
2. Describe how the Hall of Valour records the impact of individual soldiers in a war.
3. Explain how the Australian War Memorial reflects the impact wars have had on Australia.
4. Evaluate the importance of the Australian War Memorial in ensuring the legacy of those who served Australia is not forgotten.

Continuity and change

1. Describe how the Australian War Memorial would provide continuity in commemorating Australians who served their country in wartimes.
2. Describe the change to the Victoria Cross in 1991.
3. Explain why you think the Australian War Memorial chose to exhibit the items shown in Sources 2, 3, 4 and 6. What items should be on permanent display?
4. A $550 million redevelopment of the Australian War Memorial is taking place between 2021 and 2028. Explain why the memorial would require change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

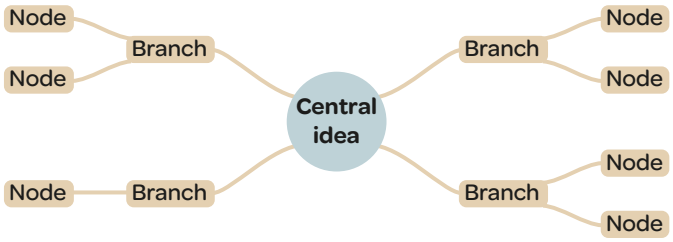
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to Federation and WWI.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Perspectives on Federation, 10.3
- Impacts of Federation for different groups, 10.7
- Causes of World War I, 10.9, 10.10
- Australians' experiences overseas, 10.14–10.17
- Life on the home front, 10.18, 10.19
- Development of the Anzac legend, 10.22

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (core)

Australia at war – WWII (1939–c. 1945)

11

11.0

How can I understand World War II?

World War II was a global conflict involving many nations. It changed the course of modern history and touched the lives of millions. Understanding its scale and impact is a broad task – one that begins well before the war itself.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: The Battle of Brigade Hill took place during the Kokoda Track campaign in Papua New Guinea. The battle was a significant defeat for the Allied forces, but is remembered as an example of the resilience and determination of the Australian troops under dire circumstances.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What happened after World War I ended?

When the 'Great War' ended, the victorious powers sought to ensure lasting peace for the nations involved, leading to the establishment of a number of **treaties**.

After the war, some empires had collapsed and new nation-states began to emerge. The countries involved in the war met at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919 to agree on the terms of the losing side's surrender and the borders of these new nations. Meanwhile, some countries, such as Italy, still wanted to become empires and continued colonising other countries to gain further resources and land.

The losing nations of the war were tasked with rebuilding their nation-states from collapsed empires such as the Ottoman and German empires.

Under the **Treaty of Versailles** – and the other treaties that followed soon after – the losing nations were expected to pay to rebuild their adversaries' economies, as well as their own. But after renegotiating their borders, they had lost much of their industrial resource assets, which limited their ability to repay the debts.

Name of treaty	Date of signing	Treaty with	Outcomes
Versailles	1919	Germany	• Accept the blame for the outbreak of war • Reparations to be paid • Disarmament of armed forces • Loss of territory to France, Poland and others (Source 3)
Neuilly	1919	Bulgaria	• Army reduced to 20 000 • Reparations to be paid • Lost land to Greece
Trianon	1920	Hungary	• Army reduced to 35 000 • Lost territory to Romania and Yugoslavia • Reparations not agreed (as Hungary bankrupted)
Saint Germain	1920	Austria	• Reparations not agreed (as Austria bankrupted) • Lost land to Czechoslovakia, Poland and Italy • Army reduced to 30 000
Sèvres	1920	Türkiye	• Lost land to Greece • Territories in the Middle East and North Africa divided among UK and France • Army reduced to 50 000 • Reparations intended, but not set
Lausanne	1923	Türkiye	• Unlimited army • Cancelled reparations • Land not given to Greece

Source 1: Events in the lead-up to WWII

Source 2: *Signing of Peace in the Hall of Mirrors, Versailles, 28 June 1919*, a painting by William Orpen. The Treaty of Versailles garnered international attention, with the leaders of the UK, France, the USA and Australia among those in attendance at the signing.

Many historians identified the practical impossibilities of making the payments outlined in the Treaty of Versailles as being the major cause of World War II. However, focusing on this single treaty ignores the social movements, ideas, goals of self-determination and richness of the cultural contexts across Europe, Asia and the Pacific that contributed to a more comprehensive set of causes for the next global conflict.

Aside from losing the war, Germany had to deal with large numbers of injured and psychologically scarred men. On top of this, Germany needed to rebuild. The challenge of restoring economic, political and social stability was significantly hampered by the **reparations** and territorial confiscations laid out in the Treaty of Versailles. Germany had lost 13 per cent of its territory, including a number of industrial resources, and its military had been effectively neutralised. In reality, many Germans could not understand why they were blamed for causing the war; they did not feel that they were more responsible than any other participating nation. Anger and resentment, compounded by a difficult economic situation, began to grow.

A corporal named Adolf Hitler, who had earned two Iron Crosses during his service, summarised the feelings of many Germans when he allegedly said he wanted revenge against those who had agreed to the treaty.

One of the ideas spread around the time of the Treaty of Versailles was that of the *Dolchstoßlegende*, translated as the 'stab in the back' myth. Some in Germany were shocked when their nation surrendered, and this idea cast the treaty as a failure by the new left-wing government, which had been swayed by Allied **propaganda** and had capitulated too easily. This thinking held that Germany had not been defeated on the battlefield, but rather had been betrayed by

Map of German territorial losses from the Treaty of Versailles

Source 3: Many people in Germany resented the territory they were forced to give up as part of the Treaty of Versailles.

its own government, which was under the influence of minority groups within German society, including Jewish people and socialists. This view was held by the nationalist and conservative parties that emerged, such as the National Socialist German Workers' Party, later known as the Nazi Party.

The League of Nations

One of the main ideas to emerge from the aftermath of World War I was to form the League of Nations. The idea was that countries could try to solve disputes through diplomacy rather than turning to warfare; that one country could not simply take over another, and if a country tried to invade, other countries would prevent them from doing so. In 1918, US President Woodrow Wilson gave a speech outlining 14 points, or strategies, to create peace. These became a **covenant** in 1919 and many countries worked together to create the new organisation.

However, despite initially championing the League, the United States chose not to join. Some politicians felt it threatened US independence and feared they could be drawn into more wars. President Wilson had a stroke before he could really sell the idea to the American people. While the League of Nations had some successes, ultimately not enough countries supported it, and it failed in its purpose to prevent another global war.

Source: Matilda Education Australia/Custom Mapping Services

Learning ladder 11.1

Background and origins

1. Describe the aims and purpose of the League of Nations.
2. Source 2: Describe Germany's territorial losses after the Treaty of Versailles and name the countries that gained this land.
3. Explain why many Germans felt anger and resentment after the Treaty of Versailles and how this may have fed the 'stab in the back' myth.
4. Evaluate how postwar conditions in Germany could create a mood for revenge.

Cause and effect

1. What caused some defeated countries to lose many of their resources?
2. Source 2: Describe the effect of German territory being ceded to Poland.
3. Explain the causes of the 'stab in the back' myth.
4. Explain why the United States did not join the League of Nations and how this affected the League's ability to prevent future wars.

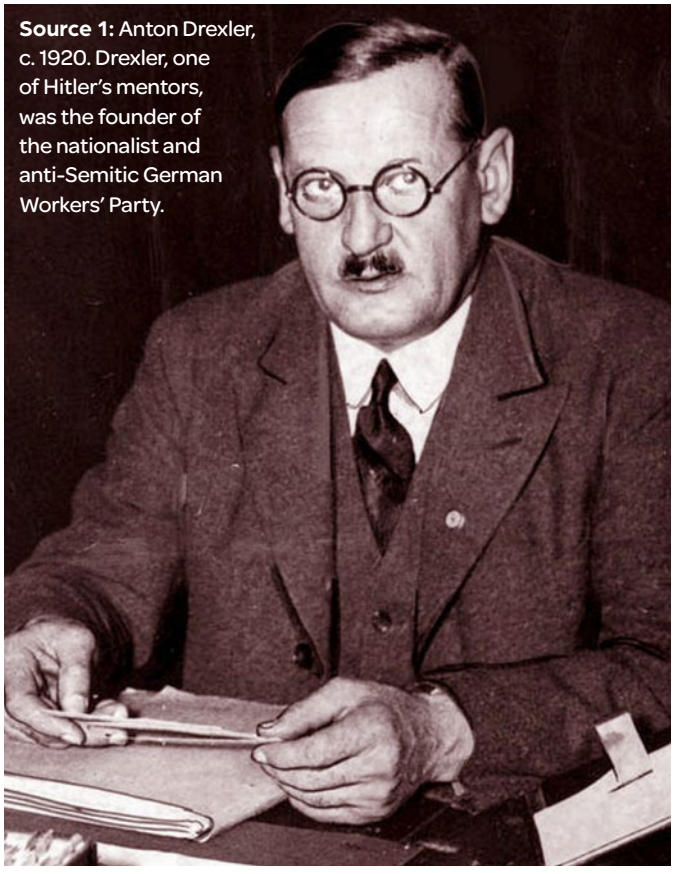
HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

How did the NSDAP Party and Adolf Hitler rise?

During the 1920s in Germany, people such as Anton Drexler channelled their anger and disillusionment at the deteriorating economic and social conditions into founding far-right parties. Drexler was instrumental in forming the pan-German and **anti-Semitic** German Workers' Party (DAP), the predecessor of the Nazi Party.

Anton Drexler's story was typical of many German men after the war. He was a locksmith who suffered the humiliation of unemployment; a common experience in the Weimar Republic. Deeply troubled by the rise of communism and its appeal to other dispossessed men, he sought a nationalist solution to harness worker discontent.

Drexler formed the German Workers' Party, (*Deutsche Arbeiterpartei*, or DAP), on 5 January 1919. The German government considered this political party a threat to the new republic, so they assigned a young war veteran named Adolf Hitler to work as an intelligence agent, gathering information on the organisation. However, Hitler became entranced by the DAP's emphasis on nationalism, its anti-Semitic ethos, and its disdain for communism and capitalism.



Source 1: Anton Drexler, c. 1920. Drexler, one of Hitler's mentors, was the founder of the nationalist and anti-Semitic German Workers' Party.

Addressing his deep discontent with the Treaty of Versailles and the terrible state of Germany, Hitler had found a mentor in Drexler, and a forum to express his frustration. In return, he had a vision to make the DAP a lasting force in the political landscape of the republic.

Because public meetings were often banned, beer halls served as large venues where political activism could take place. Hitler developed the DAP's agenda into a coherent platform and delivered speeches about it in his dynamic and impassioned manner. As one of a number of speakers addressing crowds, his skills as an orator became clear. Hitler changed the name of the organisation to the *Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei* (NSDAP) and he took control of the Party on 29 July 1921.

Almost immediately the Nazi Party became known for being different from other conservative parties. The Nazis wore neat uniforms, held marching rallies, displayed striking flags and actively engaged young people. In many ways, the Nazi Party offered something new and brought together nationalistic ideas that had been developing for over a century in Germany.

The swastika

The swastika symbol has a long history dating back over 15 000 years. It was used across the ancient world and is a Sanskrit sign representing wellbeing and the Sun. The Nazis sought to find and explain a connection to ancient German depictions of the same design. Nazi academics created a mythological and ideological link between the **Aryans** of Hindu scriptures and the swastika. They then worked to link it to the ideology of a 'master race'.

Source 2: Hitler marches past a swastika banner at a 1930s Nazi march. The march was in memory of the Beer Hall putsch in Munich (11.3). Adolf Hitler heads the group with Rudolf Hess to his right and Heinrich Himmler behind, both of whom would become powerful in the party. Note the banner includes the Nazi slogan *Deutschland Erwache*.

This ideological link had serious implications for Jewish and Romani peoples, who were seen as inferior because they were not related to the Aryans. Linguistic studies drew connections to the Indo-Aryan language as the ancestor of all European languages, including German.

The red, white and black colours used for the Nazi swastika flag were already the colours of the previous German imperial flag. By incorporating these elements into a mythological Aryan framework, the Nazis created a symbol that strongly resonated with disillusioned Germans. In addition, a modified swastika symbol was part of the insignia of the Abbey of Lambach – where the young Adolf Hitler went to school.

Deutschland Erwache!

Deutschland Erwache!, meaning 'Germany, awaken!', was a popular early Nazi Party slogan and a favourite saying of Adolf Hitler. The saying was coined by Dietrich Eckart, who edited the Nazi propaganda newspaper the *Völkischer Beobachter* and was a mentor to Hitler. The slogan was put on Roman-style **vexillum** banners, and was also written into an anthem and a chant for the Nazi Party's mass rallies. This was one of the ways the party skilfully managed its public image.

Learning ladder 11.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Anton Drexler and which political party did he form?
2. Describe the ideas of the German Workers' Party (DAP) that attracted Hitler.
3. Explain why Nazi ideas appealed to some sections of the German population.
4. Explain why the Nazis chose symbols such as the swastika, specific flag colours and the slogan 'Germany, awaken'.

Perspectives

1. What was Drexler's view of communism?
2. Describe Hitler's perspective on Germany's future.
3. Explain how the idea of an Aryan 'master race' developed.
4. Explain how the Nazis promoted their view of Germany's past, present and future.

HOW TO
Perspectives, page 502

What was the Beer Hall putsch and how did it influence Hitler's rise?

In 1923, Hitler and the new Nazi Party decided to stage a **putsch** – an attempt to take over the government of the German state of Bavaria. Around 2000 *Sturmabteilung* troops of the Nazi Party marched on the capital, Munich, but the coup failed and Hitler was arrested soon after. However, the putsch gave Hitler and his party new fame and a platform to spread their beliefs.

Source 1: Rudolf Hess was Nazi Party member number 16. He became Hitler's deputy, and was a powerful force in the party.

The *Sturmabteilung*

The *Sturmabteilung* (SA), translated as 'stormtroopers', were the brown-shirted gangs of the Nazi Party. They were military-style enforcers who often used violence. The SA were part of a culture of gangs of listless veterans who fought against communist groups and **paramilitary** groups of the other parties. They drew their ranks from unemployed and disaffected men and were responsible for destabilising the Weimar Republic and the institutions and agencies responsible for maintaining social control.

The SA guarded Nazi Party meetings. They wore military-style uniforms and marched together like an army to intimidate other parties and voters. Some people found the orderliness of the SA and the Nazi Party rallies appealing because they seemed to bring structure to the chaos of post-World War I Germany. The SA were part of the Nazi Party from its beginning in 1921 and played a major role in the Beer Hall putsch.

The Beer Hall putsch

On 9 November 1923, the Nazi Party disrupted a meeting of three Bavarian leaders – Prime Minister Gustav Ritter von Kahr, Police Chief Hans Ritter von Seißer and General Otto von Lossow – at the Bürgerbräukeller beer hall. Nazi leader Herman Göring led some SA troops to surround the beer hall and set up a machine gun, holding those inside hostage.

The SA leader, Ernst Röhm, led a group of 2000 men to occupy strategic targets throughout the city, including the war ministry. They persuaded a number of police and army to temporarily join the putsch. Hitler tried to convince the three Bavarian leaders to back the coup, but they refused.

Prime Minister von Kahr escaped the beer hall by lying to Hitler's ally Erich von Ludendorff about supporting the coup. He then gathered the army and police to aggressively suppress it. Hermann Göring was shot and injured, and 16 members of the Nazi Party were killed.

This conflict provided the Nazi Party with one of their most revered objects – a Nazi flag from the putsch soaked with the blood of members of the SA who were killed. This flag was called the *Blutfahne*, or blood flag, and was used in various 'blessing' ceremonies throughout World War II. Two days after the failed putsch, Adolf Hitler, his deputy Rudolf Hess and other key figures were arrested. Hitler was sentenced to five years in jail.

Source 2: This photo shows Hitler with the World War I military hero Field Marshal Erich von Ludendorff in 1935. Hitler capitalised on Ludendorff's reputation to raise the Nazi Party's profile.

Mein Kampf and Hitler's growing power

Hitler served only nine months in prison, but this allowed him time to formulate and expand his ideas. In 1925–1926, Rudolph Hess and another Nazi, Emil Maurice, compiled these ideas into the book *Mein Kampf* (in English, *My Struggle*). This became Hitler's **manifesto** for the Nazi Party. The failure of the putsch, along with its aftermath and his imprisonment, seemed to make Hitler realise that he needed to shift from using paramilitary force to more political methods to achieve his and the Nazi Party's ends.

Source 3: Since its publication, *Mein Kampf* has become a main text of far-right and Neo-Nazi groups. The Bavarian government was assigned copyright to the book and suppressed its publication in Germany from 1945 to 2016.

Once he was released from prison, Hitler's power and popularity continued to grow. In January 1933, he was appointed Chancellor of Germany following a series of elections in which the Nazi Party gained more votes (but did not win outright), as well as some complicated negotiations: ex-Chancellor Franz von Papen convinced the president to appoint Hitler as Chancellor, believing that appointing non-Nazis in key government roles would limit his power. However, once Hitler was in power, he rapidly expanded Nazi security forces, taking control and stamping out any opposition.

The power of the SA grows

By 1933, the SA numbered approximately 2 million members, and they were the most powerful of the Nazi security forces. In early 1933, they encouraged and helped to carry out book burnings across Germany targeting Jewish, communist and other 'un-German' authors. The book burnings were part of the Nazis' broader effort to control information, eliminate opposing ideas and shape German culture to fit their ideology.

Source 4: The SA march with flags and torches to mark Adolf Hitler becoming Chancellor of the Reich.

Source 5: Members of the SA were also involved in Nazi book burnings. In this image from 1933, SA members collect books to be burned, while standing above a banner that reads 'German students march against the un-German spirit'.

The era of extreme Jewish intellectualism is now at an end ... The future German man will not just be a man of books, but a man of character. It is to this end that we want to educate you. As a young person, to already have the courage to face the pitiless glare, to overcome the fear of death, and to regain respect for death – this is the task of this young generation. And thus you do well in this midnight hour to commit to the flames the evil spirit of the past. This is a strong, great and symbolic deed – a deed which should document the following for the world to know – Here the intellectual foundation of the November [Democratic] Republic is sinking to the ground, but from this wreckage the phoenix of a new spirit will triumphantly rise ...

Source 6: Propaganda Minister Joseph Goebbels speaking at the book burning on 10 May 1933

Wherever books are burned, human beings are destined to be burned too.

Source 7: A quote from German author Heinrich Heine's play *Almansor*, written in 1821

Learning ladder 11.3

Background and origins

1. What was the origin of the *Sturmabteilung* (SA)?
2. Describe the background to the Beer Hall putsch.
3. Describe the background to the writing of *Mein Kampf*.
4. Explain why early Nazi attacks on Jewish people began.

Significance

1. Source 2: Why was Hitler being photographed with Field Marshal von Ludendorff significant at the time?
2. Describe the significance of the Beer Hall putsch for Hitler's rise.
3. Describe the significance of *Mein Kampf* for the rise of the Nazis.
4. How was Hitler's imprisonment a defining moment for him and the Nazi Party?
5. Sources 5–7: Evaluate the significance of the book burnings ordered by Goebbels with reference to the quote from Heine.

HOW TO Significance, page 504

11.4

How did Hitler become Führer?

On the night of 27 February 1933, a huge fire broke out in the Reichstag building, where the German parliament met. The fire destroyed much of the building and caused panic across Germany. In the aftermath, Hitler passed a series of laws that tightened his control on Germany, paving the way for him to declare himself Führer (leader) the following year.

Source 1: The burning of the Reichstag, on 27 February 1933, served as the pretext for a campaign of terror directed first at communists and then at any political opponent of the Nazi Party.

A communist plot?

When a young Dutch communist, Marinus van der Lubbe, was found inside the burning Reichstag, he was quickly blamed for starting the fire and declared by the Nazi Party to be part of a communist plot to overthrow the government. This claim is contested by some historians, who believe the Nazis may have set the fire themselves to create an excuse for the actions that followed.

Source 2: Marinus van der Lubbe, the Dutch communist convicted of, and executed for, starting the Reichstag fire.

Source 3: German Army patrol in Berlin during the Night of the Long Knives. Over three days, at least 85 and as many as 400 SA members were murdered, along with other political opponents of the Nazi Party. Many more were arrested.

The day after the fire, Adolf Hitler, who had recently become Chancellor of Germany and whose Nazi Party had only months earlier been forced to form an alliance with the German National People's Party due to poor performance in elections, convinced President Paul von Hindenburg to sign the Reichstag Fire Decree. This law took away many basic rights, such as freedom of speech and freedom of the press. It also allowed the police to arrest people without a trial. The Nazis used this new law to arrest thousands of communists and political opponents, making it almost impossible for anyone to challenge them.

Just a few weeks later, on 23 March 1933, Hitler took his next big step towards total power by passing the Enabling Act. This law gave Hitler the power to make laws without needing the approval of parliament, effectively turning Germany into a **dictatorship**. With no one left to stop them, the Nazis quickly banned all other political parties, took control of the newspapers and radio and silenced anyone who spoke against them.

Night of the Long Knives

Although Hitler was now the leader of Germany, he still faced threats from within his own party. He had developed his own security force, the *Schutzstaffel* (SS), and started to look at the popular and powerful SA with suspicion. To remove this threat, Hitler ordered the Night of the Long Knives on 30 June 1934, when the SS and the army carried out a series of assassinations against Ernst Röhm and other SA leaders. While the SA continued to be a part of the Nazi regime, their power and influence were greatly reduced. This eliminated Hitler's internal enemies and won him the support of the German military.

Hindenburg dies

The final step in Hitler's rise to absolute power came in August 1934 when President Hindenburg died. Instead of holding new elections, Hitler combined the roles of Chancellor and President, declaring himself Führer of Germany. The army was forced to swear an oath of loyalty to him personally and from that moment on he ruled Germany as a dictator.

Learning ladder 11.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What major event occurred on 27 February 1933?
2. Describe how the Reichstag fire helped Hitler gain more power.
3. Explain the significance of the Night of the Long Knives in giving Hitler complete control of the Nazi Party.
4. Explain the significance of the Enabling Act in making Hitler a dictator.

Cause and effect

1. What effect did Hitler hope to achieve by blaming Marinus van der Lubbe for the Reichstag fire?
2. Describe the effect on German democracy after President von Hindenburg appointed Hitler chancellor.
3. Explain how Hitler used Hindenburg's death to become dictator of Germany.
4. In evaluating Hitler's rise, was it driven more by Hitler's actions or by President von Hindenburg's decisions?

HOW TO
Cause and effect, page 498

What was the battle for Germany's children?

In 1926, Kurt Gruber began the *Hitlerjugend*, or Hitler Youth, as an adult-led wing of the SA. This was joined by the *Bund Deutscher Mädel*, or League of German Girls, in 1930. These groups were later diversified into junior and senior movements. All aimed to make German youth physically and ideologically fit for their future roles as members of the Nazi Party.

Recruiting young people was a vital part of the succession plan of the Nazi Party. Since the party was focused on significantly changing German society, it saw the work of the youth movements as of great importance to bringing about this shift. These young recruits attended meetings and rallies, wore uniforms and attended gym classes to become physically fit.

By 1932, 30 000 Hitler Youth gathered in the city of Potsdam for a rally, where Hitler gave speeches. These cult-like events were given priority over church services and family events to disrupt young people's attachments to family and religion. Boys were trained to use weapons and members of both genders were taught that they should be willing to die for the German Reich. Members could inform on the political views of their parents, extended family, family friends, teachers and religious leaders. This was reinforced by the propaganda film *The Triumph of the Will,* which showed German youth supporting Nazi values.

By 1940, the Hitler Youth had grown to more than 7 million members – about 80 per cent of German youth. This ended tragically, in the final year of World War II, when children and teenagers were forced to defend parts of Germany because the army had run out of adult soldiers. In Hitler's last days in his bunker, he met with one of these units of child soldiers to praise them, expecting them to defend Germany to the death. Many young people died needlessly.

The youth who resisted Nazi propaganda

Some young people who disliked the Hitler Youth left it or joined non-mainstream groups such as communist youth organisations, the jazz-inspired Swing kids and other non-conformist groups. They often had brutal confrontations with the Hitler Youth.

Just as being a member of an anti-Nazi group could put adults in danger, membership of alternative youth groups could result in young people being arrested or even sent to concentration camps for 're-education'.

One of the most famous alternative youth groups was the *Edelweißpiraten* – the Edelweiss Pirates. They attacked the Hitler Youth, destroyed property, stole weapons, graffitied propaganda slogans and generally resisted the Nazi regime's recruitment practices. Some were caught and executed without trial in 1944 by the Gestapo (the Nazi secret police). They also resisted the British, American and Soviet occupiers after the war, and many were put on trial and imprisoned again. Because they were loosely organised, they were not recognised as a true resistance organisation until 2005. In 2011, four surviving members were presented with medals of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany.

Source 2: The Edelweiss Pirates in 1938. They emerged in western Germany as a reaction against the strict regimentation of the Hitler Youth.

Source 1: All 'Aryan' children in Germany over the age of six had to join a Nazi youth group by 1936. At 10 years old, boys joined the Jungvolk (Young People). When 14, boys could join the Hitler Youth. Girls followed the same progression, first joining the Jungmädel (Young Girls) and later the League of German Girls.

Learning ladder 11.5

Background and origins

1. What was the purpose of the Hitler Youth and League of German Girls?
2. What activities did members of these groups undertake?
3. Was support for the movements that formed the Hitler Youth widespread?
4. Source 1: Give examples showing how the Hitler Youth were trained to be physically and ideologically fit to serve the Nazis.
5. Analyse why young people might have wanted to join the Hitler Youth, and whether membership was open to all.

Continuity and change

1. What impacts did the Hitler Youth have on German families and society?
2. What actions did alternative youth movements take, and what risks did they face?
3. How did these movements continue to resist after the war?
4. Source 2: Why were the actions of alternative youth movements recognised as official resistance only much later?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

How did the interwar years affect other countries in Europe?

In the 1920s, many countries were still reeling from World War I. By the 1930s, the impacts of the Great Depression had led to increasing instability across Europe and its colonies. Nationalists sought to restore their countries to past glories, while socialists and communists began to appeal to the working class in some regions. Meanwhile, monarchies clung to power as these strong political movements grew.

Italy

The economic and social vacuum that followed World War I left Italy in a difficult position. By 1922, Benito Mussolini and his Fascist Party were gaining support by promising to restore the glory days of the ancient Roman Empire and crush the rising voices of socialism. With the support of nationalists and his 'blackshirts' (*squadristi* troops, similar to the German SA), Mussolini marched on Rome in October 1922. To placate the Fascist Party and its supporters, which included the army, the Italian King Victor Emmanuel III handed power to Mussolini, making him prime minister of Italy.

Once in power, Mussolini and his blackshirts began a campaign of intimidation, which increasingly saw private enterprises become nationalised and other political parties eliminated. By 1935, a **totalitarian state** had been established. The doctrine of fascism stated: 'The Fascist conception of the State is all-embracing; outside of it no human or spiritual values can exist, much less have value. Thus understood, Fascism is totalitarian, and the fascist State – a synthesis and a unit inclusive of all values – interprets, develops and potentiates the whole life of a people'.

Source 1: This propaganda poster shows Italian forces in Albania being welcomed by the locals in 1939.

Having witnessed the ineffectiveness of the League of Nations and the growing ambitions of Italy's ally Germany, an emboldened Mussolini sought to expand his new Italian Empire. In 1934, protectorates in North Africa were united to form Italian Libya and **settler–colonialism** was encouraged to expand the empire. Italy already controlled Eritrea and Somalia in the Horn of Africa, and without warning, 200 000 Italian soldiers invaded neighbouring Ethiopia in 1935. Haile Selassie, the Emperor of Ethiopia, ordered every able-bodied man to defend the nation, but the majority of those fighting were poorly trained and ill-equipped.

The resulting war was brutal, costing the lives of hundreds of thousands of troops and even more civilians, and leading to widespread displacement. After the attempted assassination of the Italian Viceroy in East Africa, the Italians launched the Yekatit 12 massacre, killing around 20 per cent of Addis Ababa's population in retaliation. The Italian Federal Secretary Guido Cortese stated, 'Comrades, today is the day when we should show our devotion to our Viceroy by reacting and destroying the Ethiopians for three days. For three days I give you 'carte blanche' to destroy and kill and do what you want to the Ethiopians'.

In Albania, Italy had maintained a strong presence following World War I, effectively controlling much of the country. Throughout the 1930s, Italy's demands for control and influence grew until, in April 1939, Italian forces invaded and took full control of the nation. Albania's King Zog fled into exile. Albania was of strategic importance, providing a potential launching point into Yugoslavia and Greece. The idea of uniting ethnic Albanians in neighbouring countries gained some support from Albanians but also increased tensions in the region. This mirrored Hitler's annexation of Austria.

Poland

Poland had not been an independent country since 1772. Following World War I, it began to assert itself. Its first step was to expand its borders by annexing Russian territory in Ukraine and Belarus, then parts of Lithuania. Later, it laid claim to Czechoslovakian territory. In the peace settlements after World War I, Poland was granted administrative control of Danzig, an area with a predominantly German population. Feeling poorly treated by Poland, many Germans living in Danzig looked to the Nazis for support.

Source 2: Three members of the Hitler Youth in Danzig, 1937

The Soviet Union

In the early 1930s, the Soviet Union included many different ethnic groups across Eastern Europe and northern Asia, including the Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics of Ukraine and Moldova. The Soviet policy of **collectivisation**, which saw private farmland and livestock transferred to state-owned farms in exchange for labour opportunities, was deeply unpopular in Ukraine and led to significant agricultural shortfalls. Production levels were further affected by poor centralised administration and the diversification of crops; precious wheat fields were replaced with sugar beets and cotton, mostly for export.

Millions of people starved to death, primarily in Ukraine, in what would later be known as the *Holodomor* (artificial hunger). Some historians argue that the famine was caused by failed economic policies and environmental changes, while others believe it was a deliberate act by Joseph Stalin's government to weaken and control the ethnic Ukrainian population. At the same time, Stalin began a series of purges to eliminate anyone he saw as a threat within the Communist Party or among the many ethnic groups in the Soviet Union. Several key Communist Party members were executed in show trials as Stalin tightened his grip on power.

From 1936 to 1938, around one million more people lost their lives or were deported to labour camps called *gulags*. These including Orthodox clergy, political opponents, Red Army officers, Intelligentsia, *kulaks* (wealthy peasants or landowners), ethnic Poles and other minority groups. Even Buddhist lamas in Soviet-influenced Mongolia were persecuted due to suspected Japanese sympathies.

Source 3: Famine in the USSR. A large crowd waits for bread.

Source 4: The Spanish Civil War divided a nation and drew international support and attention to the struggle against fascism.

Spain

Spain, which had remained neutral during World War I, saw its traditional monarchy lose favour during the 1920s as concerns about corruption and the potential rise of communism spread. A coup in 1923 gave rise to a military government and, by 1931, with momentum growing for change, the Second Republic was established, with King Alfonso XIII **abdicating** and going into exile soon after.

In 1934, a series of strikes in the north of Spain by socialists foreshadowed the use of the military to restore order, and the 1936 elections saw victory for a loose alliance of left-wing parties, the Republicans. In response, right-wing Spanish nationalists increased unrest, particularly in Spain's external territories, where troops were sent to quell dissent. With the support of the people, nationalist momentum began to build and Francisco Franco rose to power in opposition. Franco received support from fascist leaders in Germany and Italy, while the Republicans were backed, albeit on an inferior scale, by the Soviet Union and Mexico.

Over the next few years, conflicts occurred across the nation as the Republicans, boosted by volunteer International Brigades from around the world and Franco's Nationalists, battled for control of the country. Buoyed by support from Germany and Italy, the Nationalists eventually took control of the nation, beginning a dictatorship under Franco that lasted from 1939 to 1975.

Learning ladder 11.6

Background and origins

1. How did Mussolini come to power in Italy?
2. Describe the background to Mussolini's plan for a new Italian empire.
3. Describe why Germans living in Danzig held anti-Polish feelings.
4. Explain how Stalin gained complete control of the Soviet Union.
5. Explain why Germany and Italy supported the Nationalists in Spain.

Source analysis

1. Source 4: What does this source reveal about Spain in the 1930s?
2. Source 2: Describe what is shown and how it could prove German discontent in Danzig under Polish rule.
3. Sources 1–4: How do these sources help explain Europe's growing instability in the 1930s?
4. Source 1: Evaluate the accuracy, reliability and usefulness of this source as evidence of Albanian reactions to Italy's invasion.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

What happened in India and East Asia in the 1930s?

The Great Depression ended the freedoms and progress of the Roaring 20s, creating uncertainty around the world. Self-determination movements increased tensions, new political parties gained popularity and, in some cases, the military took a more active role in national affairs.

India

By the 1930s, the British had ruled India for more than 150 years. Rebellions and protests against British rule continued to build. On 12 March 1930, the prominent independence leader Mohandas Gandhi – known to his followers as *Mahatma* – led a 241-mile march from Sabarmati to Dandi. His policy of *satyagraha*, or mass civil disobedience, aimed to galvanise opposition to British rule. The march was a protest against British salt taxes.

Gandhi began the march with 78 followers, but by the time he reached Dandi, tens of thousands had joined him. When he arrived, he defied British law by drawing salt from the sea. Millions across India followed his example of *satyagraha,* and more than 60 000 people, including Gandhi himself, were arrested. Upon his release from prison in 1931, the British Viceroy urged Gandhi to end *satyagraha* in exchange for a role in negotiations about India's future at a London congress.

As opposition to British colonial rule grew, so did tensions between Hindus and Muslims in British India. Muhammed Ali Jinnah, leader of the Muslim League, also urged his fellow Muslims to engage in civil disobedience during his 'Day of Deliverance' speech in December 1939, despite lacking the backing of the predominantly Hindu Indian National Congress.

Source 1: The Salt March in 1930, led by non-violence leader Mahatma Gandhi, was a famous act of civil disobedience to gain freedom from the British.

Source 2: A Japanese harmony in Manchuria propaganda poster, 'Five Races Under One Union'

East Asia

Since the Meiji Restoration of the 19th century, Japan had rapidly modernised and industrialised. Following the Sino–Japanese War in 1894, Taiwan was ceded from China and administered as a colony of Japan. At the same time, Japan also gained control of the Kwantung Leased Territory, a large area in north-eastern China. Although it was briefly held by Russia, it returned to Japanese control following the Russo–Japanese War in 1905.

In 1931, without the support of Emperor Hirohito, the Japanese Army occupied the Kwantung region, claiming they were defending Japanese commercial interests. The arrival of further troops saw the Japanese Army push south into Shanghai, an important economic centre and cosmopolitan hub with an international settlement. Within six months, the region was under Japanese control and the **puppet state** of Manchukuo had been established. The military's efforts in the region were immensely popular in Japan, where people saw the acquisition of the resource-rich area as essential for economic growth.

In May 1932, Japanese Prime Minister Tsuyoshi Inukai was assassinated by junior naval officers because he had tried to balance military expansion with diplomacy. This marked the end of civilian rule in Japan and led to further expansion in China.

In response to the Japanese invasion of Manchuria, the League of Nations sent a team to investigate and diffuse tensions: the Lytton Commission. After almost a year, the Commission reported that '... Manchuria should gradually become a demilitarised area', meaning that Japanese troops should withdraw from the region. When it was presented to the League of Nations General Assembly in February 1933, the Japanese delegation simply walked out. A month later, Japan withdrew entirely from the League of Nations. The very body that had been created to prevent further conflict now appeared powerless. This would embolden some nations and frighten others.

As the Japanese presence in the region increased, internal struggles in China continued. Since 1927 the Kuomintang (KMT)-led government of China and the Communist Party of China had been engaged in a bitter power struggle, although they briefly united in 1937 to form the Second United Front to defend China against Japan. The civil war of 1927–1937 was characterised by skirmishes and battles. Just as the KMT forces, led by Chiang Kai-Shek, seemed on the verge of victory, the Communist Party forces, led by Mao Zedong, were able to escape to regroup. This event, known as the Long March, saw Mao and his followers travel thousands of kilometres inland to Shaanxi province in 1934–1935. Along the way, they recruited peasants and disarmed local warlords, gaining more supporters as they moved.

By 1937, a series of incidents between the Japanese Army and Chinese nationalists stoked tensions and the Marco Polo Bridge Incident, in which a missing Japanese soldier sparked a gunfire exchange between forces, soon led to the second Sino–Japanese War. In the space of a few months, Shanghai, Beijing and Nanjing fell under Japanese control. When Nanjing was captured on 13 December 1937, a series of brutal atrocities began. The Nanjing Massacre – also known as the Rape of Nanjing – lasted for almost six weeks.

Thousands of young Chinese men across the city were rounded up and executed without trial. The exact number of victims is disputed, but historians estimate that between 40 000 and 300 000 civilians were murdered by the invading forces. Widespread acts of rape and violence were committed; soldiers went door-to-door, targeting civilians. The Japanese press even reported on a killing competition between soldiers. The scale of the massacre drew international condemnation.

When it became clear that the city was about to fall, international businessmen and leaders established the Nanjing Safety Zone in an effort to shield and support the civilian population. John Rabe, a German businessman living in the city, used his own resources and Nazi Party credentials in an effort to influence the Japanese, but only succeeded in delaying them. Nevertheless, his actions allowed hundreds of thousands of civilians to flee the city before the army arrived. Following the massacre, Rabe returned to Germany and attempted to show the world what had happened in Nanjing. He even wrote to Hitler, urging him to convince the Japanese to stop committing atrocities.

The Korean Peninsula, which had been a Japanese colonial possession since 1910, was another rapidly changing area in East Asia. Anger at what was seen as an unjust occupation spilled over following the death of Emperor Gojong in late January 1919. Protests spread across the nation, leading to the March 1st Movement, which was brutally suppressed by Japanese authorities.

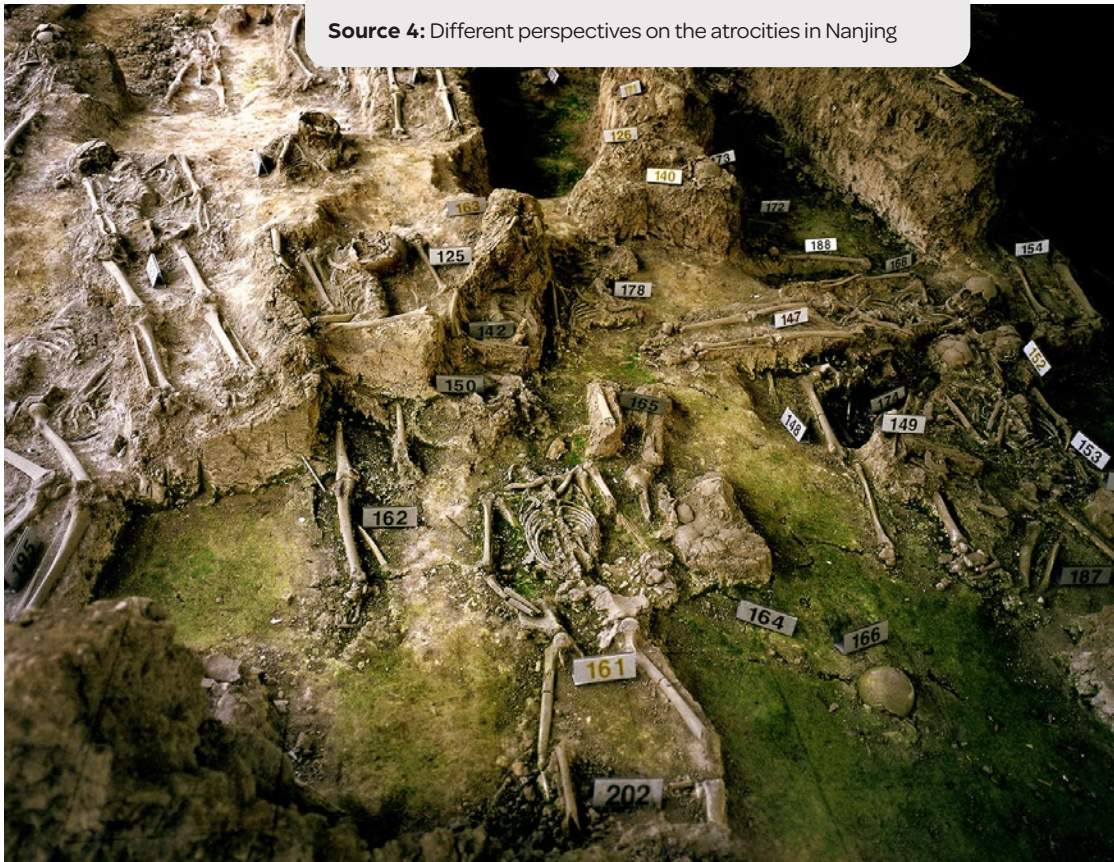
I know not where to end. Never I have heard or read such brutality. Rape! Rape! Rape! We estimate at least 1000 cases a night and many by day. In case of resistance or anything that seems like disapproval, there is a bayonet stab or a bullet.... People are hysterical... Women are being carried off every morning, afternoon and evening. The whole Japanese Army seems to be free to go and come as it pleases, and to do whatever it pleases.

Reverend James M. McCallum, 19 December 1937

I now realise that we have unknowingly wrought a most grievous effect on this city. When I think of the feelings and sentiments of many of my Chinese friends who have fled from Nanjing and of the future of the two countries, I cannot but feel depressed. I am very lonely and can never get in a mood to rejoice about this victory ... I personally feel sorry for the tragedies to the people, but the Army must continue unless China repents. Now, in the winter, the season gives time to reflect. I offer my sympathy, with deep emotion, to a million innocent people.

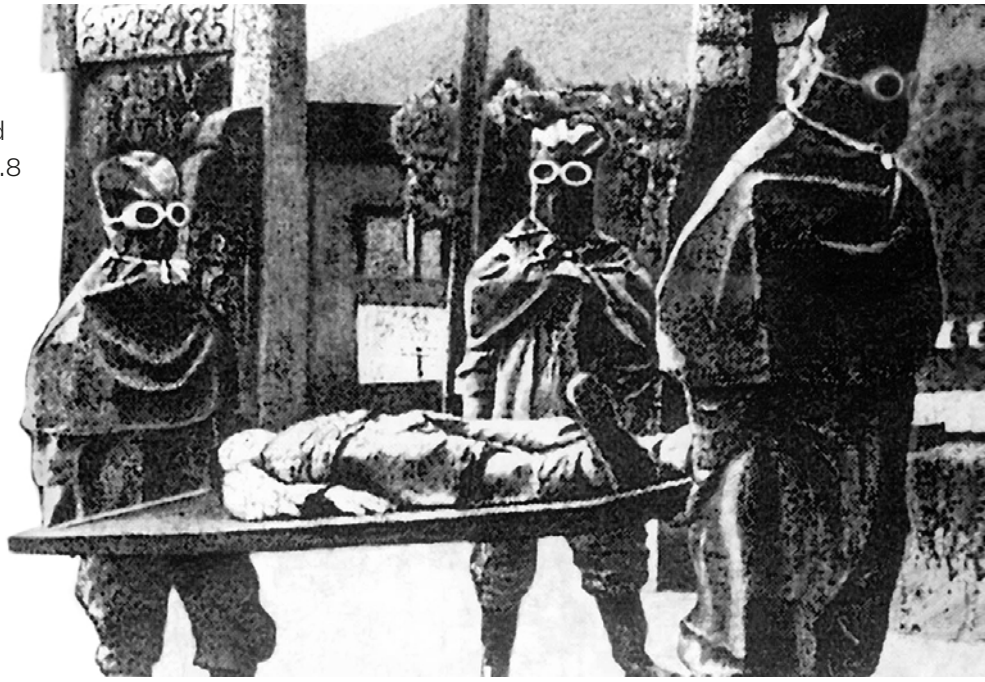
General Iwane Matsui, 18 December 1937

Source 4: Different perspectives on the atrocities in Nanjing



Source 3: This mass grave is a memorial to the victims of the Nanjing Massacre.

To control growing nationalist sentiment, Japan encouraged colonisation from the mainland. Investors and farmers quickly took an interest, and Japanese land ownership increased dramatically, from 39.8 per cent in 1920 to 52.7 per cent in 1932. Meanwhile, Korean labourers fell deeper into debt. As Japan's demand for labour grew in the late 1930s, large numbers of Koreans were forced into work. Under the *National Mobilization Law* of 1938, more than five million Koreans were taken to work in mines and factories. Of these, 670 000 and were transported to work in Japan itself, often in difficult and dangerous conditions. More than 60 000 Korean labourers died.



Source 5: Japanese staff conducting an experiment at Unit 731

Unit 731

In 1935, the Japanese developed a secret program to develop biochemical weapons. The Kwantung Army's 'Epidemic Prevention and Water Purification Department', better known as Japanese Imperial Army Unit 731, had special orders to develop plague bombs and other biowarfare agents.

Teams of doctors and medical assistants conducted experiments on an estimated 3000 prisoners of war from all over the world. Led by Shiro Ishii, the program performed experiments such as injecting people with diseases like smallpox or syphilis and then monitoring the progress through their bodies. Experiments using gas, extreme cold or extreme pressure were conducted, as was measuring the slow progression of gangrene. Surgical investigations such as dissections were performed on prisoners without anaesthesia.

Unit 731 was not the only medical team conducting experiments and an estimated 300 000 people were affected by the outcomes of the procedures. The data from these experiments was traded with the US Army for immunity from prosecution. No one is known to have survived and evidence including corpses, physical samples and experimental instruments was buried or burned. In 1984, a medical student accidentally purchased a Unit 731 experimental data book from a second-hand bookstore, exposing some evidence of the horror and, in 2018, Japanese Archives on the 3607 personnel of the unit were published by Katsuo Nishiyama, an academic of the Shiga University of Medical Science.

Learning ladder 11.7

Background and origins

1. What sparked Gandhi's march in 1930?
2. Describe the background to discontent in India during the 1930s.
3. Explain why the Lytton Commission was created and how Japanese delegates reacted when its report was presented to the League of Nations.
4. Explain the origins of Japanese militarism and expansion in the 1930s.

Continuity and change

1. How was British rule in India challenged in the 1930s?
2. Describe how life in Nanjing changed under Japanese occupation.
3. Explain why the League of Nations could not maintain peace in the 1930s.
4. Evaluate the changes in Korea and China resulting from Japanese militarism in the 1930s.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

How did World War II begin?

The ***Anschluss*** or unification of Germany and Austria in 1938 followed a four-year Nazi campaign to destabilise Austrian democracy. The Nazis entered Austria to stop a referendum about unifying the countries. The Nazis wanted to join the two countries – Hitler was Austrian – but felt they may lose the referendum.

Rather than invade the country outright, the Nazis used propaganda to claim that Austria had asked for German military assistance. Meanwhile, the Austrian leadership ordered the Austrian Army not to resist an invasion, to try to avoid bloodshed. There was some popular support for the German Army's occupation of Austria on 12–13 March 1938. A poll taken in April, which academics argue was manipulated, revealed overwhelming support for the *Anschluss*.

Czechoslovakia and appeasement

Still smarting over the loss of the resource-rich Sudetenland to Czechoslovakia under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany claimed that ethnic Germans in these lands were being persecuted. While military forces amassed on both sides of the Czechoslovakian border, Hitler negotiated the notorious Munich Agreement between Germany, the United Kingdom, Italy and France on 30 September 1938.

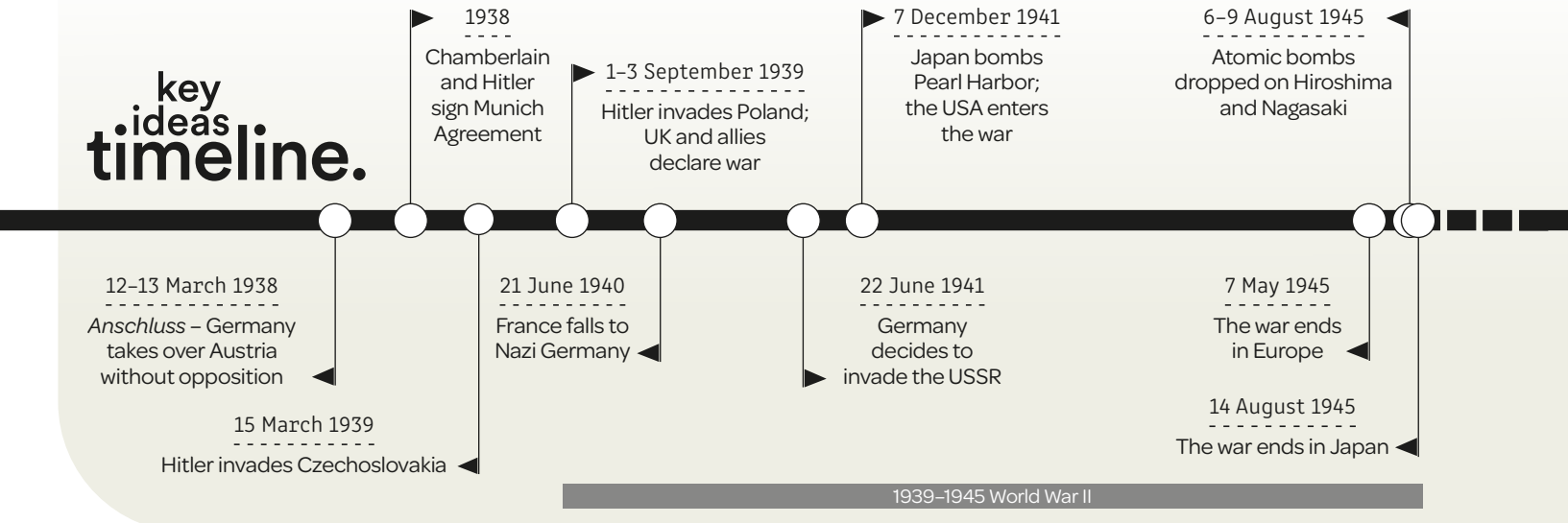
The UK Prime Minister, Neville Chamberlain, upon landing in England after the agreement, made a famous statement about how they had achieved 'Peace for our time'. The opposition leader, Winston Churchill, condemned Chamberlain's actions.

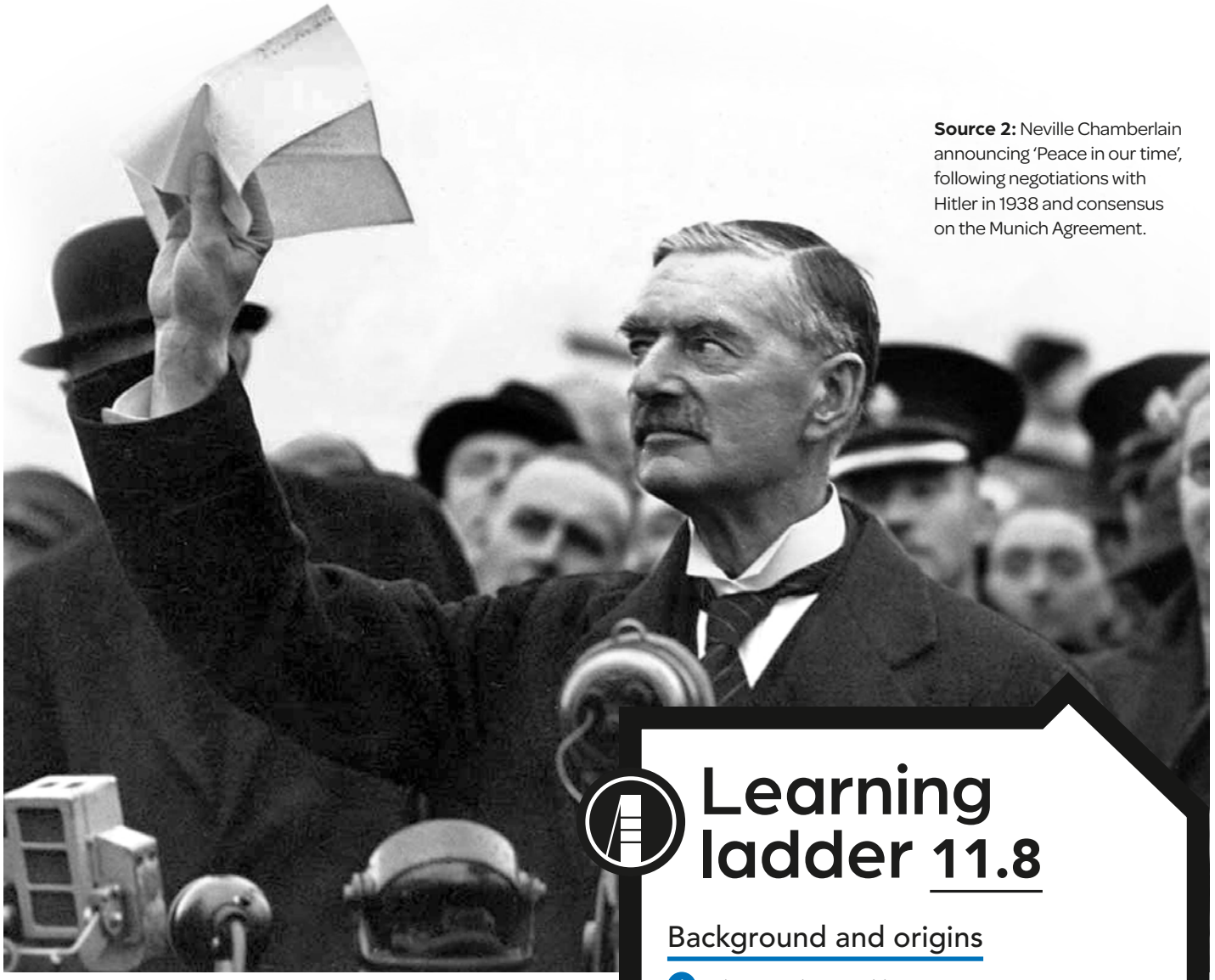
One of the major reasons that the United Kingdom and France sought peace with an obviously hostile Germany, known as the policy of **appeasement**, was that they were rebuilding their economies and military forces, so they did not have the strength to oppose Hitler. Ironically, the states who had signed the Treaty of Versailles had ignored the signs that Germany was rearming itself in contravention of the treaty. The annexation of the Sudetenland on 1 October 1938 emboldened Hitler to continue to take over more of Czechoslovakia, establishing the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia in 1939.

False flag incidents and the invasion of Poland

The German invasion of Poland began with a series of **false flag** incidents orchestrated by Schutzstaffel (SS) chiefs Heinrich Himmler and Reinhard Heydrich. The idea was to create a pretext for invading Poland that would look like self-defence.

Source 1: Key events of WWII





Source 2: Neville Chamberlain announcing 'Peace in our time', following negotiations with Hitler in 1938 and consensus on the Munich Agreement.

Under Operation Himmler, prison camp inmates were dressed in Polish Army uniforms then the Nazis killed them and displayed them as attackers. Several SS officers, dressed in Polish Army uniforms, stormed the Gleiwitz radio tower and left the murdered body of German Franciszek Honiok outside, deceiving the media. The BBC broadcast: 'The German News Agency reports the attack came at about 8 pm this evening when the Poles forced their way into the studio and began broadcasting a statement in Polish. Within a quarter of an hour, say reports, the Poles were overpowered by German police who opened fire on them'. The next day, 1 September 1939, Germany invaded Poland.

The United Kingdom and France both had defence treaties with Poland and demanded the Germans withdraw. When Hitler refused to do so, the two countries declared war on 3 September 1939. Meanwhile, Germany had signed the Molotov–Ribbentrop non-aggression pact with the USSR a month before, so it knew that the USSR would not step in. Germany felt confident that, with the latest military technology, it was ready for war.

Learning ladder 11.8

Background and origins

1. What was the *Anschluss*?
2. Describe the policy of appeasement.
3. Explain how Hitler's takeover of the Sudetenland had roots in the Treaty of Versailles.
4. Explain the background to Germany's invasion of Poland.
5. Evaluate the United Kingdom and France's decision to appease Germany.

Chronology

1. Source 1: In which year did Hitler invade Czechoslovakia?
2. Which event happened first: the fall of France or the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor?
3. How many years passed between the *Anschluss* and the end of the war in Europe?
4. Summarise how the sequence of events from the *Anschluss* to Pearl Harbor shows an escalation of the war.
5. Explain how Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor changed the scope of the war, using evidence from the timeline.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

Why did Australia become involved in WWII?

On 3 September 1939, Australia entered World War II to support Britain and the Allies. This decision reflected its strong political, economic and military ties to the British Empire and its commitment to opposing Axis aggression.

The structure of the British Empire in 1939 was different than it had been in 1914 when World War I broke out. In 1914, Australia had been one of a number of self-governing **dominions** of Britain. However, the 1931 Statute of Westminster defined dominions in a way that gave them autonomy. At the start of World War II, therefore, Australia was an 'autonomous community within the Empire ... and not subordinate ... in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs'.

Nevertheless, when Great Britain declared war on Germany on 3 September 1939, the Australian Commonwealth Government's response was to immediately also declare war, demonstrating dependence on, not independence from, British foreign policy.

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.

No harder task can fall to the lot of a democratic leader than to make such an announcement. Great Britain and France, with the cooperation of the British Dominions, have struggled to avoid this tragedy. They have, as I firmly believe, been patient; they have kept the door of negotiation open; they have given no cause for aggression. But in the result their efforts have failed and we are, therefore, as a great family of nations, involved in a struggle which we must at all costs win, and which we believe in our hearts we will win ...

... 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 relation to them. There can be no doubt that where Great Britain stands there stand the people of the entire British world.

... it is for the rest a moment for quiet thinking; for that calm fortitude which rests not upon the beating of drums, but upon the unconquerable spirit of man, created by God in His own image ...

Our staying power, and particularly the staying power of the mother country, will be best assisted by keeping our production going; by continuing our avocations [daily activities] and our business as fully as we can; by maintaining employment and with it our strength.

I know that, in spite of the emotions we are all feeling, you will show that Australia is ready to see it through ...'

Source 1: Robert Menzies radio message, 3 September 1939

▲ **Source 2:** Prime Minister Robert Menzies (centre) with his Advisory War Council, 1940

On the evening of Sunday 3 September, then Prime Minister Robert Menzies made an announcement that went out on every national and commercial radio station in Australia. In this address, Menzies makes Australia's position clear, with implications for why the nation needed to become involved in World War II.

In addition to Australia's allegiance to Britain, the decision to join the war can be understood as a commitment to defend democratic values. The war was framed as a struggle between the free democracies of the world and the rise of the Axis powers' authoritarian regimes. Australia saw itself as a part of this global fight for freedom.

▲ **Source 3:** Australian Infantry Force's 'Your Country Needs You' campaign, 1940. The poster shows the face of Winston Churchill, the British Prime Minister at the time. [Australian War Memorial, ARTV07620]

Learning ladder 11.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Robert Menzies?
2. Describe how the Statute of Westminster changed the status of dominions.
3. Explain how Menzies' decision to declare war on Germany showed dependence on Britain rather than independence.
4. Explain the ideas behind Menzies' decision to involve Australia in World War II.
5. Evaluate how Menzies' leadership during the declaration of war reflected Australia's political and cultural values at the time.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: What is the origin of this source?
2. Source 1: Using your knowledge, explain how the source refers to the policy of appeasement.
3. Source 1: Explain how the source supports the view that Australia had strong ties with Britain at the time.
4. Source 3: Explain how this source supports the view that Australia had strong ties with Britain.
5. Source 1: Evaluate the usefulness of this source in explaining why Australia declared war on Germany.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

11.10

Why did Australians enlist to fight in WWII?

Between 1939 and 1945 nearly one million Australian men and women served in WWII. Reasons for enlistment included a sense of loyalty to Britain and doing one's patriotic duty. After 1941, the threat of invasion by Japan led to people enlisting to protect Australia. However, **conscription** forced some Australians to enlist without a choice.

A survey on reasons for enlisting was conducted after World War II. From the results of this survey, 'duty' was the most important motivator for those who joined up. The next two most given reasons were nationalism and loyalty to the Empire. The survey also found the Anzac tradition was a factor for some who enlisted.

A few weeks after declaring war on Nazi Germany on 3 September 1939, Prime Minister Menzies announced the reintroduction of compulsory military training, known as the Universal Service Scheme. All unmarried men turning 21 were required to undertake three months training in the Citizen Military Forces (CMF). From February 1943, men conscripted to the CMF could be sent to fight in the South-West Pacific Zone.

Women would also enter military service and, for the first time, be engaged in roles other than nursing. Nearly 36 000 enlisted across the three women's Army services during World War II. Again, a sense of duty was the main motivation for joining up.

> The powerful tradition of the Australian Imperial Force of twenty years before. So high was the prestige of that volunteer army that a desire to qualify for membership of its brotherhood and to march on Anzac Day was to some a strong motive for enlistment. Some men said that they enlisted to escape from uninteresting occupations, dull towns or suburbs, or domestic difficulties – in fact, for adventure; and this motive, mixed with other feelings of duty and of desire for self-enhancement, was undoubtedly powerful ...

Source 1: Gavin Long (Australia's official historian) (1952), *Australia in the War of 1939–1945. Series 1 – Army – Volume 1 – To Benghazi,* p.57.

Although laws prevented First Nations Peoples enlisting, the day following Menzies' announcement that Australia was at war, 50 First Nations men volunteered for the army in the Northern Territory. It is estimated around 4 000 First Nations people joined up, including Reg Saunders (Source 2), the first known First Nations man to become a commissioned officer in the Australian armed forces.

> No, I never fought for anybody but Australia. I always was loyal to my country. ... I fought for the Queen of Australia – or the King of Australia – I didn't want the King or the Queen of England because I'd have been just as happy fighting against them. Australia is my country. I don't owe any allegiance or loyalty to the Queen of England. They tried to bloody destroy me, and my family, my tribe, my people. So I'm a bit like the Irish. I love my country very much and I like the people in Australia, so my loyalty was purely Australian.
>
> No, it was a sense of duty to the country, Australia is my country and I'd merely followed in the footsteps of hundreds of other Aboriginals in World War I. The men that I grew up with – you know, my school mates' fathers and that – they were nearly all soldiers or involved in the military. So I thought it was just a normal thing.

Source 2: Gunditjmara man, Captain Reginald Saunders, quoted in Robert Hall (1995), *Fighters from the Fringe,* Aboriginal Studies Press, Canberra, p. 64.

The reasons First Nations people gave for enlisting included access to education, better pay (although they were paid less than non-Indigenous soldiers), being with friends or family, patriotism and seeking adventure and freedom.

Source 3: Recruitment poster for the RAAF, 1941 [Australian War Memorial, ARTV04283]

Source 4: Poster designed to encourage Australian women to join the services or become involved in industry to help in the war effort, 1943 [Australian War Memorial, ARTV00332]

> It is so hard to say that you joined up for this reason or that reason – when so many things come into it. Some people join up because it is the thing to do, or because they are hard up, or because they want to get away from domestic unhappiness, or because they simply want to get at the enemy. It's all those things. Perhaps it was a stirring R.A.A.F poster that shouted 'This is a man's job!'.

Source 5: Roberts Dunstan (1945), *The Sand and the Sky*, Robertson and Mullens, Melbourne, p. 40.

> I was nineteen [and joined] for the same reason the boys wanted to join up; you felt that you had to do something for your country. It was something entirely different and I was young. Women were stepping into these roles simply because we were a small country, they needed so many, they were committed to send so many of the young men away and the only way to handle everything was to bring the women in.

Source 6: Interview with June Stone, 19 February 1991

Learning ladder 11.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. List the three main reasons people gave for enlisting.
2. Describe the Universal Service Scheme.
3. Explain how reasons for enlisting differed between First Nations and non-Indigenous people.
4. Explain the difference between enlisting and being conscripted.
5. Sources 3 and 4: Evaluate why posters like this were used even though conscription existed.

Perspectives

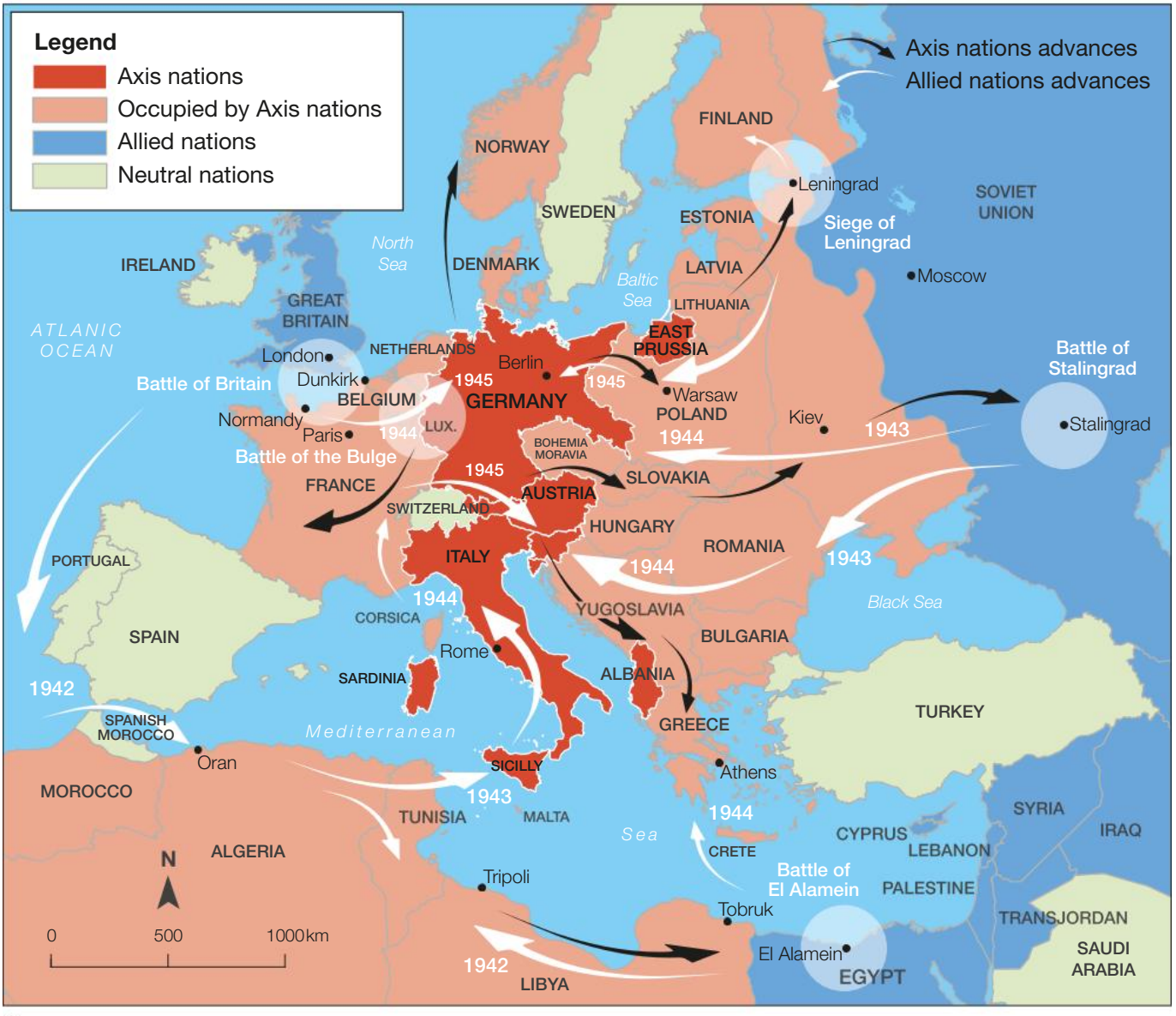
1. Source 1: According to historian Gavin Long, how important was military tradition as a reason to enlist?
2. Source 1: How might the author's employment influence the perspective given?
3. Source 2: Compare this source's view of England with that of Prime Minister Menzies (see Source 1, 11.9).
4. Sources 1, 2, 5 and 6: Evaluate each source and identify any common perspectives on enlisting for World War II.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

What happened during the European theatre of war?

The invasion of Poland by Nazi Germany was the final insult of Hitler against Europe. He had shown that Chamberlain's appeasement strategy had failed and that Germany was on a path to war. This war would last six long years, eventually involve all the global **superpowers**, and cost an estimated 50 to 56 million lives.

European invasions during World War II



Source: Matilda Education Australia / Custom Mapping Services

Source 1: Europe in World War II, showing the different powers and the invasions

The Western Front

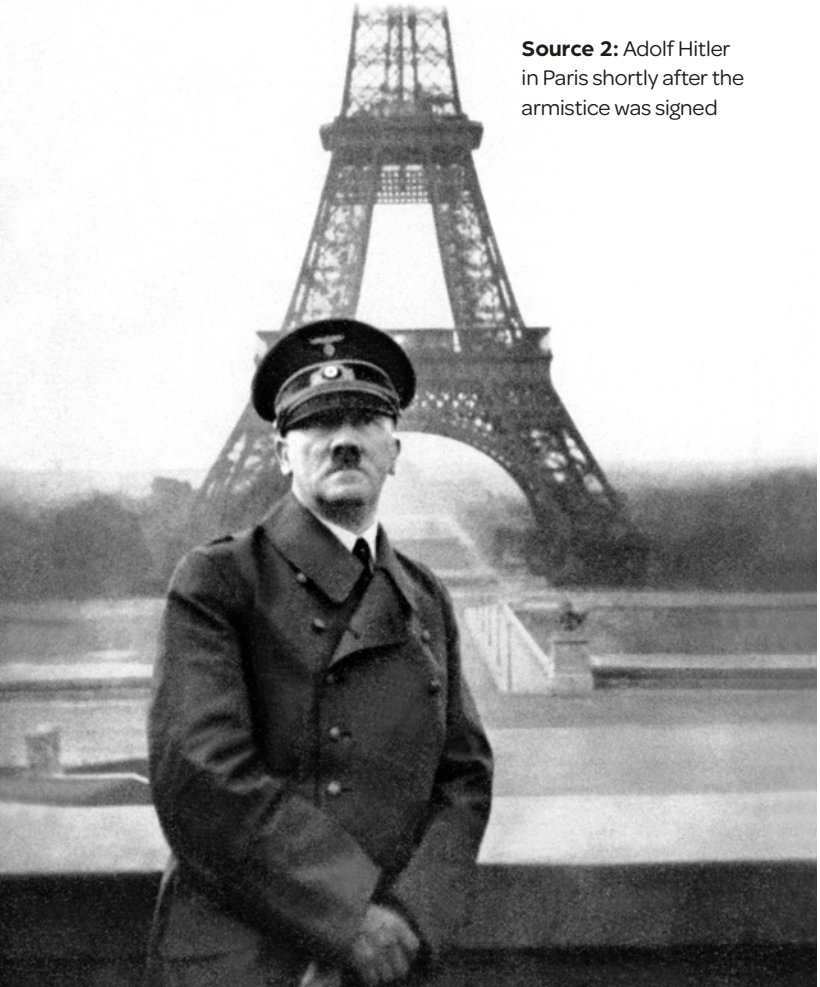
Poland

The signing of the non-aggression treaty with the USSR provided Germany with the confidence to make the first move in the European theatre of war. Poland was relatively weak and provided an excellent target to fulfil the Nazi aim of ***Lebensraum***, living space for the German people. It also served as the first large-scale test of the latest Nazi weapons and tactics, including ***Blitzkrieg***, or lightning war – fast and aggressive attacks. The invasion of Poland was complete in just five weeks.

France and the United Kingdom had not anticipated that war would happen so soon and their militaries were unprepared. As a result, they could only offer Poland minimal aid. The Nazis' success in Poland showed them that, by using *Blitzkrieg* tactics and incorporating rapid mechanised weapons and precise air support, they could launch a large-scale European invasion without the risk of the long years of trench warfare seen in World War I.

France

Hitler then set his sights on France. Many in Germany still resented France as an enemy and saw it as the main beneficiary of the Treaty of Versailles. Hitler aimed to invade France and humiliate them for the 'wrongs' they had committed against Germany. After World War I, the French had spent much time expanding and strengthening a series of fortresses and defensive positions known as the Maginot Line, believing it would deter German aggression and prevent trench warfare.



Source 2: Adolf Hitler in Paris shortly after the armistice was signed

Hitler's response was to avoid the Maginot Line altogether. On 10 May 1940, the Germans invaded France via Belgium, crossing the border where fortifications were weak. Again, the tactics of *Blitzkrieg* were used to great effect. Despite some strong resistance by French and English forces, the invasion was only slowed by poor roads, which made it difficult for mobile infantry (Panzer Brigades) to move ahead too quickly, and led to some detachments running out of fuel.

As the German Army had bypassed the Maginot Line, the French Army battalions feared being cut off. On 20 May, the German forces had taken key parts of the Western Front and many French and English divisions were stranded in the north of France and Belgium. The French defence focused on getting as many men and tanks as possible to the north to launch a counter-offensive. In the final three weeks of the German invasion, the *Blitzkrieg* tactics met fierce resistance, and the German advance began to slow, despite Italy joining the conflict to support Germany. The German air force, the *Luftwaffe*, played a key role at this stage, attacking French and English positions to weaken resistance.

Dunkirk

By 26 May 1940, the Allied commanders realised that the forces stranded in the northern parts of France and Belgium could not win and would soon be completely surrounded. The only option was to launch an evacuation on a scale never seen before – Operation Dynamo. This audacious plan involved the UK War Office commandeering as many ships and boats as possible to ferry the Allied forces out of northern France and Belgium. The centre of the operation was the small French town of Dunkirk. This operation was later called the 'miracle of Dunkirk' as, over the course of nine days, from 26 May to 4 June, British ships managed to evacuate almost 339 000 troops.

With much of the French armed forces evacuated, there was little resistance left to the German invasion. After just eight weeks, Germany had completed the invasion of France, culminating in the fall of Paris. On 21 June, the French government signed an **armistice** with Germany, officially ending the conflict. However, many French people continued to fight the Nazis. The French Resistance and Free French government in exile, led by General Charles De Gaulle, carried on resisting the German occupation.

The United Kingdom

After the success in France, Hitler began to consider invading England. The actions across continental Europe had shown the importance of air superiority and how it could change the fortunes of battle. Hitler felt that if the *Luftwaffe* could dominate the skies over the English Channel and the British Isles, he could force the United Kingdom to negotiate for peace. The initial Nazi strategy was to target Royal Air Force (RAF) command centres, but this proved ineffectual. The strategy then shifted to targeting the industrial centres producing war munitions and equipment, as well as launching terror bombing campaigns against civilians. This became known in England as 'the Blitz'.

From 7 September 1940 to 11 May 1941, the *Luftwaffe* failed to overcome English defences and eventually withdrew, having lost much of its air superiority. This was hailed as the first German defeat of World War II and is often considered a turning point in the war.

The Eastern Front

With France having signed an armistice and England struggling to hold off the *Luftwaffe*, Hitler decided to redeploy much of his military to prepare for an invasion of the USSR, called Operation Barbarossa. The aim was to invade and occupy vast areas of western Russia to gain access to oil, food and other materials that Germany needed to sustain its war effort.

On 22 June 1941, Germany began its invasion of the USSR. This caught the Soviets off guard, as Stalin thought that Germany would not risk opening another front. The Soviet Union evacuated over 16 million people and moved 1500 heavy manufacturing factories beyond the reach of the Nazi offensive. As they did this, they followed a 'scorched earth' policy, setting fire to crops and destroying infrastructure so the Nazis could not use it. The Nazi offensive strategy relied on taking Moscow, believing this would lead to the USSR's collapse.

Again, *Blitzkrieg* tactics proved effective, but the same issues slowed the offensive: vehicles ran out of fuel and some moved too quickly for other mechanised battalions to keep up. Despite these problems, the Nazi advance forced the poorly equipped and trained Red Army into retreat. One of the first pockets of resistance was at the city of Leningrad (now known as St Petersburg). The Nazis quickly surrounded the city and began a siege that lasted more than two years. More than 1.5 million civilians and soldiers died – many from the brutal **guerrilla** conflict, but also from famine caused by the siege.

The failure of the Nazis to take Leningrad was a turning point on the Eastern Front. With reinforcements, improved manufacturing output and Soviet T-34 tanks better suited to the harsh conditions, the Soviets began pushing back against the German offensive.

Source 3: Londoners sheltering in a tube station to avoid the *Luftwaffe* bombs being dropped on London as part of the Blitz.

Source 4: Citizens of Leningrad clearing away debris after an artillery attack by the Nazis

The invasion of the USSR proved to be both a military and political blunder by Hitler. Not only had he failed to conquer the USSR, but he had also strengthened the alliance between Winston Churchill, now UK Prime Minister, and Stalin. This was formalised in the Mutual Assistance Treaty, ensuring that the United Kingdom and the USSR would work together to defeat the Nazis.

North Africa

North Africa was also an important theatre of war close to Europe. The North African campaign was designed to remove the British from the region and was initially led by Italian forces. However, it became stalled. This forced Hitler to assign one of his best generals, Erwin Rommel, to lead the campaign.

Rommel had an immediate impact and was able to push the Allied forces back into Egypt, with one important exception – the Australian 9th Infantry Division, which retreated into the fortress port of Tobruk. Rommel was unable to advance any further as this would have threatened his already stretched supply lines. This led to the siege of Tobruk, where the troops were mocked by Nazi propaganda as 'rats'. The name stuck, and being called 'the Rats of Tobruk' became a badge of honour. The siege lasted for more than 200 days, thanks to night-time resupply operations conducted by the UK Royal Navy.

Germany's failure to gain a victory at Tobruk prevented its access to a vital supply route and gave the Allies a major morale boost.

Learning ladder 11.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was the idea of *Lebensraum*?
2. Describe the tactic of *Blitzkrieg*.
3. Describe 'Operation Dynamo' and why it became known as the 'miracle of Dunkirk'.
4. Explain the Nazi strategy for invading England.
5. Explain why events on the Eastern Front can be considered a blunder by Hitler.

Significance

1. What was the significance of the non-aggression treaty between Germany and the USSR?
2. Describe the significance of the Maginot Line in defending France from German aggression.
3. Explain why Britain's ability to prevent a German invasion is considered a significant event in World War II.
4. Explain the significance of the North Africa campaign.

HOW TO Significance, page 504

What was the Holocaust?

The **Holocaust** is the term used for the persecution and murder of 6 million Jews by the Nazis. This involved forcing Jews into ghettos, concentration camps, and later, extermination (death) camps.

Background

When the Nazis rose to power in Germany in 1933, they enforced beliefs about racial superiority, targeting Jews as well as Romani people, the disabled (except war veterans), communists and homosexuals. Jews were blamed for Germany's defeat in World War I and the economic troubles of the 1920s and 1930s. Nazi laws and propaganda isolated and **vilified** Jews; at first, the goal was to force them to leave Germany. Once World War II began in 1939, many Jews were placed in overcrowded **ghettos** or sent to **concentration camps** for forced labour.

What happened?

After occupying Poland in 1939, the Nazis forced Jews into cramped, walled-off ghettos, mainly in Polish cities. The largest was the Warsaw ghetto, where more than 490 000 Jews endured terrible conditions. Across all ghettos, around 500 000 Jews died from disease and starvation.

Other Jews and people the Nazis viewed as 'enemies of the state' were sent to concentration camps, where brutal forced labour, lack of food and no medical care led to over 1 million deaths. In the concentration camps, people had no rights, little to eat and no health services, and many died.

In 1941, during the invasion of the Soviet Union, the large-scale killing of Jews began. Nazi mobile death squads (*Einsatzgruppen*) began massacring entire Jewish communities. They would later use mobile gas chambers as well. The term 'Final Solution of the Jewish Question' was used by Nazi Germany's leaders when referring to the organised mass killing of Europe's Jews. This systematic period of murder became known as the Holocaust.

Between 1942 and 1944, those still alive in the ghettos and concentration camps were either shot or transported to an extermination camp.

Extermination (death) camps

Built mostly in occupied Poland, the extermination camps were designed to kill large numbers of people – mainly Jews – using poison gas. Auschwitz was the largest, where about 1.1 million people were murdered. Overall, more than three million Jews were killed in extermination camps during the Holocaust, making it one of the worst genocides in history. Those that survived to the end of the war and liberation then had to try to make a life for themselves, after experiencing such extreme trauma.

Source 1: Grading of recently arrived adults and children on the railway concourse outside the Auschwitz extermination camp

Holocaust survivors in Australia

By the end of World War II, many Jewish survivors had lost their homes and families, leaving them no safe place to go. As part of the international community, Australia felt a responsibility to help these **displaced people**. During the 1940s, more than 35 000 European Jews immigrated to Australia, where they settled primarily in Melbourne, Brisbane and Sydney. After Israel, Australia has the largest per-capita Holocaust survivor population.

Holocaust survivors arrived in Australia carrying deep emotional scars from their wartime experiences, including the loss of loved ones and the extreme cruelty they endured. They often struggled with language barriers, cultural differences and limited resources, making it hard to fit into a new community. Some faced prejudice or misunderstandings from those who did not fully grasp their suffering. Despite these difficulties, many built new lives in Australia, while still coping with the lasting trauma of what they had endured.

Source 2: The Great Synagogue, Sydney. Although originally built in 1878, after WWII it was renovated and expanded to accommodate the growing Jewish community.

Learning ladder 11.12

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Define the following terms: anti-Semitic, ghetto, *Einsatzgruppen*.
2. Describe events in Poland for Jewish people following Nazi occupation.
3. Explain why extermination (death) camps were established by the Nazis.
4. Explain the impact of the Holocaust on survivors.

Cause and effect

1. Describe the effect of the Nazi belief in their racial superiority.
2. Describe the effects on people who were placed in concentration camps.
3. Explain the 'Final Solution' and its effects on European Jews.
4. Analyse the causes and effects of the Holocaust. Why do you think it was able to occur?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

11.13

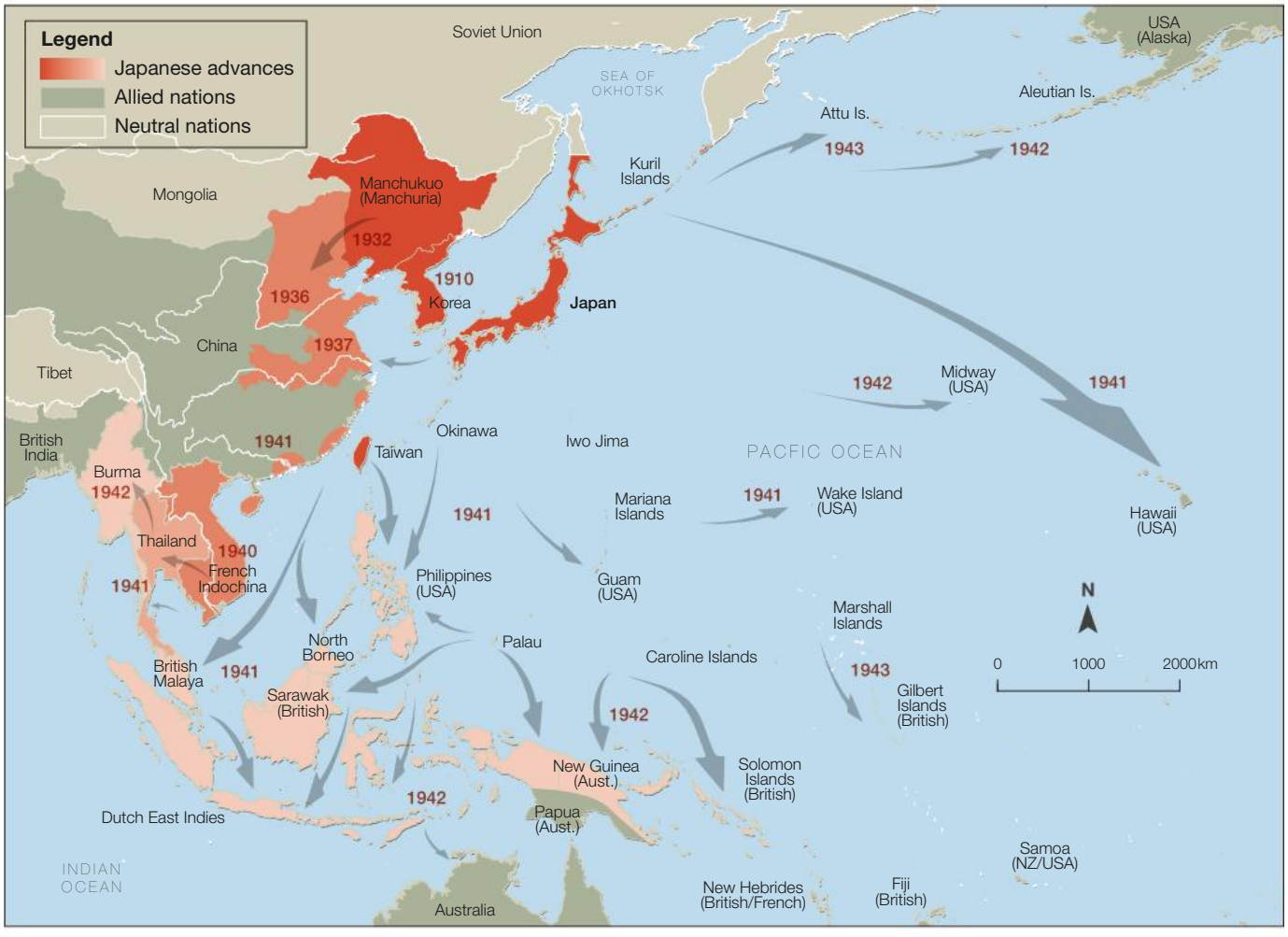
What was the War in the Pacific?

By the time World War II broke out in Europe, Japan and China had already been at war for over two years. This had largely been a local conflict, far removed from the tensions in Europe. All this changed when the Japanese decided to seek territory throughout the Asia–Pacific and launched a surprise attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941.

The attack on Pearl Harbor resulted in the United States joining the Allies, and Japan formalising its relationship as an Axis power. So, the two theatres of war became one global conflict. What differentiated the Pacific theatre was the impact of naval warfare – the side that could control the air and waters would eventually be victorious.

Among military leaders in Japan, debate raged about whether the nation should expand north into East Asia and the Soviet Union, or south into South-East Asia and the Pacific in pursuit of resources and an advantage over Allied forces. At the end of World War I, Japan had gained control of German territories in the Pacific, including many of the islands of Micronesia: the Marianas, Marshall Islands and Palau. The Japanese leadership eventually decided to expand south.

Japanese expansion



▲ **Source 1:** A map of Japanese expansion

Source: Matilda Education Australia/Custom Mapping Services

French Indochina

As conflict continued in East Asia between Chinese forces and the occupying Japanese Army, the rail link between French Indochina (the modern-day countries of Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia) and Kunming remained China's final overland link with the outside world, one that the Japanese moved swiftly to cut off.

Once Germany invaded in May 1940, France could no longer properly support its overseas colonies. Over the next few months, Japan took advantage of this to present the French Indochinese government with a number of requests – effectively ultimatums:

1. Close all supply routes to China
2. Allow Japan to set up a naval base and close the Chinese border completely
3. Allow Japanese troops to be stationed in the country, adjacent to the Chinese border.

After heavy negotiations, more than 6000 Japanese troops were authorised to enter the country. However, skirmishes with French forces still erupted. To avoid further bloodshed, authorities agreed to the stationing of more Japanese troops in the country and by mid-1941 more than 140 000 were stationed in the south.

Dutch East Indies

One of the primary motives for Japan's southern expansion was access to resources, principally oil. The Dutch East Indies (modern-day Indonesia and Timor-Leste) was the world's fourth-largest exporter of oil at the time and became a priority target for occupation, especially after US President Roosevelt embargoed American exports to Japan in July 1941. Through a series of amphibious assaults supported by naval fire, Japanese forces took control of the country in a matter of months and, with it, valuable reserves to secure their expansion and support the military.

Thailand

With the intention of pushing south, the Japanese saw Thailand as the ideal launching pad for attacks on Malaya and Burma, particularly as British forces were preoccupied in Europe and would be unable to assist troops already in the region. As Japanese forces built up in nearby French Indochina and naval vessels drew closer, an ultimatum was issued to the Thai government on 7 December 1941: allow Japanese forces to use Thailand as a base of operations or face invasion.

The next day, with no response forthcoming, Japanese forces attacked several key locations, quickly gaining advantage. Within five hours the Thai government yielded and an agreement was signed between Japan and Thailand; for the remainder of the war, Thailand was now an Axis ally and declared war on the United Kingdom and the United States. The *Free Thai Movement* later emerged as Thais, particularly those living outside Thailand, increasingly opposed the Japanese military presence.

Pearl Harbor

As Japan sought to expand across South-East Asia, it was acutely aware of the military capabilities of its Pacific neighbours, the United States. On 7 December 1941, Japan launched a surprise attack on the US naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii – weakening the United States would mean precious time to secure the region and establish defences. Despite causing significant casualties and damage, the Japanese were unable to disable the US Pacific Fleet and their actions served to galvanise US support for the war, something the country had earlier resisted.

Source 2: A scene from the 2001 movie *Pearl Harbor* shows the Japanese surprise attack on the US naval base at Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941.

The Philippines

Ten hours after the attack on Pearl Harbor, Japanese forces began an invasion of the Philippines, which had been a colony of the United States and held a heavy American troop presence. American and Filipino troops were outnumbered and, under increasing pressure, withdrew to the Bataan Peninsula, before eventually surrendering on 9 April 1942. The survivors were forcibly taken to prison facilities via a series of brutal overland marches marked by beatings and summary executions. Known as the Bataan Death March, thousands lost their lives.

Singapore and Malaya

Following Pearl Harbor, Australian authorities were increasingly concerned at the growing expansion of the Japanese, but remained confident that British forces in Singapore and Malaya, supported by a large Australian contingent, would contain any further threat. More than 130 000 British troops, including Indian soldiers and the Australian 8th Division, were present in the region and two British battleships had arrived following the attack on Pearl Harbor. But by the end of January, both battleships had been sunk and Malaya had fallen.

On 15 February 1942, Australia's worst fears were realised when Singapore surrendered to the Japanese, leaving no major defences between Australia and the advancing Japanese Army. Large numbers of soldiers became prisoners of war (POWs), including more than 15 000 Australians.

The Kempeitai, Japan's military police, played a special role in covert operations and security across wartime Japan and its colonies. Part of this role involved suppressing dissent, often brutally. In occupied Singapore, tens of thousands of ethnic Chinese civilians were rounded up and executed.

Source 3: The Japanese used propaganda to encourage the people of India to rise up against the British. Among other depictions in this poster, Winston Churchill eats a piece of meat carved in the shape of India, alluding to the consumption of the subcontinent by the British Empire. The text reads, 'Beat the devil with sticks and save India'.

Burma and India

Having conquered most of South-East Asia, Japanese attention soon turned to Burma, beyond which lay India. Beginning in December 1941, the Burma campaign would last years, with soldiers on both sides experiencing malnutrition and disease in the difficult, humid conditions. Limited transport infrastructure also played an influential role, as did the politically complex nature of the conflict.

Source 4: During the 55-day Malayan campaign, Japanese forces advanced nearly one thousand kilometres from Songkhla to Johor Bahru. Imperial Japanese Army engineers constructed makeshift bridges across many jungle creeks for their infantry to travel on. This photo is from c. January 1942.

The Japanese were supported by both Thai and some Burmese independence forces, while the British forces included hundreds of thousands of soldiers from across the colonies, primarily from India. As shown in Source 3, the Japanese attempted to persuade Indians to rise up against the Allies, but they were mostly unsuccessful. The Burma campaign ended up as the longest land campaign of the Pacific War, and unfortunately would eventually cost both sides hundreds of thousands of lives.

New Guinea and the Dutch East Indies

By the end of January 1942, the Japanese had taken control of Rabaul in New Guinea and defeated the Australian and local forces at Ambon, Timor and Java in the Dutch East Indies within a few weeks.

Rabaul, on the island of New Britain, would serve as a base of operations for regional Japanese forces as they planned their campaign to capture the New Guinea capital of Port Moresby. Rabaul lay just over 1500 kilometres from Cairns. The Japanese military, it seemed, had now reached Australia's doorstep.

Learning ladder 11.13

Significant people, ideas and events

1. When was the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor?
2. Describe Japan's actions in French Indochina.
3. Describe the idea behind the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.
4. Explain the significance of the fall of Singapore.

Cause and effect

1. What was the effect on America's attitude to the war after the attack on Pearl Harbor?
2. Describe what caused the deaths of thousands of captured soldiers after Japan took the Philippines.
3. Describe the event that caused thousands of Australian soldiers to become prisoners of the Japanese.
4. Explain the effect of Japan occupying several nations and territories in the Pacific region. What was the impact for Australia?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

11.14

Where did Australian soldiers serve?

From 3 September 1939 to 15 August 1945, nearly one million Australians, from a population of seven million people, would serve in World War II. As part of the British Empire, Australia was one of the first countries in the world to declare war on Nazi Germany.

Before the outbreak of war, there had been concerns about the size of the Australian Army, which numbered barely 3000 soldiers, in addition to the volunteer Citizen Military Forces (CMF) of around 80 000, most of whom were poorly trained and ill-equipped. *The Defence Act 1910* prohibited the use of conscription, except in defence of Australian territories (which at the time included New Guinea), but from 1 January 1940, Prime Minister Robert Menzies introduced compulsory military training for unmarried men after they turned 21. Despite the White Australia policy being in place and *The Defence Act* restricting enlistment among non-European Australians, there were many non-white Australians among the Australian military, including people of Chinese, Lebanese and Japanese descent (Source 1).

Source 1: Mario Takasuka, the Australian-born son of Japanese migrants, was eventually able to enlist in the AIF in 1940, following two rejections on racial grounds. Australian military authorities sought to have him removed when Japan entered the war, but with support from his commanding officer, he remained in active service. [Australian War Memorial, P0133.006]

The Middle East, North Africa and Crete

On 14 September 1939, just 11 days after Australia officially joined the war, the 2nd AIF was formed with 20 000 men, followed by subsequent divisions, preparing and equipping soldiers for active service abroad. Since the British defence at Singapore was considered more than adequate for control of the Asia–Pacific, Australian soldiers were sent to support British Commonwealth forces in the Middle East and North Africa – notably at Tobruk in Libya, Syria, Lebanon, Palestine and El Alamein in Egypt – as well as to Greece and the United Kingdom itself.

Asia

Australian soldiers were also sent to parts of Asia, to support the British forces in Malaya and Singapore, as well as to protect the Dutch East Indies and Rabaul in Papua New Guinea. While they were concerned about the Japanese threat, Australian officials believed that the large British garrison at Singapore and the other expeditionary forces and allies across the region would prevail. However, by early 1942, it was clear this was not the case. With and the Japanese military within striking distance of the Australian mainland, most Australian forces were engaged overseas.

Source 2: Soldiers from the Australian 6th Division arrive in Alexandria after being evacuated from Crete, June 1941. [Australian War Memorial, 007742/04]

Source 3: Australian and South African servicemen enjoy a game of cards in a gun pit during the Western Desert campaign, North Africa. [Imperial War Museum, E14671]

The Kokoda campaign

Despite some attacks on Australian soil in early 1942 (see 11.15), by mid-1942 the tide began to turn against the Japanese. Their progression was slowed by naval defeats to combined US and Australian forces at the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Battle of Midway. These losses forced the Japanese to attempt more difficult overland assaults in New Guinea in their effort to take the PNG capital, Port Moresby. Most notably, the Japanese had to use a 96-kilometre track known as the Kokoda Trail. The muddy, slippery trail ran through the difficult terrain and dense jungle of the Owen Stanley Mountain Range.

With the bulk of Australia's military engaged abroad or captured, inexperienced soldiers from the CMF supported local Papuans – together known as Maroubra Force – to slow the Japanese advance. Over several months, Maroubra Force began to push the Japanese back, winning nationwide respect. More than 16 000 were wounded, another 4000 were infected with tropical illnesses and around 625 lost their lives. With the increasing US presence in the Pacific, momentum shifted to the Allied forces, with Japan unable to supply the necessary resources their armed forces needed.

Source 4: The Battle of Kokoda was a four-month engagement in 1942 in which the Australian Army stopped the southward advance of Japanese forces to Port Moresby in Papua New Guinea.

Bomber command

Britain established Bomber Command to fly missions over Europe to destroy strategic sites and enemy cities. About 10 000 Australians flew either in RAAF squadrons within Bomber Command or as part of the Royal Air Force. They flew Halifax, Lancaster, Stirling and Wellington bombers. In October 1944, one of the Lancaster bombers, 'G for George', was flown to Australia to promote the war effort.

Australians fought in the three great bomber battles in Europe – the Ruhr, Hamburg and Berlin. Every mission was dangerous and could last eight hours, much of it over enemy territory. Bomber Command was the most dangerous theatre of war for Australians: more than one in three were killed in action and 650 died in training accidents. Two Australian airmen, Flight Sergeant Rawdon Middleton and Wing Commander Hughie Edwards, were awarded the Victoria Cross.

Source 5: The Maroubra Force were assisted by local Papuans, such as Mr Ovuri Indiki.

Learning ladder 11.14

Significant people, ideas and events

1. How many Australians served in World War II? List places where they served.
2. Describe why the 2nd AIF was sent to the Middle East, North Africa and Crete but not to Singapore.
3. Explain the role of the Maroubra Force in the Kokoda campaign.
4. Explain how and where Australians served in Bomber Command.

Cause and effect

1. What effect did the *Defence Act 1910* have on where conscripted soldiers could serve?
2. Describe what led to the decision not to send Australian troops to Singapore in 1939–1941. What was the effect of this decision by early 1942?
3. Explain the effect of Japanese losses in the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Battle of Midway on their plans to capture Papua New Guinea.
4. What is your explanation for the high loss of Australian lives among those who served in Bomber Command?

Cause and effect, page 498

HOW TO

What was the 'Battle for Australia'?

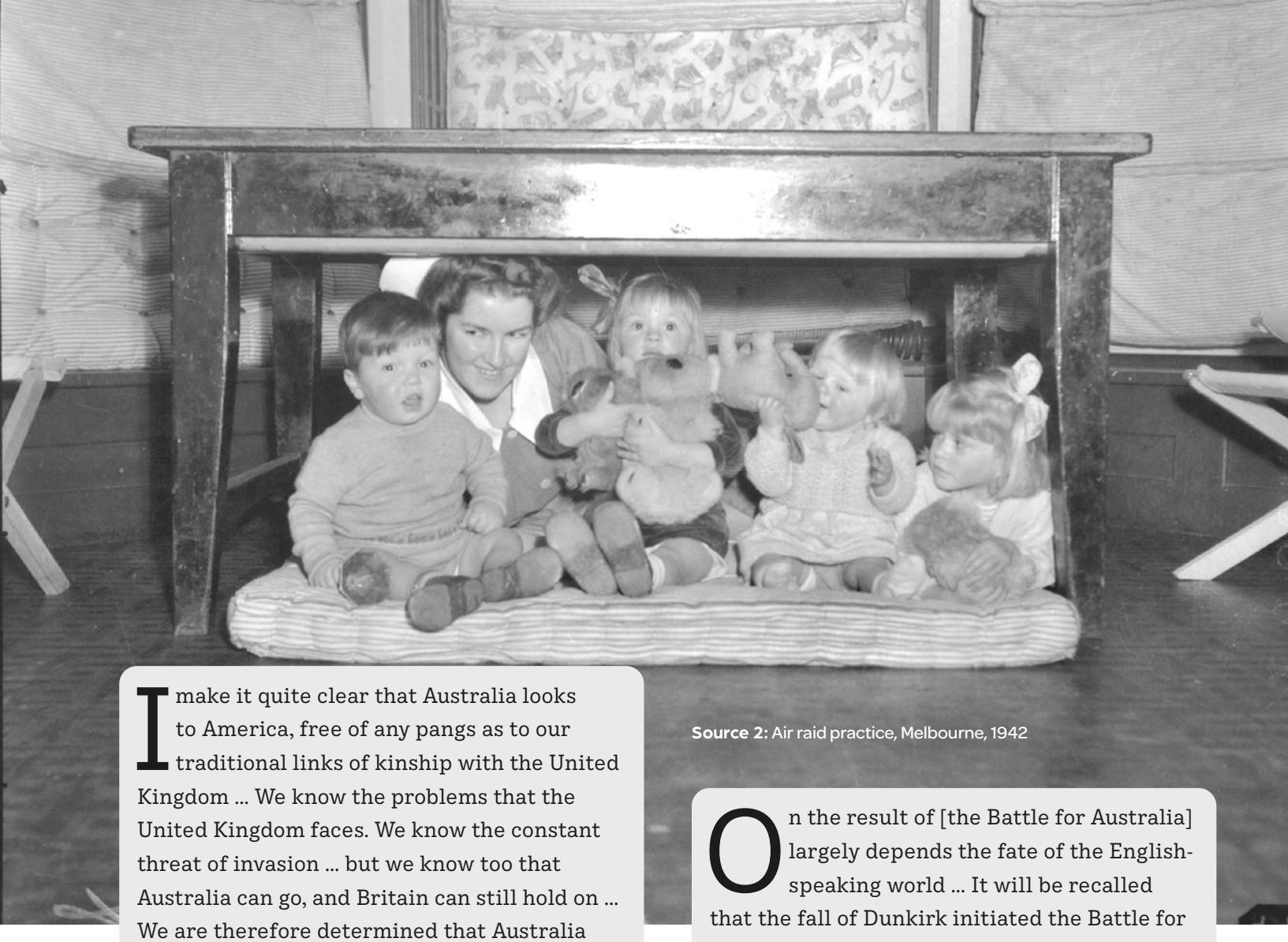
After Singapore fell to the Japanese on 8–15 February 1942, most Australians believed they would next attempt to invade Australia. However, despite some Japanese actions against Australia, this invasion never took place. Indeed, some historians have argued the threat was never real.

Preparing for war

Already familiar with the bombing raids on English cities, by 1942 Australia was preparing for the possibility of war reaching its shores:

- Air Raid Precautions (ARP) were civil defence measures established to ensure the home front knew what to do in case of attack. Volunteers were recruited to serve as air raid wardens, fire watchers, first aid workers and rescue teams, and air raid shelters were constructed in urban areas, especially in Darwin, Sydney and Brisbane.
- The Volunteer Defence Corps (VDC), formed in 1940 as a militia capable of defending Australia from invasion or sabotage, was made part of the Australian Military Forces as the threat of Japanese invasion loomed. By 1942 it had 45 000 members.
- The Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit was formed in February 1942. It included more than 50 Yolngu men in eastern Arnhem Land.
- The North Australia Observation Unit was formed to guard and monitor the northern Australian coastline. Known as the 'Nackeroos', this unit included significant numbers of First Nations servicemen.

Source 1: World War II fort, Cape Pallarenda Conservation Park, Townsville. Forts like this were built throughout northern Australia, in preparation for attack.



Source 2: Air raid practice, Melbourne, 1942

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

Source 3: John Curtin, quoted in the *Herald*, 27 December 1941.

On the result of [the Battle for Australia] largely depends the fate of the English-speaking world … It will be recalled that the fall of Dunkirk initiated the Battle for Britain. The fall of Singapore opens the battle for Australia. On its issue not merely depends the fate of this Commonwealth, but the fate of the United States of America, and indeed all of the Americas.

Source 4: Prime Minister John Curtain, quoted in Lismore's *Northern Star* newspaper on 17 February 1942, days after the fall of Singapore.

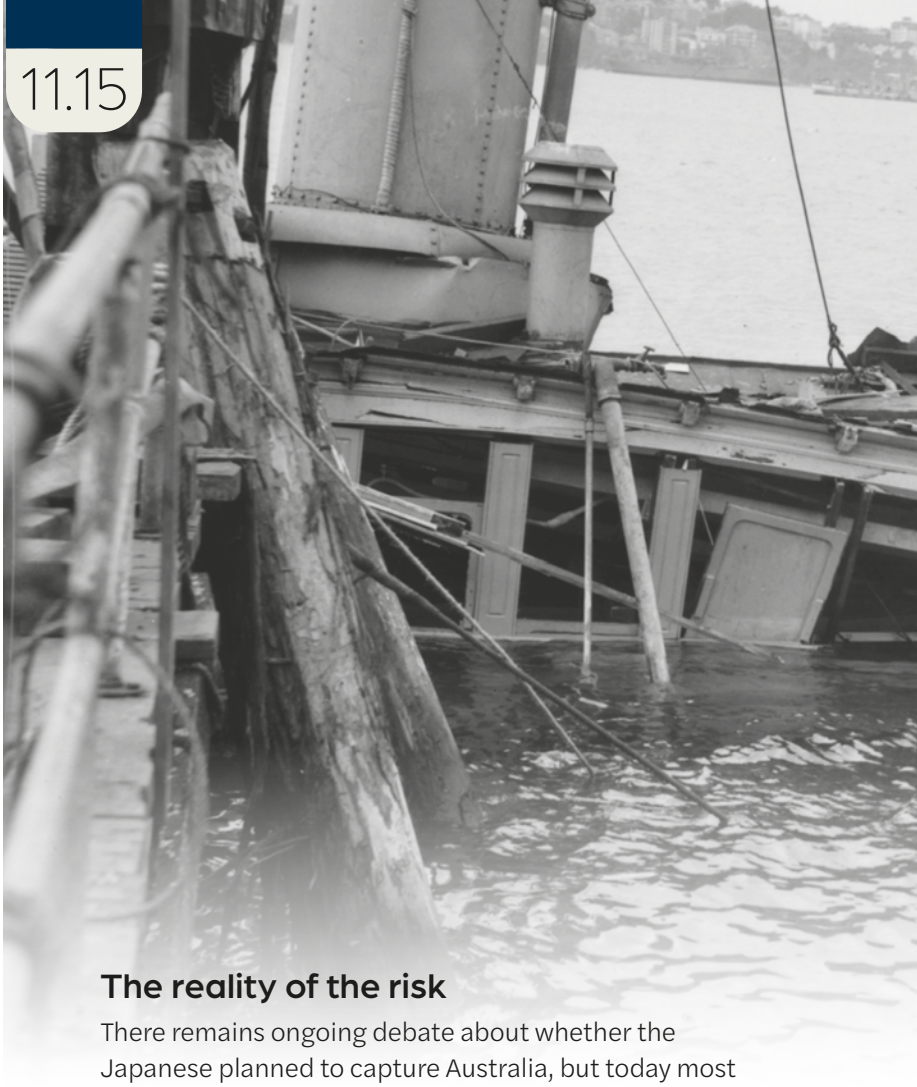
Looking to America

Following the fall of Singapore, Australian authorities realised that the ability of the United Kingdom to support the Pacific defence would be limited at best. In December 1941, Prime Minister John Curtin had advocated for closer ties to the United States (Source 3), an increasingly influential nation with an impressive military and, following the attack on Pearl Harbor, an enemy of Japan. As the threat to Australia increased, John Curtain declared that the country now faced the 'Battle for Australia'. In this battle, the United States became an important ally.

Attacks on northern Australia

At 9.58 am on 19 February 1942, Australian soil came under attack for the first time when the Japanese launched two air raids on Darwin. Not only were military targets hit, but a number of public buildings, including the post office, were bombed. A second attack followed an hour later. By the end of these two raids at least 243 people had been killed and 350 were wounded. A further 97 attacks on northern Australia including Broome, Wyndham, Port Hedland, Derby, Katherine, Townsville and Mossman followed, with the last one on 12 November 1943.

11.15



Japanese submarines attack Sydney and Newcastle

On the night of 31 May 1942, three Japanese midget submarines entered Sydney Harbour. Around 11.30pm, one of the submarines fired its missiles, with one hitting HMAS *Kuttabul*, killing 19 and injuring 10 of the sailors on board. The impact of this attack on the home front was great. It heightened fear and made people realise the closeness of Japanese forces to Australia. One week later, Japanese submarines off Newcastle shelled the coast, causing further alarm.

TWO BIG AIR RAIDS ON DARWIN

93 JAPANESE BOMBERS TAKE PART; FIGHTER ESCORT

Four Enemy Planes Brought Down

Two severe air raids on Darwin were made yesterday by large forces of Japanese twin-engined bombers.

The first raid made in the morning by 72 bombers accompanied by fighters, and the second in the afternoon by 21 bombers.

Announcing this in a statement which he issued late last night, the Prime Minister, Mr. Curtin, said that it was known for certain that four enemy aircraft had been brought down.

''Damage to property was considerable,' he said, 'but reports so far to hand do not give precise particulars about the loss of life.

The Government regards the attacks as most grave, and makes it quite clear that a severe blow has been struck on Australian soil'.

Source 5: *Sydney Morning Herald,* Friday 20 February 1942

The reality of the risk

There remains ongoing debate about whether the Japanese planned to capture Australia, but today most historians believe that the Japanese had no intention of landing their soldiers on Australian soil. However, the attacks were psychologically unsettling at the time and, for many, an invasion seemed imminent.

To facilitate the efficiency of raising revenue to pursue the Second World War the Commonwealth had first requested the States to pass their income taxing powers to it for the duration of the war at the 1941 Premiers' Conference. The States refused. On 23 February 1942 – two days after the Japanese bombed Darwin – the Federal government appointed a select Committee on Uniform Taxation to advise it as to the best way taxation revenue could be raised. This committee was so select that the answer was a foregone conclusion. [The States and Territories never regained power over taxation.]

Source 6: Brett Bondfield (2024), 'Don't Mention the War', in Paul Ashton (ed), *Walking a Tight Rope: Milestones and Moments in the History of the NSW Treasury*, Sydney, p. 86.

Source 7: Wreckage of the Navy vessel *Kuttabul* after being hit by a torpedo fired from a Japanese midget submarine in Sydney Harbour, 31 May 1942. [Australian War Memorial, C256271]

▲ **Source 9:** 'He's Coming South', 1942 poster

In a nutshell, early in 1942, Japan's wartime leaders thought about invading Australia. They weighed up the costs and the possible results, and decided not to. ... Australians not unreasonably thought that having conquered most of south-east Asia the Japanese would simply keep going. It was logical – and they'd been fearful of Japanese aggression for fifty years, fears evoked by novels, plays and films. The Curtin government understandably warned Australians to prepare for attack or even invasion – as the notorious poster put it 'He's Coming South!'

In fact, 'He' was not, but John Curtin and the Allied Supreme Commander in the South West Pacific, Douglas MacArthur, only understood this by about the middle of 1942. ... By then the Australian government could not abandon the claim that invasion was likely. In fact, an anxious Curtin did not publicly admit that the threat had been removed until mid-1943, a full year after he disclosed as much to his War Cabinet.

Source 8: Professor Peter Stanley, 'What 'Battle for Australia?'', *ABC News*, 3 September 2008

Learning ladder 11.15

Background and origins

1. What was the background to establishing Air Raid Precautions (ARP)?
2. Describe the origins of the phrase 'Battle for Australia'.
3. Explain why Australia began looking to the United States for support.
4. Explain why Australians in 1942 believed they faced invasion by Japan.

Contestability

1. What debate do historians have about the reality of a Japanese plan to invade Australia in 1942?
2. Sources 3 and 4: Describe John Curtin's interpretation of the 'Battle for Australia'.
3. Source 8: Explain the interpretation that the 'Battle for Australia' was a morale campaign rather than a real military contest.
4. Compare Curtin's wartime interpretation with later historians' view that the invasion threat was exaggerated. In what key way do they differ?
5. Which view is better supported by the evidence? Justify your answer.

HOW TO

Contestability, page 506

How were prisoners of war treated during World War II?

The number of people interred during World War II, either as prisoners of war or as enemy aliens, was significantly higher than in World War I. How these people were treated depended in large part on where they were captured. Mistreatment, and death, of prisoners of war was much higher in Japanese-occupied territory or on the Eastern Front compared to other places.

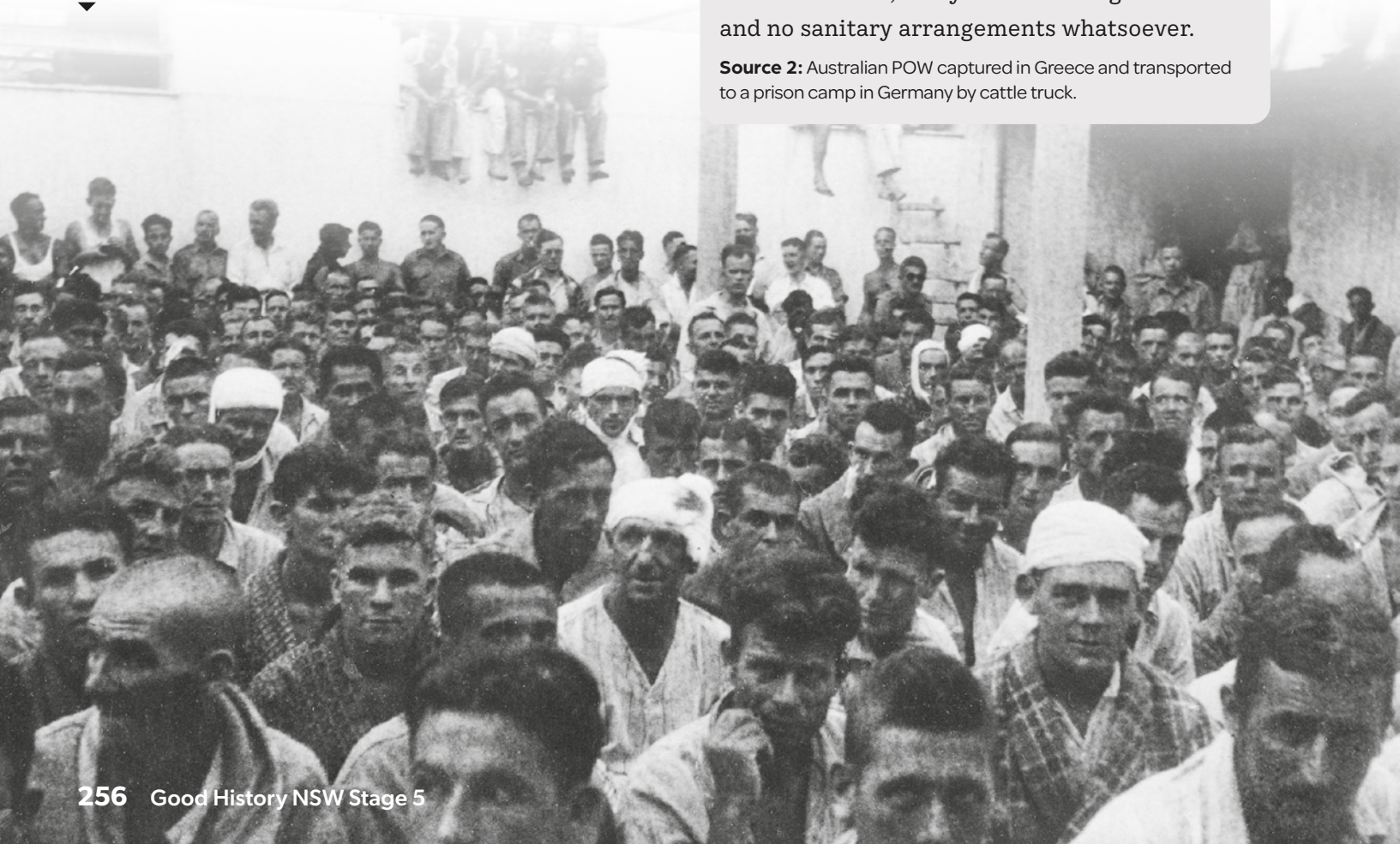
Europe, the Middle East and North Africa

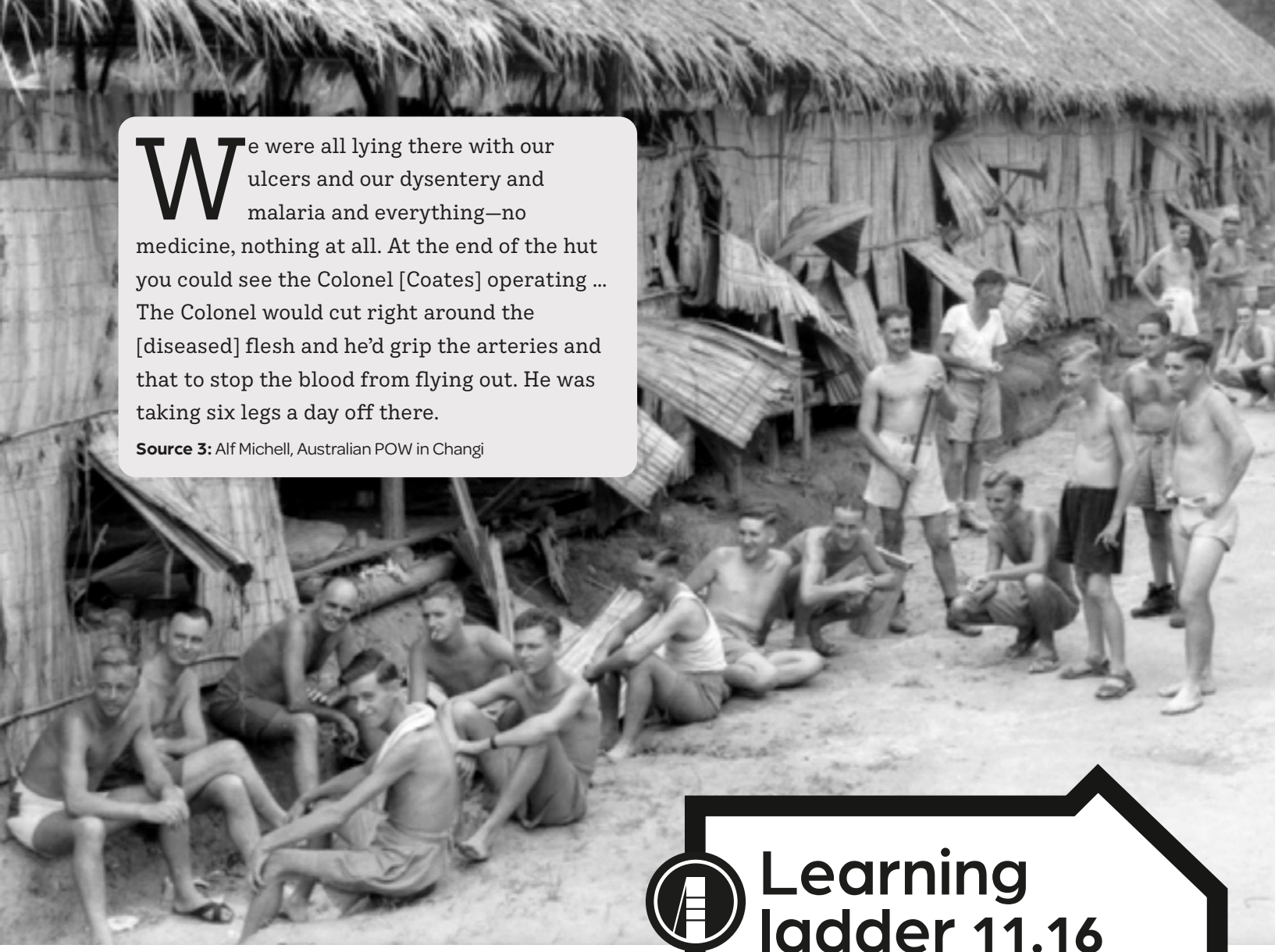
The Geneva Convention is an international agreement on the treatment of captured prisoners, under which all nations are obligated to provide both captured civilians and military personnel with adequate supplies and conditions, and to seek their **repatriation** where possible. For the more than 8000 Australians captured by German or Italian forces and their allies in Europe or the Middle East, conditions generally followed the Convention. These POWs – of whom 269 died – were taken during campaigns, primarily in Greece and North Africa, or were pilots who survived crashes or parachuted into enemy territory. Many of them remained prisoners for more than three years.

Source 1: Wounded Australian and New Zealand POWs at the main POW hospital in Greece. They are waiting for a concert to start. After the war, these POWs were largely overlooked due to the focus on POWs of the Japanese. However, they also experienced hunger, disease and poor conditions.

A week in cattle trucks in the height of sweltering summer … No seats or other amenities. All of us weak and suffering from diarrhoea, many with bleeding bowels and no sanitary arrangements whatsoever.

Source 2: Australian POW captured in Greece and transported to a prison camp in Germany by cattle truck.





We were all lying there with our ulcers and our dysentery and malaria and everything—no medicine, nothing at all. At the end of the hut you could see the Colonel [Coates] operating … The Colonel would cut right around the [diseased] flesh and he'd grip the arteries and that to stop the blood from flying out. He was taking six legs a day off there.

Source 3: Alf Michell, Australian POW in Changi

Source 4: Prisoners of war from the Australian 2/29th Infantry Battalion outside their hut in the Changi gaol area in 1945, after being rescued.

The Pacific Front

The experiences of these POWs contrasted sharply with the tens of thousands who were taken by the Japanese military, including more than 15 000 at Singapore and Malaya alone. On the island of Borneo, Allied prisoners were force-marched through tropical jungle from Sandakan to Ranau. More than 2400 men died while only six survived – one of the worst atrocities to befall Australian servicemen during the war.

Of the Allied forces captured in Singapore, more than 8000 died in brutal conditions – rations were scarce, hunger and disease were rampant and medical treatment was almost non-existent. Japan refused to acknowledge the Geneva Convention and prisoners were beaten and punished harshly, including being tortured and summarily executed.

Learning ladder 11.16

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What is the Geneva Convention?
2. Describe the general treatment of Australian POWs in Europe.
3. Explain how Japan's treatment of POWs differed from earlier international expectations.
4. Explain why prisoner treatment varied depending on where and by whom the soldiers were captured.

Cause and effect

1. Describe the effect of Germany and Italy following the Geneva Convention on POWs.
2. Describe what led to more than 15 000 Australians being captured by the Japanese.
3. Explain the effect on the 2400 POWs forced to march from Sandakan to Ranau.
4. Explain the effect on POWs of Japan's failure to follow the Geneva Convention.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

What were the experiences of prisoners of war under Japan and in Australia?

About 31 000 Australians became prisoners of war (POWs) during World War II. The majority of these, around 22 000 – including 32 female nurses – were prisoners of the Japanese. In Australia, fear that some residents might secretly aid enemy nations resulted in the internment of anyone considered a threat. Australia also accepted internees from overseas, sent by Allied countries.

Australian POWs under the Japanese

From 1942 to 1945, 22 000 Australians were captured as 'prisoners of Nippon' and placed in camps in territory controlled by the Japanese. Most were forced to build construction projects, such as the 415-kilometre long Burma–Thailand railway, or to work in factories supporting the Japanese war effort. It was not uncommon for prisoners to be worked to death or to be beaten, starved and denied adequate medical treatment. Two particularly horrendous experiences occurred in Changi and Sandakan. At the end of the war only 13 872 of the POWs survived, a death toll of more than 55 per cent.

Source 1: Australian POWs in Singapore, c. 1945 [Australian War Memorial, 19199]

Every man who worked on the railway, in whichever section, would have an automatic passport to Heaven. They have all done the requisite stretch in Hell.

Source 2: Private Max McGee, 2/3rd Machine Gun Battalion, quoted in *Australians on the Burma Thailand Railway: 1942–1943*.

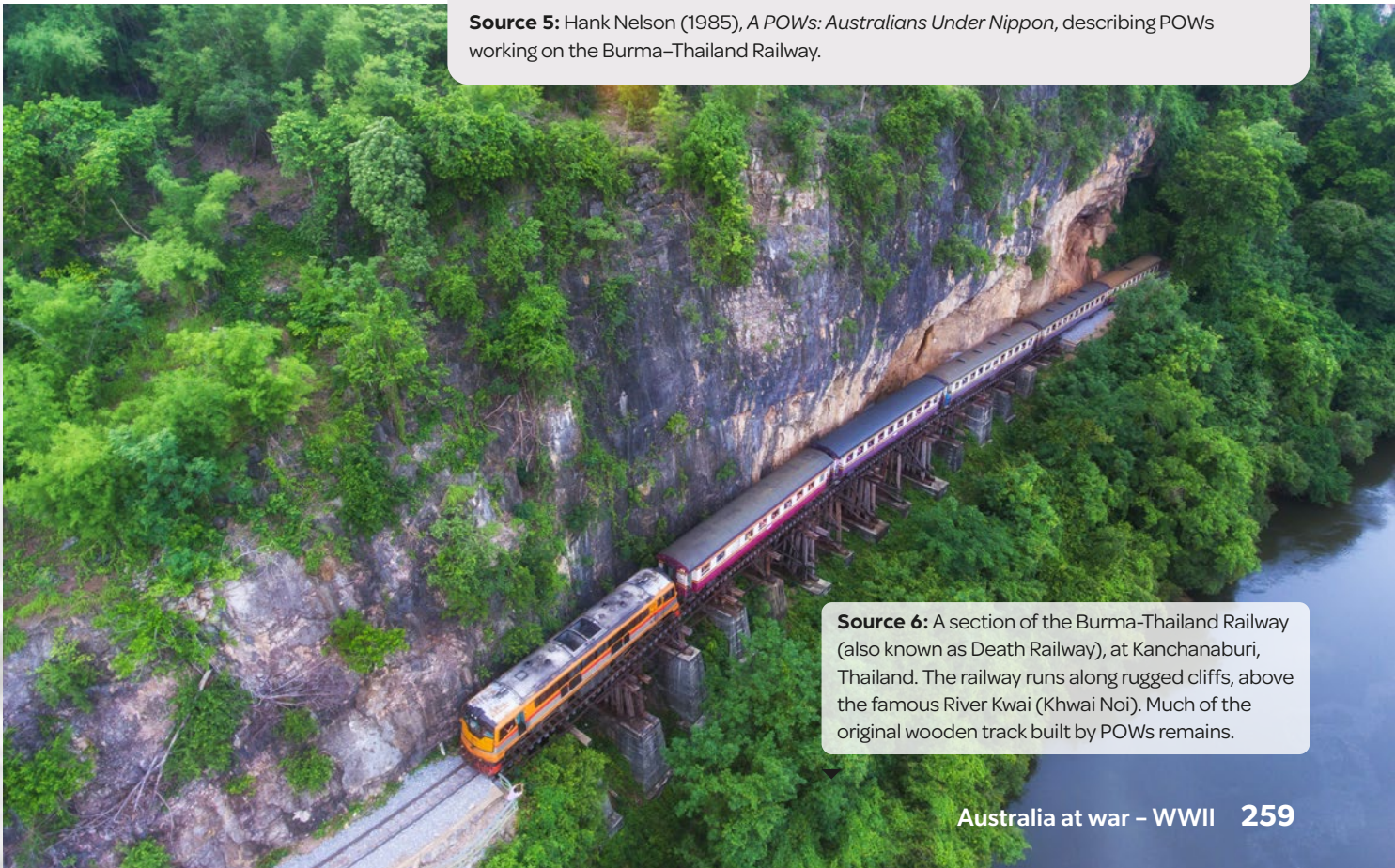
Japanese military discipline was sadistic, because they administered instant or Japanese punishment. This was carried out on their own troops, but when it was administered to prisoners it was particularly vicious and brutal.

Source 3: Tom Uren in *Straight Left*

Source 4: Prisoners of war carrying railway sleepers in Burma in 1943. The Japanese Army forced about 60 000 Allied POWs, including 13 000 Australians, and 200 000 civilians to build a railway linking Thailand and Burma. Around 2800 Australians died building the railway.

Prisoners no longer hoped for a 'smoko' and the man who asked to go to the benjo (toilet) might be bashed. 'It was nothing', Clarke remembers, 'to be hit on the head with a drill; whatever the guard had handy you got thumped with. Reg Newton calculated sixty-eight men were battered to death in the cutting of Hellfire Pass [part of the construction of the Burma–Thailand Railway].

Source 5: Hank Nelson (1985), *A POWs: Australians Under Nippon*, describing POWs working on the Burma–Thailand Railway.



Source 6: A section of the Burma-Thailand Railway (also known as Death Railway), at Kanchanaburi, Thailand. The railway runs along rugged cliffs, above the famous River Kwai (Khwai Noi). Much of the original wooden track built by POWs remains.

Source 7: Sister Jean (Jenny) *Greer of Petersham*, NSW (left), and Sister Betty Jeffrey of East Malvern, Victoria, recovering from malnutrition in the Dutch hospital. They had been held for three and a half years as prisoners of war of the Japanese. [Australia War Memorial, 305369]

Australian POW nurses

Australian Army nurses stationed in Singapore were evacuated when the Japanese advance was about to capture the city in February 1942. Of the 65 who were onboard the *Vyner Brooke*, 12 died when the ship was sunk off Sumatra and 21 died in the Banka Island massacre. The other 32 nurses became POWs, including Betty Jeffrey (Sources 7 and 8). Poor treatment, tropical disease and the effects of malnutrition led to the death of eight of them during captivity.

Internment in Australia

Fears about people living in Australia from German, Italian and Japanese backgrounds becoming spies or **saboteurs** led to the internment (a form of imprisonment) of about 12 000 'enemy aliens'. At its height, the Australian **internment** camp system housed 12 000 men, women and children. However, over the course of the war, 7000 Australian residents, including 1500 British nationals, and 8000 people from overseas passed through the camps. It is estimated that around 20 per cent of all Italians living in Australia were interned.

> Sisters now have malaria quite badly, we are all so tired, we are hoping and praying for our freedom. If it doesn't happen soon we shall be messes for the rest of our lives. You can't treat tropical fevers, ulcers etc., on this diet and lack of water; it just won't work.

Source 8: Lieutenant Betty Jeffrey, Australian Nurse and POW

What was life like in camps?

Some camps were set up in old jails, while others were specially built. Conditions varied, but camps were run like military bases, and internees often experienced boredom, anxiety or depression. Prisoners of war sometimes lived alongside civilian internees, although their legal statuses were different. In New South Wales, internees were kept in repurposed facilities, including Long Bay Goal and Liverpool military base. Later, as the number of internees rose, the government built new camps at Hay and Cowra.

Ending internment

As the war ended, most internees were released. British and European internees were allowed to stay, but most Japanese nationals – including some born in Australia – were sent back to Japan in 1946.

Source 9: Indonesian children and their teachers at the Cowra Prisoners of War and Internment Camp, 16 September 1943. [Australian War Memorial, 030151/01]

Once we were on the train everyone was friendly, especially the guards, who fascinated us with their slouch hats and their rolled cigarettes. Our guard, George, got tired of standing beside the door with his rifle and came to sit beside us to have what he called a 'yarn'. George thought it was 'bloody rotten' to trick people like that, when he learned about the assurances that had been given to some of the older internees who had separated from their families that they would accompany in the same convey. 'Just hold my rifle for a sec while I roll myself a smoke'. We were quite flabbergasted.

It was totally unexpected and marvellously refreshing. George was the first person to appear genuinely interested in what had happened to us, and naturally he was overwhelmed with our complaints. All he could do was shake his head and say: 'Well I never, the rotten bastards'.

Source 10: Eric Eckstein, a 'Dunera Boy', oral history, National Library of Australia. The ship *Dunera* sailed to Australia from Britain in 1940. It had on board 2542 'enemy aliens' – 2036 of them were German and Austrian Jewish refugees with no connections to German fascism. Many people believed their internment was unjust. The voyage had also been a nightmare. The ship was a passenger liner that normally carried 367 people. There were also 300 crew on board.

Learning ladder 11.17

Significant people, ideas and events

1. How many Australians became 'prisoners of Nippon'?
2. Sources 1–5: Describe the treatment of POWs forced to work on the Burma–Thailand Railway.
3. Describe the fate of Australian nurses who travelled on the *Vyner Brooke*.
4. Explain what led to the establishment of internment camps in Australia.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Describe what is shown in this source. How is it useful for understanding the treatment of Australian POWs by the Japanese?
2. Source 3: What further details about the origin of this source are needed to assess its accuracy and usefulness?
3. Sources 7 and 8: Explain the historical context of these sources.
4. Source 10: Evaluate the usefulness of this source for information about those interned in Australia during the war.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

What was life like on the home front?

Everyday life changed greatly during WWII through rationing of fuel, food and clothing and increased government control over citizens and businesses. With 1 million Australian men and women directly involved in the war effort, most families were disrupted.

Wartime government controls

During World War II, a time when Australia was under direct threat, the federal government gained greater powers to control life on the home front. Before the war, the government had little control over private business activity. In 1939, the *National Security Act*, giving the government special powers for the duration of the war, including the ability to detain people perceived as a threat to national security, censor newspapers and radio, and ban groups opposed to the war effort. Such powers were unprecedented in Australia.

On 11 November 1939, Prime Minister Menzies created an Economic Cabinet that had 'the duty of carrying out the business side of the war'. In August 1940, the federal government introduced petrol **rationing**, restricted private motorists to 3200 kilometres of travel per year and required businesses to prove their need for fuel. Rationing was extended during 1942 to include tea, sugar, butter, meat and clothing.

Around this time the *National Security Act* was amended to give the federal government the power to require all citizens to contribute their labour and property to assist the defence of Australia. Other government controls included:

- reducing the Christmas and New Year holiday period to three days
- restricting weekday sporting events
- requiring adults to have a personal identity card
- fixing the profit margins of industries
- interning people from German, Italian and Japanese backgrounds.

Source 2: Commonwealth Rationing Commission, 1950, Departmental History of Rationing of Clothing and Food, 1942–1950, pp. 7–9. During rationing, people could only legally buy certain products using coupons from their ration books.

Item	Rationing period	Allocation, per adult
Clothing	June 1942 – June 1948	112 coupons per year
Tea	July 1942 – July 1950	1/2 lb (0.23 g) per 5 weeks
Sugar	August 1942 – July 1947	2 lb (900 g) per fortnight
Butter	June 1943 – June 1950	1 lb (450 g) per fortnight
Meat	January 1944 – June 1948	2 1/4 lbs (1 kg) per week

Source 1: Women buying items using coupons in a store in Drouin, Victoria, in 1944 [National Library of Australia]

Austerity

To support the war effort, the government required a great deal of resources such as fuel, food, textiles and metals. This demand could only be met if citizens on the home front consumed less of these. An **austerity** drive was therefore promoted in which the government encouraged people to reduce their resource consumption by:

- recycling their clothes and other goods rather than buying new ones
- avoiding cooking with ingredients that were in short supply
- not wasting fuel
- growing their own food in 'victory gardens'.

Prime Minister Curtin called for a 'maximum effort'. He wanted 'the Australian people to strip every selfish comfortable habit, every luxurious impulse, every act, word and deed that retards the victory march.' The austerity campaign also urged Australians to work longer hours and put any spare money into war savings certificates.

> It is imperative for the safety of Australia that we observe the obligations imposed by the Austerity Campaign ... We have to turn every energy and every resource of the nation to the purposes of war. We can do this only if we live the simple lives of people who realise, clearly realise, they are fighting for their existence ... Each of us must freely and voluntarily abandon all those distractions, luxuries and purchases that unnecessarily employ manpower, materials, machinery, plant and capital that could be utilised in the war effort.
>
> **Source 3:** Austerity speech by Prime Minister Curtin, 3 October 1942

Source 4: Poster encouraging austerity, 1944 [Australian War Memorial, C99300]

Americans

Following Australia's turn to America, from 1942 thousands of American troops began arriving in Australia. By 1943, there were 150 000 'yanks' stationed in Australia, mainly in Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane. The Americans were seen as glamorous, modern and wealthy – and keen to spend their money on a good time. This caused feelings of jealousy among some Australian soldiers, which occasionally led to fights.

The influx of Americans also brought with it American culture. Hot dog stands started to appear to cater to American servicemen, and milk bars started to serve Coca-Cola and hamburgers. American imports to Australia rose dramatically.

Australian responses to the Americans fluctuated according to military events and specific, localised conditions on the home front. The AIF envied the GIs' superior uniforms, food and accommodation, higher pay scales, and access to luxury goods like alcohol and cigarettes. They felt aggrieved at exaggerated accounts of Americans seducing Australian women with orchards and silk stockings, a factor graphically portrayed in Japanese propaganda distributed in Papua New Guinea.

Source 5: Kate Darien-Smith (1996), 'War and Australian Society', in Joan Beaumont (ed), *Australian War 1939–1945*, Allen & Unwin, St Leonards, pp. 72–73.

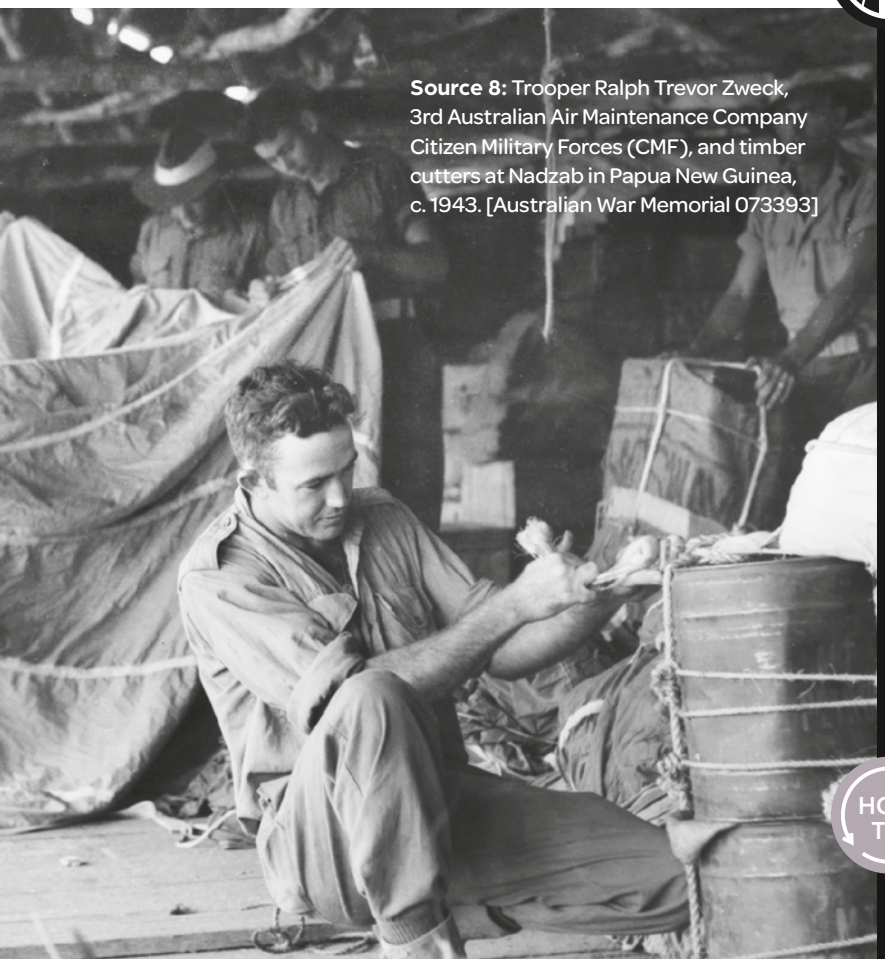
My grandfather owned a poultry farm in Perth Western Australia. During the war, all of his egg product had to go to the local Egg Board for making into powdered egg for the military. No sale of fresh eggs was allowed. Then one day some American Servicemen arrived in a Jeep wanting to buy fresh eggs and poultry. They had petrol, tyres, cigarettes, chocolates and lollies, all in very short or rationed supply to civilians. A deal was done. This very happy relationship lasted until the end of the war. My grandfather always fondly recalled the generosity of the Americans and particularly the cigars they handed out.

Source 6: John Blakey, *Quora*, January 2023

Conscription

Until 1943, the Australian Government had the power to conscript men into the CMF for home service, but not for fighting overseas. 'Home' included New Guinea, as this was a protectorate of Australia. However, from 1943, the *Defence (Citizen Military Forces) Act* was approved, which allowed conscripted men to be sent to the South West Pacific Area (New Guinea, East Java, southern Borneo and other islands up to the Equator). Unlike the debate around conscription during World War I, there was less opposition on the home front to using conscription in this limited way.

Source 7: Australian women and US Navy sailors in Brisbane in 1942. Brisbane's population of 325 000 was swollen by 90 000 American troops, along with large numbers of Australian troops. Jealousy grew among Australian men as American servicemen spent money and time with Australian women. Resentment grew into skirmishes, the largest being the Battle of Brisbane , which involved hundreds of servicemen. News reports of the event were suppressed.



Source 8: Trooper Ralph Trevor Zweck, 3rd Australian Air Maintenance Company Citizen Military Forces (CMF), and timber cutters at Nadzab in Papua New Guinea, c. 1943. [Australian War Memorial 073393]

Learning ladder 11.18

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Describe the powers of the federal government under the *National Security Act*.
2. Describe rationing during wartime.
3. Explain the austerity campaign and why it was implemented.
4. Sources 5, 6 and 7: Explain the impact of American troops staying in Australia.

Perspectives

1. Describe Prime Minister Curtin's perspective on austerity.
2. Sources 5 and 7: Explain why Australian soldiers and civilians envied the American GIs.
3. Compare the perspective of American soldiers in Source 6 with that in Source 5.
4. Evaluate attitudes to conscription during World War II. Why were these different from those in World War I?

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

How did WWII affect First Nations people?

For First Nations people, serving in World War II was often their first experience of being treated as equal to others performing the same role. However, these advances were typically not sustained after the war ended.

First Nations service

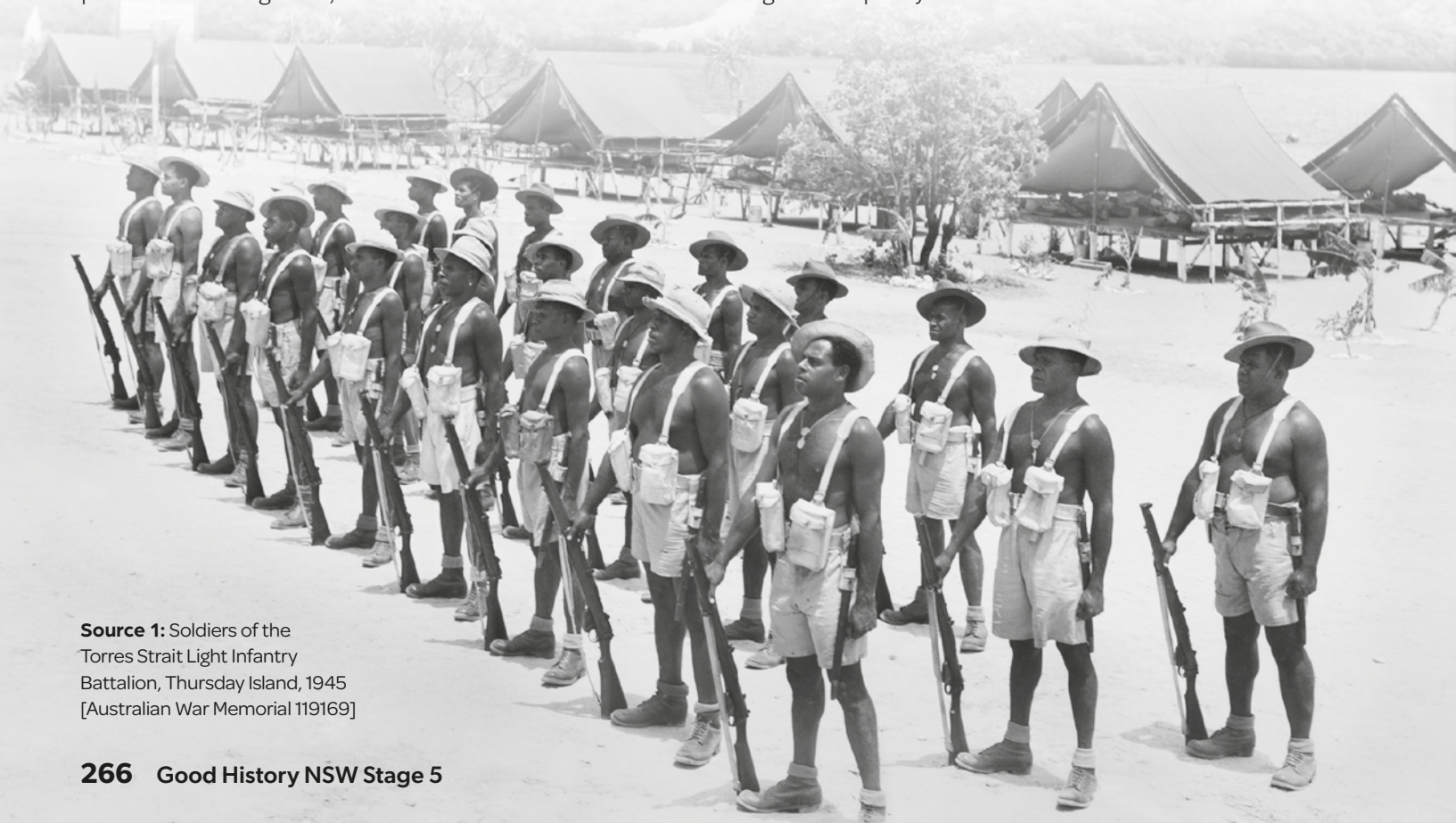
One in every 20 First Nations Australians contributed to the war effort during World War II. They served in all branches of the military – across the Pacific, North Africa, Europe and the Middle East – or as civilian workers. In 1942, a Tiwi man named Matthias Ullungura famously captured the first Japanese prisoner of war, whose plane had crashed on Melville Island. The Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion (Source 1) was also formed in 1941, with over 700 Torres Strait Islanders serving to protect this critical region.

Unequal pay and conditions

Despite their service, First Nations troops generally received less than half the wages of non-Indigenous soldiers, and they had limited opportunities for promotion. During 1943, members of the Torres Strait Battalion went on strike for fairer pay, which led to an increase to two-thirds of the non-Indigenous rate. Many First Nations communities also raised money for the war effort, crafted supplies and shared their extensive local knowledge – especially in northern Australia.

Lack of recognition after the war

When the war ended, First Nations veterans were often denied the land grants, pensions and other benefits that non-Indigenous servicemen received. Their contributions went largely unacknowledged, and some were refused entry to Returned and Services League (RSL) clubs. Incidents like George Rose's exclusion from the Walgett RSL in 1965 fuelled protests against racial discrimination. Activists such as Joe McGinness, Doug Nicholls and Lambert McBride were themselves veterans who fought for greater equality.



Source 1: Soldiers of the Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion, Thursday Island, 1945 [Australian War Memorial 119169]

Source 2: First Nations servicemen from the 2/23rd Battalion. Identified are: Private (Pte) Lawrie Francis Moffatt (back row, left), Pte Cornelius William (Con) Edwards (middle row, far right) and his son Pte Ronald William James (Ron) Edwards (possibly middle row, third from left). Also known to be in the photograph are Pte James Henry Scott and his son Pte Cyril Scott.

Source 3: Reg Saunders

Reg Saunders

Reginald 'Reg' Saunders, a Gunditjmara man, entered the army in 1940, despite restrictions against First Nations enlistment, and fought in the North African and Greek campaigns. After surviving the German invasion of Greece in 1941, he evaded capture for nearly a year with the help of Greek resistance fighters before escaping to Egypt.

He later participated in the New Guinea campaign, where he was promoted to lieutenant in 1944 – becoming the first known Aboriginal Australian to be commissioned as an officer in the Australian Army. Saunders led troops in key battles against the Japanese, including at Wau and in the Aitape–Wewak campaign.

After the war, he found the equality and recognition he had experienced during his service had disappeared, and he struggled to find work suitable for a person of his abilities. He ended up re-enlisting in the army, serving in the Korean War (1950–1951) as a Captain. In the 1960s and 1970s, he worked for the Department of Aboriginal Affairs, where he focused on improving education, employment and living conditions for First Nations Australians.

Learning ladder 11.19

Impact and legacies

1. Describe the involvement of First Nations Peoples in World War II.
2. Describe the unequal conditions faced by First Nations service personnel in World War II.
3. Explain how the legacy of First Nations service was not recognised in the postwar era.
4. Explain the legacy of Reg Saunders.

Continuity and change

1. Describe how World War II brought change to First Nations communities in the Torres Strait.
2. Describe how inequalities continued for First Nations members of the Australian forces.
3. Explain patterns of continuity and change for First Nations Peoples after the war.
4. Evaluate Reg Saunders' experience. Does it show continuity or change in attitudes to First Nations Peoples during and after the war?

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

How did the role of women change during WWII?

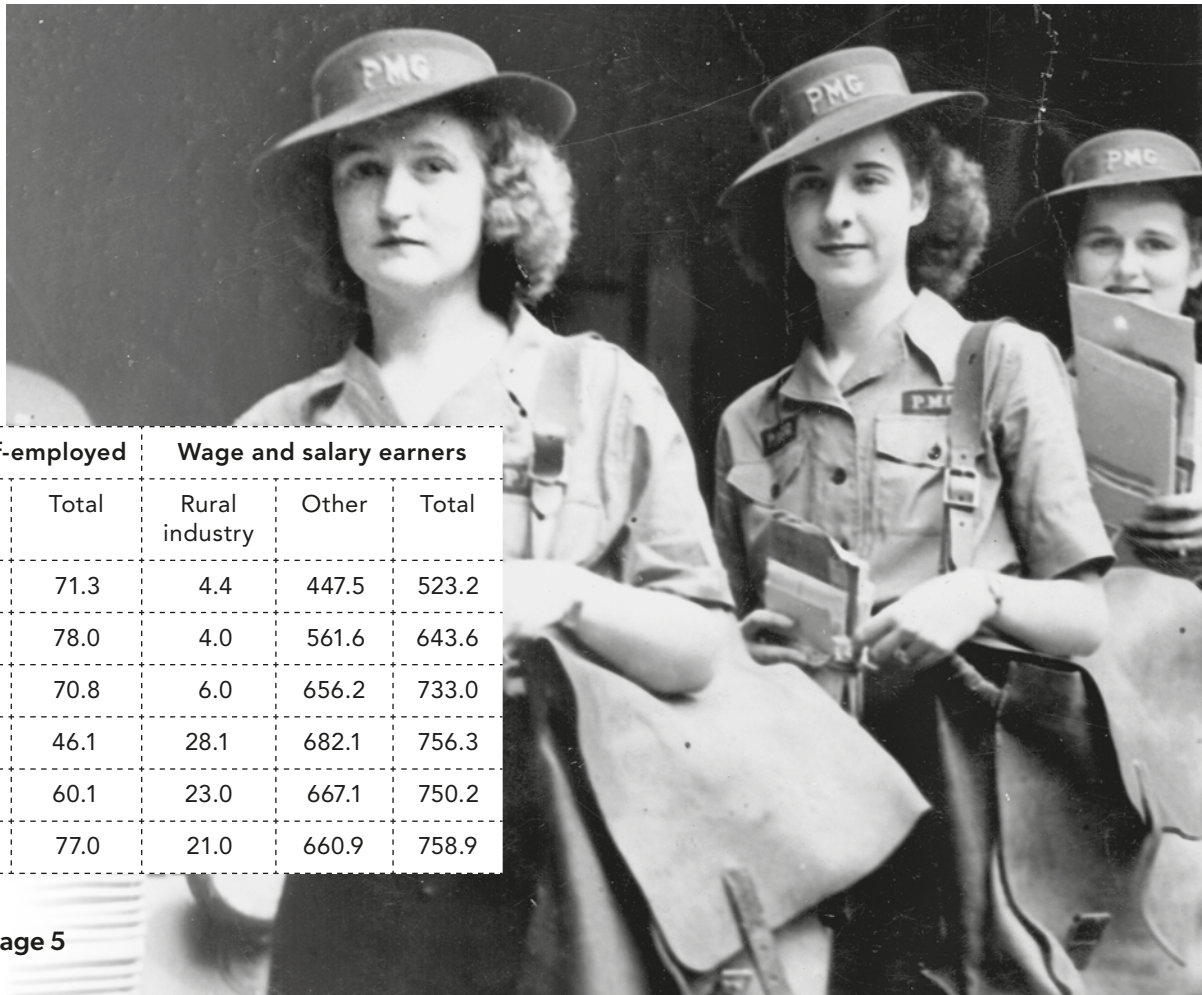
At the outbreak of WWII, the social expectation was that women should marry and act as homemakers for their 'breadwinner' husbands. Working women were restricted to a limited number of occupations, and they were paid significantly less than men. During WWII, women were needed in the workforce, and they took up jobs in areas previously seen as 'men's work'. These opportunities, however, largely ended with the war.

Women's changing work

During World War II, as men enlisted in the armed services, a shortage of labour on the home front meant that many women became employed in industry, agriculture and other jobs that had previously been available only to men. When Japan entered the war in December 1941, there were 554 000 Australian males and 74 000 females (out of a population of 6 700 700) directly involved in war work. By March 1943, these figures had increased to 1 172 000 men and 184 000 women.

Women began working in numerous non-traditional occupations, including as truck drivers, motor mechanics, radar mechanics, technicians, welders and signallers, for which they had to do the same training as men. Work also became available in public transport, mail delivery and the police force, but with women's roles limited to being drivers and clerks. The number of women involved in farm work also rose (Source 2). It is estimated that almost one-third of women of working age participated in paid work during World War II.

Source 1: Postwomen with their mail bags and bundles of mail in Brisbane, 1943. Before, and after, the war, this was considered 'men's work'.



Source 2: Female employment in Australia (in thousands)

Year	Employers and self-employed			Wage and salary earners		
	Rural industry	Other	Total	Rural industry	Other	Total
1933	15.1	56.2	71.3	4.4	447.5	523.2
1939	16.0	62.0	78.0	4.0	561.6	643.6
1941	14.0	56.8	70.8	6.0	656.2	733.0
1943	11.7	34.4	46.1	28.1	682.1	756.3
1945	17.0	43.1	60.1	23.0	667.1	750.2
1946	16.0	61.0	77.0	21.0	660.9	758.9

Recruiting women

World War II also saw the Australian Army, Navy and Airforce begin enlisting women for the first time in non-combat roles. More than 65 000 women enlisted in the three services between 1941 and 1945, with others joining the Australian Women's Land Army (AWLA) and voluntary organisations such as the Australian Comforts Fund (ACF), Country Women's Association (CWA) and Red Cross.

Government propaganda and patriotic women's magazines began to show positive images of 'working woman'. Women were encouraged to enlist in services such as the Australian Army Nursing Service (AANS), Australian Army Medical Women's Service (AAMWS), Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS), Volunteer Aid Detachment (VAD), Women's Australian Auxiliary Air Force (WAAAF) and Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS). These services were popular, with almost 25 000 women joining the AWAS. In 1945, 385 members of the AWAS were sent to New Guinea, becoming the first women to serve overseas in non-medical roles (Source 4).

Source 3: Australian World War II recruitment poster urging women to join the Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) to free up more men for frontline service. [Australian War Memorial, ARTV01949]

Increasing representation

Despite doing 'men's work', usually women were paid around half that of a man doing the same job. Women like Muriel Heagney, trade unionist and feminist, campaigned for wage equality but found it difficult to convince employers that women should be paid more. In 1943, lobbying by women's worker organisations led the Australian Government to establish the Women's Employment Board and secured women 75 per cent of the male wage for performing the same work in some industries.

In politics, Dame Enid Lyons became the first Australian woman elected to the House of Representatives in 1943. In the same year Dame Dorothy Tangney became the first Australian woman elected to the Senate and the first woman from the Australian Labor Party to be elected to the federal parliament.

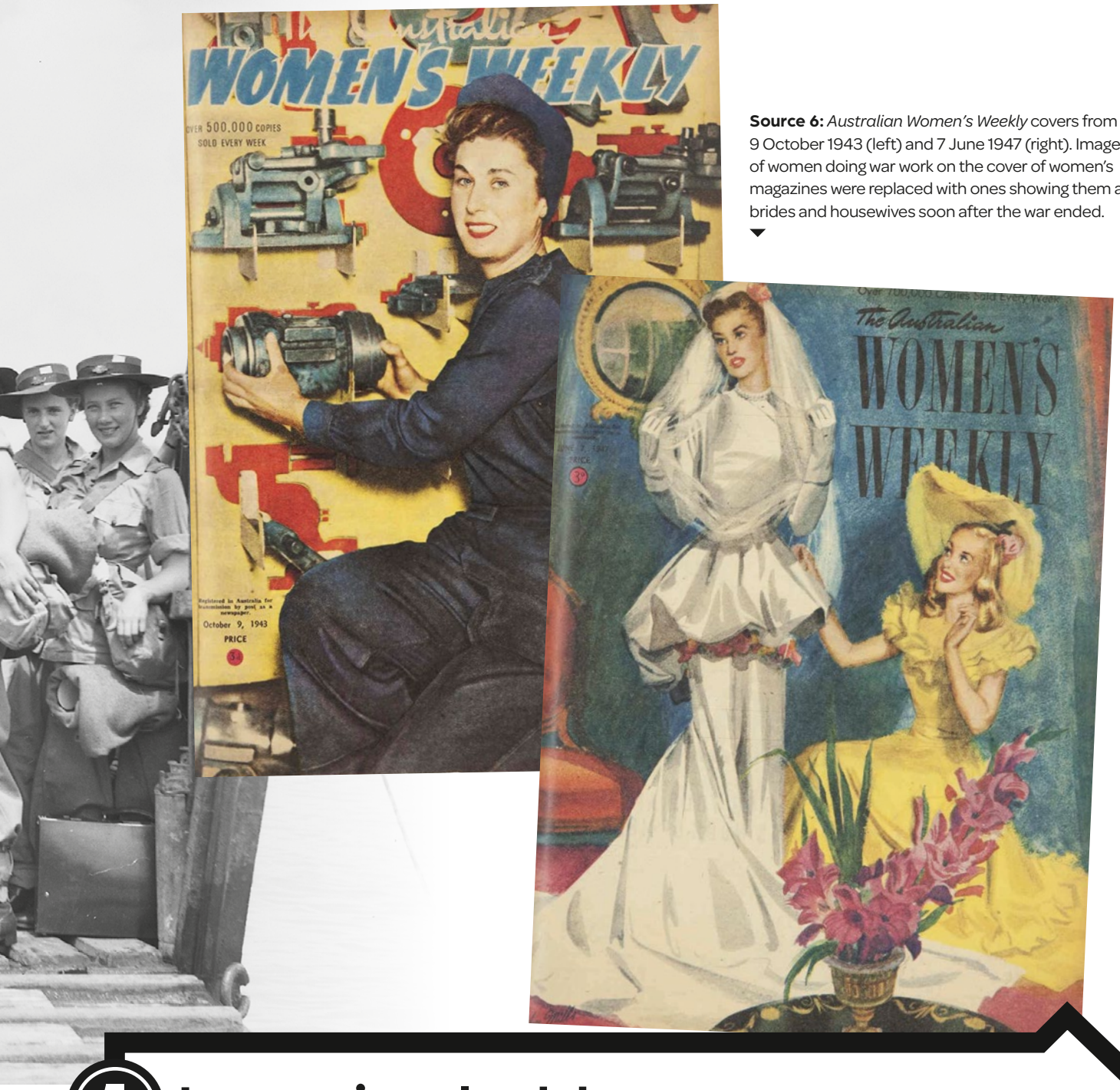
Source 4: AWAS personnel arriving in New Guinea in July 1945. They would go on to perform administrative, logistics and communications work, providing essential support for troops in New Guinea. [Australian War Memorial 091461]

Lasting change?

In most cases it was expected that after the war women would give up their wartime jobs to men. In fact, many of the jobs for women, particularly in the armed services, disappeared at the end of the war. As life returned to normal, many women returning to their traditional role of wife, mother and housewife, although there were those who missed the independence the war work had provided.

When the war was over, I went back to being a clerk in the Bourke Street store of Coles. I didn't mind because it was made perfectly clear to us when we were made managers [a position traditionally for men] that it was for the duration of the war only.

Source 5: Beattie Crawford, quoted in *When The War Came To Australia*, 1992



Source 6: *Australian Women's Weekly* covers from 9 October 1943 (left) and 7 June 1947 (right). Images of women doing war work on the cover of women's magazines were replaced with ones showing them as brides and housewives soon after the war ended.

Learning ladder 11.20

Impact and legacies

1. Identify three examples of the impact of World War II on women in the workforce.
2. Describe how recruiting campaigns affected work opportunities for women.
3. Describe the legacy of women's worker organisations.
4. Explain why the legacy of women's wartime work did not lead to ongoing employment and equal wages.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify this source. Why do you think it was created?
2. Source 3: Describe this source and its purpose.
3. Source 5: Explain how Beattie Crawford's experience was similar to that of other women at the end of World War II.
4. Source 6: Evaluate this source for accuracy, usefulness and reliability when drawing conclusions about short- and long-term changes in women's lives..

What was the Battle of the Coral Sea and how did it impact Australia?

The Battle of the Coral Sea, fought between 4 and 8 May 1942, involved American and Australian aircraft carriers, battleships and aeroplanes fighting the advancing Japanese fleet. It was the first air–sea battle in history. Although the Allies suffered heavy losses, the battle halted the Japanese invasion of Port Moresby and was believed at the time to have saved Australia.

Background to the battle?

The Battle of the Coral Sea took place between the north-east coast of Australia and the eastern side of New Guinea (Source 2). From December 1941 onwards, Japanese forces had advanced rapidly through the Pacific region, including the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia) and parts of New Guinea.

Japan aimed to take control of parts of the Solomon Islands and New Guinea, including Port Moresby. From there, they could launch attacks on Australia and disrupt Allied supply lines. The Japanese were not aware of any American naval ships in the area. However, American code-breakers had uncovered the plan, and the US Navy began moving ships into the Coral Sea.

The main battle

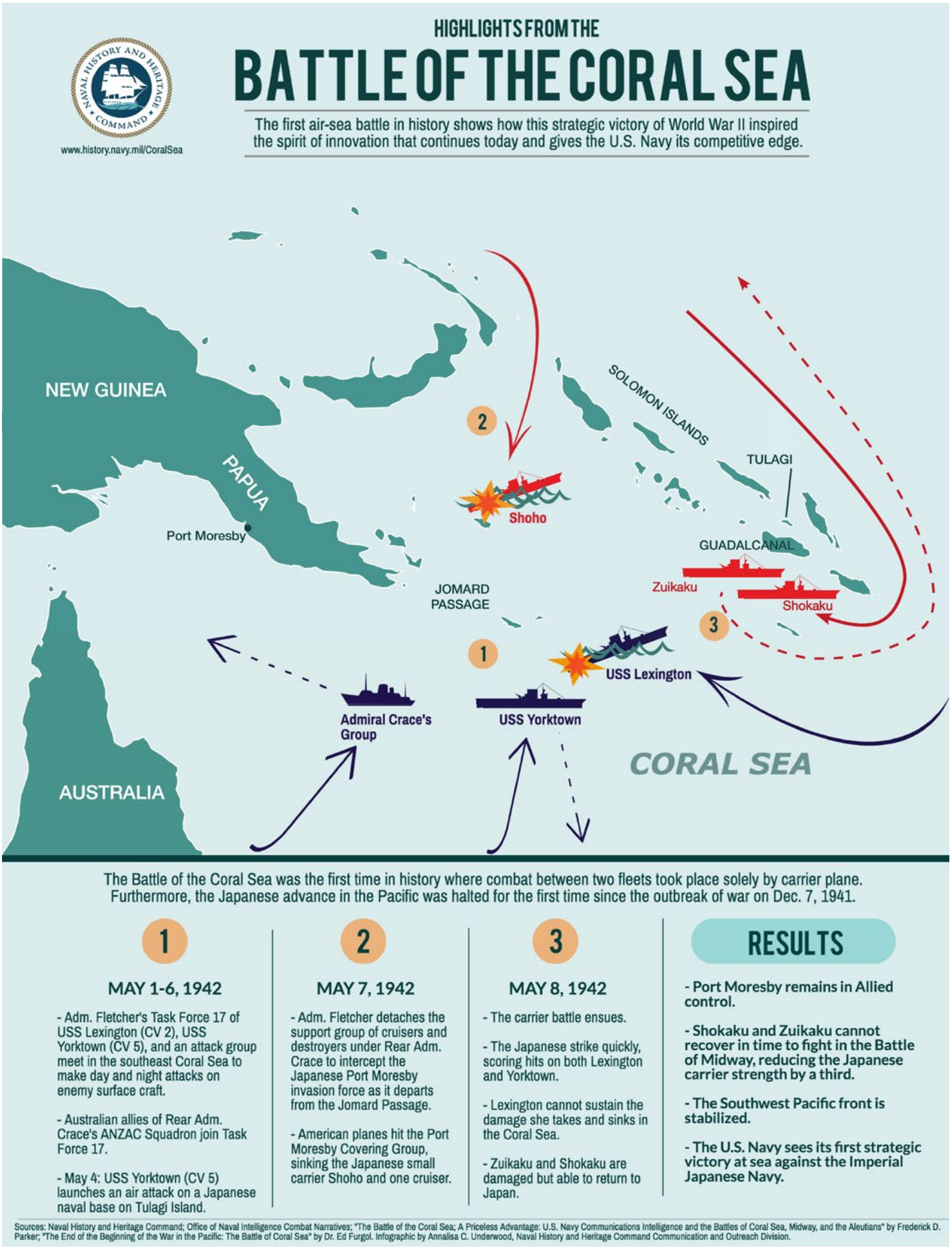
On the morning of 4 May 1942, American dive-bomber aircraft took off from the USS *Yorktown* and launched their first attack, sinking the Japanese destroyer *Kikuzuki* and three other ships. This alerted the Japanese to the presence of a US warship, and they began searching for it.

For the next two days, both sides searched for each other without success. The Allied fleet, known as Task Force 44, included aircraft carriers, battleships, cruisers and destroyers. Their aim was to stop Japan's continued expansion and control of the Pacific Ocean north of Australia. Both sides planned to destroy enemy ships using aircraft to drop bombs or torpedoes.

On 7 May, planes from the Japanese carriers *Zuikaku* and *Shokaku* attacked the USS *Neosho* and USS *Sims*. On the same day, planes from the USS *Lexington* and USS *Yorktown* located the *Shoho* and destroyed it.

The battle ended on 8 May with intense fighting, as both sides used aircraft to attack each other's ships. The USS *Yorktown* was damaged and the USS *Lexington* was hit several times and had to be abandoned. The *Shokaku* was badly damaged, and many aircraft on the *Zuikaku* were destroyed. Both sides then withdrew, and the Battle of the Coral Sea was over.

Source 1: USS *Lexington* under attack, 8 May 1942. Photographed from a Japanese plane.



Source 2: Infographic on the Battle of the Coral Sea, from US Naval History and Heritage Command

Australia's involvement

Australia's involvement in the battle included the heavy cruiser HMAS *Australia*, the light cruiser HMAS *Hobart* and aircraft flown from northern Queensland by both Australian and American crews. The ships were under the command of Australian Rear Admiral J.G. Crace, who was also given command of the USS *Chicago*, USS *Perkins*, USS *Walke* and USS *Farragut*.

Crace's part of the Allied fleet was sent towards New Guinea to intercept Japanese ships heading for Port Moresby. Although the main Japanese invasion fleet had already turned back, the Australians were still under threat. Japanese torpedo planes and bombers launched from Rabaul attacked HMAS *Australia*, but skilful manoeuvring by Captain Harold Farncomb prevented any major damage.

Outcome and significance

The Battle of the Coral Sea was the first naval battle in which the opposing battleships did not fire directly at each other. All attacks were carried out by aircraft. It was also the largest naval battle fought closest to Australia's coastline.

At the time, both America and Australia claimed the battle as a victory. In the United States, newspapers ran headlines such as 'Japanese repulsed in great Pacific battle with 17 to 22 of their ships sunk or crippled'. This was a major morale boost after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941. In Australia, the battle was portrayed as 'the battle that saved Australia'.

Source 3: HMAS *Australia*

More recently, historians have argued that Japan did not intend to invade Australia, so the battle did not technically 'save' the nation. The commemoration of the battle as 'Coral Sea Week' has since been replaced by the broader 'Battle for Australia', which recognises all who defended Australia during World War II.

Regardless of how it is interpreted, the battle prevented Japan from establishing a base at Port Moresby, which could have been used to disrupt Allied supply lines. It also proved that the advancing Japanese forces could be stopped.

Learning ladder 11.21

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Name the Australian admiral who commanded part of the Allied fleet during the Battle of the Coral Sea.
2. Describe where the Battle of the Coral Sea took place.
3. Describe the events that occurred between 4 and 8 May 1942.
4. Explain the significance of the battle's outcome.

Perspectives

1. Describe the American perspective on the outcome of the Battle of the Coral Sea at the time.
2. Describe the Australian perspective on the outcome of the Battle of the Coral Sea at the time.
3. Explain how the original perspective of the 'battle that saved Australia' has changed over time.
4. Explain the reason for the 1942 perspective on the Battle of the Coral Sea. How was it created?

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

How did the Battle of Stalingrad change the war?

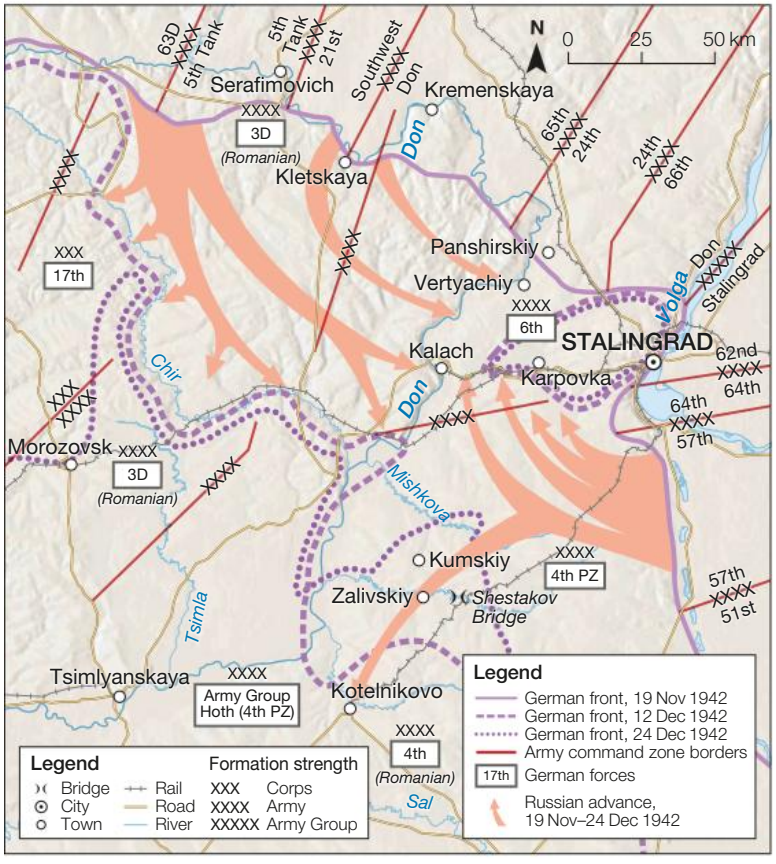
In August 1942, the Soviet Red Army fought for 199 days to save Stalingrad and inflict the first major defeat on Hitler. The Battle of Stalingrad was significant as it stopped German victory on the Eastern Front and turned the war in favour of the Allies.

What was the Battle of Stalingrad?

In July 1942, Hitler ordered his army to commence a major attack in southern Russia with the aim of defeating the Soviet Red Army and capturing the region's resources, including oilfields. Part of this 'Summer Offensive' was to capture the city of Stalingrad, which had armaments factories and was located on the Volga River – an important shipping route. Hitler also wanted to occupy Stalingrad for propaganda purposes, as it was named after the Soviet leader.

On 23 August, the German Sixth Army under General Friedrich von Paulus began attacking Stalingrad. Stalin demanded it be defended at all costs and ordered all Russians strong enough to hold a rifle to fight to save the city. Heavy bombing by the *Luftwaffe* left the city in ruins. By October, most of Stalingrad was in German hands, but the Red Army still held positions along the Volga River.

Fighting continued in the bombed-out buildings. While this was occurring the Soviet General Georgi Zhukov gathered fresh troops on both sides of the city. In November, he launched a counterattack to surround von Paulus's army. Zhukov's strategy worked, and over 300 000 German were trapped. With the Russian blockade limiting access to supplies and the harsh conditions caused by the winter, German forces trapped in Stalingrad slowly starved or died from exposure to the cold. In February 1943, exhausted and suffering high casualties, the remaining Germans surrendered and were taken prisoner. The Battle of Stalingrad was over.



▲ **Source 1:** Map showing details of the Battle of Stalingrad

How did the war change?

By the end of the Battle of Stalingrad, the Soviets had suffered over 1 129 000 casualties. It is estimated more than 1 200 000 people died during the battle, including approximately 40 000 civilians. The German Army lost around 500 000 men, and of the 91 000 taken prisoner only 5000 survived their captivity and returned to Germany. The *Luftwaffe* lost about 900 aircraft, while the Soviets lost almost three times that amount. Many thousands of guns and tanks were also destroyed on both sides.

Source 2: Realistic representations of the uniforms, planes, vehicles and weapons used in the Battle of Stalingrad can be seen in the tactical game 'Enlisted'. The game is set during World War II and revolves around major battles fought across all fronts of the war.

The German loss of the Battle of Stalingrad was the first failure of the war to be publicly recognised by Hitler and it had a significant impact on German morale. Hitler took personal control over some of the decision making for the battle and this showed that he was unable to make effective military decisions, causing a number of generals to privately lose faith in his leadership.

Hitler knew that if he did not capture Stalingrad, Germany's chances of success against the Soviets would fade. On the other side, the Soviets knew that if they lost Stalingrad, the Germans would have access to Russian oil fields, which were essential to continuing the war effort. Had this occurred, the Soviet Army may have been defeated, leaving Germany able to concentrate its efforts in western Europe.

The scale of the German loss meant that Germany was unlikely to recover to push the Red Army back. The Soviets were now ready to re-take territory held by the Germans and advance to Berlin. Many historians believe the Battle of Stalingrad was the turning point that marked the beginning of the Allied march to victory in Europe.

Learning ladder 11.22

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who were General Friedrich von Paulus and General Georgi Zhukov?
2. Describe the background to the Battle of Stalingrad.
3. Explain why the German Army was not successful at the Battle of Stalingrad.
4. Explain the cost to each side, in lives and equipment, by the end of the Battle of Stalingrad.

Significance

1. Why was the city of Stalingrad important to:
   - **a** the Soviet Union
   - **b** Germany?
2. Describe Zhukov's strategy and why it was significant.
3. Explain the significance to the USSR of winning the Battle of Stalingrad.
4. Evaluate the outcome of the Battle of Stalingrad as a turning point in the war.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

How did the war end?

With the Axis powers facing increasing resistance and the United States joining the European theatre, the focus shifted to how the Allies would storm 'Fortress Europe'. Meanwhile, after several key losses, the tide of war turned in the Asia–Pacific, and Japan found itself under increasing pressure.

The Normandy Landings

After the disastrous campaign against the USSR on the Eastern Front, the Nazis had to redeploy the forces that had been occupying France and deter an amphibious landing from across the English Channel. The Allies knew that the Germans were weakening and began to train for an amphibious assault on the Nazi positions in Normandy, northern France. In the lead-up to D-Day, the Allies waged a comprehensive deception campaign to keep the Nazis guessing about their plans. The Allies also conducted thorough reconnaissance of the target beaches.

On 6 June 1944, after an extensive aerial and artillery assault, the Allies landed large forces across five beaches they named Utah, Omaha, Gold, Juno and Sword. This was the largest seaborne invasion of the war and was met with fierce resistance. At the end of the first day, most of the Allied objectives were unmet, but enough progress had been made to begin the liberation of France. Meanwhile, the USSR continued to press its advantage, sweeping across Eastern Europe to eventually invade Germany from the east. In just under 12 months, victory in Europe would be declared for the Allies, with the Nazis surrendering on 7 May 1945.

The Pacific Theatre

Key losses in the Philippines and the Mariana Islands saw the US forces pushing closer and closer to Japan itself. Designated Japanese fighter pilots began to use ***kamikaze*** attacks, deliberately crashing their aircraft into enemy targets. Fierce fighting at Iwo Jima and Okinawa, in which tens of thousands of lives were lost on both sides, showed how determined the Japanese were to defend their homeland and how difficult an invasion of Japan would be. Meanwhile, firebombing campaigns targeted 67 Japanese cities from late 1944 in an effort to force a surrender, killing up to half a million civilians and causing widespread destruction.

After the fall of Nazi Germany, the Allied leaders met in the German city of Potsdam to plan their next steps. In July 1945, the leaders issued an **ultimatum** to Japan, known as the Potsdam Declaration: 'We call upon the government of Japan to proclaim now the unconditional surrender of all Japanese armed forces, and to provide proper and adequate assurances of their good faith in such action. The alternative for Japan is prompt and utter destruction'.

When Japan refused, US President Truman authorised the use of a newly developed and deadly weapon: the atomic bomb. The US government justified the use of atomic bombs by arguing it would force Japan to surrender and prevent the massive loss of life that a US-led invasion would cause.

The development of atomic weapons

In 1939, a program was launched in response to fears that Nazi Germany was beginning research into atomic bombs. Prominent physicists Albert Einstein and Leo Szilard wrote to US President Roosevelt, urging him to begin developing atomic weapons.

By 1942, the research program had expanded and been taken over by the military, which named it 'the Manhattan Project'. By 1944, more than 125 000 people were working on the project, culminating in the Trinity Test on 16 July 1945 in New Mexico. This was the largest man-made explosion in history.

The Hiroshima bombing

At 8.15 am on 6 August 1945, with no prior warning or signal, the United States dropped an atomic bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The city, which had largely escaped from earlier firebombing, was an assembly point for troops and had been used for military storage. The bomb, nicknamed 'Little Boy', was devastating. Almost 70 per cent of the city's buildings were destroyed and 30 per cent of its residents – around 80 000 people – were killed, with a further 70 000 injured.

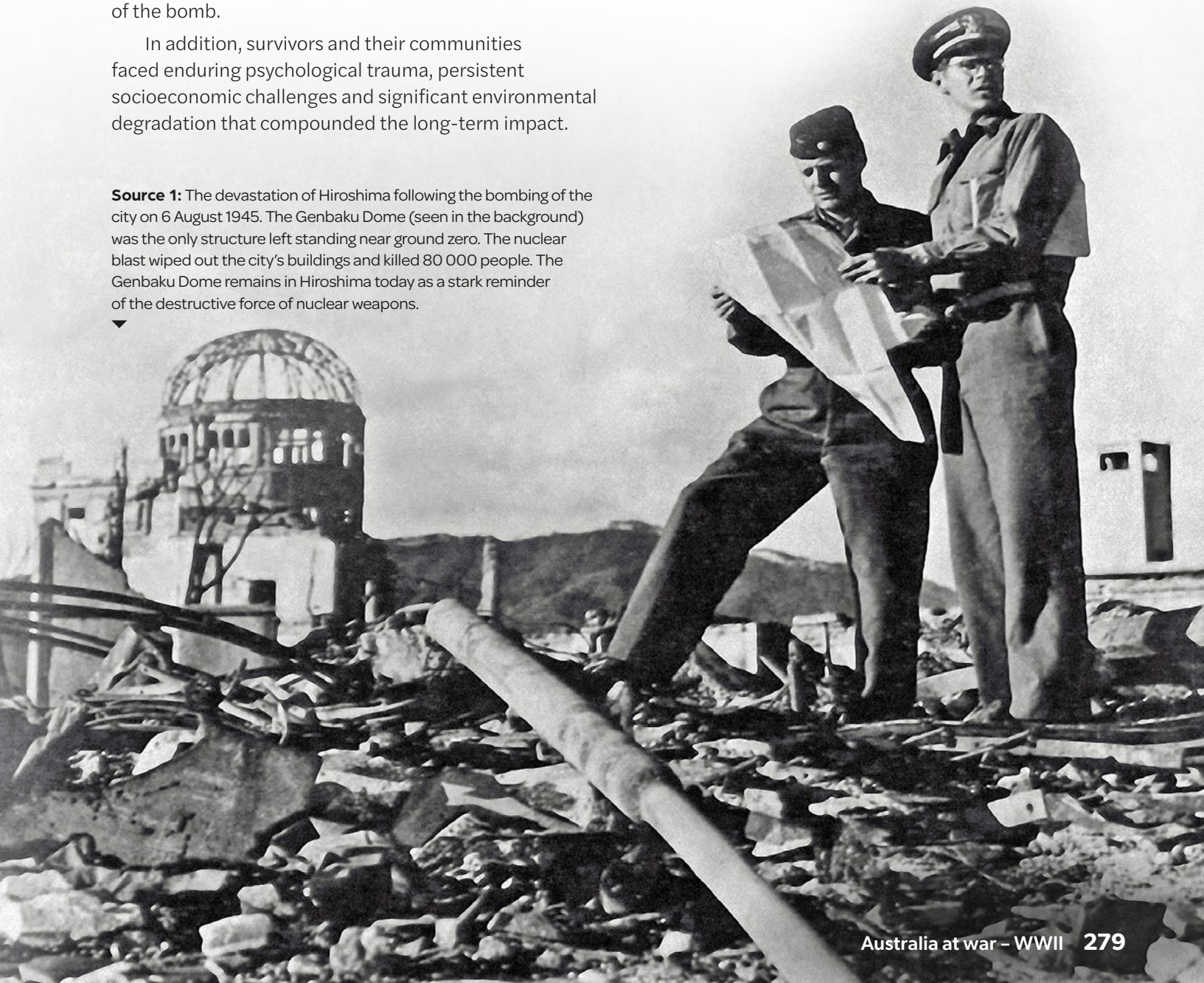
Survivors described seeing a bright flash of light, followed by darkness and a raging firestorm that spread quickly through the city's timber buildings. Those who survived the initial blast suffered burns, radiation sickness, cancers and other long-term illnesses. By 1950, up to 200 000 people had died as a result of the bomb.

In addition, survivors and their communities faced enduring psychological trauma, persistent socioeconomic challenges and significant environmental degradation that compounded the long-term impact.

Nagasaki

With the Soviets declaring war and invading Manchuria, pressure mounted on the Japanese government to accept the terms of the Potsdam Declaration, but there was no response. Three days later, on 9 August, the city of Nagasaki was also bombed. Despite its importance as an industrial and port city where ships and weapons were produced, its geography had made it a difficult target for the firebombing campaigns.

The bomb, nicknamed 'Fat Man', was larger and more powerful than the one dropped on Hiroshima. However, it fell 3 kilometres northwest of its intended target, reducing the blast radius. Even so, almost 75 000 people were killed, with a further 75 000 injured. Just as in Hiroshima, survivors suffered greatly from the side effects of the bombing.



Source 1: The devastation of Hiroshima following the bombing of the city on 6 August 1945. The Genbaku Dome (seen in the background) was the only structure left standing near ground zero. The nuclear blast wiped out the city's buildings and killed 80 000 people. The Genbaku Dome remains in Hiroshima today as a stark reminder of the destructive force of nuclear weapons.

Surrender

On 14 August, the Japanese government accepted the terms of the Potsdam Declaration, on the condition that the Emperor retain full sovereignty. That same evening, members of the military, angered by what they saw as a betrayal, tried to take control of the government, but were unsuccessful.

The next day, Emperor Hirohito announced the surrender. With the signing of the surrender on 2 September, the war was over. A seven-year period of US occupation then began, as the Americans oversaw disarmament; the restoration of industry, the economy and civilian life; and the establishment of democracy.

The Tokyo Trials

The question of justice also lingered following the end of the war – what was to be done about those responsible for Japan's actions during the war? As part of the terms of surrender, a number of key leaders were granted immunity from prosecution, including the royal family. The United States believed the Emperor and his family would help stabilise Japan and support the nation's postwar transformation.

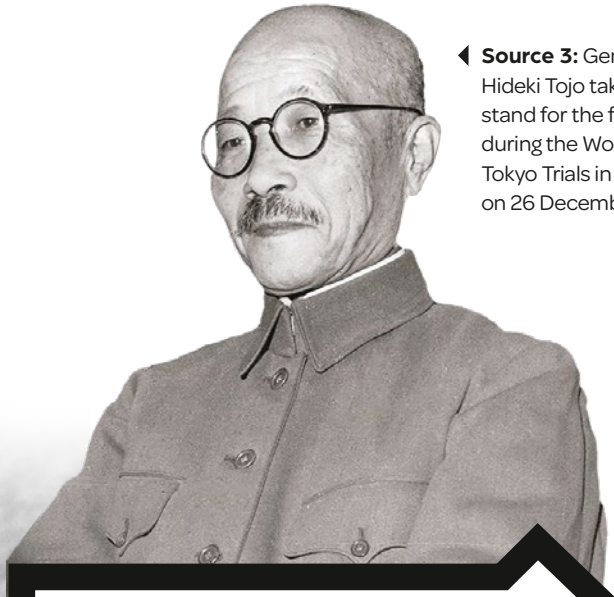
In January 1946, the International Military Tribunal for the Far East, better known as the **Tokyo Trials**, was convened to prosecute war criminals. In Europe, similar trials were held in Nuremberg, where many prominent members of the political and military leadership of Nazi Germany were called to account for their war crimes.

The military tribunal identified 39 suspects, most famously General Hideki Tojo and much of his war cabinet. Tojo tried to take his own life when arrested, but was resuscitated by US doctors. Over the next two and a half years, hundreds of witnesses gave testimony and thousands of pieces of evidence were examined as the tribunal sought to determine the culpability and role of the accused men. At its end, seven men, including Tojo, were executed for waging war in violation of international law and of ordering inhumane treatment of prisoners of war and others. A further 16 men received life sentences, while others were given lighter sentences.

Source 2: Charred bodies after the bombing at Nagasaki

Despite the fact that the war had officially ended, some Japanese soldiers in remote locations across South-East Asia and the Pacific continued to fight, refusing to believe that their nation had surrendered. Known as 'holdouts', some of these men lived in remote areas of the Philippines, Borneo, Indonesia and New Guinea, rejecting Allied attempts to repatriate them as trickery.

Some holdouts remained 'at war' for decades. Hiroo Onoda only surrendered in the Philippines in 1974 after his former commanding officer was brought in to order him to stand down. Other notable holdouts included Shoichi Yokoi, who emerged from hiding in Guam in 1972, and Teruo Nakamura, who surrendered in Indonesia in 1974. Their loyalty and determination became legendary, long after the war had ended.



Source 3: General Hideki Tojo taking the stand for the first time during the World War II Tokyo Trials in Japan on 26 December 1947.

Learning ladder 11.23

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Describe the Normandy landings.
2. Describe the Manhattan Project and what it produced.
3. Explain the significance of dropping atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.
4. Evaluate the role of the Potsdam Declaration in ending World War II.
5. Why did some Japanese soldiers refuse to surrender after 1945, and what does this reveal about the values promoted during the war?

Continuity and change

1. Describe how the Normandy landings changed the course of the war in Europe.
2. Describe how atomic bombs changed the way wars were fought.
3. Explain why the United States preferred the continuity of the Japanese royal family after the war.
4. What changes occurred in Japan after the surrender, during the US occupation?
5. What long-term impacts did the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki have on civilian populations and environmental policy?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

How did the political order change in the years after World War II?

At the end of World War II, the cruelty of the Nazi regime and the failure of the League of Nations to prevent the conflict caused world leaders to rethink how international politics was conducted. The distribution of power was also changing, with the emergence of two new superpowers, the United States and the USSR. Finally, after the use of nuclear weapons, the world entered a dangerous period of Cold War, nuclear proliferation and the frightening possibility of mutually assured destruction.

Source 1: Churchill, Roosevelt and Stalin at the Yalta Conference

Geopolitical reorganisation

With the defeat of Nazi Germany in May and Japan in August of 1945, world governments turned to rebuilding as well as coming to terms with the trauma of the war. For some, this meant focusing on reconstruction. While for others, this became a quest for justice, focusing on capturing and prosecuting war criminals.

When the Allied victory was only months away, Joseph Stalin, Winston Churchill and Franklin D. Roosevelt, the leaders of the three Allied superpowers, gathered at Yalta in the USSR to begin planning the structure of the world after the war. They negotiated how Germany would be split between the three occupying powers and how they would engage with the planned formation of a new organisation, the United Nations (UN). In this case, it required the superpowers to be permanent members of the UN security council and, as such, have the right to **veto** UN military decisions.

Stalin negotiated to retain the eastern section of Poland and justified this by arguing that the USSR would give up the eastern parts of Germany to make up the lost territory. Finally, the three leaders discussed the political spheres of influence with Stalin insisting that the Western powers needed to respect the USSR and its satellite states. Several months later, these agreements were formalised during the Potsdam Conference where Stalin, the new UK Prime Minister Clement Attlee and the new US President Harry Truman met to continue negotiations.

Australia looks to America

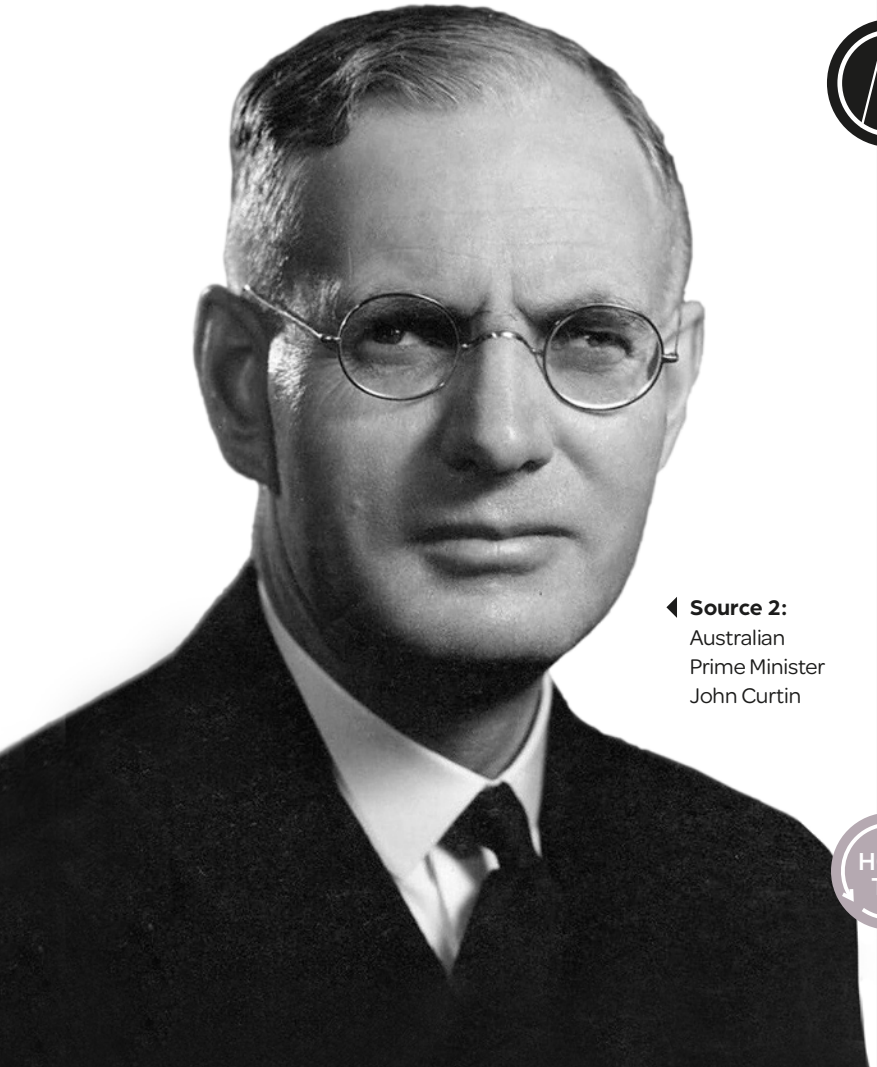
In Australia, foreign policy also changed significantly during and after the war. The shift began in 1942 when Australian Prime Minister John Curtin withdrew Australian troops from the European theatre. This created tension with then UK Prime Minister, Winston Churchill. Churchill wanted the troops redeployed to Burma but, given the recent fall of Singapore, Curtin insisted that they return to Australia. Ultimately, Curtin proved to have made the right decision as Burma fell just as the troops had been set to arrive and these same troops went on to defeat the Japanese on the Kokoda Trail in Papua New Guinea.

The failure of the United Kingdom to adequately focus on or protect its Pacific colonies and other interests prompted Curtin to reconsider Australia's foreign policy. By far the most powerful Western military forces in the region were those of the United States, despite their losses at Pearl Harbor. Meanwhile, it seemed that any help coming from the United Kingdom would take significant time, if it arrived at all. This meant that Australia had to strike out on its own from the United Kingdom, and consider a new regional ally.

Curtin made his foreign policy shift public in a statement on radio that was published the following day in the Melbourne *Herald* (see Source 3, 11.15).

After the war was over, Australia was still anxious about the possibility of a resurgent Japanese threat. To mitigate this threat, the United States, Australia and New Zealand established the **ANZUS Treaty** in 1951 to officially recognise their alliance in the Pacific region. This treaty still exists today, and means the three countries will work together to support each other if one is attacked. This treaty formalised the shift in Australian foreign policy from the United Kingdom to the United States.

This treaty supported Pacific stability in the face of the rising Cold War between the United States and the USSR, especially after Churchill's 1946 speech where he described communism as an 'iron curtain' that had spread across Europe. The treaty also reinforced Australia's commitment to help the UN avoid future conflicts, war crimes and senseless loss of life.



Source 2: Australian Prime Minister John Curtin

Learning ladder 11.24

Impact and legacies

1. Source 1: Who were the three Allied leaders and where were they meeting?
2. Source 1: Describe the legacies of the Yalta Conference for Europe.
3. Explain the impact and legacies of Britain's failure to protect its Pacific colonies.
4. Explain the impact and legacies of Australia's decision to 'look to America'.

Cause and effect

1. What caused Germany to be divided after the war?
2. Describe what created the 'superpowers' and identify who they were.
3. Explain the effect of the Potsdam Conference on Europe.
4. Explain what led to the creation of the ANZUS Treaty.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

What were the Nuremberg Trials and the Genocide Convention?

Previously the centre of Nazi rallies and propaganda, immediately after World War II, Nuremberg hosted the trials of Nazi leaders for war crimes. The trials, held in the Palace for Justice, were important in the development of international law on war crimes. They also paved the way for the creation of the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide.

The Nuremberg Trials

The Nuremberg Trials were the first international trials to hold individuals criminally accountable for crimes committed during wartime. The first trial involved 24 major Nazi figures, including Hermann Göring (Nazi air force chief) and Rudolf Hess (Hitler's deputy).

Source 1: Hermann Göring on trial at Nuremberg in 1946. Göring was convicted of conspiracy to wage war, crimes against peace, war crimes and crimes against humanity. He was sentenced to death by hanging. On 15 October 1946, Göring committed suicide by taking a poison capsule.

The Hague Convention of 1907 prohibited resort to certain methods of waging war. These included the inhumane treatment of prisoners, the employment of poisoned weapons, the improper use of flags of truce, and similar matters. Many of these prohibitions had been enforced long before the date of the Convention; but since 1907 they have certainly been crimes, punishable as offences against the laws of war; yet the Hague Convention nowhere designates such practices as criminal, nor is any sentence prescribed, nor any mention made of a court to try and punish offenders.

Source 2: Judgment of the International Military Tribunal, August 1945, where Britain, France, the USSR and the United States each appointed a judge and prosecution team for the Nuremberg Trials.

It was held from 20 November 1945 to 1 October 1946. Charges included crimes against peace, war crimes, **crimes against humanity** and conspiracy to commit these crimes. Of the 24 defendants, 12 were sentenced to death, three were acquitted and the others received varying sentences. Among the evidence presented at trial was graphic footage of Nazi concentration camps taken during liberation by the Allies.

The first trial was followed by 12 subsequent Nuremberg Military Tribunals, to prosecute lower-ranking officials. On trial were SS commanders, police commanders, military personnel, industrialists, physicians, judges, diplomats and public servants. In total, 175 defendants appeared in these 12 subsequent trials. Of these, 142 were convicted, including 24 who were sentenced to death and 20 who were imprisoned for life.

Although in later years, a number of convicted individuals would have their sentences reduced on appeal, or receive pardons, these trials were foundational in establishing the principles of accountability for war crimes, crimes against humanity, and genocide under international law.

Genocide Convention

While not a direct outcome of the Nuremberg Trials, the trials established the legal and moral foundations for an international approach to preventing and punishing genocide. This would take the form of the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide ('Genocide Convention'). On 9 December 1948, at a meeting in Paris, Australia was one of the first countries to ratify this Convention.

Has the Genocide Convention been effective?

Unfortunately, the Genocide Convention has proven to be of little value in preventing genocide. In the second half of the 20th century, genocides occurred in countries such as Argentina, Bangladesh, Burundi, Cambodia, Chad, Chile, The Congo, East Timor, El Salvador, Indonesia, Iraq, the Philippines, Russia, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Uganda, Vietnam and Yugoslavia. In each of these cases, even when the United Nations tried to take action, it was ineffective.

Learning ladder 11.25

Impact and legacies

1. What were the outcomes of the Nuremberg Trials?
2. Describe the impact of the Nuremberg Trials on international law.
3. Explain how the Nuremberg Trials shaped legal principles related to war crimes and genocide.
4. Explain how the Nuremberg Trials and the Genocide Convention continue to influence global responses to mass atrocities.
5. Evaluate the legacy of the Nuremberg Trials in shaping international efforts to hold individuals accountable for crimes against humanity.

Significance

1. What made the Nuremberg Trials a significant event after World War II?
2. Describe how the sentences at the Nuremberg Trials showed the world that war crimes would be punished.
3. Source 2: How does this source help explain why the Nuremberg Trials were seen as legally important?
4. Source 1: What does this image suggest about the seriousness of the Nuremberg Trials?

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

What was life like for people returning from the war?

Life for people returning from the war varied greatly. This depended on their deployment during service, injuries sustained during combat, what they did before the war and what they could do after being discharged. Many returned having been scarred by their experiences in the war, with all the challenges that brought. For First Nations people, they had to transition from an environment that tended to disregard colour to one that was often hostile to it.

Physical and psychological effects

Few, if any people, in the armed services returned to civilian life without some impact caused by their wartime experiences. A significant number came home with serious physical and psychological damage, which would shape their quality of life and experiences after the war (Sources 2 and 3). For others, their wartime experiences had shaped certain expectations that were simply not met when they re-entered society (Source 8).

While many were able to find their way in the world again, for others, a sense of alienation and missing their 'mates' prevailed. Alcoholism and violence in relationships was not uncommon.

Source 1: Troops on the voyage home to Australia, March 1945 [Australian War Memorial, 011779/14]

The worst time I had in the Army was when the POWs were coming back. We got the first lot of stretcher cases out and they all looked the same. Their eyes were shrunken in and they all had new uniforms. My brother Jim was under five stone [32 kgs] when he came back and he was six feet tall [183 cms]. He looked like a scarecrow with a new uniform on. It just hung on him. No matter how small they were they just wouldn't fit them. They had no flesh; they had bones … There were a lot of TB [tuberculosis] patients … very badly off. We'd take the end of the stretcher and help them out. Then we'd go back in the ambulance and pick the next one up.

Source 2: Pat Guest (née Bourke) from Singleton, NSW, Australian Women's Army Service, interview, Department of Veterans' Affairs.

Many of the soldiers fighting overseas, besides being wounded, or catching malaria or having a skin disease, would suffer shell shock, which meant they became depressed, confused, afraid or so badly affected they might lose their voice or do things they wouldn't normally do … in our wards we looked after them … we gave them a course of treatment which was electrotherapy and thalidomide.

Source 3: Neta Lawrence (née Campbell) (NF465336), Voluntary Aid Detachment Nurse, 114th Australian General Hospital, memoirs.

Source 4: Wounded servicemen arrive home, 12 March 1942

Soldier settlement

As World War II drew to a close, plans were made by all state governments for settling returned servicemen on the land. This was done using legislation passed during World War I, sometimes with amendments, or alongside new legislation. In New South Wales, a War Service Land Settlement Act was passed in October 1941. Under this Act, most people who had served could apply to purchase agricultural land with special **concessions**. Five years later, the Act was amended to include women, although few women are known to have benefited from this.

Source 5: The housing of the soldier settlement on Kangaroo Island, South Australia, c. 1950 [Photograph by Les Lynch, SLNSW]

Overwhelmingly, recommendations to address the issues that plagued the earlier post-World War I soldier settlement scheme (Source 6), which saw many farms fail and become abandoned, were ignored by state governments. As farms failed to perform and provide a liveable wage, these new farmers left the land. By the 1970s, much of the land allocated under the scheme had been sold or absorbed into larger properties.

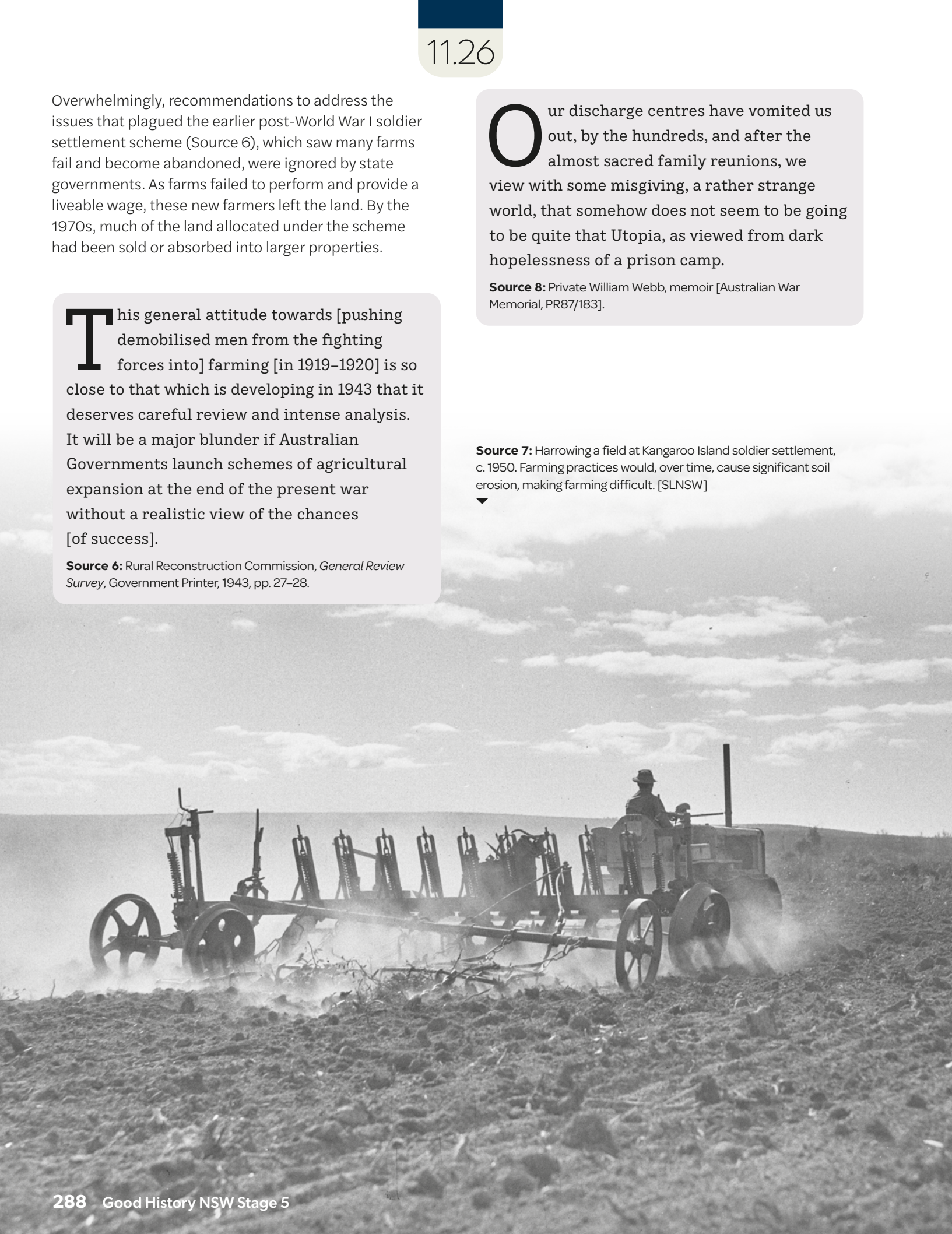
> This general attitude towards [pushing demobilised men from the fighting forces into] farming [in 1919–1920] is so close to that which is developing in 1943 that it deserves careful review and intense analysis. It will be a major blunder if Australian Governments launch schemes of agricultural expansion at the end of the present war without a realistic view of the chances [of success].

Source 6: Rural Reconstruction Commission, *General Review Survey*, Government Printer, 1943, pp. 27–28.

> Our discharge centres have vomited us out, by the hundreds, and after the almost sacred family reunions, we view with some misgiving, a rather strange world, that somehow does not seem to be going to be quite that Utopia, as viewed from dark hopelessness of a prison camp.

Source 8: Private William Webb, memoir [Australian War Memorial, PR87/183].

Source 7: Harrowing a field at Kangaroo Island soldier settlement, c. 1950. Farming practices would, over time, cause significant soil erosion, making farming difficult. [SLNSW]



Source 9: The Australian Aboriginal League float in the 1947 May Day procession, 1947. Participants hold signs saying: 'United in War, Divided in Peace', 'Free to fight, but not to drink' and 'Burn our welfare board'. [Australian War Memorial, P01248.001]

Notably, returned First Nations servicemen were denied access to the scheme, along with other benefits available to non-Indigenous servicemen. This sparked protests and activism, as people who had proven themselves in war and had their abilities recognised, often for the first time, faced a society intent on ignoring their contributions.

> Only one Indigenous Australian is known to have received land in New South Wales under a 'soldier settlement' scheme, despite the fact that much of the best farming land in Aboriginal reserves was confiscated for soldier settlement blocks.
>
> **Source 10:** Australian War Memorial, 'Indigenous Defence Service', 10 March 2021

Learning ladder 11.26

Impact and legacies

1. What were some of the long-term effects of war on returning servicemen and women?
2. Describe the impacts of the soldier settlement scheme on those who participated.
3. Explain how war experiences shaped the expectations and challenges faced by returning service personnel.
4. Explain how returned First Nations servicemen were affected by the policies and attitudes of postwar Australia.
5. Evaluate the legacy of the postwar treatment of veterans – including medical care, settlement schemes and social attitudes – on Australian society.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Describe how this source presents the impact of the war on the men shown in the photograph.
2. Sources 2 and 3: Describe the physical and psychological effects of the war shown in these sources. How useful are they for determining the impact on returning soldiers?
3. Sources 5, 6 and 7: Explain the historical context of these sources. How useful are they for explaining the success of the soldier settlement scheme?
4. Source 9: Explain the historical context of this source, then evaluate its usefulness and reliability for drawing conclusions about the treatment of First Nations veterans.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

How is World War II commemorated?

World War II ended in two stages – the surrender of Germany, followed three months later by the surrender of Japan. These events were once commemorated with large annual ceremonies, and memorials were constructed in honour of those who served and died in World War II. However, more recently, commemoration of the events of WWII have been overshadowed by a focus on Anzac Day and World War I.

The war ends

Victory in Europe (VE) Day was first celebrated on 8 May 1945 to mark the date when the Allies formally accepted the unconditional surrender of Nazi Germany. This was followed by Victory over Japan (VJ) Day, when Japan accepted the terms of surrender on 15 August 1945 (or, because of time zone differences, 14 August 1945 in the United States). In Australia, this event has become known as Victory in the Pacific (VP) Day. For many years, Australians celebrated both VE Day and VP Day, along with Anzac Day and Armistice Day (the ending of World War I). After World War II, the Australian Government agreed to the UK's proposal that Armistice Day be renamed Remembrance Day to commemorate those killed in both world wars.

> Fellow citizens, the war is over. The Japanese Government has accepted the terms of surrender imposed by the Allied Nations and hostilities will now cease ... Let us remember those whose lives were given that we may enjoy this glorious moment and may look forward to a peace which they have won for us. Let us remember those whose thoughts, with proud sorrow, turn towards gallant, loved ones who will not come back ...
> You are aware of what has been arranged for the celebration of this great victory and deliverance, and in the name of the Commonwealth Government, I invite you to join in the thanksgiving services arranged for, truly, this is a time to give thanks to God, and to those men against whose sacrifice for us there is no comparison.
>
> **Source 1:** Prime Minister Chifley announces the end of World War II, 15 August 1945, emphasising the importance of remembering the sacrifice of those who gave their lives.

Commemorating VE Day

In Australia, the news of the victory in Europe was met with great joy and led to spontaneous celebrations. In Sydney, office workers began throwing shredded paper from their windows as confetti, covering the streets below. Around 13 000 people attended a thanksgiving service in the Domain the following day. However, for Australia the war was not over – the fight against the Japanese in the Pacific was still ongoing.

It was felt that celebrations should not take place until the enemy was defeated and Australian servicepeople returned home. Over the decades since the first VE Day, commemorations in Australia have mainly been held at the Australian War Memorial and in a more limited way at local RSL clubs.

Commemorating VP Day

The surrender of Japan to the Allies marked the end of nearly six years of war for Australia. For Australians, this meant World War II was finally over, and a public holiday was declared. Like VE Day, remembrance ceremonies continue to be held on 15 August to commemorate those who served fighting the Japanese; however, not on the same scale as that of Anzac Day. Typically, larger VP Day celebrations are reserved for milestone anniversaries; 2025 is the 80th anniversary of VP Day.

Source 2: Cheering crowd in Martin Place, Sydney on the announcement of Japanese surrender, 1945

Should there be more recognition?

The cost of World War II was far greater than that of World War I. Almost 40 000 Australians died giving service to their country, and a further 30 000 were taken as prisoners of war. Like Gallipoli in World War I, there were battles in which Australians fought and died in profoundly tragic circumstances, with Crete being a prime example. The courage of those who defended El Alamein and Tobruk was easily equal to that of those who fought on the Western Front; and conscripts and soldiers of the regular army in New Guinea, particularly on the Kokoda Track, displayed a bravery as notable as that of the original diggers.

However, there was a feeling among some returned soldiers that their sacrifice was overlooked. When the Australian POWs of the Japanese were repatriated and the horrors of their experiences became known, they were met with great sympathy and received significant publicity. The same attention was not given to those who served in Europe. Further, the contribution of First Nations servicemen was not acknowledged until many years after the war, and 2023, the Australian War Memorial had no sculptures commemorating the service of nurses and women in World War II. While the contributions of First Nations Peoples and women are being increasingly recognised, veterans of World War II generally still receive less of a focus than those of World War I.

Learning ladder 11.27

Impact and legacies

1. What are some ways World War II has been commemorated in Australia?
2. Describe how VE Day and VP Day have been commemorated over time.
3. Explain how the commemoration of World War II has changed in Australia compared to World War I.
4. Explain why some World War II veterans felt their service was overlooked in later commemorations.
5. Evaluate the legacy of World War II commemorations in Australia – how inclusive and meaningful are they today?

Significance

1. What is the significance of VE Day and VP Day?
2. Source 1: Describe the significance of victory as expressed by Prime Minister Menzies.
3. Explain why you think commemoration of VE Day and VP Day has become more 'low key' in Australia.
4. Evaluate the battles in which Australians fought during World War II. Should any be considered more significant than others for commemoration?

HOW TO Significance, page 504

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

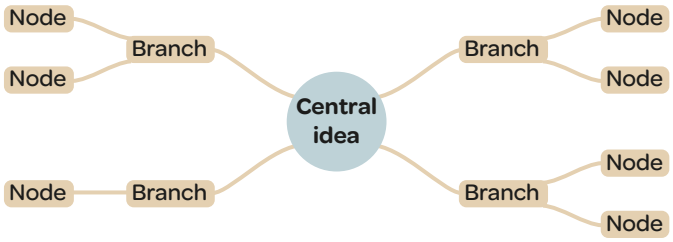
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to World War II.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Rise of Hitler, 11.2-11.5
- Reasons for enlisting, 11.10
- Where Australians served, 11.13-11.15
- Australians' experiences, 11.17-11.20
- How the war ended, 11.23
- Soldier settlement, 11.26

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

The Holocaust 12

HOW DO WE COMMEMORATE THE HOLOCAUST? 324

How can I understand the Holocaust?

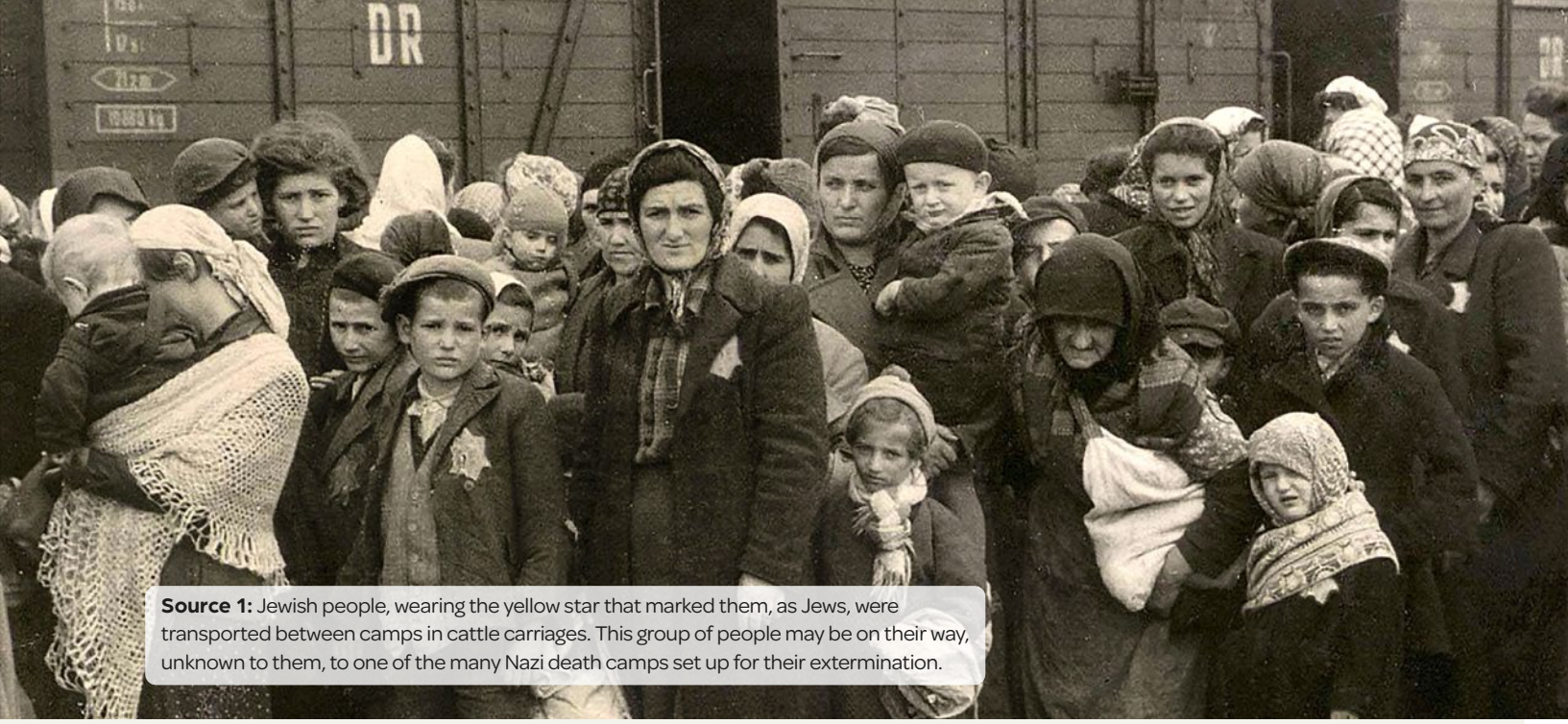
The Holocaust is a term used to describe the period from 1933 to 1945, during which approximately 6 million Jewish people were deliberately murdered. At the time of Adolf Hitler's rise to power in 1933, the Jewish population of Europe was around 9 million. By 1945, nearly two out of every three European Jews had been killed as part of the 'Final Solution'.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: Jewish people, wearing the yellow star that marked them, as Jews, were transported between camps in cattle carriages. This group of people may be on their way, unknown to them, to one of the many Nazi death camps set up for their extermination.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

What was the background to the Holocaust?

The Holocaust was the systematic murder of Europe's Jewish population by the Nazis and their collaborators during World War II. For the first time, the mass extermination of a whole people was conducted using industrial methods. Between 1933 and 1945, Jewish people were subjected to discrimination, segregation and extermination.

While the Holocaust represents the worst mass murder in human history, Jewish people had been persecuted since the time of ancient Rome, when they were expelled from Israel and Judea by Emperor Hadrian (c. 70 CE). During the medieval period in Europe, Jewish and Christian people initially co-existed; however, Jewish people were increasingly subjected to anti-Semitic violence.

The medieval Holocaust in Germany

During the Crusades, many Jewish people were forced to convert to Christianity, or else were murdered by the Christian crusaders, especially in the Rhineland region (modern-day Germany) during the First Crusade (1096).

Again, when the Black Death swept across Europe, Jewish communities were falsely accused of causing the plague by poisoning wells. In response, Jews were forced to convert to Christianity or were massacred. In the Strasbourg Massacre (1349), thousands of Jews were burned alive and their property was confiscated. Many Jewish people fled to Eastern Europe during this time.

In 1492, the King and Queen of Spain issued the Edict of Expulsion, forcing all Jewish people to flee from Spain to neighbouring countries, including Germany. Anti-Jewish violence, known as **pogroms**, would often occur in their new homes. In many places in Europe, pogroms took place during Easter, with Jewish people accused of religious desecration and consuming the blood of Christian children.

In his 1543 treatise 'On the Jews and their Lies', Martin Luther, a German and one of the founders of Protestantism, used accusations that the Roman Catholic Church was 'too Jewish' as the reason Jewish people had not converted to Christianity. In many parts of Europe around this time, Christians were allowed to murder Jewish people, who did not have legal protections.

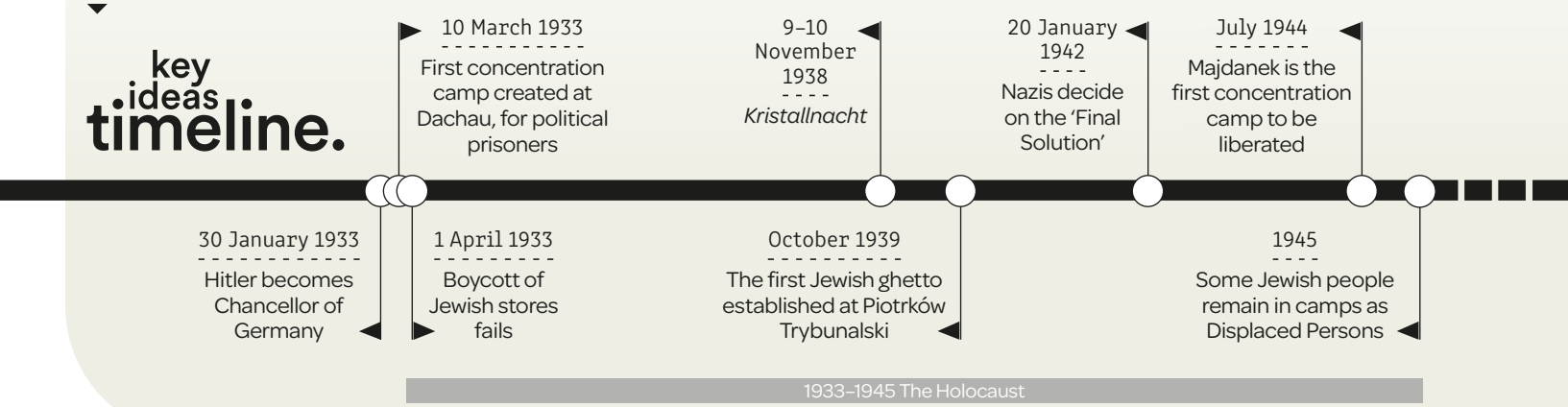
A key element of medieval persecution of Jewish people was that they were given an opportunity to convert to Christianity. In the 20th century, the Nazis linked Judaism to genetics, thus making it impossible for Jews to convert to another religion.

The origin of the term anti-Semitism

Wilhelm Marr created the term '**anti-Semitism**' in 1879 to describe specific discrimination against any person of the Jewish faith. This could include minor discrimination such as using religious slurs, to major actions such as confiscation or destruction of property, exile, torture or murder.

Source 1: Timeline of the Holocaust

key ideas timeline.



Source 1: This 1907 painting, *The Raid (Pogrom)* by Wojciech Kossak, depicts the aftermath of a pogrom.

For many centuries, Jewish communities were not allowed to own land or to work in government. As such, they tended to congregate in suburbs within cities and work in middle-class occupations. Anti-Semitic writers such as Marr and others appealed to their audiences by referring to these suburbs as vile places where Jewish people created trouble.

When Germany unified in 1871 (it had formerly been a loose collection of territories and city-states), some people attempted to recreate a past for the newly created German nation. According to this made-up narrative, Germany's history contained no Jewish or Romani people, nor any other minorities.

Hitler's anti-Semitism

It is not known how or when Hitler became anti-Semitic; however, Elizabeth Popps, the daughter of a family with which the young Adolf Hitler stayed during the early days of World War I, recalls Hitler telling her father 'he did not want to serve in the military in Austria because Austria was too swamped with Jewish people (*verjudet*)'. This provides the earliest evidence of Hitler's thinking.

Learning ladder 12.1

Background and origins

1. What is anti-Semitism?
2. Describe the restrictions placed on Jewish communities throughout Medieval Europe and into modern times.
3. Describe the origin of pogroms.
4. Explain how the Nazis prevented Jewish people from converting to Christianity.

Cause and effect

1. Why did many Jewish people flee to Eastern Europe around 1349?
2. Describe how the Black Death was used against Jewish people.
3. Explain how anti-Semitic attitudes developed in Germany.
4. Using the information shown in the timeline, explain the continuity of discrimination against Jewish people.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 8

12.2

What was the role of propaganda in Germany?

Before World War II, Germany was considered one of the most cosmopolitan and advanced countries in the world. The country had restored its economy and industry after the devastations of reparations, hyperinflation and the instability of the Weimar Republic. Hitler and the Nazis understood the power of propaganda, using it to continually advertise that Nazism was the reason for the country's success.

Propaganda was considered so vital that the Nazi Party established the Reich Ministry of Public Enlightenment and Propaganda, led by Joseph Goebbels. It produced and distributed cheap wireless radios, which significantly extended the reach of the ministry, and Goebbels was able to generate considerable propaganda content via posters, films and radio broadcasts. The content always promoted unwavering support for the Nazi Party, German values and the war effort.

Goebbels had a flair for organising mass rallies and spectacles, which were filmed, photographed and broadcast. Hitler was the first world leader to use air travel as a means to address multiple rallies across vast distances in a single day. Goebbels' cinema productions extolled Nazi virtues, Aryan and *Völkisch* ideas, and promoted and justified anti-Semitism.

Source 1: This photograph is supposed to depict 23-year-old Adolf Hitler attending a 1914 rally. While the original photographer claimed he found Hitler in the photo, historian Gerd Krumeich has concluded that it was faked to be used as Nazi propaganda. Krumeich noticed that other pictures of the event taken from different standpoints do not show Hitler.

Part of Hitler's success in coming to power in 1933 were broadcasts that declared how the Nazis would end poverty and unemployment under Hitler's promise of 'bread and work'.

Anti-Jewish actions

Within months of Hitler coming to power in 1933, his government purged the education system of Jewish people and politically oppositional officials and teachers. After the purge, 97 per cent of teachers were part of the Nazi Teachers League. The curriculum was changed to focus on patriotic virtues such as dying for the Führer and Fatherland, love of the Führer, love of the Reich and hatred of subversive views and Jewish people. This helped the Nazi regime shift people's moral compass towards a war footing as well as accepting the mass murder of political opponents and undesirable racial minorities.

From the start of Hitler's reign in 1933, discrimination against Jewish people increased. On 1 April 1933, **boycotts** of Jewish businesses were instituted. However, these displays – such as that shown in Source 3, in which paramilitary *Sturmabteilung* soldiers (also known as stormtroopers) hold placards to encourage boycotts – were not as effective as their organiser, Goebbels, had hoped. In many cases, people ignored the boycotts and walked straight past the stormtroopers to collect their orders. After 1938, this propaganda-based approach would be replaced by the forced **Aryanisation** of Jewish-owned businesses.

Source 3: Stormtroopers protest outside a department store. The placards read 'Germans protect yourselves, don't buy from Jews'.

Source 2: Children's books such as *Der Giftpilz* – 'The Poisonous Mushroom' – played a large role in teaching children anti-Semitic myths. The aim was to create a hateful stereotype of Jewish people as harmful to German society. This image is offensive and racist by modern standards.

Learning ladder 12.2

Background and origins

1. Who led the Reich Ministry of Public Enlightenment and Propaganda?
2. Describe how propaganda was communicated by the Nazi Party.
3. Explain how the German education system was controlled under the Nazi Party.
4. Explain why the Nazis wanted to create a hatred of Jewish people.

Perspectives

1. Source 2: What perspective of Jewish people is presented by the cover of this children's book?
2. Describe the perspective of Hitler that Goebbels wanted to create.
3. Explain how the Nazis went about creating a negative perspective of Jewish people.
4. Evaluate the role of propaganda in creating a public perspective of a race of people.

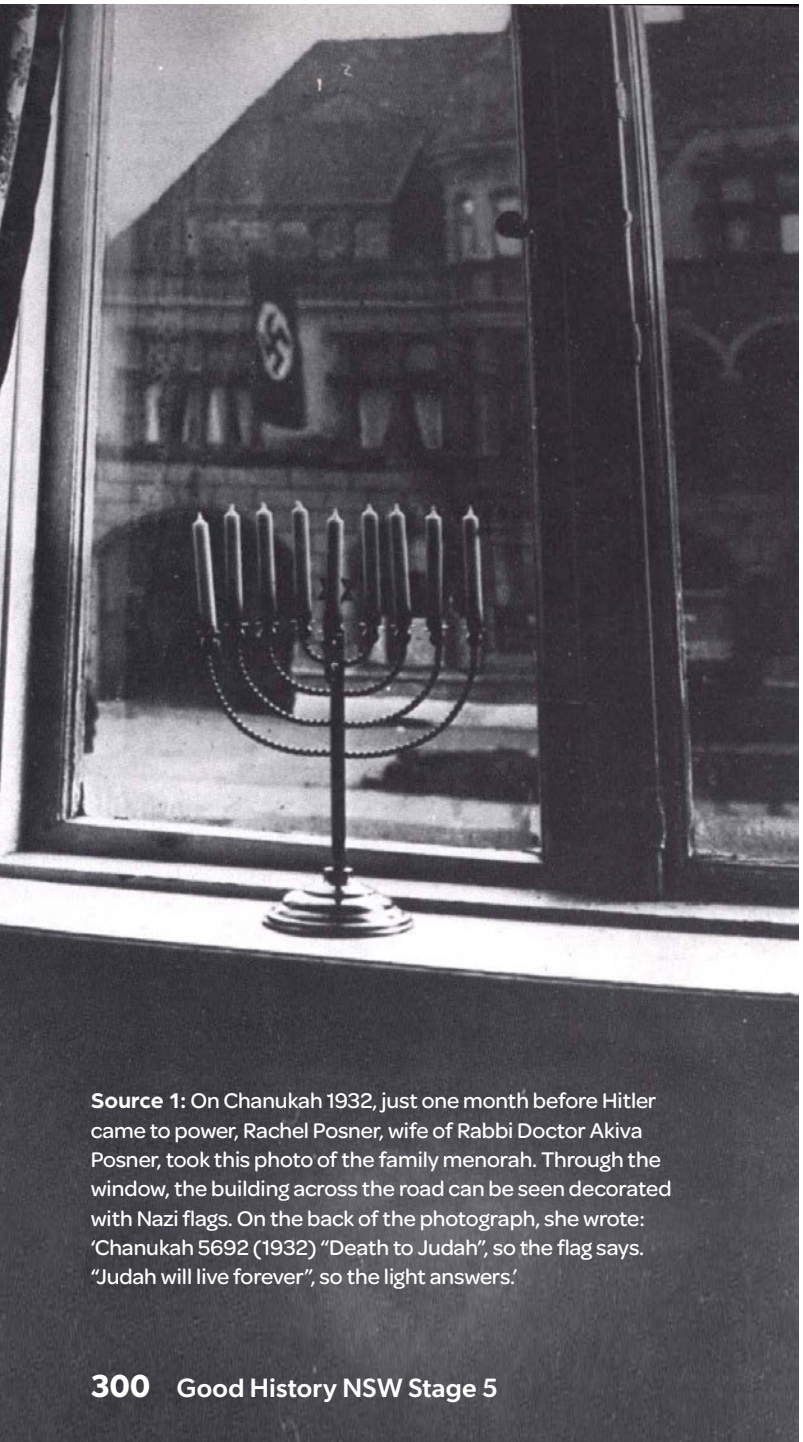
HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

12.3

What was Jewish life like before the Holocaust?

In 1933, the Jewish population in Europe was estimated to be around 9.5 million people. While there is a tendency to view the Holocaust as starting when Hitler became Chancellor this approach does not adequately account for the victims, their culture, the advances they were responsible for and the world that they inhabited. Nor does it account for the contributions they would have made to the world except for the murder of so many.



Source 1: On Chanukah 1932, just one month before Hitler came to power, Rachel Posner, wife of Rabbi Doctor Akiva Posner, took this photo of the family menorah. Through the window, the building across the road can be seen decorated with Nazi flags. On the back of the photograph, she wrote: 'Chanukah 5692 (1932) "Death to Judah", so the flag says. "Judah will live forever", so the light answers.'

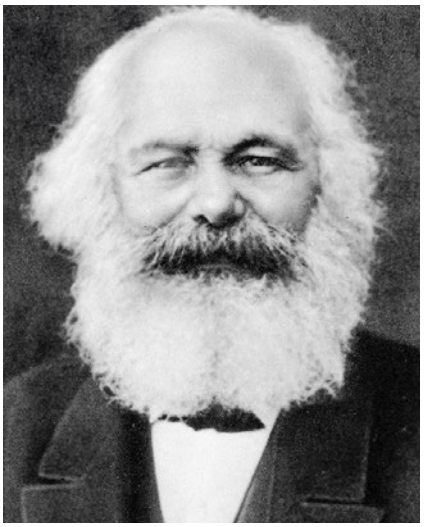
In 1781, the Edict of Tolerance of Austro-Hungarian Emperor Joseph II removed many of the legal impediments traditionally applied to Jewish people. They were allowed to participate in trades and attend universities; prominent thinkers and other educated and upper-class Jewish people were encouraged to fully participate in society. Similar legal emancipations occurred across Europe, including in 1871 in Germany and in the Constitution of the Weimar Republic.

Many people embraced the new opportunities tolerance brought them, and new streams of Judaism emerged, such as Reform Judaism in Germany. Three great thinkers who changed how humanity thought about itself in the 19th and 20th centuries had Jewish heritage: Karl Marx, Sigmund Freud and Albert Einstein.

Jewish people in Germany were largely indistinguishable from their German peers, as many had adopted the dress and appearance of their Christian neighbours. A significant number had totally **assimilated**, baptising their children as Christian, while being nominally Jewish in name only.

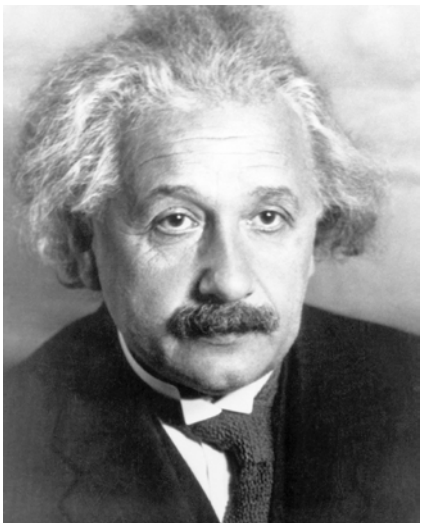
Jewish people participated in society at many levels, making many contributions to science, mathematics, humanities and the arts. They maintained their cultural roots through the Yiddish language, a fusion of German and Hebrew and words from other languages. Yiddish permeated Jewish culture in Europe, and it was spoken in theatres, newspapers, committees and labour movements. Much of the tradition of Jewish comedy made famous in Hollywood many years later had its roots in Yiddish theatres across Europe.

However, at the same time as there was a push to integrate the Jewish people of Europe into the



Karl Marx, the father of Communism, was baptised as a Christian but was related by his grandfather Meir Halevi to a Rabbinic Dynasty.

Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) is known as the father of modern psychiatry. He was Jewish and had to flee Nazi Germany in 1938.



Famous theoretical physicist Albert Einstein (1879–1955) declared his secularity and renounced his Jewish beliefs, although he remained devoted to the idea that Jewish people would return to the land of Israel.

▲ **Source 2:** Some famous Jewish people

societies around them, there was a movement to separate them as well. Under the 1935 Nuremberg Laws, the Nazis forced Jewish people to wear yellow stars on their clothes to make them easily distinguishable from their German peers. These laws also divided society and created many severe restrictions against the Jewish population, including what jobs they could do, and who they could have relationships with and marry.

Prior to the war, the integration of half a million Jews into German society was so complete that many could not and would not believe what was to come. For example, President Paul von Hindenburg protested against the 'Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service', which would remove Jewish people from government positions. He pointed out that this would penalise many Jewish people who had earned Iron Crosses for their bravery during World War I. Hitler was forced to back down; however, upon von Hindenburg's death in 1935 this law and the discriminatory Nuremberg Laws were enacted.

Learning ladder 12.3

Background and origins

1. How many Jewish people lived in Europe in 1933?
2. Describe life for Jewish people in Germany before the Nazis came to power.
3. Explain the background and purpose of the Nuremberg Laws of 1935.
4. Evaluate the impact of the Nuremberg Laws on Jewish people in Germany.
5. How did the earlier social and legal integration of Jewish people across Europe make the Nuremberg Laws even more damaging?

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

Significance

1. What was the significance of the 1781 Edict of Tolerance?
2. Describe the contributions made by Marx, Freud and Einstein to society.
3. Explain the significance of Yiddish to Jewish people in maintaining their cultural roots.
4. Explain why the 'Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service' would have been significant to Jewish people in Germany.
5. Why is it important to remember the cultural and scientific contributions of Jewish people, such as Marx, Freud and Einstein, when studying the Holocaust?

12.4

What were the aims of the Holocaust?

Adolf Hitler's dual aims in implementing the Holocaust can be summarised as 'Germanisation' to achieve a 'Greater Germany' and 'Aryanisation' – purifying the Aryan race by killing people of different ethnoreligious groups, political ideologies, nationalities and sexualities, as well as minorities and those with disabilities.

Lebensraum and ethnic cleansing

On 22 June 1941, Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union, initiating the War on the East, which aimed at conquering Eastern Europe and the USSR to provide land and resources (*Lebensraum*, or 'living space') for Germans. Hitler's vision, outlined in *Mein Kampf*, was to depopulate the conquered territories of undesirables, and repopulate them with ethnic Germans. The government policy of getting rid of ***untermenschen***, or undesirable people, began as a move to coerce people to leave German lands or be killed.

Emigration was initially very effective: more than 397 000 of Germany and Austria's 500 000 Jewish people fled the region. Then policies escalated into arrests, **concentration camps**, mass shootings, mobile killing units, **ghettos**, labour camps and death camps. The *untermenschen*-inspired policies also travelled with the German Army as it rampaged across Europe, wiping out opposition leaders, intellectuals and Jewish and Romani people, as well as randomly executing Slavic, Polish and Russian people, and anyone else deemed 'worthy of a bullet'. When bullets became expensive and were required by the war effort, other more insidious means were devised.

Homosexual people of all religions and ethnicities were also persecuted as part of the Holocaust. It is estimated that over 100 000 prisoners who were part of the vibrant LGBTQIA+ community during the Weimar Republic were murdered by the Nazis. Hitler and other key Nazi figures viewed homosexuality as degenerate. Pre-existing laws banning homosexuality were strengthened by the Nazis, as Hitler saw same-sex unions as incapable of producing Aryan children, making them an 'asocial' hindrance to the Reich. German lesbians, while less obviously persecuted, were forced into secrecy, had to marry male friends, had to give up higher-paying jobs and were forced to have children. Based on limited available data, the suicide rate for homosexual prisoners in Sachsenhausen concentration camp was 10 times the rate of all other inmates.

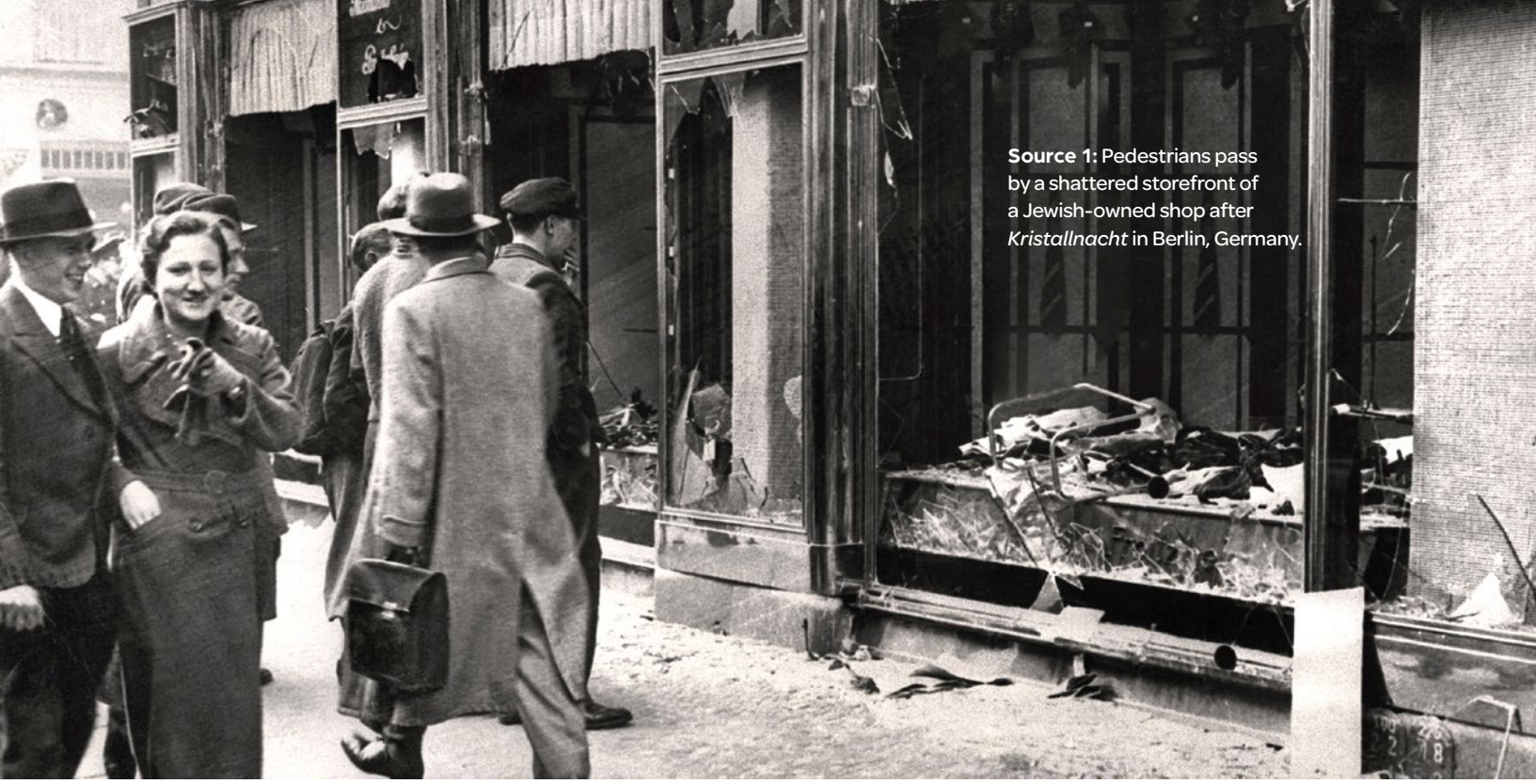
Traditional explanations often state that it was the education and propaganda machine of the Nazi government that allowed everyday people to participate in the Holocaust. Hitler openly declared his plan to annihilate Jewish people as scapegoats when he announced, in a speech in 1939, 'If international finance Jewry inside and outside Europe should succeed in plunging the nations once more into a world war, the result will be not the Bolshevization of the Earth and thereby the victory of Jewry, but the annihilation of the Jewish race in Europe'.

Outside of state- and military-organised mass murder, everyday people had licence to do their part to drive out and even kill the *untermenschen*. The concept that people could be declared 'unworthy of life' allowed perpetrators to dehumanise their victims. The anti-Semitism, prejudice and fear that many people held allowed them to set aside their moral compass and enabled the terror apparatus to operate on a societal scale.

However, at the same time, many protested against anti-Semitism and the Nazi atrocities. A significant number of German people publicly protested, supported Communist parties, undertook violent resistance to the Nazis, hid Jewish people or warned Jewish and Romani people about what was coming. Even within families there was disagreement, and Hitler Youth members were expected to inform on dissenting family members.

Kristallnacht

On 7 November 1938, Hershel Grynspan attempted to assassinate the German ambassador to Paris, Ernst vom Rath. Grynspan was a Polish Jew who was protesting his family's deportation from Germany to Poland.



Source 1: Pedestrians pass by a shattered storefront of a Jewish-owned shop after *Kristallnacht* in Berlin, Germany.

Elites within the Nazi regime were divided about how to respond, but Goebbels sent the *Sturmabteilung* (SA) to conduct a pogrom on the night of 9 November. This became known as ***Kristallnacht*** or 'The night of broken glass'.

The SS Chief Reinhard Heydrich issued orders to try to direct the SA not to damage German businesses or property for fears of losing mainstream support and to prevent insurance claims. However, what followed was an unmitigated disaster. Hundreds of synagogues were burned, as were schools, businesses and houses, and cemeteries were desecrated. To solve the insurance issue Jewish people were forced to pay for the damage to their community institutions, businesses and homes. Close to one hundred Jewish people died from the fires or the brutal violence (although this number is probably underreported).

Some see *Kristallnacht* as a turning point for the Holocaust. It signalled a change in Nazi policy from public SA violence to the more secretive roundups, ghettos and concentration camps. After *Kristallnacht*, 30 000 Jewish people were arrested and sent to concentration camps at Buchenwald, Dachau and Sachsenhausen. This Nazi policy shift was based partly on the distaste of the German people for public violence.

Word of these horrific actions spread across the world; however, the only private citizen to officially condemn these actions outside of Germany was the First Nations Australian William Cooper. On 6 December 1938, Cooper led an Australian Aborigines League delegation to the German consulate in Australia to protest the violence being perpetrated on the Jewish population by the Nazis.

Learning ladder 12.4

Background and origins

1. Who were the '*untermenschen*'?
2. Describe the aims of the Holocaust.
3. Explain how Hitler convinced many German people to support the Holocaust.
4. Explain why *Kristallnacht* was a turning point in the Holocaust.

Cause and effect

1. What caused 397 000 German and Austrian Jewish people to flee Nazi control?
2. Describe how *untermenschen*-inspired policies spread from Germany to other countries.
3. Explain how Nazi propaganda and education influenced everyday people's attitudes towards the *untermenschen*.
4. Analyse why the Nazis moved from public violence against Jewish people to establishing concentration and death camps.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

12.5

What were the Jewish ghettos?

Forced emigration was about 55–60 per cent successful in removing the Jewish population from Germany and Austria; however, the invasions in Eastern Europe increased the number of Jewish people in the Nazi Reich by millions. Heinrich Himmler and Reinhard Heydrich decided to create ghettos to centralise and control Jewish and Romani populations.

The Nazis used measures from history that had traditionally been applied to Jewish people. For centuries in Medieval Europe and the Islamic world, Jewish people were forced to wear special badges or hats to distinguish them from their neighbours. In 1938, Joseph Goebbels and Reinhard Heydrich wanted some way to mark Germany's cosmopolitan Jews as different. To make the country 'Jew free' they relied on census data and synagogue registers, which were seized by the Nazis before synagogues and shops were burned.

While the Nazis required all Germans to carry travel papers, starting from 1 January 1939, Jewish people had to have theirs stamped with a red 'J'. Inspections were held regularly and there were severe penalties for not having papers, including beatings. German Jews without obviously Jewish names were forced to have their names include 'Israel' for men or 'Sarah' for women.

Source 1: Heydrich's yellow star

After the invasion of Poland, the Nazi government in Poland, led by Hans Frank, issued decrees making it mandatory for all Jewish people to wear a white armband with a Star of David, with extreme punishments for not doing so. In Germany, on 1 September 1941, Reinhard Heydrich forced Jewish people to wear a yellow star with the word for Jew in the centre (Source 1).

The origins of the ghettos

Historically all ghettos trace their heritage to the 'Gettare' or 'Foundry of Venice' in 1514, a tiny Venetian island on which Jewish people were forced to live under a curfew and wear identifying badges. The Nazi conquest of Eastern Europe led them to establish 1143 ghettos (Source 2), some of which were created by walling in suburbs and sections of cities. As the Nazis forced thousands of people into these limited spaces, severely restricted food and water and provided inadequate sanitation, they turned the ghettos into places where disease and death proliferated.

The first ghetto was established at Piotrków Trybunalski in October 1939, while the last ghetto in Łódź was '**liquidated**' in August 1944. They operated for varying durations depending on the needs of the Nazi regime and when they could be 'liquidated' or 'processed'. These terms were Nazi euphemisms for ghettos being emptied and people selected for slave labour at concentration camps or death at **extermination camps**.

Daily life in the ghettos

Most Jewish people received little or no warning that they were going to be forced from their homes and moved into ghettos. Specially trained police, guards and Nazi collaborators would usually knock

Ghettos in occupied Eastern Europe 1941–1942

Source 2: The concentration of ghettos in Poland and Soviet territory

Source: Matilda Education Australia/Custom Mapping Services, based on information from the US Memorial Holocaust Museum

on their door and tell families that they had a short time to collect some belongings into a suitcase. People took valuable jewellery and winter clothing, some chose heirlooms and photographs and others, religious objects. Most importantly they needed their papers and Jewish stars or armbands. They then had to walk or were transported to ghettos via trucks or trains. Some hid and were later found and added to the round up or shot in public as an example to others in hiding. A small percentage were successful at remaining in hiding.

Once in the ghetto, families would be allocated a room or a shared living space – usually one family to a room or small apartment inside the ghetto. Overcrowding meant that multiple people shared beds on rotation, multiple families shared houses and, overall, there were around seven people to a room. Gradually rations were reduced until people began to suffer from malnutrition and starvation. Meanwhile, infectious diseases proliferated.

> We got used to standing in line at 7 o'clock in the morning, at 12 noon and again at 7 o'clock in the evening. We stood in a long queue with a plate in our hand, into which they ladled a little warmed-up water with a salty or coffee flavour. Or else they gave us a few potatoes. We got used to sleeping without a bed, to saluting every uniform, not to walk on the sidewalks and then again to walk on the sidewalks. We got used to undeserved slaps, blows and executions. We got accustomed to seeing people die in their own excrement, to seeing piled-up coffins full of corpses, to seeing the sick amid dirt and filth and to seeing the helpless doctors ...
>
> **Source 3:** An account from 15-year-old Petr Fischl, who perished in Auschwitz in 1944. His experience was documented in secret during art classes taught by Austrian Friedl Dicker-Brandeis.

Source 4: Homeless and starving children in the Warsaw Ghetto, 1941

Those who could worked for the *Judenräte*, the ghetto administration, in some official capacity. Somewhat incredibly, there were opportunities to become involved in community projects to make life a little more bearable for the community. Forced labour offered hours of backbreaking work under terrible conditions but it did offer extra rations, however small. Aryan- and Polish-looking Jews could try to cross the wall of the ghetto, remove their Star of David armband, and try their luck on the Aryan side. Still others recognised the injustice and began to record the abuses, and others actively resisted by linking with underground **resistance groups**. Many people who could not participate in such activities busied themselves in other ways and others who could not had to endure hardships with little hope.

Official orders regulated food to the milligram at the ghettos, with orders such as those from April 1941 mandating 'the basic provisioning of the Jewish Residential District must be less than the minimum necessary for preserving life, regardless of the consequences'. The strict regulation of food to 300 calories per day meant that hundreds of thousands of people died from starvation before ever getting on a train to an extermination camp.

> They demand that with my own hands
> I should kill my nation's children.
> There is nothing for me to do but to die.
>
> from Adam Czerniaków's letter to his wife Felicja Czerniaków

> Josef Hermann Worthoff and his comrades [resettlement staff] were here and demanded to prepare a transport of children for tomorrow. That is the last straw. Surely, I cannot send to death the defenceless children. I decided to leave. Do not treat it as an act of cowardice or escape. I am helpless, my heart is bursting with grief and pity, I cannot stand it anymore. My deed will show truth to all and may lead to the right course of action. I realise that I leave you with a heavy legacy.
>
> from Adam Czerniaków's diary

Source 5: Extracts showing the despair of Adam Czerniaków

The *Judenräte*

The terrible predicament of the Jewish administrators of the ghettos is that the Nazis used them to organise the deaths of their families and their communities. The Jewish police were in a particularly awful position in enforcing orders from the Nazi regime on their own communities.

Prominent leaders of each ghetto faced terrible ethical decisions every day, where each choice led to suffering and death. Such decisions included how to distribute inadequate food supplies, how to collect money and jewellery to pay for cattle carriages and ransoms, who to recruit as slave labour and deciding who was to be 'going to the East', knowing this was Nazi code that meant going to a camp.

The stress of these decisions led Adam Czerniaków, the head of the Warsaw Ghetto, to take his own life. He left a letter and diary entries explaining why (Source 5).

Learning ladder 12.5

Background and origins

1. What was the origin of ghettos?
2. Describe how Jewish people were forced into ghettos.
3. Explain life in a ghetto under the Nazis.
4. Source 3: Explain what 'normal' life was like for Petr Fischl in a ghetto.
5. How did Nazi strategies for controlling Jewish people in the ghettos build on earlier historical patterns of discrimination?

Continuity and change

1. When did the Nazis establish the first ghetto?
2. Describe the historical measures the Nazis used to single out Jewish people.
3. Explain the impact of the 1941 orders on people living in ghettos.
4. Explain how the *Judenräte* tried to maintain continuity for those in the ghettos. Why did they fail?

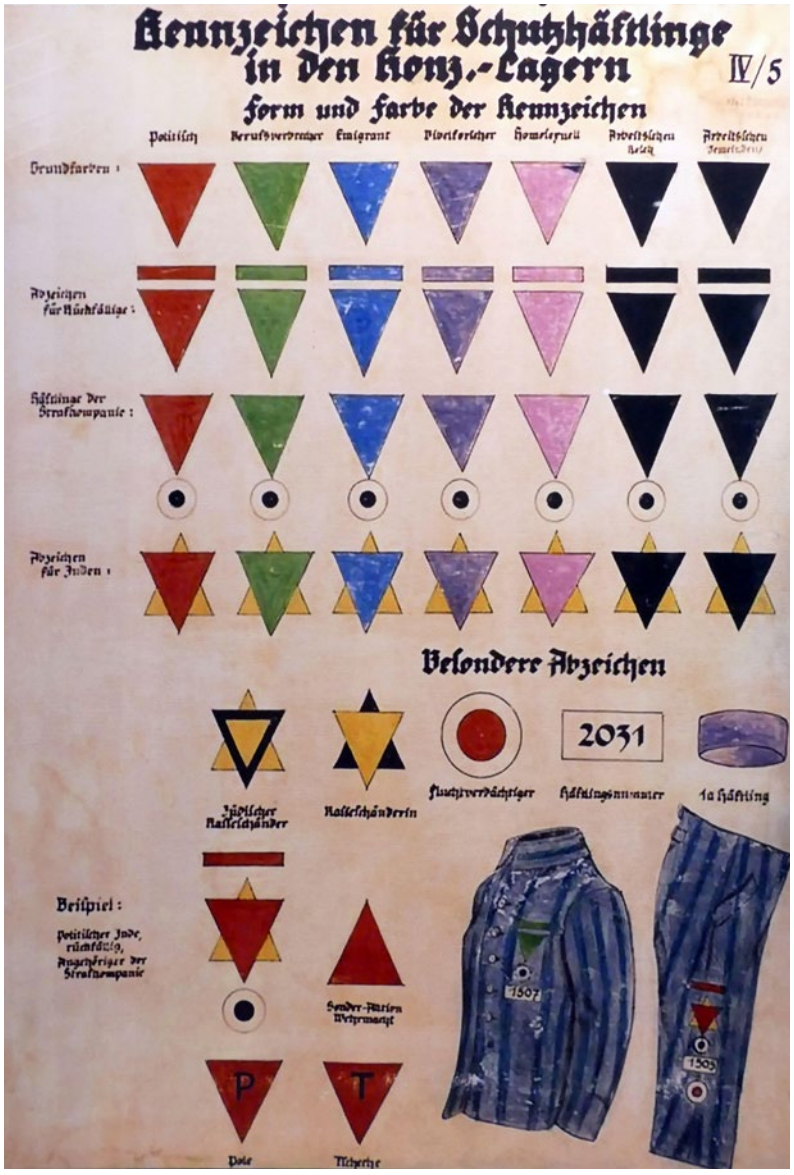
HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

What were the concentration camps?

With the ghettos at capacity, the Nazi regime sought new locations to send the *untermenschen*. Increasingly, they used concentration camps to house the growing numbers of Jewish and other 'undesirable' prisoners.

The first concentration camp was established on 10 March 1933, at Dachau. Initially, its purpose was to 're-educate' German political prisoners. These camps used barbed wire and electrified fences and were manned by soldiers with automatic rifles, which enabled a small group of guards to administer a large group of prisoners. The overcrowding, lack of clean water or adequate food, and brutal treatment meant that disease quickly took over and large numbers of prisoners died. Dachau's second Commandant, Theodore Eicke, was instrumental in developing operating systems that became standard in other camps.

Political prisoners were soon joined in their incarceration by Jewish, Romani and LGBTQIA+ people and anyone else that was deemed to be *untermenschen*. (The table in Source 1 shows the groupings used to categorise the inmates of the concentration camps.) Himmler and Eicke developed brutal treatments to break the prisoners' spirits, including meaningless exhausting tasks such as moving rocks from one place to another and breaking them up for no purpose, brutal beatings for minor infractions, and executing



Source 1: Chart of prisoner markings – the ordained camp hierarchy

Triangle colour	Position and meaning
Red	Political prisoners
Green	Criminals
Blue	Foreign forced labourers
Purple	Jehovah's Witnesses
Pink	Homosexuals
Black/brown	Romani, homeless and other politically undesirable people
Letter on top of triangle	Non-German prisoner – letter of their country
Two yellow triangles, forming the Star of David	Jewish prisoners. If they were Jewish and another category, the triangle of the other category would go above, with a yellow triangle below.

Source 2: New arrivals line up at Auschwitz-Birkenau

prisoners in front of other inmates. Food was regulated to the milligram and avoiding starvation became vital to surviving the camps. According to survivor accounts, prisoners would receive a cupcake-sized lump of bread and some watery soup in the mornings. Experienced inmates halved their bread to eat in the evening so they could sleep, otherwise hunger would keep them awake. When someone died or was selected for execution, other inmates would search their bunk and belongings for their small stash of bread.

Eicke ordered a hierarchy of badges to be sewn onto detainees' uniforms. Criminals convicted of murder and other violent crimes were at the top of the prison hierarchy and they were often tasked with brutally enforcing Eicke's rules as camp police called, *Kapos*. Dachau concentration camp was joined by Sachsenhausen in 1936, which acted as a central headquarters for the elaborate system of concentration camps that would soon be opened.

A network of camps developed in occupied Poland, and territories in the newly occupied Soviet Union transferred inmates to and from subcamps to main camps. Camps served the functions of prison, population concentration (similar to ghettos) and a source of slave labour. Six of the camps were outfitted with facilities for extermination, such as false shower blocks that were actually gas chambers and **crematoriums**.

Daily life in the camps

Upon arrival at the camps, guards with vicious attack dogs forced the prisoners to rush off the trains and line up at tables. Men and boys older than 16 were placed in one line, women and children in the other. Healthy women who could be used as forced labour were separated out at this stage.

After the camp doctors had performed a rudimentary health check, a person was asked their age and occupation (experience with manual labour was preferred). Then the new inmates were registered and given a number, which was used instead of their name in the camp. For some, their number was sewn onto their uniform along with their triangle (Source 1), while at camps such as Auschwitz-Birkenau the number was tattooed onto the inmate's arm, using the same needle for hundreds of people. People were then given a blue and white striped prison uniform and their heads were shaved. They were made to shower in groups of hundreds, in full view of the SS guards and other inmates, before finally being given a bowl and allocated a barracks to sleep in. The process was designed to humiliate and dehumanise the prisoners. Meanwhile, young children, the elderly and many women were sent straight to the extermination centre.

Each barracks held 700–1200 people and only had around 22 toilets and inadequate shower facilities. In some places, inmates would have to undress in their barracks and walk to the shower block naked regardless of the weather. In the morning, the prisoners were forced to line up in rows outside in the mud or snow. Rolls were taken and those who had died in the night, had not completed their ablutions or were still asleep had to be found. These people were severely beaten, shot or sent for extermination. ***Selektions***, where people were selected for execution, occurred three times daily, and often took hours. Guards and *Kapos* could beat anyone for any reason, using wooden truncheons, gun handles or sharpened steel-toe boots that the guards wore specifically. As well as their injuries from beatings, the wooden clogs the prisoners were forced to wear caused wounds to their feet, which would fester. Any injury was a serious liability, as the prisoners could not rest or eat well enough to heal properly.

Source 4: Women assemble for daily *selektion*.

▲ **Source 3:** Romani woman Růžena Danielová shows the tattoo she received in Auschwitz. Held in the so-called 'Gypsy camp' in Auschwitz-Birkenau, Růžena was the only member of her family to survive.

Work could be various duties inside the camp itself or could require marching to sites many kilometres away. Sadistically, inmates who were musicians were made to play music to 'lift' morale as teams of slave labourers marched past. On marches, guards forced the underfed inmates to move at a fast pace and beat or shot anyone who did not keep up. For extra humiliation, guards coerced prisoners to chant nasty songs about themselves to keep up their marching tempo. Lunch would be back at camp or on site and always contained fewer calories than the inmates required. The calories were set in such a way that inmates would slowly die over six weeks. After the work day finished around sunset, inmates returned to the camp for another long roll call. This could take hours, as all the bodies from inmates who had died had to be accounted for. After this, inmates returned to their barracks, and lights out occurred at 9 pm.

Inmates tried to make life somewhat bearable. They repaired or swapped their clothing with deceased inmates. Trade and barter occurred. Alliances were made. Stories of how to survive, which jobs were better to do and which guard or *Kapo* to avoid were shared. Some inmates also had special skills they could use to get extra food.

Treatment of women

Sexual violence was common on the Eastern Front and many female inmates had been raped before they even came to the camps. Many women worked in the Ravensbrück, Auschwitz-Birkenau and Bergen-Belsen concentration camps. Assaults from male and female guards as well as *Kapos* were fairly common and some non-Jewish women were forced to work in camp brothels. Women were often forced to shower in public where they could be subject to abuse. The camp 'hospital' was notoriously unsanitary and giving birth was often lethal for both mother and baby.

Women worked sorting confiscated possessions, staffing laundries and cleaning the camp lavatories, which required constant maintenance. Work in the camp offices and house cleaning were highly sought-after positions. As a way of surviving, women continued to dress and look as best they could under the circumstances; makeup could be bartered for, and a healthy appearance could help a person to survive daily *selektion*. Women of certain cultural or similar backgrounds often formed alliances, supporting each other in the face of the Holocaust.

Block 10

At Auschwitz, Block 10 was notorious among inmates as a place to be avoided. This was where camp doctors performed hideous experiments on inmates. Doctors Carl Clauberg and Horst Schumann conducted experiments in sterilising women by injecting irritants into women's fallopian tubes and using X-ray methods and surgical castration on men.

Professor Josef Mengele performed a number of bizarre experiments on twins, people with dwarfism, people with genetic differences and Romani people. He had a special lab near the Zigeuner Family Camp and ensured that any subjects were killed so he could study them by autopsy. Some experiments conducted by camp doctors included investigating hypothermia by having inmates stand naked outside in the middle of winter and dousing them with cold water. Other experiments included torturous and unnecessary surgeries, which caused significant pain and trauma to the victims. Many of the experimental results were sealed at the trial of doctors at Nuremberg after the war; however, some of the research went on to be used in the treatment of hypothermia.

> I remember that we stood naked in the sauna, in line to have our hair removed, and I wondered – what are all these men doing here? We couldn't recognise one another anymore. I approached one of the Jewish guards and asked him if he would have a word with someone so that they wouldn't cut off my pigtails, and he replied that so long as I had a head, hair would grow, while if I didn't have a head, I wouldn't need hair anyway.
>
> **Source 5:** From the testimony of Dita (Kurschner) Segal, 2006

Learning ladder 12.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was the original purpose of Dachau concentration camp?
2. Describe what happened to people when they arrived at the camps.
3. Explain why daily life in the camps was inhumane and resulted in such a high death rate.
4. Explain why concentration camps were part of the Nazi process of genocide.

Source analysis

1. Source 2: What type of source is this, and where might it have come from?
2. Source 3: Describe this source.
3. Source 4: Using knowledge from this chapter, explain what this source shows.
4. Source 5: Explain how ordinary people were affected by Nazi policies of control and humiliation.
5. Which of these sources is most useful in explaining life in a concentration camp? Give reasons for your answer.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

12.7

What was the 'Final Solution'?

With the increasing numbers of Jewish people in German-occupied territories, it was no longer feasible for the Nazis to force the Jewish population to leave or to only live in the ghettos and concentration camps. The 'Final Solution' aimed to address this problem, through the mass murder of millions of people.

We do not know the extent to which Hitler knew of this policy, but Adolf Hitler's views on racial purity and anti-Semitism had a profound influence on how the Nazis treated the Jewish populations of Germany and the territories they invaded. Further, Hitler's views on the enslavement and extermination of 'undesirable' peoples are clear. However, there is no evidence that Hitler ever set foot in a concentration camp and his orders were vague and often delivered through others.

Source 1: This pile of shoes at Auschwitz-Birkenau is a stark reminder of the sheer number of people murdered at concentration and extermination camps. Auschwitz-Birkenau was Nazi Germany's largest camp. Up to 1 million Jews died in the gas chambers of its extermination centre.

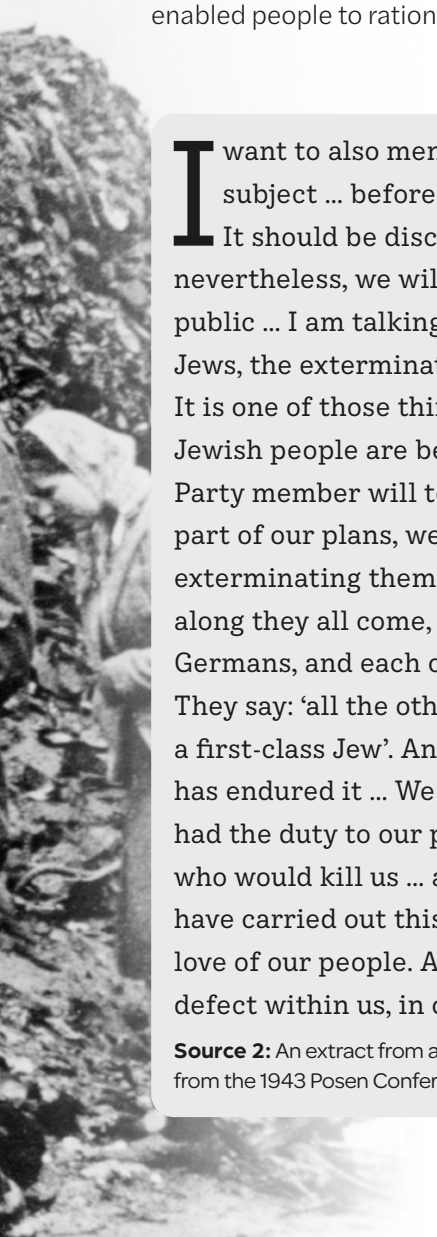
SS chiefs Himmler and Heydrich were tasked with the practicalities of carrying out these vague orders. To do this, they held the 1942 Wannsee and 1943 Posen conferences and numerous other meetings. The 'Final Solution to the Jewish Question', as it was officially known, was a euphemism for the policies that culminated in the extermination of 6 million or more Jewish, Romani, Polish, Slavic and other peoples. The euphemism was carefully selected to avoid scrutiny from the German public and the people of the newly conquered lands. At the Wannsee conference in 1942, Reinhard Heydrich noted that 11 million Jewish people, more than existed in German-controlled territories, were to be annihilated. Orders mentioning this were part of some of the 3000 tonnes of reports and official documentation that the Allies unearthed and tabled in the later Nuremberg Trials.

The scale of the task was astounding; the infrastructure and social organisation of mobile killing units, ghettos, railways and camps required the coordination of personnel on many levels. The cold efficiency with which mass murder was bureaucratised enabled people to rationalise their role as perpetrators. Using euphemisms, counting numbers rather than people and distancing themselves from the reality of their actions made it possible for the perpetrators to do what they did.

Part of the operation included developing systems to avoid panic or rebellion from the victims being transported to and exterminated in the death camps. For example, people being transported to the camps were told they were 'emigrating to Palestine' or 'going to work in Germany', among other things. In the camps, people were ushered into gas chambers on the pretext of being 'deloused'.

New technologies and infrastructure were also required, such as the poison gases carbon monoxide and Zyklon B pesticide, and cattle carriages and trains. Horrifically, the victims of these transports were forced to pay for their construction and maintenance.

Meanwhile, mobile killing units (*Einsatzgruppen*) were authorised to operate in the Soviet Union, where they were used to massacre Polish Jews, Romani, resistance fighters and anyone else deemed undesirable.



> I want to also mention a very difficult subject … before you, with complete candour. It should be discussed among us, yet nevertheless, we will never speak about it in public … I am talking about the evacuation of the Jews, the extermination of the Jewish people. It is one of those things that is easily said, 'The Jewish people are being exterminated,' every Party member will tell you 'perfectly clear, it's part of our plans, we're eliminating the Jews, exterminating them, a small matter'. And then along they all come, all the 80 million upright Germans, and each one has his decent Jew. They say: 'all the others are swine, but here is a first-class Jew'. And none of them has seen it, has endured it … We have the moral right, we had the duty to our people, to kill this people who would kill us … altogether we can say: We have carried out this most difficult task for the love of our people. And we have suffered no defect within us, in our soul, in our character.

Source 2: An extract from a speech by Heinrich Himmler from the 1943 Posen Conference, entitled 'Extermination'

Learning ladder 12.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was the 'Final Solution'?
2. Describe the methods the Nazis used to carry out the mass murder of Jewish people and others they deemed 'undesirable'.
3. Explain the roles of Hitler, Himmler and Heydrich in the 'Final Solution'.
4. Why is the 'Final Solution' considered one of the worst atrocities of the 20th century?

Source analysis

1. Source 2: What is the origin of this source?
2. Source 2: What is the context of this source?
3. Source 2: How useful and reliable is this source for understanding the background of the 'Final Solution'?
4. Sources 1 and 2: How accurate, useful and reliable are these sources in explaining why the 'Final Solution' led to the deaths of millions of Jewish people and others at the hands of the Nazis?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

12.8

What was Operation T4?

As well as the wholesale extermination of Jewish people, the Nazi doctrines about eugenics and the superiority of the Aryan race led them to seek to 'purify' the German race by killing people who were mentally ill or disabled. The idea was to remove people who were considered a 'burden' on the healthy people of the Reich. This culminated in Operation T4.

On 18 August 1939, senior Nazi leaders Philipp Bouhler and Karl Brandt ordered nurses, doctors and even parents to identify children up to three years of age who were not developing at the expected rate or who showed signs of mental or physical disability. These children were then executed as part of a **eugenics** program to purify the German race by euthanising people with disability – Operation T4.

In addition, around 250 000 people who had neurodevelopmental disorders or mental illnesses (particularly schizophrenia), and people with physical disabilities were labelled *Idioten* by the Nazi regime and sent to specially designed medical centres for extermination. These clinics were established with utmost secrecy. Babies and children placed there were given lethal injections or starved to death, with their cause of death officially listed as pneumonia.

It was at one such clinic in Vienna that the paediatrician Hans Asperger researched children diagnosed as having mild autism spectrum disorder.

Source 1: Hans Asperger with children at the University Paediatric Clinic in Vienna, c. 1940

Source 2: The cover of the Nazi Propaganda Magazine *New People*. The text reads, 'This hereditarily ill person will cost our national community 60 000 Reichsmarks over the course of his lifetime. Citizen, this is your money.' Demonising the cost of care was a strategy to win the German people over to the idea of eugenics.

His work continued the research started by Jewish doctors who had been removed from his medical school in 1938. Far from Asperger's claims of being a conscientious objector, evidence has emerged that he referred severely disabled children to the **euthanasia** program, and that he obtained privileges from his collaboration with the Nazi regime.

While initially focusing on children, the age limit of those to be identified for extermination was later raised to 17 years, then to include older people and then even included injured soldiers from the battle of Leningrad. These soldiers' deaths were misreported as occurring on the frontline. As part of Operation T4, carbon monoxide gas chambers were designed to resemble shower blocks with false shower heads. These would later be used in the Nazi death camps. When the T4 policies came to public attention in 1941, the German people protested against them. In response, it was claimed the operation was ended; in reality, it continued in secret until 1945.

Learning ladder 12.8

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was Operation T4?
2. Describe how the Nazis attempted to 'purify' the Aryan race.
3. Explain how the murder of T4 victims was recorded. Why was this done?

Perspectives

1. Describe the perspective of Philipp Bouhler and Karl Brandt towards disabled children.
2. Source 2: Describe the perspective presented in this source towards people with a disability.
3. Explain why the positive perspective of Hans Asperger's work during Nazi times is now being challenged.
4. Following publication of research in 2018 which claimed Hans Asperger was responsible for the euthanasia of disabled children, other research has been produced that contests this view. How would you determine which perspective on Hans Asperger is more valid?

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

12.9

How was the Holocaust resisted?

Resistance took many forms during the years of Nazi occupation and persecution. Some actively fought against the Nazis, while other influential figures spoke out publicly against the regime. Others set up secret networks to try to save people from being sent to the camps.

In 1942, Czech resistance fighters Jan Kubis, Jozef Gabčík and Josef Valčík, who had trained in Europe, managed to injure SS Chief Reinhard Heydrich, who later died from complications. This ended the life of one of the chief architects of the Holocaust. Resistance from sympathisers also involved warning Jewish neighbours and friends about an upcoming round up, hiding people from the secret police or helping to falsely convert people to Christianity. People also resisted by maintaining connection to their faith, such as those who risked being shot for celebrating Yom Kippur at the Łódź Ghetto. Many spoke out publicly or protested against the Nazi regime, including Lutheran, Catholic and other religious leaders.

> First, they came for the socialists, and I did not speak out – because I was not a socialist.
>
> Then they came for the trade unionists, and I did not speak out – because I was not a trade unionist.
>
> Then they came for the Jews, and I did not speak out – because I was not a Jew.
>
> Then they came for me – and there was no one left to speak for me.

Source 1: The famous quote from Lutheran Pastor Martin Niemöller is a poignant analysis explaining what happened to German society.

In 1942, Szlama Ber Winer, a young Jewish man, was forced to kill people using a gas van at Chelmno, a Nazi-operated death camp in Poland. He escaped, returned to the Warsaw Ghetto, and reported what was happening. Ber Winer's story, the first report of the mass murders, was published in the *Liberty Brigade* on 1 June 1942. The story was run in the *New York Times* days later. Ber Winer later died trying to report on activities at the Belzec camp.

Resistance in the Warsaw Ghetto

The 'liquidation' of the 300 000 Jewish residents of the Warsaw Ghetto saw the beginning of an uprising against the Nazis. On 19 April 1943, Jewish militant groups decided to fight back rather than be sent to the concentration camps. The groups consisted of 750 men and women organised into 22 fighting brigades, who defended different sections of the Ghetto. They were armed by the Polish Army or with black market weapons in the most rudimentary manner. They had less than 20 bullets to a gun, a small number of grenades and home-made bombs such as **Molotov cocktails**. They were led by 24-year-old Mordechai Anielewicz and went up against 5000 well-equipped soldiers of the German Army, led by Jürgen Stroop. The commander of the Jewish fighters wrote of their amazing success (Source 2).

> What we have experienced cannot be described in words ... what happened exceeded our wildest dreams. The Germans ran twice from the ghetto ... I have the feeling that great things are happening, that what we have dared is of great importance ... Farewell, my dear friend, perhaps we shall meet again. The main thing – my life's dream has come true. Jewish self-defence in the Warsaw Ghetto has become a fact. Jewish armed resistance and retaliation have become a reality. I have been witness to the magnificent heroic struggle of the Jewish fighters.

Source 2: Mordechai Anielewicz, writing about the Warsaw Uprising in a letter smuggled out of the ghetto to Yitzhak Zuckerman, 23 April 1943

Case study: Witold Pilecki

Source 3: Witold Pilecki, Polish cavalry officer, intelligence agent and resistance leader

Witold Pilecki was a Polish aristocrat and a soldier of distinction in Poland's Army. Early in World War II, he co-founded the Secret Polish Army resistance movement. In 1940, Pilecki volunteered to be captured in order to expose what the Germans were doing at Auschwitz. This was not only dangerous for him, but endangered his family, who could be punished if he was discovered.

Pilecki deliberately got caught in an SS round up; he was arrested and sent to Auschwitz. He barely survived a vicious beating at *selektion* but made it to the labour camp and began to try to organise a resistance. He smuggled messages to the outside resistance and Allies by bribing guards to release non-Jewish inmates or by passing notes to farmers. He was the first person to petition the Allies to bomb Auschwitz.

He eventually escaped and participated in the Warsaw Uprising (a 63-day uprising, which was ultimately unsuccessful, by the Polish resistance to liberate Poland). Unfortunately, Pilecki was executed by the Soviets in 1948, but the records he made are vital evidence of the brutality of the concentration camps.

Although the Germans had crushed the Warsaw Ghetto uprising by 16 May, the Jewish resistance inspired fighters in other major ghettos to start similar uprisings. Across Eastern Europe, resistance movements sought to disrupt the 'liquidation' of the ghettos. In almost impossible conditions, people at the camps at Sobibor and Treblinka revolted and at Auschwitz-Birkenau, Jewish and Romani people resisted.

In the Warsaw Ghetto, Dr Emanuel Ringelblum and the Oyneg Shabbos group collected contemporary evidence and hid it in buried archives. This material constitutes an invaluable primary resource for what was happening.

Learning ladder 12.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What different forms did resistance take?
2. Describe the militarily significant achievements of resistance organisations.
3. Explain the significance of the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising.
4. Evaluate the significance of Witold Pilecki's resistance efforts.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Describe what Niemöller's statement reveals about people who did and did not resist the Nazi regime.
2. Describe the events that led to the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising in April 1943.
3. Source 2: Explain how the uprising affected Mordechai Anielewicz.
4. How important were Witold Pilecki 's actions in helping the outside world understand the brutality of Nazi actions?

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

How did location affect how the Holocaust was experienced?

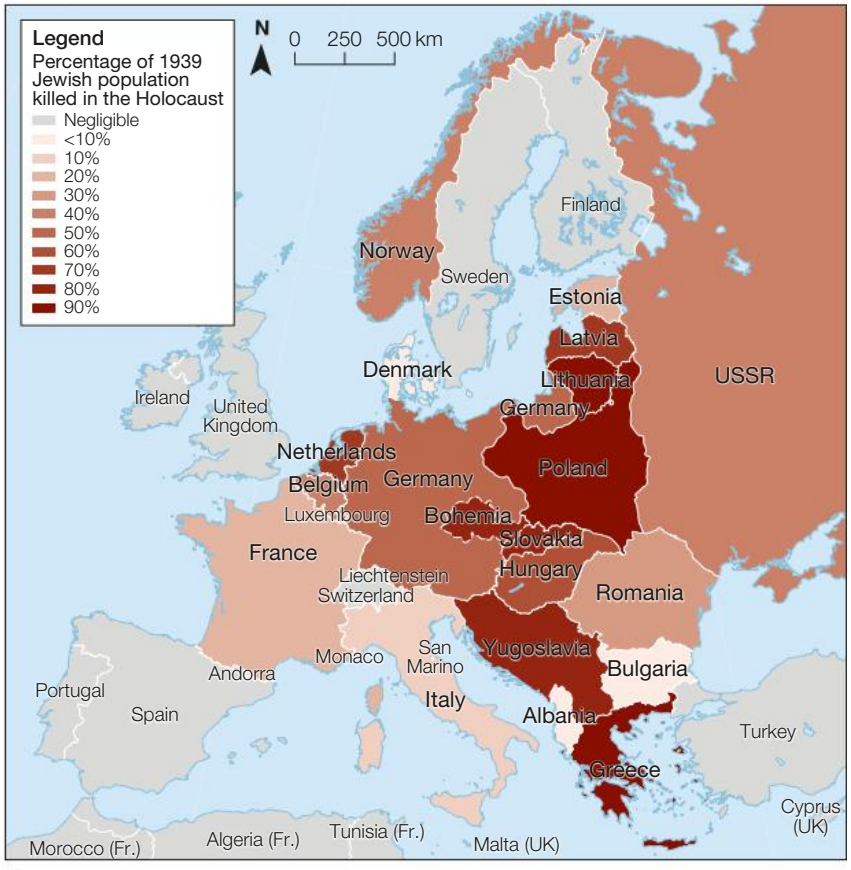
Where people were living when they became subject to Nazi control affected their experience. In some regions, massacres were more common than deportations, and some countries' geography made escape more possible. The strength of local resistance movements also played a role in people's ability to survive the Holocaust.

Occupation and governance

In Eastern Europe, as part of the War on the East, the Holocaust was immediate and violent. Mass shootings were widespread, and this is where the extermination camps and mobile death squads operated.

In Western Europe, the Holocaust involved the transportation of people to the camps in Eastern Europe. This made the role of collaboration or resistance movements important. It was relatively easier to escape capture as a Jew living in France, for example, than one living in Poland.

Jewish loss of life by country during the Holocaust



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 1: Approximate percentage of Jews murdered in the Holocaust, based on the 1939 Jewish population. Death rates in Eastern and South-eastern Europe approached 90 per cent, decimating the Jewish communities in those states.

Geography and resistance

In France, both its geography and the activity of the resistance movement aided people's escape into neutral and Allied territories. France shares borders with Switzerland and Spain, both of which were neutral at the start of the war. Further, the division of France into Nazi-occupied and **Vichy**-controlled zones meant that the country was generally less brutally controlled and it was more possible for Jews to evade capture. This also made it possible for French and foreign resistance movements to operate actively in the region, supporting the escape of Jews and others to safety. Despite this, 77 000 French Jews still died.

In Eastern European countries, Nazi control was much more brutal. Although resistance movements did exist, they faced severe repression. For most Jewish people, escape was nearly impossible due to local conditions, widespread surveillance and long distances from neutral countries.

When you look at the inhumane treatment of Jews, not only in Germany but occupied countries as well, you start worrying that such a demand might also be put on us, but we must clearly refuse such this due to their protection under the Danish constitution. I stated that I could not meet such a demand towards Danish citizens. If such a demand is made, we would best meet it by all wearing the Star of David.

Source 2: Diary entry attributed to King Christian of Denmark, c. 1940. While this quote's authenticity is debated, it is symbolic of Danish resistance to Nazi demands.

There are no Jews in Morocco. There are only Moroccan subjects ... Moroccan Jews are my subjects ... it is my duty to protect them against aggression.

Source 3: Mohammed V, Sultan of Morrocco, responding to the Vichy government's demands. These quotes are attributed to Sidi Mohammed ben Yusef, but are not from the same source.

Source 4: Sidi Mohammed ben Yusef was Sultan of Morocco from 1927 to 1953 and then again from 1955 to 1957, after a period of exile. He became King of Morocco in 1957, the year the country gained independence from France, and ruled until his death in 1961. In 1940, when he stood up to protect Moroccan Jews, he was just 30 years old.

Protection of Jewish citizens

In some countries, leaders made great efforts to protect their Jewish citizens from the Nazis.

- Denmark – Of the country's 7000 Jews, fewer than 500 were deported, largely because Danish authorities, resistance groups and citizens acted quickly to hide and help them escape. Many were ferried to neutral Sweden in fishing boats, with the support of the Danish underground – and in some cases, quiet financial backing from the royal family. King Christian X, although limited in political power, became a symbol of resistance (Source 2).
- Morocco – At the time of World War II, Morrocco was under French control. In June 1940, the Vichy regime imposed anti-Semitic laws across its territories, restricting where Jews could live, work and study. Sultan Mohammed V is believed to have resisted these policies symbolically and privately. He continued to treat Moroccan Jews as equal subjects, invited Jewish leaders to public ceremonies and helped prevent deportations. Although the discriminatory laws were still enacted to some degree, Morocco's Jewish population – more than 200 000 – was largely spared.

Learning ladder 12.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who were the two national leaders mentioned in the text whose actions helped to protect Jewish people?
2. Describe what King Christian X and Sultan Mohammed V did to help Jewish communities during the Holocaust.
3. How did the actions of ordinary citizens contribute to the protection of Jewish people in Denmark?
4. Why were the actions of resistance movements important in countries like Denmark and France?

Cause and effect

1. What is one reason the Holocaust was experienced more violently in Eastern Europe than in Western Europe?
2. Describe how geography affected Jewish people's chances of escaping in France compared to Poland.
3. How did different forms of Nazi control cause variations in the way Jewish people were treated across regions?
4. Analyse how the combination of geography, governance and resistance caused the Holocaust to be experienced differently in various locations.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

What were the short-term effects of the Holocaust on Jewish people?

After the liberation of the Nazi concentration camps, these camps were often converted into Displaced Persons (DP) camps, and Jewish people continued to live there, having no place to go. At the same time, they started to process what had happened to them.

Liberation

In 1944, the USSR forces, known as the Red Army, arrived at the gates of Majdanek in Poland and in January 1945 they liberated Auschwitz. Later, French, British and US troops reached various camps on the Western Front. These soldiers were confronted with the sight of piles of bodies, starving people and the psychological and physical trauma of the people who had miraculously survived. Army film crews recorded the liberation of the camps, and when these films were distributed the world felt the same horror the liberators had.

While the Nazis had tried to remove all evidence of their activities, such as by dynamiting crematoriums and camp buildings, and destroying records and other evidence, in the years after **liberation** the Allies discovered Nazi records that had escaped the cover-up. Archives kept by the Jewish and Polish resistance movements documenting and describing what was going on also became vital evidence at the Nuremberg Trials.

Source 1: The concentration camp Dachau on the day of its liberation in 1945. Note the young age of some of the prisoners.

Life in the camps after liberation

After liberation, people were given food, clothing and water; however, some people were in such a state of starvation that they died after eating, as their stomachs could no longer digest food.

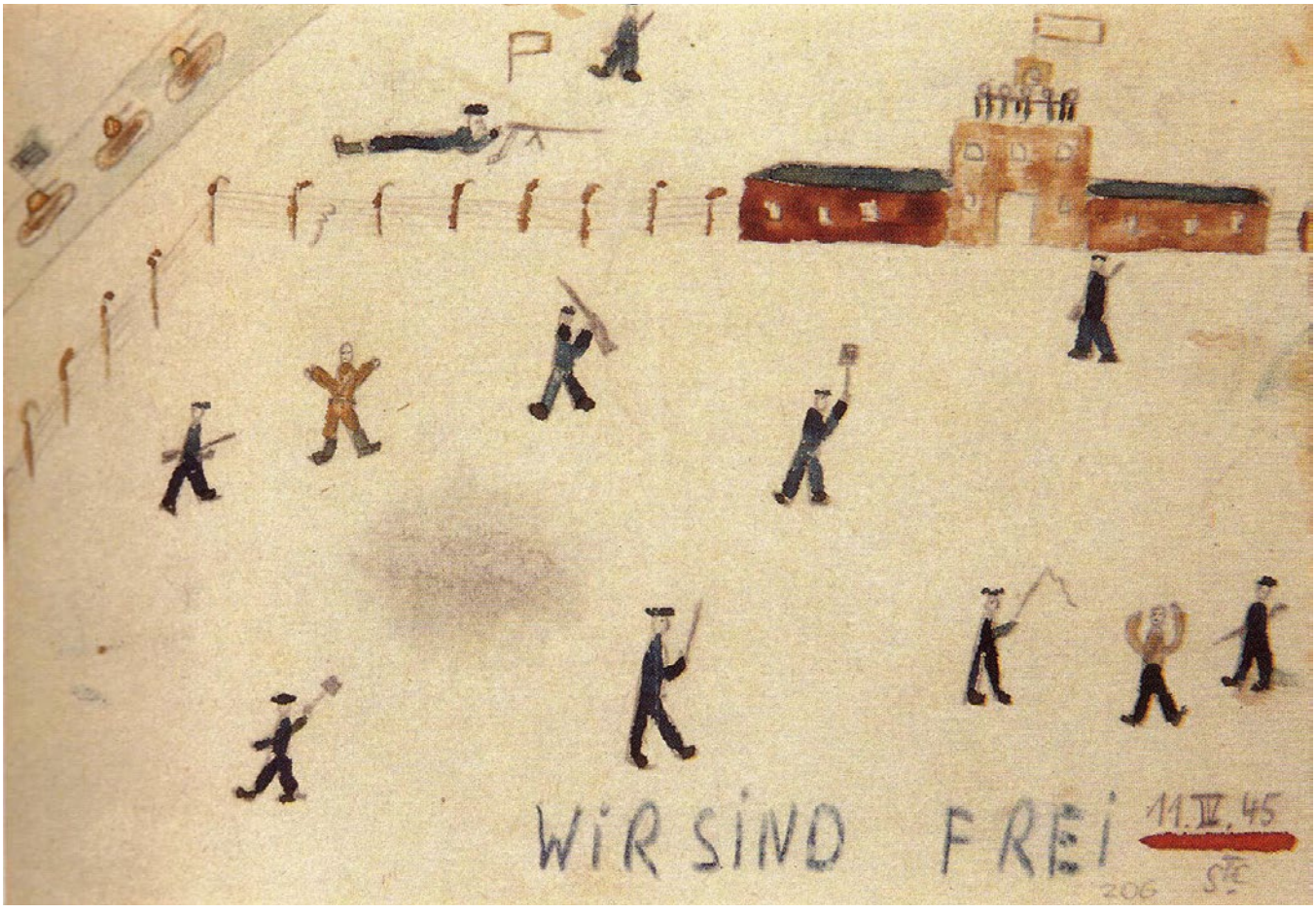
Another problem faced by liberating armies was where to resettle the now freed concentration camp inmates. For many, returning to their homes was impossible or unwanted because:

- their whole community had been destroyed
- political boundaries had changed
- they feared persecution if they returned to their homeland.

Further, with liberation, people who had mentally set themselves the task of surviving suddenly had to confront what had happened to them. The testimonies of many survivors express an overwhelming sense of 'survivor's guilt', where they questioned why they were able to survive while others did not. Many people lost all or most of their family. All now lived with extreme trauma, and they had nowhere to go.

Source 2: An emaciated concentration camp prisoner, affected by starvation

Source 3: Thomas Geve was 15 years old when he was liberated. He drew this picture as part of an 82-drawing series that showed life in the camps of Auschwitz-Birkenau and Buchenwald.



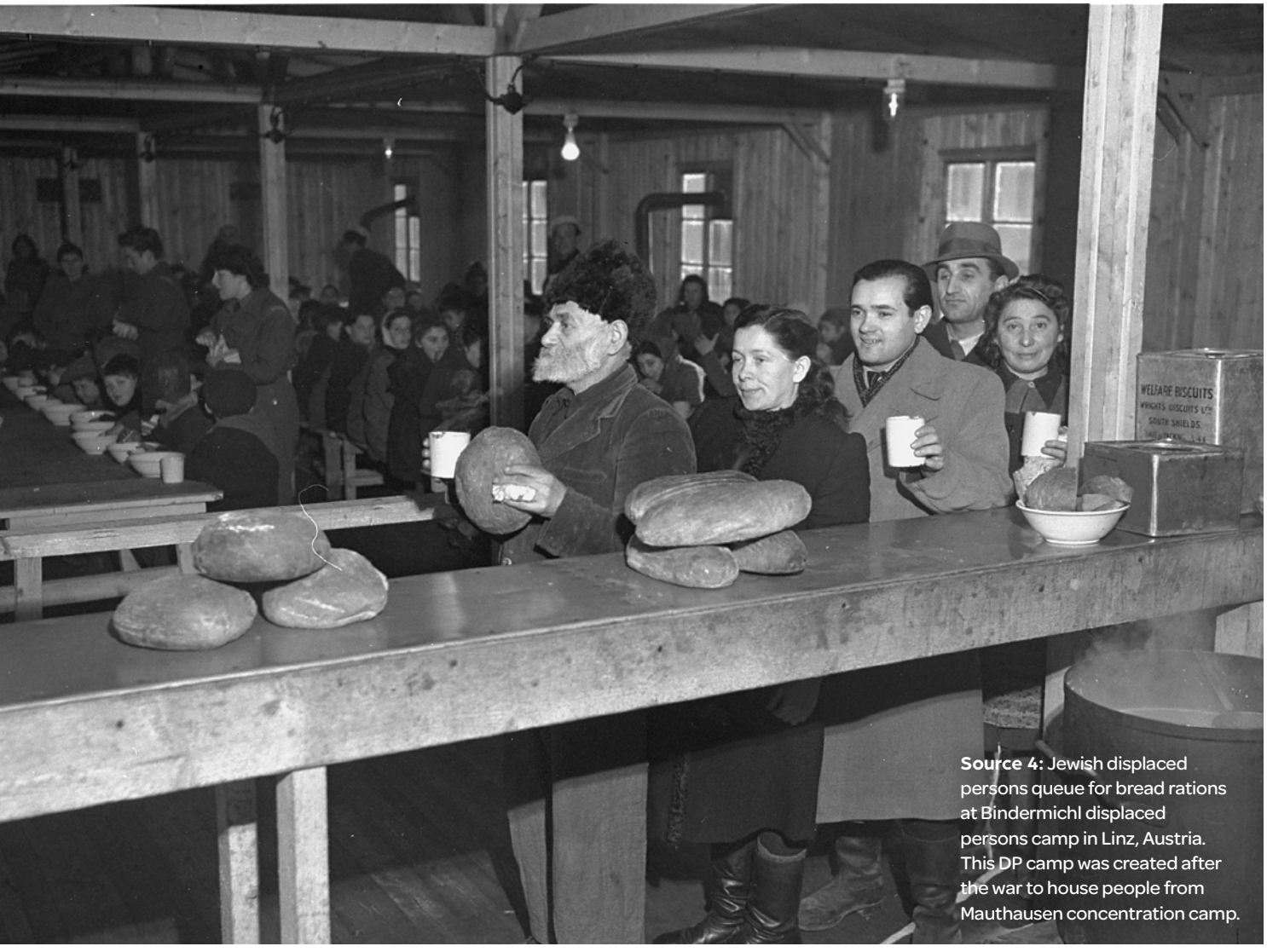
Displaced Persons camps

To prevent reprisals but also to keep order, some of the Nazi concentration camps were maintained and operated as Displaced Persons (DP) camps. However, this meant Jewish people and other detainees languished there for another three years. Post-war pogroms in towns in Poland in 1946 also sent the message to Jewish people that they were not welcome if they returned to their former homes. This led Jewish people to push for their resettlement in their ancient homeland of *Eretz Yisrael*, the land of Israel.

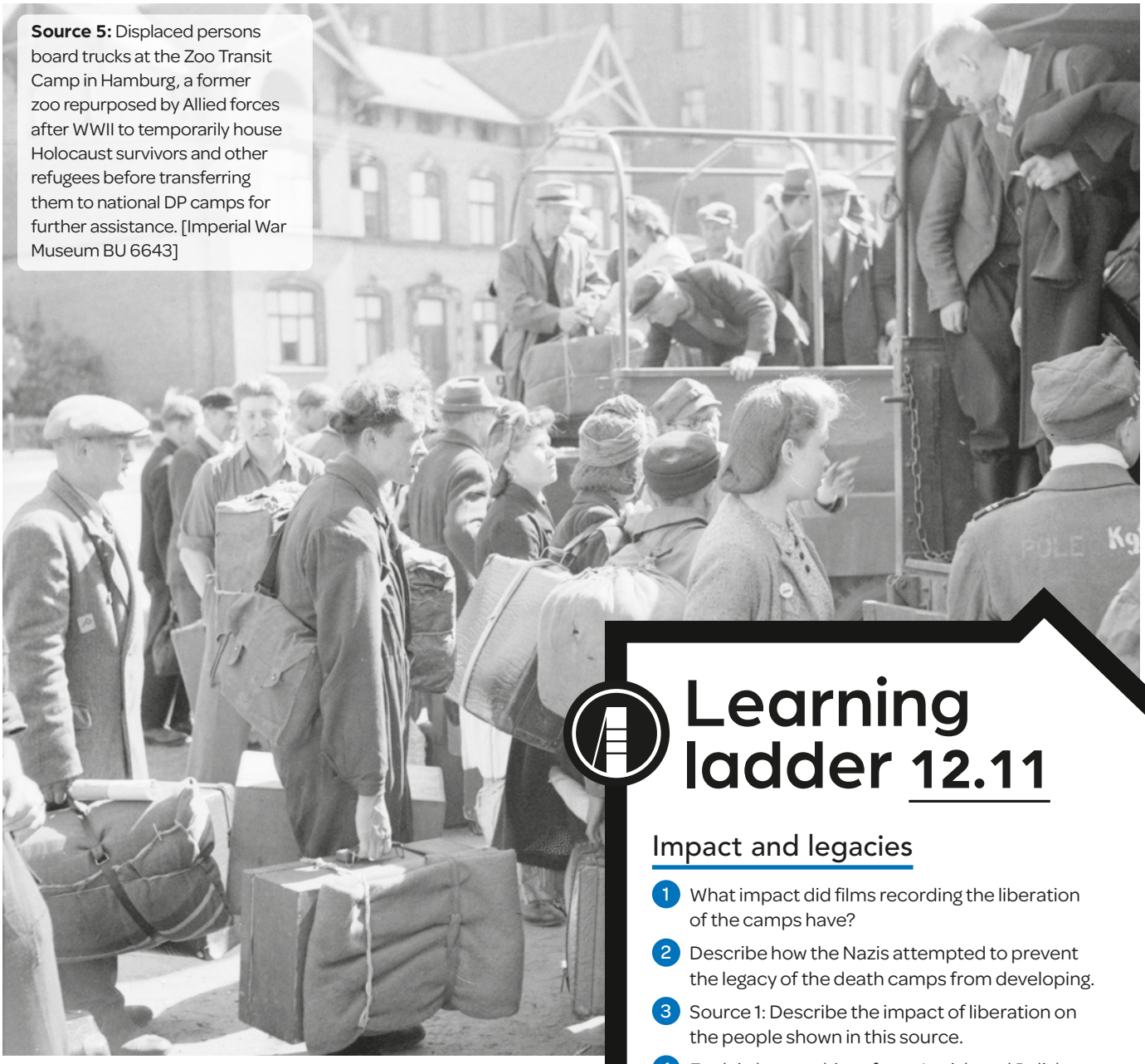
Life in the DP camps was also made worse because, Jewish people faced discrimination from some US officials, including General George Patton, a prominent US Army general, responsible for managing the aftermath of the war, including overseeing the DP camps. Under Patton's administration, reports emerged that some camps were being so poorly managed that the conditions were similar to under Nazi rule (Source 6).

Against this backdrop, the Jewish people looked for ways forwards. This often, but not always, took the form of emigration, including to the newly established State of Israel (1948):

- Israel – Hundreds of thousands of Jewish Holocaust survivors emigrated to Israel, where they helped to build the new state.
- Western countries – Hundreds of thousands more Jewish Holocaust survivors found new homes in countries like the United States (who took 80 000 **displaced** Holocaust survivors) and Australia (who took 27 000).
- Return to their homelands – Attempts were made to return to homelands in Poland, Hungary and Romania, but anti-Semitic hostility and resistance against survivors reclaiming property made this option difficult.



Source 4: Jewish displaced persons queue for bread rations at Bindermichl displaced persons camp in Linz, Austria. This DP camp was created after the war to house people from Mauthausen concentration camp.



Source 5: Displaced persons board trucks at the Zoo Transit Camp in Hamburg, a former zoo repurposed by Allied forces after WWII to temporarily house Holocaust survivors and other refugees before transferring them to national DP camps for further assistance. [Imperial War Museum BU 6643]

As matters now stand, we appear to be treating the Jews as the Nazis treated them except that we do not exterminate them. They are in concentration camps in large numbers under our military guard instead of SS troops. One is led to wonder whether the German people, seeing this, are not supposing that we are following or at least condoning Nazi policy.

Source 6: Earl Harrison, quoted by President Harry S. Truman in his 'Letter to General Eisenhower Concerning Conditions Facing Displaced Persons in Germany', 31 August 1945

Learning ladder 12.11

Impact and legacies

1. What impact did films recording the liberation of the camps have?
2. Describe how the Nazis attempted to prevent the legacy of the death camps from developing.
3. Source 1: Describe the impact of liberation on the people shown in this source.
4. Explain how archives from Jewish and Polish resistance movements, along with camp survivors' testimonies, contributed to the Holocaust's legacy.

Continuity and change

1. What changes had occurred in towns in Poland that made returning Jewish people unwelcome?
2. Describe the factors that led Jewish people to seek resettlement in their ancient homeland of *Eretz Yisrael*, the land of Israel.
3. Explain why harsh conditions continued for many displaced people after the camps were liberated.
4. Explain why many Jewish people were unable to resume their lives in their former homes after liberation.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

What is the legacy of the Holocaust?

Many survivors of the Holocaust migrated to Australia after World War II and these survivors became heavily involved in the Jewish community. Despite the horrible atrocities that they faced at the hands of the Nazis, they chose to rebuild their lives and families and to shine.

Some Holocaust survivors faced disbelief from relatives who could not understand what they had been through. As a result, survivors recorded testimonies of their experiences and donated any objects they had kept from their experience, such as Terezín money (Source 1). These records and objects have since become important evidence of what people endured. Holocaust museums were built in major communities across the world to bear witness to what had happened, including the Melbourne Holocaust Museum and the Sydney Jewish Museum.

After World War II, Jewish communities debated when and how they should remember the Holocaust. Judaism already had a special holiday – Tisha B'Av – on which the disasters of Jewish history (e.g. the destruction of Solomon's temple) are commemorated. However, the Holocaust was such an unprecedented event that many argued it should have its own day for commemoration.

Source 1: Terezín money used in the camps and ghettos. The Nazis would confiscate people's real money to keep for the Reich and issued Jewish people with this money, which was worthless in the outside world.

Over time, different communities have chosen different dates and ways to commemorate the Holocaust:

- The Israeli government chose the 27th of the Hebrew calendar month of Nisan as Yom HaShoah, or Holocaust Remembrance Day. Sirens are sounded across the country and everyone must stop what they are doing to observe two minutes' silence. No public entertainment is held and many venues are closed. All media broadcasts are related to the Holocaust and many survivors share their stories.
- Some Orthodox Jews adopted the fast day of the 10th of Tevet of the Hebrew calendar as their day for commemorating the Holocaust.
- Others remember the Holocaust as part of Tisha B'Av.
- In 2005, the UN declared 27 January as Holocaust Remembrance Day.

Some communities mark the above dates and commemorate the night of *Kristallnacht* as well. Jewish communities around the world follow Israel's example, holding assemblies in schools at which survivors tell their stories.

In 1953, the government of Israel also established a remembrance centre to commemorate the Holocaust called 'Yad Vashem', which means 'a place and a name'. It contains a museum, archives of historical artefacts and survivor testimonies. It is a memorial to the communities that perished. It also contains the Garden of the Righteous Among the Nations, where a Wall of Honour names those who came to the aid of Jews during the Holocaust. In 2010, Australian Yorta-Yorta man William Cooper was recognised for his attempts to draw attention to the Jewish plight (see 12.4); his grandson Alfred Turner, 'Uncle Boydie' attended the ceremony honouring his grandfather

Learning about the Holocaust is challenging, but vital. By learning what has happened in the past, we can redouble our efforts to ensure events like the Holocaust never happen again.

Source 2: People visit the Hall of Names at Yad Vashem in Jerusalem.

Learning ladder 12.12

Impact and legacies

1. What is Yad Vashem, and when was it established?
2. Describe the different dates on which the Holocaust is commemorated.
3. Explain how Yad Vashem aims to keep the legacy of those affected by the Holocaust alive.
4. Explain why Holocaust museums have been built around the world.

Significance

1. What is the significance of 27 January each year since 2005?
2. Describe how the Holocaust is commemorated in Israel on Holocaust Remembrance Day.
3. Why is the Holocaust historically significant?
4. Explain the challenges of commemorating the Holocaust.

Significance, page 504

HOW TO

12.13

How did survivors experience the Holocaust?

Peter Gaspar is a child survivor of the Holocaust. His story appears in the book, *Courage to Care: 28 Remarkable Stories of Rescue During World War II*.

I was born in Bratislava in 1937. I came from a middle-class family. Dad had a job as a mechanical engineer in an insurance company. Mum attended a Viennese academy of arts and crafts. In 1942, 40 of my grandparents, aunts, uncles and cousins were arrested and never seen again. They were killed in September 1942 at Auschwitz-Birkenau, which we found out later. We hid wherever we could. We even converted to Lutheran Christianity and hid with friends. In December 1944 we couldn't survive in hiding anymore and we gave ourselves up. We said to the police, 'We are Jews. Please arrest us!' and we were sent to a collection camp. Mum and I were separated from Dad at selection and put on a transport. We weren't told where we were going but ended up in Terezín. We did not know where Dad went.

I have always maintained that I was lucky. I was lucky that I was a child and did not understand what the possibilities were. I didn't understand the anxiety that my parents would have experienced. They lost their parents and family, who were shadowy figures to me and I hardly knew any of them. I was five years old when they were arrested. I have photos of relatives holding me as a baby. I was shielded from reality in many ways. I was told 'Peter, be good ... don't jump ... don't sneeze ... don't cough' when we were being searched for. To me it was a big game of hide and seek.

In Terezín in the barracks it was boring ... we were hungry ... we had to make our beds. We had three to a bed with one blanket. Then sweep the dorm. We had a bowl of soup and a crust of bread in the morning and evening. We were only allowed out of the barracks once a week, where I met my mother. She worked in the Dresden Barracks sewing uniforms.

In Terezín we were always hungry. I was in a boy home, which today is the Museum of Terezín. I was seven years old. There were not rows and rows of wooden barracks as at Auschwitz. Terezín was a walled town, with two fortresses. In the centre of town was a park. The cells for political prisoners looked very grim. The Ghetto of Terezín was a little town converted into a ghetto. Hitler had the town evacuated and he created a ghetto for Jews. The Propaganda Ministry claimed it as a home for Jews to be safe from the ravages of war. The film made there was called *Hitler gave Jews a City*. It was portrayed as a spa town for elderly Jews.

The Nazi Regime allowed the Red Cross into Terezín to check that the Jews were being treated well. In 1944 and 1945 when the International Red Cross visited, a show was put on where people were served coffee and people were told to buy bread. There was bread and mustard for sale which we would pretend to buy and then we walked around the corner to give the goods to soldiers and they were recycled.

Source 1: The Terezein concentration camp is now a memorial to the thousands of people who were murdered there.

We were liberated by the Red Army and sent home. We went back to our home in Bratislava. When we came back from Terezín, we caught the train. We found our house totally empty. The top floor apartment was reasonably clean. Mum and I settled down and wondered where the rest of the family were. We didn't know where Dad was or Mum's family (four sisters and one brother). A month later, Dad returned from Sachsenhausen, in his striped uniform from the camp. I had no idea about the uniform or what it meant ... A while later after that Mum's brother Paul ... came up the street to see us. Paul and Mum, Dad and I were the only survivors of a family of 44. He had been in Auschwitz and experienced its gruesome horrors. We set about returning to our lives. Dad went back to work when he recovered from years of starvation in the camps. He had been on a Death March from Sachsenhausen to Lubek, some 265 km in wooden clogs and the pyjama uniform in the middle of winter. He said that at one stage they carved meat off a dead horse that they found in a ditch.

We came to Australia in 1948 after the Communists took over [Czechoslovakia]. At that stage Dad said, 'We have survived Hitler; we are not going to try to survive Stalin'. My first school was in Brighton Rd near St Kilda town hall. We were in a class with kids of many nationalities speaking many languages. Of 17 kids there were 13 languages; none of us spoke English and the teacher spoke none of our languages. Then I was in Mentone Grammar in weatherboard dormitories that were different to those at Terezín. I had to board as Mum and Dad had three jobs but I have positive memories.

My first contact with Australian Jewish children came when I left Mentone Grammar for Melbourne High. My first real memory of going to a synagogue was in 1950. Dad walked me to Toorak Synagogue. It was totally foreign to me. Then nothing until I mixed with Jewish kids at Melbourne High.

In 1998, I went back to Terezín on a tour organised by a Jewish organisation. The guide and I were both survivors of Terezín. I walked into the boys' home to my dorm to the corner where my bed was. In 1998 I joined the B'nai Brith Courage to Care Exhibition ...

In my opinion, there are survivors who were trapped in the experience and it became a defining aspect of everything that they talked about or did. Then there were others who were so traumatised by what happened that they never talked about it at all, even to their children. My parents were somewhere in the middle. They could talk about it when asked but it did not dominate our lives. It may have dominated their inner lives. Psychologically my mother never recovered. It wasn't just about losing her family, but she lost her future. Dad would talk but he needed questions. Dad probably physically suffered more and my mother suffered more psychologically. I am married to Lesley; I have two children and have five grandchildren.

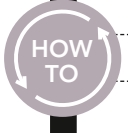
Learning ladder 12.13

Impact and legacies

1. Describe Peter's opinion on the different impacts of the Holocaust on survivors.
2. Explain why Peter felt the Holocaust's impact on him was less than its impact on his parents.
3. Explain how the Holocaust's impact differed for Peter's mother and father.
4. Evaluate Peter's legacy for future generations studying the Holocaust.

Chronology

1. Construct a timeline including the following events: Peter's birth, the arrest of Peter's relatives, Peter's family giving themselves up, Peter's time in Terezín, Peter's emigration to Australia, his first memory of going to a synagogue, and Peter's return to Terezín.
2. Use your timeline to determine how old Peter was when he:
   - **a** was placed in Terezín
   - **b** came to Australia
   - **c** returned to Terezín.
3. Place the following events in chronological order:
   - Czechoslovakia falls to the Communists
   - The Red Army liberates Terezín
   - Peter's uncle returns to Terezín
   - Peter's father returns to Terezín
   - Peter's father on a death march.
4. If your timeline were used as a source for understanding the Holocaust, how useful would it be? What are its limitations?



Chronology, page 490

Site study

How does the Sydney Jewish Museum commemorate Jewish lives?

The Sydney Jewish Museum was founded in 1992 to share memories and commemorate the 6 million Jewish people murdered in the Holocaust.

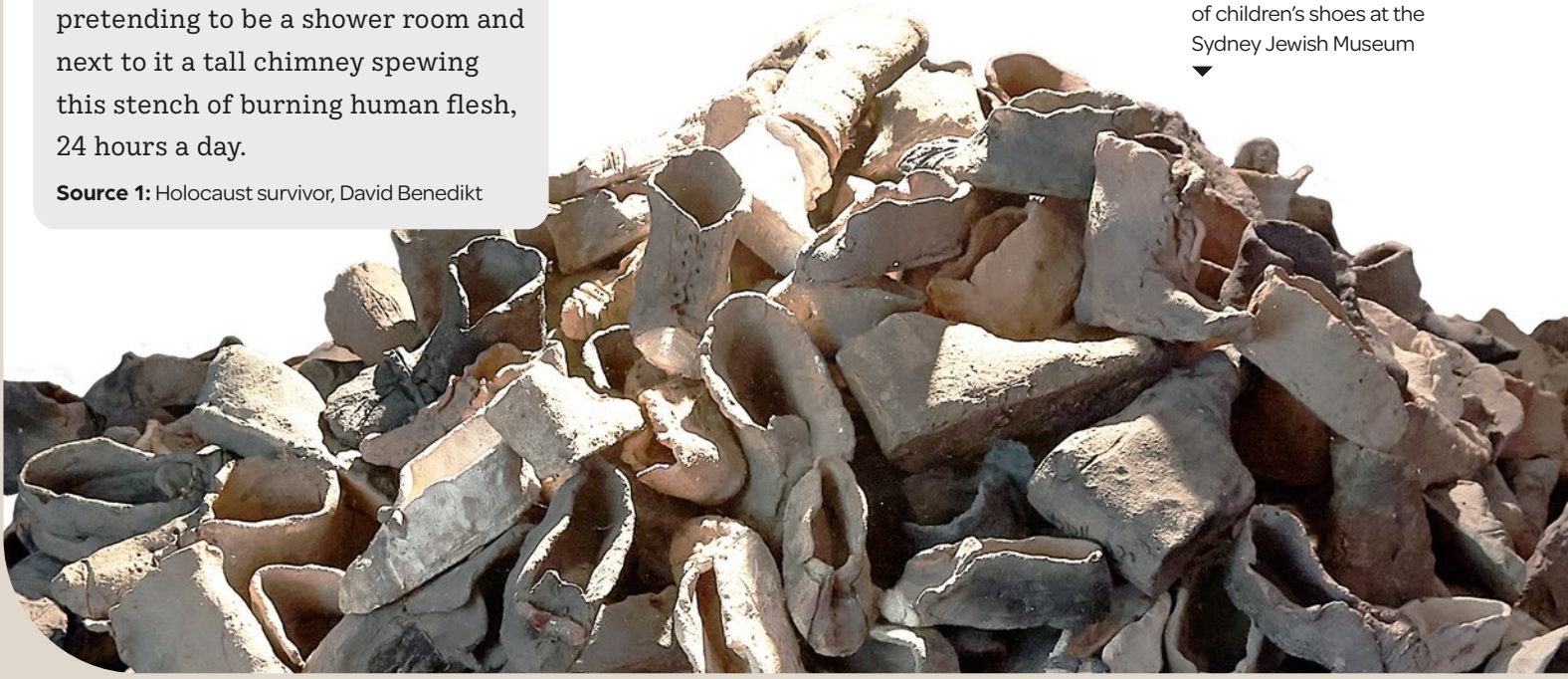
After World War II, many Holocaust survivors migrated to Australia, including to Sydney. In 1992, the Sydney Jewish Museum was founded by a generation of survivors from the Holocaust. It is located in Darlinghurst, near Kings Cross Station. This museum aims to preserve the memories, cultural life and heritage of Jewish people. It also provides an opportunity for survivors to share their stories with others in the hope of inspiring change in modern-day Australia.

> In the middle of the camp there was a heap of women's and children's shoes eight feet high ... and on the edge of the camp, fixed on the ground, a gas chamber pretending to be a shower room and next to it a tall chimney spewing this stench of burning human flesh, 24 hours a day.

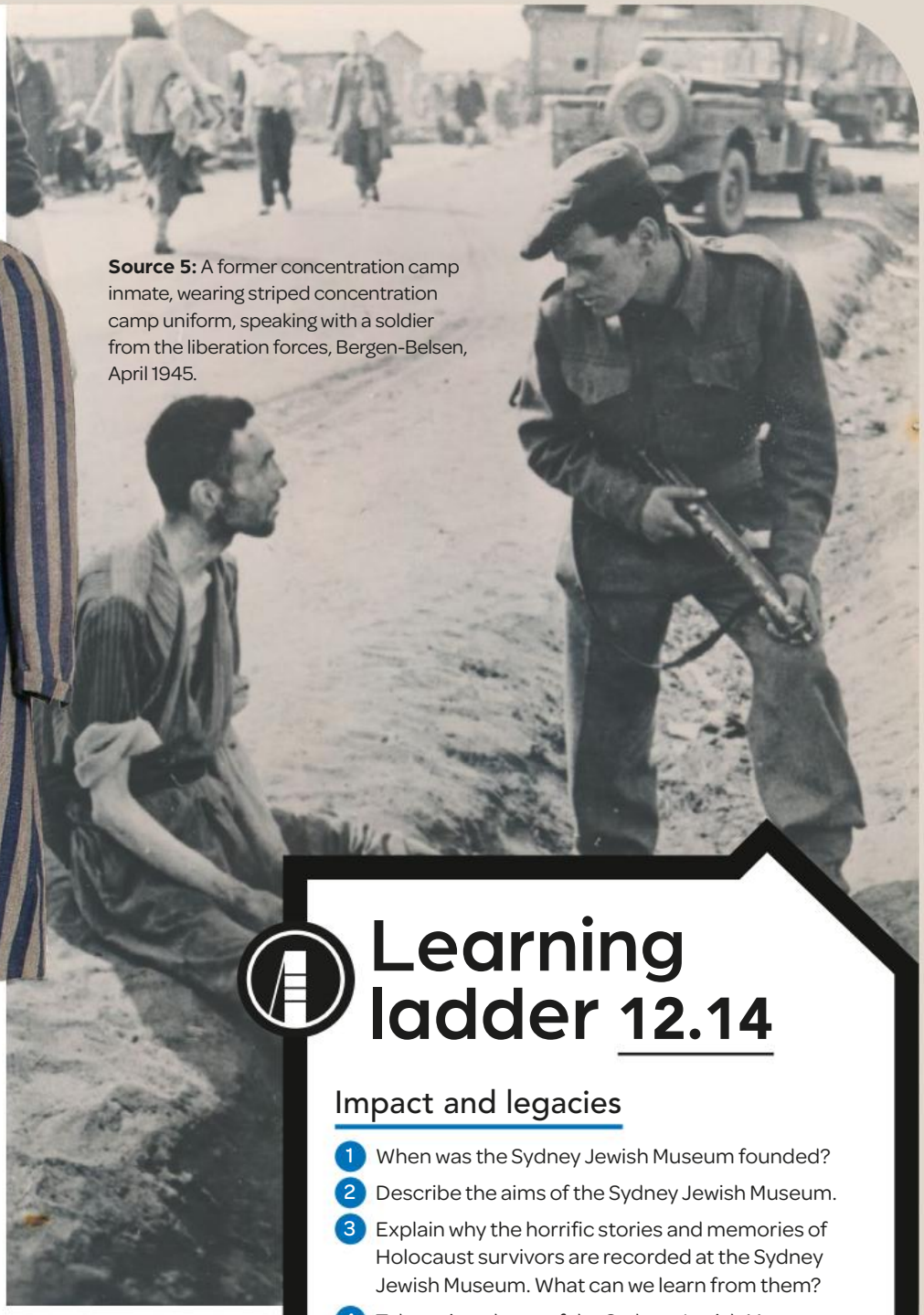
Source 1: Holocaust survivor, David Benedikt

Source 2: A charm made from metal in the Theresienstadt ghetto/ concentration camp

Source 3: The sculpture of children's shoes at the Sydney Jewish Museum



Source 4: Concentration camp shirts



Source 5: A former concentration camp inmate, wearing striped concentration camp uniform, speaking with a soldier from the liberation forces, Bergen-Belsen, April 1945.

Source 6: More charms made from metal in the Theresienstadt ghetto/concentration camp

Learning ladder 12.14

Impact and legacies

1. When was the Sydney Jewish Museum founded?
2. Describe the aims of the Sydney Jewish Museum.
3. Explain why the horrific stories and memories of Holocaust survivors are recorded at the Sydney Jewish Museum. What can we learn from them?
4. Take a virtual tour of the Sydney Jewish Museum online. Explain how the exhibits keep the legacy of the Holocaust and its survivors alive.

Source analysis

1. Sources 1–3: Which of these sources are primary, and which are secondary?
2. Source 4: Describe what is shown.
3. Sources 1 and 2: Explain how these sources may be useful to a historian studying the Holocaust.
4. Sources 4 and 5: Explain why these sources were selected for the museum's collection. How accurate, reliable and useful are they?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

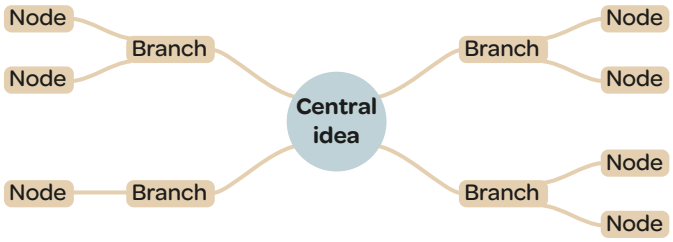
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to the Holocaust.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Aims of the Holocaust, 12.4
- Life in a ghetto, 12.5
- Life in a concentration camp, 12.6
- Operation T4, 12.8
- Resistance, 12.9
- Legacy of the Holocaust, 12.12

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Historical context 5 (core)

13

The modern world

HOW DID PROTEST MOVEMENTS CHANGE THE WORLD? 336

HOW DID TECHNOLOGY AFFECT PEOPLE'S LIVES? 344

WHAT WAS THE COLD WAR? 340

How can I understand the modern world?

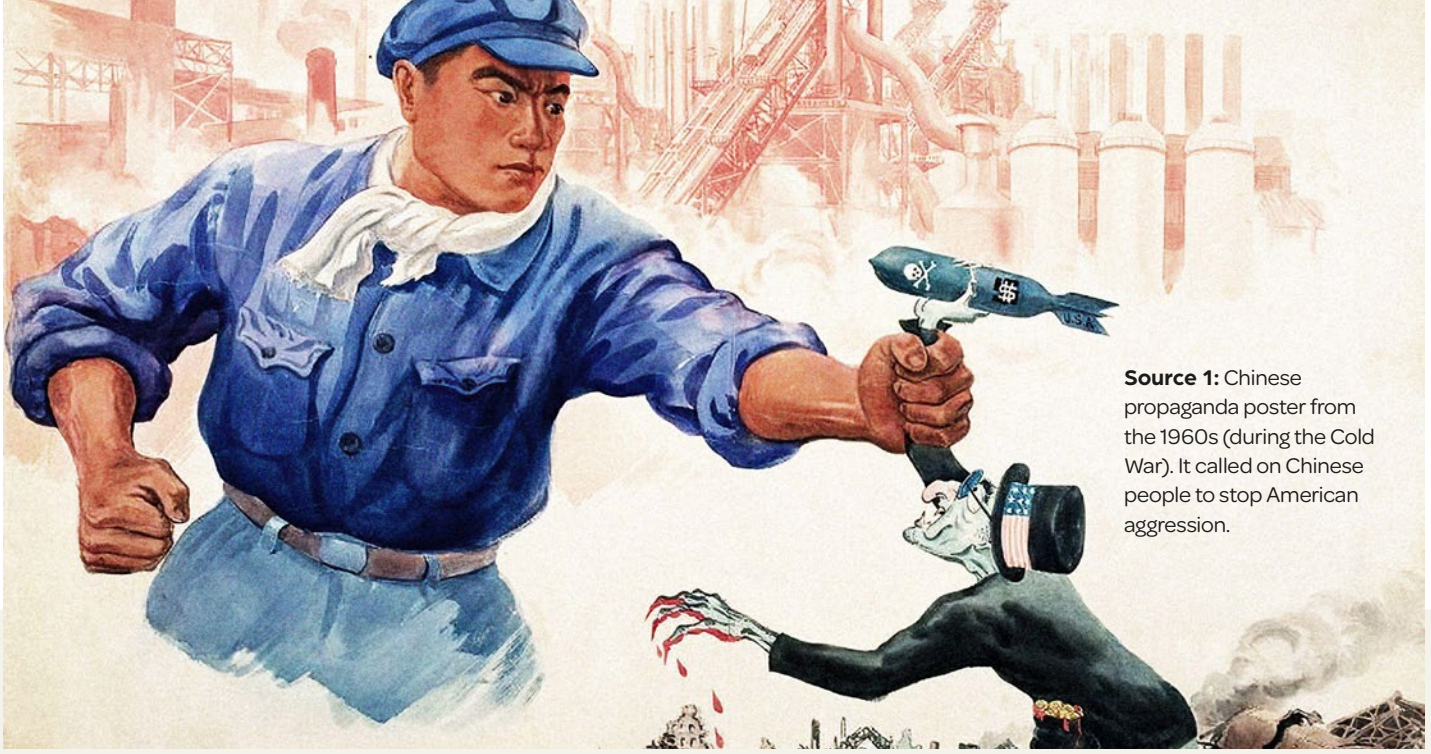
The period after World War II was characterised by the civilising of capitalism and the spread of Western human and civil rights. This was not only done by politicians and law-makers — popular political and cultural movements also brought about change.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding



Source 1: Chinese propaganda poster from the 1960s (during the Cold War). It called on Chinese people to stop American aggression.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

How did the United Nations help advance human rights?

The United Nations (UN) was established in 1945 to promote peace, security and human rights across the globe. One of its earliest achievements was the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. Over time, the UN has expanded its focus to address the rights of specific groups through additional declarations and conventions.

Formation of the United Nations

The suffering of so many civilians was a factor in the formation of the United Nations (UN) in 1945. One of the goals of the UN is to support peace and order across the globe and to work to prevent future outbreaks of large-scale conflict. The organisation also helps countries to work towards social progress, better living standards and human rights for all. The United Nations Charter, the founding treaty of the UN, lists the four main purposes of the organisation as:

- to keep peace throughout the world
- to develop friendly relations among nations
- to help nations work together to improve the lives of poor people, to conquer hunger, disease and illiteracy, and to encourage respect of each other's rights and freedoms
- to be a centre for **harmonising** the actions of nations to achieve these goals.

Source 1: Eleanor Roosevelt holding a Spanish-language version of the Declaration of Human Rights

United Nations Declaration of Human Rights

One of the first documents that the UN produced was its *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. This was the first codified universal declaration, supported by all the countries in the UN, aimed at protecting people's fundamental human rights.

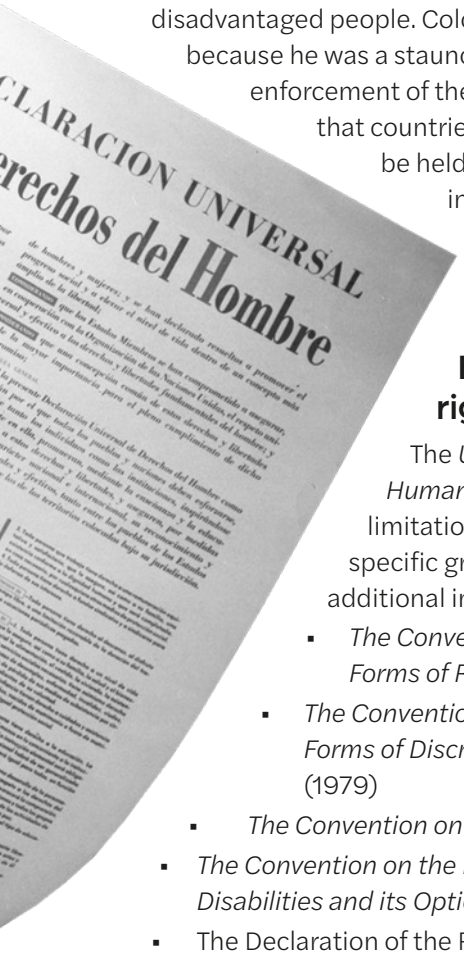
One of the most prominent people to help shape the declaration was Eleanor Roosevelt, the wife of former US president Franklin D. Roosevelt. She embarked on a political career in her own right and was a fierce advocate for feminism and civil rights. In 1946, the United States appointed Eleanor Roosevelt to represent it in the UN General Assembly. She used this new appointment to begin work on the declaration.

Other key women who contributed to the development of the declaration included Hansa Mehta and Lakshmi Menon from India, Minerva Bernardino from the Dominican Republic, Begum Ikramullah from Pakistan, Bodil Begtrup from Denmark, Marie-Hélène Lefaucheux from France and Evdokia Uralova from Belarus. Together, they fought hard to ensure that the language used in the declaration was inclusive and that sex discrimination was explicitly mentioned throughout. In this way, they made sure that the declaration supported women, children and people living in colonised countries.

Australia's involvement

Australia was a founding member-state of the UN and also played a significant role in creating the declaration as one of the nine countries selected to lead the project. Australia's delegates to help create the declaration were Dr Herbert Evatt, the head of Australia's delegation to the UN, and Colonel William Hodgson, the Australian Ambassador to the UN.

Dr Evatt championed **civil liberties** and freedoms, and the rights of economically and socially disadvantaged people. Colonel Hodgson was selected because he was a staunch advocate for the legal enforcement of the declaration and believed that countries that violated it should be held legally accountable. His influence helped to strengthen various articles that still work to protect our human rights today.



Expanding human rights

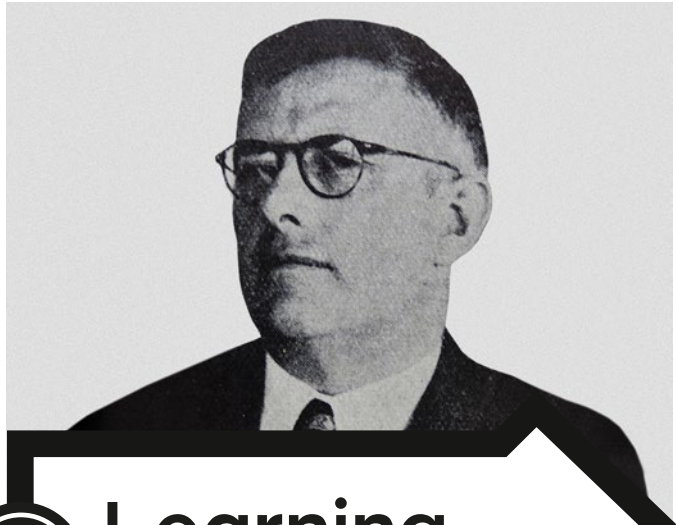
The *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* is not without its limitations. To cover the rights of specific groups, the UN has published additional instruments, including:

- *The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination* (1965)
- *The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women* (1979)
- *The Convention on the Rights of the Child* (1989)
- *The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and its Optional Protocol* (2006)
- The Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (2007).

These documents recognise the special status of these groups and the unique challenges and requirements they have to gain the same universal human rights as everyone else.

There is no doubt that this has been one of the most influential documents of the 20th and 21st centuries and certainly one that will continue to influence and shape the progression of civil rights into the future.

Source 2: Dr Herbert Evatt – one of Australia's chief contributors to the Declaration of Human Rights.



Learning ladder 13.1

Background and origins

1. Identify when the United Nations was established.
2. Describe the goals and purposes of the United Nations.
3. Explain the contributions of Eleanor Roosevelt and Herbert Evatt to the creation of the Declaration of Human Rights.
4. Explain the importance of the Declaration of Human Rights as a guiding document for societies.

Significance

1. Describe the significance of the establishment of the United Nations.
2. Explain how women played a significant role in developing the Declaration of Human Rights.
3. Explain why the development of conventions can be considered significant.
4. Evaluate the significance of Australia's involvement in the United Nations and the development of the Declaration of Human Rights.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

How have movements for rights and freedoms shaped the modern world?

Since 1945, the world has seen powerful movements fighting for equality, justice and the protection of human rights. From ending racial discrimination to advocating for gender equality, Indigenous rights and environmental justice, these movements have shaped the world we live in today.

Anti-colonial and independence movements (1945–1970s)

After World War II, many nations in Asia and Africa fought for freedom from European colonial rule. India gained independence from Britain in 1947, inspiring others like Ghana, Algeria and Kenya to follow. These movements often involved peaceful protests, such as Gandhi's nonviolent campaigns, or armed struggles, like Algeria's fight against France. By the 1970s, most colonies had gained independence, reshaping the world and empowering nations to govern themselves.

▲ **Source 1:** The Algerian War of Independence (1954–1962) against the French is considered one of the bloodiest **decolonisation** struggles in history, with massacres and other atrocities carried out by both sides.

key ideas timeline.

1947 – India and Pakistan achieve independence

1948 – Universal Declaration of Human Rights

1954 – *Brown v. Board of Education*

1955 – Bandung Conference for leaders of decolonised countries

1960 – 'Year of Africa' – 17 African states gain independence

1961 – Amnesty International founded

1963 – Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique*; Martin Luther King Jr's 'I have a dream' speech

1969 – Stonewall riots

1960s–1970s

Source 2: Martin Luther King Jr, a key leader of the American Civil Rights Movement, was known for his nonviolent resistance and iconic speeches. He played a critical role in securing support for civil rights legislation.

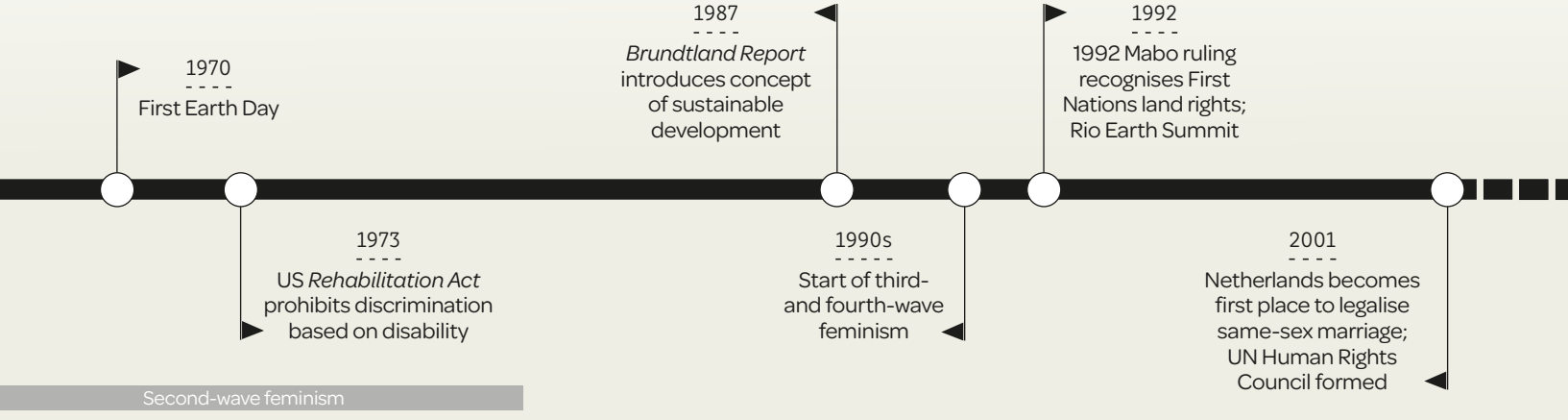
Civil rights movements (1945–1970s)

The Civil Rights Movement, particularly in the United States, was a fight for racial equality and justice. It aimed to end **segregation** and discrimination and ensure equal voting rights. Key events included peaceful protests like the Montgomery Bus Boycott and the March on Washington, where Martin Luther King Jr gave his famous 'I Have a Dream' speech. It led to landmark laws like the *Civil Rights Act* (1964) and *Voting Rights Act* (1965), which outlawed segregation and ensured voting rights for all.

Human rights advocacy (1948 – Present)

Human rights advocacy focuses on ensuring basic rights for all, such as freedom, equality and safety. It began with the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* in 1948, which set global standards. Campaigns have fought against issues like genocide, racial injustice and refugee crises. Groups like Amnesty International and movements like Black Lives Matter continue to promote justice and fairness worldwide.

Source 3: The growth of movements for rights and freedoms



13.2

Women's rights movements (1960s – Present)

The Women's rights movement pushed for gender equality in areas like work, education and healthcare. Starting in the 1960s, women began demanding equal pay, access to education and reproductive rights. Milestones included the legalisation of abortion in some countries and campaigns like #MeToo, which highlighted workplace harassment. Women's rights movements continue to fight for fairness, safety and equal opportunities globally.

▲ **Source 4:** Women marching on International Women's Day, Melbourne, 8 March 1975

LGBTQIA+ rightsmovements (1960s – Present)

The LGBTQIA+ rights movement works to ensure equal treatment and acceptance for people of all sexual orientations and gender identities. It began gaining momentum after the Stonewall Riots in 1969, where members of the LGBTQIA+ community protested against discrimination. Since then, progress has included decriminalising homosexuality, legalising same-sex marriage in many countries and recognising gender diversity. The movement continues to fight for equality and safety worldwide.

Source 5: Gay Rights demonstration protesting against arrests at the first Australian Mardi Gras, Martin Place, Sydney, 15 July 1978

Indigenous rights movements (1960s – Present)

Indigenous rights movements seek justice for Indigenous peoples, focusing on land rights, cultural preservation and **self-determination**. In Australia, movements like the 1967 Referendum and campaigns for Native Title aimed to recognise First Nations Peoples' rights. Globally, the UN *Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples* (2007) emphasised protecting Indigenous communities. These efforts continue today, advocating for respect and equality.

Environmental justice movements (1960s – Present)

Environmental justice movements address the harm caused by pollution and climate change, particularly to vulnerable communities. Inspired by Rachel Carson's book *Silent Spring* (1962), these movements led to events like Earth Day and international agreements like the Paris Agreement on climate change. Activists, including young leaders like Greta Thunberg, work to protect the planet for future generations.

Disability rights movement (1970s – Present)

The Disability rights movement fights for inclusion, **accessibility** and fairness for people with disabilities. In the 1970s, activists began pushing for equal treatment, leading to laws like the *Americans with Disabilities Act* (1990), which outlawed discrimination. The movement also promotes accessible buildings, technology and services, ensuring everyone can participate fully in society.

> Land rights means a spiritual and economic base, and the opportunity to once again become a self-determining people. We are not asking for land rights to be given or granted – we are demanding recognition of our rights to our own land. Land rights include religious, fishing, hunting and camping rights if currently forbidden on all relevant 'Crown' land. Land rights includes our right to refuse mining on any part of our land.

Source 6: Ross Watson, a Murri man, explains land rights from an Aboriginal perspective, quoted in *'Aboriginal Land Rights', Creative Spirits*.

▲ **Source 7:** Protest for access to public transportation, San Francisco, California, 1978

Learning ladder 13.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Martin Luther King Jr?
2. Describe the aims of the women's rights movements.
3. Describe the focus of the Indigenous rights movements.
4. Explain how societies have been influenced by the rights and freedoms movements from the 1960s.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

Chronology

1. What event marked the start of the postwar anti-colonial movement?
2. Create a timeline of five key moments in rights and freedoms movements from 1945 to the present.
3. Describe how rights movements have developed from the 1940s to the present.
4. Evaluate how understanding the order of events helps us better understand the global struggle for rights and freedoms.

13.3

What was the Cold War?

The Cold War (1945–1991) was a period of political, military and ideological rivalry between the United States and the USSR. It was fought through a nuclear arms race, espionage and proxy wars, but without direct military conflict between the two superpowers.

Communism, capitalism and Cold War

Communism is a political movement that originated in the writings of the German economist Karl Marx (1818–1883). In 1917, Vladimir Lenin led a successful revolution in Russia that created a communist state, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), also known as the Soviet Union. Lenin also established the Communist International, an organisation to assist the spread of communism throughout the world. In a true communist system, there is no private ownership of business or property. All the country's wealth is owned and shared among the population and production is planned by the government. Everyone, in theory, is equal and no-one profits from another person. There is only one political party – the Communist Party.

The opposing economic and political system to communism is capitalism. The features of capitalism are private ownership of resources and property (capital), and a free market where making a profit is the key motivation for businesses. Capitalist countries are also associated with democracy and freedom. After World War II, the United States was viewed as the champion of capitalism and its policy of containing the spread of communism strongly influenced foreign relations.

With the defeat of Nazi Germany the cooperation between the USSR and the United States ended, leaving the world divided into two opposing groups – supporters of communism and supporters of capitalism. Each side was suspicious of the other and started forming alliances.

In 1949, the United States brought together Belgium, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands and Canada into the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO).

The countries the USSR liberated from Nazi control, including Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland and Romania, formed the Eastern Bloc. In 1955, they were brought together in a military alliance called the **Warsaw Pact**.

Source 1: Berlin airlift, 1948–1949. West Berliners eagerly await delivery of essential foods and fuel.

In 1948, tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union escalated when Russia blocked a vital road corridor into West Berlin, cutting off the city's food and fuel. In response, the United States and Britain initiated a massive airlift to supply the city, with planes landing every 45 seconds at its peak. Russia lifted the blockade the following year.

This event showed the divide between the opposing superpowers and that neither side was prepared to directly engage in combat. Both feared such a war could lead to the use of atomic weapons. This marks the beginning of the **Cold War**, in which direct conflict was replaced by the tactics of:

- propaganda
- spies
- an arms race
- a space race
- **proxy wars** (supporting conflicts in other countries with the aim of spreading or containing communism).

Cold War chronology

1945 Australia is involved in establishing the United Nations

1946 United Nations approves Australian trusteeship of mandated territories Papua and New Guinea

British PM Churchill makes his 'Iron Curtain' speech

1947 President Truman announces the US would support the 'free peoples' to resist communist control

Stalin establishes Cominform to bring together communist states

US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) formed

1948 Berlin Blockade commences in June – ends in May 1949

1949 Mao Zedong attains full control over all of China, ending civil war and creating communist China

Australian Security Intelligence Organisation (ASIO) formed

North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) formed by the USA and European countries

1950 Australia joins US and UN forces in war in Korea

1951 Australia, New Zealand and United States Treaty (ANZUS) is signed

Launch of the Colombo Plan, which sought to provide economic stability in south and South-East Asia, based on the idea that poverty created communism

1952 Australia signs the Southeast Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO) treaty with the US, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, France, Thailand, Pakistan and the Philippines

1954 Australia signs the South-East Asia Collective Defense Treaty against communist aggression

Petrov Affair commences in Australia

1956 First British atomic bomb test in Australia at Maralinga

1960 Federal government agrees to allow the United States to set up satellite-tracking stations in Australia

1961 Berlin Wall is erected, dividing East and West Berlin to stop defectors from the East

1962 Cuban missile crisis; confrontation between Cuba, the USSR and the US over the construction of Soviet missile bases in Cuba; danger of nuclear war

Start of Australian involvement in the Vietnam War

1963 US naval communication station established at North West Cape, Western Australia

1967 Britain withdraw from all countries east of Suez

Australian–United States space installation at Pine Gap

1971 Australia signs defence pact with Singapore, Malaysia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom

1972 Withdrawal of Australian troops from Vietnam

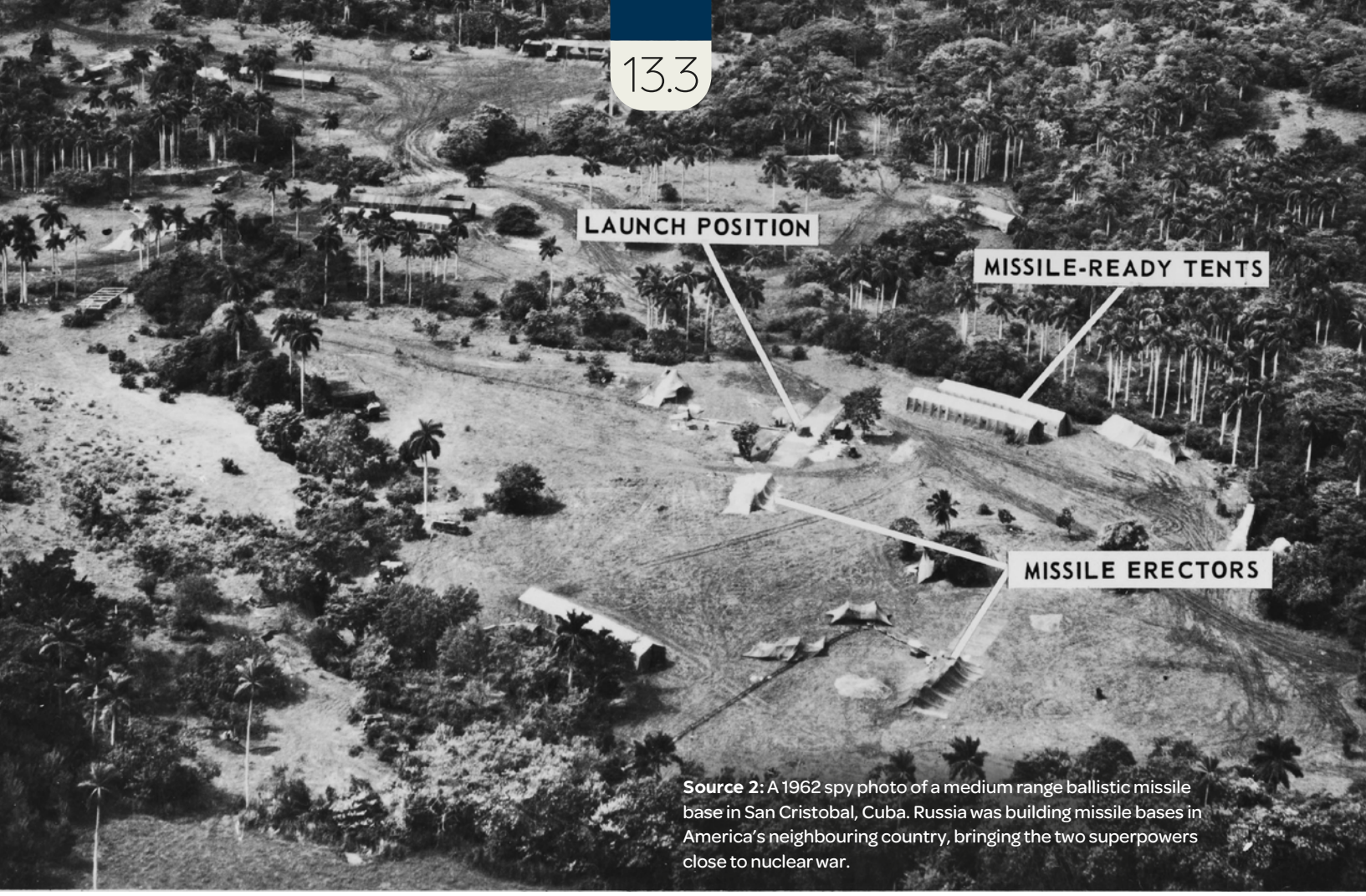
1974 SEATO is dissolved on the grounds that it is a 'vestige of the Cold War'

1980 Gdansk shipyard strikes in Poland eventually lead to communist government being forced from power

1986 USSR leader Mikhail Gorbachev announces the policies of *perestroika* (reform) and *glasnost* (openness), which will lead to the end of the Cold War

1989 East German Government announces the Berlin Wall will come down

1991 The USSR dissolves and breaks into independent states, ending the Cold War



Source 2: A 1962 spy photo of a medium range ballistic missile base in San Cristobal, Cuba. Russia was building missile bases in America's neighbouring country, bringing the two superpowers close to nuclear war.

Conflicts in the Cold War

Although the Soviet Union and the United States did not fight each other directly, they did engage in proxy wars in smaller countries, lending their support to the side that favoured their ideology (Source 3). America believed communism needed to be contained and that if one country fell to communism, neighbouring countries would soon fall. This was known as the **Domino Theory**.

Australia, an ally of the United States of America, became involved in the Cold War through participation in the Korean and Vietnam Wars.

- Over 17 000 Australians served during the Korean War, of which 340 were killed, over 1 200 were wounded and 30 became prisoners of war. Neither side achieved victory, and Korea remains divided to this day.
- Over 60 000 Australians served in the Vietnam War, of which 523 died and almost 2400 were wounded. As the war dragged on, Australia's involvement sparked domestic political divisions, with many people opposing the war.

  Australia withdrew its troops in 1973, and two years later the war ended with the fall of Saigon and the communist unification of Vietnam.

Who won the Cold War?

The collapse of the USSR in 1991 marked the end of the Cold War. The USSR disintegrated into separate states and the countries it had controlled became independent. Communism had not spread and capitalism survives in most countries in the world. However, the question of who won is debated among historians.

The United States claims it won, because the USSR and the Warsaw Pact fell apart. However, this perspective ignores communism remaining the political basis in countries such as China, Cuba, Vietnam and North Korea. In 1991, America stood as the world's only superpower but by the 21st century communist China had emerged as a formidable rival.

An alternative viewpoint is that the USSR defeated itself. This view holds that it was the people living under communism who rose up against it and thus ended the Cold War.

For those who lived during the Cold War and its constant threat of nuclear destruction, its end brought a great sense of relief.

Key conflicts during the Cold War

	What happened?	Australia's involvement
Korean War (1950–1953)	Fought between communist North Korea, backed by China and the Soviet Union, and non-communist South Korea, supported by the United States and United Nations forces.	Australia joined the Korean War as part of the United Nations forces, providing troops, ships and aircraft to support South Korea against the communist invasion.
Vietnam War (1953–1975)	Fought between communist North Vietnam, supported by the Soviet Union and China, and non-communist South Vietnam, backed by the United States and its allies.	Australia participated in the Vietnam War during 1962–1973 alongside the United States. It sent troops, aircraft and naval support to assist South Vietnam against the communist forces.
Cuban Missile Crisis, 1962	A 13-day standoff between the United States and the Soviet Union over Soviet nuclear missiles placed in Cuba, bringing the world to the brink of nuclear war.	The crisis heightened Australia's concerns about the threat of nuclear war and strengthened its security alliances with the United States.

Source 3: The struggle between the United States and the USSR played out in a range of conflicts, some of which had a direct impact on Australians.

Source 4: Berlin's communist and democratic halves were reunited in 1989 when the Berlin Wall separating the city was torn down. This event was part of the 'thawing' of the Cold War.

Learning ladder 13.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was the Communist International?
2. Describe three differences between communism and capitalism.
3. Explain how the Berlin Blockade and Cuban Missile Crisis are examples of Cold War brinkmanship.
4. Evaluate the influence of the Cold War on societies at the time.

Perspectives

1. Describe, from a capitalist perspective, the view of communism during the Cold War.
2. Source 3: How does this source help to explain Australia's perspective during the Cold War?
3. Explain the perspective that countries such as China, Cuba and North Korea might have on the outcome of the Cold War.
4. There are two views on why the Cold War ended. One is that America (capitalism) defeated the Soviet Union (communism); the other is that communism defeated itself. Which perspective do you support and why?

HOW TO
Perspectives, page 502

How did new technologies change people's lives?

The aftermath of World War II marked an era of unprecedented technological advancements that transformed society. From medical breakthroughs to household conveniences, transportation and communication, these innovations reshaped daily life, improving living standards and expanding opportunities for millions worldwide.

Medical innovations

The postwar period saw significant strides in medical technology, leading to improved public health. The mass production of **penicillin** made effective treatments for bacterial infections widely accessible, saving countless lives. Vaccines for influenza and later polio eradicated diseases that had previously caused widespread suffering. These advancements not only increased life expectancy but also enhanced the quality of life for many.

Source 1: Advances in medicine after World War II led to the development of a vaccine to prevent polio in the 1950s. In this photograph, schoolgirls in Sydney are being vaccinated for polio, 1956.

Everyday convenience

Technological progress brought an array of new consumer goods that revolutionised domestic life. Household appliances like the Sunbeam Mixmaster made tasks such as baking and cooking more efficient, reducing the burden on homemakers. Disposable aerosol cans, originally developed for military use, became popular for household insecticides like Mortein, improving hygiene and comfort. These innovations, coupled with persuasive advertising, embedded technology into everyday routines. They also fed into increasing **consumerism** (Source 2).

> Our enormously productive economy demands that we make consumption our way of life, that we convert the buying and use of goods into rituals, that we seek our spiritual satisfaction, our ego satisfaction, in consumption ... We need things consumed, burned up, replaced and discarded at an ever-accelerating rate ...
>
> **Source 2:** Victor Lebow, US market analyst, 1955

▲ **Source 3:** Australian advertisement for Mortein, 1957

Source 4: Sydney jockey Athol Mulley at home in Strathfield with his family, 18 April 1957. Television was only introduced in Australia in 1956. By the end of the 1960s, around half of Australian households owned a TV set.

Source 5: As more people started to travel by car, motels sprung up to accommodate them.

Transportation evolution

The development of the jet engine and its adaptation for civilian aeroplanes revolutionised air travel, making global destinations more accessible. On the ground, affordable cars, such as Australia's locally produced Holden, became symbols of personal freedom and economic progress. The rise in car ownership connected communities and facilitated tourism.

To meet the needs of the greater number of people travelling Australia's roads, motels started to spring up around the country. The Lansdowne Bridge Motel on the Hume Highway in south-western Sydney is generally considered the first motel in Australia.

Communication and information technology

The war's technological demands led to groundbreaking advancements in computing and communication. Early **programmable computers**, such as ENIAC and AVIDAC, laid the foundation for the digital age, enabling faster and more accurate data processing. While men designed and built these early computers, women were often the programmers (Source 7).

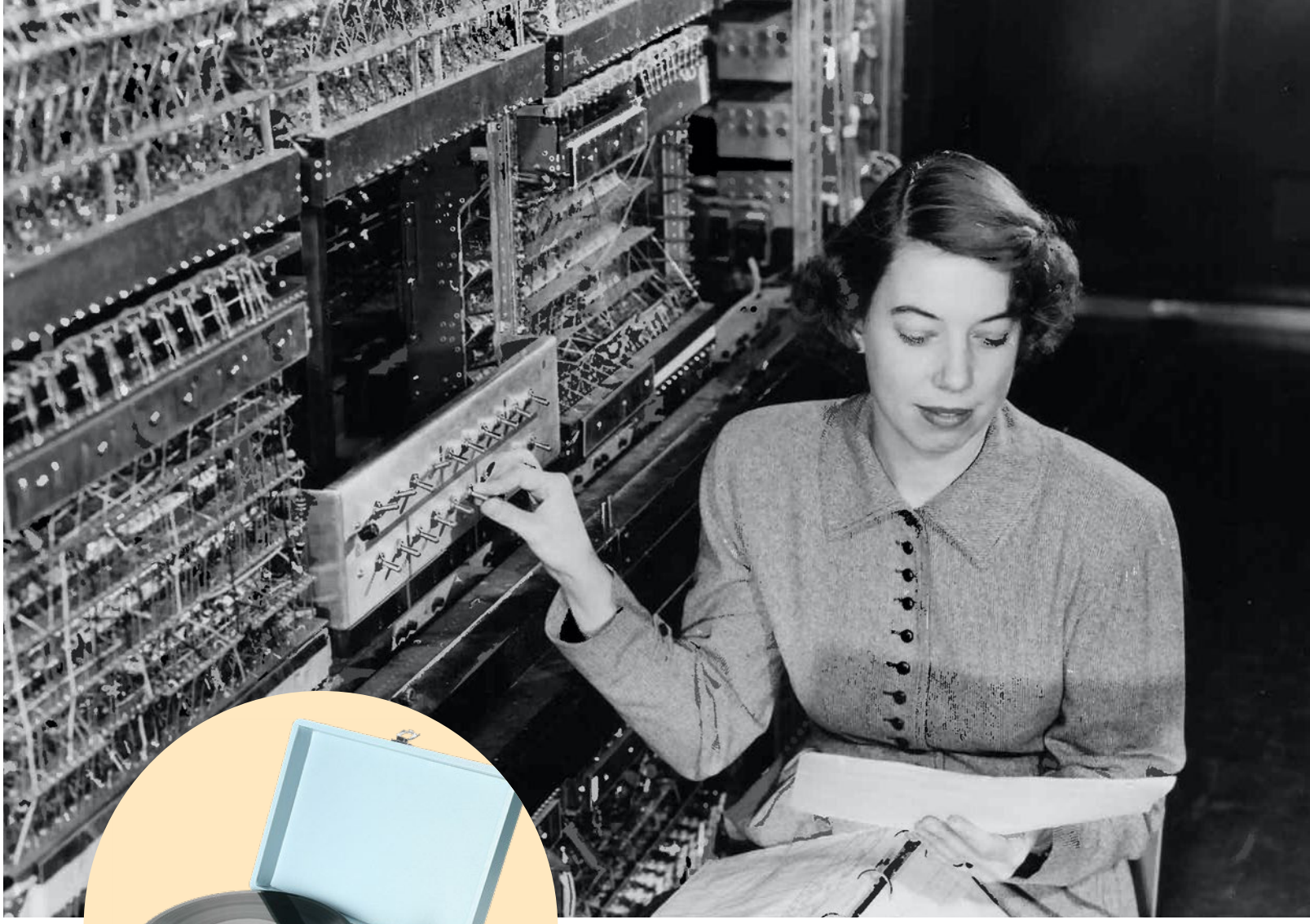
The invention of the **transistor** revolutionised electronics, making portable radios, record players and televisions widely available, which in turn transformed entertainment and information consumption. These innovations eventually paved the way for the modern internet.

Space and global connectivity

The Cold War's **space race** drove rapid technological innovation, exemplified by the launch of Sputnik I by the USSR and Explorer I by the United States. These milestones led to advancements in satellite communications, culminating in international systems like INTELSAT that bridged global communication gaps. This connectivity influenced everything from business to culture.

Cultural shifts

Advances in technology also redefined leisure and entertainment. Portable record players and 45-rpm records brought music into the hands of teenagers, shaping youth culture and creating new markets. Television, introduced in Australia in 1956, became a central feature of family life, offering entertainment and exposure to global events, predominantly influenced by American culture.



Source 6: Portable record players made listening to music more accessible than ever, especially for teenagers.

Source 7: AVIDAC was an early digital computer which began operating in 1953. Pictured here, with AVIDAC, is pioneer computer programmer Jean F. Hall. [Photo courtesy of Argonne National Laboratory]

Learning ladder 13.4

Impact and legacies

1. What was the impact of World War II on creating changes to people's lives in the 1950s and 1960s?
2. Describe how people's lives changed in the 1950s and 1960s.
3. Explain why consumerism was important to both business and the government in the United States post-World War II.
4. Explain why the degree of change to people's lives depended on who you were.
5. Evaluate the legacy of post-World War II technology on life today.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: What does this source show about medical care in the 1950s?
2. Source 3: Describe what this advertisement suggests about domestic life in the 1950s.
3. Sources 2 and 4: How do these sources reflect changing ideas about consumption and family life?
4. Sources 3–7: How reliable and complete are these sources as evidence of how postwar technology changed people's everyday lives?

Source analysis, page 493

HOW TO

13.5

How have migrants contributed to post–WWII Australia?

At the end of World War II, 10 per cent of Australia's 7.4 million people were born overseas. From this time on, immigration was to become the main source of population growth. Unlike the 19th century, when most immigrants came from the United Kingdom, immigrants were to come from a far more diverse range of countries.

Immigration to Australia

After 1945, people initially came to Australia because of the destruction and displacement caused by World War II. They also came in response to migration schemes and rigorous government advertising campaigns aimed at attracting migrants. There were also other reasons. For example, Greeks arrived to escape the unemployment and poverty caused by the Greek Civil War (1946–1949). At first immigrants came by boat. From the 1970s, they arrived by aeroplane.

Food culture

Food is fundamental to the history of communities and societies. Where food is grown, how it is distributed, who sells it, who buys it, who cooks and eats it and why all shape food culture. In Australia, different ethnic communities have contributed enormously not only to broadening Australians' tastes, but to shaping horticultural landscapes (where things are grown) as well as urban and suburban landscapes, through the opening of shops, cafes and restaurants. Source 2 discusses Italian contributions to food culture in Australia.

Source 1: The Buda family's Italian fruit shop in Sylvania, Sydney, 1965. [Paul Ashton collection]

Political culture

By the early 1970s, the impact of post-WWII migration had profoundly changed Australia's demography. The old practice of **assimilation** was no longer workable and a new ideology for settling people in Australia and minimising social conflict was needed. **Multiculturalism** by introduced by the Whitlam Labor Government from the early 1970s.

Multiculturalism was embraced by many people as a symbol of a more mature, diverse and welcoming Australia. But it also polarised Australian society. On the one hand, there were those who wanted to support and promote ethnic diversity. On the other were people who saw multiculturalism as a threat to 'traditional Australia' and to British heritage. Reactions against multiculturalism tended to become fiercer during times of economic recession and rapid globalisation. Right-wing responses have included the dismantling of services and the rise of populist and reactionary political parties. For example, the One Nation Party, formed in 1996, had few coherent policies, was anti-Asian and appealed in particular to people in parts of rural Australia that were in severe economic trouble.

> Prior to the 1950s Italian fruiterers catered to their Australian clientele's needs with lettuce, tomatoes, peas, beans, potatoes, carrots ... Fruiterers purchased 'Italian' vegetables predominately for their own family table ...
>
> With the influx of European migrants after World War II ... Italian fruiterers introduced eggplants, zucchinis, garlic, artichokes, endives, capsicums and peppers into their shops to cater for the growing demand from migrant families.
>
> From the 1950s and 1960s, young, educated Australians, many of whom had travelled Europe and acquired a taste for European cuisine, opened up a demand for Italian food in restaurants and delicatessens ... produce markets and fruit shops.
>
> **Source 2:** Ouranita Karadimas (2002), 'Daylight to Dusk: A History of Sydney's Italian Fruit Shops', *Locality*, Spring, p. 11.

Economic and other contributions

Migrants have significantly contributed to Australia's economic growth by filling labour gaps, bringing entrepreneurial skills and fostering innovation. They have played a key role in education, research and sports, and have excelled in various fields, from medicine and engineering to the arts. Skilled migrants have also contributed to sectors like healthcare, social services and community support, enriching Australia's workforce and society. Despite this, multiculturalism has not gained consistent political support from either of Australia's main parties.

Learning ladder 13.5

Background and origins

1. What was the origin of immigration to Australia after 1945?
2. Source 2: Describe how Italian migrants influenced changes in food habits in Australia.
3. Explain the origins of multiculturalism and the differing views of this policy.
4. Evaluate the contribution of migrants to post-World War II Australian society.
5. Evaluate how the idea of multiculturalism influenced Australian society in the decades after World War II.

Continuity and change

1. After 1945, what changed in the source of Australia's migrants?
2. Describe the economic contributions of migrants to Australia.
3. Explain how those opposed to multiculturalism wished to maintain continuity in Australian society.
4. Evaluate the impact of migrants on changing Australia in the post-World War II era.
5. Evaluate differing perspectives on multiculturalism in postwar Australia and how they reflect broader social or economic concerns.

Continuity and change, page 495

13.6

How did awareness of environmental and sustainability issues develop?

After World War II, rapid industrial growth and urbanisation led to growing concern about pollution, deforestation and the overuse of natural resources. These problems became more obvious, encouraging people to think about sustainability.

The rise of environmental awareness

In the 1960s, environmental awareness increased. A major turning point was the publication of *Silent Spring* by Rachel Carson in 1962. The book warned about the dangers of pesticides like DDT and their impact on wildlife. It helped raise public concern and led to tighter chemical regulations.

In the early 1970s, groups like Greenpeace began campaigning to protect ecosystems and reduce pollution. Environmental activism made people more aware of how human actions affect the planet. Governments and individuals started to consider the long-term effects of development.

Changing behaviour

As awareness spread, people began changing their behaviour. Recycling became part of everyday life in many countries. People started using less energy and looking for cleaner options like solar and wind power in an effort to reduce their **carbon footprints**. Environmental responsibility became more common, influencing consumer choices and government policy.

Key environmental issues

Industrial growth led to several major environmental problems. Pollution from factories and vehicles caused serious health and environmental issues, with cities like London and Los Angeles experiencing dangerous levels of **smog**. **Deforestation** also became widespread as land was cleared for farming and urban expansion. This loss of forests reduced **biodiversity** and increased carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, contributing to climate change.

By the 1970s, scientists had begun to link human activities to global warming. They showed that burning fossil fuels and clearing forests released greenhouse gases, causing global temperatures to rise. **Resource depletion** also became a concern, prompting efforts to find more **sustainable** alternatives.

Source 1: DDT was widely used after WWII. This 1945 photo shows it being sprayed on a beach in New York. DDT stays in the environment and harms marine life, birds and even humans.

Australia's role in the global environmental movement

Australia's unique ecosystems and vast natural resources have made environmental issues particularly important. One of the most significant concerns is the preservation of the Great Barrier Reef, which faces threats from pollution, coral bleaching, agricultural runoff and coastal development.

Australia has also experienced deforestation, prolonged droughts and severe bushfires. These events have raised public awareness about environmental problems and their long-term effects.

In response, many Australians have changed their daily habits. Recycling is now common in most households, and there is growing support for renewable energy such as solar and wind. Activism has played a role, from the Franklin River protests to recent student climate strikes.

Governments have introduced planning measures, emissions targets and conservation programs. However, some remain pessimistic about the future due to political inaction, economic pressures and the worsening effects of climate change (Source 3).

Source 2: After World War II, palm oil plantations expanded in places like Indonesia and Malaysia. This caused widespread deforestation.

> In this age of rapidly melting glaciers, terrifying megafires and ever more puissant hurricanes, of acidifying and rising oceans, it is hard to believe that any further prod to climate action is needed.
>
> But the reality is that we continue to live in a business-as-usual world. Our media is filled with enthusiastic announcements about new fossil fuel projects, or the unveiling of the latest fossil-fuelled supercar, as if there's no relationship between such things and climate change.
>
> In Australia, the disconnect among our political leaders on the deadly nature of fossil fuels is particularly breathtaking.

Source 3: Tim Flannery (2019), 'The Gloves Are Off: 'Predatory' Climate Deniers Are a Threat to Our Children', *The Conversation*.

Learning ladder 13.6

Significant people, events and ideas

1. When was Greenpeace established and what is its purpose?
2. Describe the environmental challenges that resulted from industrial growth.
3. Explain the idea of global climate change and its causes.
4. Source 3: Evaluate the extent to which ideas about climate change are impacting on society.
5. Evaluate the role of environmental movements in shaping Australia's shift towards sustainable practices and political debate since the 1970s.

Cause and effect

1. What caused increased environmental concerns after World War II?
2. Describe the effect of the publication of *Silent Spring* on public opinion about the environment.
3. Explain how increased industrialisation and vehicles impacted on the environment.
4. Source 2: Explain the causes of deforestation and its effect on climate change.
5. Analyse how the causes of climate change have triggered both local and global changes in policy, activism and public behaviour.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

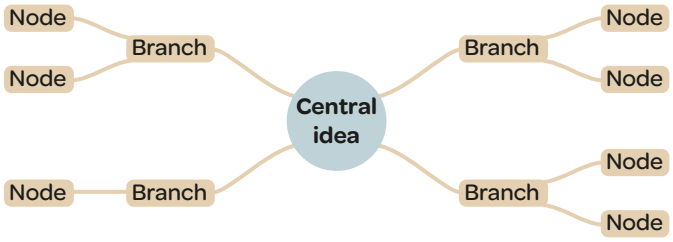
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships, and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to the modern world.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- The UN and human rights, 13.1
- Movements for rights and freedoms, 13.2
- The Cold War, 13.3
- Changing technologies, 13.4
- Migrant contributions, 13.5
- Development of environmental awareness, 13.6

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative (see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

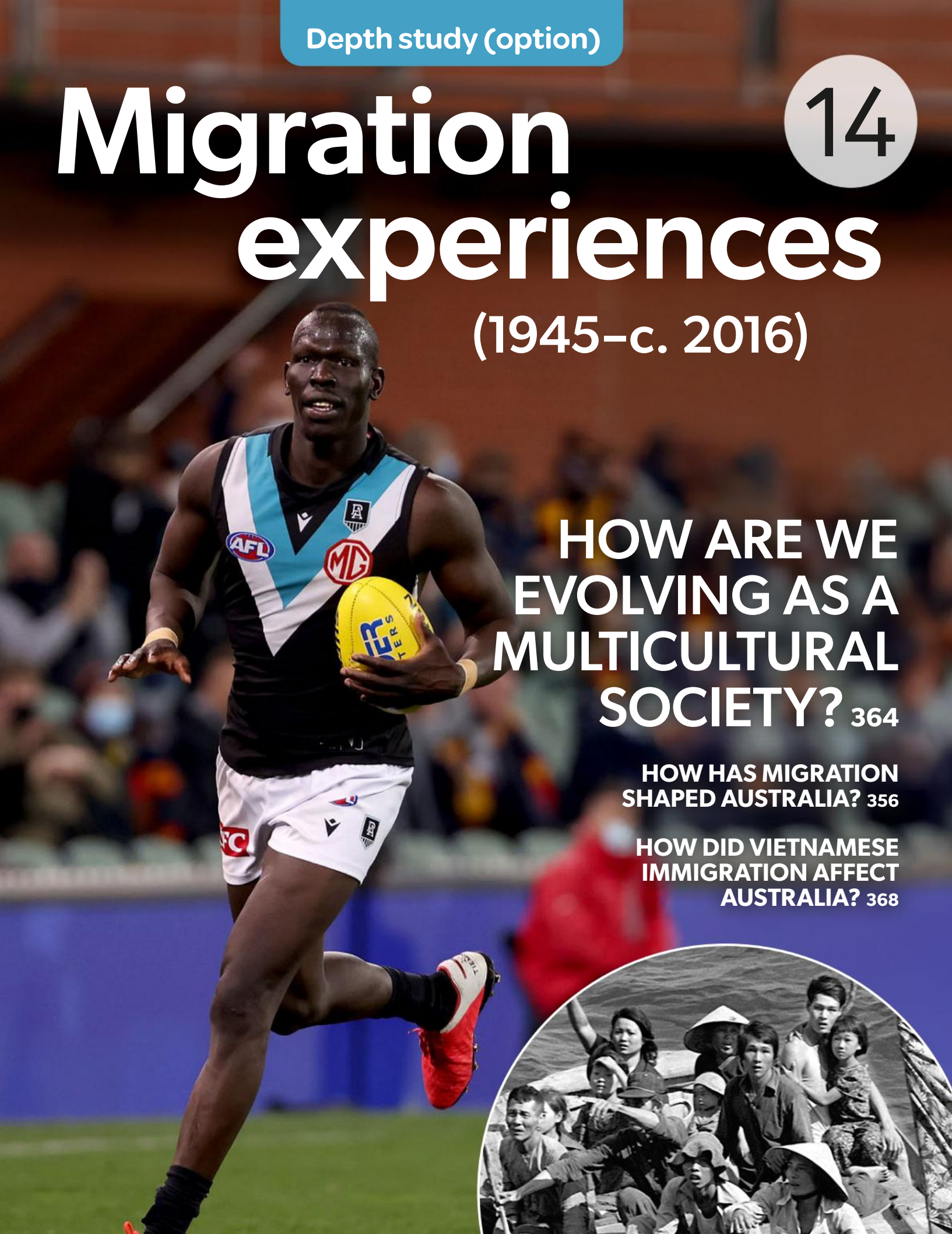
- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

14 Migration experiences (1945–c. 2016)



HOW ARE WE EVOLVING AS A MULTICULTURAL SOCIETY? 364

HOW HAS MIGRATION SHAPED AUSTRALIA? 356

HOW DID VIETNAMESE IMMIGRATION AFFECT AUSTRALIA? 368

14.0

How can I understand migration experiences?

Australia's immigration programs have been generally based on economic, defence or humanitarian reasons. After World War II, the country needed a larger domestic market and a bigger workforce to supply labour for growing industries. Immigrant experiences have depended on factors such as class, ethnicity, gender and ability.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: The *Flavia* arrives in Port Melbourne, carrying new Australians, January 1964.

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

14.1

How has migration shaped Australia?

Australia has been shaped by waves of migration. Over tens of thousands of years, waves of First Nations Peoples settled across the country. Then, in 1788, the First Fleet arrived, starting the waves of European migration that gave rise to modern Australia. To this day, migrants arrive from across the world, bringing with them their own cultures, beliefs and ways of life that contribute to and shape modern Australian society.

Migration to Australia was changed dramatically by World War II. At the end of that war, Australia's population of around 7 million was predominantly Anglo-Celtic. Australia faced a significant shortage of labour because of a slowdown in population growth and a growing need to improve the country's infrastructure. The government also held fears that its small population would make Australia vulnerable to attack from overseas.

From 1945, the government sought to increase Australia's population, creating the Department of Immigration in that year. Arthur Calwell, the first immigration minister, wanted to recruit immigrants from Europe. However, in line with the attitudes of the time, initially only those who would fit in with the White Australia policy were welcomed.

> If Australians have learned one lesson from the Pacific war ... it is surely that we cannot continue to hold our island continent for ourselves and our descendants unless we greatly increase our numbers ... much development and settlement have yet to be undertaken. Our need to undertake it is urgent and imperative if we are to survive ... The door to Australia will always be open within limits of our existing legislation to the people from the various dominions, United States of America and from European continental countries.
>
> **Source 1:** Extracts from a speech made by Arthur Calwell, Australia's first immigration minister, to parliament a few weeks after his appointment in July 1945

World War II resulted in an unprecedented number of **displaced persons**. Many sought a new life away from the destruction caused by the war. The obvious source of immigrants to Australia was the United Kingdom, with whom Australia still had close ties. From 1947, **assisted migration** schemes were launched to subsidise the cost of migration. For only £10 per adult, British people could migrate to Australia, where they became known as '10-pound Poms' .

Following the establishment of the International Refugee Organisation in 1946, Australia agreed to settle at least 12 000 displaced persons a year from Europe. Between 1947 and 1952, 170 000 displaced persons arrived in Australia. To ease public fears about the non-British migrants, the government preferred, initially, to accept people from the Baltic region, with the

idea that their appearance would lead to easier assimilation. Just under 900 migrants arrived from Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia.

Immigrants also arrived from Poland, Ukraine, Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia: countries that had been occupied by the Soviets. It was thought that these migrants' desire to escape Communism would see them fit in with the values of Australia at that time.

From 1951, Australia began to accept **economic migrants** from Greece, Italy, Malta, Croatia and Türkiye. On arrival, these migrants were placed in camps across Australia, such as Bonegilla, near Albury (Australia's first migrant reception centre). In these often cramped camps, they received 'training' and were encouraged to become 'new Australians'.

Source 2: This government bulletin was published in 1948 by the Department of Immigration to communicate information about its changed migration policy. The booklet promotes the benefits that large numbers of new migrants will bring to Australia and describes the qualities associated with the migrants selected by the government under the new policies.

Tomorrow's Australians

AUGUST 9, 1948

NEWS—REVIEW

Policy . . . Plans . . . Progress

Immigration Minister Tells What Migrant Types We Want

(Invited by the London "Daily Graphic" to cable a succinct statement of Australia's immigration policy and plans, the Minister for Immigration (Mr. Calwell) sent the following message, which is now published for the first time in Australia.)

I want 20,000,000 people in Australia. And I want them in my lifetime. At present we have only seven and a half millions—less than the population of Greater London—spread out over a continent as big as the United States of America.

The way I look at it is that, if we do not populate Australia quickly with people of our own British stock and Europeans of our choice, we may get our 20,000,000 sooner than we think —20,000,000 invaders. And another light will have gone out in the British Commonwealth.

We are grimly determined that this will not happen. We look instinctively to our kith and kin in the United Kingdom for the bulk of our new population. But if, for reasons beyond our control, we are unable to get all the people we need from Britain, then we shall unhesitatingly look to other sources to fill our empty spaces.

Do not get the impression that our immigration policy has purely selfish motives. We need more people because:

- Australia must be strengthened if she is to continue as a stronghold of British democracy down where the wide Pacific meets the Indian Ocean.
- The enormous untapped resources of our island continent must be developed for the good of the British Commonwealth of Nations as a whole.
- We cannot preserve Australia as an exclusive paradise for the lucky few, while the Asian continent — which sits on our northern doorstep—teems and overflows with people hungry for living space. If the British will not help to fill up Australia, other and nearer races will—and by force.

Every individual Briton has a stake in Australia, whether he is consciously aware of it or not. If he wants to come Down Under, we will welcome him open-armed. There is a man's job for all newcomers to Australia.

Skill, Vigour, Ability and Courage

The rough pioneering work, the backbreaking task of subduing a wilderness to make it fruitful, has been done. Today, Australia needs skilled hands, strong backs, nimble brains and willing hearts. To what better source could we look than to our own motherland — the cradle of our pioneering ancestors?

From Britain, then, we want artisans and tradesmen, teachers, scientists, technicians, labourers. We want the bricklayer and the metallurgist, the surgeon and the probationer nurse.

What is just as important, we want the wife and the family. The family unit is the best immigrant group we should hope for. We want the children here to grow up and thrive in a young, healthy, progressive country, building their future with ours.

Australia can absorb many thousands more new citizens than are likely to be able to reach this country from the United Kingdom for some considerable time.

So, without detriment to those United Kingdom citizens anxious to join us, and without nibbling into the limited transport available on the U.K. run, Australia has indicated that it will welcome as settlers, healthy and suitable men and women from other freedom-loving lands.

We have invited the United States ex-serviceman and woman to join us, and many have responded to the invitation.

We are seeking more and more young men and women from the displaced persons' camps of British and American occupation zones of Europe, and already a sizeable stream is flowing from this source.

Australians are a determined people and will not rest until they have finished the job so well begun by the adventurous men of vision who hacked down the first gum-trees at Sydney Cove a century and a half ago.

Right or wrong—and we know we are right—I, and all Australians, believe that if anyone should share in our national destiny, it is our kinsmen from the little islands of our forefathers.

→ and these are some of them

BRITISH . . .

from the little islands of our forefathers.

AMERICAN . . .

many have responded to our invitation.

BALTIC . . .

contributing wealth to the British Commonwealth.

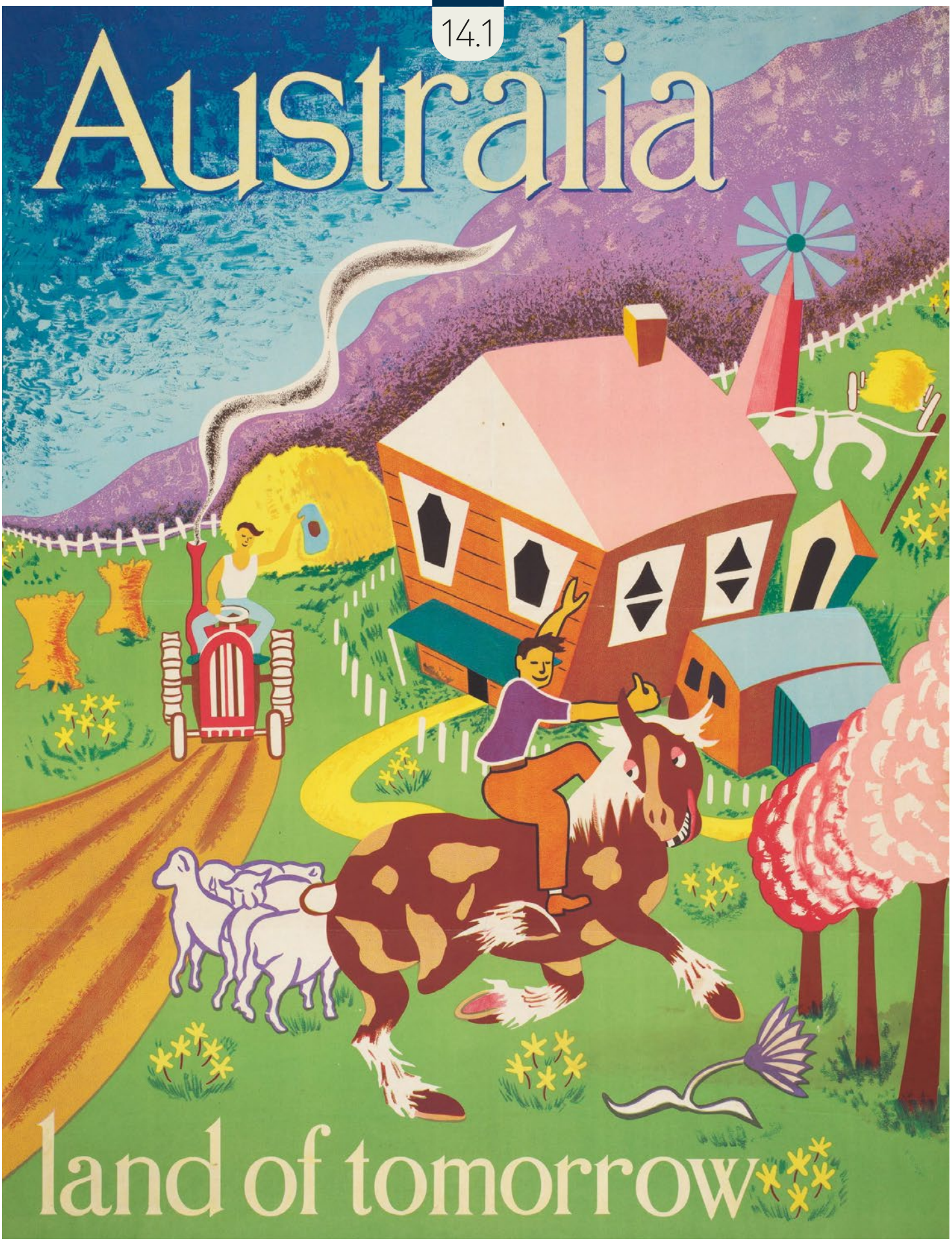
DUTCH . . .

bringing native skill to our farm lands.

POLISH . . .

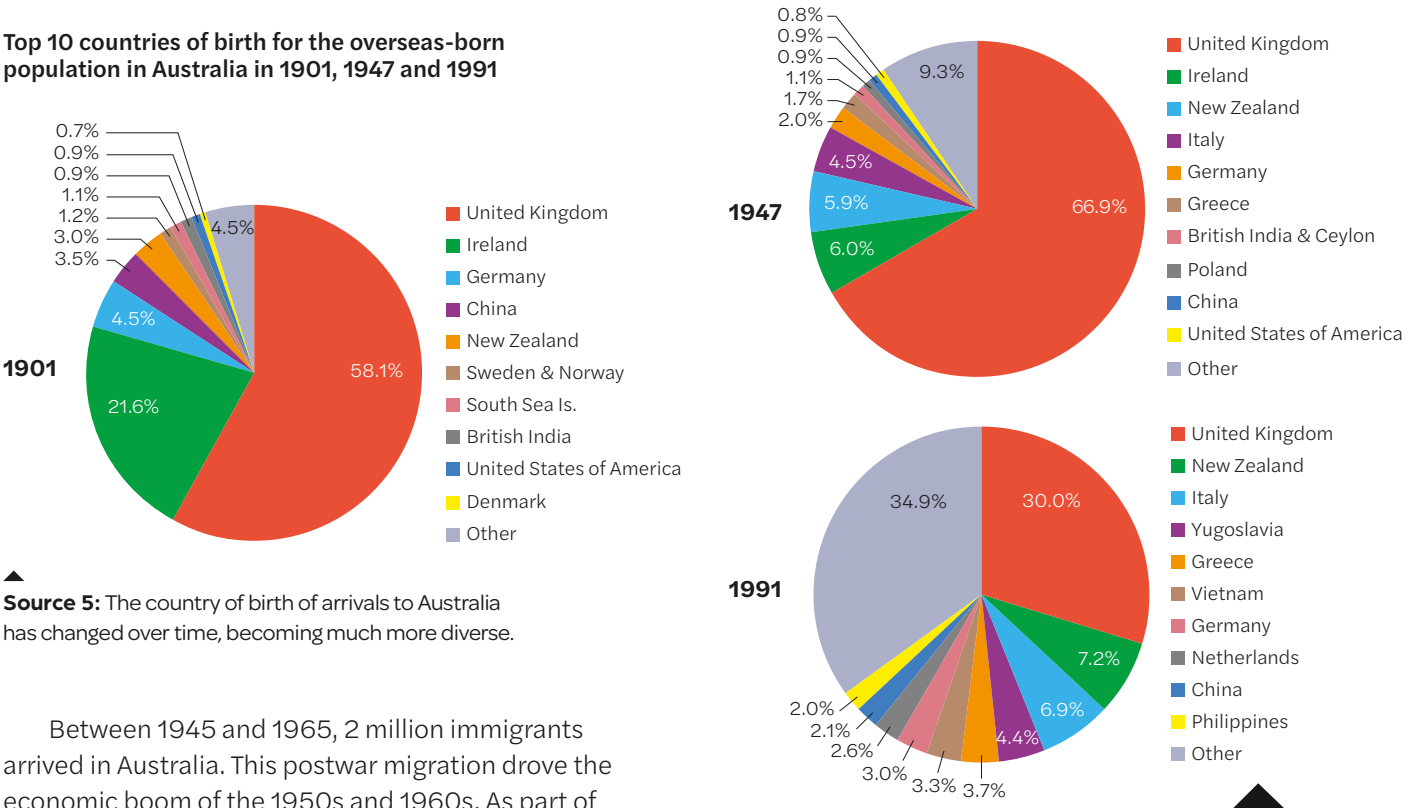
on vital, national works throughout Australia.

Source 3: Men in the mess hall at Bonegilla Migrant Reception and Training Centre, Victoria, in 1950



▲ **Source 4:** This 1949 Department of Immigration poster advertises an idyllic Australia to potential immigrants.

Top 10 countries of birth for the overseas-born population in Australia in 1901, 1947 and 1991



Source 5: The country of birth of arrivals to Australia has changed over time, becoming much more diverse.

Between 1945 and 1965, 2 million immigrants arrived in Australia. This postwar migration drove the economic boom of the 1950s and 1960s. As part of assisted migration schemes, migrants were expected to stay in the country for two years and work in a job chosen for them by the Australian Government. Many of these migrants participated in building works to improve the infrastructure of Australia, such as the Snowy Mountain Hydro-Electric Scheme, where they made up 65 per cent of the required 100 000 workers. Migrants were also responsible for other public works, such as the building of railways, roads and hospitals.

Other conflicts around the world also influenced and changed migration to Australia. The Vietnam War, a Cold War conflict, resulted in refugees beginning to arrive from Vietnam. Having been involved in the conflict, Australia had a moral and legal obligation to accept refugees. However, the arrival of immigrants by boat led to negative connotations being associated with the term '**boat people**'. By 1984, Australia had accepted 2000 refugees who had arrived by boat and a further 88 000 who had been processed through camps established by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

More recently conflict in the Middle East, in particular in Iraq, Syria and Afghanistan, as well as in Myanmar in South-East Asia, has resulted in an increase in refugees from these regions. In 2022, 17 875 **humanitarian** visas were issued, with a special focus on Afghan nationals due to the crisis in that country.

Learning ladder 14.1

Background and origins

1. Identify two reasons why the Australian Government wanted to increase migration after 1945.
2. Describe what was meant by 10-pound Poms?
3. Source 5: Explain the pattern of migration to Australia in 1947. How was this different to 1991?
4. Source 2: Explain the benefits the immigration minister saw in having more migrants in Australia. What qualities did he think they should have?
5. Evaluate the impact of government migration decisions on the economy and the nature of society.

Cause and effect

1. Source 4: Identify one feature of this poster that is designed to persuade people to migrate to Australia.
2. Describe the effect of the Cold War on migration to Australia.
3. Source 1: Explain the effect of the Pacific War on Australia's attitude to migration.
4. Analyse the effect of overseas conflicts on migration to Australia.

HOW TO
Cause and effect, page 498

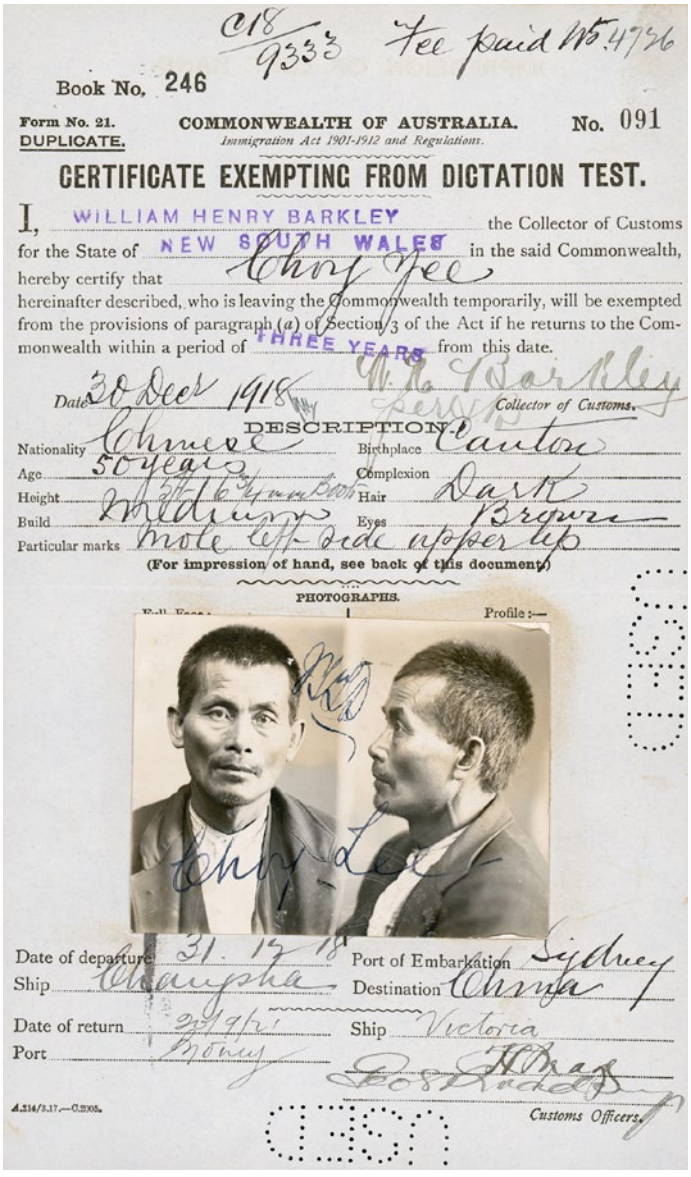
How did Australian migration policies change over time?

Migration policies have shaped how Australia has controlled and responded to new people arriving on our shores. The *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* formed the basis of what became known as the White Australia policy. This policy dictated the Australian Government's approaches to migration for over 50 years up until 1975, when Gough Whitlam's government finally dismantled its remnants.

The White Australia policy emerged from the desire by Australians at the time to restrict immigration and keep Australia 'white', to ensure that their way of life was not threatened . This was related to a belief that white-skinned people were superior to other races. Although the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* did not explicitly exclude migrants on the basis of race or ethnic background, it allowed officials, at their discretion, to prevent migrants who were considered 'undesirable' from entering the country.

> That end, put in plain and equivocal terms, as the House and the country are entitled to have it put, means the prohibition of all alien coloured immigration, and more, it means at the earliest time, by reasonable and just means, the deportation or reduction of the number of aliens now in our midst. The two things go hand in hand, and are the necessary complement of a single policy – the policy of securing a 'white Australia.'
>
> **Source 1:** Alfred Deakin summarising the intent of the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*

One method that was employed to limit immigration was the **dictation test**, which was used between 1901 and 1958. Officials would choose a language – one that an immigrant did not know – and test them in this strange language. When the person failed the test, the official would use that as a reason not to let them in to



Book No. 246

Form No. 21. DUPLICATE.

COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA. No. 091

Immigration Act 1901-1912 and Regulations.

CERTIFICATE EXEMPTING FROM DICTATION TEST.

I, WILLIAM HENRY BARKLEY the Collector of Customs for the State of NEW SOUTH WALES in the said Commonwealth, hereby certify that Choy Yee hereinafter described, who is leaving the Commonwealth temporarily, will be exempted from the provisions of paragraph (*a*) of Section 3 of the Act if he returns to the Commonwealth within a period of THREE YEARS from this date.

Date 30 Dec 1918 W. H. Barkley Collector of Customs.

DESCRIPTION.

Nationality Chinese Birthplace Canton
Age 50 years Complexion
Height 5ft 6½ins Hair Dark
Build Medium Eyes Brown
Particular marks mole left side upper lip

(For impression of hand, see back of this document)

PHOTOGRAPHS. Profile :—

Date of departure 31. 12. 18 Port of Embarkation Sydney
Ship Changsha Destination China
Date of return 2 Yrs Ship Victoria
Port Manly

Customs Officers.

Source 2: Choy Yee's Certificate of Exemption from the dictation test

Australia. This test was initially used against Asian and African migrants, because white Australians feared they would lose jobs to immigrant labourers. There were some exemptions to the dictation test; for example, Chinese residents who already lived in Australia were issued with certificates of exemption, though these were predominantly issued to people who owned property.

> The legislation is founded upon hysteria. The public have been told over and over again that the purity and whiteness of the Australian Commonwealth is being endangered by the incursion of these hordes of Asiatics. I say that it is a fable; that it is altogether a fairy story.
>
> **Source 3:** Bruce Smith, 'Immigration Restriction Bill,' House of Representatives, *Debates*, 25 September 1901, p. 5153

As previously discussed, Australia pursued European migrants after World War II. One method used to increase Australia's population involved recruiting child migrants, who had been orphaned by the war or were destitute. Despite provisions under British law that required the children themselves to agree to the arrangement, many were taken against their will – a situation that both the British and Australian Governments have acknowledged and apologised for. Assisted migration schemes such as the 'Bring out a Briton' campaign that began in 1957 encouraged the formation of committees to sponsor the migration of British families.

The concept of rescuing 'war babies' and underprivileged children from orphanages in the war-torn United Kingdom and offering them a new life in Australia had popular appeal, and the fact that these migrants were children was thought to give them an advantage in more readily adapting and 'assimilating' into the Australian community.

Australia was a large, sparsely populated country with densely populated neighbours on its doorstep. 'Populate or perish' was the slogan; mass immigration was seen as the solution. This policy had **bipartisan support** in parliament, and wide community acceptance.

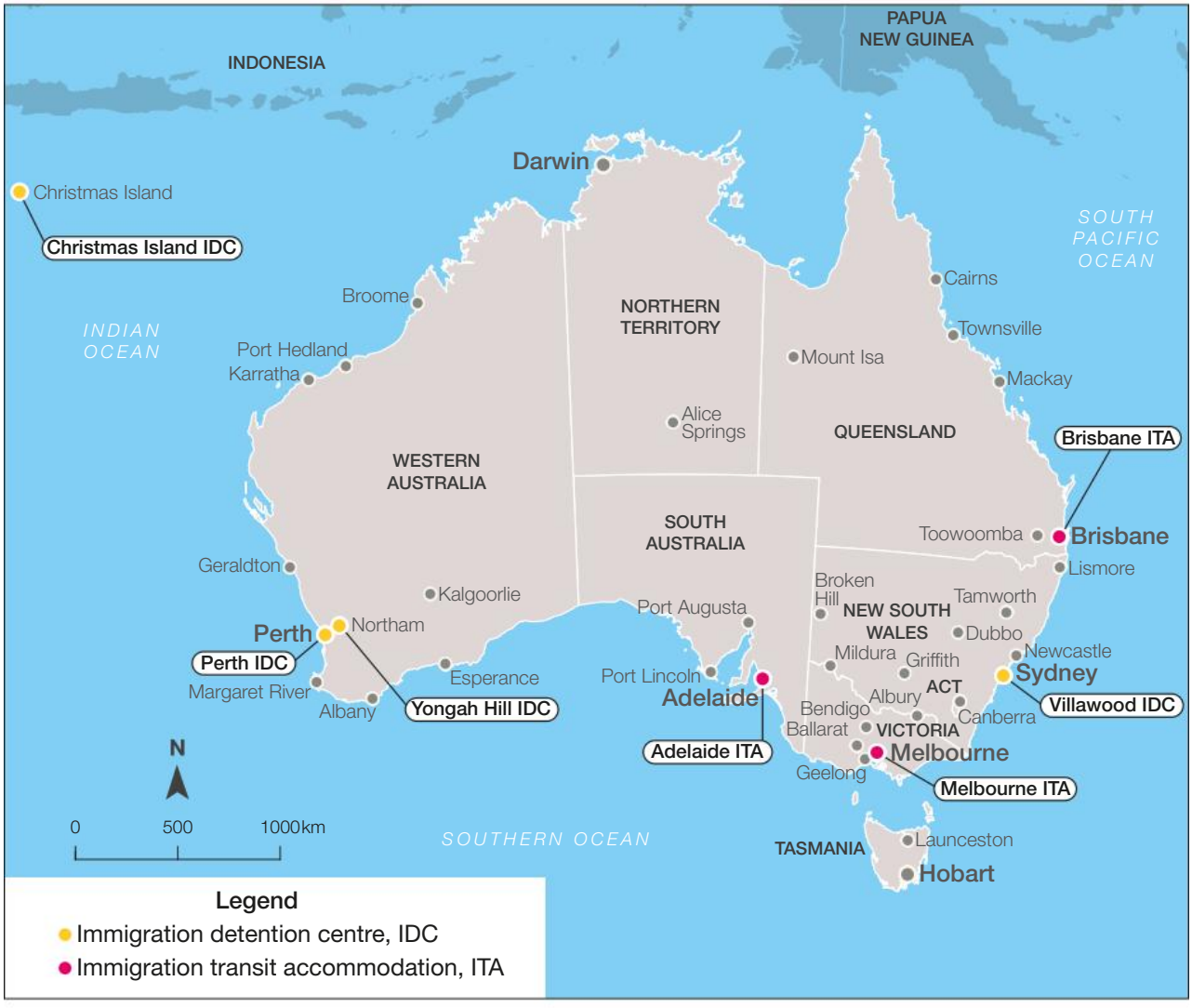
Source 4: 'Bring out a Briton' poster encouraging migration from the UK

In 1949, Harold Holt replaced Arthur Calwell as the Minister for Immigration. He began to make some changes to the White Australia policy. His decision in 1949 to allow 800 non-European refugees to stay in Australia 'was the first step towards non-discriminatory immigration policy', according to the Department of Home Affairs. He also made the decision to relax restrictions to allow Japanese war brides to migrate to Australia to be with their Australian husbands. The launch of the Colombo Plan in 1951 resulted in the Australian Government offering scholarships and assistance to students from Asia.

Further significant change occurred when the *Migration Act 1958* was introduced. The first immigration law since 1901, the legislation changed the emphasis of migration to qualifications rather than race and got rid of the dictation test that had been such a barrier. This allowed highly skilled people to migrate to Australia, and no longer barred people from Asia. However, this change did not end discrimination in migration, as the changes were implemented slowly. More fundamental changes occurred in 1966 when non-Europeans were allowed to apply for permanent residency after five years, the same as Europeans.

The next major changes to Australia's immigration policy occurred under Gough Whitlam's government. In 1973, the *Australian Citizenship Act* was passed. This act removed all discrimination from the process of applying for citizenship and anyone, regardless of race, could apply for permanent residency after three years. The government also signed international agreements such as the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. Two years later, the *Racial Discrimination Act 1975* made it illegal to use racial criteria to discriminate against migrants.

Australia's immigration detention facilities



Source: Matilda Education Australia/Custom Mapping Services

▲ **Source 5:** The locations of Australian detention centres.

> The guiding principle for the Government in the vitally important matter of the grant of Australian citizenship is that there should not be discrimination between different groups of settlers seeking to join the family of the nation. Wherever they were born, whatever their nationality, whatever the colour of their complexion, they should all be able to become Australian citizens under just the same conditions. If we are to maintain our great tradition that every citizen should be equal before the law, it is surely essential that everyone seeking to become a citizen, after being lawfully admitted for residence in Australia, should find they are equally treated when they try to become citizens.
>
> **Source 6:** Extract from a speech made by Al Grasby, Minister for Immigration on 11 April 1973

Increased numbers of refugees prompted the next major change in migration policy. In 1992, Paul Keating's Labor government introduced **mandatory detention**. This policy involved detaining anyone who arrived in Australia without a valid visa while they were assessed and either granted a visa or deported. From 1994, **asylum seekers** could be detained indefinitely while being assessed. In 2001, Liberal Prime Minister John Howard took a tougher approach. During the *Tampa* incident, the government refused permission for a Norwegian ship, the MV *Tampa*, carrying 433 rescued refugees and 5 crew, to enter Australian waters. Howard stated at the time, 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come'. Under Howard's government, asylum seekers were transported to offshore detention centres on the Pacific Islands of Nauru and Manus. These centres were closed in 2007 under the Rudd government as Kevin Rudd sought alternative solutions, but they reopened during Julia Gillard's prime ministership in 2012.

During Tony Abbott's time as prime minister (2013–2015), the use of **offshore processing** increased. Under 'Operation Sovereign Borders', the Australian Coast Guard and Navy were ordered to turn back boats carrying asylum seekers. Subsequent Liberal prime ministers have continued these policies, with Malcolm Turnbull stating in 2018, 'We make no apologies for sending the clearest message to the people smugglers and to their would-be customers; if you want to come or think you can come to Australia on a people smugglers' boat, you're wrong'.

Learning ladder 14.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What was the White Australia policy?
2. Describe how the dictation test was used to exclude migrants.
3. Explain changes to and developments in Australia's migration policy between 1949 and 1958.
4. Explain how Prime Minister Whitlam changed Australia's immigration policy.
5. Evaluate the policy of mandatory detention and in doing so explain why this policy has been the subject of vigorous public debate since it was introduced in 1992.

Perspectives

1. Source 4: Identify the kind of migration being encouraged by this poster.
2. Source 6: Describe Al Grasby's perspective on Australia's immigration policy.
3. Explain how perspectives on who should be able to migrate to Australia and how migrants should be treated have changed from Arthur Caldwell to Tony Abbott.
4. Evaluate the factors that created the perspective that Australia needed to be tough on refugees trying to enter Australia without a valid visa in the period 1992 to 2015.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

14.3

How has Australia evolved as a multicultural society?

The First Nations Peoples of Australia are the oldest continuous human culture in the world. These Nations are culturally, linguistically and geographically diverse; thus, Australia has always been a multicultural country. But the idea of a multicultural Australia is often perceived as a recent development, beginning with the waves of migration after World War II.

Terra nullius and a white Australia

When Europeans arrived in Australia in 1788, they brought with them their own culture, beliefs and values. The application of ***terra nullius*** effectively dispossessed First Nations Peoples , leading to the destruction of much of their traditional culture. During the colonial period, as the majority of settlers were from the United Kingdom, there was a sense that Australia should be 'white and British'. By the time of Federation in 1901, Australia's political, judicial and economic institutions were modelled on those in the United Kingdom. People believed that the British way of life was superior, and other cultures were viewed with hostility.

Source 1: The International Club of Victoria, 1956. Many immigrants celebrated their cultural heritage by establishing and joining clubs. This helped overcome the social isolation of being in a new country.

In Australia there is a new cosmopolitanism, with a special stress on Asia, that is wholly good. The most remarkable change in the last 10 years is the degree to which Australia has reoriented itself towards Asia. Asian languages are beginning to take the place of European languages in the schools and universities. Goods from Japan, China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore fill the shops. A young man will be proud to own a Japanese sports car and [have] a Thai friend. Middle-class women study Japanese flower arrangement or Indian yoga. Rather unexpected for a country which still practises the White Australia policy. Sydney and Melbourne always seem full of Asians – Malayan students, Japanese businessmen, Indian journalists. They add a colour to our streets and a new interest to our life. The old suspicious racialism has nearly gone to be replaced, in some cases, by a slightly alarming naivety.

Source 2: John Douglas Pringle, *The Times*, 23 January 1968

Source 3: Bruce Petty cartoon, 'Welcome', c. 1990s

The assimilation era

Post-World War II, this prejudice extended to the new migrants arriving from Europe. Some of the Australians' hostility was targeted at immigrants arriving from countries that had been 'enemies' during the war; however, suspicions were also directed more generally at anyone regarded as different. The government, therefore, promoted **assimilation**, whereby immigrants should adopt the Australian way of life at the expense of their own culture. Assimilation as a policy was challenging: giving up the values and beliefs that a person has grown up with creates barriers. This is compounded by language differences. Many immigrants were unwilling to give up their language, customs and music, and established clubs, newspapers and restaurants; they wanted to continue to enjoy their own traditions.

There was also a tendency for immigrants to form communities and live in the same areas. For example, Italians immigrants tended to settle in Leichhardt and Ryde, Greeks in Newtown, Maltese in Holyrod and Merrylands and Yugoslavs around Stanmore. Being with others who shared the same language and culture made many immigrants feel more supported. Gradually, the **cultural diversity** that immigrants brought to Australia became accepted and valued.

Starting to embrace diversity

During the 1960s, the Australian Government moved towards the policy of **integration**. This allowed immigrants to continue with their culture, traditional customs, beliefs and values, in addition to adopting mainstream Australian values. Integration also acknowledged the contribution that different cultures could offer to Australian society, such as the gradual trend towards eating out in restaurants. Australia's wine-making industry also expanded, as table wine was part of Italian and Greek culture.

Source 4: Somali Day Festival, 2019

Australia is the most successful multicultural society in the world.

We are as old as our First Australians, the oldest continuing human culture on earth, who have cared for this country for more than 50 000 years. And we are as young as the baby in the arms of her migrant mother who could have come from any nation, any faith, any race in the world ...

... We are defined not by race, religion or culture, but by shared values of freedom, democracy, the rule of law and equality of opportunity – a 'fair go.' The glue that holds us together is mutual respect – a deep recognition that each of us is entitled to the same respect, the same dignity, the same opportunities ... At a time of growing global tensions and rising uncertainty, Australia remains a steadfast example of a harmonious, egalitarian and enterprising nation, embracing its diversity.

Source 4: Extract from the foreword by Malcom Turnbull (2016), *Multicultural Australia: United, Strong, Successful*

Multiculturalism as policy

It was the Whitlam government that embraced the rich cultural diversity brought to Australia by immigrants and, in 1973, it introduced the policy of **multiculturalism**. This policy accepted and acknowledged the importance of different cultural backgrounds and promoted respect and tolerance of people with different customs. While there was still opposition to this more inclusive approach, all political parties embraced the concept of multiculturalism, leading to the passing of the *Racial Discrimination Act 1975*. In 1977, the Ethnic Affairs Council was established to advise government on multicultural affairs and social cohesion. This body was replaced in 2011 by the Australian Multicultural Council.

Supporting communities

Many improvements have been made over time to support immigrants in Australia, including the establishment of the first multicultural television channel in the world – Channel 0/28 (renamed the Special Broadcasting Service (SBS) in 1985). Subsequent governments have continued to uphold multiculturalism as a fundamental policy. Recently, in 2021, the words of Australia's national anthem were changed to reflect Australia's long multicultural history: the words 'we are young and free' have been altered to 'we are one and free'.

Source 5: Multilingual shopfronts and varied cuisines reflect the growth of multiculturalism and the integration of cultural diversity into Australian daily life. These businesses help preserve cultural identity while contributing to a vibrant national community.

Learning ladder 14.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the perceived advantages of being 'white and British' for migration.
2. Describe the policy of assimilation.
3. Source 4: Explain the idea of a 'fair go' and how this is important to achieving a successful multicultural society.
4. Evaluate the impact of the policy of multiculturalism on Australia's population and its contribution to creating a harmonious society.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the difference between assimilation and integration.
2. Describe how Australia has been a multicultural country for more than 65 000 years.
3. Explain what has changed and what has stayed the same in Australian society in relation to migration.
4. Sources 2 and 4: present a perspective of the impact of migration on Australia by 1968. Using Source 4, evaluate the extent to which the situation had stayed the same or changed by 2016.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

14.4

How did the Vietnam War impact Australian migration?

The term 'boat people' entered Australian language after Saigon (now Ho Chi Minh City) fell to the communist North Vietnamese in 1975. Fearing persecution by the communist government, around 130 000 South Vietnamese people fled the country, typically by boat.

Source 1: People return to their homes in April 1975, towards the end of the Vietnam War. The extent of the damage to the country can be seen in the destroyed buildings and bare hillsides. People often lost everything during the war, holding on to only what they could carry.

The impact of war on Vietnam

War wreaked havoc on Vietnam. Over the course of the war, more than 64 million tonnes of bombs were dropped on the country (three-and-a-half times the amount dropped during the whole of World War II). The use of the poisonous herbicide Agent Orange had also destroyed one-quarter of Vietnam's forests, and people were starving.

In total, it is estimated that more than 2.2 million Vietnamese people were killed during the Vietnam War – some 6 per cent of Vietnam's population of around 38 million in 1965. This included approximately 930 000 North Vietnamese soldiers, 300 000 South Vietnamese soldiers, and around 1 million civilians. After the Viet Cong victory, it is estimated that a further 650 000 Vietnamese people in the south were killed as the communist regime consolidated power.

Back on our boat one of the pirates grabbed hold of the smallest child. He lifted up the baby and ripped open the child's nappy. A tiny slice of gold fell out. The pirate picked up the metal and wantonly dangled the baby over the side of the boat, threatening to throw the infant in. My father screamed at the top of his lungs, 'We must save the child! We will fight to the death to SAVE THE CHILD!'

Source 2: Ahn Do (2011), *The Happiest Refugee*, Allen & Unwin.

Indochinese refugees

In the wake of the fall of South Vietnam and with the brutal reunification of the country under the communists, thousands of Vietnamese people were subjected to persecution. Neighbouring Cambodia and Laos became similarly dangerous due to civil war and coups backed by the Vietnamese communists and the Soviet Union. This led a growing number of Indochinese refugees to seek asylum and **resettlement** in peaceful countries, such as Australia.

Between 1975 and 1987, nearly 2 million Indochinese refugees left their war-torn homelands, often undertaking a dangerous journey by sea in overcrowded and poorly equipped boats. Around 673 000 (120 000 from Vietnam, 228 000 from Cambodia and 325 000 from Laos) people arrived in Thailand and remained in crowded **refugee camps** until a 'third' country would accept them. Over this period, Australia resettled around 94 000 Indochinese refugees, most of whom came from Vietnam, including around 2000 Vietnamese who had arrived by boat. The first 'boat people' arrived in Darwin in 1976.

Source 3: Vietnamese refugees await rescue from their fishing boat. They were found 560 kilometres northeast of Cam Ranh Bay, Vietnam, after spending eight days at sea.

Reaction towards 'boat people'

In Australia, opinions were divided over accepting Indochinese refugees. On one side were those who believed Australia would be 'swamped' and efforts should be made to limit the number of refugees entering Australia. On the other side were those who saw refugees as a global and humanitarian problem that required Australia's help to solve. As the controversy developed, an increased number of refugees were refused entry or sent back. Many were forced to remain in camps in South-East Asia awaiting assistance.

International response

In 1979, the UN held their Meeting on Refugees and Displaced Persons in South-East Asia conference in Geneva to discuss how to reduce the number of refugees coming from Indochina, including Vietnam. While the resulting programs helped to stem the flow of refugees, ongoing conflict continued to force people to seek asylum.

In 1989, in response to another wave of people fleeing Indochina, the UN held their International Conference on Indochinese Refugees. From this, a plan was introduced whereby refugees escaping from Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos no longer had automatic refugee status. Only those who could prove they faced persecution in their homeland would be classed as refugees. If it was determined they were fleeing to seek a better standard of living, they would be forced to return to their home country. It was felt this would deter most 'boat people' from trying to reach places such as Australia, Canada and the United States.

Australia–Vietnam cooperation

For Australia, these UN conferences resulted in a commitment from both Australia and Vietnam to work together to reduce the number of Vietnamese migrants choosing the dangerous sea voyage over other migration options.

Source 4: Vietnamese boats and refugees in Darwin Harbour, c. 1978

Source 5: Vietnamese restaurants and other businesses run by the Vietnamese community can be found in almost every town and city in Australia.

They worked together to:

- address the root causes within Vietnam – through development aid
- deter migration by sea – through education programs and orderly screening within Vietnam, and detention in Australia
- encourage **repatriation** – through humanitarian support, monitoring and reintegration programs.

Life in Australia

Indochinese refugees who were able to remain in Australia faced adjustment problems and often racism. Many had spent years in refugee camps, which often lacked educational services and opportunities to learn the English language. These factors contributed to a high unemployment rate (20–30 per cent) and a feeling of alienation once these people settled in Australia.

Despite their initial struggles, however, these communities were resilient. The Vietnamese-Australian community, for example, has become a vibrant part of multicultural Australia. Characterised by its strong cultural traditions, extensive community networks and visibility in the business community, the Vietnamese-Australian community has also helped promote cultural understanding and cooperation between Australia and Vietnam.

Learning ladder 14.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the event that led to thousands of South Vietnamese fleeing their country.
2. Describe the experience of Indochinese fleeing their homelands between 1975 and 1987.
3. Explain the different opinions in Australia on accepting 'boat people'.
4. Explain how the 1989 UN International Conference on Indochinese Refugees influenced Australia's response to boat people.
5. Analyse how the aftermath of the Vietnam War influenced Australian society.

Chronology

1. On a timeline, place the following events: UN Conference on Indochinese Refugees, First 'boat people' arrive in Darwin, Fall of Saigon, UN Meeting on Refugees and Displaced Persons.
2. Review your answer to Question 1 and answer 'yes' or 'no' to the following: My timeline has a scale? The events are in chronological order? All the required events are included?
3. Refer to your timeline. How many years were there between the UN Meeting on Refugees and Displaced Persons and the UN Conference on Indochinese Refugees?
4. Using the information on your timeline, explain how the outcome of the Vietnam War created Indochinese refugees and required an international response to manage the impact.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

Site study

Who are Australia's 'Faces of Migration'?

The Australian National Maritime Museum, located in Darling Harbour, has gathered together a variety of portraits showcasing the diverse, complex and powerful history of migration in Australia. Its digital 'Faces of Migration' exhibit sits within the Museum's 'Migration Stories' digital experience, and offers a fascinating insight into the experiences of immigrants in Australia.

Source 1: Hea-Jin Park – arrived in 2005 from South Korea

Being uprooted at an early age to start my migration journey, which has included three continents at least, the experience has freed me from the stereotype that societies often impose on migrants and their communities. I take pride in the places that shaped me as a person and as such, I often find myself telling the younger generation to be proud of their ethnic names. That there is nothing to apologise about one's culture and that we should all celebrate our diversity.

https://mea.digital/vcc

Source 2: Phillip Braslins – from Latvia

Despite all of the challenges of being a 'New Australian' dad felt welcome here and was proud of the life that he created ... to our lasting regret, dad never spoke his native language in our home, because he wanted us first and foremost to be Australian. No matter what our origins, our history as the children of migrants, who may have even fought on opposing sides in WWII, we can come together here in Australia, recognise and value both our similarities and our differences, and build a safe, inclusive and nurturing community for all.

https://mea.digital/af41e9

Background and context

By the late 1940s, it had become obvious that restricting migration under the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* was hindering the growth of Australia as a nation. After World War II, the immigration minister, Arthur Calwell, began to relax the White Australia policy, to allow migrants to come to Australia from continental Europe. The nature of migration changed again in the 1970s with the end of the Vietnam War and the influx of migrants from South-East Asia. Since 1945, nearly 8 million migrants have stepped ashore. Australia's cultural identity has been shaped by the movement of peoples and the influx of migrants during the 20th century.

I have been an Australian for over 60 years, but I am proud of my Italian heritage. As a child growing up, I was protected from prejudice by my older brother, and felt that I assimilated quite easily into new life in Australia ... I have a passion for the traditional food I was bought up with and cherish the recipes from my mother which I share and hopefully preserve for generations to come. I have totally embraced both cultures and feel extremely fortunate to live in Australia and the opportunities I have been given.

https://mea.digital/0683c8

Source 3: Angela Arena – arrived 1961 from Italy

The stories of migrants speak to universal themes such as belonging, love, adventure, family and safety. Some are stories marked by adversity, loss and sadness, some are less dramatic but all are stories of hope. Welcome to Migration Stories, the museum's digital experience dedicated to sharing complex, challenging and emotional stories about how people are shaped by migration.

Source 4: Introduction to the 'Faces of Migration' as part of the Migration Stories website of the Australian National Maritime Museum. https://mea.digital/900573

Learning ladder 14.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify when non-British migration to Australia begin to rapidly increase.
2. Source 3: Describe Angela Arena's view of being a migrant in Australia. What were her positive and negative experiences?
3. Source 2: Explain some of the challenges of being a 'New Australian' referred to by Phillip Braslins.
4. Source 4: Evaluate the contributions the 'Faces of Migration' site has made to our understanding of the experiences of those who migrated to Australia.

Source analysis

1. What is the origin of Sources 1, 2 and 3?
2. Describe the features common to the three sources.
3. Explain how Source 4 assists in interpreting Sources 1, 2 and 3.
4. Which source do you rate as providing the most useful insight into the experience of immigrants to Australia? Explain your choice.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 493

14.6

How has public opinion towards immigration changed?

The issue of migration has long been a contentious one in Australia, although mainstream views have tended to reflect the public's changing beliefs and attitudes, and the influence of the media. More often than not, resistance to immigration is founded on perceptions that an increased number of migrants to Australia will lead to unemployment and economic insecurity or that it will threaten the 'Australian way of life'. However, this attitude ignores the economic and cultural benefits Australia's migrants have contributed.

Pre–World War II attitudes

When Australia federated, one of the underlying causes was migration. In 1901, the majority of the population believed that Australia should be a country for 'whites only'. The economic downturn of the 1890s had led to increased resentment towards non-Europeans, in particular Chinese, for taking the jobs of 'white' Australians. This contributed to the introduction of the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*.

During World War I, Australia's 100 000 residents of German descent became the subject of intense distrust. Following the passing of the *War Precautions Act 1914*, many Australians boycotted the businesses of German Australians, and others were sacked from their jobs.

Many German placenames were changed, such as Germantown, now Grovedale, near Geelong; Hochkirch, now Tarrington, near Hamilton; and Mt Bismarck was changed to become Mt Kitchener. Many Germans were forced into internment camps. Similarly, during World War II, the Australian Government interned over 5000 people deemed to be 'enemy aliens'.

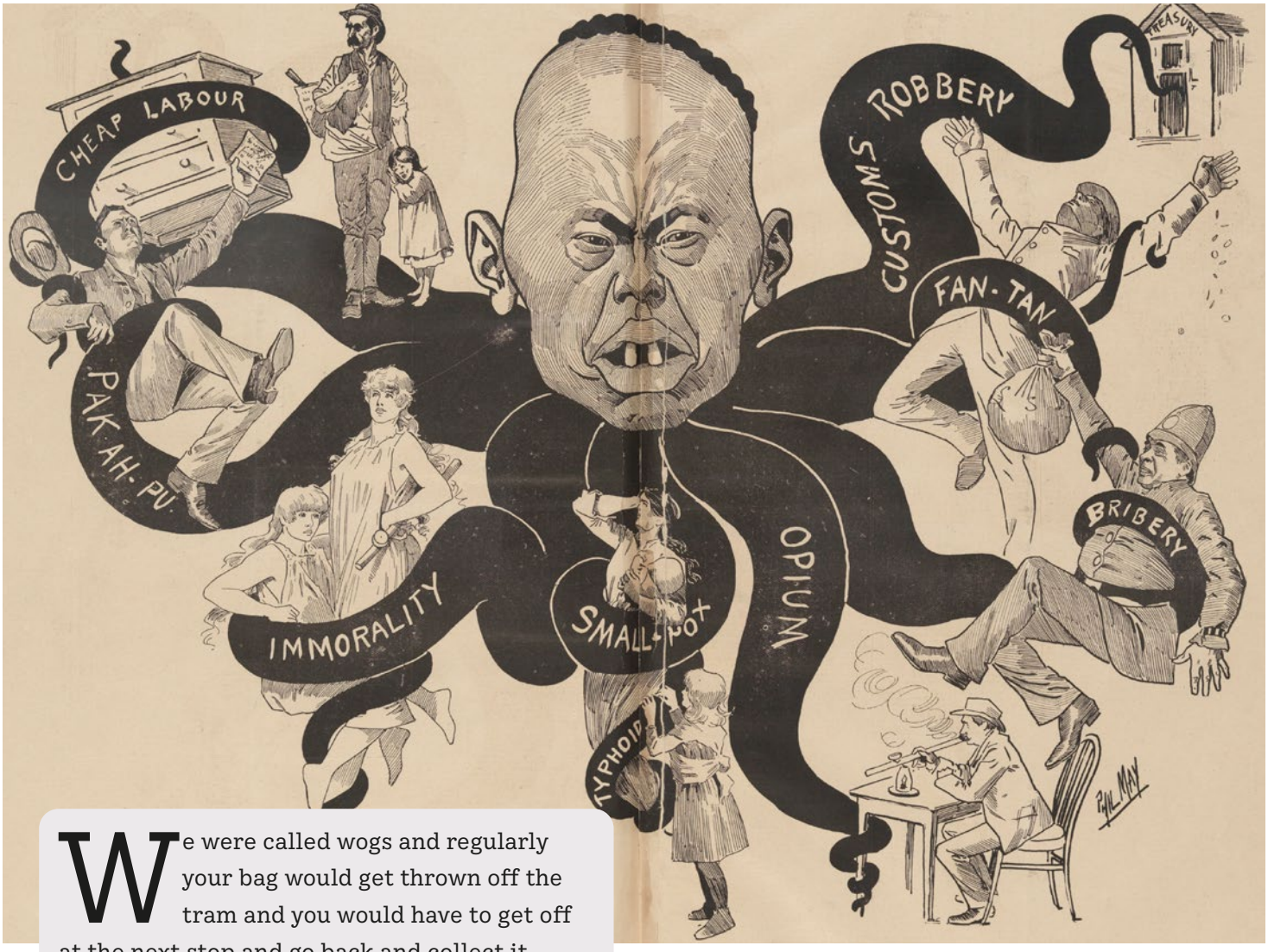
The post–World War II shift

With the government's postwar push to increase the population of Australia, there were some Australians who reacted with hostility amid fears that they would lose jobs to new migrants. However, these fears were unfounded as the postwar years were a time of economic growth, with employment available for both locals and new arrivals. However, in just over a decade there was a shift in attitude and, by 1959, public opinion polls reflected that only 34 per cent of Australians still supported the White Australia policy. Increased pressure for change saw a shift in migration policies and a rise in non-European immigrants.

The rise of multiculturalism

By the 1970s, the introduction of multiculturalism saw an increasing acceptance of immigrants from different cultures. In the 1980s, an increase in the number of refugees and asylum seekers arriving by boat became a topic of public debate in Australia. This issue continues to be contentious today. Some of the initial controversy was sparked by a speech from historian Geoffrey Blainey, declaring that there were too many immigrants arriving from Asia and that this posed a threat to 'Australian jobs and social cohesion'.

Opposition leader John Howard added to the debate when, in 1988, he announced a 'One Australia' policy calling for a reduction in immigration from Asian nations. He called for a focus on 'One Australia' that: 'respects our cultural diversity and acknowledges that we are drawn from many parts of the world but requires of all of us a loyalty to Australia at all times and to her institutions and her values and her traditions which transcends loyalty to any other set of values anywhere in the world'.



Source 1: This 1886 cartoon ('The Chinese Octopus') tries to spread fear about what Chinese immigration might bring to Australia. While acceptable at the time, it is racist and offensive by modern standards.

We were called wogs and regularly your bag would get thrown off the tram and you would have to get off at the next stop and go back and collect it. I just learned to not let this get to me. My dad always said I was, 'a sturdy little soul', so I worked hard at school. I was on a scholarship so maintaining that was critical for me. As a migrant, I certainly stood out a bit. I remember once at a social, an Australian boy asked me to dance and some of the girls said, 'look at him, he's dancing with the wog'. There was also one boy in our street who never stopped calling us names. He was relentless. But then there was a family of Australians who lived across from us – the Faheys – they were welcoming and kind and we formed a friendship that lasted for over 50 years until they passed away. My parents had this philosophy that this racism reflected badly not on us but on the people perpetrating it.

Source 2: Account by Carmen Calleya-Capp, whose family emigrated from Malta in 1958, when she was four years old

Backlash against multiculturalism

Despite changes in immigration policies, the controversy around immigration continued into the 1990s when Pauline Hanson was elected to the federal government. Following her disendorsement by the Liberal Party for comments regarding First Nations benefits, she founded the One Nation Party. In 1997, One Nation gained 9 per cent of the vote in the federal election and, in 2016, during the double dissolution federal election, the party gained four seats in the Senate. Since then, it has secured two seats in the 2019 and 2022 elections.

Concerns over immigration rates have remained among the Australian public. The majority of Australians support immigration but some still have reservations around the number of immigrants arriving to Australia. Some Australians have concerns around the pressure put on cities and infrastructure.

Response to mandatory detention and offshore processing

There have, however, been negative public reactions around mandatory detention. This policy, and the conditions in which immigrants have often been detained, has come under scrutiny. In 2002, conditions in the Woomera detention centre were found to be 'inhumane and degrading' by a UN investigation. Conditions in offshore detention centres have been shown to be equally as bad. These ongoing issues were highlighted again in 2016 by a High Court challenge to the government's right to detain asylum seekers. The challenge was rejected; however, the Manus Island processing facility was later closed. As at 2024, offshore processing continues in Nauru.

Source 4: The 2001 *MV Tampa* incident generated public support for stricter immigration controls, with asylum seekers represented as a security risk and an economic burden. The result was the creation of the Pacific Solution, with the opening of offshore processing centres on Manus Island (PNG) and Nauru.

I and most Australians want our immigration policy radically reviewed and that of multiculturalism abolished. I believe we are in danger of being swamped by Asians. Between 1984 and 1995, 40 per cent of all migrants coming into this country were of Asian origin. They have their own culture and religion, form ghettos and do not assimilate. Of course, I will be called racist but, if I can invite whom I want into my home, then I should have the right to have a say in who comes into my country. A truly multicultural country can never be strong or united.

Source 3: Pauline Hanson, expressing her views on immigration in her maiden speech to parliament, 1996

Source 5: Demonstrators in Melbourne call for refugees on Manus and Nauru to be brought to Australia.

Learning ladder 14.6

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the economic circumstances in Australia that contributed to the introduction of the *Immigration Restriction Act* in 1901?
2. Describe how public debate about migration changed in the 1980s.
3. Source 3: What legacies of the White Australia policy are reflected in Pauline Hanson's speech?
4. Explain the impact of the policy of mandatory detention for asylum seekers on Australia's international reputation.
5. Analyse Australian public opinion to immigration over time. Has there been great change or continuity?

Contestability

1. Source 2: What does Carmen Calleya-Capp's story suggest about attitudes towards migrants in the 1950s and 1960s?
2. Source 3: Describe how Pauline Hanson interprets the impact of multiculturalism on Australia.
3. Source 4: What interpretation of asylum seekers is presented in the response to the MV *Tampa* incident?
4. Explain how different interpretations of immigration have shaped public policy over time.

Contestability, page 502

HOW TO

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

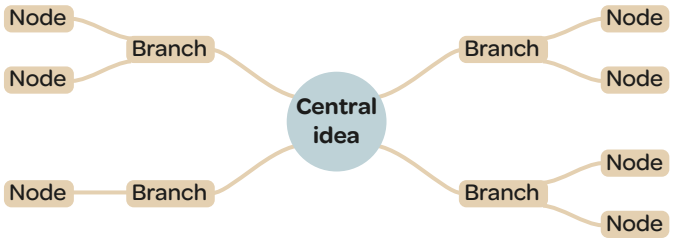
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to migration experiences.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Postwar migration, 14.1
- Mandatory detention and offshore processing, 14.2
- Policy of multiculturalism, 14.3
- Vietnamese migrants, 14.4
- Migrant stories, 14.5
- Public opinion, 14.6

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative (see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

Popular culture (1945–c. 2010) 15

HOW HAS TELEVISION SHAPED US? 400

HOW DID ROCK 'N' ROLL INFLUENCE AUSTRALIAN MUSIC? 396

WHAT CONTRIBUTIONS HAVE AUSTRALIANS MADE TO SPORT? 404

15.0

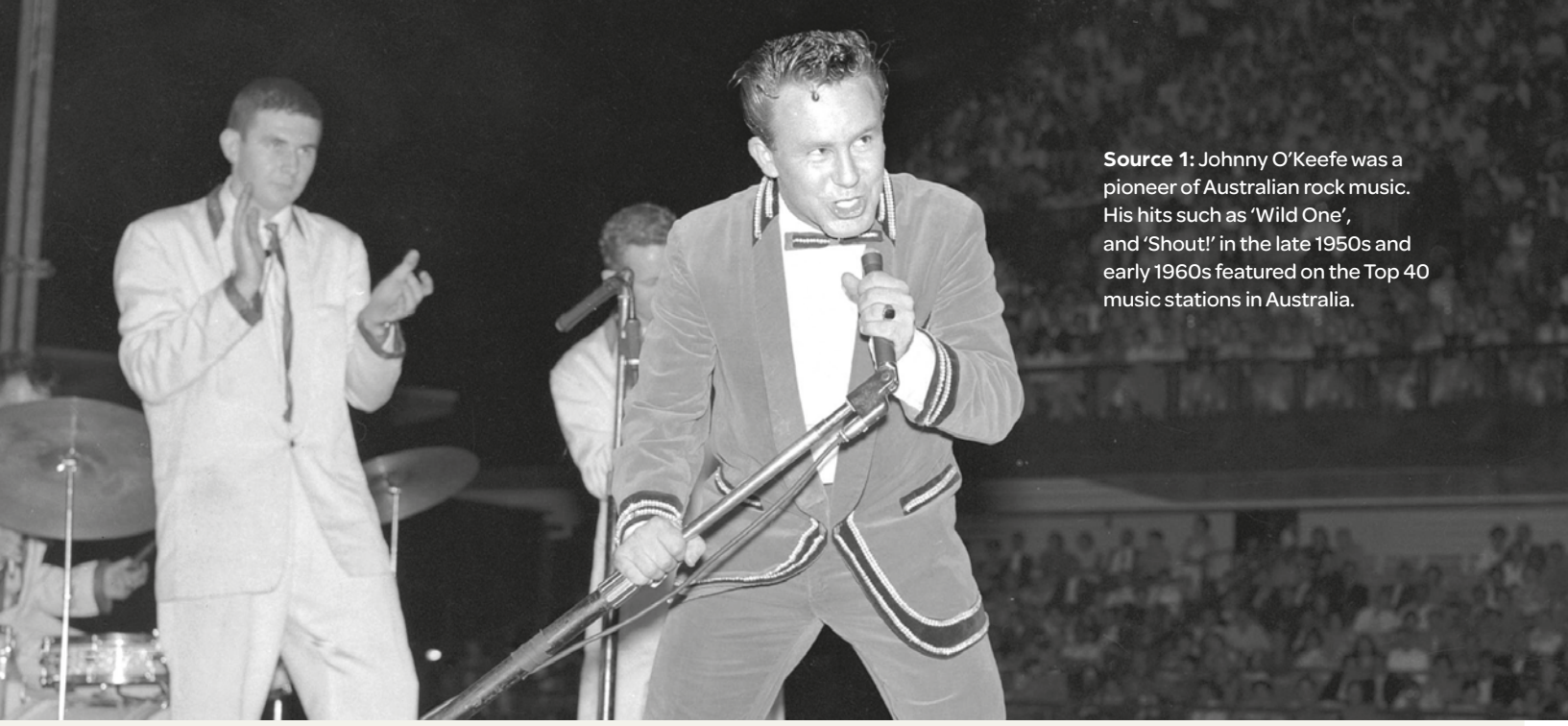
How can I understand popular culture?

Australian popular culture, while unique in many ways, has also been heavily influenced first by Britain, then by America, and as globalisation accelerated, by our multicultural identity and Asian neighbours.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.
	Knowledge and understanding				



Source 1: Johnny O'Keefe was a pioneer of Australian rock music. His hits such as 'Wild One', and 'Shout!' in the late 1950s and early 1960s featured on the Top 40 music stations in Australia.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

15.1

What were the influences on popular culture at the end of World War II?

At the end of World War II, Australian cultural values were still oriented towards Britain. These values were in a sense quarantined from the cultures surrounding Australia. However, during the decade following the war, this would start to change.

What is popular culture?

Culture reflects the attitudes, behaviours, beliefs and values of a society at a certain point in time. Culture develops on many scales – local, regional, national and international. It is reflected through many aspects of people's lives: food and drink, clothes, sport, art, literature and music. Culture often reflects the social, economic and political conditions at the time, providing perspectives from that particular time period.

Popular culture reflects the dominant interests and activities of ordinary people at a particular time. It changes continually as new generations often challenge the attitudes and values of previous ones. As the 20th century progressed, communication technology developed from radio, film and television to the internet. These changing forms of communication helped shape and influence popular culture, both in how it is spread and consumed.

Other countries and world events can also influence the development of popular culture within a country, which in turn contributes to the country's national identity and way of life.

Alliance with the United States

World War II opened the door to the emergence of Australian popular culture. This was largely driven by the welcome influence of our American allies. Having first come to Australian shores in December of 1941, American soldiers and their 'pieces from home' became a known commodity in Australian lives. Hotdog stands made an appearance, Coca-Cola was advertised in cafes and hamburgers were being flipped. According to the Australian War Memorial, by the end of 1944, two-thirds of Australia's imports came from the United States.

Postwar economic prosperity

After World War II, Australia experienced an economic boom. This was driven by:

- large-scale infrastructure projects to rebuild and modernise the country, and housing development to meet the demands of a growing population
- a move away from agriculture and towards manufacturing, including repurposing war-time industries (e.g. shipbuilding) for civilian purposes
- extensive immigration, to meet labour demands, (Source 2) grow the economy, and meet our international obligation to assist people displaced by the war

Source 1: One of the first popular US products was Coca-Cola. In 1941, the president of Coca-Cola stipulated that, 'Coca-Cola should be made available to all American servicemen and women, no matter the cost'. Brisbane, which was the US South Pacific Headquarters, soon became home to a 24-hour bottling factory supplying Coca-Cola to American and Australian servicepeople at home and abroad.

Source 2: Migrant workers arriving at General Motors Holden factory at Fishermans Bend, Port Melbourne, 1955. About 50 per cent of the 5400 workers at General Motors were migrants.

- resource development, including an expansion in mining, and reorientation towards Asia-Pacific markets, especially Japan
- social welfare efforts, to support returned servicepeople and the growing population.

This economic boom brought a higher standard of living to Australia, with higher wages allowing people to engage in the consumer culture that exploded in the 1950s and 1960s.

Australia's changing role in global affairs

After World War II, fears about communism influenced Australia's politics, including the alliances we formed, the conflicts we became involved in and the domestic policies that our government created. Australian fears regarding the spread of communism led to support of the **Colombo Plan** (started in 1951), which provided expertise, food and equipment to countries in the Asian region, including Japan and Indonesia. The goal was to increase stability in the region and prevent communism from spreading further.

This coincided with Australia's shift from its prewar Eurocentric orientation to a more Asia-oriented perspective, as a key US ally in the Asia-Pacific. This saw Australia engaging more with its Asian neighbours, from supporting Indonesian independence to trading more actively with countries such as Japan, Korea and China. By the 1960s, Japan was Australia's largest trading partner.

Learning ladder 15.1

Background and origins

1. Describe what is 'popular culture'.
2. Explain how American soldiers influenced Australian popular culture during World War II.
3. Explain how postwar prosperity created a consumer culture in the 1950s and 1960s.
4. Explain why a fear of communism led to Australia forming new alliances and engaging more with Asia.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify how Coca-Cola became part of Australian popular culture.
2. Describe what drove the postwar economic boom.
3. Explain what caused Australia to support the Colombo Plan.
4. Analyse what causes popular culture to change.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

15.2

How did Australian popular culture change in the decade following the war?

At the end of World War II, Australian cultural values were still oriented towards Britain. These values were in a sense quarantined from the cultures surrounding Australia. However, during the decade following the war, this would start to change.

Sport

Sport is a part of the Australian identity. Australians – the image has it – are supposed to be 'sporty' and fit. Just like today, sport was very popular at the end of World War II. During the war, federal and state governments had passed laws to ban sport on weekdays. A return to sporting competitions after World War II was good therapy for returning servicepeople and civilians. Sport helped take away some of the traumas of war and regular local sport and international events such as test cricket were signs that life was beginning to return to normal.

Source 2: Donald Bradman, the world's greatest ever cricketer, walking out to bat at his testimonial match at the MCG in Melbourne in 1948.

Key sports such as cricket, netball, rugby and Australian Rules football remained popular and more Australians began to join tennis, golf and bowls clubs. After the war, many new sporting fields and swimming pools were constructed. These new venues would play host to the next generations of Australian sports lovers, further cementing the place of sports culture in Australia.

Radio

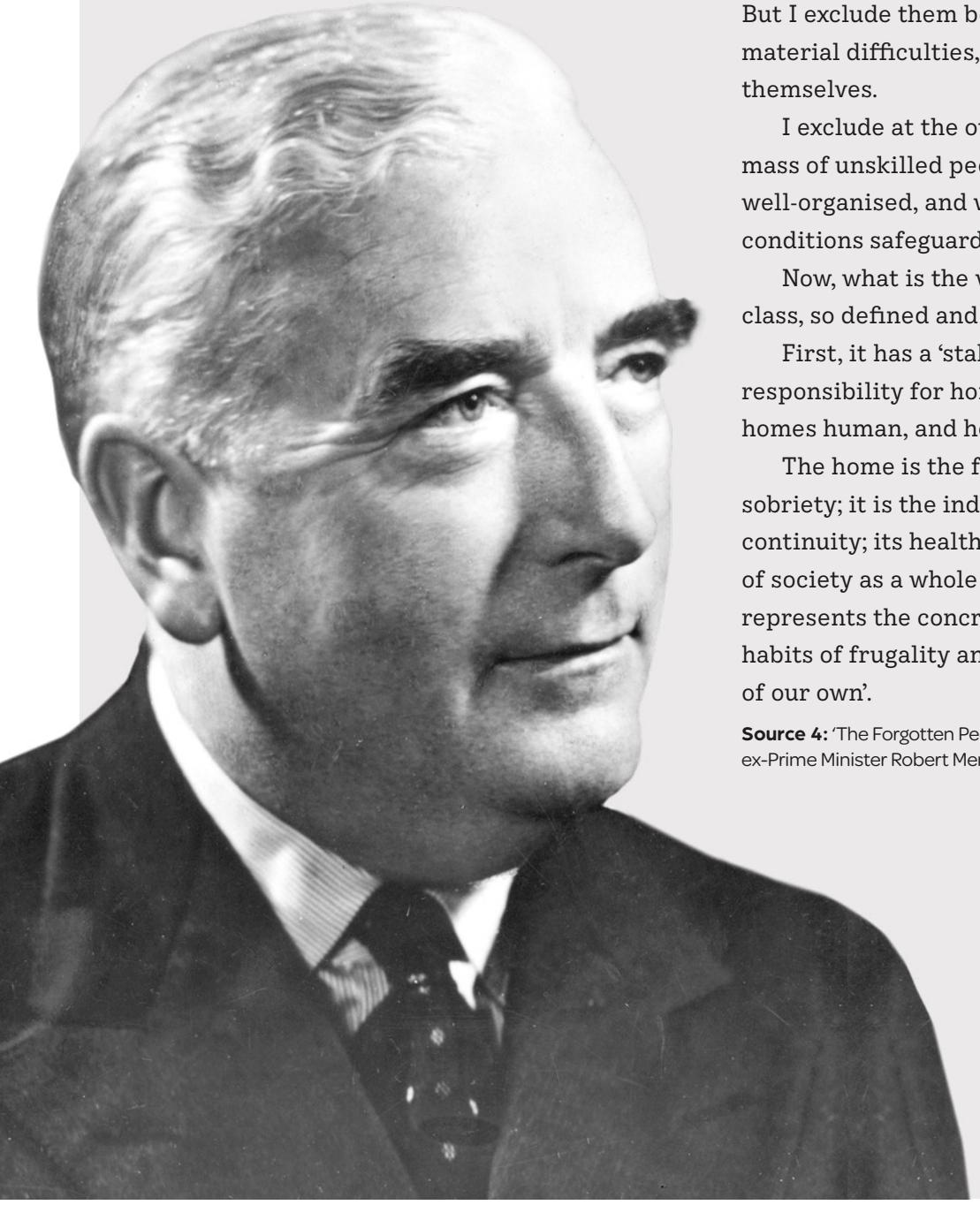
At the end of World War II, all capital cities and most regional centres had one or more radio stations. As the principal form of communication, the radio helped reduce distance and create a sense of community. On Friday 22 May 1942 at 9.15 pm, ex-Prime Minister Robert Menzies gave a 'fireside chat' (Source 4) over the radio. Modelled after the radio talks of then US President Roosevelt, it was designed to make him appear family friendly and politically neutral. Menzies's talk contributed to defining what it meant to be Australian and the nature of the postwar Australian identity.

Source 3: Bakelite Bush radio from the 1940s

Radio was also the source of another cultural shift that started in the 1950s. Rock 'n' roll arrived on Australian airways in the second half of the 1950s and immediately found a following. The rebellious songs of Bill Haley and the Comets, Elvis Presley, Little Richard, and Australia's own Johnny O'Keefe drove the development of the Australian rock 'n' roll subculture.

Source 1: Charles Meere's *Australian Beach Pattern 1940*, both shows the importance of beach culture to the Australian way of life, and is a commentary against Australia's isolationist attitude during the 1930s. [Charles Merre (England/Australia 1890–1961). Australian beach pattern 1940, oil on canvas, 91.5 x 122 cm. Art Gallery of New South Wales, purchased 1965. © Estate of Charles Meere/Copyright Agency. Image © Art Gallery of New South Wales OA20.1965]

In a country like Australia the class war must always be a false war. But if we are to talk of classes, then the time has come to say something of the forgotten class – the middle class – those people who are constantly in danger of being ground between the upper and the nether millstones of the false war; the middle class who, properly regarded represent the backbone of this country.



We do not have classes here as in England, and therefore the terms do not mean the same; so I must define what I mean when I use the expression 'middle class'.

Let me first define it by exclusion. I exclude at one end of the scale the rich and powerful: those who control great funds and enterprises, and are as a rule able to protect themselves – though it must be said that in a political sense they have as a rule shown neither comprehension nor competence. But I exclude them because, in most material difficulties, the rich can look after themselves.

I exclude at the other end of the scale the mass of unskilled people, almost invariably well-organised, and with their wages and conditions safeguarded by popular law ...

Now, what is the value of this middle class, so defined and described?

First, it has a 'stake in the country'. It has responsibility for homes – homes material, homes human, and homes spiritual ...

The home is the foundation of sanity and sobriety; it is the indispensable condition of continuity; its health determines the health of society as a whole ... The material home represents the concrete expression of the habits of frugality and saving 'for a home of our own'.

Source 4: 'The Forgotten People', radio broadcast by ex-Prime Minister Robert Menzies on 22 May 1942

The rise of the middle class and the Australian dream

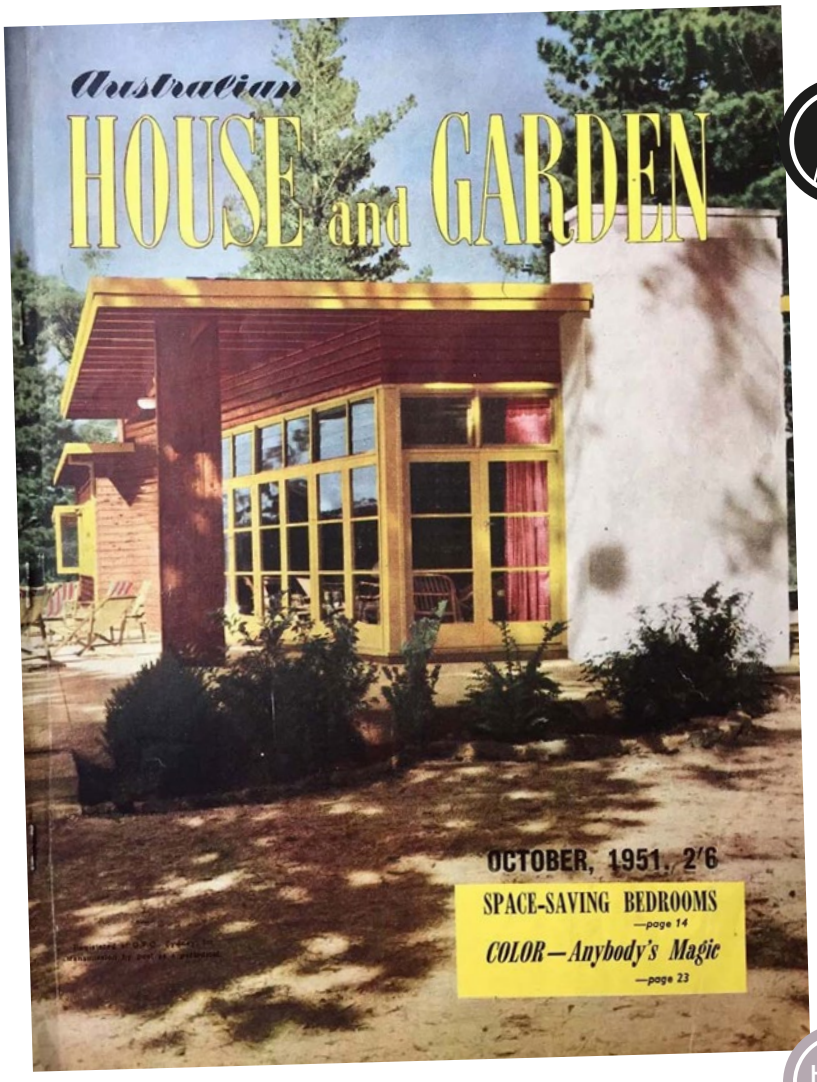
The Australian dream of the quarter-acre block with a house, a veggie patch, a dog and two to three kids emerged during the interwar period and exploded after WWII. By the late 1940s, Australia was the most suburbanised nation in the world, and the 1950s saw the largest increase in home-ownership in the nation's history. By the mid-1960s, two-thirds of the Australian population lived in a home on a quarter-acre block that they either owned or were paying off.

This Australian dream was in part influenced by the British Garden Suburb Movement and the Great American Dream, but it also drew heavily on 19th-century Australian ideas about ordinary people – selectors – taking up small, family farms and building Australia.

Movies and television

Before television was launched in Australia in 1956, picture theatres were a popular choice for entertainment and an important source of information about the world. Newsreels were played alongside films, and were as much of a drawcard to theatres as movies. During this time, the silver screen was dominated by Hollywood movies, with films starring Marilyn Monroe, James Dean and John Wayne particularly popular.

With the introduction of television, most TV shows were initially imported from the United States and Britain. American shows, such as *I Love Lucy* and *The Lone Ranger*, also dominated the small screen, but they sat alongside shows from Britain, and increasingly, homegrown productions.



Source 5: Magazines like *Australian House and Garden* were targeted at Australia's middleclass homeowners. Alongside the Australian dream, consumerism was on the rise during this period.

Learning ladder 15.2

Background and origins

1. Describe the background to sport returning to being an important part of Australian culture after World War II.
2. Explain how Menzies used radio to define Australia's cultural identity.
3. Explain why Australians wanted to create 'the Australian dream' after World War II. What were the features of this dream?
4. Evaluate the impact of movies and television on Australian culture.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: What is the origin of this source?
2. Source 2: Describe this source. What does it tell you about the popularity of cricket?
3. Source 5: From your knowledge of 'the Australian dream', explain how this source assists our understanding of it.
4. Source 4: Explain the context of this source. How useful is it in understanding Australian society and culture in the 1940s?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

15.3

How did popular culture develop during the 1960s?

The influence of America and the rise of youth culture that started in the 1950s accelerated in the 1960s and into the early 1970s. This was also a period of greater interaction with other cultures, both through immigration and general outlook.

Source 1: On 13 October 1965, English model Jean Shrimpton arrived at Flemington Racecourse in Melbourne on Derby Day. Known as the first supermodel, her appearance in a mini dress – with no hat or gloves – shocked many Australians and was reported in the Australian and international media.

The swinging sixties

The 'sixties' does not just describe a decade. Rather, it refers to a time in Australian society when old values were radically challenged and youth rebelled on a scale, and in public ways, previously unknown. This new youth culture was often in conflict with the customs and morals of older generations. The era was associated with sexual liberation, brought on by the ready availability of the contraceptive pill, and flower power, a social movement that advocated peace and love. Gender roles began to change, and the nuclear family – traditionally composed of father as head, mother and two to three children – began to break down.

Throughout this period, the influence on Australia of American culture continued to grow. American comic books (banned from 1938 until 1960) became extremely popular during the 1960s, as did American fashions. America also continued to influence popular culture in Australia through its TV shows and films.

Changing outlook

In addition to the shift from British influence to greater American influence, the post-WWII period saw Australia slowly become more multicultural. One development that pointed to the gradual decline of 'white Australia' was the formation of Australia–Asia Associations, which aimed to promote better understanding, goodwill and cooperation between Australians and the people of Asian countries. Australia's population was also beginning to diversify, with more migrants arriving from countries such as India and China. Slowly, popular culture began to reflect these influences.

Source 2: Before 1960, American comic books had been banned in Australia, both in an effort to curb the Americanisation of Australian culture and to protect the local comic book industry. With the ban lifted, comic fans rushed to buy imported American comics, particularly those from Marvel.

Asian influences on popular culture

While Australian popular culture continued to be dominated by American and British imports, Australia's closer ties with Japan by the 1960s meant that Japanese TV shows and comics were becoming increasingly available. One of the earliest examples of this was *The Samurai*, which premiered in Australia in 1964, dubbed in American English.

It ran for 128 episodes and was even more popular with Australian children than *The Mickey Mouse Club*. The hero of the show was Shintaro, master swordsman of the Samurai, played by Koichi Ose. His popularity was evident when, on visiting Australia in 1965 for a series of live performances, he was swamped by crowds.

The headmaster [Rex Morgan] of Sydney's newest private boys' preparatory school [Pittwater House] has banned Shintaro cards ... [He said] 'I question the mental health of a nation which permits its schoolchildren to be exposed to the current cult of Japanese sadism and cruelty in the guise of a TV hero. I should have thought we had enough of this sort of thing during the war' ...

Mr Morgan said that to him this was further indication of the lack of principles of some retailers and advertisers. It was essential that children be 'fortified with minds able to resist such undermining and able to discriminate between right and wrong, between good and bad, between the worthwhile and the fruitless.'

Mr Morgan said he had been criticised for being a 'right-wing reactionary'. He said, 'If right-wing reactionary means putting back into life some of the old-fashioned virtues such as good manners, respect for parents, recognition for elders and betters, accepting that Jack is not as good as his master, then I ask you parents to subscribe to the same philosophy. I shall react more and more sharply against the sick and soft and unmanly attitudes which so many people are affecting these days.'

Source 3: One view of *The Samurai* [*Daily Mirror*, 14 December 1965]

Source 4: Fans of Shintaro wait to welcome the star of the show, Ose Koichi, at a live show held in Sydney stadium in 1965, which could seat 4000 for each performance.

▲ **Source 5:** A Scanlen's Shintaro Samurai card, which came with chewing gum, 1964. In *The Samurai*, the hero Shintaro battled it out against his Ninja enemies.

I strongly protest the statement attributing sadism to the TV series *The Samurai* by Mr R.H. Morgan, headmaster, Pittwater Preparatory School. That one of this city's supposedly foremost educators should be so bigoted and twisted about the triumph of rights over wrongs, good manners and kindliness as portrayed in the series, bespeaks of a completely closed mind.

His statement, 'This type of programme is producing sick, soft and unmanly attitudes in Australian society' obviously applies not to Australians but to himself. I am father of three boys from 4 to 7½ years. The three of them watch the show as well as myself. All of us are attracted by the beauty of the art direction, camera work and general presentation of the series which is a fairly honest portrayal of life in early Japan.

To see my boys running, jumping and only very occasionally standing still in emulation of the physical feats of the good or bad, seems quite the reverse of soft and unmanly. This seems to be the season when headmasters blame the children whom they are supposed to be leading for the faults into which their own generation has led the young.

If Mr Morgan could open his mind sufficiently to study a little of the history of another country like Japan, he would find portrayed in *The Samurai* a spirit of fine discipline, physical and mental, and honour far above anything he could teach.

Source 6: Response by John Z. Huie to Rex Morgan's view of *The Samurai* [*Daily Mirror*, 23 December 1965]

Learning ladder 15.3

Background and origins

1. Identify two key influences that shaped Australian popular culture in the 1960s.
2. Describe how youth culture challenged traditional Australian values during the 1960s.
3. Explain how postwar social and cultural changes contributed to the development of popular culture.
4. Explain why television programs like *The Samurai* became part of Australian culture in the 1960s.
5. Evaluate the origins of 1960s popular culture in Australia. Did internal or external factors play a greater role in shaping it?

Perspectives

1. Identify two different views about *The Samurai* presented in the sources.
2. Describe Mr Morgan's opinion about the show *The Samurai* and its effect on students.
3. Explain how John Huie's perspective challenges Mr Morgan's view.
4. Compare the two perspectives. What values or assumptions shape each person's viewpoint?
5. Evaluate which perspective you find more convincing. Use evidence from the sources to support your judgment.

Perspectives, page 502

HOW TO

15.4

How did the 1970s and 1980s affect Australian popular culture?

The Cold War and economic pressures of the 1970s and 1980s deeply influenced Australian popular culture. Cold War fears heightened Australia's alignment with America, while economic struggles inspired local stories of resilience and activism.

Influence of the Cold War

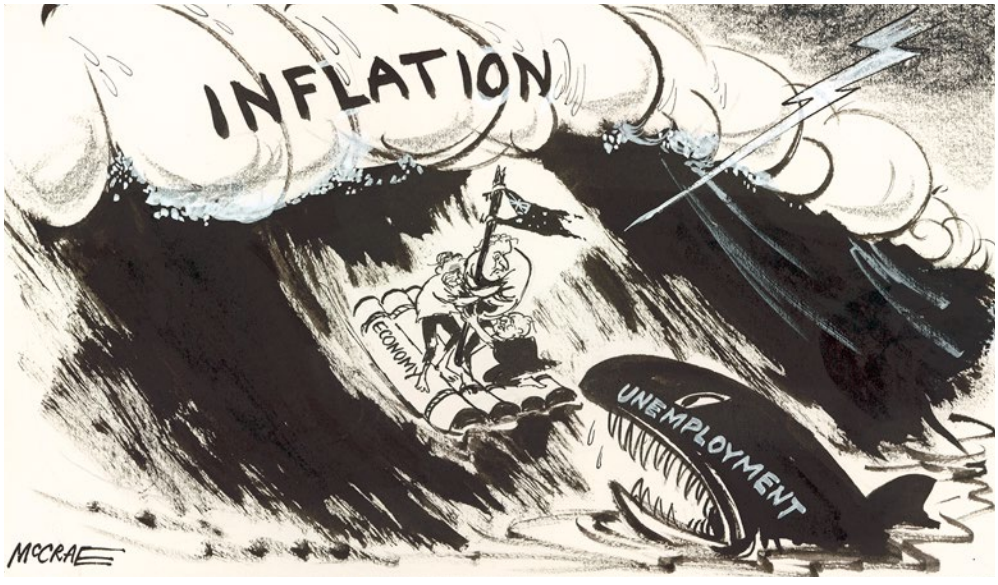
The Cold War dominated the fears of much of the Western world, including Australia, during the 1970s and 1980s. The notion of an ideological battle between capitalism and communism featured prominently in the movies and TV shows being produced both in the United States and in Australia, while censorship of 'leftist' ideas shaped the creative industries. Australia's involvement in the Vietnam War also influenced popular culture, especially through protest music and literature.

The anxieties of the Cold War era were also reflected in the growth of Sci-Fi and Dystopian narratives, such as in the Australian-produced international hit *Mad Max* (1979), starring a young Mel Gibson and Nicole Kidman. Just as the blockbusters coming out of Hollywood resonated with Australian audiences, *Mad Max* spoke to American cinemagoers. It would go on to gross $100 million worldwide, and it held the Guiness World Record for highest box-office-to-budget ratio until 1999.

Economic pressures and popular culture

During the early 1970s, Australia was caught up in a global recession, triggered in part by the 1973 Oil Crisis (related to events in the Middle East). Economists had believed that it was impossible to have a combination of high unemployment, rising prices and slow economic growth. But this is what happened – it was termed '**stagflation**'.

> The glory days of Australian slang really arrived in the 1960s and 1970s. 'That was the time when Australianisms stopped being something local and started to spread outside of Australia itself' … Television played a big part in that.'
>
> **Source 1:** John Hajek, Languages and Linguistics professor, quoted in Jon Donnison (2014), 'The rise and fall of Australian slang', *BBC News*.



Source 2: A Stewart McCrae cartoon satirises the Whitlam government's struggles to get on top of the Australian economy during the early 1970s. [Stewart McCrae, National Library of Australia collection]

Source 3: The Saints, from Brisbane, are generally considered one of the first punk bands in the world. They had a major influence on punk music globally, without a leather jacket or mohawk in sight.

This recession, which continued right through to the late 1980s, resulted in economic hardship that brought attention to working-class stories and struggles. This fed into the crystallising 'Aussie' culture, where Australians moved further away from British influences, and instead celebrated local stories, traditions and landscapes. This was especially apparent in the increasing use of Australian slang and humour in our television shows and films (Source 1).

Counterculture also developed during this time, as is typical of times of uncertainty. For example:

- Pub rock: Reflecting working-class life and values, bands like AC/DC, Skyhooks and Cold Chisel became popular in Australia, as well as internationally.
- Punk: At the same time as it was happening in Britain and the United States, Australia developed punk music independently, with pioneering bands including the Saints (1973) and Radio Birdman (1974).
- Folk and protest music: Artists like Paul Kelly and the Seekers addressed political and social issues through their music.

Land rights movement

The 1970s was a critical decade for the lands rights movement in Australia. In 1972, the Aboriginal Tent Embassy was established on the lawns of Parliament House in Canberra (Source 4). It became a symbol of Aboriginal political resistance and demand for land rights, and it played an essential role in raising awareness about First Nations issues across the nation. This visibility laid the foundation for a greater awareness of First Nations issues generally in mainstream society, helped along by activists such as Charlie Perkins and Gary Foley, musicians such as Archie Roach and Yothu Yindi and authors such as Kim Scott and Oodgeroo Noonuccal.

Source 4: Mike Anderson, vice chairman of the Aboriginal Lands Board, with Billie Cragie of Moree and Bert Williams of Nowra, with signs protesting against the government's decision not to grant full land rights to First Nations Peoples, at the Aboriginal Tent Embassy on the lawns of Parliament House, Canberra, 27 November 1972.

Source 5: ▶
The Sony Walkman is the most iconic device of the 1980s. The ability to listen to music portably transformed the music industry and gave rise to 'headphone culture'.

Popular culture goes global

The 1980s brought improved economic growth, and a focus on **consumerism** and wealth. This followed a global trend, originating in the United States, of thinking 'greed is good'. Popular culture celebrated material success, with people showing off their luxury brands and gadgets, like Walkmans (Source 5). Entertainment increasingly moved into the home, with most homes now having at least a TV and radio, and a rising number also having a personal computer and/or gaming console.

Increased access to television and radio, as well as the availability of VHS recording devices, resulted in a flood of international content, still mainly from the United States and Britain. However, this went both ways, and Australian content also gained an increasing following internationally during this period. The TV shows *Neighbours* (1985) and *Home and Away* (1988) became popular in Britain, where they continue to be screened, and *Crocodile Dundee* became the second highest-grossing film of 1986 in the United States, beaten only by *Top Gun*. Australian surf wear also gained global popularity, with brands like Quicksilver and Billabong becoming a mainstay in global surf fashion.

▲ **Source 6:** Paul Hogan had his own comedy program, *The Paul Hogan Show*, between 1973 and 1984. However, his biggest success came with the movie *Crocodile Dundee* in 1986. The movie is the highest grossing Australian film of all time and it led to further international success for Hogan in a series of Australian tourism advertisements that highlighted Australian culture and identity.

Learning ladder 15.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Describe the impact of the Cold War on Australian popular culture.
2. Explain the impact of the recession of the late 1980s on popular culture.
3. Source 3: Explain why The Saints could be considered historically significant?
4. Evaluate the significance of Paul Hogan's *Crocodile Dundee* in portraying Australian culture to the world.

HOW TO
Cause and effect, page 498

Cause and effect

1. Source 4: Identify the event that caused increased demands for land rights in 1972.
2. Source 1: Describe the effect of television on Australian slang.
3. Explain how Australian products such as television shows, films and surf wear became popular overseas in the 1980s.
4. Explain why counterculture developed in Australia. Gives examples of the types of music that were part of this movement.

15.5

How has popular music in Australia been influenced?

Cultural change goes hand-in-hand with shifts in the styles of music that 'speak' to people. From the 1950s to now, Australian culture has been influenced by musical trends both imported from overseas and homegrown, as well as by our increasingly multicultural and globalised nature. How music is made and consumed now has certainly changed a lot since the postwar period.

A new youthful audience

In the postwar world, a new demographic of Australians who influenced popular culture emerged: the teenager. While this demographic had always existed, from 1946, a steady increase in births, called the 'baby boom', made this group far more noticeable. Children born between 1946 and 1964 became known as **baby boomers**. As this group became teenagers, they wanted to be freed from the strict social norms that the prewar world dictated. They would go on to become a powerful consumer group.

In the 1940s and early 1950s, Australian music was dominated by jazz, country and big band genres. The Australian music charts featured American artists such as Bing Crosby, Doris Day and Nat King Cole. Australian country music artist Slim Dusty was the exception to the rule with his song *A Pub with No Beer*, which held the top spot in Australia for a week in 1957 and became our first international hit, with success in the United States and Europe.

In 1955, the Australian music scene changed with the introduction of rock 'n' roll, which was a cross between rhythm and blues, country and American gospel. The arrival of rock music coincided with the release of the film *Blackboard Jungle*, a film about defiant teenagers in an interracial US high school. The film was the first to feature rock music on its

Source 1: Johnny O'Keefe interviews Miss Australia Tricia Reschke on the show *Sing Sing Sing* at the Channel 7 studio in Sydney, 30 March 1963.

Source 2: The Easybeats on stage in the Netherlands in 1968

soundtrack, including the song 'Rock around the Clock'. Rock 'n' roll offered teenagers a new way to express themselves and by the end of the decade it was the most popular form of music among young Australians.

In 1958, Johnny O'Keefe became the first Australian to enter the Australian music charts with the rock 'n' roll hit, 'Wild One', a song that summed up the rebellious nature of youth. After seeing *Blackboard Jungle*, O'Keefe knew that rock 'n' roll was the sound he wanted to create: 'I heard Bill Haley singing "Rock around the Clock" and it really freaked me out like nothing I'd ever heard before. I told myself that I had to get among this rock 'n' roll stuff, so for a while I started impersonating Bill Haley'.

In 1964, four musicians from Liverpool, UK, changed the landscape of Australian music. The Beatles were already hugely popular on the music charts, but when they landed in Australia, they were met with scenes of teenage girls screaming and fainting in excitement. In Sydney, an estimated 250 000 people welcomed the Beatles either at the airport, along their route or in the city.

The Beatles stayed in the country for 14 days but their presence remained long after, with multiple number 1 hits over the following years. However, perhaps their greatest legacy is inspiring a generation of Australian musicians to follow in their footsteps.

One particular group was the Easybeats, the first Australian rock act to have an international hit, with 'Friday on my Mind' in 1966. The song reached number 1 in Australia, number 6 in the UK and the top 20 in the United States.

Migrant kids and rock 'n' roll

The story of the Easybeats is not just one of music; it is also a story of migrant success. All the members were born outside of Australia, though they all considered Australia home. They met in the Villawood Migrant Hostel, now known as the Villawood Detention Centre. The hostel was built to help house the post-war influx of migrants. The group rehearsed in the hostel and many of their early fans were the residents of Villawood themselves.

The Easybeats were not the only residents of Villawood that became an Australian music success story. George Young, the Easybeats guitarist, was the older brother of Angus and Malcolm Young, of AC/DC fame. AC/DC formed in the 1970s, and became one of Australia's international success stories. The band's music has featured in many films and television shows over the years, and their live shows are enduringly popular, selling out every time they tour.

New laws, new sounds

During the 1970s, bands such as AC/DC helped to create a uniquely Australian brand of rock 'n' roll: 'pub rock'. In the 1960s, thanks to activists such as Rosalie Bognor and Merle Thornton, it became legal for women to enter a public bar. This was also the decade that the legal age of drinking was lowered from 21 to 18, which meant that the conditions were perfect for pubs to capitalise on a young audience of baby boomers keen to hear the music of their generation live. The venues were small and noisy and the sound of hard rock and blues rock was loud and loaded with guitar riffs and drum solos.

Of course, pubs were not the only venues where live music could be heard. The first music festival in Australia was Pilgrimage for Pop, held in 1970 in Ourimbah on the New South Wales Central Coast. This was followed by Victoria's Sunbury Music Festival, which took place between 1972 and 1975. Over its lifetime, Sunbury showcased Australian and international acts and was labelled 'Australia's Woodstock'.

Political voices, hear me roar

Music has long had the ability to teach, inspire, inform and unite. In 1972, Australia's Helen Reddy wrote a song, 'I am Woman', that did just that. 'I am Woman' became the global anthem for the women's liberation movement of the 1970s. This movement fought to achieve equal rights and opportunities for women, along with greater personal freedoms. When discussing how the song came about, Reddy commented, 'I realised the song I was looking for didn't exist, and I was going to have to write it myself'.

Source 4: Helen Reddy during a press conference in Sydney, 1973

Source 3: AC/DC performs at the Palladium Theatre in New York City in August 1978. AC/DC are an Australian rock band formed in Sydney in 1973. In 2003 AC/DC were inducted into the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame.

In the 1980s and 1990s a number of songs were written that aimed to highlight the struggles over sovereignty and land rights faced by First Nations Peoples of Australia. This era of protest music came at a time when it seemed like the struggle for land rights had reached a stalemate. Midnight Oil, a band that, like many, has its roots in the Australian pub rock scene, had an international hit with the 1987 song 'Beds are Burning', which highlighted how First Nations Peoples had been forcibly removed from their lands. During the same time period, renowned Australian musician Archie Roach wrote his first song, 'Took the Children Away', a song about the Stolen Generations and his own experience of being forcibly removed from his family.

Source 5: Adam Briggs is a Yorta Yorta man, rapper, record label owner, comedy writer, actor and author. In an interview, he stated his Yorta Yorta heritage means that he represents 'a long line of story tellers'.

Diversity in Australian music

Since the 1990s, multiculturalism has had a profound and transformative effect on Australian music, enriching it with diverse influences and helping shape a more inclusive and globally connected music scene. Technology has also made making and sharing music more accessible than it has ever been.

Fusion of musical styles

First Nations Australian artists like Yothu Yindi combined traditional Aboriginal sounds and themes with rock and dance music, and migrant communities introduced elements of their cultural heritage, including African rhythms, Middle Eastern scales, and Indian classical music, into mainstream Australian music. Artists such as Xavier Rudd and Emma Donovan began incorporating instruments and styles inspired by non-Western traditions into their music.

Increased representation of diverse artists

African hip-hop artists like Sampa the Great and Asian-Australian musicians like Jagwar Ma have incorporated influences from their cultural heritage into their music, popularising these sounds in the process. Festivals such as the Sydney Multicultural Festival and Big Day Out and stations like SBS Radio and Triple J have played, and continue to play, a key role in promoting diverse talent.

Revival and integration of First Nations music

The multiculturalism of the 1990s and beyond encouraged greater recognition and integration of First Nations music within the broader Australian music scene. Artists like Baker Boy, Briggs and Thelma Plum achieved mainstream success while celebrating First Nations languages and stories.

Learning ladder 15.5

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the new demographic that emerged in the postwar world.
2. Describe the legacy of The Beatles on Australian music.
3. Explain the impact of migrants on Australian popular music and the legacy they created.
4. Explain why diversity created its own musical legacy.

Significance

1. Identify the significant event of 1972 relating to Helen Reddy.
2. Describe the significance of Johnny O'Keefe to the introduction of rock 'n' roll music in Australia.
3. Explain the historical significance of popular music in raising awareness of First Nations issues.
4. Evaluate the historical significance of popular music in shaping Australian society.

Significance, page 504

HOW TO

How has technology changed television consumption in Australia?

Television, once the dominant source of information and entertainment for Australian households, has been transformed by evolving technologies, offering viewers more control and variety than ever before. Television still helps build a cohesive culture in Australia, but its role has become more complex due to the digital age.

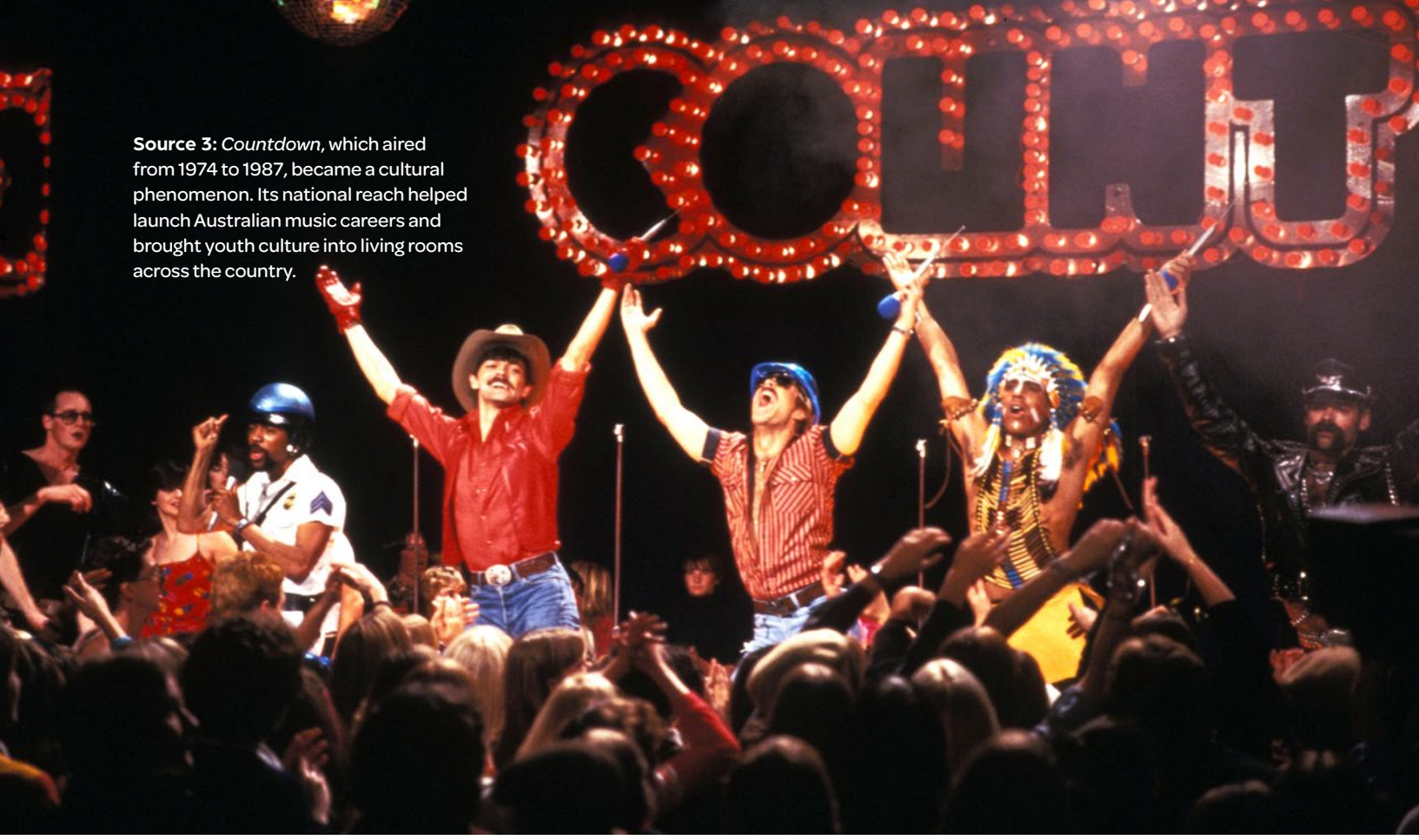
Good evening, and welcome to television

Television in Australia began in 1956 with the first broadcast by TCN-9 in Sydney. The first person to appear on TV in Australia was Bruce Gyngell, who introduced this first broadcast with, 'Good evening, and welcome to television'. The introduction of TV had been delayed by World War II and political uncertainty, but it was eventually launched to coincide with the 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games.

Early TVs, which had black-and-white screens, were expensive, costing the equivalent of $7800 today. By the end of 1956, only 5 per cent of households owned a TV set. However, this number rose steadily, with Australians eagerly saving to bring this new technology into their homes. Colour TV was introduced in 1975, making television even more popular. By 1978, 64 per cent of households in Sydney and Melbourne owned a colour set.

> We dedicate this station to the full service of the community. To Australian life – the happy families in the homes – we promise to serve you faithfully and well.
>
> **Source 1:** The master of ceremonies of the first television broadcast, Eric Pearce

Source 2: Bruce Gyngell was the first person on Australian television and went on to have a long career in the media industry. This photo shows him launching the multicultural station Channel 0 in 1980 (looking at the test pattern while he waits for it to start). This channel would go on to become SBS.



Source 3: *Countdown*, which aired from 1974 to 1987, became a cultural phenomenon. Its national reach helped launch Australian music careers and brought youth culture into living rooms across the country.

Changing technology

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, technology significantly changed how Australians watched television. The video cassette recorder (VCR), introduced in the early 1980s, allowed people to record shows, skip ads and rent movies. By 1997, 87 per cent of Australian households had a VCR. Subscription TV, like Foxtel, became available in the 1990s, giving viewers even more choice. The internet brought even bigger changes. By 2001, over half of Australian households had internet access, enabling new ways to consume media.

Streaming services like Netflix (launched in Australia in 2015) gave people the freedom to watch content whenever they wanted. By 2020, over 12 million Australians had a Netflix subscription.

Smart TVs and social media platforms like YouTube and Facebook also shifted how Australians accessed entertainment and news, often using smartphones. These advancements led to a decline in free-to-air TV, which had long relied on advertisements to fund its operations.

Source 4: VCR and cassette tapes, c. 1990. The VCR made is easier for people to find and watch shows that appealed specifically to them.

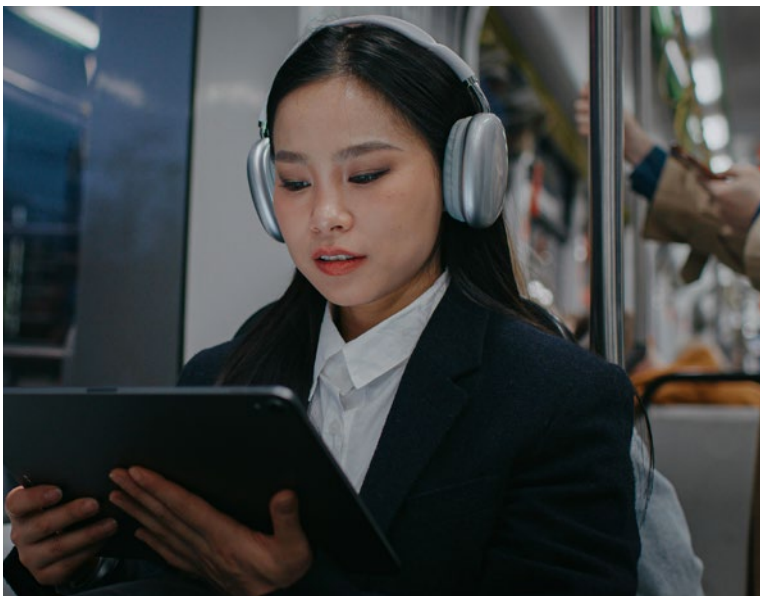
Effects on popular culture

1950s to 1970s: A shared experience

In pre-1980s Australia, watching the same TV shows played a key role in creating a shared culture. Due to the limited number of channels and programs, most Australians watched the same major shows. This communal viewing helped bond the nation, with popular shows creating shared experiences and conversation points. Especially after the 1970s, Australian TV also reflected and shaped national identity, with programs addressing local issues, such as Australian lifestyle, the outback and the changing role of women. These shows became part of the national **social fabric**, providing common references and language. The shared experience of TV viewing, often a family activity, helped form a cohesive culture.

Source 5: The final episode of the Australian police drama *Homicide* in 1977 was a major cultural event, with approximately 25 per cent of the Australian population tuning in.

Source 6: During the 1980s, TVs became more affordable, with households increasingly having more than one. These extra TVs were often in bedrooms, where they were viewed alone or with friends.



Source 7: Smartphones and tablets have moved viewing out of the loungeroom, and made it more often an individual experience.

1980s and 1990s: Fragmentation of tastes

The shared TV culture in Australia began to shift in the 1980s with the introduction of cable television, which offered more channels and diverse programming. The rise of satellite TV and subscription services in the 1990s further fragmented viewing, allowing audiences to access specialised content, such as international shows and niche sports. Shows were increasingly accessed alone, or with friends, rather than with the family.

2000s to now: Consuming content

In the 2000s, the advent of the internet, digital platforms and DVDs allowed people to watch content on-demand, further breaking the traditional TV-viewing model. The 2010s saw the rise of streaming platforms like Netflix and Stan, leading to on-demand, personalised viewing with fewer shared experiences. Social media, rather than national broadcasts, now plays the central role in creating communities around specific shows or interests; and these communities are increasingly global.

Learning ladder 15.6

Impact and legacies

1. Identify the technology introduced in Australia in 1956 that helped create the legacy of a shared culture.
2. Source 1: Describe the intended legacy of television.
3. Explain the impact of changing technology on the legacy of television. Has the legacy remained the same?
4. Evaluate the legacy of television on Australian society and culture. Would you agree that television has been the major influence on shaping popular culture?

Continuity and change

1. Identify one way television viewing has changed since the 1950s.
2. Describe how Australian television changed from the 1950s to the 2010s.
3. Explain how television technology has changed the way Australians consume content.
4. Explain how television's role in Australian culture has both changed and remained the same.
5. Evaluate the extent to which shared television culture has continued or declined over time.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

15.7

What contributions have Australians made to international sport?

Sport when played at the international level is a way for countries to gain recognition. Australia, with a relatively small population, has achieved many world records and titles in a wide range of sports, and is acclaimed as a sporting nation. Sport can also provide opportunities to engage with other countries and pursue political and economic interests – and Australia does this through **sports diplomacy**.

Australia's international sporting history

For a nation with a relatively small population, Australia has achieved sporting success in many fields. The first group to represent Australia overseas was a team of 13 Aboriginal (Jardwadjali, Gunditjmara and Wotjobaluk) cricketers, who in 1868 played 47 matches against English sides. The tour was a significant event in the history of cricket and contributed to a wider understanding of Australia's Aboriginal people.

Less than a decade later, Australia produced its first world champion when Edward Trickett won the professional singles sculls (rowing) title on London's River Thames in 1876.

Source 1: Aboriginal cricketers alongside the Melbourne Cricket Ground Pavilion, c. 1867 [State Library of NSW, FL9024234]

Source 2: Diamonds celebrate their victory over the New Zealand Ferns in the 2015 World Netball Cup in Sydney, which they won. This was the 11th time they had claimed the title.

From that time onwards, Australians have risen to international prominence in a wide range of sporting fields (Source 3). These successes have contributed to 'raising the bar' for other sportspeople. In cricket alone, Australia has one of the most successful teams in history, and Australia's Sir Donald Bradman (1908–2001) is considered the greatest batter of all time to this day.

Australia's success in swimming has also changed the sport, with Australian training methods and techniques adopted globally. Netball is another sport in which Australia leads the world. The Diamonds have been responsible for contributing to the global growth of the sport.

Host and innovator

Australia has made a significant contribution to world sport through successfully hosting major sporting events such as the British Empire / Commonwealth Games (1938, 1962, 1982, 2006, 2018), Melbourne Olympic Games (1956), Sydney Olympic Games (2000), and the Asian Cup Football Final (2015), along with one of the four grand slam tennis tournaments each year.

Name	Sport	World achievement
Peter Thomson	Golf	British Open 1954–56, 1958, 1965
Shirley Strickland	Athletics	World record 100m, 1955
Jack Brabham	Motor racing	F1 world champion, 1959–60, 1966
Rod Laver	Tennis	World number 1, 1961, 1965–70
Margaret Court	Tennis	World number 1, 1962–65, 1969–70, 1973
Ron Clarke	Athletics	World records, 5000 & 10 000m, 1963–65
Lionel Rose	Boxing	WBA and WBC champion, 1968–69
Heather McKay	Squash	World champion, 1976, 1979
Layne Beachley	Surfing	World champion, 1998–2003
Ian Thorpe	Swimming	Set 23 world records from 1998
Karrie Webb	Golf	Seven times Major winner, 1999 onwards
Kurt Fearnley	Wheelchair racing	IPC world champion, 2006
Jess Fox	Canoeing	World champion, 2013–15, 2017–18
Dylan Alcott	Wheelchair tennis	World number 1, 2015–16, 2018–21

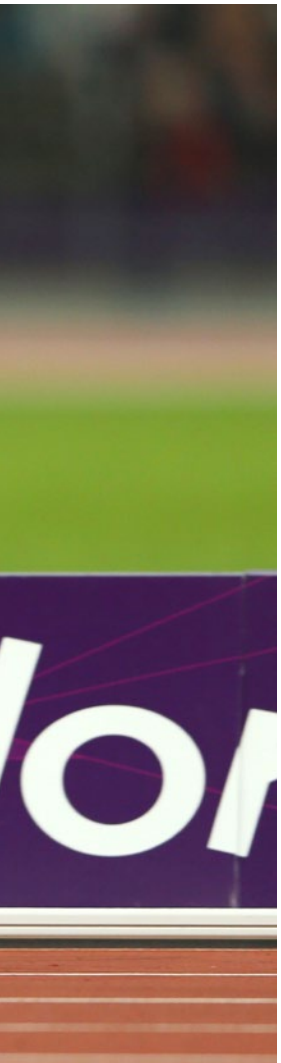
Source 3: A selection of Australian world champions, 1945 – c. 2010

Another critical global contribution has come in the form of **innovations** in sports training techniques, driven by the Australian Institute of Sport (established in 1981). Australia has given the world such innovations as the game sense approach (widely used in rugby, soccer and various other codes) and 'tapering', which is now standard practice in elite swimming and many other endurance sports.

Australia has also been a leader in designing adaptive sports equipment and training methods for Paralympians, including lightweight racing wheelchairs and swimming prosthetics.

Source 4: Anti-apartheid student protestor Meredith Burgmann is dragged by police off the grounds following a pitch invasion during the South Africa v New South Wales rugby union match at the Sydney Cricket Ground in 1971. She and her sister Verity jumped over the picket fence and onto the field during play to make their protest.

Source 5: Australian Paralympic team member Kurt Fearnley at the 2012 Summer Paralympic Games in London. Sport has helped to create opportunities for disabled athletes throughout the world.



Sports diplomacy

Sport is a means to achieve improvements in areas such as health, social cohesion, gender equality and disability inclusion on an international level. The Australian Government and sporting organisations contribute to this by promoting and modelling the values necessary for achieving equality, fairness and equal opportunity for all.

Sport has the power to unite and excite people in every corner of the globe. From grassroots clubs right through to Olympic gold medallists, for Australians sport is very much a part of our DNA. For a nation of our size, we have achieved so much in sport, both on and off the field of play.

Australia is a successful global leader and innovator in sport. We are equally known as an active and healthy sporting nation, producing a broad range of athletes and sports administrators with integrity and character.

Our love and dedication to sport can provide us with unique opportunities to engage our neighbours, and advance our national interests. Sport allows us to build and extend our influence in our region and beyond. We also use our love of sports as an expression of who we are and what we stand for as an open trading partner to the globe.

Source 6: Department of Health (2019), *Sports Diplomacy 2030,* Australian Government.

In 1971, when the South African rugby union team toured Australia, six Australian players refused to play against a team from a country where players were selected based on their race. Although the tour proceeded, the following year the Australian Government banned all sporting tours involving South African teams. Australia became an important contributor to moves to isolate South Africa so long as racial discrimination remained part of its selection policy.

Learning ladder 15.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the first Australian team to compete internationally.
2. Source 4: Describe what event is occurring here.
3. Explain why the 2000 Olympic Games held in Sydney were declared to be the 'best ever'. Why would this be a significant contribution to international sport?
4. Source 6: Evaluate the significance of sport in Australian culture.
5. Assess the impact of the Australian Institute of Sport's innovations on international sports training.

Chronology

1. Source 3: Identify the year in which Dylan Alcott first became world number 1 in wheelchair tennis.
2. Place the following events on a timeline: Heather McKay becomes world champion for the first time, Rod Laver becomes world number 1 for the first time, Jess Fox first becomes world champion for canoeing, Peter Thompson wins the British Open for the last time.
3. Summarise the events included in the section 'Host and innovator' on a timeline.
4. If the timeline you created in Question 2 was to be used as a source for understanding Australia's achievement in sport, what would be its limitations?

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

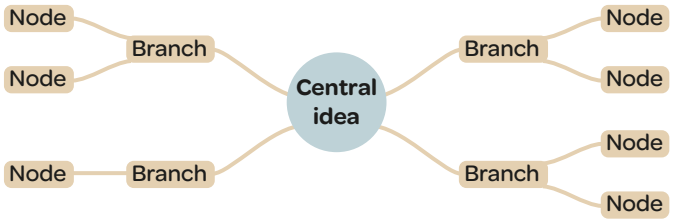
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to popular culture.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Rise of the middle class, 15.2
- US influence on Australian popular culture, 15.3
- 1970s or 80s counterculture, 15.4
- Diversity in Australian music, 15.5
- Impact of changing technology, 15.6
- Contributions to sport, 15.7

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (core)

16

Human rights and freedoms

(c. 1938–c. 2017)

16.0

How can I understand rights and freedoms?

The colonisation of Australia has had a significant negative impact on Australia's First Nations Peoples. As Australia federated, First Nations Peoples were excluded. Many in authority thought that they would die out and Australia would be exclusively for white people. This genocide was unsuccessful and the 20th century saw Australia's First Nations Peoples fight for their rights on a national and international scale.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: Protesters block a major road on the day of the opening ceremony of the 2018 Commonwealth Games, held at the Gold Coast. This was one of many demonstrations made as part of the 'Stolenwealth Games' protests. The protesters wanted to disrupt the running of the games to assert their non-acceptance of colonial rule, and to protest the forced oppression of First Nations Peoples and the suppression of their ancient rights and freedoms.

Historical concepts and skills

Steps in skill progression

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

16.1

What is racism?

When engaging with the civil rights movement in Australia and worldwide, it is important that we understand what racism is. Most people would agree that racism is an issue, but many do not realise just how complicated and challenging racism can be.

Racism is defined in the *Oxford Dictionary* as: 'prejudice, discrimination or antagonism by an individual, community, or institution, against a person or people on the basis of their membership of a particular racial or ethnic group, typically one that is a minority or marginalised'.

While this definition is widely accepted, it has limitations. It primarily focuses on individual acts and does not account for systemic factors.

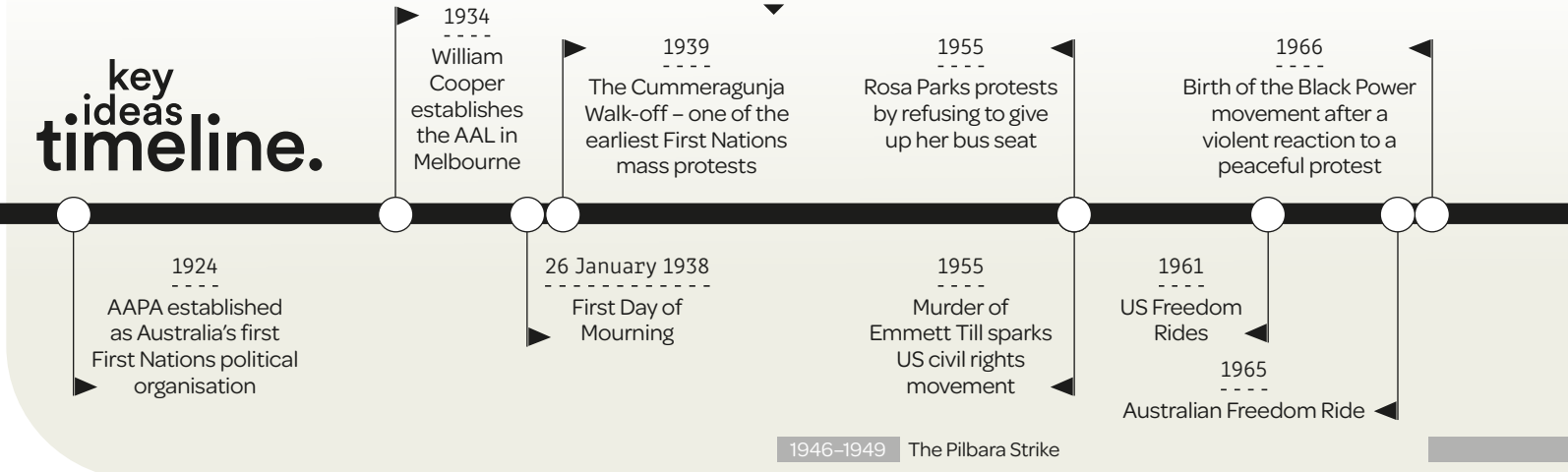
Critical race theorists expand the definition of racism to include the role of power. They argue that racism is not just an individual bias but an entire system of behaviours, ideas, practices, conditions, structures, policies and processes that create and maintain a racial advantage.

In 2020, the Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement had a resurgence in support after the murder of George Floyd, an African American man, by police in Minneapolis, United States. This tragic event sparked widespread protests against racial injustice. The movement aimed to fight racial injustice and educate society about its complexities. It highlighted how the policing systems worldwide, including in the United States and Australia, disproportionately target, **incarcerate** and in some cases kill people of colour. This is an example of how power manifests in racism and highlights the challenges and complexities when studying this phenomenon.

Critical race theorists have also defined different types of racism:

- **Overt racism** is one of the most visible forms of racism. It involves harmful and intentional attitudes or behaviours directed towards individuals from a minority group. These acts are performed openly and publicly, often with malice. An example is a person yelling racial slurs at someone in a public place.
- **Covert racism** operates subtly and is often concealed. While less obvious, it is still deliberate and aimed at causing harm. This form of racism can be difficult to detect and often manifests in systemic practices. An example could be an employer systematically rejecting the applications of candidates with 'foreign-sounding' names.
- **Casual racism** includes offhand comments or jokes that perpetuate racial stereotypes. These statements are often minimised or denied by the speaker, making them harder to address. In 2013, Eddie McGuire, a prominent media figure, was accused of casual racism when he suggested on his radio show that then AFL footballer Adam Goodes (who had recently been racially vilified as an 'ape' during a football game) could promote the King Kong film.

Source 1: Key events of the US and Australian civil rights movements



Source 2: A BLM protest in Sydney

- **Systemic and structural racism** describes when unfair practices are built into society's systems and structures, like schools, workplaces or laws. These systems often give advantages to some groups while making life harder for others, especially minorities. An example of systemic racism can be seen in the over-representation of First Nations people in the criminal justice system, as shown by the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody.

Racism is an important concept to explore when learning about the civil rights movement in Australia. As much as the civil rights movement of the 20th century was a fight for the rights of First Nations Peoples across the continent, it was also about the struggle to get Australian citizens to face up to the racism that was present, and that they benefited from. This struggle continues today.

1967
Referendum focusing on the racist sections of the Australian constitution is successful

1972
Aboriginal Tent Embassy established in Canberra

1992
Mabo decision removes *terra nullius* and creates native title

1966–1975 Wave Hill Walk-off

Learning ladder 16.1

Significant people, ideas and events

1. What does the term systemic racism mean?
2. Describe how George Floyd's murder sparked a global response to racial injustice.
3. Explain how overt racism is different from covert racism.
4. Explain why it is important to understand racism when studying the civil rights movement.

Perspectives

1. Describe the perspective of an employer who refuses job applications from people with 'foreign-sounding' names.
2. Describe how the Black Lives Matter movement views racial injustice.
3. Explain how people's perspectives can be shaped by their race.
4. Explain how an historian's perspective on race might influence how they interpret events.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

What is the purpose and influence of human rights conventions?

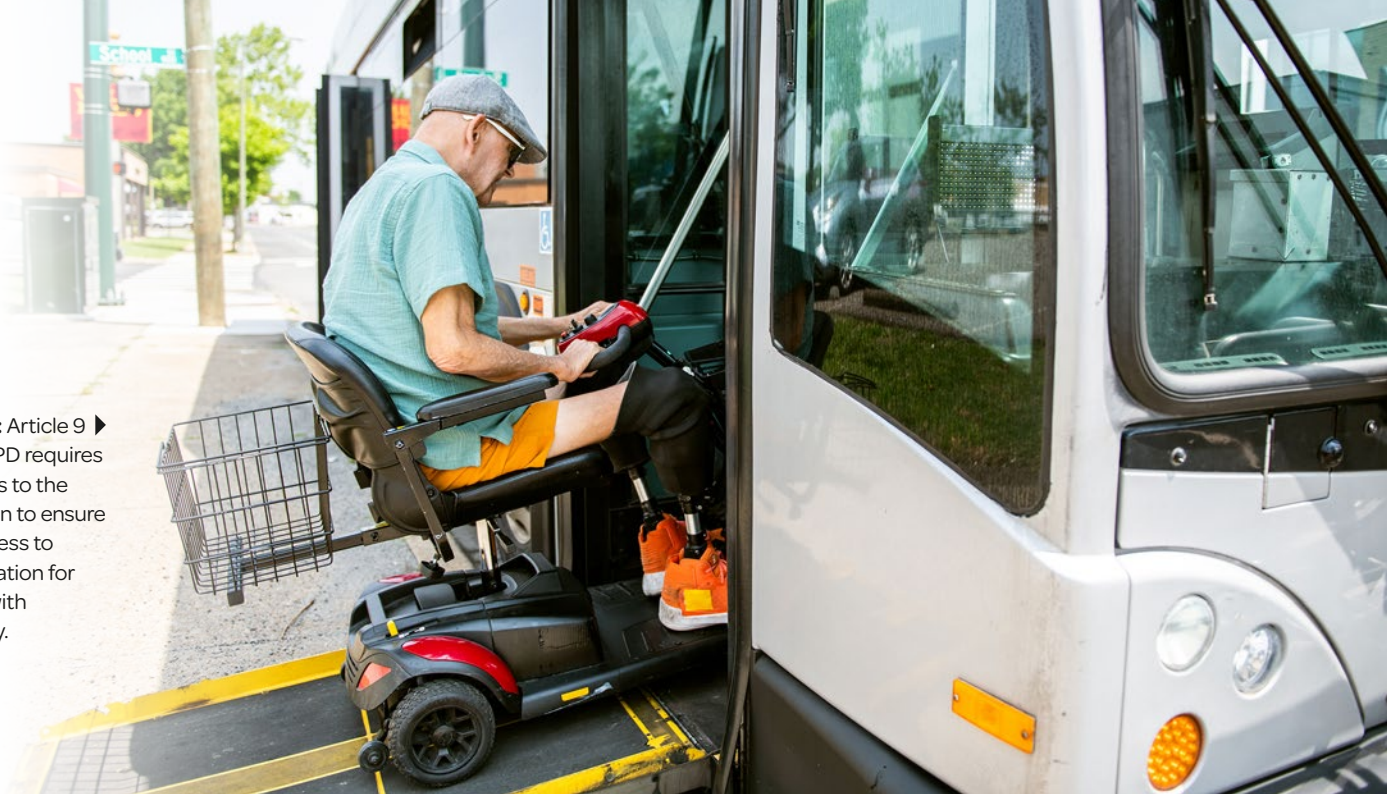
The *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948) led to key treaties addressing issues like racial discrimination, children's rights and disability rights. Australia is a signatory to these treaties, but faces challenges in fully implementing their principles, with ongoing concerns about racial discrimination and violations of children's rights.

The *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948) led to the creation of many international human rights treaties. When a country signs a treaty, it is legally required to follow its standards and ensure they are applied. Australia is part of seven key international treaties, including:

- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD)
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)
- Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT)
- Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)
- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD).

Economic, social and political factors influence how human rights are achieved and enforced.

Source 1: A rally in Sydney in 2018, protesting the privatisation of disability services in NSW. Despite strong opposition, privatisation was completed in 2018. This left NSW as the only Australian state without a public sector safety net for individuals whose needs might not be fully met by the National Disability Insurance Scheme (NDIS) or private providers.



Source 2: Article 9 of the CRPD requires signatories to the convention to ensure equal access to transportation for persons with a disability.

The Convention on the Rights of Persons with a Disability

This Convention aims to promote, protect and guarantee all human rights and freedoms for people with disabilities while ensuring they are treated with respect. It was adopted by the United Nations in 2008 and came into effect in Australia on 16 August 2009. The Convention sets standards for how people with disabilities should be treated and informs the National Disability Strategy 2021–2031, which guides government policies and programs. It is supported by other laws, like the *Disability Discrimination Act* (1992).

Despite these developments, discrimination against people with disabilities continues (Source 3).

The Convention on the Rights of the Child

Adopted in November 1989 and coming into force in September 1990, this Convention was adopted by Australia in December 1990. It has shaped government policies, including amendments to the *Family Law Act* (1995). These changes ensured:

- children's best interests are prioritised
- children have the right to be heard
- rights are protected during adoption, parental separation and criminal proceedings
- refugee children's rights are safeguarded.

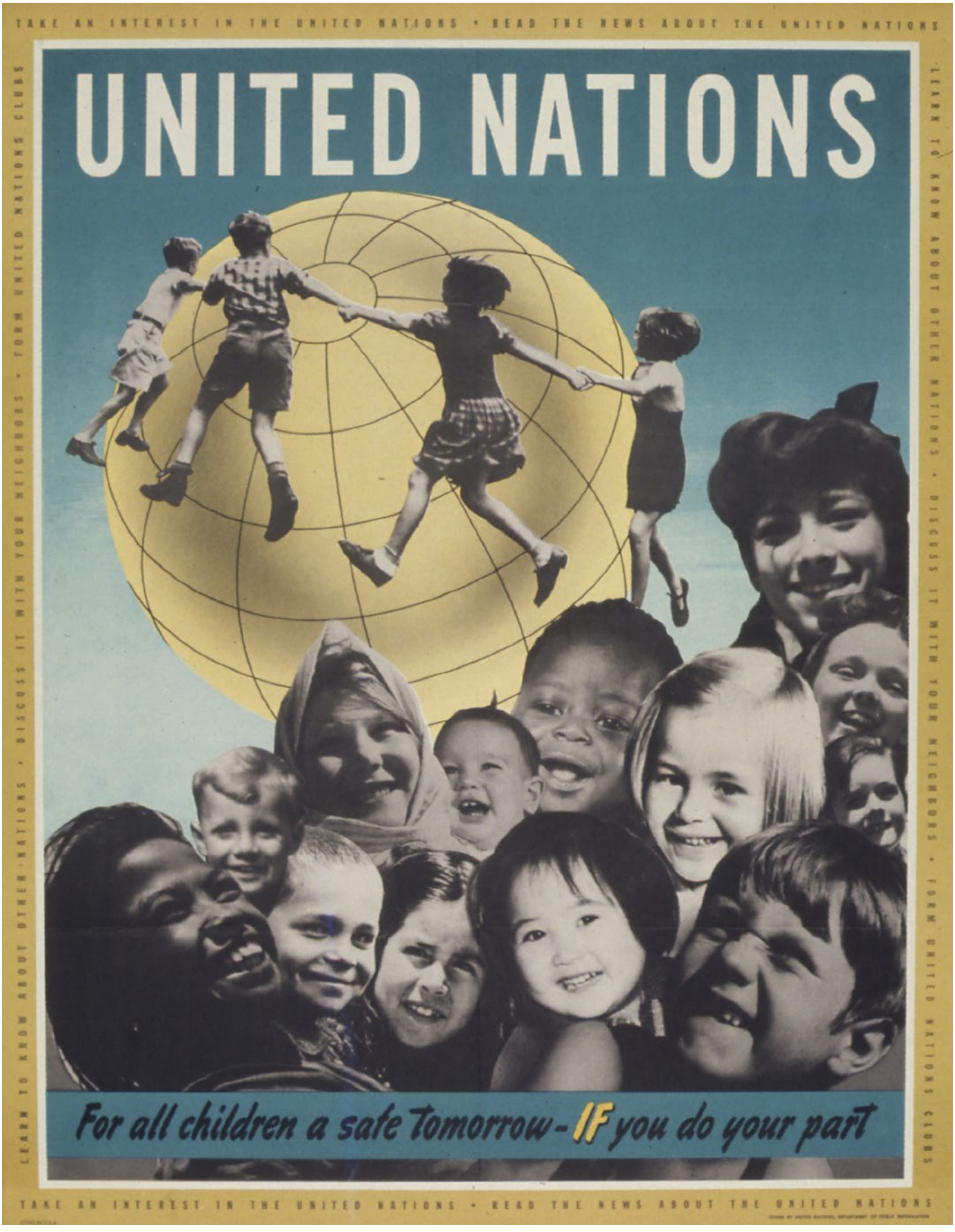
However, the Convention's influence can weaken. For example, recent laws like Queensland's Making Queensland Safer Bill have been criticised for violating children's rights (Source 4).

> We experienced increased and heavy demand for our services throughout the year, continuing the trend of year-on-year growth, since the start of the ADC. This included:
>
> - 17 342 call to our Ageing and Disability Abuse Helpline (a 24% increase), and
> - 4806 statutory reports about abuse, neglect and exploitation of adults with disability and older people (a 13% increase).

Source 3: NSW Ageing and Disability Commission (2024), *Annual Report 2023–2034*, Sydney, p. 3.

> This Bill has attracted widespread condemnation, including from the United Nations, for its 'flagrant disregard' of the human rights of children and international law. The fact that its provisions are targeting our most at-risk children makes this retreat from human rights even more shocking. … The Bill creates new laws which could result in children as young as 10 years of age being sentenced as adults, including mandatory life sentences.

Source 4: National Children's Commissioner, Anne Hollonds, 'Australian Government Urged to Stand Up for the Rights of Children', media release, 11 December 2024



▲ **Source 5:** Discussions around the rights of children emerged after World War II. This poster, from 1947, was part of broader efforts by the UN to promote global cooperation and human rights, but reflects the increasing focus on the rights of children.

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination

Adopted in 1965, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD) aims to eliminate racial discrimination in all its forms and promote understanding and equality among all races. Australia signed CERD in 1966, and it came into force in 1975 with the passage of the *Racial Discrimination Act* (1975).

CERD requires governments to take measures to eliminate racial discrimination in law and practice and to ensure that everyone is treated equally, regardless of their race, color, descent or national or ethnic origin. It also recognises the rights of minority groups to enjoy their own culture and language.

Despite Australia's commitments, challenges remain. In its 2017 concluding observations, the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination expressed concern that protection against racial discrimination is still not comprehensive in Australia. The Committee noted issues related to the overrepresentation of First Nations Australians in the criminal justice system and recommended that Australia adopt and implement a comprehensive national strategy to address the structural factors contributing to this overrepresentation.

The Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples

The United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP) was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2007. It outlines the rights of Indigenous peoples worldwide, including rights to **self-determination**, culture, identity and land. UNDRIP is not legally binding, meaning it does not impose enforceable obligations on countries. Instead, it provides a framework for governments to develop policies and laws that respect Indigenous rights.

Australia initially voted against the Declaration but officially endorsed it in 2009. Upon endorsement, the Australian government stated: 'Today, Australia takes another important step in re-setting the relationship between First Nations and non-Indigenous Australians and moving forward towards a new future.' However, the implementation of UNDRIP's principles into Australian law and policy has been limited. A 2021 report by the Australian NGO ANTAR noted that there has been limited progress in implementing UNDRIP's principles domestically.

Article 2

Indigenous peoples and individuals are free and equal to all other peoples and individuals and have the right to be free from any kind of discrimination, in the exercise of their rights, in particular that based on their indigenous origin or identity.

Article 3

Indigenous peoples have the right of self-determination. By virtue of that right they freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development.

Source 6: Articles 2 and 3 of UNDRIP lay out the rights of Indigenous Peoples to freedom from discrimination and to self-determination. In total, UNDRIP contains 46 articles.

Learning ladder 16.2

Background and origins

1. What event led to the creation of many international human rights treaties in 1948?
2. Describe the background to the 1995 changes to Australia's *Family Law Act*, which aimed to protect children's rights.
3. Source 5: Describe the background to the Convention on the Rights of the Child.
4. Explain why, in 2017, the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination expressed concern that protection against racial discrimination in Australia was still not comprehensive.

Continuity and change

1. Describe what the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination aimed to change.
2. Describe what the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples aimed to change.
3. Explain why discrimination against children, people with disabilities and Indigenous Peoples still exists in many societies.
4. Evaluate how effective United Nations human rights conventions have been in creating lasting change.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

16.3

What was life like for First Nations people under 'Protection'?

Under the Protection system (1883–1972), First Nations people were forced onto reserves, had their children forcibly removed and endured assimilation policies that aimed at wiping out their culture.

The Aborigines Protection and Aborigines Welfare Boards

The Aborigines Protection Board was formed in 1883 with the aim of controlling the lives and movements of First Nations people. It was replaced by the Aborigines Welfare Board in 1940. This system remaining in place until the repeal of the *Aborigines Protection Act* in 1969.

This system started with the paternalistic belief that First Nations people needed to be 'protected' and guided for their own welfare. In practice, this was a system to control and **assimilate** First Nations communities, with the assumption that European ways were superior and should replace First Nations cultures.

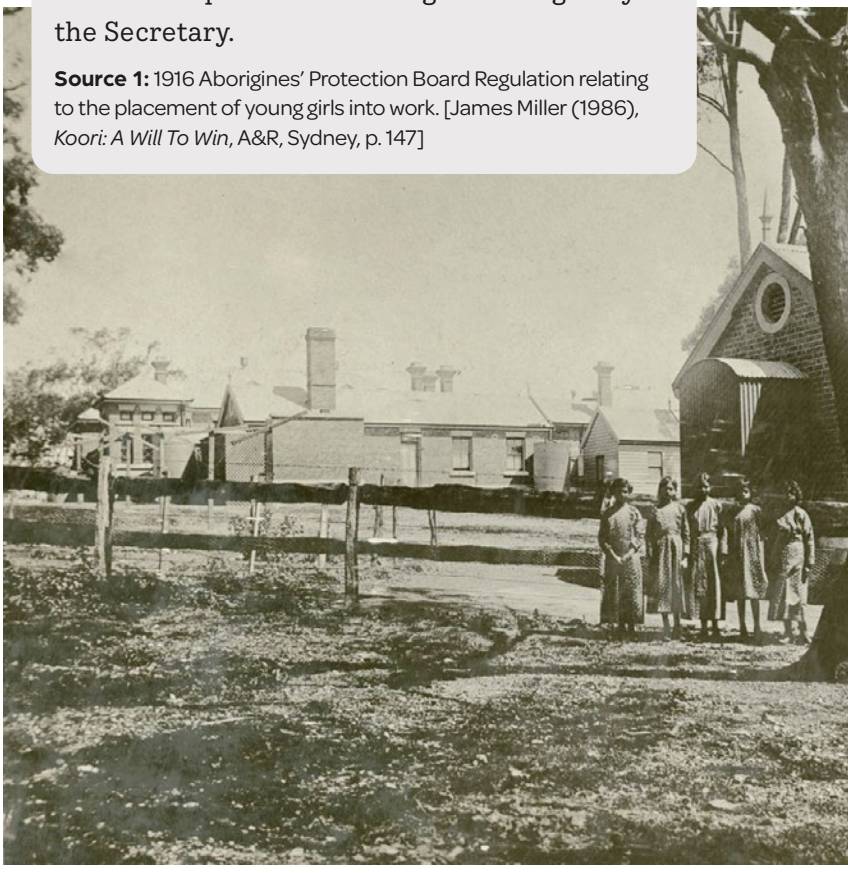
During its almost 90 years of administration, this system exerted significant influence over First Nations people's lives and communities.

- People could be forced to relocate to reserves, where their movements and activities were strictly regulated.
- Children were removed from their families (creating the Stolen Generations).
- Education of First Nations children focused on assimilation, suppressing their Aboriginal culture.
- Employment and wages were controlled by the Board, as was access to resources like land and housing.
- Marriage was regulated, particularly among those of mixed heritage.

All of these actions contributed to the marginalisation and cultural dislocation of First Nations communities. It was against these injustices that early First Nations civil rights activists fought (Source 2).

> All girls reaching the age of 14 years, shall leave the reserve. In order to effect this result, the mothers shall be given the option and opportunity of themselves placing their girls out in situations [such as domestic servants] to the satisfaction of the Board's officers. If they fail to do this within a period of one month, after being notified, the Boards Inspectors shall have the power to ... [send] such girls to Sydney or to Cootamundra Home for a period of training as arranged by the Secretary.

Source 1: 1916 Aborigines' Protection Board Regulation relating to the placement of young girls into work. [James Miller (1986), *Koori: A Will To Win*, A&R, Sydney, p. 147]



Source 2: Protests such as the 1938 Aboriginal Day of Mourning, held on the 150th anniversary of the First Fleet's landing, drew national attention to the injustices faced by First Nations people. While it did not bring about significant immediate improvements in their daily lives, it inspired activists and campaigners for years to come.

Source 3: Aboriginal girls at the Cootamundra Domestic Training Home for Aboriginal Girls, c. 1940s. The home officially closed in 1969.

Learning ladder 16.3

Background and origins

1. What system were First Nations Peoples forced to live under from 1883 to 1972?
2. Describe the Protection system.
3. Explain how the Protection system affected First Nations Peoples.
4. Why were the Protection system and assimilation policies introduced?

Continuity and change

1. When was the Day of Mourning held?
2. Describe the Day of Mourning.
3. Explain the reasons behind the Day of Mourning.
4. Did anything change after the Day of Mourning?

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

16.4

What were the first Indigenous political organisations?

The next generation of civil rights campaigners was active during the early 20th century. International influences inspired First Nations activists to campaign for their rights.

International influences

In Australia, one of the main figures at this time was Fred Maynard, a self-educated former drover. Maynard and another activist called Tom Lacey were heavily influenced by Marcus Garvey, a West Indian man who is also considered to be the 'father of black nationalism'. In the 1920s, both Maynard and Lacey were members of the Sydney chapter of Marcus Garvey's Universal Negro Improvement Association (UNIA). They had also been involved with the two visits to Australia in the early 1900s by Jack Johnson, the first African American World Heavyweight Champion and outspoken critic of the **Jim Crow laws** in the United States.

The Australian Aboriginal Progressive Association (AAPA)

In 1924, the AAPA was formed in Sydney. This was the first pan-Aboriginal organisation to coordinate a nationally focused campaign calling for Aboriginal rights to land, self-determination and citizenship in their own country.

Source 1: This is a statue of William 'Bill' Ferguson unveiled in the main street of Dubbo in 2019. This photo shows his son Fred Ferguson and other members of his family.

The Australian Aborigines League (AAL)

The AAL was established in 1934. The key figure in the formation of this new organisation was William Cooper. Some of the early members of this organisation included Pastor Sir Doug Nicholls, Shadrak James, Margaret Tucker and Caleb and Anna Morgan. A key difference in this organisation was the fact that its First Nations founders were open to having non-Indigenous people support their causes. Many of the non-Indigenous people who supported this organisation were trade unionists and members of the Communist Party.

One of the AAL's major campaigns was to create and present a petition signed by First Nations Peoples to King George V in 1934. The petition called on the King to 'prevent the extinction of the Aboriginal race and give better conditions for all, granting us the power to propose a member of parliament ... to represent us in the Federal Parliament'. In 1935, the AAL campaigned for and was granted a meeting with the federal Minister for the Interior, where the AAL argued for federal control of Aboriginal affairs.

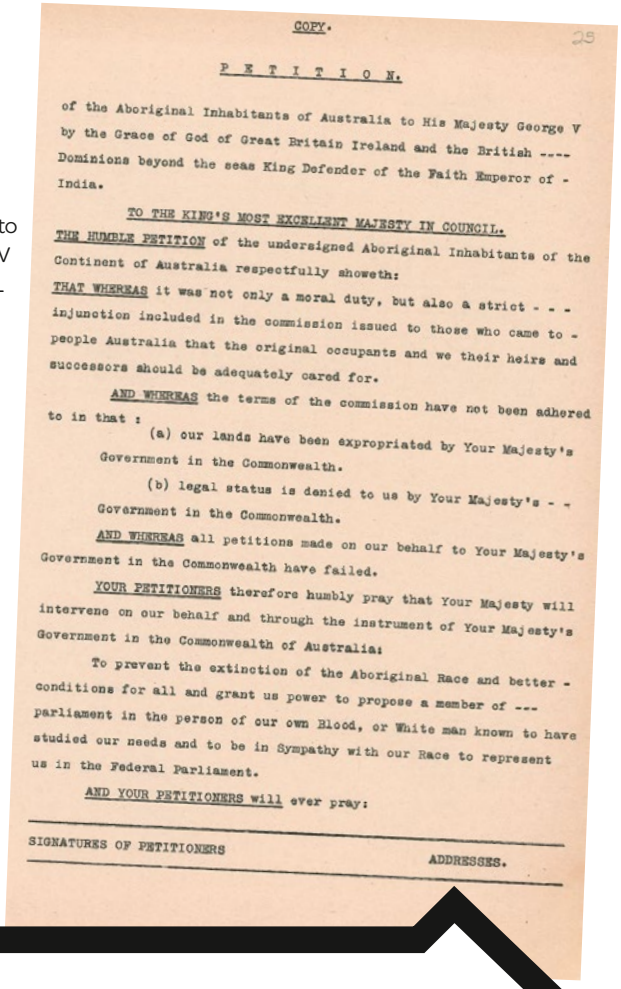
By 1938, after the death of William Cooper, the AAL was dissolved, but it was re-established by the next generation of First Nations civil rights activists after World War II. This organisation's legacy was that its goals were finally achieved with the successful referendum in 1967 (see 16.11).

The Aborigines Progressive Association (APA)

In 1937, the APA was formed in New South Wales by William (Bill) Ferguson, Jack Patten and Pearl Gibbs, among others. The APA actively campaigned throughout NSW for civil rights for First Nations Peoples. The APA had three main aims: full citizenship for Aboriginal Australians, Aboriginal representation in parliament and the abolition of the NSW Aborigines Protection Board.

One of the defining moments of this organisation was the partnership with the AAL to organise the first Day of Mourning, held on 26 January 1938, to mark 150 years of colonisation and genocide in Australia. This was a key moment, as it was the first time that multiple First Nations political organisations had worked in partnership and gained widespread national and international coverage of the civil rights movement in Australia.

Source 2: ▶ The petition to King George V from the AAL



COPY.

25

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 Government in the Commonwealth.

(b) legal status is denied to us by Your Majesty's - - Government in the Commonwealth.

AND WHEREAS all petitions made on our behalf to Your Majesty's Government in the Commonwealth have failed.

YOUR PETITIONERS therefore humbly pray that Your Majesty will intervene on our behalf and through the instrument of Your Majesty's Government in the Commonwealth of Australia:

To prevent the extinction of the Aboriginal Race and better - conditions for all and grant us power to propose a member of --- parliament in the person of our own Blood, or White man known to have studied our needs and to be in Sympathy with our Race to represent us in the Federal Parliament.

AND YOUR PETITIONERS will ever pray:

SIGNATURES OF PETITIONERS ADDRESSES.

Learning ladder 16.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify three Indigenous political organisations.
2. Describe one of these organisations.
3. Explain how the Australian Aborigines League expanded support for its cause.
4. Explain what happened to the Australian Aborigines League after William Cooper's death.

Cause and effect

1. Identify a cause that led to the formation of the Australian Aboriginal Progressive Association (AAPA).
2. Describe how international movements influenced the rise of Indigenous political organisations in Australia.
3. Explain how the efforts of early political organisations contributed to the 1938 Day of Mourning.
4. Explain why the early activism of groups like the AAPA and APA led to broader public awareness of Aboriginal rights.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

16.5

How was the civil rights movement affected by World War II?

First Nations soldiers have fought in every conflict Australia has been involved in, from the Boer War to more recent conflicts in Afghanistan and Iraq. In many of the older conflicts, First Nations soldiers were officially banned from serving, but they found ways to enlist anyway.

Military service and equality

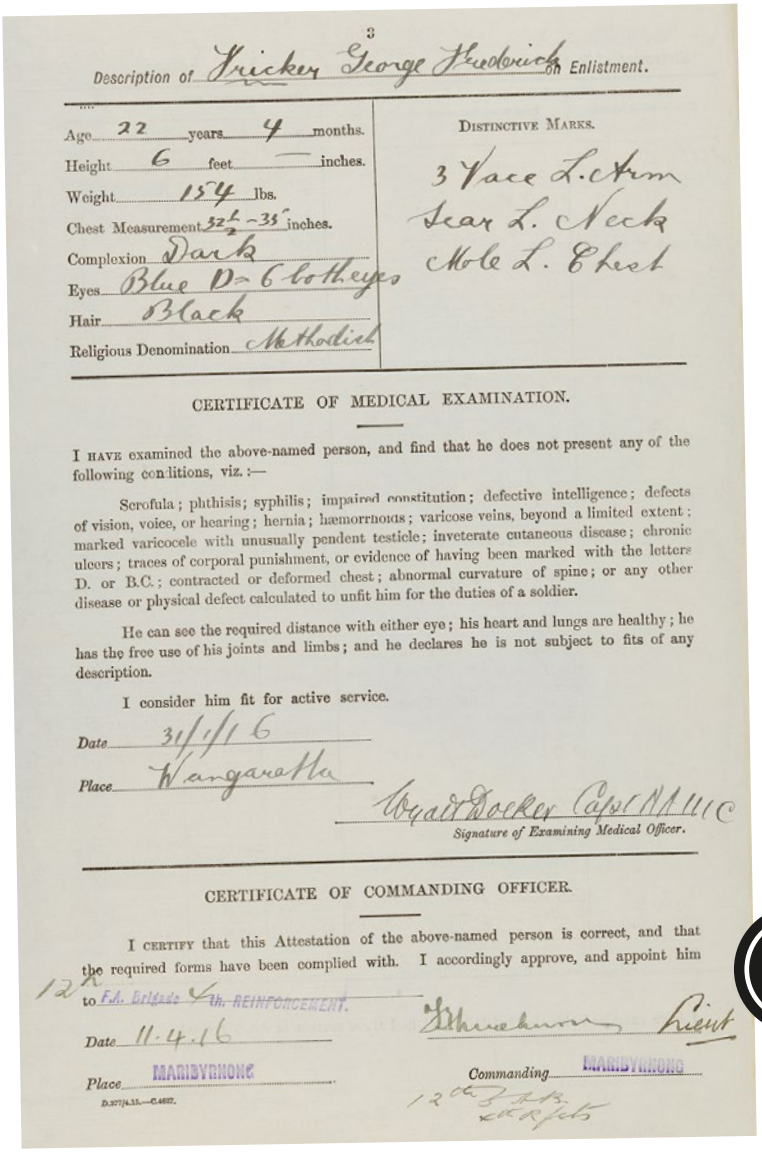
Before 1949, official policies often banned First Nations people from enlisting. Despite this, it is estimated that over 1000 First Nations men and women served in World War I, and more than 5000 in World War II, often enlisting during times of volunteer shortages.

To get around the bans, First Nations soldiers' records often only hinted at their ethnicity, such as by describing them as having 'dark' complexions, dark hair or brown eyes (Source 2). This makes it difficult to know how many First Nations soldiers served.

For many First Nations soldiers, military service offered a rare opportunity to experience equality. In the armed forces, they were treated similarly to their non-Indigenous comrades, as their skin colour and heritage were often overlooked. This experience gave many soldiers hope that such equality would extend to civilian life after the war.

However, this was not the case. Many First Nations veterans found their treatment unchanged. Some returned to find their children had been forcibly removed by the government, while others were denied the wages they had earned during service, with their pay withheld in government 'trust' accounts. Many were even banned from entering Returned and Services League (RSL) venues, except on Anzac Day.

Source 1: Sergeant Reg Saunders with other soldiers of the 27th Infantry Battalion waiting for their train to leave Innisfail. This photograph was taken before Saunders was promoted to Lieutenant, becoming the first First Nations commissioned officer in the Australian military. He would go on to challenge the racism that he and other First Nations diggers experienced once they returned from the war. [Australian War Memorial collection]



3

Description of Fricker George Frederick on Enlistment.

Age 22 years 4 months.
Height 6 feet — inches.
Weight 154 lbs.
Chest Measurement 32½-35 inches.
Complexion Dark
Eyes Blue D. C. both eyes
Hair Black
Religious Denomination Methodist

Distinctive Marks.
3 Vacc L. Arm
Scar L. Neck
Mole L. Chest

CERTIFICATE OF MEDICAL EXAMINATION.

I have examined the above-named person, and find that he does not present any of the following conditions, viz.:—

Scrofula; phthisis; syphilis; impaired constitution; defective intelligence; defects of vision, voice, or hearing; hernia; hæmorrhoids; varicose veins, beyond a limited extent; marked varicocele with unusually pendent testicle; inveterate cutaneous disease; chronic ulcers; traces of corporal punishment, or evidence of having been marked with the letters D. or B.C.; contracted or deformed chest; abnormal curvature of spine; or any other disease or physical defect calculated to unfit him for the duties of a soldier.

He can see the required distance with either eye; his heart and lungs are healthy; he has the free use of his joints and limbs; and he declares he is not subject to fits of any description.

I consider him fit for active service.

Date 31/1/16

Place Wangaratta

Wyatt Booker Capt AAMC
Signature of Examining Medical Officer.

CERTIFICATE OF COMMANDING OFFICER.

I certify that this Attestation of the above-named person is correct, and that the required forms have been complied with. I accordingly approve, and appoint him

to 12th F.S. Brigade 4th REINFORCEMENT.

Date 11.4.16

Place MARIBYRNONG

Commanding MARIBYRNONG

12th 3rd Bn. 4th Rfts

D.377/4.15.—C.4627.

Source 2: The enlistment paper of George Fricker, a First Nations soldier from World War I. In this case, he was allowed to enlist because his official papers listed his complexion as 'dark' rather than 'Aborigine'. George Fricker served with distinction and was awarded the Military Medal for bravery.

Impact on civil rights movement

The hypocrisy of being treated as equals during wartime but not in civilian life was a powerful motivator for the civil rights movement. Lieutenant Reg Saunders (Source 1), for example, had become the first Aboriginal commissioned officer in the Australian military. Despite his distinguished service, Saunders returned home to the same racism and unfair treatment as other First Nations people. He spoke out against these injustices, raising awareness about the poor treatment of Aboriginal veterans. Saunders' advocacy highlighted these inequalities and added momentum to the broader civil rights movement in Australia.

Broader influences

World War II also had a broader impact on the civil rights movement. The fight against fascism and the horrors of the Holocaust showed the importance of human rights and equality. These global events inspired movements for justice and equality worldwide, including in Australia.

Condemnation of Nazi Germany by AAL

As part of his leadership of the AAL, William Cooper had always had an international focus. On 6 December 1938, several weeks after the horrifying events of *Kristallnacht*, Cooper led a delegation from the AAL to the German consulate with a letter protesting against the violence being perpetrated on the Jewish population by the Nazis.

This was the only protest of this kind anywhere in the world, and demonstrated the deep commitment William Cooper had for all human rights regardless of the context. It also demonstrated the far-sighted consideration that an effective civil rights movement would need to be global, to enable the best results for marginalised peoples everywhere.

Learning ladder 16.5

Background and origins

1. Identify the general experience of First Nations soldiers during World War II.
2. Describe the hopes many First Nations soldiers had for how their service in World War II might change their lives.
3. Explain how the experiences of First Nations soldiers in World War II contributed to the civil rights movement.
4. Explain why World War II had broader influences on the Australian civil rights movement.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 1: Describe this source.
3. Apply your knowledge of Reg Saunders to write a caption describing how he may have felt at the time the photo was taken.
4. Explain how Reg Saunders might have felt about the photograph after the war.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

16.6

What was the role of the trade unions in the Australian civil rights movement?

Trade unionists had been supportive of First Nations civil rights for many years. There was an understanding that to support First Nations workers meant supporting the conditions of all workers and preventing the bosses from using cheap or slave First Nations labour at the cost of non-Indigenous workers.

The Pilbara Strike

The Pilbara Strike, beginning on 1 May 1946, marked a significant moment in Australia's civil rights history. For many First Nations Peoples, dispossession and massacres had left them reliant on station work, where they were often paid in rations – or not at all.

The first strike action saw workers across the region demand fair pay and conditions. Minimal improvements were awarded in pay and conditions, although only for the shearing season. This was enough to encourage most of the workers back to the stations.

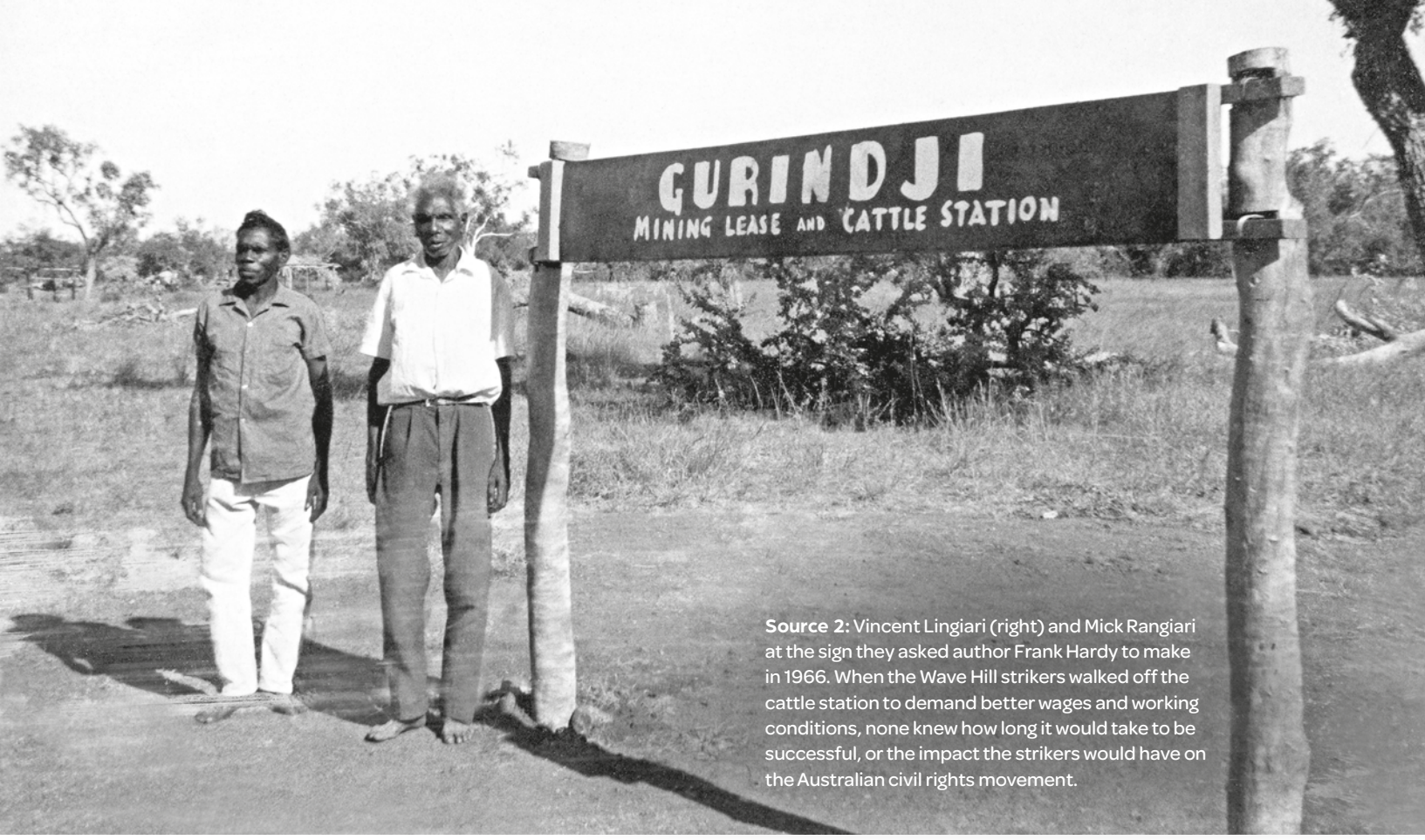
However, these concessions were short-lived, and by July 1946 an even bigger strike and walk-off was organised. With the increased strike action, the police responded with greater force, which prompted the organisers to use more peaceful civil disobedience techniques to 'fill the jails'. As the prisons filled up, the police began to implement a less punitive approach.

The heavy-handed police response quickly gained national attention and shortly after there was a ground-swell of support for the First Nations strikers. The Committee for Defence of Native Rights was founded in Perth in 1946, attracting non-Indigenous members representing at least 19 state-based unions, seven federal unions, four trade and labour councils, the Communist Party of Australia, and many church groups.

A key moment in the strike was when the West Australian branch of the Seaman's Union banned transporting wool that had come from the stations. Almost immediately, the station owners negotiated a positive outcome for the workers.

The strike finally ended in 1949, with many concessions in pay and conditions given to First Nations workers. The legacy of this strike was that it demonstrated the power of the First Nations strikers, especially when they had the support of the **trade unions**.

Source 1: Gough Whitlam with Elders Victor Lingiari (son of Vincent Lingiari) and Mick Rangairi (right), marking the 30th anniversary of the Wave Hill Walk-off. Gough Whitlam helped to create the legal framework that enabled First Nations Peoples to fight for their land rights.



Source 2: Vincent Lingiari (right) and Mick Rangiari at the sign they asked author Frank Hardy to make in 1966. When the Wave Hill strikers walked off the cattle station to demand better wages and working conditions, none knew how long it would take to be successful, or the impact the strikers would have on the Australian civil rights movement.

The Wave Hill Walk-off

Another important event in the Australian civil rights movement was the Wave Hill Walk-off, led by Vincent Lingiari, on 23 August 1966. Like the earlier Pilbara Strike, it was driven by demands for fair treatment and equal pay. Lingiari led 200 workers from the cattle station, with the demand that they be treated the same as non-Indigenous workers. This sparked a round of negotiations between the North Australian Workers' Union, the Northern Territory Council for Aboriginal Rights, the Gurindji workers and the Vestey Brothers, who owned the cattle station.

For the unionists, the strike was primarily about wages, but for the Gurindji, the scope of the strike had grown, and was now about land.

By August 1975, a resolution had been negotiated whereby the Gurindji people were granted a freehold lease over much of their ancestral lands, giving them the right to use it as they saw fit. This event was marked by Prime Minister Gough Whitlam's visit to Daguragu during which he poured soil into the hands of the by then blind Vincent Lingiari as a symbolic act of returning the land.

The union movement played a vital role in the resolution of this strike. The event was also a catalyst for the passing of the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act (Northern Territory) 1976*. The Wave Hill Walk-off marked the first successful result in the fight for First Nations **land rights**.

Learning ladder 16.6

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify two significant events in the civil rights movement for First Nations Peoples.
2. Describe the Wave Hill Walk-off and its initial aims.
3. Explain how trade unions became involved in the Walk-off.
4. Explain why the Gurindji people expanded the aims of the Walk-off over time.

Perspectives

1. Identify a person or organisation involved in the Wave Hill Walk-off.
2. Describe how they might have viewed the purpose of the Walk-off.
3. Explain why they might have held that view.
4. Compare that perspective with another viewpoint from a different person or organisation involved.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

16.7

Where were the centres of resistance for Australian civil rights?

From the beginning of European colonisation, First Nations Peoples resisted efforts to take their land, assimilate their cultures and control their lives. Across Australia, communities formed to organise, discuss strategies and push for civil rights.

Salt Pan Creek

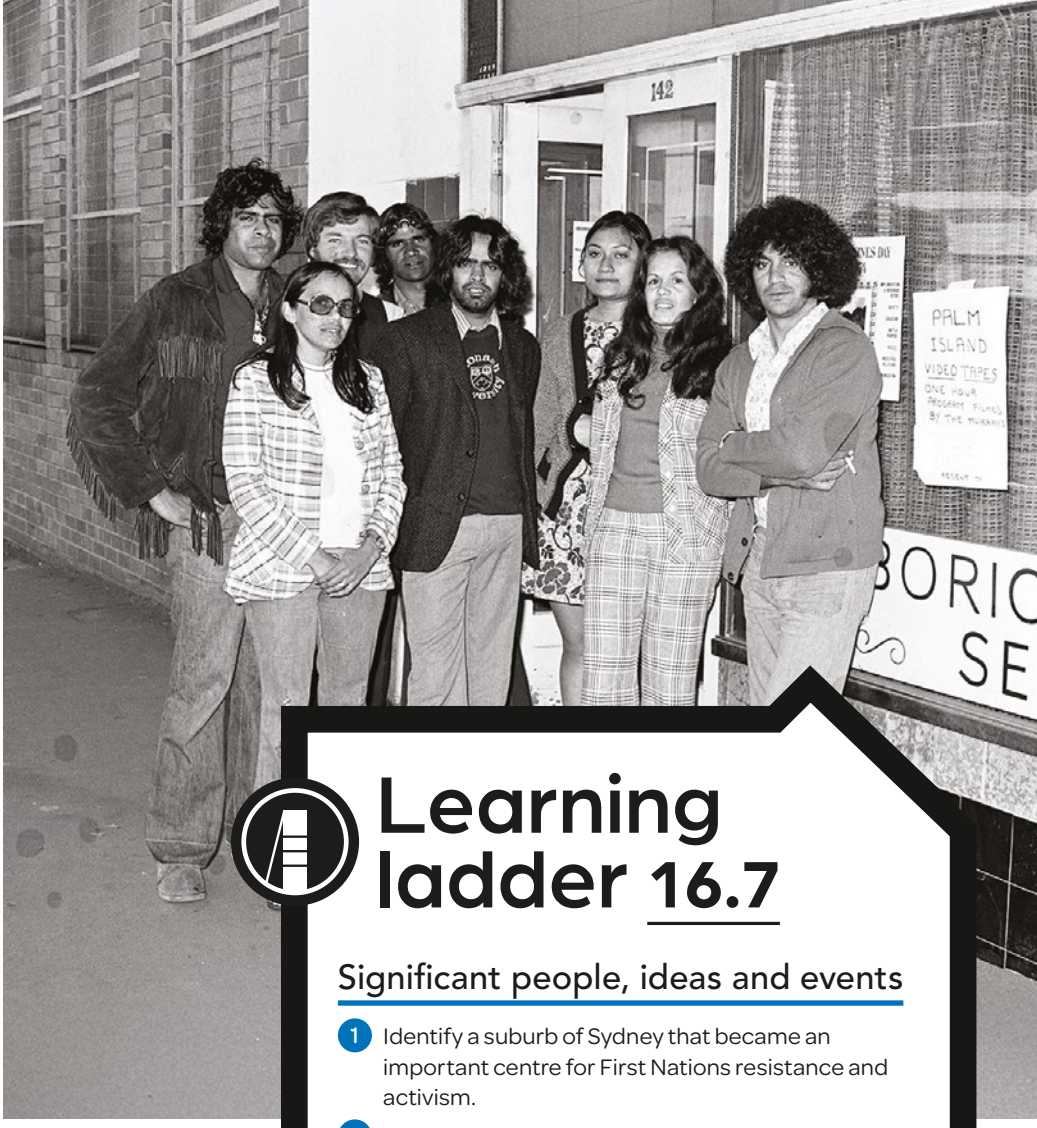
Salt Pan Creek in New South Wales became a significant center of resistance in 1926. The population was made up of peoples forced off their traditional lands or who were attempting to evade the harsh and brutal conditions and policies of the Aborigines Protection Board.

This camp was important in the civil rights movement and became a focal point of First Nations resistance against the Aborigines Protection Boards. Civil rights leaders like Jack Patten, Pearl Gibbs and Bill Onus spent time there, learning first-hand about the injustices faced by their people. This experience shaped their activism and strategies for fighting systemic inequality.

Fitzroy

Around the same time, the suburb of Fitzroy in Naarm (Melbourne) became the centre of First Nations **resistance** and civil rights in Victoria. Initially home to only 46 First Nations people, by the late 1940s, the First Nations population of Fitzroy had grown to over 300 people, making it the largest First Nations population in Victoria.

Source 1: Residents of Salt Pan Creek, many of whom moved there to escape the NSW Aborigines Protection Board. This camp became a centre for First Nations resistance, and many civil rights leaders spent time there.



Source 2: First Nations activists and civil right leaders outside the Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service in 1974. This was the first legal service specifically for First Nations people, created in response to the unjust and violent policing in Redfern.

This community was home to William Cooper, who founded the Australian Aborigines League (AAL) with the help of this community. Pastor Sir Doug Nichols also led a local church; he would go on to become a leading figure in the First Nations civil rights in movement Australia.

Later in the 1960s and 1970s, Fitzroy became a centre of the Australian Black Power movement (see 16.14), and it was the birthplace of important First Nations-run community organisations such as the Victorian Aboriginal Legal Service and the Victorian Aboriginal Health Service.

Redfern

Redfern, in Sydney, began to attract First Nations residents during the 1890s. Redfern was where much of the planning for the Day of Mourning in 1938 occurred and was also where the Redfern All-Blacks rugby club was co-founded by Bill Onus. This team would go on to become a crucial community organising hub during the 1950s and 1960s.

By 1965, Redfern was home to more than 12 000 First Nations people. This was a contributing factor to the escalating police presence and violence that became common across the suburb. As a reaction to the actions of police, the community established the Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service in 1970 and the Redfern Aboriginal Medical Service in 1973. Redfern was also a significant hub of the Australian Black Power movement.

Later, in 1992, Redfern was where Prime Minister Paul Keating delivered his landmark 'Redfern Speech' to acknowledge the UN International Year of Indigenous Peoples. This was the first time an Australian leader had acknowledged the destruction and death of First Nations Peoples caused by European colonisation.

Learning ladder 16.7

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify a suburb of Sydney that became an important centre for First Nations resistance and activism.
2. Describe life in Redfern in 1965.
3. Explain how police actions affected First Nations communities in Redfern.
4. Explain why the Redfern Legal Service was established.

Chronology

1. List the following centres of First Nations resistance in the order they became active: Salt Pan Creek, Fitzroy, Redfern.
2. Add the following key events to a timeline: Establishment of Salt Pan Creek resistance camp (1926), Growth of Fitzroy's First Nations population (late 1940s), Founding of the Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service (1970), Paul Keating's Redfern Speech (1992).
3. Check your timeline for spacing, sequence and key dates. Adjust if any events are out of order.
4. Using your timeline, explain how Fitzroy and Redfern became more prominent centres of resistance during the 1960s and 1970s.
5. Using your timeline, evaluate how First Nations activism shifted in location, strategy and focus over time, from Salt Pan Creek to the Black Power movement and legal services.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

16.8

What were the origins of the US civil rights movement?

The civil rights movement in the United States was a key period in 20th-century history. The civil rights movement changed the fabric of American society forever, and reverberated around the world, influencing and inspiring parts of the civil rights movement in Australia.

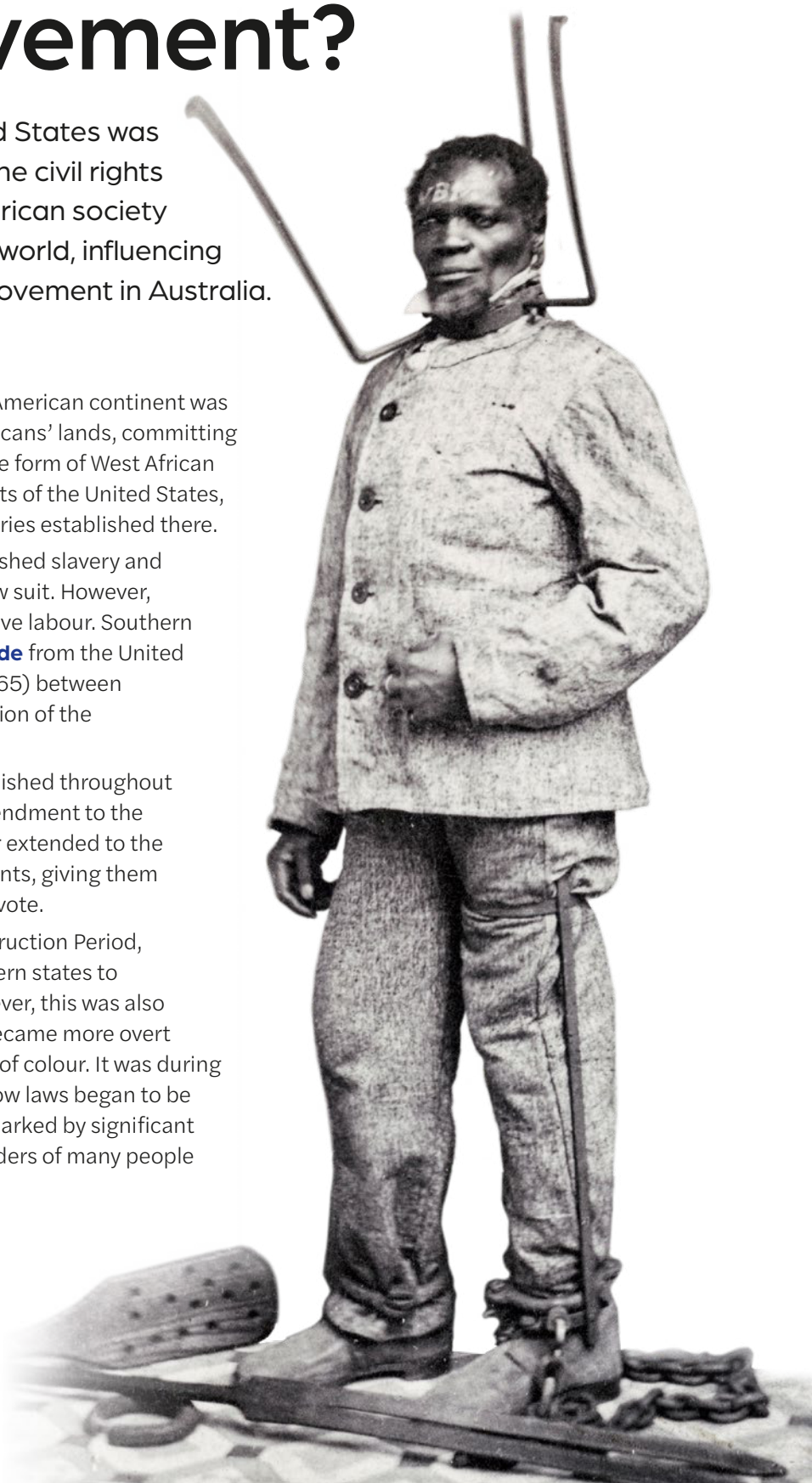
The end of slavery

The early success of the colonisation of the North American continent was based on Europeans taking the First Nations Americans' lands, committing genocide against them, and importing labour in the form of West African slaves. Slavery was widespread in the southern parts of the United States, because of the labour-intensive agricultural industries established there.

By 1804, most of the northern states had abolished slavery and more pressure was being put on the South to follow suit. However, southern economies were still heavily reliant on slave labour. Southern states resisted until they finally attempted to **secede** from the United States. This led to the American Civil War (1861–1865) between the Confederacy of the southern states and the Union of the northern states.

At the end of the war, slavery was officially abolished throughout the United States with the passing of the 13th Amendment to the United States Constitution, and rights were further extended to the former slaves through the 14th and 15th amendments, giving them citizenship and 'equal protection', and the right to vote.

The end of the civil war ushered in the Reconstruction Period, during which concessions were made to the southern states to compensate them for their economic losses. However, this was also when ideologies of white supremacy and racism became more overt towards the emancipated slaves and other people of colour. It was during this time that the Ku Klux Klan formed, and Jim Crow laws began to be implemented and enforced. This period was also marked by significant acts of violence, **extrajudicial** executions and murders of many people of colour.



Source 1: Wilson Chinn, a branded former slave from Louisiana. He is wearing a punishment collar, leg irons and chains. This is an example of how brutally slaves were treated in America.

Source 2: This US bus station is indicative of the many public and private places that were segregated by law.

Jim Crow and segregation

The former slaves in the southern states were frustrated by the reforms that were implemented as part of the Jim Crow laws. This was reinforced through the *Plessy v. Ferguson* legal case, where the US Supreme Court found that facilities for people of colour and white people could be 'separate but equal'.

Despite, in theory, being equal, the southern states insisted that people of colour had to be separate. In many places, people of colour were forced to use segregated, usually inferior, services. There were 'blacks only' water fountains, public toilets, building entrances, waiting rooms in bus and train stations, lifts, cemeteries, trains and buses and even amusement park cashier windows. In other places, such as parks, theatres, restaurants and public pools, people of colour were forced into specific areas away from the white patrons. People of colour were not allowed to live in certain white neighbourhoods and were forced to attend black-only schools and universities.

People of colour volunteered to fight in World War II, but while many returned to the United States as heroes, they were still met with racism, scorn, bigotry and prejudice. With the onset of the Cold War, President Truman furthered the civil rights cause by issuing an executive order making it illegal to discriminate in the military, and this, along with the experiences of many African American soldiers after the war, laid the foundations for the many community-led initiatives to fight for civil rights.

The Murder of Emmett Till

One of the key events that ignited the civil rights movement in the 1950s was the murder of Emmett Till, a 14-year-old African American boy. While visiting family in Mississippi on 24 August 1955, Till told his cousins he had a white girlfriend in Chicago. They did not believe him and dared him to speak to a white woman working in a nearby grocery store.

Till entered the store, bought lollies, and reportedly said 'Bye, baby' to the cashier, Carolyn Bryant, as he left. Later, Bryant alleged that Till had grabbed her, made lewd advances and wolf-whistled at her. Till had been alone with Bryant at the time, so there were no witnesses. Bryant's accusations, though unproven, set the stage for the tragedy that followed.

A few days later, Bryant's husband, Roy Bryant, heard about what happened and was enraged. In the early hours of the morning of 28 August he, along with his half-brother John Milam, went to the home where Till was staying and demanded to see him. Despite pleas from Till's elderly great-uncle, they abducted Till, forced him into their car and proceeded to beat him so badly he was unrecognisable. They then shot him in the head, weighted down his body and threw him in the river.

▲ **Source 3:** Emmett Till and his mother, Mamie Bradley. This photograph was taken around 1950, shortly before his brutal murder.

Three days later, Till's body was recovered from the river and could only by identified by his great-uncle from a ring on his hand. The Mississippi authorities wanted to bury the body immediately to cover up the murder, but Till's mother insisted that his body be returned to Chicago for burial. What made this event a catalyst for the civil rights movement was Till's mother's insistence that the funeral be an open casket. This meant that the mourners and media reporting on the death could see the extent of the beating and injuries that Till had sustained. This gained wide media coverage and within a couple of days Bryant and Milam were arrested and charged with Till's murder.

Despite the damning evidence presented, the all-white jury found the brothers not guilty in less than an hour. This sparked outrage around America. In 2017, Carolyn Bryant officially recanted her testimony and stated that 'nothing that boy did could ever justify what happened to him'.

Rosa Parks

On 1 December 1955 – just four months after the brutal murder of Emmett Till – Rosa Parks took her regular bus home from work in Montgomery, Alabama. **Segregation** laws meant that she was required to sit at the back of the bus in the 'black' section. As the bus filled, a white man was left standing. The bus driver ordered Parks and three other passengers to give up their seats. Parks refused, leading to her arrest.

This prompted community leaders to form the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA), which was led by a young and charismatic Baptist preacher named Dr Martin Luther King Jr With her defiant stance, Parks was described as being the unwitting 'mother of the modern civil rights movement'.

The immediate aftermath of her arrest and treatment by the bus driver and bus company inspired the MIA to organise a **boycott** of the Montgomery bus system. This had a significant financial impact on the companies running the system and prompted a Supreme Court challenge about the segregation on buses. After 381 days of the boycott, the Supreme Court ruled that segregation on buses was unconstitutional and that passengers had the right to sit anywhere they pleased.

Little Rock Nine

In 1954, the US Supreme Court made another landmark ruling in the *Brown v. Board of Education* case. It was ruled that it was unconstitutional to maintain segregated schools.

In September 1957, nine African American students enrolled at Little Rock Central High School in Arkansas. The African American community knew that this move would enflame the pro-segregation white population of Arkansas. Activists carefully planned and implemented this action. A key organisation in this planning was the National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People (NAACP). The aim of this organisation was to: 'secure political, educational, social, and economic equality of rights in order to eliminate race-based discrimination and ensure the health and wellbeing of all persons'.

Resistance to the planned integration of the school had been growing and culminated with the Governor of Arkansas, Orval Faubus, calling in the Arkansas National Guard to stop the students.

◀ **Source 4:** The police photograph of Rosa Parks after she was arrested for refusing to give up her seat on a segregated bus. Her strategy of non-violent civil disobedience was commonly used by civil rights activists.

Source 5: The Little Rock Nine students are escorted to school by troopers from 327th Airborne Battle Group.

On 4 September 1957, the nine students – Minnijean Brown, Elizabeth Eckford, Ernest Green, Thelma Mothershed, Melba Patillo, Gloria Ray, Terrence Roberts, Jefferson Thomas and Carlotta Walls – tried to attend their first day of high school. They arrived at Little Rock Central High School as planned and walked through hundreds of aggressive and violent pro-segregation protesters. However, having made it through the protesters, they were then turned away from the school doors by armed National Guard troops.

The incident received widespread condemnation. In the following weeks, federal Judge Ronald Davis began legal proceedings against Faubus and forced him to remove the troops who were preventing the students' access. On 23 September, the students, escorted by police, were able to enter the school, but because there were over a thousand angry and rioting protesters the students were quickly removed for their safety.

This prompted action from President Eisenhower, who sent 1200 members of the US Army to take charge of the 10 000 National Guardsmen. By September 25, escorted by army soldiers, the Little Rock Nine were able to enjoy their first full day at the school.

The Little Rock event highlighted the great divisions still present within the US community, and the courage of the students highlighted how determined the African American community was to challenge segregation policies. For many, this also highlighted the violent and unwarranted response from the segregationists, and this began to sway the American white majority to sympathise with the civil rights movement.

Learning ladder 16.8

Background and origins

1. Identify one early example of resistance to racism described in the text.
2. Describe how segregation affected everyday life for African Americans.
3. Explain how the Jim Crow laws contributed to the emergence of the civil rights movement.
4. Explain why the murder of Emmett Till became a catalyst for the civil rights movement.
5. Evaluate which factor was most important in the emergence of the US civil rights movement, and why.

Chronology

1. List five key events from the text in the order they happened.
2. Create a timeline from 1861 to 1957 that includes these six events: the end of the Civil War, *Plessy v. Ferguson,* WWII service of African Americans, Rosa Parks' arrest, *Brown v. Board of Education,* and the Little Rock Nine.
3. Write a short summary of the major civil rights developments between 1865 and 1957, using correct chronological order.
4. Explain how the struggle for civil rights developed over time, from the abolition of slavery to the protection of the Little Rock Nine.
5. Evaluate how one earlier event helped cause a later civil rights action.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

16.9

How did Martin Luther King Jr shape the US civil rights movement?

As the actions of Rosa Parks and the boycott of the Montgomery buses gained national and international attention, it also focused attention on Dr Martin Luther King Jr and his success in leading social reform through non-violent action. At this point, the civil rights movement became more widespread, as the various community-led organisations and chapters of the NAACP conducted more protests, sit-ins, boycotts and direct actions challenging segregation laws throughout the southern states.

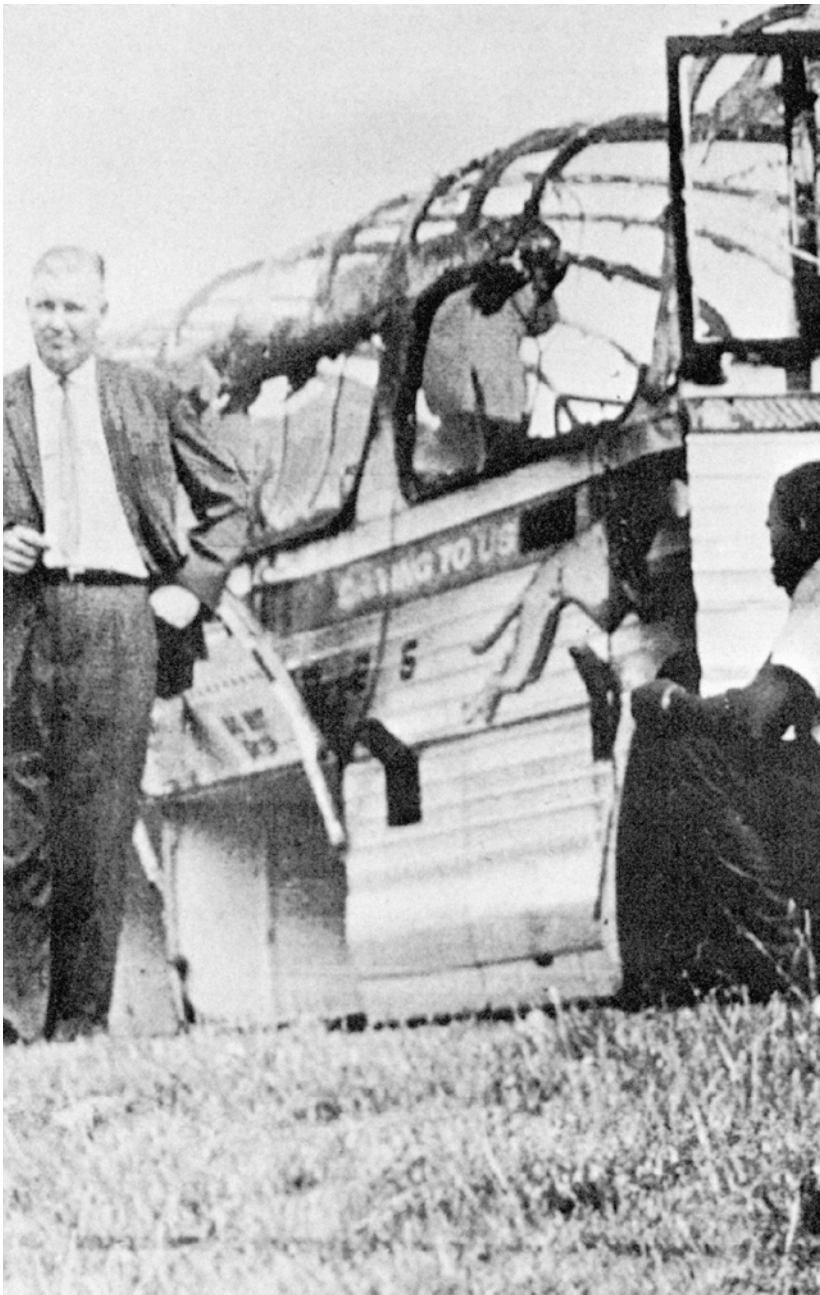
Martin Luther King Jr and civil disobedience

Dr Martin Luther King Jr was a well-educated and charismatic preacher at the Ebenezer Baptist Church in Atlanta, Georgia. As a young boy, he demonstrated significant aptitude in his studies. He earned an undergraduate degree from Morehouse College and went on to complete a PhD at Boston College in 1953. While he was at Boston, he met and eventually married Coretta Scott, who was also notable for her intellectual and artistic talents, and they had two sons and two daughters.

King was dedicated to the causes of civil rights and used both his devout Christian faith and the teachings of non-violent protest from Mahatma Gandhi as inspiration for his leadership and actions during the US civil rights movement. King was a key leader of the movement and, over the 11 years of his leadership, he spoke more than 2500 times. Despite years of near constant harassment by the police, the Ku Klux Klan and other white supremacy organisations, King was able to write five books and numerous articles, and led many marches.

The US Freedom Rides

The first 1961 Freedom Ride was in response to the delay in many of the southern states in desegregating their transportation services. Activists decided to take action to try to force the federal government to intervene to make the states enforce the rulings.



On 4 May, seven African Americans and six white Americans left Washington D.C. for New Orleans, travelling together on a bus. A few days into the trip, some of the Freedom Riders changed buses so that there were two buses of Freedom Riders bound for New Orleans.

As they travelled on the buses, the Freedom Riders used the various bathrooms and rest stops along the route as if those facilities were not segregated. The freedom riders encountered violence in South Carolina, where two of them were beaten, and the violence escalated when they arrived in Alabama. On 14 May, the buses had to stop in the town of Anniston to change a slashed tyre. While they were stopped, a crowd of locals gathered and proceeded to firebomb one of the buses, and severely beat the freedom riders. The second bus continued on to Birmingham, Alabama, where the bus was again bombed and the riders beaten. The local police were sympathetic towards the segregationist crowd and only arrived after the violent crowd had dispersed.

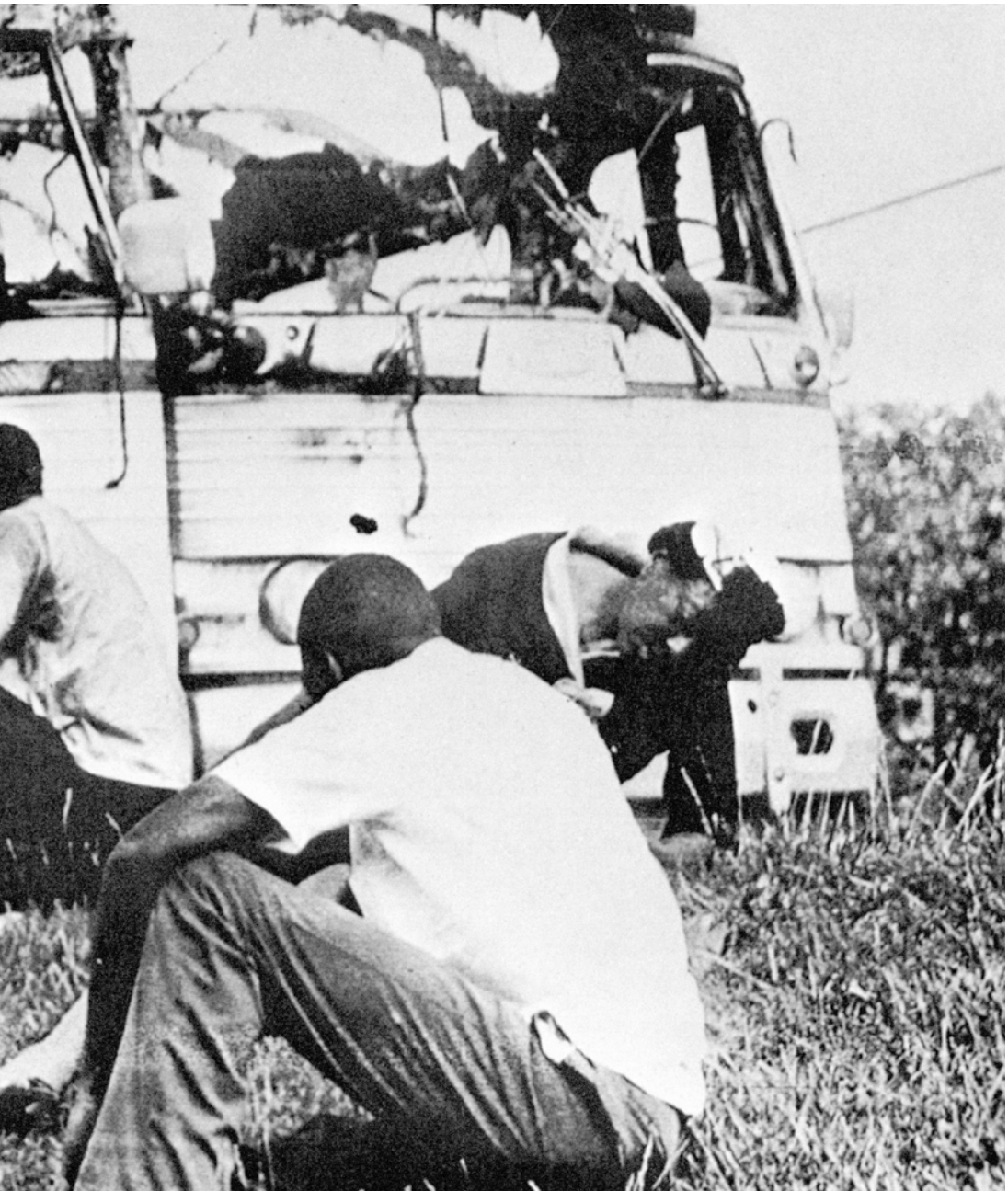
Several more Freedom Rides were held from June to September 1961. These events prompted President Kennedy to pass more laws desegregating the transportation systems throughout the southern states, and the international coverage of the Freedom Rides provided significant inspiration for similar actions in Australia.

Letter from Birmingham Jail

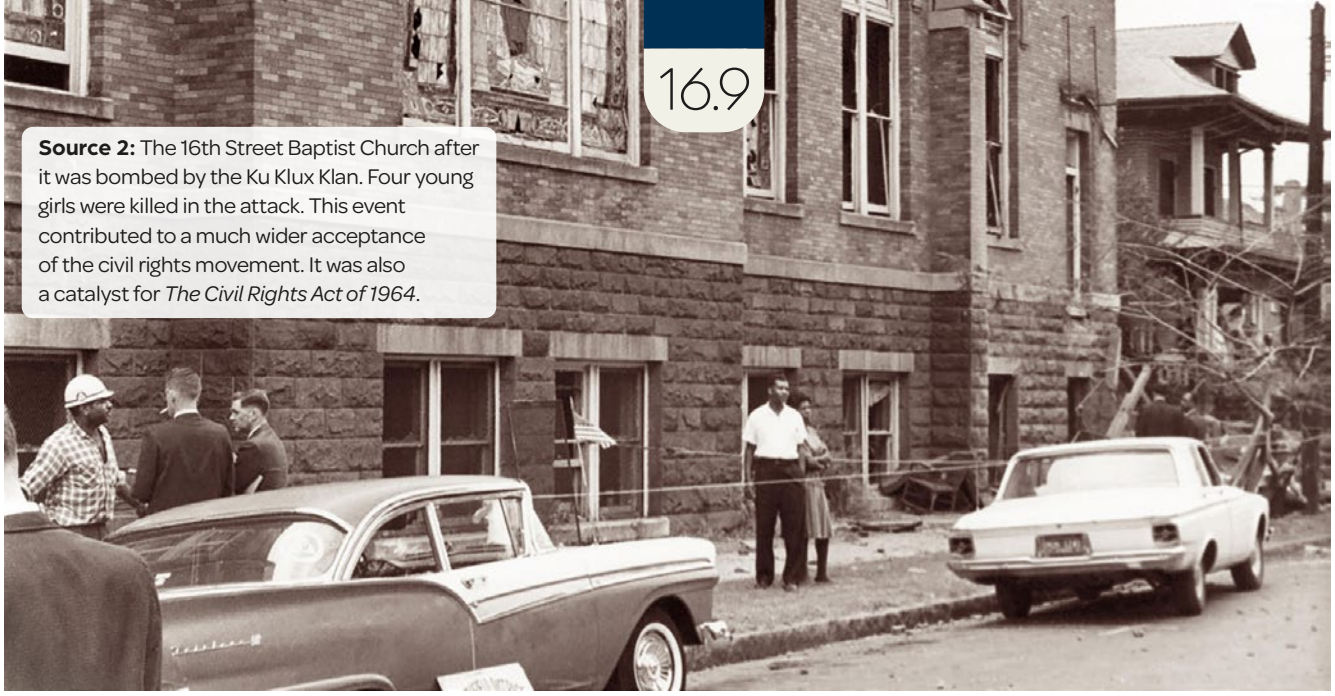
On 12 April 1963, King was arrested for breaking an anti-protest injunction and placed in **solitary confinement** in Birmingham Jail. King knew that being imprisoned without money for bail put his life at risk but, during his time in jail, he wrote the 'Letter from Birmingham Jail'. In this letter, he defended the actions of the protesters and outlined a vision for a future in America without racial discrimination.

This letter was widely published and helped increase support for King and the civil rights cause. Two weeks later, young people in Birmingham joined the fight in what became known as the 'Children's Crusade'. More than 1000 students left their schools to march for civil rights. In response, the Birmingham Commissioner of Public Safety ordered the local authorities to use fire hoses and police dogs to break up the protests, leading to the arrest of over 600 children on the first day.

The media documented these brutal scenes, revealing the increasing violence against the protesters. The shocking treatment of the children by the police outraged many people across the United States.



Source 1: This image shows the wreckage of a bus carrying Freedom Riders after it had been destroyed by a fire bomb near Anniston, Alabama, on 14 May 1961. These acts of violence were broadcast across America and caused much shock and outrage.

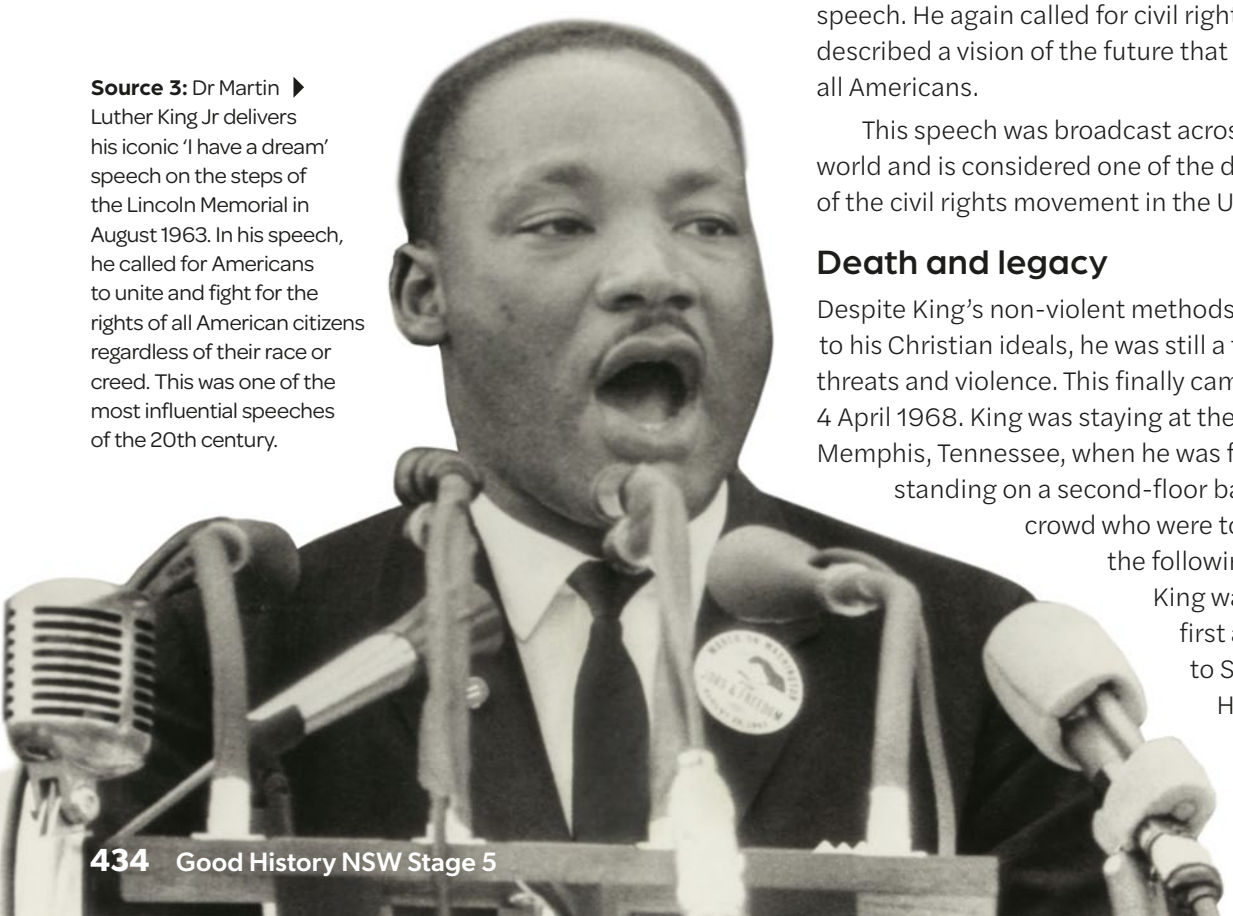


Source 2: The 16th Street Baptist Church after it was bombed by the Ku Klux Klan. Four young girls were killed in the attack. This event contributed to a much wider acceptance of the civil rights movement. It was also a catalyst for *The Civil Rights Act of 1964*.

'I have a dream'

On 28 August 1963, Dr Martin Luther King Jr led a march of over 200 000 people to the Lincoln Memorial in Washington D.C. for 'the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom', to highlight both racial and economic inequalities.

The march had several aims, including the creation of a comprehensive civil rights bill, protection of the right to vote, desegregation of all public schools in 1963, the training and placement of unemployed workers, and a *Federal Fair Employment Practices Act* barring discrimination in all employment.



Source 3: Dr Martin Luther King Jr delivers his iconic 'I have a dream' speech on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial in August 1963. In his speech, he called for Americans to unite and fight for the rights of all American citizens regardless of their race or creed. This was one of the most influential speeches of the 20th century.

The march attracted a coalition of organisations that supported civil rights, including the NAACP, the National Urban League, the National Council of the Churches of Christ in America, the Negro American Labor Council, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, and many other union and community organisations. One notable absence was the Nation of Islam. Its spokesperson, Malcolm X, attended the march but condemned it as a 'farce on Washington'.

Leaders of many of the organisations attending gave speeches and there were performances by popular musicians. However, the high point of the day was King's speech. He again called for civil rights and equality and described a vision of the future that he wanted to see for all Americans.

This speech was broadcast across America and the world and is considered one of the defining moments of the civil rights movement in the United States.

Death and legacy

Despite King's non-violent methods and his adherence to his Christian ideals, he was still a target of many threats and violence. This finally came to a head on 4 April 1968. King was staying at the Lorraine Motel in Memphis, Tennessee, when he was fatally shot while standing on a second-floor balcony addressing a crowd who were to join him at a protest the following day.

King was given immediate first aid and transported to St Joseph's Hospital but he was pronounced dead an hour later.

He was shot by James Earl Ray, a petty criminal and white supremacist. Several months after the murder, Ray was captured in the United Kingdom as he attempted to flee to Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) – at the time, a haven for white supremacists. Ray entered into a plea deal and was spared the death penalty, but he was sentenced to 99 years jail for the murder.

After King's assassination, President Lyndon Johnson declared a national day of mourning. This was followed by a week of civil unrest, protest and riots across the United States, as African Americans continued to demand civil rights. At King's funeral, his family was joined by over 100 000 mourners, indicating the impact of his work and how deeply he had inspired so many people.

Source 4: A pair of mules pull a wagon carrying the casket of Dr King.

Learning ladder 16.9

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Who was Martin Luther King Jr?
2. Describe the Freedom Rides.
3. Explain how the Freedom Riders were received.
4. Explain why Martin Luther King Jr wrote the Letter from Birmingham Jail.
5. Evaluate the impact of Martin Luther King Jr's leadership on the US civil rights movement.

Perspectives

1. Identify the cause of the march on Washington.
2. Describe the groups that attended the march.
3. Explain why the Nation of Islam did not attend.
4. Compare the perspectives of Martin Luther King Jr and Malcolm X.
5. Evaluate the strengths and limitations of Martin Luther King Jr's perspective on non-violent protest.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

16.10

How did the US civil rights movement influence Australia's?

In 1965, inspired by the US Freedom Rides, activist Charlie Perkins led a group of students on a Freedom Ride around regional NSW to make visible the segregation and terrible living conditions that many First Nations people were forced to endure.

The Australian Freedom Ride

The US Freedom Rides of 1961 and the resulting hostility reverberated around the world. At the University of Sydney, these reports inspired students to take action.

The Student Action for Aborigines (SAFA) organisation was formed in 1964. The SAFA consisted of university students who wanted to take action to support the civil rights of First Nations people in Australia.

After some smaller protests and demonstrations, the organisation decided to hire a bus and go on a Freedom Ride to highlight the segregation and racism present in regional NSW.

SAFA had three specific aims they hoped the Freedom Ride would achieve (Source 2).

1. To arouse to public attention the fundamental Aboriginal problems in health, education, housing, etc.
2. To break down social discriminatory barriers to the extent possible by student action.
3. To stimulate the interest of the Aborigines themselves in resisting discriminatory action.

Source 2: Charles Perkins (1965), 'Annual Report of SAFA', *Reports and Resolutions of the 8th Annual Conference on Aboriginal Affairs*, April, FCAATSI.

Source 1: Student activists led by Charles Perkins next to their Freedom Ride bus. Over the next few weeks, they confronted the ugly reality of racism and segregation that was present throughout parts of regional NSW.

The Australian Freedom Ride began on 12 February 1965 when a bus carrying 35 students departed Warrang (Sydney). The group included Charlie Perkins, an Arrernte man and the ride's leader, and Gary Williams, a Gumbaynggir student. These two were the only First Nations students at their university.

The ride quickly attracted media attention, thanks to student Darce Cassidy, a part-time ABC radio producer who documented the events. Collaborating with the Wayside Chapel, the students ensured widespread media coverage, sparking national and international interest in their cause.

An important primary source for this event is the journal of Ann Curthoys, which details the events of the ride. Curthoys recorded the pickets, protests, hostility and violence that the riders were subjected to.

The first major confrontation occurred several days into the ride in Walgett. In this town, First Nations residents, including veterans, were banned from the local RSL and were forced to purchase watered-down alcohol at greatly inflated prices through a window.

The freedom riders set up outside the RSL and held banners highlighting the racism. Their signs included messages such as 'Good enough for Tobruk – why not Walgett RSL?' and 'Bullets did not discriminate'. In the afternoon, a large group of local men gathered and began to argue with the protesters.

The hostility escalated as the freedom riders left Walgett. They were followed by a convoy of cars, and a truck driven by an angry local collided with the bus and forced it off the road. The riders armed themselves with anything they had to hand and prepared to be attacked. The expected violence did not occur, but the riders were shaken by the incident and returned to Walgett to regroup.

Moree was the next stop for the freedom riders. In this town, the local pool was closed to First Nations residents and the freedom riders campaigned until the pool manager allowed six First Nations children entry. Charles Perkins then went to the local Aboriginal community and returned with 21 other children keen for a swim.

After 15 days on the road, the ride ended on 26 February. However, the footage from the ride of the segregation and racism faced by First Nations people, and the violence and hostility towards SAFA, changed Australia forever.

Source 3: In addition to being one of the key figures in the Australian civil rights movement, Dr Charles Perkins OA also went on to become Australia's first First Nations head of a federal government department. In his roles within government, he continued to push for First Nations policy reform and progress for civil rights. He was awarded an Order of Australia in 1987.

Learning ladder 16.10

Significant people, ideas and events

1. How many days did the Australian Freedom Ride last?
2. Describe the three specific aims of SAFA.
3. Explain how Charles Perkins contributed to the civil rights movement after the Australian Freedom Ride.
4. Explain why the Australian Freedom Ride was an important moment in Australia's civil rights history.

Cause and effect

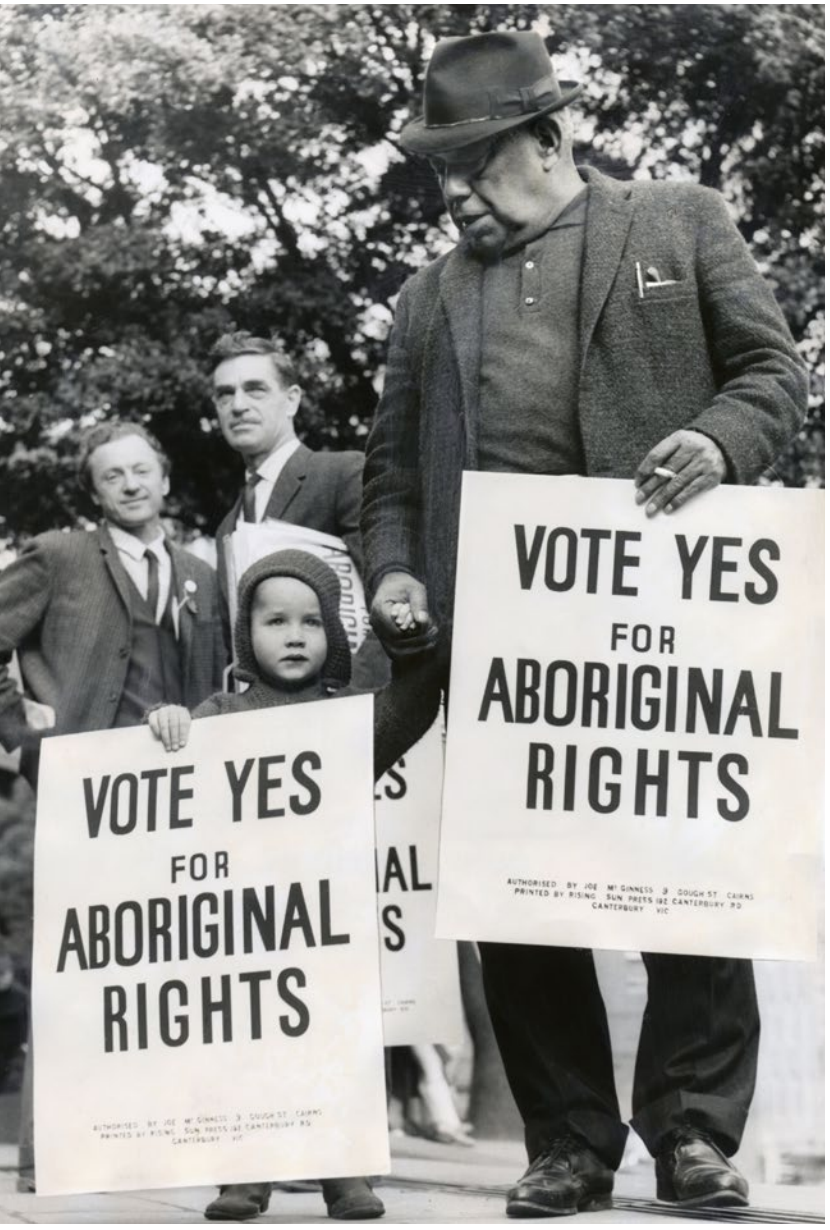
1. What caused the students to organise the Australian Freedom Ride?
2. Describe how people in Walgett reacted to the freedom riders.
3. Explain how the US Freedom Rides influenced SAFA.
4. Explain why the Australian Freedom Ride attracted national and international attention.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

16.11

What were the 1962 right to vote laws and the 1967 referendum about?

From the earliest days of the British colonies, there had been a movement to ensure fair and equitable voting rights for all considered to be British subjects. Many colonists wanted to ensure that the colonies would be as, if not more, egalitarian than Britain. As such, although it varied by colony, and was rarely enforced, many First Nations men were eligible to vote in colonial elections from the 1850s onwards.



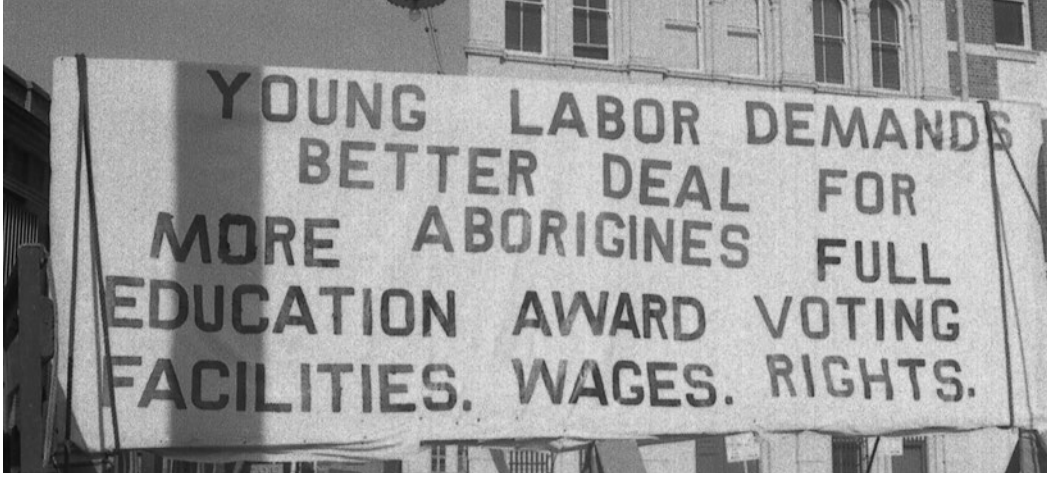
In the lead up to Australia's federation in 1901, there was much variation between colonies in allowing First Nations people to vote. To address the inconsistencies, the *Commonwealth Franchise Act* (1902) was passed, enshrining voting rights for those who already had them.

This was expanded in 1948 with the *Commonwealth Electoral Act*, which extended federal voting rights to those First Nations people who could already vote at the state level and those who had served in the armed forces. However, these two pieces of legislation had little effect.

The 1962 right to vote

The restriction of voting rights for First Nations people prompted First Nations activists to form the Federal Council for Aboriginal Advancement (FCAA). This organisation lobbied the government and was successful in getting the Select Committee for Voting Rights of Aborigines established in 1961. The resulting report estimated that more than 30 000 First Nations people were being denied the right to vote across the country. This was a factor in the government passing the *Commonwealth Electoral Act* (1962), which gave all First Nations people the right to vote in federal elections. By the end of 1965, all states and territories had followed suit.

Source 1: Bill Onus was one of the key campaigners for the 'yes' vote in the 1967 referendum. This is an image from a referendum march, one of many that he was involved in, in Naarm (Melbourne) in 1967.



Source 2: Despite federal legislation guaranteeing voting rights for First Nations people, Queensland still did not allow them to vote at state level. This is a banner from a May Day procession in Meanjin (Brisbane) in 1965 created by the Labor Party, in partnership with the trade union movement, advocating for voting and civil rights for First Nations Australians.

The 1967 referendum

The establishment of many First Nations political and social organisations as well as the Freedom Rides had increased awareness of the racism and oppression that First Nations Peoples were still experiencing. This growing community support culminated in the 1967 referendum to amend the racist sections of the Australian constitution.

The referendum was held on 27 May 1967 and asked all Australians the question:

'Do you approve the proposed law for the alteration of the constitution entitled "An Act to alter the Constitution" so as to omit certain words relating to the people of the Aboriginal race in any state so that Aboriginals are to be counted in reckoning the population?'

Specifically, the question was concerned with two key sections of the Australian constitution:

1. Section 51 (xxvi): 'The Parliament shall, subject to this Constitution, have the power to make laws for the peace, order and good government of the Commonwealth with respect to the people of any race, other than the aboriginal race in any State, for whom it is deemed necessary to make special laws.'
2. Section 127: 'In reckoning the numbers of the people of the Commonwealth, or of a State or other part of the Commonwealth, aboriginal people shall not be counted.'

These two sections of the constitution meant that the laws of the federal government did not extend to First Nations people, and that, instead, special laws must be made for them by the states; and that the federal government was not required to count them as part of the census. Because First Nations people were regulated by state-based legislation, there were inconsistencies around Australia in what First Nations Peoples were or were not allowed to do.

The result of the referendum was a resounding success for the civil rights movement. With a 'yes' vote higher than 90 per cent, it was the most successful referendum in Australia's history. This was thanks to the tireless efforts of the many First Nations civil rights activists.

Legacy

Despite the referendum's success, it was not about citizenship rights, nor was it the end of the fight for civil rights. For many First Nations people, life did not change at all, and they had to continue to fight against discrimination.

Learning ladder 16.11

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the two sections of the Constitution that were changed by the 1967 referendum?
2. Describe why Sections 51 and 127 of the Australian Constitution were considered racist.
3. Describe the issues that led to the 1967 referendum.
4. Explain why the 1967 referendum received such strong public support.

Continuity and change

1. Identify the question put to Australian voters in the 1967 referendum.
2. Describe the result of the 1967 referendum.
3. Explain the legacy of the 1967 referendum. Did the change in the Constitution actually bring about change for First Nations people?
4. How did the 1967 referendum reflect changing views in Australian society about First Nations people?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

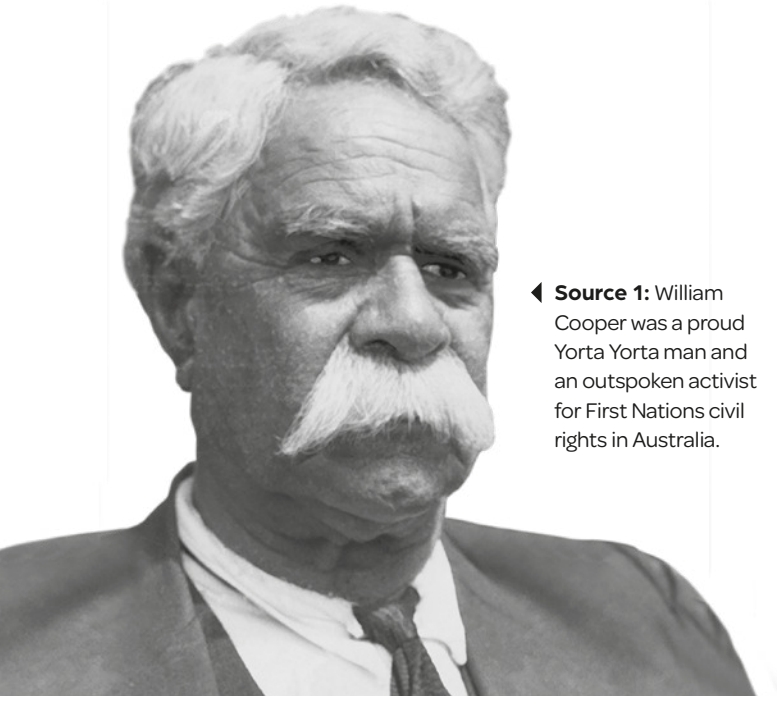
Who are some of the figures in the Australian civil rights movement?

There have been many important figures in the Australian civil rights movement across the 20th century. Many of these people were, and are, respected Elders in their communities and have made significant impacts on Australian society. All of the leaders of the Australian civil rights movement have been committed to improving the conditions for First Nations people as well as maintaining an international focus and fighting for civil rights across the globe.

William Cooper

William Cooper was a proud Yorta Yorta man and one of the earliest leaders of the Australia civil rights movement. He was born in 1861 near the junction of the Murray and Goulburn rivers. He spent most of his life being forced to live in terrible conditions on different government reserves and church-run missions.

In 1886, he moved to the Cummeragunja Mission in NSW shortly after it opened and was able to enjoy many years of relative prosperity farming his own allotment until 1908 when the regulations changed, and the living conditions became much worse.



Source 1: William Cooper was a proud Yorta Yorta man and an outspoken activist for First Nations civil rights in Australia.

In response to the 1908 change in policy, William Cooper became more focused on political action in an effort to regain the few rights that had been taken from him and the other residents. He joined the Australian Workers' Union and also campaigned for Aboriginal workers' rights across NSW and Victoria.

In 1933, he relocated to Naarm (Melbourne) to be eligible for an old-age pension. As a then 70-year-old man, he became a leader in the local Fitzroy Aboriginal community. In 1936, he and several other local First Nations leaders formed the AAL and formalised and coordinated the political actions that the First Nations people located in Fitzroy and around Victoria could use in their fight for civil rights. With the AAL, some of Cooper's key contributions were:

- organising a petition to King George V for First Nations rights
- petitioning the German consulate in Melbourne to condemn the actions of the Nazis
- together with the APA, organising the 1938 Day of Mourning.

Cooper died in 1941 without seeing much change for the First Nations people around Australia, but his legacy inspired the next generations of First Nations activists.

Charles Perkins

Dr Charles Perkins was born in 1936 at a mission called The Bungalow just outside of Mparntwe (Alice Springs). As a young man he demonstrated exceptional skills at playing soccer and was selected to play with the Everton Soccer Club in England in 1957. In 1961 he returned

to Australia and worked as a soccer coach to support himself as he studied at the University of Sydney.

In 1965, as President of SAFA and inspired by the events in the US, he organised the Australian Freedom Ride around regional NSW (see 16.10).

The following year he graduated university, becoming one of the earliest First Nations holders of an undergraduate degree. From 1969, he worked in Canberra within the newly formed Office of Aboriginal Affairs, and in 1972, he campaigned at the newly established Tent Embassy.

In 1984, he was appointed as the first First Nations Secretary of the Department of Aboriginal Affairs and spent most of the rest of his life working within government organisations to support the civil rights and living conditions of First Nations Peoples. His legacy emphasised the importance of education for First Nations Peoples and of working with non-Indigenous people to support First Nations civil rights.

Bill Onus

William 'Bill' Onus was born on the Cummeragunja Mission Station in 1902. He grew up on the mission and attended school until the age of 12. At 16, he began working as a shearer around the Riverina region of NSW. In 1929, Onus moved to Warrang (Sydney), where he worked as a truck driver. During this time, he became active in the trade union movement and developed strong public speaking skills.

Onus became involved in Aboriginal activism in 1939 when he joined the Aboriginal Progressive Association (APA). He worked tirelessly to push for First Nations representation on the NSW Aborigines Protection Board. In 1945, he also established the Redfern All-Blacks rugby club, which played a key role in the Redfern Aboriginal activist movement.

Source 2: Bill Onus worked tirelessly to support the rights of First Nations people.

In 1946, Onus moved to Naarm (Melbourne) and worked as a shipping clerk. There, he reconnected with others from the Cummeragunja Mission and, along with his younger brother Eric Onus and Pastor Sir Doug Nichols, helped reform the Australian Aborigines' League (AAL). During this time, Onus became a prominent civil rights advocate for First Nations Peoples, often speaking at rallies and addressing the media on important issues.

Onus was also a talented business operator and an example of First Nations economic self-determination, which was rare at the time. He successfully ran his own business producing replica First Nations artefacts, which he also used to share culture with First Nations children.

In 1957, Onus played a key role in founding the Aborigines Advancement League, which replaced the earlier AAL. In 1967, he became the league's first First Nations president. Alongside leaders like Pearl Gibbs, he campaigned for the successful 1967 referendum, which improved recognition of First Nations Peoples in Australia. Onus passed away in 1968, leaving a lasting impact on the Australian civil rights movement and inspiring future generations of activists.

Pearl Gibbs

Pearl Gibbs was born in 1901 at La Perouse in Sydney. As a young girl, she grew up in Yass and attended the Mount Carmel School. By 1910, Gibbs' family had moved to Burke to work on a sheep station. During this time, Gibbs worked as a maid, and in 1917 she moved to Warrang (Sydney) to work as a domestic servant.

While in Sydney, Gibbs spoke to other First Nations girls who had been forcibly removed from their families and forced to become domestic servants in conditions similar to slavery. Hearing their stories moved her to take action. She began working on their behalf to petition the NSW Aborigines Protection Board to improve their working conditions.

Gibbs' father was non-Indigenous, and she was classified as a 'half-caste'. For much of her early life, this meant she was legally not considered Aboriginal and was forced to assimilate into white society. However, when the law changed in 1936, she was then considered Aboriginal and subjected to the harsh conditions she had been campaigning against.

In 1937, Gibbs began working with Bill Ferguson and Jack Patten in the newly formed APA. In 1938, she was elected the organisation's secretary. In this role, Gibbs campaigned for women's and children's rights, focusing on improving nutrition and health conditions for mothers and children living on government-run reserves.

Gibbs was a skilled activist with strong connections to the trade union movement. She ensured the media was informed about protests and campaigns as they were planned. She was known for her ability to unite people to fight for the same cause. Even after her official retirement, she stayed in contact with and supported future generations of First Nations activists.

Source 3: Pearl Gibbs was a staunch advocate for the civil rights of First Nations Peoples in Australia. She attended and spoke at the 1938 Day of Mourning and focused on the rights of First Nations women and children.

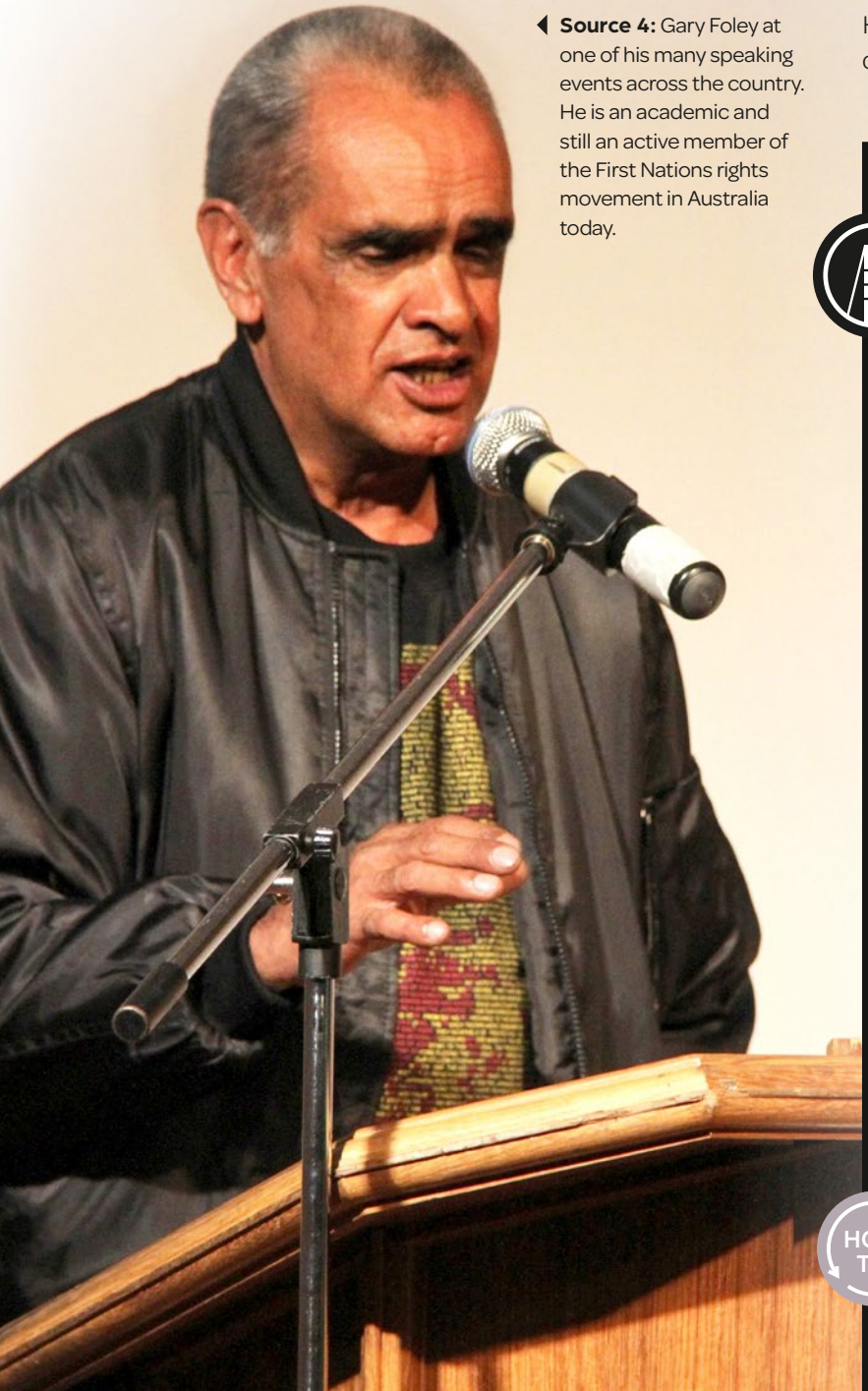
Gary Foley

Professor Gary Foley was born in Grafton, NSW, in 1950. At 15, he was expelled from school and moved to Warrang (Sydney), where he started an apprenticeship as a drafter. While in Warrang (Sydney), he became involved with the local community and was inspired by the First Nations political leadership and activism at the time.

By the 1970s, Professor Foley was at the centre of many activist campaigns. These included protests against South African apartheid and the 1971 Springbok rugby tour, the establishment of the Tent Embassy in Canberra in 1972, the Commonwealth Games protest in 1988, and protests during the bicentennial celebrations that same year.

Professor Foley was a key figure in the Australian Black Power movement and helped establish the Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service. This service was created to address the illegal police violence affecting Redfern residents in the late 1960s and 1970s. In 1979, he founded the first Aboriginal Information Centre in London and later served as the director of the Aboriginal Arts Board (from 1983 to 1986). He also had success in the dramatic arts.

Throughout his life, Professor Foley has been arrested numerous times for his protest activities and was monitored by ASIO (the Australian intelligence agency) as a potential threat to the government. Later, he returned to university and, in 2013, earned a PhD in History. Today, he works as an academic in Victoria and continues to advocate for First Nations rights.



Source 4: Gary Foley at one of his many speaking events across the country. He is an academic and still an active member of the First Nations rights movement in Australia today.

Learning ladder 16.12

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify why William Cooper moved to Naarm (Melbourne).
2. Identify one reason Pearl Gibbs began campaigning for First Nations rights.
3. Describe how Bill Onus supported the civil rights movement.
4. Describe Charles Perkins's role in the Australian Freedom Ride.
5. Describe one way Gary Foley contributed to First Nations activism in the 1970s.

Significance

1. Identify who William Cooper attempted to petition for First Nations rights.
2. Describe the work of Pearl Gibbs in the Australian civil rights movement.
3. Explain why Charles Perkins was a significant leader in the fight for First Nations rights.
4. Explain how Bill Onus promoted First Nations rights through both activism and business.
5. Analyse how Professor Gary Foley's contributions have shaped the civil rights movement in Australia.

HOW TO Significance, page 504

16.13

What was the Black Power movement in the United States?

For many in the civil rights movement, the approach and the concessions that Dr Martin Luther King Jr and the other civil rights leaders achieved was not enough. The leaders of the Black Power movement felt that many civil rights gains were still reliant on white Americans doing the right thing, without any real consequence if they did not. Increasing hostility and violence towards African Americans meant that the leaders of the Black Power movement felt that it was time to begin defending themselves.

The origins of the Black Power movement

The Black Power movement originated from earlier efforts by activists to improve the conditions of African Americans after the American Civil War. Some believed the best solution was to send freed slaves back to Africa to help rebuild nations there. As a result, many African Americans emigrated to Liberia, on the west coast of Africa, after the war.

For those who stayed in the United States, the focus was on improving the living conditions of African Americans. At that time, Jim Crow laws restricted their rights and enforced segregation. This inspired civil rights leaders who fought for full integration into American society. However, the violence and poor conditions also led some African Americans to support the idea of complete separation from white society. They aimed to create a self-sufficient black community and economy, often described as a 'nation within a nation'.

Malcolm X

One of the central organisations formed to fight for equality was the Nation of Islam (NOI), established in the 1930s. The NOI aimed to create a separate and economically self-sufficient black community, governed by a revised version of the Muslim faith. By the late 1950s, the NOI began to gain national and international attention thanks to its charismatic and uncompromising spokesperson, Malcolm X.

Malcolm X was critical of Martin Luther King Jr and the non-violent approach he used in the fight for civil rights. He argued that, 'the only revolution in which the goal is loving your enemy is the Negro revolution ... that's no revolution'.

Malcolm X often spoke at protests and events. In one speech he stated that 'we want freedom now, but we're not going to get it saying "we shall overcome". We've got to fight to overcome'.

Despite his earlier criticisms of King, by early 1965, Malcolm X was working to bring their approaches closer together and suggested collaborating to achieve their shared goals. However, in February of that year, Malcolm X was assassinated while addressing a rally by members of a rival black nationalist organisation.

The birth of the Black Power movement

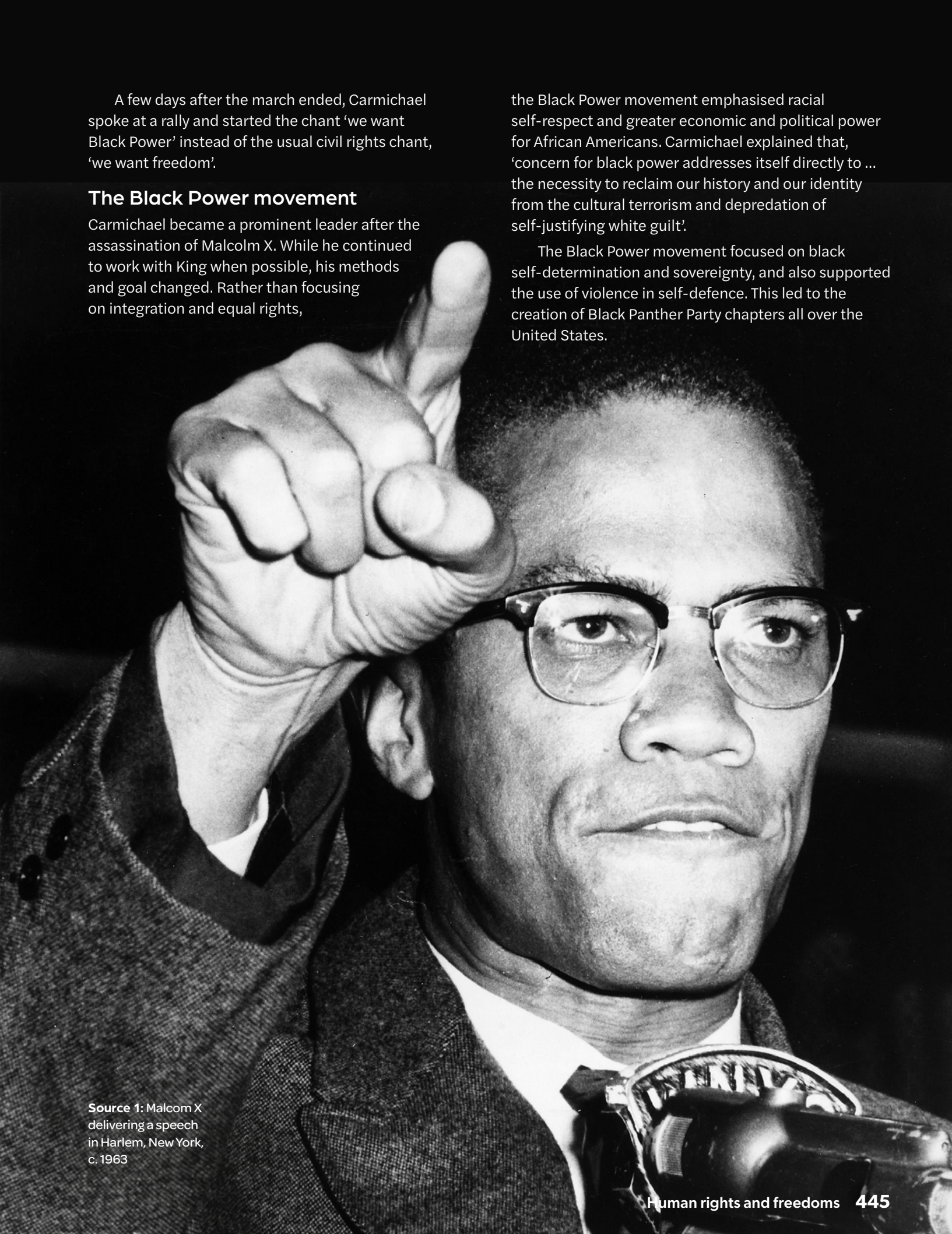
Researchers believe the Black Power movement began during the March Against Fear in Mississippi in June 1966. The march began as a solo protest by James Meredith, who planned to walk over 200 miles to draw attention to ongoing racism and encourage black voter registration. However, shortly after he began his walk, Meredith was shot and wounded by a white gunman. He was rushed to hospital and could not continue his march. In his place, Dr Martin Luther King Jr and other activists continued the walk. One of those activists was Stokely Carmichael, who was deeply affected by the hostility and violence from the white people in Mississippi.

A few days after the march ended, Carmichael spoke at a rally and started the chant 'we want Black Power' instead of the usual civil rights chant, 'we want freedom'.

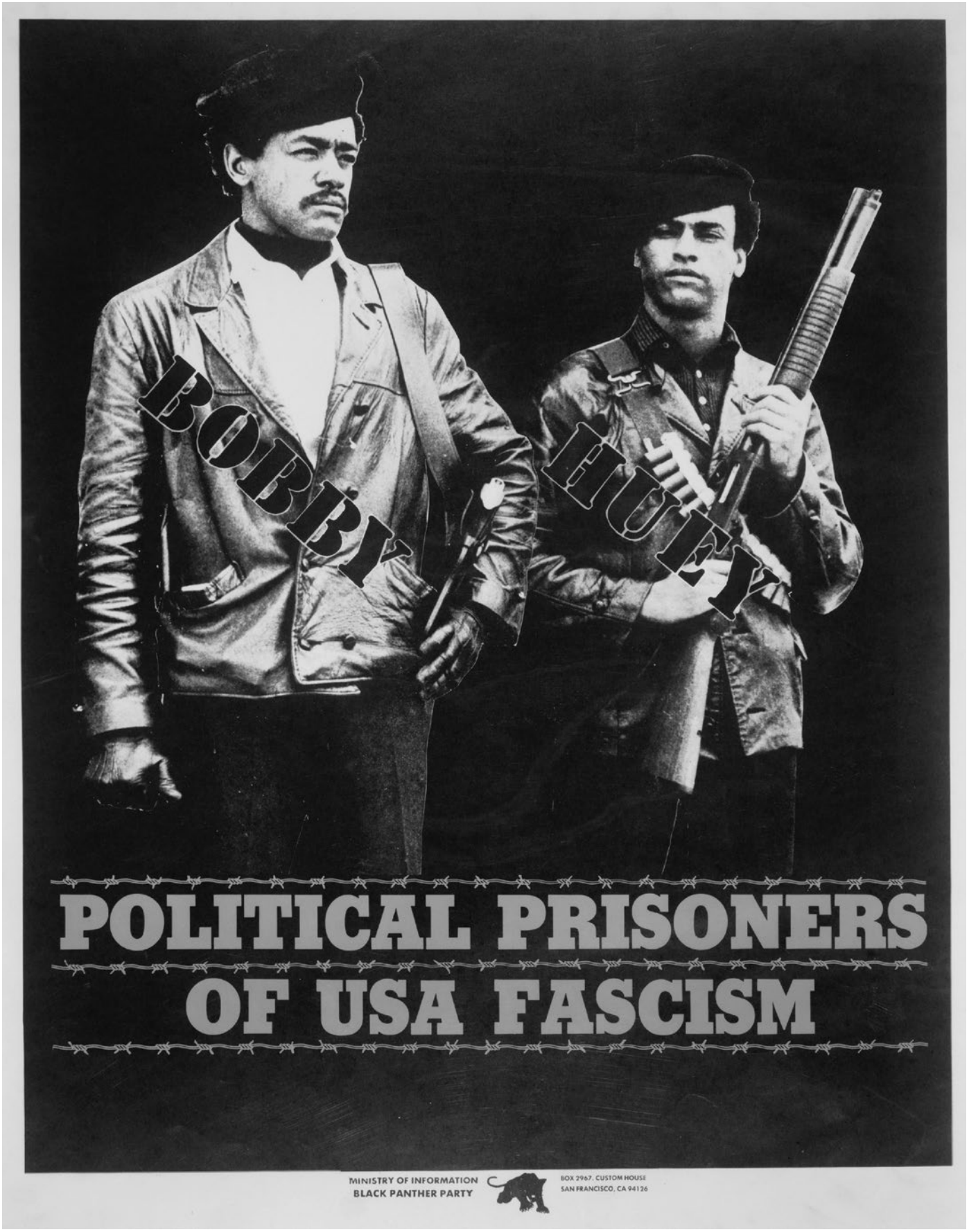
The Black Power movement

Carmichael became a prominent leader after the assassination of Malcolm X. While he continued to work with King when possible, his methods and goal changed. Rather than focusing on integration and equal rights, the Black Power movement emphasised racial self-respect and greater economic and political power for African Americans. Carmichael explained that, 'concern for black power addresses itself directly to ... the necessity to reclaim our history and our identity from the cultural terrorism and depredation of self-justifying white guilt'.

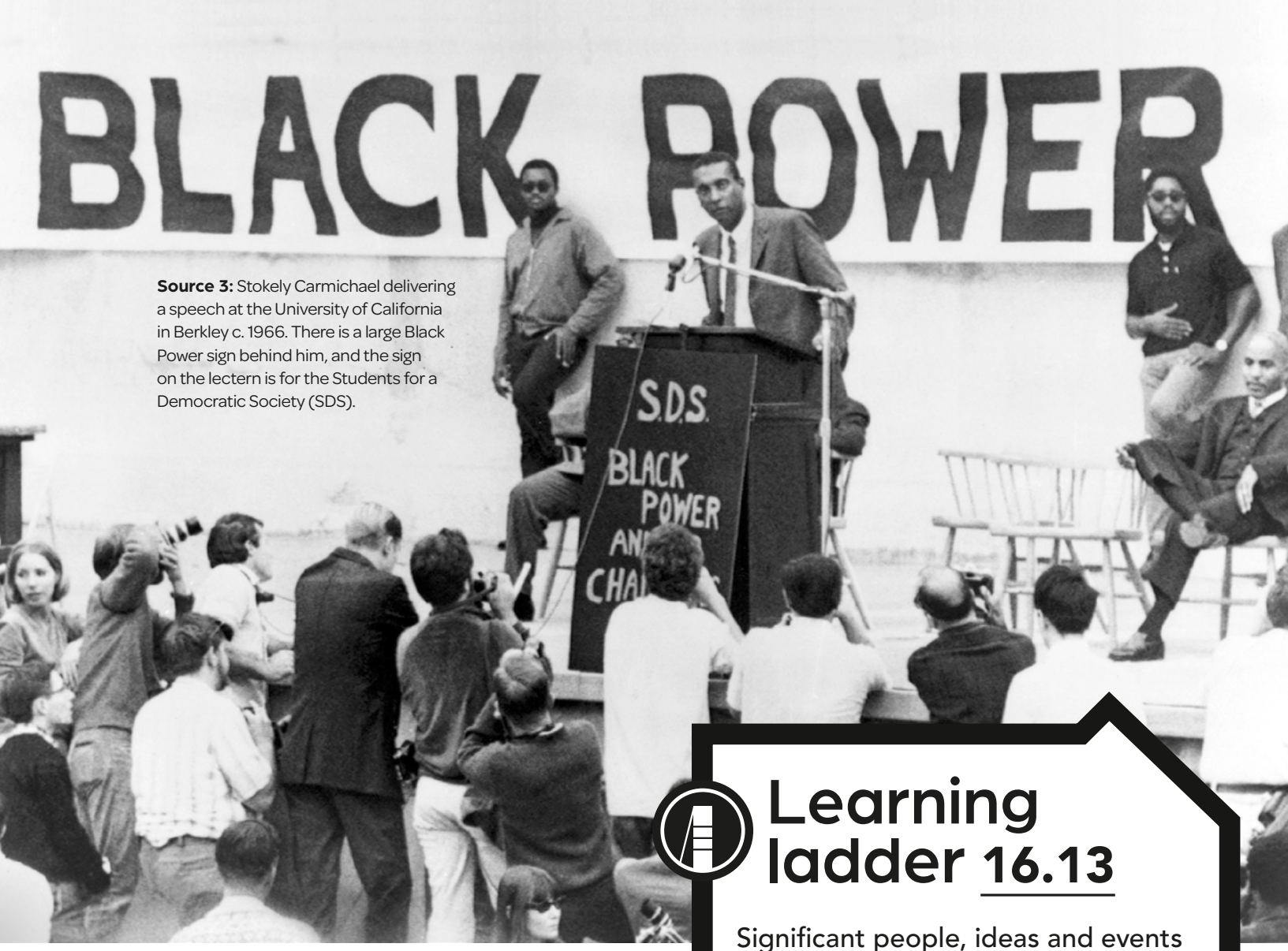
The Black Power movement focused on black self-determination and sovereignty, and also supported the use of violence in self-defence. This led to the creation of Black Panther Party chapters all over the United States.



Source 1: Malcom X delivering a speech in Harlem, New York, c. 1963



▲ **Source 2:** Together, Huey Newton and Bobby Seale created the Black Panther Party. This 1965 poster is one of many the Black Panthers distributed to promote their political activities and ideas.



Source 3: Stokely Carmichael delivering a speech at the University of California in Berkley c. 1966. There is a large Black Power sign behind him, and the sign on the lectern is for the Students for a Democratic Society (SDS).

When the Black Panther Party began, its main activity was organising armed patrols to protect citizens from police brutality. The militant approach of these chapters caught the attention of the US Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) and local law enforcement, who monitored them closely. Despite this, the Black Panthers also made positive contributions by creating community services for African Americans, including health and legal centres and breakfast programs for school children.

Another key difference between the Black Power movement and the civil rights movement was its support for First Nations American rights. The Black Power movement and First Nations movements shared similar goals, such as self-determination, sovereignty and control over their own affairs. This partnership led to events like the Longest Walk in 1978, where prominent activists from both movements campaigned together for civil rights and the empowerment of both African American and First Nations communities.

Learning ladder 16.13

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the event that began the Black Power movement.
2. Describe the beliefs of the Nation of Islam.
3. Explain how the aims of the Black Power movement differed from those of the civil rights movement.
4. Source 2: Explain who these people are, and their role.
5. Analyse the significance of the Black Panther Party's role in supporting African American communities.

Perspectives

1. Identify one reason Malcolm X disagreed with Martin Luther King Jr's approach to civil rights.
2. Describe how the FBI and local law enforcement responded to the Black Panther Party.
3. Explain how the Black Panther Party supported their community beyond protest actions.
4. Analyse how the goals and methods of Malcolm X and the Black Power movement differed from those of Dr King and the wider civil rights movement.

HOW TO

Perspectives, page 502

16.14

What was the Black Power movement in Australia?

The violent reactions to peaceful civil rights protests in Australia and the United States created an environment where many activists felt that, to defend themselves, they would need to use force. In addition, the various civil rights laws and reforms in both Australia and the United States were often seen as ineffective, or too slow to achieve any meaningful change.

By the late the 1960s, some activists in the Victorian branch of the Australian Aborigines' League (AAL) were frustrated with the slow progress of the Australian civil rights movement. They invited Roosevelt Brown, a Caribbean Black Power leader, to visit. Inspired by his ideas, the branch declared that they were 'enlightened' and that the role of white people in Aboriginal organisations should be to 'stand back' and let Aboriginal leaders take charge.

These new leaders were tired of the near-constant letter writing, petitioning politicians and focusing on equality and multiracial togetherness without challenging the dominant white culture. They rejected assimilation and worked to assert their sovereign First Nations cultures. The Australian Black Power movement also recognised similarities between the struggles in the United States and Australia, including with respect to poverty and political powerlessness, and that legislative change was often symbolic and ineffectual. They argued new tactics were needed to achieve to bring meaningful change.

In 1971, the Black Panther Party of Australia was formed, directly influenced by the US Black Power movement. It became the most militant political body in Australia since the end of the Frontier Wars. Denis Walker, son of civil rights campaigner Oodgeroo Noonuccal (Kath Walker), led the group. In one of his early speeches, he stated that 'Everything was taken off you with a gun ... the only way to you are going to get it back is with a gun'. Soon Walker had recruited some 'field martials', including Paul Coe, Gary Foley, Gary Williams and Billy Craigie. During 1971 and 1972, clashes between police and members of the Black Panther Party resulted in several protests that ended with injuries on both sides.

The Aboriginal Tent Embassy

In 1972, during the rise of the Black Power movement in Australia, four First Nations men – Michael Anderson, Billy Craigie, Tony Coorey and Bertie Williams – set up a protest embassy on the lawns opposite Parliament House. Using just a beach umbrella, they established the Tent Embassy to protest the McMahon government's approach to land rights.

One of the first acts of the embassy was to send a list of demands to the federal government.

Source 1: Americans Tommie Smith and John Carlos give the Black Power salute during the 200-metre sprint medal ceremony at the 1968 Olympics. Australian Peter Norman does not salute, but wears the white badge of the Olympic Project for Human Rights in solidarity. Because he showed support for the protest, Norman was never allowed to run for Australia again, despite his competitive times.

Source 2: On 28 January 1972, the Aboriginal Tent Embassy was established by (from left) Michael Anderson, Billie Craigie, Bert Williams and Tony Coorey. The embassy was established in response to many First Nations people still not being treated like equal citizens. The embassy was met with police violence and became a centre of conflict, protest and activism.

The demands included:

- control of the Northern Territory as a state within the Commonwealth of Australia, with a parliament predominantly made up of Aboriginal representatives, and with Native Title and mining rights for all land in the territory
- legal title and mining rights for all existing Aboriginal reserve lands and settlements throughout Australia
- preservation of all sacred sites in Australia
- legal title and mining rights for areas in and around all Australian capital cities
- compensation for land that could not be returned, including an initial payment of $6 billion and an annual share of the gross national income.

The federal government rejected these demands and changed the law to make it illegal to camp on the land where the embassy was set up. This led to police removing the camp and arresting the activists.

The government's heavy-handed response caused public outrage. Within two weeks, over 1000 people protested, forcing the police to back down. The campaigners were then able to re-establish the Tent Embassy, which has remained a powerful symbol of First Nations activism for over 50 years and continues to be a centre for campaigning for First Nations rights (see the site study in 16.15).

Learning ladder 16.14

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the Black Power leader who visited Australia in the 1960s.
2. Identify the Australian athlete who supported the 1968 Olympic protest.
3. Describe the actions this athlete took and the consequences he faced.
4. Explain the reasons for the establishment of the Black Panther Party in Australia.
5. Explain the role of the Black Panther Party in the civil rights movement in Australia.

Significance

1. Identify the four men who established the Aboriginal Tent Embassy.
2. Describe the demands made by the Aboriginal Tent Embassy in 1972.
3. Explain how the Black Power movement influenced the creation of the Aboriginal Tent Embassy.
4. Explain how the government responded to the Tent Embassy protest.
5. Evaluate the historical significance of the Black Power movement in advancing the rights and freedoms of First Nations Peoples in Australia.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

16.15

Site study

What was the Aboriginal Tent Embassy?

On 26 January 1972, on the lawns opposite Old Parliament House, a beach umbrella was set up by Aboriginal activists protesting the government's approach to land rights. It was referred to as the Aboriginal Tent Embassy, and it remains today.

Background and context

The fight for First Nations Peoples' land rights escalated on the eve of Australia Day in 1972 when the McMahon government announced 50-year land leases for First Nations communities. This decision rejected granting independent ownership to Traditional Owners.

The announcement sparked widespread action among First Nations people and led to the founding of the Tent Embassy. The first four activists (Source 2) demanded some key changes to land rights for First Nations people across Australia (see 16.14). Shortly after their demands were sent to the government, then Opposition Leader Gough Whitlam met with the activists. This was seen as a crucial step in gaining recognition for their cause and ensuring their voices were heard by those in power.

By April, the embassy had grown to include at least eight tents. In May, new laws came into effect that made it illegal to camp on unleased land in the ACT, giving the government powers to forcibly remove anyone breaking the law. On 20 July 1972, a violent clash occurred when hundreds of protesters resisted police efforts to remove the tents. Many protesters were arrested and the embassy was torn down. It was re-erected a week later.

In August, more than 200 protesters again clashed with police and the tents were removed for a second time. Images of police violence against protesters spread across the country. This led to greater support for the embassy and its aims. As a result, the embassy became a central hub for protests and gained significant media attention in Australia and internationally.

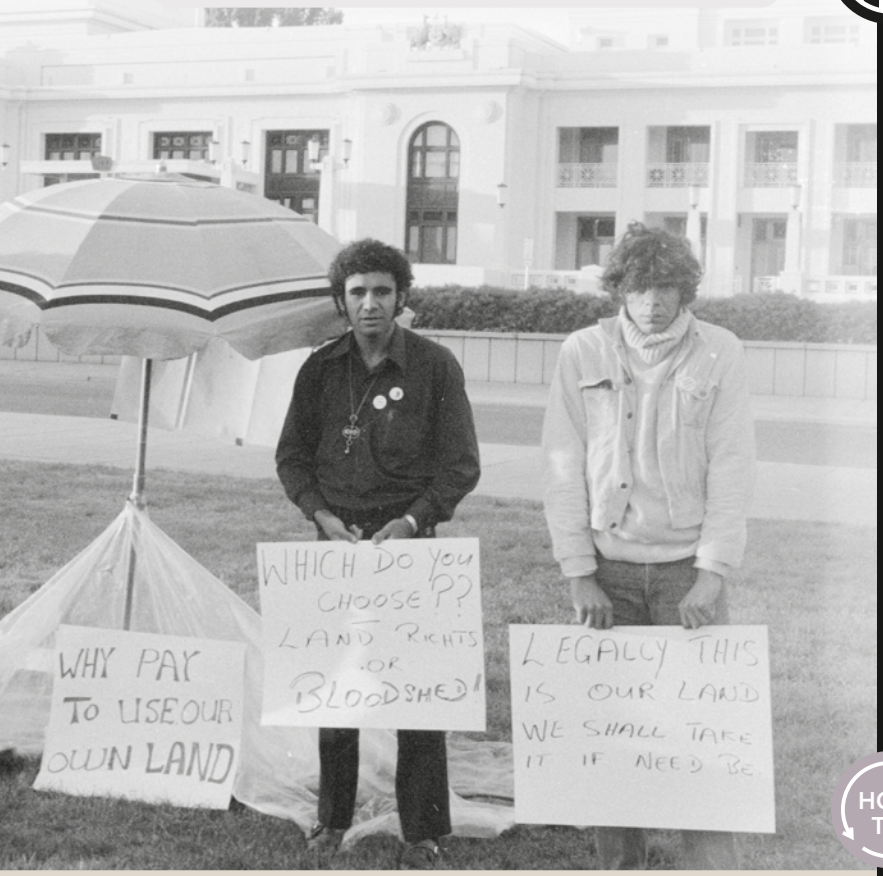
Source 1: The Aboriginal Tent Embassy remains as a permanent protest site.

Source 2: The establishment of the Aboriginal Tent Embassy on Australia Day, 26 January 1972

Source 3: Police take down the Aboriginal Tent Embassy after new regulations made it illegal to camp on unleased Commonwealth land in the ACT.

> The land was taken from us by force ... We shouldn't have to lease it ... Our spiritual beliefs are connected with the land.

Source 4: Michael Anderson, one of the original four young Aboriginal men who established the Aboriginal Tent Embassy to protest the Government's statement rejecting Aboriginal land rights.



Learning ladder 16.15

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the meaning of the terms 'activist', 'embassy', 'land rights' and 'self-determination'.
2. Describe why the date of the Tent Embassy's establishment was symbolically significant.
3. Explain why Aboriginal activists set up the Tent Embassy in 1972.
4. Evaluate the impact of the Tent Embassy's 1972 events on the rights and freedoms of Aboriginal Peoples.

Source analysis

1. Source 4: Identify the origin of this source.
2. Source 2: Describe this source.
3. Source 3: Explain what is happening in this source, and why.
4. Sources 1–4: Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of these sources for historians interested in the legacy of the Tent Embassy.

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

What did the Mabo decision mean for land rights?

The 1992 Mabo decision recognised Mer Islanders' traditional land ownership, overturning *terra nullius* and establishing the concept of native title. The 1993 *Native Title Act* created a process for claims, but these are limited to Crown land and require proof of continuous connection to traditional lands.

Source 1: The Yirrkala Bark Petitions were created in 1963 and delivered to the House of Representatives in Canberra. The petitions were written in English and Gupapuyngu and detailed the official opposition from the community to the proposed mine.

Milirrpum v Nabalco

The fight for land rights in Australia began with the Yirrkala Bark Petitions in 1963, which the Yolngu people of North-East Arnhem Land presented in Canberra as part of their protest against the government's decision to sell their land to a mining company.

In the petition, they argue that the intention to sell the land was kept secret from them until the decision was already made, that they had no opportunity to participate in making the decision and that their concerns on learning of the plan were not passed on to Canberra. They then lay out their concerns:

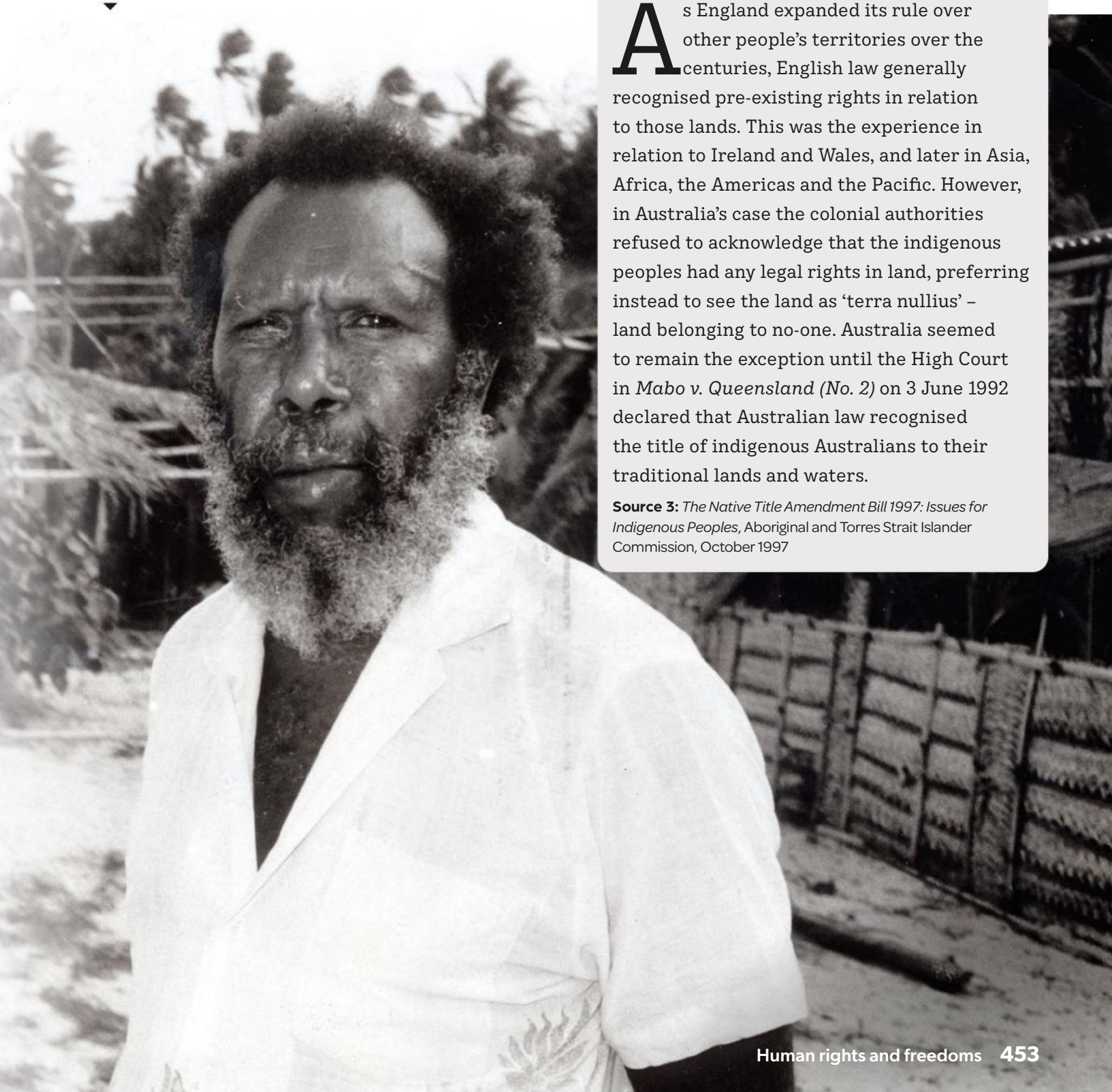
> '4. That the land in question has been hunting and food gathering land for the Yirrkala tribes from time immemorial: we were all born here.
>
> 5. That places sacred to the Yirrkala people, as well as vital to their livelihood are in the excised land, especially Melville Bay.
>
> 6. That the people of this area fear that their needs and interests will be completely ignored as they have been ignored in the past ...'

This led to the *Milirrpum v Nabalco* case in 1971, where the Yolngu argued for their connection to the land. Although the court acknowledged their strong relationship with the land and their legal systems, it ruled against them. The judge stated that, under British law, the land was considered 'desert and uncultivated' when colonised, denying Aboriginal ownership. This reinforced the idea of *terra nullius* – the idea that Australia was 'land belonging to no one' when the British arrived.

Mabo v Queensland

In the 1970s, 'Eddie' Koiki Mabo, a Torres Strait Islander from Mer (Murray Island), discovered that Australian law did not recognise his community's ownership of their land. This upset Mabo deeply because, in his culture, the Meriam people had long-standing laws and traditions for inheriting and managing land. In 1981, Mabo gave a talk at a university in Townsville, Queensland, about his people's land inheritance laws. Several lawyers in the audience encouraged him to challenge the legal system. Over the next decade, Mabo and other Meriam people, including David Passi, Sam Passi, Celuia Mapo Salee and James Rice, gathered evidence to prove their claim to their land.

Source 2: Eddie Mabo in June 1990



As England expanded its rule over other people's territories over the centuries, English law generally recognised pre-existing rights in relation to those lands. This was the experience in relation to Ireland and Wales, and later in Asia, Africa, the Americas and the Pacific. However, in Australia's case the colonial authorities refused to acknowledge that the indigenous peoples had any legal rights in land, preferring instead to see the land as 'terra nullius' – land belonging to no-one. Australia seemed to remain the exception until the High Court in *Mabo v. Queensland (No. 2)* on 3 June 1992 declared that Australian law recognised the title of indigenous Australians to their traditional lands and waters.

Source 3: *The Native Title Amendment Bill 1997: Issues for Indigenous Peoples,* Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, October 1997

Native title and the end of *terra nullius*

In 1982, the Mabo case began in the High Court. The Meriam people sought recognition of their traditional ownership of the island. On 3 June 1992, six months after Eddie Mabo's death, the High Court handed down its decision, which recognised the Mer Islanders' traditional ownership of the land. This decision overturned the legal fiction of *terra nullius*. The term 'native title' was used by the High Court to describe traditional ownership of land that predated the arrival of Europeans.

Native title

In 1993, the Keating government passed the *Native Title Act 1993* (Cwlth). This Act created a legal and administrative process to manage native title claims made by Aboriginal communities.

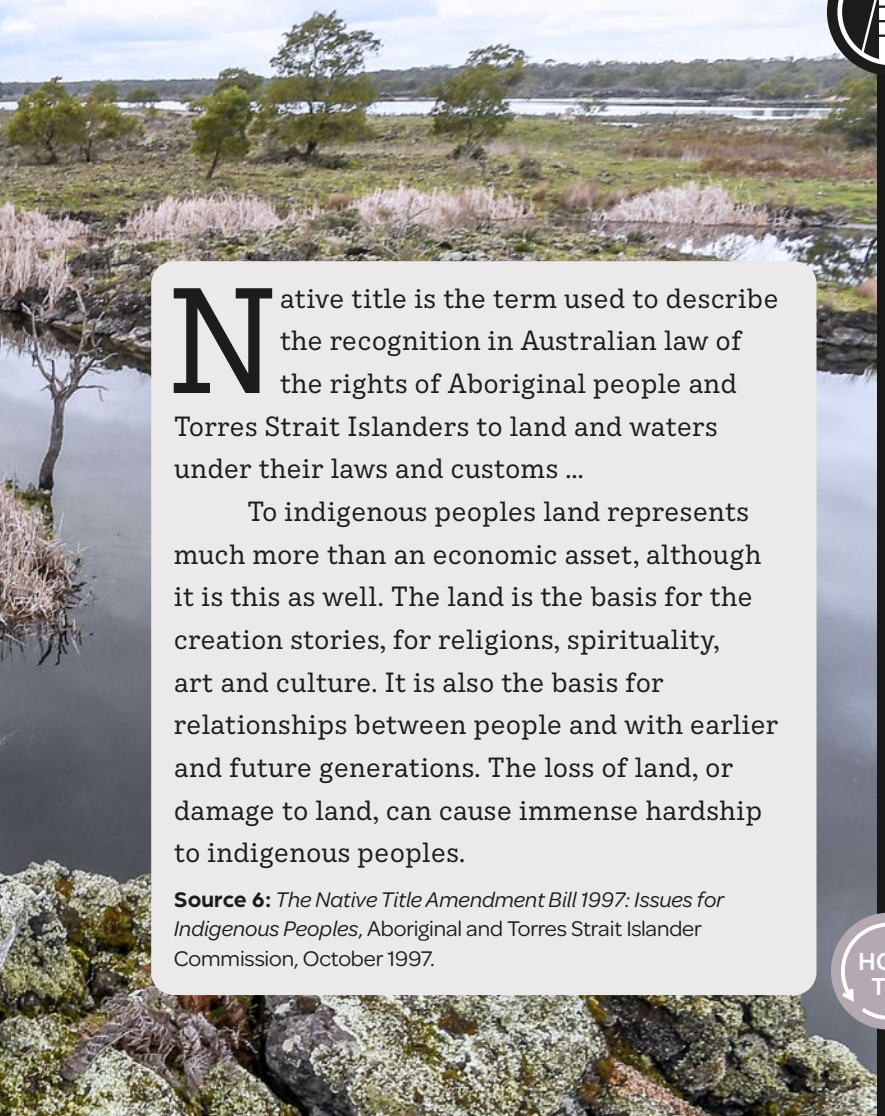
To claim native title, First Nations communities must prove a continuous connection to their traditional lands through customary laws and practices dating back to the time of European colonisation. This is often challenging due to the forced displacement and assimilation experienced by First Nations people. Many First Nations Australians, including members of the Stolen Generations, are not covered by the *Native Title Act.* Like land rights, native title claims can only be made over Crown land and other public lands, not over freehold land, which is privately owned.

Native title does not usually grant full legal ownership of land like freehold title does. Instead, it generally provides the legal right for First Nations Peoples to use the land for traditional activities like hunting, fishing and holding ceremonies.

For example, in 2007 and 2011, the Gunditjmara people won legal recognition of their Native Title over parts of western Victoria. Their land includes the Budj Bim Cultural Landscape, an important site where they built one of the world's oldest known aquaculture systems to trap and farm eels for food. These Native Title determinations confirmed their rights to hunt, fish, camp and perform cultural activities on their traditional lands.

Source 4: Budj Bim is a 6600-year-old aquaculture site, where the Gunditjmara people have sustainably farmed eels for generations. In 2019, the site was added to the UNESCO World Heritage list due to its cultural and historical significance.

Source 5: Geoff Pryor's 1997 cartoon shows National Party politician and Deputy Prime Minister Tim Fischer speaking to Prime Minister John Howard. [National Library of Australia, 4702868]



Native title is the term used to describe the recognition in Australian law of the rights of Aboriginal people and Torres Strait Islanders to land and waters under their laws and customs ...

To indigenous peoples land represents much more than an economic asset, although it is this as well. The land is the basis for the creation stories, for religions, spirituality, art and culture. It is also the basis for relationships between people and with earlier and future generations. The loss of land, or damage to land, can cause immense hardship to indigenous peoples.

Source 6: *The Native Title Amendment Bill 1997: Issues for Indigenous Peoples*, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, October 1997.

Learning ladder 16.16

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the claimants in the Mabo case.
2. Explain why the Yolngu people's legal challenge in *Milirrpum v Nabalco* was unsuccessful.
3. What legal concept was overturned as a result of the Mabo decision?
4. Describe the outcome of the Mabo case for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander land rights.
5. Evaluate the impact of removing the concept of *terra nullius* on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: What are the origins of this source.
2. Source 1: Describe this source. What images have been painted around the outside of the petition?
3. Source 1: Why did the creators of this petition include these images?
4. Source 1: Explain why the Yirrkala Bark Petition was created. Was it successful?
5. Source 1: Evaluate why the Yirrkala Bark Petition was written in both English and Gupapuyngu?

HOW TO
Source analysis, page 493

16.17

Who are the Stolen Generations?

The Stolen Generations are First Nations children who were removed from their families and placed in children's homes or orphanages, or with non–Indigenous families. The policies of child-removal and assimilation represented an act of genocide against the First Nations Peoples of Australia.

Origins

The Stolen Generations began as a result of laws introduced during the colonial period. In New South Wales, the *Aborigines Protection Act 1909* was passed, making all First Nations people wards of the state. This meant they were considered under the protection of the person representing the office of the Protector of Aborigines. The other Australian colonies introduced similar legislation. These laws gave the Protector the power to remove children from their families if they felt that the child would be 'better off'; however, this was not widespread practice at the time.

The systematic removal of children began around 1915 and initially targeted children considered 'half-caste', meaning they had only one parent who was 'full-blood Aborigine'. Over time, this expanded to include 'quarter-caste' children, with one 'full-blood Aborigine' grandparent. Many families experienced multiple generations of child removal. Children with lighter-toned skin, who were thought to be more likely to assimilate into white culture, were also taken from their families.

Source 1: A protest on 26 January 2017 in Warrang (Sydney). Despite the federal government's apology, First Nations children are still taken from their families in much higher numbers than non-Indigenous children.

Bringing Them Home report

In 1995, the federal government launched a Royal Commission into the Stolen Generations and the impact of child-removal policies on individuals, families and First Nations communities. The findings were published in the *Bringing Them Home* report, which was tabled in Parliament in 1997. This report revealed the devastating experiences of those affected by these policies.

The report estimated that between one in three and one in 10 children had been forcibly removed from their families. These children often suffered further trauma, including exposure to violence, molestation and harm. The report also found that it was not only police who removed children – social workers and teachers also enforced these policies.

The report was compiled with evidence from over 500 people and organisations who were directly impacted by the policy of child removal. Many shared first-hand traumatic experiences they had after they were removed.

The report also highlighted trans-generational trauma, showing how the impacts of these policies affected not only the individuals removed but also their children and grandchildren.

The Royal Commission made 54 recommendations, including compensation for those affected and a formal apology by the Prime Minister on behalf of the Australian government and its people.

The apology

Most of the recommendations were gradually implemented by Prime Minister John Howard's government, but Howard refused to issue an apology. This refusal caused significant distress, as many survivors of the Stolen Generations saw an apology as an essential step in their healing process.

On 13 February 2008, Kevin Rudd delivered the apology. In his speech, he stated: 'We apologise for the laws and policies of successive Parliaments and governments that have inflicted profound grief, suffering and loss on these fellow Australians. We apologise especially for the removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children from their families, their communities and their country.'

Source 2: AO Neville was the Chief Protector of Aborigines in Western Australia. He is considered one of the architects of the policies to remove First Nations children across the country. [Photo from State Library of Western Australia, 5000B]

Many members of the Stolen Generations who attended parliament to witness the apology were visibly moved by it. This was a landmark moment in healing some of the trans-generational trauma, but it was not without controversy. Some politicians, including then Opposition Leader Peter Dutton, did not attend the apology.

Ongoing issues

While the apology was a significant step, challenges remain. The rates of child removal for First Nations children are still much higher than for non-Indigenous children. This continues to be a serious concern in many First Nations communities.

Learning ladder 16.17

Impact and legacies

1. Identify one way First Nations families were affected by child removal policies.
2. Describe how the policies of the Stolen Generations caused long-term harm to individuals and communities.
3. Explain how the *Bringing Them Home* report revealed the experiences of the Stolen Generations.
4. Explain why the 2008 apology was seen as a significant step towards healing.
5. Evaluate how effectively the *Bringing Them Home* report communicates the legacy of child removal policies on First Nations individuals and communities.

Significance

1. Identify a key outcome of the *Bringing Them Home* report.
2. Describe the role of the 2008 apology in acknowledging the experiences of the Stolen Generations.
3. Explain how the policies of the Stolen Generations are historically significant for understanding Australia's treatment of First Nations Peoples.
4. Explain why the apology and the report remain important today.
5. Evaluate the historical significance of the Stolen Generations in shaping Australia's national identity and reconciliation efforts.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

16.18

What is the reconciliation movement?

The contemporary reconciliation movement in Australia has its origins in the bicentennial celebrations in 1988. In response to this celebration of 200 years of colonisation, the Barunga Statement was presented to Prime Minister Bob Hawke.

The Barunga Statement called for self-management and land rights for First Nations Peoples, as well as a treaty. Initially, Hawke was in favour of a treaty, but when it became clear that it might hurt his popularity, he stepped back from the proposal. Instead, successive governments focused on reconciliation, hoping to change public opinion and make a treaty more acceptable to non-Indigenous Australians.

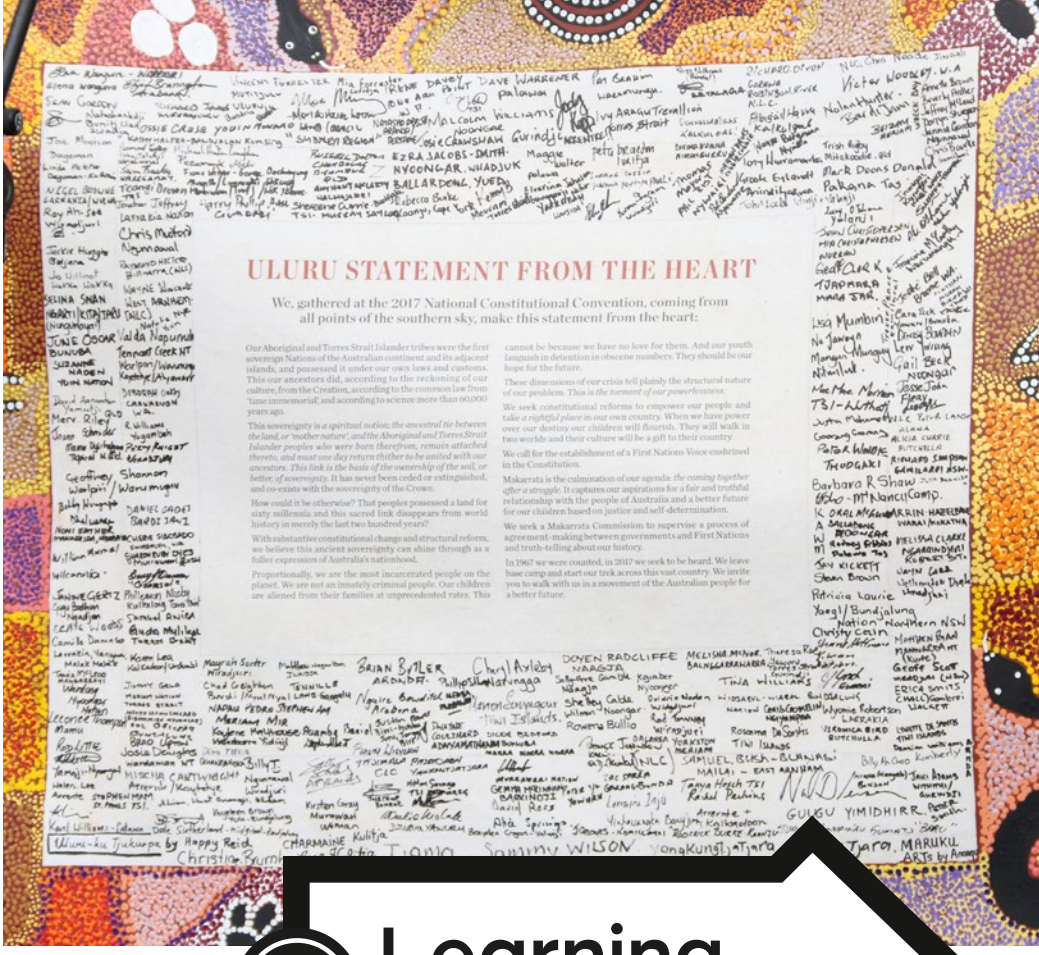
The act of reconciliation

The term **reconciliation** is complex. In the context of civil rights in Australia, to reconcile is to bring people together through a process of restoring friendly relationships. On a personal level, reconciliation often involves admitting fault and apologising for past wrongs.

This interpretation can be problematic for many First Nations people, as they rightly feel they have nothing to apologise for. While apologies are important symbolic acts, many First Nations people believe meaningful action is also necessary to create positive change.

Reconciliation can also be viewed as a way to come to terms with Australia's past – the destruction, trauma and genocide experienced by First Nations Peoples. This interpretation focuses on non-Indigenous people recognising that Australia's success and wealth came at great cost to First Nations communities. It requires practical actions and should be seen as a lifelong process, not a one-time act.

Source 1: An image from the Walk for Reconciliation 2000 in Warrang (Sydney). During this walk, over 250 000 people walked over the Sydney Harbour Bridge.



Source 2: The Uluru Statement from the Heart was produced in 2017 after a landmark gathering of First Nations representatives from across the continent.

The reconciliation movement

In 1996, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC), the peak body advising on First Nations issues, endorsed the reconciliation movement and constitutional reform. The movement gained widespread attention during the Peoples' Walk for Aboriginal Reconciliation in May 2000 (Source 1), where thousands of people marched to support reconciliation.

Despite this momentum, little progress was made. The movement was then overshadowed by the Northern Territory Intervention and the ongoing gaps between First Nations and non-Indigenous Australians in areas like life expectancy, infant mortality and **incarceration** rates. Many First Nations people began to see reconciliation as symbolic and ineffective, arguing that it prevented real progress, such as achieving a legally binding treaty.

The Uluru Statement from the Heart

In 2016, the Referendum Council conducted extensive consultations with First Nations communities and created the Uluru Statement from the Heart. This document, endorsed by 250 First Nations delegates, calls for two key reforms.

1 **A First Nations Voice to Parliament**
A representative body to provide input on legislation affecting First Nations Peoples.

2 **The Makarrata Commission**
A body to oversee negotiations between the government and First Nations groups and to promote truth-telling about Australia's history.

A referendum to establish a First Nations Voice to Parliament was held in October 2023, but was resoundingly defeated. It remains to be seen what happens next.

Learning ladder 16.18

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the event that gained widespread attention for the reconciliation movement in 2000.
2. Identify the First Nations organisation that supported reconciliation and constitutional reform in 1996.
3. Describe the key social and health inequalities still affecting First Nations Peoples.
4. Evaluate the significance of the Uluru Statement from the Heart. Has it achieved its goals?

Contestability

1. What are two different interpretations of what reconciliation means?
2. Describe how the goals of the reconciliation movement have changed from 1988 to 2023.
3. Explain why some First Nations Peoples view symbolic reconciliation as ineffective.
4. Analyse how the Uluru Statement from the Heart challenges previous interpretations of reconciliation.
5. Evaluate how different interpretations of reconciliation have affected government policy and public opinion.

HOW TO Contestability, page 506

What is the legacy of the civil rights movement in Australia?

Despite the civil rights movement's considerable successes, deep historical inequalities continue to affect First Nations Peoples. The median income for First Nations people is 60 per cent less than for non–Indigenous people; 40 per cent are missing two or more essential living items, such as housing, food and clean water; and 50 per cent of youth in detention in NSW are First Nations.

Land rights

Despite the gains made with the Wave Hill Walk-off, the passing of *the Aboriginal Land Rights Act* (1975) and the Mabo decision, land rights and the preservation of sacred sites are still contentious issues in Australia. Some sacred sites, such as Budj Bim on Gunditjimara Country on the the southwest coast of Victoria, have gained recognition. In 2019, Budj Bim was designated as a UN World Heritage Site for its cultural and historical significance.

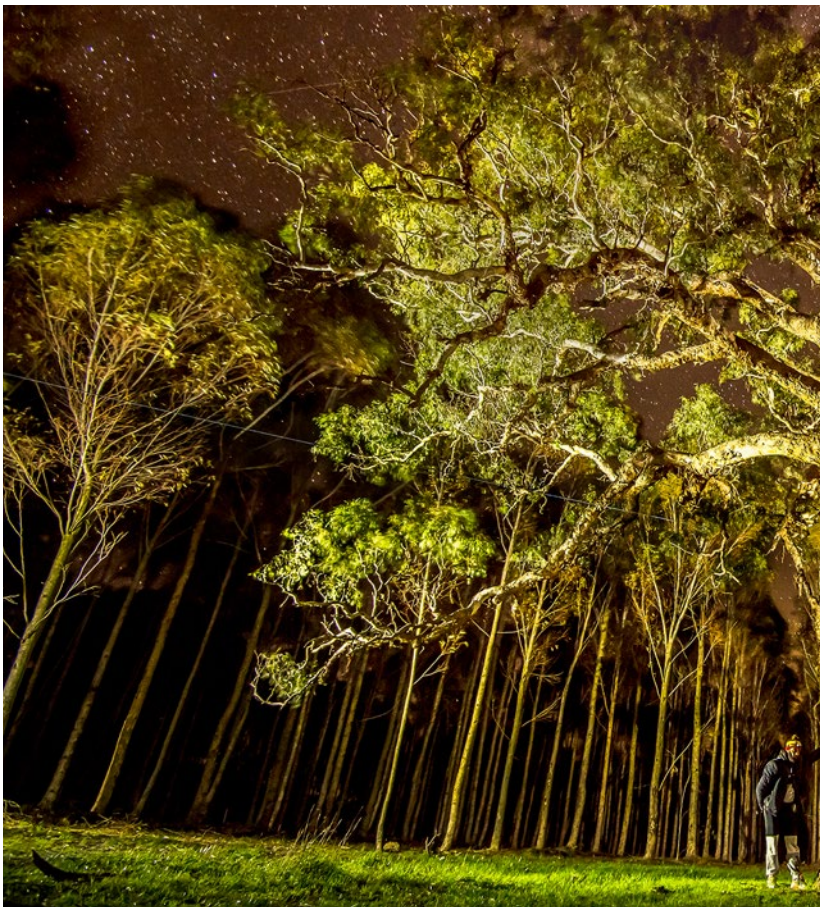
However, this achievement contrasts with events in 2020, when the sacred sites of the Juukan Gorge caves in Western Australia and the Directions Tree in Victoria were destroyed. The Juukan Gorge caves were the site of the oldest known inland inhabitation in Australia and held artefacts dating back over 46 000 years. Despite protests, the Directions Tree, sacred to the Djab Wurrung people, was cut down by the Victorian government to make way for a highway.

In both cases, the wishes of the local communities were ignored, and existing laws failed to protect these important sites.

Health and welfare

Although the health of First Nations people has steadily improved over the last few decades, there is still a long way to go. In 2020, First Nations people had a life expectancy 8–9 years shorter than non-Indigenous Australians. This gap shows that health systems, living conditions, and access to services are still not adequate to ensure long and healthy lives for First Nations communities.

The ending of assimilation policies that resulted in the Stolen Generations was a positive outcome of the Australian civil rights movement. However, First Nations child removal and the rates of children living in **out–of–home care** have increased since the 2008 apology. First Nations children are almost 10 times more likely than non-Indigenous children to have been removed from their families and placed in out-of-home care. While there are many reasons for this, it highlights that significant work remains to be done.



Police and justice

Racism in policing led to the formation of the Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service, and the high number of deaths in custody prompted the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody. In 2017, First Nations people were the most incarcerated group in the world. The imprisonment rate for First Nations women rose by 34 per cent between 2000 and 2015. For First Nations children, the situation is even worse. In 2019, for most of the year, every single juvenile in detention in the Northern Territory was First Nations. This included children as young as 10 years old. Urgent action is needed to reduce First Nations incarceration rates and provide better alternatives to prison.

The Northern Territory Emergency Response (the Intervention)

The Northern Territory Intervention began in 2007, based on false claims that children in remote First Nations communities were at high risk of sexual abuse. (After an 18-month investigation, the Australian Crime Commission found no evidence to support these claims.) Despite a report recommending consultation and partnership with First Nations communities, the government response was to send the Australian Defence Force into these communities to conduct compulsory health checks and look for sexual predators.

The government also introduced the Basics Card, which restricted how people could spend their welfare payments, allowing purchases only at certain shops and only on approved items.

This intervention, which effectively recreated the reserve protection system by controlling where people could access their money, thereby restricting their movements, continued right through to 2022. Although the Northern Territory Intervention ended in 2022, many of its policies remain under programs like Stronger Futures. These include income management systems, which restrict how First Nations people spend their welfare payments, and ongoing alcohol bans. While aimed at improving welfare, these policies are often criticised for limiting financial independence and ignoring community input. By making decisions without proper consultation, these measures continue to create barriers to equality.

Source 1: The Directions Tree sacred to the Djab Wurrung people was destroyed in 2020. This is one of several trees that are sacred to the Djab Wurrung people and there have been years of protests trying to save them.

Learning ladder 16.19

Impact and legacies

1. Identify one sacred site that gained recognition in recent decades and explain its significance.
2. What is the minimum age that a child can be incarcerated in Australia?
3. What were the false claims that led to the Northern Territory Emergency Response?
4. Explain how living conditions, rights and health for First Nations people have changed in recent decades.

Continuity and change

1. Explain why Budj Bim was recognised as a World Heritage site.
2. Describe how incarceration rates for First Nations people have changed since the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody.
3. Explain how the Intervention recreated aspects of the protection system.
4. Evaluate whether the civil rights movement achieved long-term success for First Nations Peoples.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 495

16.20

Why is it important to reclaim First Nations languages, cultures and identities?

Before colonisation, more than 250 distinct languages with over 500 dialects were spoken across the continent of Australia and its adjacent islands. Colonisation and genocide in Australia have led to the country having the highest rate of language death in the world. For this reason, and many others, it is crucial that the government works with First Nations communities to maintain and revive First Nations languages.

Language, culture and identity

Most of us take our language, culture and identity for granted. This means we often don't think about how these parts of our lives are closely connected. However, for those who have experienced genocide, language and culture can become incredibly important to their identity, personal and family history, community connections and sense of belonging. There is also growing evidence that people who experience a disruption to their cultural and language contexts are more likely to have lower levels of mental health and wellbeing.

The impact of the Australian Genocide

In 1997, the landmark *Bringing Them Home* report was released by the Australian federal government. This report contained harrowing evidence from First Nations people who had been forcibly removed from their families as part of the Stolen Generations. As part of this inquiry, disturbing accounts emerged of the measures used to prevent First Nations people from speaking their **mother tongues**. These measures were often violent, beginning with forcibly separating children from their loving families and then providing them with a highly restricted education, where they were only taught **Bible language**.

Many children were also severely punished for speaking their mother tongue, often resulting in injury. These punishments included beatings, solitary confinement and being denied food or other essential needs.

The *Bringing Them Home* report found that children subjected to these genocidal policies experienced lifelong harm, which has also affected successive generations.

> My mother and brother could speak our language and my father could speak his. I can't speak my language. Aboriginal people weren't allowed to speak their language while white people were around. They had to go out into the bush or talk their lingoes on their own. Aboriginal customs like initiation were not allowed. We could not leave Cherbourg to go to Aboriginal traditional festivals. We could have a corroboree if the Protector issued a permit. It was completely up to him. I never had a chance to learn about my traditional and customary way of life when I was on the reserves.
>
> **Source 1:** Confidential submission 110, Queensland: woman removed in the 1940s, *Bringing Them Home* report, p. 133

Language revival projects

Despite the impacts of colonisation, many First Nations people and communities have worked to preserve, revive and maintain their languages. In 2017, the NSW state government passed the Aboriginal Languages Act to create the NSW Aboriginal Languages Trust.

Source 2: Aboriginal dancers perform at the Laura Quinkan Dance Festival, a vibrant celebration of culture, community and storytelling in Cape York. This festival provides an opportunity for First Nations people to pass down cultural knowledge, strengthen community ties, and share their traditions with wider audiences.

This organisation funds and supports Aboriginal language programs across NSW and has played a key role in establishing successful language revitalisation programs, such as the Gumbaynggirr Giingana Freedom School in Coffs Harbour. This school is NSW's first **bilingual** primary school to include a First Nations language.

Although Gumbaynggirr Giingana Freedom School has not been operating for long, the experiences of students, teachers and the school community have been overwhelmingly positive. The school is also providing a model for future bilingual programs.

> It is a mistake to dismiss our languages as part of history, and long gone. They're not. They are alive and vibrant. They are in a new phase of growth. They're part of us as the Indigenous people of the land. Our languages are the voice of the land, and we are the carriers of the languages.
>
> **Source 3:** Jeanie Bell, Linguist, Boyer Lectures, 1993

Outcomes

When we are strong in our languages, we are strong in our cultures. When we are strong in our cultures, we are strong in our communities. When we are strong in our communities, we are strong in ourselves. Being able to speak our languages should never be taken for granted, and we owe it to our communities to encourage others to speak their mother tongues safely.

Learning ladder 16.20

Impact and legacies

1. Identify one impact of colonisation on First Nations languages in Australia.
2. Describe the long-term effects of the Stolen Generations on First Nations identity and wellbeing.
3. Explain how language revival efforts, such as the Gumbaynggirr Giingana Freedom School, have supported community strength.
4. Source 1: Explain why the *Bringing Them Home* report was significant in recognising the legacy of forced language loss.
5. Evaluate the ongoing legacy of language loss and revival on First Nations communities in Australia today.

Significance

1. Identify one reason First Nations languages are important to cultural identity.
2. Describe how First Nations communities have worked to preserve or revive their languages.
3. Explain how language and culture influence individual and community wellbeing.
4. Source 3: Explain why Jeanie Bell describes First Nations languages as 'alive and vibrant'.
5. Evaluate why the revival of First Nations languages is significant for Australia as a whole.

HOW TO Significance, page 504

16.21

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

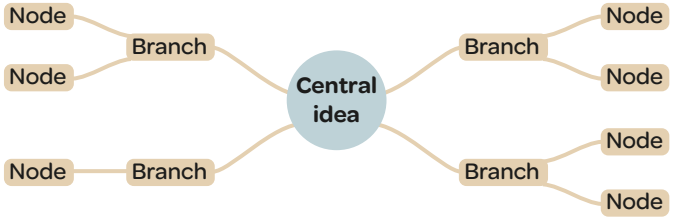
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to human rights and freedoms.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Protection system, 16.3
- Wave Hill Walk-off, 16.6
- US and Australian Freedom Rides, 16.9, 16.10
- US and Australian Black Power movements, 16.13, 16.14
- Stolen Generations, 16.17
- Reconciliation, 16.18

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative** **(see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

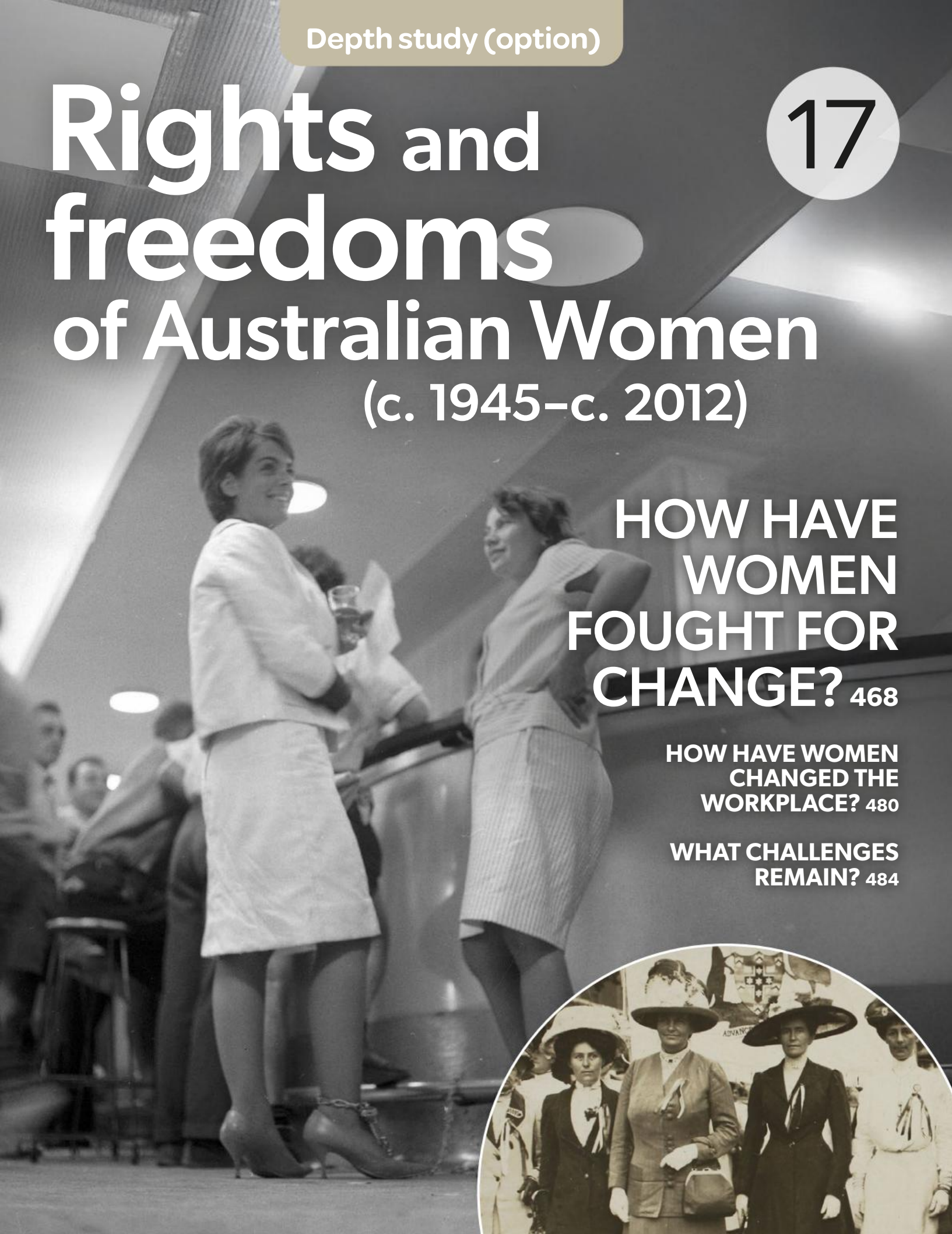
Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

Rights and freedoms of Australian Women (c. 1945–c. 2012)

17



HOW HAVE WOMEN FOUGHT FOR CHANGE? 468

HOW HAVE WOMEN CHANGED THE WORKPLACE? 480

WHAT CHALLENGES REMAIN? 484

17.0

How can I understand rights and freedoms?

The struggle for women's rights has been long and complex, with women historically denied basic freedoms like voting and equal participation in public life. Significant milestones, both in Australia and globally, such as gaining the right to vote and protections against discrimination, have advanced equality. However, the fight for full rights and freedoms continues.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: International Women's Day, Melbourne, 8 March 1975

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

How did women fight for the right to vote?

The fight for women's suffrage (the right to vote) was one of the earliest and most significant movements in the global struggle for gender equality. Women around the world organised protests, petitions and campaigns to demand their right to participate in democratic processes. They were called **suffragists**. Universal suffrage movements developed around the same time in Australia, Britain, New Zealand and the United States, and these women supported each other in their collective cause.

Emmeline Pankhurst and the Representation of the People Acts

In Britain, the suffrage movement gained momentum in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Emmeline Pankhurst, a key leader of the movement, co-founded the Women's Social and Political Union (WSPU) in 1903. The WSPU was known for its militant tactics, such as protests, hunger strikes and even acts of civil disobedience, to draw attention to the cause. The movement saw partial success with the *Representation of the People Act* in 1918, which granted voting rights to women over 30 who met certain property requirements. Ten years later, the *Representation of the People (Equal Franchise) Act* of 1928 granted equal voting rights to women and men, allowing all women over the age of 21 to vote.

Source 1: Emmeline Pankhurst in 1913. She joined the British women's suffrage movement at age 14 in 1872, helped establish the Women's Franchise League in 1889 with her husband Richard and others, and co-founded the Women's Social and Political Union in 1903.

Source 2: Key events in universal suffrage

key ideas timeline.

1893 — New Zealand *Electoral Act* gives women the right to vote in parliamentary elections

1894 — All South Australian women gain the right to vote and to stand for election

1899 — Western Australian women gain the right to vote

1902 — National Council of Women (Victoria) founded

1902 — *Commonwealth Franchise Act* gives white Australian women the vote

1914–1918 — Women mostly blocked from taking up men's jobs during WWI

1918 — NSW women gain the right to stand for election to the NSW Legislative Assembly

1918 — British *Representation of the People Act* gives women over 30 with property the vote

1919 — Nineteenth Amendment through the US Congress gives US women the vote

Kate Sheppard and the *Electoral Act 1893*

New Zealand led the world in women's suffrage, becoming the first country to grant women the right to vote. Kate Sheppard, a prominent suffragist, played a crucial role in this achievement. She led petitions, organised rallies and worked tirelessly to persuade the government to support women's voting rights. Her efforts paid off when the *Electoral Act* was passed in 1893, granting all adult women in New Zealand the right to vote.

Sheppard also travelled to England and America to assist in the suffrage campaigns in those countries. In 1895, she became the owner, publisher and editor of The *White Ribbon* newspaper, the first newspaper in the country to be owned and operated by women. The following year, she formed the National Council of Women, which campaigned for women's rights, including the right of married women to manage their own finances.

Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony and the Seneca Falls Convention

In the United States, the push for women's suffrage began with the Seneca Falls Convention in 1848, organised by Elizabeth Cady Stanton and others. At this conference, the first of its kind in the United States, the Declaration of Sentiments was drafted. It called for equal rights, including the right to vote.

Susan B. Anthony, another leading suffragist, partnered with Stanton to campaign for women's voting rights. The movement achieved a major victory with the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment to the US Constitution in 1919, which granted US women the right to vote. This was a turning point for women's rights in the United States, although sadly it came 17 years too late for Stanton to see it.

Source 3: Kate Sheppard [Canterbury Museum, 1980.175.144]

Learning ladder 17.1

Background and origins

1. Identify three leaders of the women's suffrage movement.
2. Describe WSPU's tactics for achieving voting rights.
3. Explain why Kate Sheppard can be considered a significant person in the global women's suffrage movement.
4. Explain why the *Representation of the People Act* was significant in Britain.
5. Evaluate the impact of the global suffrage movement between 1893 and 1918.

Chronology

1. Use the timeline to identify the first country to grant women the right to vote.
2. Describe the changes in women's suffrage in Britain to 1928.
3. Describe how Kate Sheppard worked to bring about change.
4. Explain the patterns of change to women's suffrage between 1893 and 1918.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

17.2

How did women's rights evolve before World War II?

In the years leading up to World War II, non-Indigenous women in Australia gained the right to vote in both state and federal elections, and had started to stand for, and be elected to, Australian parliaments. Globally, while some Western nations had advanced women's suffrage, significant inequalities remained, particularly for First Nations and non-European women, reflecting broader struggles against entrenched legal and social barriers.

Key milestones in Australia

South Australia's Constitutional Amendment (Adult Suffrage) Act (1894)

South Australia became the first Australian state – and the second place in the world – to grant women the right to vote, and the first place in the world to allow women to stand for parliament. This groundbreaking legislation positioned South Australia as a leader in the push for women's political equality.

The Commonwealth Franchise Act (1902)

Just eight years later, the Commonwealth Franchise Act extended voting and parliamentary rights to non-Indigenous women across Australia. This placed Australia among the first nations to allow women to fully participate in national elections. However, this act did not include First Nations Australians, who were not considered full citizens at the time.

Vida Goldstein, Nellie Martel, Mary Ann Bentley and Selina Anderson stand for federal parliament (1903)

These four women became the first to stand for federal parliament. Although none were elected, this was a significant step for women's active participation as candidates.

First women elected to state governments (1921–1929)

Edith Cowan became the first women elected to an Australian government when she was elected to the Western Australian Legislative Assembly in 1921. She was followed by Millicent Preston-Stanley (elected to the NSW Legislative Assembly in 1925) and Irene Longman (elected to the Queensland Legislative Assembly in 1929).

Source 1: Edith Cowan served in the WA Legislative Assembly from 1921 to 1924. During that time, she helped forward women's and children's rights through legislation.

How things stood by 1939

By 1939, women across all Australian states had the right to vote in state and federal elections, and a handful of pioneering women had broken into parliament at the state level. However, at the federal level, the election of women representatives wouldn't come until 1943, during World War II. First Nations Australian women (and men) largely remained excluded at the federal level unless already **enfranchised** under particular state laws.

Globally, women's suffrage movements had made progress in some Western countries, like New Zealand, the Nordic nations, the Soviet Union (Source 2), the United Kingdom (fully by 1928) and the United States (in 1920). However, many countries in Europe still didn't let women vote – France, for example, didn't grant women voting rights until 1944. In places under colonial rule, First Nations and non-European women were often excluded. While women's rights movements were gaining momentum worldwide, deep inequalities in laws, traditions and social status still held women back from full participation in society.

Source 2: Russian propaganda poster, 1920. Women in Russia could vote from 1917. As inscribed on some of the buildings in the poster, the October Revolution gave women the right to 'library', 'kindergarten' and 'school for grown-ups' as part of a drive for gender equality. However, by 1936, Joseph Stalin had reversed most of the liberal laws in Russia in line with his emphasis on traditional gender roles and family stability.

Source 3: Mary Lee, secretary of the Women's Suffrage League in South Australia

Mary Lee

Mary Lee was a key figure in South Australia's women's suffrage movement and a champion of women's rights. Born in Ireland in 1821, she emigrated to Australia later in life and quickly became a vocal advocate for social reform. As secretary of the Women's Suffrage League of South Australia, formed in 1888, Lee played a central role in organising efforts to secure women the right to vote.

Lee's leadership was instrumental in gathering over 11 600 signatures for a petition supporting women's suffrage, which was presented to the South Australian parliament in 1894. She wrote letters, lobbied politicians and inspired public support for the cause, making her a pivotal force behind the passage of the *Constitutional Amendment (Adult Suffrage) Act 1894*.

It follows that it is an arbitrary and unjust Government which compels its support from those whose will in relation to it is never consulted. That as women assist in maintaining the Government they have a right to say how and by whom they shall be governed, in other words – to the vote.

Source 4: Mary Lee in the *South Australian Register*, 14 April 1890, presenting an argument for women's suffrage.

Everyone has heard of the visit of this young lady to Adelaide as a representative of the National Council of Women. Admittedly young and charming, Miss Goldstein disproves the idea that has become common that advocates of women's rights are necessarily old, bony and unattractive. She is to be a candidate in Victoria for the Senate at the forthcoming election and will be the first lady candidate for Parliament in Australia if not in the whole world. If she is successful one can imagine the witty Senator, Mr. McGregor, referring with pleasure to the 'able and charming member opposite,' especially as Mac is known to be of a gallant disposition. Whatever one may think of the question as to whether women should enter parliament it is undeniable that when women had not the vote their interests and wishes were largely disregarded – hence the inequalities in regard to say the divorce laws. The presence of women candidates is likely to compel male candidates to cater still more to the electresses [sic]. If, therefore, as one would think from this, lady members would cause the home to be held more sacred they would do much good. Miss Goldstein has watched with interest the working of the Juvenile Offenders Court in Adelaide, and intends to work for its adoption in Victoria. As regards herself report says she is 32 years of age, and a good speaker. Her chances, however, considering how great an innovation her candidature is, may not be very great.

Source 5: 'Vida Goldstein', *Quorn Mercury*, 6 October 1903, p. 6

She ran for federal office multiple times, using her campaigns to push for reforms such as equal pay, better working conditions, and improved education for women and girls.

Goldstein also founded and edited the *Australian Woman's Sphere*, a journal that promoted feminist ideals and documented the suffrage movement. Her efforts helped shape Australia's progressive reputation in women's rights and inspired future activists to continue the fight for equality.

Source 6: Vida Goldstein (right) with Margaret Fisher (Prime Minister's Fisher's wife; with handbag) at the Great Suffragette Demonstration, London, 1911.

Vida Goldstein

Vida Goldstein was one of Australia's most influential suffragists and a key figure in the fight for women's rights in the early 20th century. Born in 1869 in Victoria, she was inspired by her mother, a social reformer who encouraged Vida to take an active role in addressing social injustices.

Goldstein became a prominent campaigner for women's suffrage and was instrumental in raising awareness of the need for equal political rights. She travelled across Australia and internationally, delivering powerful speeches and writing articles advocating for women's participation in politics.

In 1903, Goldstein made history by becoming the first woman in the British Empire to stand for a national election. Although she did not win a seat in parliament, her candidacy was groundbreaking and helped to normalise the idea of women in political leadership.

Learning ladder 17.2

Background and origins

1. Identify the first Australian state to grant women the right to vote.
2. Describe the background to women in South Australia gaining the right to vote.
3. Explain how Vida Goldstein's campaigns influenced perceptions of women in politics.
4. Explain why the *Commonwealth Franchise Act* was both a progressive and exclusionary milestone for women's rights in Australia.

Significance

1. What significant events occurred between 1912 and 1929 in relation to women being elected to state governments?
2. Describe the significance of the *Commonwealth Franchise Act* (1902).
3. Explain why women gaining the right to vote in Australia in the period before World War II had little significance for First Nations women.
4. Evaluate the significance of Vida Goldstein to women's suffrage and assess her long-term impact on women's rights in Australia.

HOW TO

Significance, page 504

How did World War II change women's rights in Australia?

World War II was a turning point for women in Australia. It not only showcased their ability to take on diverse roles but also challenged traditional gender expectations. While the immediate postwar years saw setbacks as women were pushed out of jobs, the war marked the beginning of a broader conversation about women's rights and equality in Australia.

War work

World War II (1939–1945) brought immense social and economic changes to Australia, reshaping traditional roles and expectations for women. With large numbers of men leaving to fight overseas, positions were slowly opened to women in roles previously considered unsuitable for them.

In the early years of the war, women mostly worked as typists, cooks and in other traditional 'women's jobs'. However, by 1941, women were also taking on work in industries such as manufacturing, transport and farming to support the war effort. In these roles, they operated heavy machinery, assembled weapons and maintained railways, proving themselves capable of what had been considered 'masculine' work. Many women also joined **auxiliary services**, such as the Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) and the Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF), where they worked as clerks, mechanics and drivers.

While women had always worked in sectors like nursing and teaching, during World War II their participation in the paid workforce increased dramatically. By 1943, women made up 36 per cent of the Australian workforce – a record high at the time.

Source 1: Poster encouraging housewives to take up Victory jobs, April 1943 [National Library of Australia]

Increased visibility

Women's essential contributions to the war effort became highly visible, challenging the traditional belief that women's primary role was in the home. Government propaganda campaigns encouraged women to join the workforce by taking a 'Victory job'. Newsreels, newspapers and public speeches often celebrated women's work, boosting their confidence and changing public perceptions of what women could achieve.

I was one of the] Land Army girls ... [on a pear and apple orchard at Batlow NSW; it was a] hard but worthwhile time ... The government didn't promise us any rewards. We were paid three pounds two shillings a week, of which at least two pounds and five shillings was deducted as board – but we saw the work as our duty ...

One of the most memorable experiences of my life was the time I marched in Sydney on Anzac Day for the first time. Just to hear the cheers and calls from the crowd of 'Good on you, girls! You did a good job!'

Source 2: Betty Fulmer interview, in Meghan Adam, 'A Victory Job', Australian War Memorial, 2023. Betty joined the AWLA in 1944. Women in the AWLA worked around 48 hours per week and were paid much less than a man performing similar work.

Source 3: WAAAF flight mechanics Lee and Paddy Whitlock working on a De Havilland Mosquito aircraft engine, Williamtown, New South Wales, c. 1944 [Australian War Memorial, VIC0960]

Postwar expectations and challenges

The end of World War II brought both progress and setbacks for women's rights. After the war, many women were expected to leave their jobs and return to their traditional roles as homemakers. This was partly due to returning servicemen needing employment and societal pressures to restore pre-war gender norms. While some women willingly left the workforce, many felt frustrated by the loss of independence and financial freedom they had experienced during the war.

Despite these challenges, the war planted the seeds for future change. Women's wartime contributions highlighted their capabilities, which became a foundation for later movements advocating for gender equality in the workplace. The idea of women as permanent members of the workforce began to take hold, albeit slowly.

Additionally, the experience of working in new industries gave many women skills and confidence they carried into the postwar years. These skills became essential as women continued to push for equal opportunities, equal pay and better working conditions in the decades that followed.

Source 4: Cover of the *Australian Women's Weekly*, 11 April 1942, representing women in the workplace [National Library of Australia]

During the early war years, up to 1942, homemaking and motherhood remained the most important job. As the need for increased supplies of female labour became paramount, the [Australian Women's Weekly] magazine began to change the image of its heroine. As long as women were needed in the workforce, magazine propaganda painted an attractive image of the working woman. But as soon as the war was over, the working woman ceased to exist for the Women's Weekly, being replaced by the bride.

Source 5: Andree Wright (1973), 'The Australian Women's Weekly, Depression and the War Years: Romance and Reality', *Refractory Girl*, no. 3, p. 11.

Oodgeroo Noonuccal

Oodgeroo Noonuccal (previously known as Kath Walker) was born on Stradbroke Island, Queensland, in 1920. She joined the Australian Women's Army Service on 12 May 1942 after the fall of Singapore in February that year. She worked as a switchboard and wireless operator. Joining up freed her from the rigid constraints of the Protection system and showed her a different kind of life. She would go on to become an activist for First Nations' rights, with a particular focus on the rights of First Nations women, and was the first Aboriginal woman to publish a book of poetry (*We are Going*, 1964).

Source 7: Oodgeroo Noonuccal, 1980

> I joined up firstly, because I don't like fascism, and secondly, because my two brothers had been taken prisoners of war [by the Japanese] and I felt guilty about that. Here I was, sitting at home very secure and not pulling my weight. So I ended up in the Australian Women's Army Service ...
>
> There was a difference between the way we were being treated in the Army and before the war. Oh Yes! A complete difference, because in the Army they didn't give a stuff what colour you were. There was a job to be done ... and all of a sudden the colour line disappeared ...
>
> We weren't involved in the Aboriginal political movement [before the war] ... The Aboriginals were still being taught to believe that the white people were superior people and that we must know our place as second-class citizens and stay there. The war changed a lot of that ... All of a sudden they ... needed our help. Our black [nursing] sisters, the Torres Strait Island sisters, the Pacific Island sisters and the Aboriginal sisters played a definite role ... when most of the top sisters and doctors were overseas. Here they were holding down the fort at home.

Source 6: Oodgeroo Noonuccal, 'Wireless Operator' [oral history transcriptions], in Robert A. Hall (1995), *Fighters from the Fringe: Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders Recall the Second World War*, Aboriginal Studies Press, Canberra, pp. 116, 118–119, 120.

Learning ladder 17.3

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify one auxiliary service that women joined during World War II.
2. Describe the types of jobs women took on during the war. How did this change over the course of the war?
3. Explain how World War II challenged traditional gender roles in Australia.
4. Explain why women were expected to leave their jobs after the war.
5. Evaluate the long-term impact of women's wartime contributions on gender equality in Australia.

Perspectives

1. Identify three occupations prior to World War II that were perceived by society as traditional roles for women.
2. Source 1: Describe the perspective on traditional women's work presented in this source.
3. Sources 4 and 5: Explain the changes in how the *Australian Women's Weekly* depicted women during the war.
4. Compare the perspectives of women who embraced wartime work with those who preferred traditional homemaking roles.
5. Source 6: Evaluate what changed the army perspective about First Nations women.

HOW TO Perspectives, page 502

17.4

How did laws shape women's rights in postwar Australia?

In the decades after World War II, significant legal reforms in Australia advanced women's rights, addressing workplace inequality, family law and protection against discrimination. Key milestones, such as the 1969 and 1972 equal pay rulings, the 1984 *Sex Discrimination Act* and the 2010 *Paid Parental Leave Act* helped lay the foundation for greater gender equality.

Source 1: Trainee nurses, 1975. The 1972 Equal Pay ruling should have meant that nurses (a female-dominated profession) receive the same pay as those performing work of equal value in male-dominated fields. In practice, nurses have continued to face lower wages compared to professions requiring similar qualifications and responsibilities (e.g. police officers, engineers).

> The principle of 'equal pay for work of equal value' will be applied to all awards of the Commission. By 'equal pay for work of equal value' we mean the fixation of award wage rates by a consideration of the work performed irrespective of the sex of the worker.

Source 2: ACAC ruling on the National Wage and Equal Pay cases, 1972

What is an Act of Parliament?

Acts of Parliament, which are pieces of legislation, represent debates captured at a specific point in time. They begin as Bills, which are drafts of proposed laws. Politicians debate these Bills, considering input from voters and lobby groups, and may revise them multiple times. If a majority of politicians vote in favour of a Bill, it becomes an Act of Parliament. Acts outline laws that state what must or must not be done, along with penalties for breaking them. If attitudes or circumstances around an Act change, it can be debated again in parliament and amended.

National Wage and Equal Pay rulings (1969 and 1972)

The Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Commission's decisions on equal pay played a key role in reducing wage inequality in Australia. The 1969 decision ensured women received the same pay as men when doing the same work in traditionally male roles. However, it limited its impact by setting the general minimum wage for women at only 85 per cent of the male rate. The 1972 decision went further, requiring equal pay for work of equal value, including jobs in female-dominated industries. Initially, this applied only to federal awards, leading unions to campaign for similar changes at the state level.

Family Law Act (1975)

The *Family Law Act 1975* introduced the concept of 'no-fault' divorce, allowing couples to end their marriages without needing to prove wrongdoing, such as infidelity or abuse. This made it easier for women to leave unhappy or unsafe relationships without facing legal obstacles or social judgement. The Act also addressed issues of child custody and property division, ensuring a more equitable approach for both partners. It represented a shift in how the law recognised family dynamics, empowering women to have greater control over their personal lives.

Anti–Discrimination and Sex Discrimination Acts (1977 and 1984)

In 1977, New South Wales led the way with the introduction of the *Anti-Discrimination Act*, which made it illegal to treat someone unfairly based on their sex, marital status or other characteristics. This legislation set the standard for similar laws in other Australian states and territories.

The 1984 *Sex Discrimination Act* built on these protections at a national level, becoming one of the most comprehensive pieces of legislation for women's rights in Australia. It outlawed gender-based discrimination in employment, education, housing and access to services. Importantly, it also recognised sexual harassment as a form of discrimination, offering legal protection to women in workplaces and public spaces. This Act came in the wake of Australia's ratification of the United Nation's Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

Paid Parental Leave Act (2010)

In 2010, the *Paid Parental Leave Act* introduced Australia's first national scheme for parental leave. This law provided eligible parents with financial support during time off to care for a newborn or recently adopted child. The policy recognised the importance of shared parenting responsibilities and gave women greater economic security during early parenthood. It was a significant step forward in addressing the challenges faced by working mothers and encouraging workplace flexibility.

Learning ladder 17.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify one Act of Parliament that improved women's rights in postwar Australia.
2. Describe the role of the *Family Law Act 1975* in empowering women.
3. Explain how the 1972 equal pay ruling addressed wage inequality in female-dominated industries.
4. Explain why the 1984 *Sex Discrimination Act* was a turning point for gender equality.
5. Evaluate the importance of the *Paid Parental Leave Act 2010* for supporting working mothers.

Cause and effect

1. What causes a Bill to become an Act of Parliament?
2. Describe the effect of 'no fault divorce'.
3. Explain the effect of the 1984 *Sex Discrimination Act* and how it offered protection to women.
4. Consider the National Wage and Equal Pay rulings, *Family Law Act* (1975) and *Paid Parental Leave Act* (2010). What might cause governments to bring in such legislation? What effect did each hope to achieve?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 498

17.5

How have women changed politics and the workplace in Australia?

Women in Australia have made significant strides in politics and the workforce, breaking barriers and challenging long-standing inequalities, but progress remains slow and uneven. Milestones like women entering federal parliament, achieving equal pay rulings, and creating laws against discrimination have opened doors for future generations, yet challenges like the gender pay gap and underrepresentation in leadership persist.

Representation

Women have played a powerful role in changing Australian politics, breaking down barriers and challenging the once-dominant idea that leadership and government are only for men. The journey began in South Australia in 1894, when women won the right to vote and stand for parliament, making it the first jurisdiction in the world to grant both rights. This landmark victory marked the start of a long fight for gender equality in politics.

Source 1: Quentin Bryce with Queen Elizabeth II. The Governor-General of Australia is the monarch's representative.

Source 2: Women protestors on the stairs of the Sydney Town Hall at the Tribune/Australian Council of Trade Unions conference and equal pay protest, October 1989. Photo published in the *Communist Tribune* newspaper. [SLNSW_FL4486175]

In 1943, Dame Enid Lyons and Dame Dorothy Tangney made history as the first women to enter federal parliament. Their achievements were groundbreaking but came with significant challenges, including prejudice and the pressure of being pioneers in a male-dominated space. Their courage inspired other women to enter politics, but progress was slow.

Key milestones followed, such as Carmen Lawrence becoming Australia's first female Premier in Western Australia (1990–1993) and Dr Lowitja O'Donoghue becoming the first Aboriginal woman to lead a federal agency, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, in 1990. These women overcame not only gender barriers but, in Dr O'Donoghue's case, racial discrimination. Their achievements showed what was possible for other women, but they also revealed how tough the road to leadership could be.

More recent achievements include Quentin Bryce serving as Australia's first female Governor-General (2008–2014) and Nova Peris becoming the first Aboriginal woman elected to federal parliament in 2013. These milestones reflect progress towards equality but also highlight the continued need to address systemic barriers.

Women in the workplace

Women's participation in the Australian workforce has been shaped by legal and policy advances that have addressed discrimination and supported work–life balance. For example, the *Sex Discrimination Act 1984* protects against gender discrimination and sexual harassment in workplaces, and the introduction of paid parental leave in 2010 has helped women balance career and family responsibilities.

Despite these advances, challenges remain. One of the most significant issues is the gender pay gap, which measures the difference between the average weekly earnings of men and women in full-time work. While Australia adopted the principle of 'equal pay for work of equal value' in 1972 and abolished separate male and female wages in 1974, women continued, on average, to earn less than men (Source 2). Women's wages in the 1990s were still only 75 per cent of men's. By 2012, this had improved to around 82 per cent, but disparities remain, particularly in female-dominated industries like nursing and teaching, which are often undervalued.

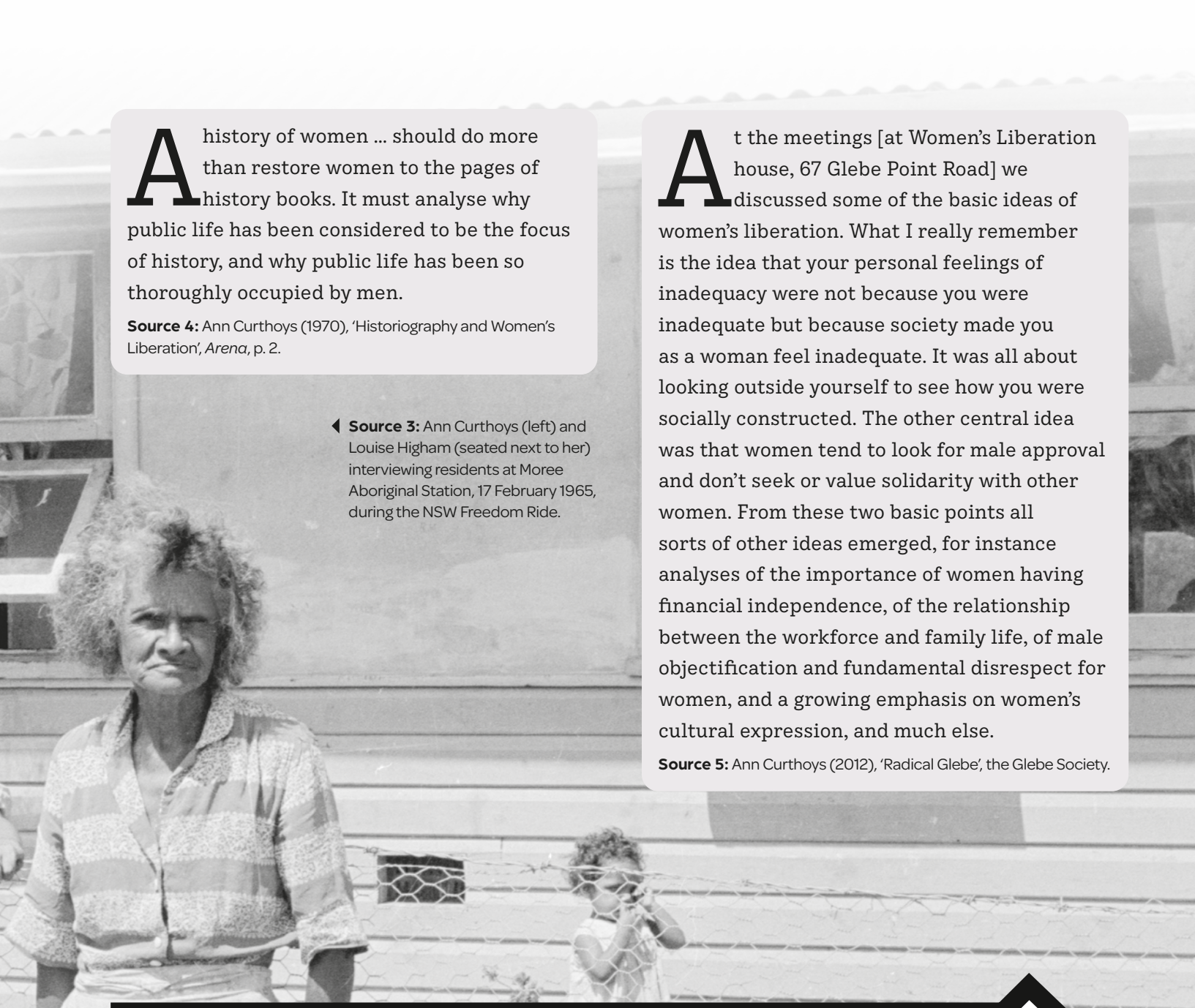
Ann Curthoys

Ann Curthoys, born in Sydney on 5 September 1945, became a prominent figure in Australia's second wave of feminism, a movement focused on transforming society and achieving equality for women. She joined the women's liberation movement in 1970, a time when feminists campaigned for equal pay, anti-discrimination laws, childcare and reproductive rights. The second wave also emphasised freedom of choice in education, employment and lifestyle, seeking to reshape **societal norms**.

Curthoys contributed significantly to this movement through activism and academia. In 1976, she established the Women's Studies Program at the Australian National University, a groundbreaking initiative for feminist scholarship. As a historian, she has written extensively on feminist theory, race relations and historiography, while mentoring students and organising feminist conferences.

A history of women … should do more than restore women to the pages of history books. It must analyse why public life has been considered to be the focus of history, and why public life has been so thoroughly occupied by men.

Source 4: Ann Curthoys (1970), 'Historiography and Women's Liberation', *Arena*, p. 2.



Source 3: Ann Curthoys (left) and Louise Higham (seated next to her) interviewing residents at Moree Aboriginal Station, 17 February 1965, during the NSW Freedom Ride.

At the meetings [at Women's Liberation house, 67 Glebe Point Road] we discussed some of the basic ideas of women's liberation. What I really remember is the idea that your personal feelings of inadequacy were not because you were inadequate but because society made you as a woman feel inadequate. It was all about looking outside yourself to see how you were socially constructed. The other central idea was that women tend to look for male approval and don't seek or value solidarity with other women. From these two basic points all sorts of other ideas emerged, for instance analyses of the importance of women having financial independence, of the relationship between the workforce and family life, of male objectification and fundamental disrespect for women, and a growing emphasis on women's cultural expression, and much else.

Source 5: Ann Curthoys (2012), 'Radical Glebe', the Glebe Society.

Learning ladder 17.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify two key milestones in women's representation in Australian federal politics in the period from 1990.
2. Describe the achievements of Dame Enid Lyons and Dame Dorothy Tangney in Australian politics.
3. Explain how the principle of 'equal pay for work of equal value' addressed workplace inequality.
4. Source 5: Explain the impact of feminist ideas, as recalled by Ann Curthoys.
5. Evaluate the long-term impact of the efforts of second-wave feminists.

Continuity and change

1. Identify two changes that the second wave of feminism worked to achieve.
2. Source 4: How does this quote show changing views about women?
3. Explain why the gender pay gap continued following the introduction of the principle of 'equal pay for work of equal value' in 1972.
4. Explain why the representation of women in politics and the workplace remains an important measure of change.

Continuity and change, page 495

HOW TO

What challenges and discrimination do Australian women face?

Australian women continue to face challenges such as underrepresentation in politics, the gender pay gap and the widespread issue of domestic violence. Migrant and refugee women face additional barriers, including language difficulties and discrimination.

Political representation

Women in Australia have achieved greater visibility in leadership roles, yet they remain underrepresented in politics and other areas of decision-making. Women make up roughly half of Australia's population, but they account for only about one-third of federal parliamentarians. This lack of representation means women's perspectives are often missing from key decision-making processes.

Social status and pay

Socially, women often carry the burden of unpaid work, such as caregiving and domestic responsibilities, which can limit their opportunities for career advancement. This is one of the factors contributing to the gender pay gap. This disparity affects women's financial independence and long-term security, particularly in retirement. Superannuation balances for women are, on average, significantly lower than those of men, putting older women at greater risk of poverty.

Domestic violence

Domestic violence is a serious issue in Australia, with one in four women over the age of 15 having experienced physical or sexual violence by a partner. For First Nations women, the situation is even worse. They are 32 times more likely than non-Indigenous women to be hospitalised due to family violence. These rates are linked to historical injustices, **systemic racism** and social inequality.

Efforts to address domestic violence include public awareness campaigns, legal reforms and culturally focused programs for First Nations communities. While progress has been made, addressing root causes like gender inequality and systemic discrimination is essential to ensuring safety for all women.

Source 1: Westpac CEO Gail Kelly (2nd from right) with then Prime Minister Julia Gillard and other business leaders at the inaugural B20 Leadership Group Meeting in Sydney, 11 April 2013. Gail Kelly was the first female CEO of a major Australian bank.

Challenges faced by migrant and refugee women

Migrant and refugee women in Australia face unique challenges that intersect with broader issues of gender inequality. Many of these women encounter difficulties accessing services due to language barriers, cultural differences and discrimination.

Migrant women often work in low-paid, insecure jobs, making them more vulnerable to **exploitation**. Additionally, those fleeing violence in their home countries may struggle to find adequate support systems in Australia. Addressing these challenges requires culturally sensitive policies and services that recognise the diverse experiences of women from different backgrounds.

> [Our] research found that just under half (46%) of the migrant and refugee women in this study had experienced at least one form of sexual harassment in the workplace in the last 5 years in Australia.
>
> **Source 2:** M. Segrave, R. Wickes, C. Keel and S. J. Tan (2023), Migrant and Refugee Women in Australia: A Study of Sexual Harassment in the Workplace (Research report, 06/2023), ANROWS website.

Source 3: A woman receiving postnatal care with the help of an interpreter. The NSW Health Care Interpreter (NHCI) Service has been helping bridge language barriers to accessing health care since the 1970s.

Learning ladder 17.6

Impact and legacies

1. Identify one factor affecting women's opportunities for career advancement.
2. Describe the impact of the gender pay gap on women's long-term financial security.
3. Explain the barriers migrant and refugee women in Australia face to accessing services and support.
4. Explain how historical injustices and systemic racism affect First Nations women's experiences of domestic violence.
5. Evaluate the effectiveness of public awareness campaigns and legal reforms in addressing gender-based violence in Australia.

Continuity and change

1. Identify a key statistic showing women's under-representation in Australian politics over time.
2. Describe how efforts to address domestic violence in Australia have evolved in recent decades.
3. Explain why progress has been made in political representation for women but key challenges remain.
4. How significant is the continuity of unpaid domestic work in limiting women's financial independence over time?
5. Why might First Nations and migrant women view changes in gender equality differently to non-Indigenous Australian women?

HOW TO
Continuity and change, page 495

How have women's rights movements shaped the world today?

The women's rights movements of the 20th and 21st centuries have profoundly shaped modern society, influencing laws, social attitudes and global activism. These movements have advanced gender equality, and changed how we think about justice and fairness. While significant progress has been achieved, challenges remain, and the fight for equality continues.

Enduring legacy

Women's rights movements have brought about transformative changes in many areas of life, from education to the workplace. In Australia, these movements have led to greater access to higher education for women, workplace protections against discrimination and improved political representation.

Globally, women's rights movements have aimed to address systemic inequalities and improve access to fundamental rights. For example, campaigns have successfully fought for women's access to voting rights, workplace protections and freedom from gender-based violence. These achievements have inspired ongoing activism for equal opportunities and protections for all women, regardless of where they live.

Source 1: For women in Australia today, the right to engage in political elections, either as a voter or as a candidate, is a given.

Despite progress, barriers remain. In Australia, issues like the gender pay gap, the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles and high rates of domestic violence highlight the need for continued focus on gender equality. Globally, many women still face severe challenges, including limited access to education, child marriage and gender-based violence.

The role of international organisations

International organisations and agreements have played a vital role in advancing women's rights. One of the most significant global agreements is the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), adopted by the United Nations in 1979. This treaty commits nations to take action to eliminate discrimination against women and ensure gender equality. Australia ratified CEDAW in 1983 and continues to report on its progress.

The United Nations has also launched global campaigns to promote women's empowerment. For example, UN Women, an organisation dedicated to gender equality, works to tackle issues such as child marriage, barriers to education and gender-based violence. These international efforts ensure that women's rights remain a priority on the global stage and provide support for change in countries where progress has been slow.

Source 2: For girls in Laos, education was once out of reach due to cultural and economic barriers. Today, thanks to the efforts of women's rights movements and advocacy groups, more girls have the opportunity to attend school, learn, and build a brighter future.

The International Women's Development Agency

The International Women's Development Agency (IWDA) is an Australian organisation that supports gender equality and women's rights in the Asia-Pacific region, including Australia, Cambodia, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, Timor-Leste, Fiji and Vanuatu. Established in 1985, it partners with women's rights organisations, providing them with the funding, training and resources they need to strengthen their capacity and impact. They work collaboratively to address issues such as gender-based violence, economic inequality and political underrepresentation, ensuring that solutions are community-driven and culturally appropriate.

Ongoing fight for equality

The legacy of women's rights movements continues to shape activism today. In Australia, campaigns like March4Justice highlight ongoing issues such as workplace harassment, gender-based violence and the need for greater political representation. Globally, movements like #MeToo and HeForShe have mobilised millions of people to challenge gender inequality and demand systemic change.

However, the work is far from finished. In many parts of the world, women still face barriers to education, employment and safety. Bridging these gaps requires international cooperation, advocacy and the dedication of governments, organisations and individuals working together for a more just and equal future.

Learning ladder 17.7

Impact and legacies

1. What is CEDAW?
2. Describe three legacies of the women's rights movements.
3. Describe the impact and legacies UN Women aims to have.
4. Explain the impact of women's rights movements on addressing gender inequality both globally and in Australia.

Significance

1. Identify one significant challenge faced by many women globally.
2. Describe the significance of the International Women's Development Agency (IWDA).
3. Describe the significant issues women's rights movements continue to address.
4. Explain the significance of campaigns such as March4Justice and #MeToo in the ongoing fight for equality for women.

HOW TO Significance, page 504

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

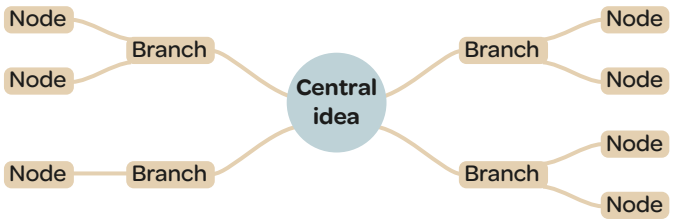
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to the rights and freedoms of Australian women.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- Fight for women's suffrage, 17.1, 17.2
- Impact of World War II, 17.3
- Changing rights of women in the workplace, 17.4, 17.5
- Representation of women in politics, 17.5
- Ongoing challenges in Australia, 17.6
- Impact of international organisations, 17.7

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative (see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

Depth study (option)

The environmental movement (c. 1960–c. 2015)

18

HOW DID THE ENVIRONMENTAL MOVEMENT GROW? 18.2

WHAT DOES UNESCO DO? 18.3

WHICH EVENTS INCREASED AWARENESS? 18.4

How can I understand the environmental movement?

The growth of awareness about environmental issues from the 1960s and 1970s forced governments and organisations to take a more active role, both locally and internationally.

Learning ladder

The Learning ladder lists the knowledge and skills you will learn. Each has five levels of difficulty. Learning skills at the bottom of the ladder will help you to master the skills at the top of the ladder.

Steps in knowledge progression	Background and origins	Significant people, ideas and events	Impact and legacies	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
5	I can evaluate the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate the influence of significant people and ideas.	I can evaluate the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change.	I can analyse cause and effect.
4	I can explain why a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain why ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain why a historical development or movement has a legacy.	I can explain patterns of continuity and/ or change.	I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects.
3	I can explain how a historical development or movement emerged.	I can explain how ideas influenced people and events.	I can explain the impact of one historical development on another.	I can explain continuity and change.	I can explain how something was caused or its effect.
2	I can describe the origins and context of a historical development or movement.	I can describe key people, ideas and events.	I can describe the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can describe continuity and change.	I can describe causes and effects.
1	I can identify the origins of a historical development or movement.	I can identify key people, ideas and events.	I can identify the legacy of a historical development or movement.	I can identify continuity and change.	I can identify a cause and an effect.

Knowledge and understanding

Source 1: Swedish environmental activist Greta Thunberg leads Skolstrejk for Klimatet [School Strike for Climate] in Berlin in 2019. Thunberg is best known for challenging world leaders to take immediate action on climate change when just 15 years old.

Perspectives	Significance	Contestability	Chronology	Source analysis	Steps in skill progression
I can evaluate historical perspectives.	I can evaluate historical significance.	I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation.	I can explain change or causality from a timeline.	I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability.	5
I can compare perspectives.	I can explain why something is historically significant.	I can compare historical interpretations.	I can summarise the events on a timeline.	I can explain the historical context of a source.	4
I can explain a perspective.	I can explain something historically significant.	I can explain an interpretation of history.	I can follow timeline conventions.	I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources.	3
I can describe perspectives.	I can describe something historically significant.	I can describe an interpretation of history.	I can place events on a timeline chronologically.	I can describe a source.	2
I can identify the perspective of a person from the past.	I can identify something historically significant.	I can identify a historical debate.	I can read a timeline.	I can identify the origin of a source.	1

Historical concepts and skills

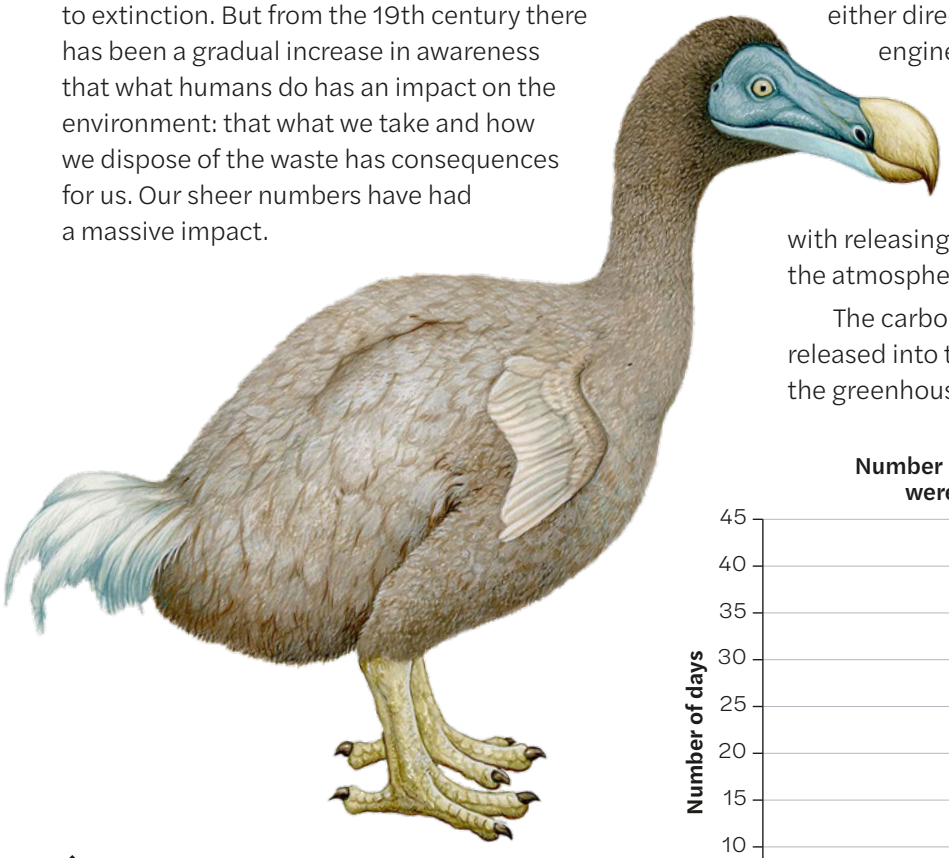
How has human activity affected the environment?

Humans impact the natural environment through overpopulation, burning fossil fuels, and deforestation. These changes have caused the extinction of species, pollution, land degradation, and bushfires and floods driven by global warming.

Major environmental threats over time

For most of human history, people have taken what they needed from the environment – food, water, fuel – and not particularly cared what happened to the rubbish afterwards. The ancient Romans realised that keeping sewage away from housing was a good idea, but even that practice did not survive the fall of their empire. In medieval Europe, sewers were little more than open gutters in the streets.

Animals – most famously the dodo in Mauritius and passenger pigeons in America – were hunted to extinction. But from the 19th century there has been a gradual increase in awareness that what humans do has an impact on the environment: that what we take and how we dispose of the waste has consequences for us. Our sheer numbers have had a massive impact.



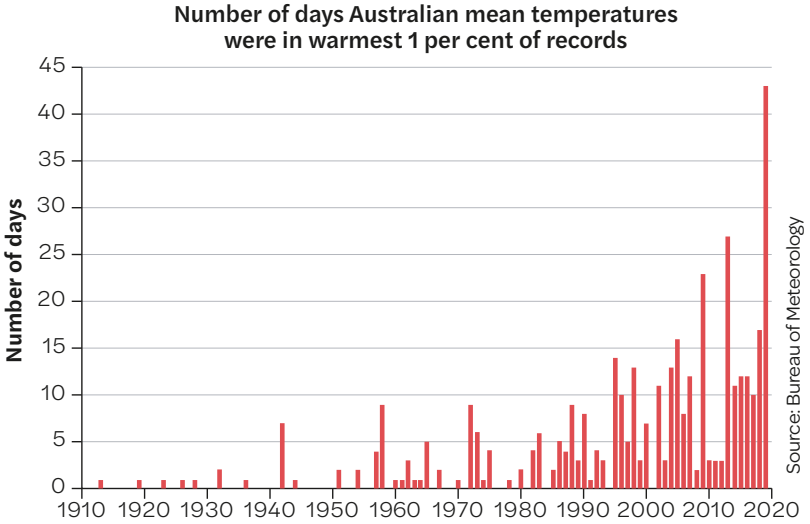
▲ **Source 1:** The dodo was a large, flightless bird on the island of Mauritius, Africa. Portuguese sailors used the dodo for meat from 1598. Introduced dogs, cats, rats and pigs, became feral and preyed on the dodo and their eggs. Dodos were also killed and stuffed for collectors in Europe. The dodo became extinct in 1681.

In 1800, there were 1 billion people on the planet; there are now over 8 billion people.

The use of **fossil fuels** – coal, oil and gas, created from the remains of plants and animals that died thousands of years ago – is a good example of the huge impact humans have had on the environment. The Industrial Revolution created a need for power that had never existed before. People began to mine and use coal, oil and gas on a vast scale, to power the new machines and all the other technologies that came after them – either directly, through burning and combustion engines, or for generating electricity to provide power.

The use of fossil fuels creates waste products, particularly carbon dioxide. While people initially saw no problem with releasing more and more carbon dioxide into the atmosphere, we now know this is not the case.

The carbon dioxide and other gases that have been released into the atmosphere have created what is called the greenhouse effect, which in turn, through



▲ **Source 2:** The frequency of extreme heat events is increasing.

global warming, threatens to change the nature of every environment on the planet. Other chemicals produced by using fossil fuels – particularly those in the exhaust fumes of cars and trucks – are toxic and, when enough exhaust fumes collect, can make people ill or even kill them.

New South Wales is becoming hotter and drier. Record-breaking hot days have more than doubled across Australia since 1960 and heatwaves in the greater Sydney region, especially in the western suburbs, have increased in duration and intensity.

Over the last 40 years much of eastern and southern Australia has become drier. The continuing drying trend increases the risk of longer and harsher droughts. While there will continue to be wet years, the future trend of declining rainfall poses challenges for Sydney's long-term water security.

This long-term increase in hot and dry weather has made NSW more susceptible to bushfires. Very high fire danger days have already become more frequent, and will occur even more often in the coming decades.

Coastal infrastructure in NSW is vulnerable to flooding from sea-level rise. A 1.1 m rise by the end of the century could put between 40 000–60 000 houses, 1200 commercial buildings and 250 km of highway in NSW at risk of inundation.

Source 3: Climate Commission (2012), *The Critical Decade: New South Wales*, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.

World War II and beyond

World War II led to the development of a broad range of products that would later be commercialised. One of them was the pesticide DDT, which is now known to cause cancer. The massive destruction caused by the war also stimulated a postwar boom. Both the world's production, and its population, increased enormously.

As population and industry grew in most countries in the 1950s and 1960s, little consideration was given to the negative effects that resulted, such as air and water pollution. Attitudes would change in the 1970s.

Source 4: Around the world, people use grassroots methods to call for urgent action on the climate crisis.

Learning ladder 18.1

Background and origins

1. Identify one human activity that has affected the environment.
2. Describe the origin of the use of fossil fuels.
3. Explain how the 'greenhouse effect' changes the environment.
4. Evaluate the impact on society of climate change.

Cause and effect

1. Identify what leads to global warming.
2. Source 1: Describe the cause of the extinction of the dodo.
3. Source 2: Explain the effect of global warming as shown in this graph.
4. Evaluate the impact of increasing population and industrialisation on the environment.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

How did the environmental movement grow?

The early 1970s saw the emergence of a militant environmental movement in Australia. It was one of several 'new' social movements that developed in Australia in the late 1960s and early 1970s.

The environmental movement

Postwar prosperity and the Cold War had created an unfavourable environment for radical social movements. People wanted to get on with their own lives and not be worried about wider global problems – they had had enough of that with the war. The environmental movement re-emerged in the 1960s. By this time, environmental **degradation** caused by economic activities and new technologies was becoming apparent. These included mining and hydroelectric schemes under a broad federal 'national development' policy. Since World War II, **conservation** in Australia had also come to include historic buildings. Thus the conservation movement of the 1960s and 1970s embraced the legacy of human culture as well as nature.

The Australian Conservation Foundation

Set up in 1965, the Australian Conservation Foundation's (ACF) founding members saw the Foundation's role as a national advisory group of experts on conservation matters. Although a number of prominent conservationists, including Judith Wright and Milo Dunphy, were invited to join, most of its initial membership came from the more eminent end of science, government and business circles. Advocating 'controlled development', its executive included Sir Garfield Barwick, the Chief Justice of the High Court, as president.

The ACF avoided any activism in dealing with conservation issues. It used 'rational argument'.

Source 1: Jack Mundey (centre front, in suit) became a national figure in the early 1970s when he led the Builders' Labourers Federation's famous 'green bans'. This extraordinary conservation campaign redefined how development took place in Australian cities.

This position was based on the scientific conception of conservation as 'wise-use'. This approach had dominated debate during the 20th century. It was based on ideas of 'national development' and influenced by the powerful ideology of 'progress'.

Ultimately the ACF's position proved insufficient for responding to the various environmental concerns that were emerging by the late 1960s. It played no major role in significant campaigns such as those to save the Great Barrier Reef from mining and oil-drilling or to stop sand mining at K'gari (Fraser Island) and the Myall Lakes. As environmental battles were being lost to powerful resource industries and state governments eager for economic development, it became very apparent to the ACF's membership that the executive's approach was ineffective.

The green bans movement

In Sydney and Melbourne, the campaigns of the early 1970s were often conducted in cooperation with the Builders Labourers' Federation (BLF) in what became known as the 'green bans' movement. These were industrial bans enforced by the BLF and other unions to prevent demolition or damage to places of **heritage** significance.

Often another objective of these campaigns in inner-city areas was the preservation of working-class communities and the maintenance of low-cost housing. This was the case with the high-profile battles for Fitzroy in Melbourne and The Rocks and Woolloomooloo in Sydney, important historical sites that were saved by the bans. While short-lived, these battles were important in generating public awareness about heritage conservation during this decade. They played a central role in shaping Australians' environmental consciousness.

> So the questioning, particularly by people who were concerned about the older buildings and concerned about neighbourhoods being uprooted … and they had nowhere to go because the Government of the day was hell bent on giving the developers open slather, and so you had a very pro-development Government … lining up and destroying much of old Sydney.
>
> **Source 2:** Film Australia (2000), Jack Mundey, *Australian Biography*.

Urban environmental campaigns

Urban environmental campaigns waged in the early 1970s drew on **left–wing** traditions. This linked the environmental movement with groups like the trade union movement. The basis of this urban activism was local residents' groups. These formed from the mid-1960s in response to growing concerns about the impact of large-scale development on city and suburban environments in booming property markets. The environmental movement was becoming more radical, and confrontational activities became part of its approach. At the forefront were young urban activists, politicised and mobilised by the student and anti-war movements of the period.

Learning ladder 18.2

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the approach of the Australian Conservation Foundation to conservation.
2. Describe how effective the ACF was in protecting the environment.
3. Explain how and why the environmental movement became more radical in the 1960s and 1970s.
4. Evaluate the effectiveness of green bans in comparison to 'rational argument' as a strategy for conservation.

Perspectives

1. Identify the perspective of Judith Wright towards conservation.
2. Sources 1 and 2: Describe the perspective of Jack Mundey on the government's attitude to development.
3. If a 'black ban' is the refusal of a union to allow the supply of goods or labour in an attempt to force a decision, explain why the perspective and actions of the BLF came to be called 'green bans'.
4. The BLF and the green bans movement were highly criticised in the media at the time. In evaluating their perspective towards conservation over 50 years later, do you think the media would be as critical today? Why or why not?

HOW TO
Perspectives, page 502

How does UNESCO protect World Heritage sites?

Our heritage is the legacy we have inherited and that we in turn give to future generations. Heritage can be both positive and negative. Some cultural sites are inspiring; others remind us of events that should never have taken place.

UNESCO's mission

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was established in 1945, with the aim of identifying, protecting and preserving valuable sites of cultural and natural heritage around the world. In 1972, UNESCO adopted the Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (World Heritage Convention), which is an international treaty that fuses natural and cultural conservation, with an emphasis on the role of local communities. The aim of this convention is to foster cooperation among nations, to protect sites considered to be of outstanding universal value.

UNESCO World Heritage List

The World Heritage List was created in 1978, initially with 12 World Heritage Sites, including the Galapagos Islands (part of Ecuador) and the Rock-Hewn Churches of Lalibela in Ethiopia. Since then, the list has been expanded to include over 1200 sites, including 952 cultural sites, 231 natural sites and 40 mixed sites. As of 2024, Australia has 20 sites on the World Heritage List, including the Great Barrier Reef, Uluru and the Sydney Opera House. Kakadu National Park, in the Northern Territory, is an example of a mixed site; it is recognised for both its natural and its cultural significance.

Source 1: Kakadu National Park was added to the World Heritage List in 1981, with the area included extended in 1987, 1992 and 2011. The site is recognised for its unique biodiversity, First Nations cultural significance and international importance as a sanctuary for migratory birds.

Source 2: The Sydney Opera House is recognised as a site of significant cultural value, especially for its influence on architecture. It was added to the UNESCO World Heritage List in 2007.

Source 3: Angkor Wat in Cambodia was added to the World Heritage List in 1992. This led to it becoming a major tourist destination. In 1993, only 7650 people visited the site; in 2024, 421 379 foreign visitors walked through the temple complex. The area around Angkor Wat has become heavily developed to cater to these tourists, which has led to serious issues of pollution and depleted groundwater supplies. However, before World Heritage recognition, Angkor Wat was at risk of crumbling into the ground. Without this recognition, humanity may have lost this valuable cultural site.

Problems of mass tourism

Although the purpose of UNESCO is the protection of valuable sites, recognition of a site can sometimes have unintended consequences. In particular, World Heritage status is often used in tourism marketing to attract visitors to a region with a listed site. Increased tourism promotes rapid development to cater to those tourists, which can damage the environment. Poorly managing the numbers of tourists that enter a site can also cause problems (Source 3).

However, it can also be argued that, without UNESCO funding and support, many sites of outstanding value would have been lost to humanity.

Learning ladder 18.3

Background and origins

1. Identify the origin of the World Heritage Convention.
2. Describe the aim of the World Heritage Convention.
3. Explain how the World Heritage List has been expanded since 1978.
4. Source 3: Evaluate the negative impact that can occur when a site is added to the World Heritage List. Should this stop sites from being listed?

Chronology

1. Place the following events on a timeline: World Heritage List (WHL) created, Angkor Wat placed on WHL, Sydney Opera House placed on WHL, Kakadu National Park placed on WHL.
2. Review your answer to Question 1 and answer 'yes' or 'no' to the following: My timeline has a scale? The events are in chronological order? All the required events are included?
3. Construct a timeline summarising the events contained in Source 3.
4. Use your timeline from Question 3 to explain the changes to Angkor Wat following the site being placed on the World Heritage List.

HOW TO

Chronology, page 490

Which events and campaigns increased environmental awareness?

Significant disasters such as the Chernobyl nuclear plant explosion in 1986, along with the adverse impact of industrial activities on the environment, have prompted campaigns to increase awareness of environmental issues.

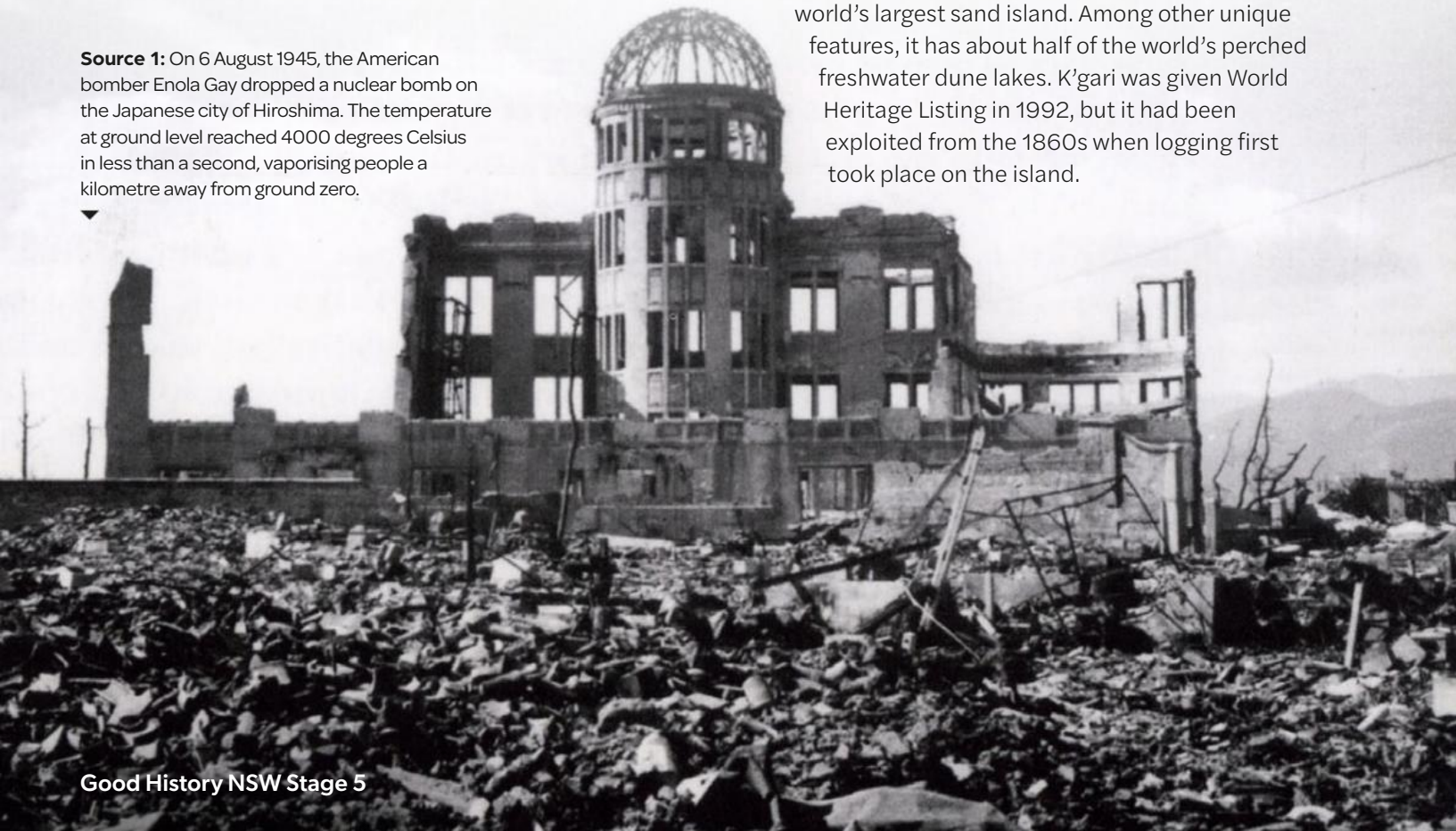
Growth in awareness

The dropping of two nuclear bombs on Japan in 1945 by the United States bleakly announced the nuclear age. Photographs of the aftermath and the victims of the bombing were to become well known across the world. (These images were also used to promote antinuclear policies.) Postwar population growth and a massive rise in industrial growth and production put enormous pressures on the planet. Pollution became a critical problem both in developed and developing countries. In the mid to late 1960s, fears grew about the Earth's capacity to sustain these levels of growth. With the Cold War, fears also mounted about the possibility of nuclear war.

Environmental activists and advocates across the world developed the environmental movement in new ways to meet these challenges. The growth of awareness about environmental issues led governments to take a more active role, both locally and internationally. In Australia, state and federal agencies were established to ensure any negative impact on the environment was minimised. By 2012, the issue of climate change became a hotly debated topic, which continues to dominate today's environmental agenda.

K'gari (Fraser Island)

K'gari (previously known as Fraser Island), just off the Queensland coast near Hervey Bay, is the world's largest sand island. Among other unique features, it has about half of the world's perched freshwater dune lakes. K'gari was given World Heritage Listing in 1992, but it had been exploited from the 1860s when logging first took place on the island.



Source 1: On 6 August 1945, the American bomber Enola Gay dropped a nuclear bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The temperature at ground level reached 4000 degrees Celsius in less than a second, vaporising people a kilometre away from ground zero.

Source 2: After many years of protests from local environmental groups and action from the federal government and High Court, K'gari (previously known as Fraser Island) is now protected from exploitation as a National Park and an area of World Heritage importance.

The geological wealth of K'gari lay in its rich sand deposits, which contain the minerals rutile, ilmenite, zircon and monazite. Beginning in 1949, sand mining leases were granted to mining companies by the Queensland Government and mining took place on K'gari until 1976. In 1971, an environmental group, the Fraser Island Defenders Organisation (FIDO), started campaigning to stop mining and logging. However, despite over 1300 submissions made objecting to new mining leases, the Queensland Government continued to approve leases. FIDO took their case to the High Court of Australia, which overruled the decision to grant new mining leases, noting that public interest was being ignored.

Still, mining continued on K'gari, so in 1975 the federal government established Australia's first environmental impact inquiry. This inquiry also recommended that mining cease, but the federal government did not have the right to ban sand mining and the industry was still supported by the Queensland Government. In 1976, the federal government finally put an end to mining on K'gari by using its power to make decisions on trade to cancel the mineral export licence of the company that held the lease to mine sand on the island (QTM). No further leases were granted.

Source 3: Sand mining on Queensland's North Stradbroke Island finished in 2019, after years of protests and legal battles.

Significant events

The dramatic impact of disasters has fuelled action and awareness of the environmental impact of human actions. Major events and disasters have led to environmental campaigns making their way into the headlines, forcing governments to take action to protect the environment.

The five human-caused environmental disasters presented here have played a significant role in generating public awareness of environmental issues and have prompted campaigns and action around the world.

1 1964–1990 Chevron–Texaco Oil spill

Oil drilling in Ecuador, South America, for over 25 years led to 63.5 billion litres of toxic oil waste being dumped in the Amazon rainforest by the Chevron Oil Company. This caused an environmental disaster and affected the health of Indigenous communities.

In 2011, Chevron was ordered to pay $US8.6 billion in damages. However, this decision was challenged in the UN International Court of Justice, and in 2018 the court ruled that the Ecuadorian government, not Chevron, was responsible for the clean-up costs.

2 1976 Seveso disaster

Major industrial accidents involving dangerous chemicals can seriously harm human health and the environment. Dioxin is one of the most powerful poisons on Earth – just 100 grams in Sydney's water supply could wipe out the entire city.

At a chemical plant in Seveso, Italy, the release of dioxins into the air made 2000 people ill and led to the slaughter of 80 000 animals to stop the poison from entering the food chain.

In 1982, after investigating the Seveso incident, the European Economic Community introduced controls to regulate the manufacture and storage of hazardous materials.

3 1984 Bhopal gas tragedy

A cyanide gas leak at a Union Carbide chemical factory in Bhopal, India caused the deaths of 4000 people and made over 500 000 others ill, many suffering long-term health issues such as blindness and respiratory problems. Trees nearby lost their leaves, thousands of animals died or had to be slaughtered, and fishing was banned due to water pollution. Large areas of land became **contaminated** and remained unsafe.

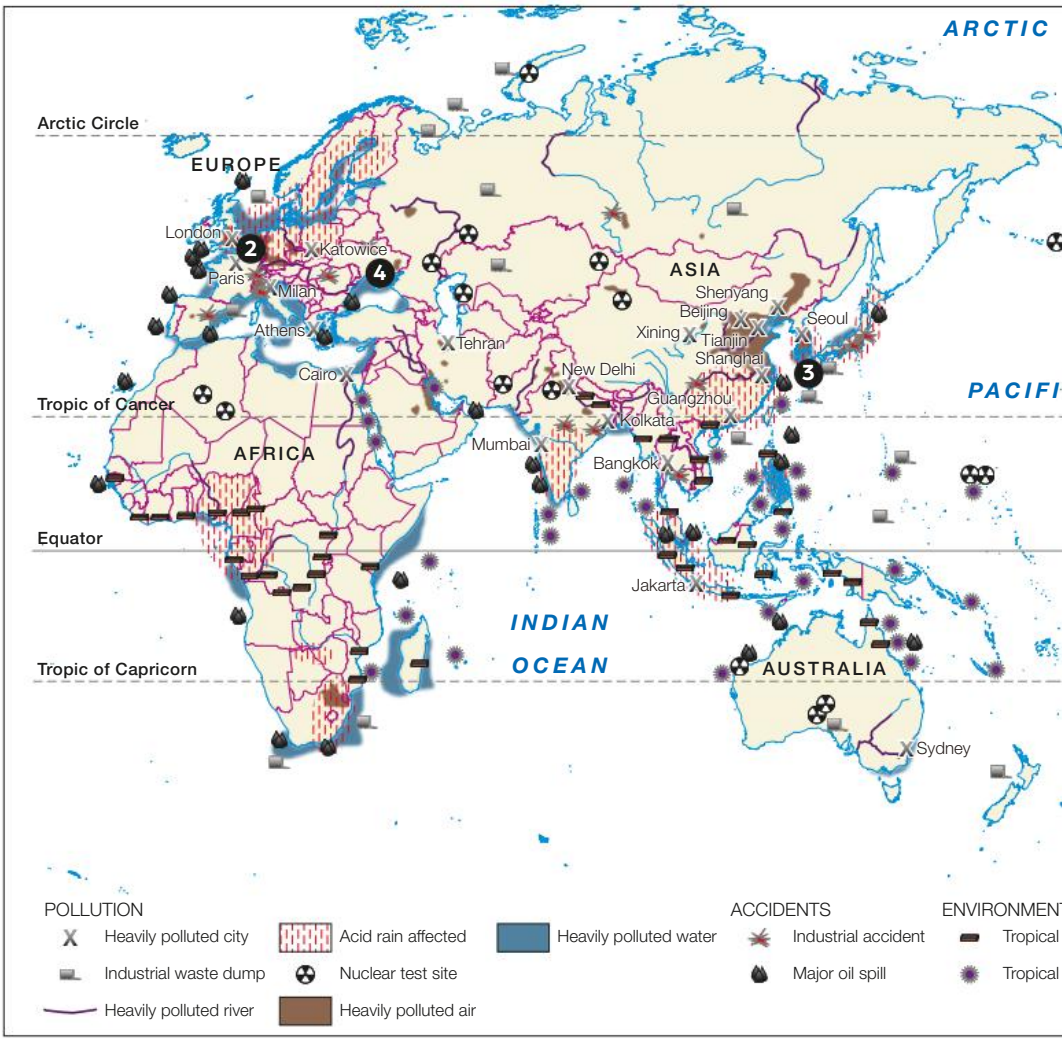
This disaster became the subject of books, films and documentaries, raising awareness of the need for governments to ensure that dangerous chemicals are manufactured safely and in compliance with regulations.

4 1986 Chernobyl nuclear plant

The world's worst nuclear accident occurred in 1986 at Chernobyl in Ukraine. Contamination occurred when tonnes of radioactive material spread out in a cloud over 30 000 square kilometres when the Chernobyl power station overheated.

Following the disaster, the town of Pripyat was abandoned and the remains of the power plant were encased to reduce the spread of

Environmental issues



▲ **Source 4:** Environmental issues that currently impact or have historically impacted environments around the world.

radioactive contamination. The site is still deemed dangerous for human life, and it is likely that thousands of people were and continue to be affected by illnesses caused by the radiation.

5 2010 BP oil spill

The *Deepwater Horizon* oil platform operated by British Petroleum (BP) was responsible for the largest marine oil spill in history. In April, 2010, *Deepwater Horizon* exploded in a ball of flame and sank to the sea floor. Oil spilled from the well for three months while BP and government authorities tried to plug the hole. An oil slick covering 150 000 square kilometres developed, harming or killing thousands of birds, fish, dolphins, turtles and other creatures.

A commission was held following the disaster. It concluded that government regulations and industry practices in the petroleum industry needed to be overhauled.

Source 5: Fire boats battle an explosion at the off shore oil rig *Deepwater Horizon* in 2010. It was the largest marine oil spill in history, creating an oil slick covering 150 000 square kilometres in the Gulf of Mexico. The oil killed marine and birdlife and closed the fishing industry, putting thousands of people out of work.

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Learning ladder 18.4

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify three disasters that significantly impacted on the environment between 1964 and 2010.
2. Source 4: Describe the main environmental issues shown for Australia on the map.
3. Explain how environmental campaigns brought an end to sand mining on K'gari.
4. Evaluate the federal government's solution to stop sand mining on K'gari.

Cause and effect

1. Source 1: Identify the cause of what is shown in this source.
2. Source 5: Describe the cause and effect of what is shown in this source.
3. Explain how the Bhopal cyanide gas leak impacted on the local people and the environment.
4. Explain why industrial chemical accidents can have a significant effect on the environment.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 498

Site study

What was the Franklin Dam campaign?

The National Museum of Australia and National Archives of Australia both present virtual online sites detailing the Franklin Dam campaign of 1982–1983, where environmental activists drove a sustained campaign to stop the damming of the Franklin River in Tasmania. Their action created national awareness and met with political success.

Background and context

Environmental groups in Tasmania were unsuccessful in stopping the Tasmanian Government building two dams and flooding Lake Pedder in 1972, which led to extensive environmental damage. Some of these environmental activists who had been involved in those campaigns created the Tasmanian Wilderness Society in 1976 with the aim of more effectively campaigning against deforestation, mining, and dam and road building in wilderness areas. Among these activists was Dr Bob Brown, who later helped found the Australian Greens Party.

In 1978, another dam was proposed for the Gordon River to generate **hydroelectricity**. The Tasmanian Wilderness Society and other environmental groups lobbied the Tasmanian Government, arguing that the nearby Franklin River and wilderness area would be flooded, impacting the habitats of endangered species as well as important First Nations rock art. The importance of the Tasmanian wilderness was internationally recognised when it became a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 1982.

The campaign to save the Franklin involved raising public awareness around Australia and a three-month blockade involving 2500 protesters in 1983 to stop workers from entering the dam site. About 1400 protesters were arrested, including Bob Brown.

In March 1983, the Labor Party, led by Bob Hawke, came to power in federal parliament and introduced legislation to protect the Franklin River. The Tasmanian Government refused to stop work on the dam, and the federal government took the case to the High Court and won, forcing the Tasmanian Government to abandon the project. In 1996, Bob Brown was elected to the Senate and became parliamentary leader of the Australian Greens in 2005.

Source 1: Promotional poster using an emotive photograph of the Franklin River to encourage donations for the campaign to stop the damming of the Franklin River.

Source 2: This photograph from 17 December 1982, shows protesters with 'No Dams' banners, an Australian flag and camping equipment on a road in the south-western Tasmanian forest during a blockade of the dam site. The protest was coordinated by the Tasmanian Wilderness Society.

As a result of the election, my government believes it has a firm directive from the Tasmanian people to proceed with construction ... Having clearly lost in Tasmania – and it's fair to say the scheme is no longer an issue in this State – the conservationists have instead carried their campaign to the mainland. In particular, they have been lobbying federal Senators and Members in their attempts to prevent the scheme getting underway. Their campaign has been based on three total fabrications: that Tasmania does not need the scheme; that it will destroy the south-west wilderness area; and that the scheme will be paid for by mainland taxpayers.

Source 3: Letter from Tasmanian Premier Robin Gray to James Carlton, Minister for Health in the federal government, 13 October 1982

Learning ladder 18.5

Significant people, ideas and events

1. Identify the key steps in the protection of the Franklin River.
2. Describe the reasons for concern raised by the Tasmanian Wilderness Society.
3. Explain the role of the Tasmanian Wilderness Society in the Franklin River campaign.
4. Evaluate the significance of Dr Bob Brown as an environmental activist.

Source analysis

1. Source 1: Which group was behind this poster and who authorised it?
2. Source 1: Why do you think this photograph was chosen for the poster?
3. Source 3: Explain the Tasmanian Premier's view of 'the conservationists'.
4. Source 2: Explain the historical context of this source. What actions in late 1982 and early 1983 helped turn the tide in the campaign?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 493

Can climate change be depoliticised?

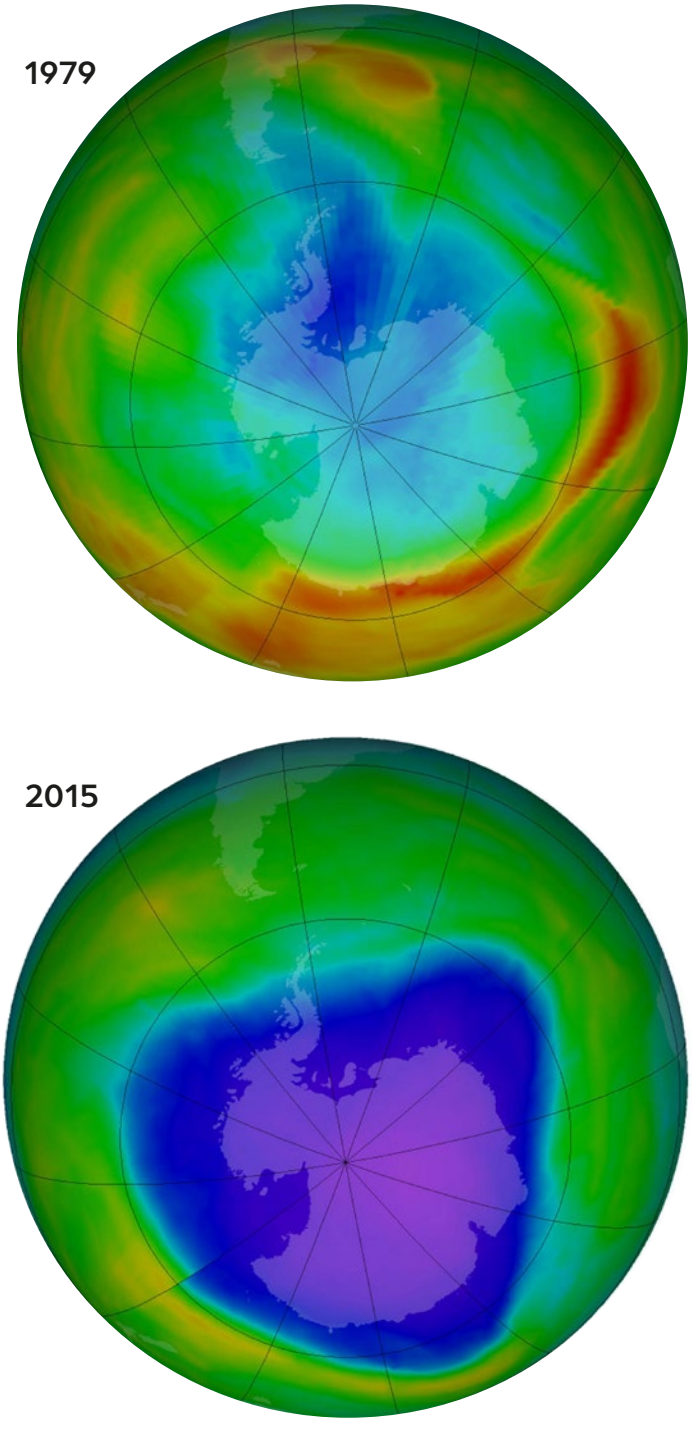
Climate change affects every country, yet political divisions often slow agreement on how to respond. In some cases, nations have united behind shared goals; in others, competing interests and priorities have stalled progress.

Global efforts

International efforts to protect the environment gathered momentum in the 1970s. The 1972 UN Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm brought together nations from across political systems to address shared environmental problems. For the first time, economic growth was officially linked to environmental protection, and countries were encouraged to monitor and safeguard natural resources.

A landmark moment came in 1987 with the Montreal Protocol, a treaty that united every UN member in phasing out chemicals that were destroying the ozone layer. Its success is often credited to three factors: strong scientific evidence, a clearly defined problem and solutions that could be implemented quickly. Scientists expect the ozone layer to recover to its 1979 levels by around 2050 (Source 1).

Replicating that model for climate change has proved harder. The Kyoto Protocol (1997) was the first attempt to set binding targets for reducing greenhouse gas emissions, but many countries failed to meet their commitments. It was replaced by the Paris Agreement (2015), which set a goal to keep global warming well below 2°C. Because countries determined their own targets, results depended heavily on domestic political will. In the United States, for example, changes in administration have shaped climate policy, with some leaders rolling back environmental protections and sidelining scientific advice. Such actions often prioritise short-term economic gains over long-term environmental health, making it harder for countries to work together and slowing progress on reducing emissions (Source 3).



Source 1: Atmospheric maps from 1979 and 2015 show the shrinking ozone hole over Antarctica, reflecting the success of the 1987 Montreal Protocol began phasing out ozone-depleting substances.

▲ **Source 2:** A satirical cartoon showing leaders from France, China, the United States, Britain and India celebrating the 2015 Paris Agreement while standing in waist-deep floodwaters, highlighting criticism that global pledges fell short of addressing the immediate impacts of climate change.

Some recent agreements have aimed to bridge global responsibility and national interests. At COP27 (2022), nations created a Loss and Damage Fund to support vulnerable countries facing climate-related disasters. Supporters interpreted this as a historic step towards climate justice and proof that international cooperation on difficult issues was possible. By 2025, however, political tensions surfaced when the United States withdrew from the Fund's board over disagreements about governance and funding. Critics interpreted this withdrawal as evidence that political divisions can quickly re-emerge, undermining confidence in long-term climate commitments.

> Voluntary climate commitments were supposed to be a step towards progress. A change in political climate has revealed their weaknesses … Mr Trump has withdrawn from the Paris agreement, [expanded] fossil fuels, opened public lands to drilling and plans to cut funding for renewable energy … The lesson is that government action (and inaction) will determine the severity of the climate crisis. Governments need to prohibit fossil fuel extraction, reduce profits through progressive carbon taxes, support renewables and confront powerful interests. The myth that businesses are capable of self-policing has led to a dangerous delay.

Source 3: 'The Guardian View on Climate Finance: Crumbling Under a Second Trump Presidency', *The Guardian*, editorial, 11 August 2025. Note that *The Guardian* tends to have a centre-left to left-leaning political bias.

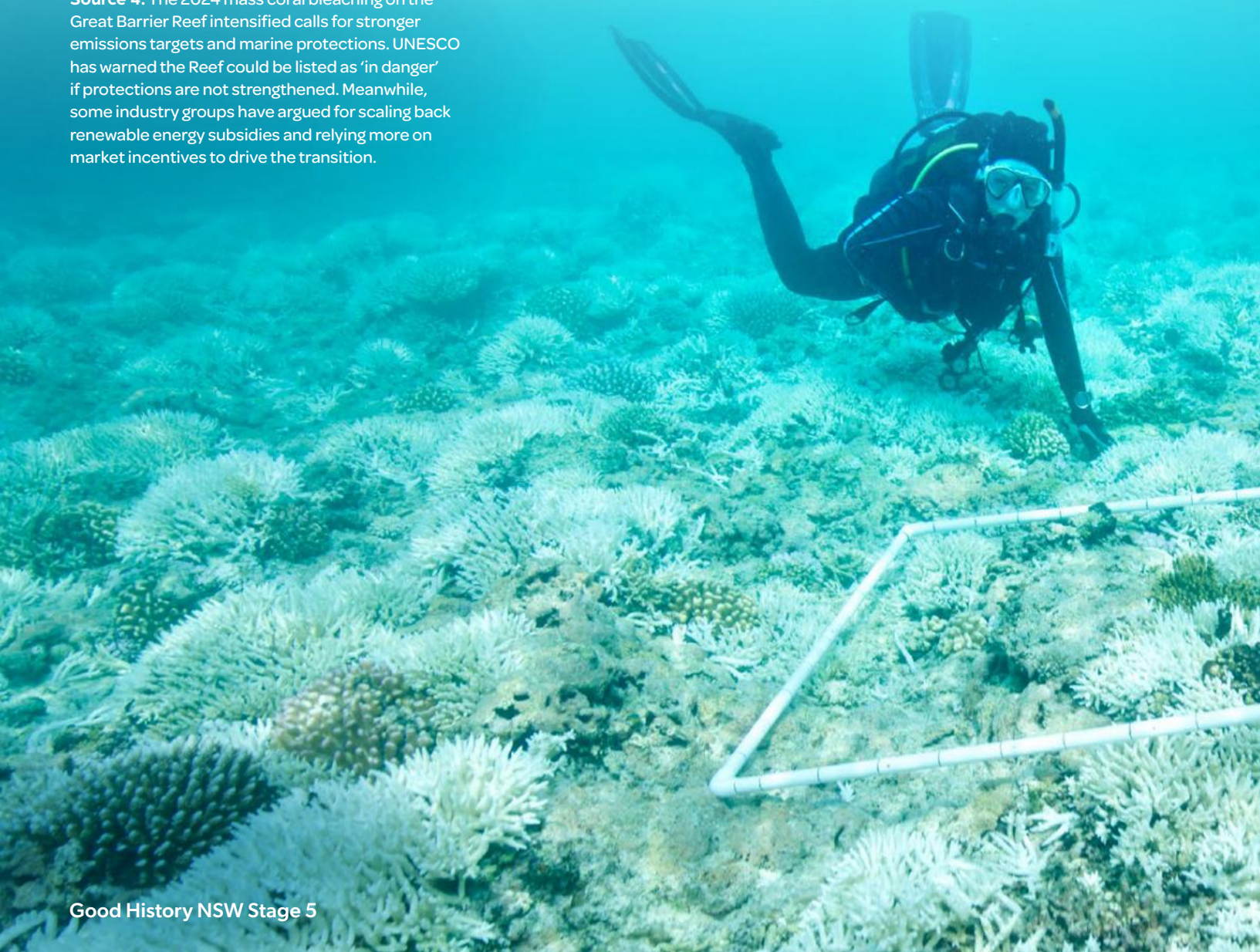
National action: Australia

In the late 1960s, environmental concerns were largely absent from Australian politics. Queensland Premier Joh Bjelke-Petersen famously described environmentalists as 'subversives' and 'friends of the dirt'. Public concern grew over the next three decades, fuelled by visible environmental damage and major conservation campaigns. By the 1990s, politicians from both major parties were speaking publicly about environmental protection – sometimes as genuine policy, sometimes as political strategy. In 1996, Prime Minister John Howard's statement 'We're all greenies now' reflected how far the issue had entered the political mainstream.

Since then, Australia's environmental policy has been shaped by the push and pull between political ambition, public opinion and economic pressures. However, global agreements such as the Kyoto Protocol, Paris Agreement and Montreal Protocol have provided international benchmarks that Australian governments have referred to when setting or revising environmental strategies, including renewable energy targets and biodiversity commitments (Source 5).

Despite these efforts, climate action remains one of Australia's most politically contested issues. Just like elsewhere around the world, policies to cut greenhouse gas emissions have often shifted with changes of government. Some voters and political leaders push for urgent, large-scale change, while others emphasise protecting jobs in fossil fuel industries and limiting economic disruption. This ongoing tension shows how global climate cooperation can both encourage national policy development and deepen political divides when economic and environmental priorities clash.

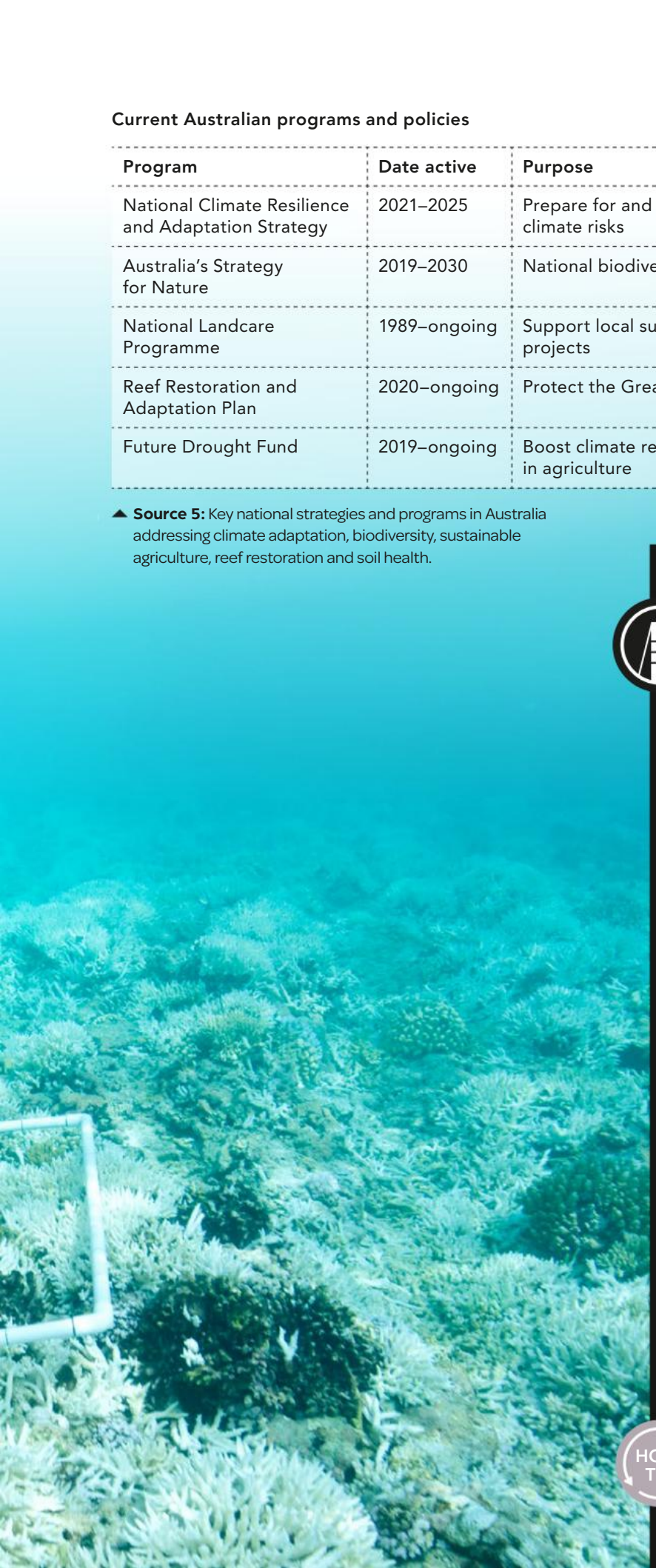
Source 4: The 2024 mass coral bleaching on the Great Barrier Reef intensified calls for stronger emissions targets and marine protections. UNESCO has warned the Reef could be listed as 'in danger' if protections are not strengthened. Meanwhile, some industry groups have argued for scaling back renewable energy subsidies and relying more on market incentives to drive the transition.



Current Australian programs and policies

Program	Date active	Purpose	Key successes
National Climate Resilience and Adaptation Strategy	2021–2025	Prepare for and adapt to climate risks	Disaster-prone area buy-backs, stronger building codes
Australia's Strategy for Nature	2019–2030	National biodiversity plan	Coordinated framework for state and federal nature policies
National Landcare Programme	1989–ongoing	Support local sustainability projects	Over 100 million trees planted, habitat restoration projects
Reef Restoration and Adaptation Plan	2020–ongoing	Protect the Great Barrier Reef	Heat-tolerant coral species developed, large-scale reef reseeding trials
Future Drought Fund	2019–ongoing	Boost climate resilience in agriculture	Grants for drought-resistant crops and water-saving tech

▲ **Source 5:** Key national strategies and programs in Australia addressing climate adaptation, biodiversity, sustainable agriculture, reef restoration and soil health.



Learning ladder 18.6

Impact and legacies

1. Describe how the creation and early reception of the Loss and Damage Fund reflected global climate cooperation.
2. Source 5: Explain how one Australian program or policy has contributed to environmental protection or climate adaptation.
3. Explain why the Montreal Protocol has a lasting legacy in global environmental history.
4. Evaluate the extent to which global climate agreements have influenced both international cooperation and political divisions.

Contestability

1. Identify one interpretation of the Loss and Damage Fund's purpose.
2. Explain how the US withdrawal from the Loss and Damage Fund's board could be interpreted as a sign of political division.
3. Describe an interpretation of why the Montreal Protocol succeeded in achieving its goals.
4. Source 3: Explain how some commentators interpret voluntary climate finance commitments under a Trump presidency.
5. Evaluate whether the evidence in the text supports the view that climate change action will continue to be influenced by politics.

HOW TO Contestability, page 506

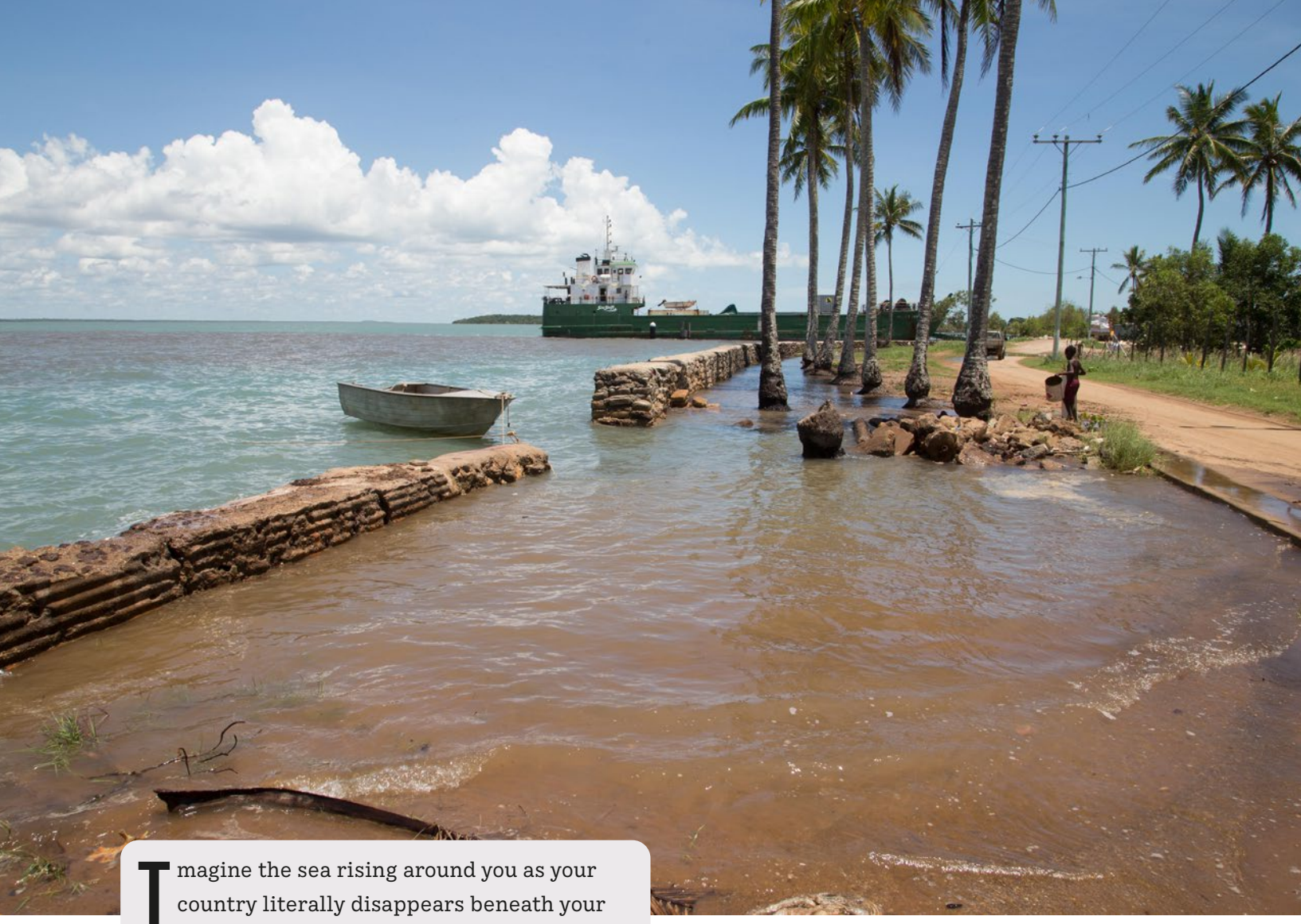
How has environmental damage affected Indigenous communities and cultures?

Human activity affecting the environment has had detrimental and long-term effects on Indigenous Peoples across the world. Economic activities such as mining have had particularly damaging impacts on Indigenous Peoples, and human-induced climate change is putting many Indigenous communities at risk.

The Torres Strait Islands

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 1: Rising sea levels caused by climate change are already affecting many low-lying islands in the Torres Strait region, threatening communities, cultural sites and ecosystems.



> Imagine the sea rising around you as your country literally disappears beneath your feet, where the food you grow and the water you drink is being destroyed by salt, and your last chance is to seek refuge in other lands.
>
> **Source 3:** Extract from the Avaaz petition, sent to the Australian Human Rights Commission, 3 September 2008

▲ **Source 2:** Saibai, one of the Torres Strait Islands, is particularly at risk from rising sea levels. The island is only an average of 1 metre above sea level. If sea levels rise by 0.8 metres as predicted, the island will be lost.

Sea level rise in the Torres Strait

The Torres Strait Islands are a group of over 100 islands between the Cape York Peninsula and the coast of Papua New Guinea (Source 1). They are home to approximately 7000 Indigenous people.

Climate change, caused by human activities outside the Torres Strait Islands, is affecting Indigenous communities and threatening their culture, livelihoods and environment. In 2008, Islanders voiced their concerns about the impact of climate change, including increased **erosion**, strong winds, more frequent storms and rougher seas. They raised concerns about how these factors affected turtle nesting, bird life and seagrass. Additionally, land degradation and heavy rainfall have reduced the amount of food available from farming and fishing.

However, the greatest threat to the Torres Strait Islands is rising sea levels caused by climate change. Some islands are only about a metre above the current sea level at high tide. If climate change is not addressed, global temperatures could increase by up to six degrees, leading to a rise in sea levels. This would cause **salination** of fresh water and erosion of shoreline structures.

Rising sea levels will also impact Ailan Kastom (the customs, traditions and beliefs) of Torres Strait Islanders. These Indigenous communities are among the most vulnerable in Australia and internationally, as rising sea levels, destructive king tides and coastal erosion are already affecting cemeteries, beaches and roads, and threatening important buildings and cultural sites. Cultural connections to coral reefs and fishing are also at risk. The potential loss of local turtle populations due to rising temperatures would have devastating impacts on important cultural practices.

Panguna Mine, Bougainville, Papua New Guinea

In response to a human rights complaint from 156 local community members, in 2021 Rio Tinto promised to fund an independent investigation into the environmental and social damage caused by its Panguna mine in Bougainville. It is claimed that pollution from the mine has severely harmed the lives and livelihoods of local communities.

Between 1972 and 1989, the Panguna mine released over a billion tonnes of waste into the Jaba and Kawerong rivers. This waste, called tailings, polluted the rivers and caused severe flooding of land downstream. Decades later, the effects of the pollution are still being felt, damaging the environment and threatening the health and wellbeing of thousands of people in Bougainville.

▲ **Source 4:** A mine shovel at Panguna mine, Bougainville, c. 1973

> We are always worrying that the food we eat, the water we drink and the air we breathe is not safe. We worry about levees collapsing and mine waste flooding our lands and communities. We need the environmental and human rights assessment to look into this. It cannot come soon enough. We welcome Rio Tinto's commitment to this process. We really need Rio to continue its support and commit to funding the next steps.

Source 5: Hon. Theonila Roka Matbob, traditional landowner and Bougainvillian politician and Cabinet Minister

Source 6: Panguna locals still live in the remains of the mine, contending with the contamination left behind.

▼ **Source 7:** Timeline of Panguna mine

1960s	Huge copper ore and gold deposits discovered in Crown Prince Range, Bougainville, PNG
1969	Open-pit copper mine construction begins by Bougainville Copper LTD (BCL), subsidiary of Rio Tinto
1972	Mine becomes operational; PNG Government 20% stakeholder; Bougainvilleans 0.5–1.25% stakeholder
1975	Profits to PNG help it gain independence from Australia; Bougainvilleans unhappy with profit share
1988	Segregation of facilities for black and white workers leads to uprising by Bougainville Revolutionary Army (BRA)
1988	Conflict between BRA and PNG Defence Force
1989	(15 May) Mine closes
1990	(24 March) BCL personnel totally withdrawn
2016	Rio Tinto gives up share in mine
2020	Human Rights Law Centre lodges complaint to Australian Government over the mine's human rights and environmental impacts

Disproportionate impact on Indigenous Peoples

Many Indigenous Peoples around the world depend on traditional ways of living, such as farming, fishing and hunting, which are deeply connected to the environment. However, human activities and climate change are disrupting ecosystems, putting these practices and livelihoods at risk.

This situation is made even harder by the fact that Indigenous communities are often **marginalised**. They may lack access to resources, political power or support to adapt to these changes. The challenges they face highlight the need for stronger action to protect both the environment and the rights of Indigenous Peoples.

Learning ladder 18.7

Impact and legacies

1. Describe the impact of climate change on the Indigenous population of the Torres Strait Islands.
2. Explain the impact of Rio Tinto on the Indigenous population living near the Panguna mine.
3. The Ailan Kastom has been the legacy of generations of Elders of the Torres Strait Islands. Explain how climate change could negatively impact this.
4. Sources 4–7: Explain the legacy of Rio Tinto on the people of Bougainville.

Continuity and change

1. Source 2: Describe the change that could occur on Saibai Island due to rising sea levels
2. Explain why the Jaba and Kawerong rivers changed between 1972 and 1989.
3. Source 3: Explain the change feared by the author of this source.
4. Evaluate why continuity has been important to many Indigenous Peoples around the world. What makes adapting to change harder for these communities?

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 495

How do I conduct a good inquiry?

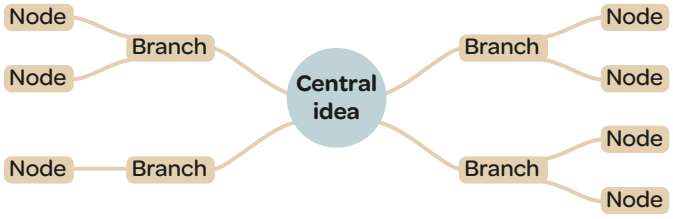
As you have progressed through this chapter, you have expanded your existing knowledge and deepened it by exploring perspectives, identifying patterns and relationships and linking causes and consequences. Along the way, you have developed your skills in analysing and interrogating sources, asking critical questions and framing well-supported arguments. You will now apply these skills to crafting a well-reasoned response to an inquiry question of your choosing related to the environmental movement.

1 **Choose your topic: Identify a question.**

Which of the following would you like to investigate in greater depth?

- The green bans movement, 18.2
- UNESCO mission and impacts, 18.3
- A significant environmental disaster and its impact on awareness, 18.4
- Franklin Dam campaign, 18.5
- Actions taken in Australia, 18.6
- Climate change in the Torres Strait, 18.7

2 **Briefing: Brainstorm what you already know and what you want to know about this topic.**



3 **Field report: Gather your information.**

- Look back at the chapter and find all the information and sources relevant to your topic.
- Identify and locate additional sources (see How-to, page 513).
- Analyse your sources as you go. You can use the **'Connect, Extend, Challenge'** thinking routine below to help you.
- Take careful notes as you work, including recording source details, clearly indicating quoted material and jotting down further questions as they arise.

4 **Exclusive: Review your findings to form and answer your big question.**

5 **Present: Organise and synthesise your findings into an engaging narrative (see How-to, page 515)**

Connect

- How does the information **relate** to what you already know?
- In what ways does this account **align** with other sources or narratives you've encountered?
- What background or context do you have that might **support** the information presented?
- How does the source's origin **connect** with its intended message or audience?

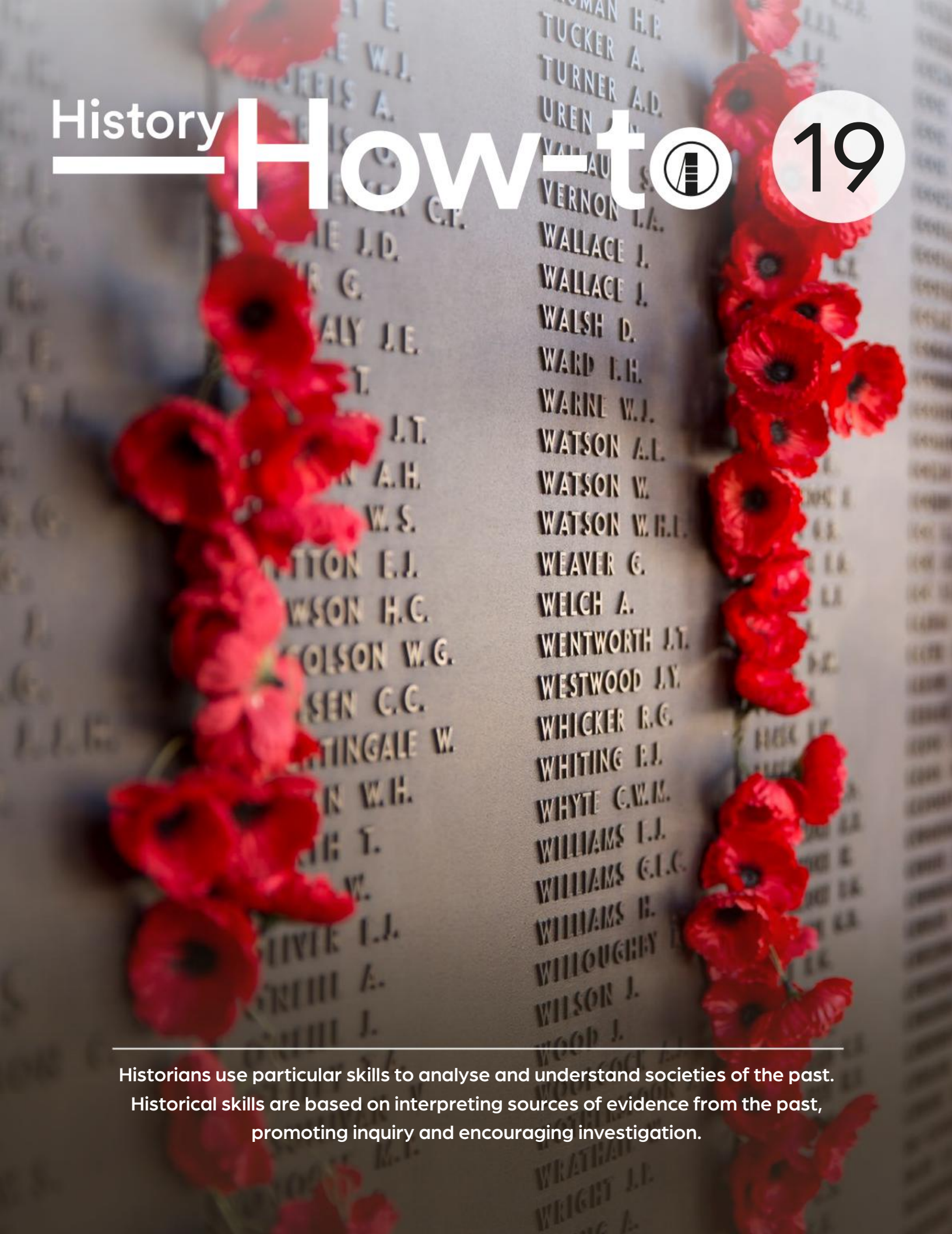
Extend

- How does this source **expand** or **complicate** your understanding?
- Does the information **challenge** your previous assumptions, and if so, in what way?
- What aspects of the source's presentation (language, imagery, emphasis) **extend** your thinking about its possible biases or intentions?

Challenge

- In what ways might the source be incomplete, selective, or influenced by the author's **perspective**?
- What further evidence would you need to corroborate or refute the **claims** made in this source?
- Are there **discrepancies** between this source and other contemporary accounts that raise questions about its reliability?

History How-to 19



Historians use particular skills to analyse and understand societies of the past. Historical skills are based on interpreting sources of evidence from the past, promoting inquiry and encouraging investigation.

How to develop history skills

The skills described in this How-to are important skills that historians use to understand the past. There are five levels of difficulty for each skill. Each skill is described and a model provided that demonstrates how to master the skill at each level. Learning skills at the lowest level of difficulty will help you to master the skills at the highest level.

Chronology

Chronology is the arrangement of events into the order in which they happened. Historians put events in order, from the oldest or earliest event to the most recent event.

Here are some key terms relating to chronology:

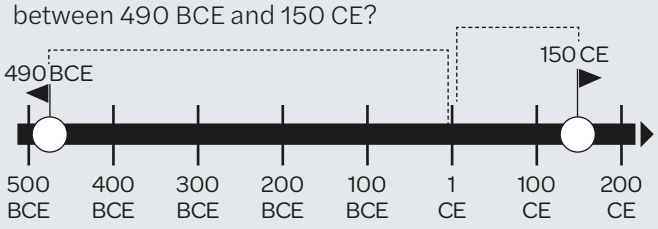
- **ancient:** relating to the time between c. 3000 BCE and c. 500 CE
- **Anno Domini (AD):** a Latin term meaning 'in the year of our Lord'; modern historians do not use this term but many other people do
- **Before Christ (BC):** the years before the birth of Jesus Christ; modern historians do not use this term but many other people do
- **BCE (Before Common Era):** the years before the common era (BC)
- **CE (Common Era):** the years after the common era (AD)
- **century:** 100 years
- **decade:** 10 years
- **era:** a distinct period with significant historical characteristics
- **medieval:** the 5th to 15th centuries CE
- **millennium:** 1000 years
- **modern:** the years from c. 1789 CE to the present
- **prehistoric:** the time before written records.

1 I can read a timeline

Timelines list key events and the years those events happened in the order they occurred. A one-off event is shown as a vertical line. A period of time is shown as a horizontal line, with the ends of the line showing the start and end of the period.

When answering questions about chronology, include part of the question in your answer. For example, if a question asks, 'When did India gain independence from Britain?' you should answer with, 'India gained independence from Britain in 1947', rather than just '1947'.

For example, how many years were there between 490 BCE and 150 CE?

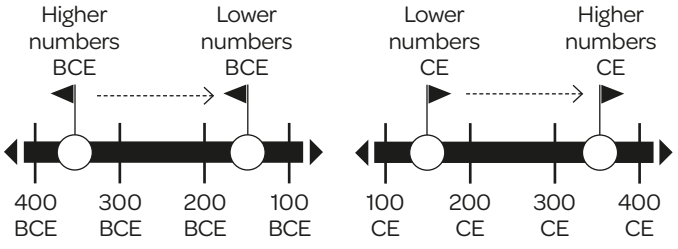


The difference in years between 490 BCE and 150 CE is:

490 + 150 = 640 years

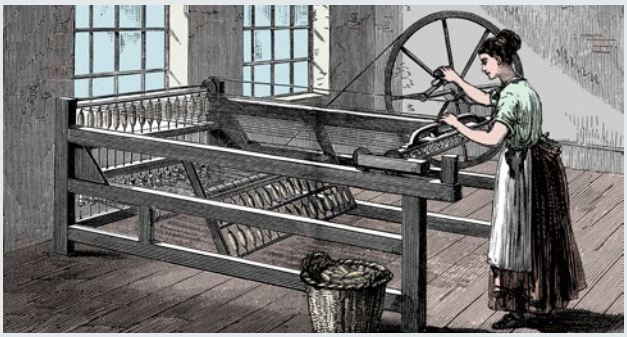
2 I can place events on a timeline chronologically

Placing events on a timeline involves putting them in chronological order, from the earliest event to the most recent event. The order goes like this:



Source 1: The Taj Mahal was built as a mausoleum for the favourite wife of Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan.

Source 2: The spinning jenny greatly increased the amount of textiles that could be produced.



It is similar to positive and negative numbers used in mathematics. A period of time that lasts 10 years in BCE starts with a higher number and goes *down*. A period of time that lasted 10 years in CE starts with a lower number and goes *up*.

For example:

700–690 BCE: an event taking 10 years

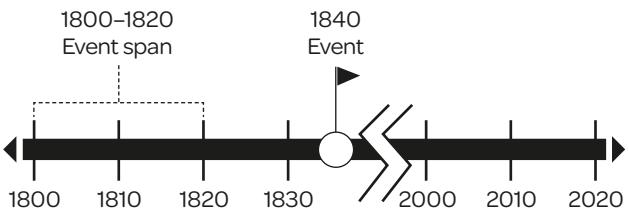
700–710 CE: an event taking 10 years

3 I can follow timeline conventions

Follow these steps to make a timeline:

1. Select events to include on your timeline.
2. Put the events in chronological order: from the earliest event to the latest event.
3. Work out the earliest and latest dates you want to include on your timeline.
4. Pick a span of years that your timeline will cover; this span should include the earliest and most recent dates.
5. Choose the unit of time you want to use: years, decades or centuries.
6. Work out how many segments your timeline needs.
7. Draw a straight line and divide it into segments. Figure out the size of each segment based on how much space you have on your sheet of paper.
8. Number the segments into the units you selected in Step 5.
9. Add the events to your timeline.

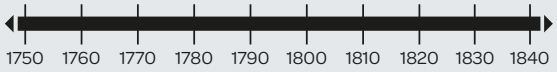
If an event goes over many years, add it as a span rather than a line. If there is a large gap between the events on your timeline, add a zigzag line to show there has been a jump in time. For example:



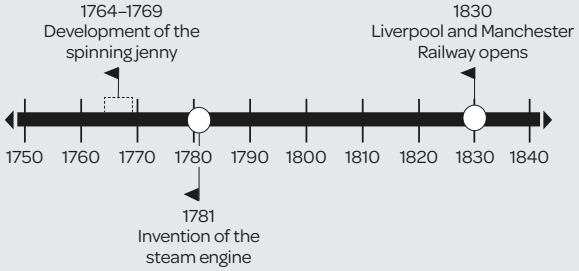
Example of creating a timeline

1. Select events to include on your timeline.
   Invention of the steam engine (1781); Liverpool and Manchester Railway opens (1830); Development of the spinning jenny (1764–1769)
2. Put the events in chronological order.
   Development of the spinning jenny (1764–1769); Invention of the steam engine (1781); Liverpool and Manchester Railway opens (1830)
3. Work out the earliest and latest dates you want to include on your timeline.
   1764 is the earliest date and 1830 is the latest
4. Pick a span of years that your timeline will cover; this span should include the earliest and most recent dates.
   1750–1840 (90 years)
5. Choose the unit of time you want to use: years, decades or centuries.
   Segments of 10 years
6. Work out how many segments your timeline needs.
   Nine blocks of 10 years. I am using an A4 exercise book. I have about 20 cm to draw in. Nine blocks at 2 cm per block gives me 18 cm.
7. Draw a straight line and divide it into segments. Figure out the size of each segment based on how much space you have on your sheet of paper.

   Nine blocks with 2 cm per block
8. Number the segments into the units you selected in Step 5.



9. Add the events to your timeline.



4 I can summarise the events on a timeline

Summarising information from a timeline involves condensing the key events into a brief, focused overview. This requires looking critically at the timeline to determine which points are most important and how they fit together. To summarise effectively, follow these steps:

- **Identify the most significant events:** Not all events on a timeline are of equal importance. Focus on the events that represent major turning points or milestones in history. These are often the moments that led to significant change or shaped future developments.
- **Look for patterns or connections:** Summarising is not just about listing events. Instead, try to understand how the events relate to one another. Are they part of a broader trend, such as the rise of empires? Grouping related events can help you to find patterns and connections between events.
- **Determine the overall theme or progression:** Timelines often illustrate change over time. In your summary, aim to describe this progression, whether it's a series of conflicts, the spread of ideas or periods of stability followed by upheaval. Think about what story the timeline is telling and convey this in your summary.

5 I can explain change or causality from a timeline

Explaining change or causality using a timeline means understanding how events are connected and how one event leads to another. To do this, follow these steps:

- **Find important events:** Look for key events on the timeline that caused big changes or had lasting effects. Focus on events that seemed to trigger shifts in areas such as politics, society or the economy.
- **Understand how events are connected:** To explain causality, think about how one event might lead to another. For example, a war could result in a change of government, or a new invention could change the way people live. Finding these connections helps you to understand why things changed.
- **Identify the type of change:** Consider how the change happened. Was it a sudden, major change or did it happen slowly over time? Changes in history can be quick, like revolutions, or gradual, like technological developments.
- **Look for multiple causes:** Changes in history often have more than one **cause**. For example, a revolution could be caused by a mix of economic problems, political issues and social unrest. Explaining change means thinking about all these reasons, not just one.
- **Compare with later times:** To better explain the change, you can compare the events on the timeline to a later period, such as today, to show how the changes continued to shape history.

Source 3: *Eureka Stockade riot,* Ballarat, 1854, painting by James Black Henderson

Source analysis

Detectives use clues to solve mysteries. Historians use sources to understand the past. Source analysis involves looking at **evidence** and asking, 'How do we know what we know about the past?' A good source analysis interprets and explains the meaning of the source.

First, you need to ask good questions of a source. These questions include:

- Who created it?
- When was it created?
- What was the author's or creator's purpose? Why was it made?
- What is the historical **context** of the source?

The more sources you use, the better your understanding of the past will be.

This is a poster, designed by Mary Lowndes in 1909, as part of the suffrage movement in Britain.

The image shows Justice, holding tilted scales, standing alongside a young woman – perhaps a suffragist. In the foreground are what appears to be a poor woman with a baby and a middle class or wealthy woman.

The theme of poor women and wealthy women alike standing to benefit from suffrage, and so working together, was a common one at this time. Similarly, Justice as on the side of women was a recurring theme.

▲ **Source 4:** How to describe a source

1 I can identify the origin of a source

Sometimes, if you're looking at a photo of a source in a text, there may be a caption that provides information about the origin of a source (see Source 3). This caption tells you who made the source, the name of the source and when it was made. Sometimes we don't know the creator of the source. In this case we state that the source was made by an 'unknown creator'.

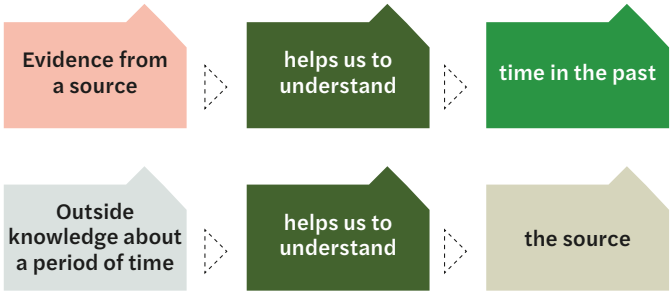
2 I can describe a source

Describing a source is when you describe its features. This involves more than listing facts about the source. Describing a visual source might involve relating what is in the image. Describing a written source might involve summarising the main things that the text states. For example:

Type of source	Source description
Visual source	This poster uses familiar themes, such as women's moral authority, civic virtue and judicial symbolism, to argue the case for women's right to vote.
Written source	Professor Michelle Arrow's book *Friday On Our Minds: Popular Culture in Australia since 1945* (2009) has a chapter on 'The rise of youth culture', which examines the role of music and draws on sources such as the magazine *Teens Today*.

3 I can apply historical knowledge to explain sources

Sources can tell us a lot about a period of time in history. You can also use your knowledge of a period to explain a source. These are two different skills. They both help us to understand, but they should not be confused.



The more you know about the past, the better you will be at explaining sources. So, having lots of knowledge about the past is important for this skill.

What is in a source?	Outside knowledge that might help to understand it
Painting	Knowing the dominant schools of art and key political and philosophical ideas
Brass medal	Knowing what wars were being fought at the time, and why medals were generally awarded
Family photograph	Knowing the country and cultural context in which the family lived
Photograph of strike action	Knowing how common union membership was at the time

4 I can explain the historical context of a source

Explaining the historical context of a source involves identifying and describing the important factors of the period in which a source was made. To help you think of important factors, use the acronym SHEEPT.

SHEEPT factor	Example from Australia	How this might influence a source from the time
Social: how people lived, traditions, customs …	The class system	A source could show **bias** against a class
Historical: past events that influenced what was happening in that period of time …	The British Empire	A source might show the impacts of imperialism
Economic: how the economy influenced people's lives …	Trade, both domestic and international	A source might show the impact of trade on standards of living
Environmental: the impact of weather, climate, natural disasters and resources such as water …	The importance of cycles of drought	A source might mention the influence of drought on an agricultural area
Political: how people were governed, who had power, what the laws were …	Development of trade unions	A source might reflect the political views of the time
Technological: the influence of tools and machines; for example, wheels and computers …	Introduction of new technologies	The technology may itself be a historical source

5 I can evaluate sources to determine their accuracy, usefulness and reliability

The more sources you evaluate, the better your understanding of the past will be. Evaluating **primary** and **secondary sources** helps you judge how accurate, useful and reliable they are for understanding history.

Here is an example of an evaluation of sources based on photographs and cartoons.

Category	Photographs	Cartoons
Accuracy	More accurate: reveal the appearance of specific places and periods	Less accurate: usually reflect one perspective
Usefulness	Useful for capturing a specific moment in time	Useful for highlighting key issues
Reliability	Generally reliable but can be manipulated by cropping and other techniques	Less reliable because they have a limited perspective

To evaluate **accuracy**, check whether the source provides specific, verifiable details, such as dates, names or events, and whether it aligns with other known historical facts.

For **usefulness**, a source should help you understand history and be easy to find. For high school students, useful sources should be easy to understand and directly related to class topics. They should be available in accessible places, such as textbooks or online resources.

When evaluating **reliability**, think about who created the source, their purpose and how objective or biased they might have been. Reliable sources are trustworthy and less likely to mix fact with myth or exaggeration.

Continuity and change

On our quest to understand history, we need to grasp both **continuity** and change. Continuity refers to things that have stayed the same over time. Change refers to things that have altered over time.

Continuity and change can exist at the same time: some things stay the same, while others change. Change can be fast or slow, happen gradually or in a burst.

No change at all (e.g. human DNA)	A bit different (e.g. food)	Quite different (e.g. attitudes to race, gender and sexuality)	Completely different (e.g. transportation technology)

1 I can identify continuity and change

Identifying continuity and change involves seeing what has remained the same and what has changed. The easiest kind of continuity or change to notice is from a historical period to the present, because we know a lot about the present. The table below shows examples of continuity and change from historical societies to the present.

To help you identify continuity and change, ask:

1. Did it exist in the past and did it remain throughout the period, or does it still exist now? If yes, that is continuity. You can say: 'This situation remained and shows continuity'.
2. Did it exist in the past but changed during the period, or does not exist now? If yes, that is change. You can say: 'This situation represents a change'.

Historical society	Continuity	Change
Australia	Sexism	Anti-discrimination legislation
Europe	Some countries still have a monarchy	Technology (true for most societies)
Japan	Language	Now a constitutional monarchy

Source 5: Powerful new ships, such as the HMS *Dreadnought*, could easily outgun and outrun older vessels.

2 I can describe continuity and change

Describing continuity and change involves identifying in detail what has remained the same and what has changed, or both.

Society	Earlier time	Later time	Continuity between these times	Change between these times
Britain	1600: People walked or used horses for transport.	2020: People use cars for transport.	People travel.	People travel further and faster.
Australia	1850: Cattle weighed an average of 170 kg.	2020: Cattle weigh an average of 370 kg.	Cattle are used for hides and food.	Technology has changed cattle breeding.

3 I can explain continuity and change

When you explain *how*, you are saying what happened to make the change, or what happened to ensure something stayed the same. Let us consider how we could explain how political institutions changed in Australia and how they stayed the same:

Explaining how change occurred	Economic, ideological and other factors led to the creation of a federal government in Australia.
Explaining how continuity occurred	When the Australian colonies became states, they continued to have their own parliaments and elections.

Source 6: Federation tableau, 'Unity is strength', c. 1899 [State Library of NSW, FL8868364]

Source 7: Australian Jockey Club meeting at Randwick Racecourse, 19 June 1920. After Federation the federal government took over some of the states' taxing powers. The states continued to collect taxes but were forced to raise revenue from other sources, especially from taxing profits from gambling.

4 I can explain patterns of continuity and/or change

Explaining patterns of continuity and change requires you to find a trend or pattern of something that has stayed the same or has changed over time. Many patterns of continuity and change are similar across different societies and time periods.

Common examples of **patterns of continuity** include:

- close family bonds
- the importance of food
- the influence of religion
- trade.

Common examples of **patterns of change** include:

- the improvement in technology
- the increase in population
- the spread of new ideas
- the development of new political systems.

Here are some patterns of continuity and change from Australian history:

Aspect of society	Pattern of continuity	Pattern of change
Art and culture	Importance of sport	Artistic styles
Social structure	Class structure	Egalitarianism
Politics	Male dominated	Female politicians

Source 8: Pope Francis waves to large crowds at the Vatican in Rome in 2022. The Catholic Church is an example of continuity as it remains an important part in the lives of millions of people today.

5 I can evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change

To evaluate patterns of continuity and/or change in history, you need to make a judgement about whether the change or continuity was positive or negative using evidence and logical reasoning.

Follow these steps to evaluate patterns of change:

- **Identify the change:** What changed over time?
- **Examine the effects:** Were the impacts positive or negative?
- **Assess the advantages and disadvantages:** What improved? What challenges arose?
- **Consider the broader context:** How does this change fit within the larger historical picture?
- **Make a value judgement:** Based on the evidence, decide whether the change was overall positive or negative. Remember that value judgements are not always 'right' or 'wrong' but depend on how well the evidence supports your judgement.

Here's an example of evaluating the change to media use in the home after World War II:

Step	Example: The rise of television
Identify the change	By the end of the 1960s, half of Australian homes had a television
Examine the effects	Greater access to home entertainment, rising consumerism and a drop in cinema use
Assess the advantages and disadvantages	**Advantages:** Educational opportunities and a broader cultural outlook **Disadvantages:** Americanisation of culture and decreased physical activity
Consider the broader context	Similar changes were happening all over the world
Make a value judgement	Overall this change helped shape Australian culture and led to the growth of our own cultural industries

Cause and effect

Cause and effect relationships are all around us. For instance, when you water plants, they grow taller and healthier. In this case, watering is the cause, and the effect is the plants' growth. Similarly, when you press a button, the television turns on.

The cause is pressing the button, and the effect is the television turning on. Understanding cause and effect will help you to make sense of how actions lead to specific outcomes.

It is essential to understanding many aspects of our world.

Source 9: A statue of Robert E. Lee, a general in the US Confederate Army that fought to retain slavery, unveiled in 1890 and the first memorial on Monument Avenue in Richmond, Virginia. In 2021, his memorial became a focus of the Black Lives Matter protests that erupted in many countries.

To understand cause and effect relationships, you need to identify which events are linked and understand why they are connected. When things are linked by cause and effect, they have a *causal link*. This means that one thing *caused* the other.

Most things that happen have multiple causes and effects, some of which are more important than others.

Two main types of causes are:

- **historical actors**: the individuals or groups involved – for example, Karl Marx, Adolf Hitler and Eleanor Roosevelt
- **historical conditions**: the social, political, economic, cultural and environmental factors – for example, mass unemployment, drought, economic downturn and war.

However, just because one event occurred after another does not always mean that the first event caused the second event; for example, when the rooster crows in the morning, we do not think it makes the sun rise.

You also need to be able to provide a logical reason about why something caused an effect. Events in history are not inevitable. When we study cause and effect, it can seem like things were always going to work out in a certain way. Yet, change a few conditions and things could have happened differently. If Karl Marx and Frederick Engels had not written about capitalism, would communism and socialism have developed differently across the world? It is easy, with hindsight, to think our cause-and-effect explanations are perfect, so we need to be cautious when making claims about cause and effect.

1 I can identify a cause and an effect

Recognising a cause and its effect means correctly choosing from a list of possibilities. Consider the outbreak of World War I (1914). Which of the following options is most likely to be an immediate cause of the war?

A Russia invades Germany.

B Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie are assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia.

C Austria-Hungry and Italy form the Triple Alliance.

D First dreadnought battleship is launched, revolutionising naval warfare.

The only option linked to the outbreak of World War I is B. Option A happened after the outbreak of war. Option C was not an immediate cause of the war. And option D was not a cause as such.

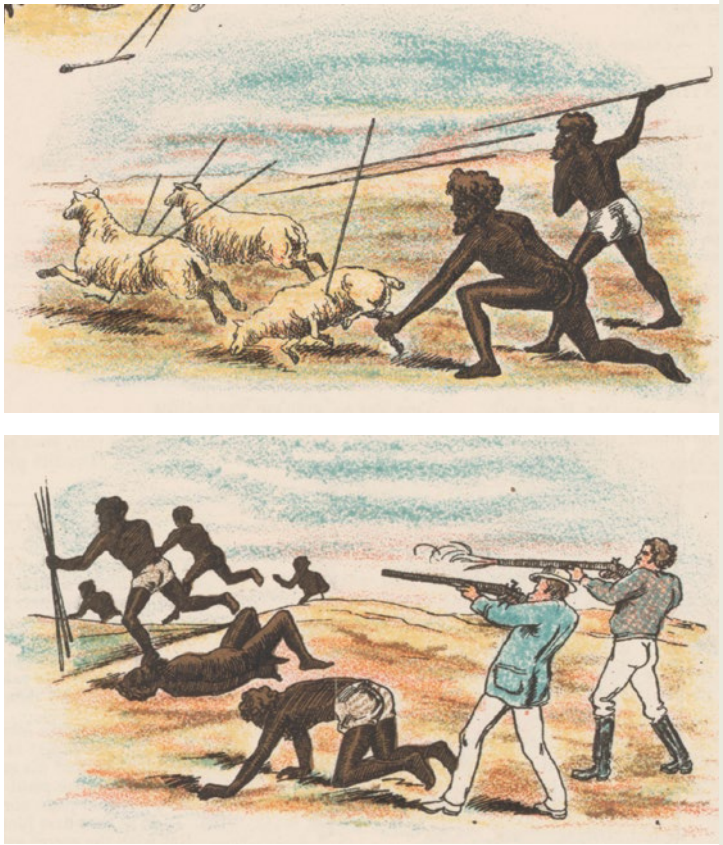
For events to be causally linked:

- one event must come before the other
- you must be able to provide a logical reason for why one event caused the other
- if possible, you should have evidence that one event caused the other.

2 I can describe causes and effects

Describing a cause and its effects requires you to give detailed information. Describing involves more than identifying. For this step in the skill, you could describe the cause or the effect or both. For example:

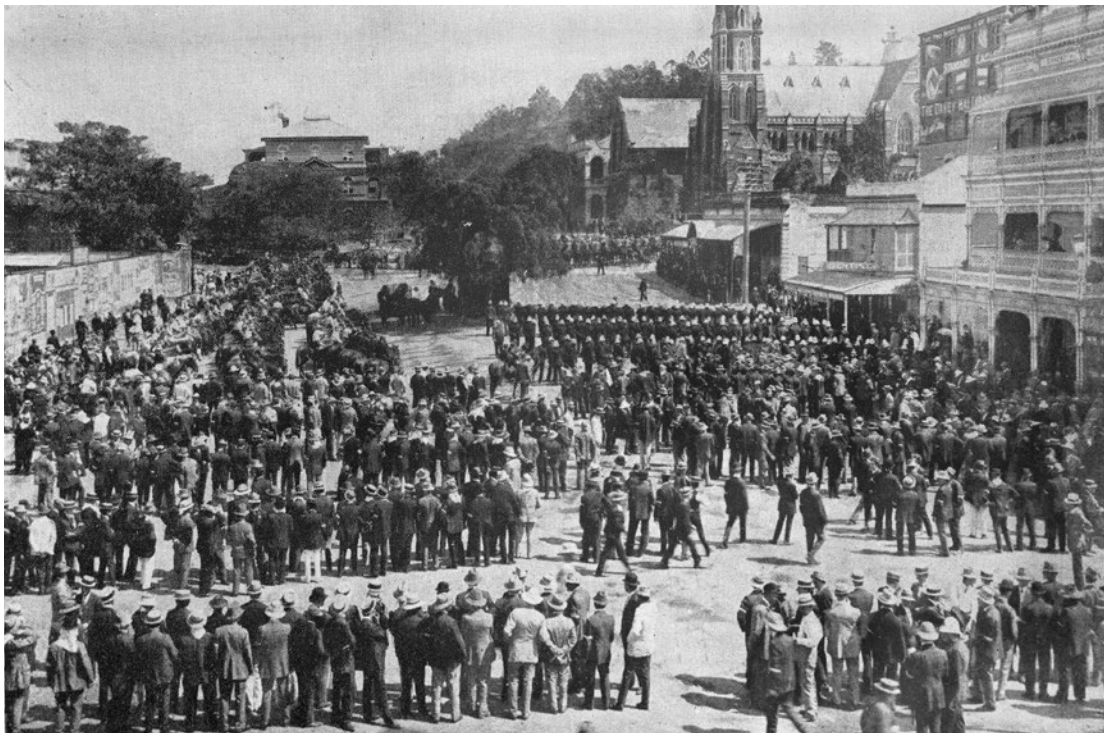
Description of the cause	Description of the short-term effect	Description of the long-term effect
The Monument Avenue statue of Robert E. Lee was seen by many to be a symbol of racism.	The monument was covered with graffiti in protest.	The monument and others like it were removed, and these sorts of monuments were not erected again.



Source 10: A.S. Broad (1886), *Aboriginal Life of Australia*. The illustrations show the connection between a cause (top) and a consequence (bottom). The killing of sheep resulted in colonisers attacking those people who killed the sheep.

3 I can explain how something was caused or its effect

'Explaining how' involves writing about the process by which something was caused or its effect. This type of explanation is about the steps, the sequence or the process.



Source 11: The Brisbane Tramways Company's refusal to allow employees to form industrial unions and wear union badges (cause), led to the 1912 Brisbane general strike (effect) – a widespread strike for the right to unionise and organise for better conditions.

Cause	Effect	Explaining how the cause led to the effect
British prisons became overcrowded.	Convicts were transported to Australia.	Changing economic and social conditions led to a rise in crime. British prisons and prison hulks (ships) became overcrowded and by the 1770s over 50 000 convicts had been sent to the American colonies. New South Wales was chosen as a new destination for convicts. The first convicts arrived in Sydney in 1788.

▲ **Source 12:** A group of convicts pull a cart while others labour on the road under military guard on Norfolk Island in 1847. [National Library of Australia]

4 I can explain why something was caused or why it led to certain effects

Explaining *how* focuses on the sequence of events – describing what happened and how one event led to another. Explaining *why* goes deeper by identifying the reasons an event occurred or identifying why it had a range of effects. You need to look at the intentions or circumstances that caused people or societies to act, or the circumstances that ensured a cause produced certain effects. Typical motivations for change in history include:

- **political power:** wanting to gain or maintain control
- **economic gain:** wanting wealth, trade opportunities or resources
- **social equality:** pursuing justice, human rights or societal reform
- **religious beliefs:** wanting to spread or reform a particular belief system
- **technological advancement:** needing to innovate to solve problems or gain advantages
- **military security:** needing to defend existing lands or conquer new lands for protection.

Cause (motivation)	Effect
Political power in Nazi Germany: Adolf Hitler sought to consolidate power.	In 1933, the *Enabling Act* started the process of turning the Weimar Republic into a single-party dictatorship driven by totalitarianism and Nazi ideology, with Hitler as its all-powerful leader.
Social equality: First wave feminists strove to obtain equal rights for women.	Campaigns run by women like Vida Goldstein saw women gain the right to vote in countries like Australia, New Zealand and Britain from the 1890s.

5 I can analyse cause and effect

'Analysing' means breaking down something into its separate parts. If you can identify the different parts, and explain how together they make up the whole, you are analysing. If you can explain the rules or theories that show how these parts are organised, you are analysing.

The first step is being able to break down something into its parts. For example, what led Britain to colonise what is now Australia? We can break down the cause into four parts:

- Cause 1: Britain had superior military forces.
- Cause 2: Britain wanted a new colony to send convicts to.
- Cause 3: Britain saw potential economic advantages in colonising Australia.
- Cause 4: Britain saw strategic advantages in colonising Australia.

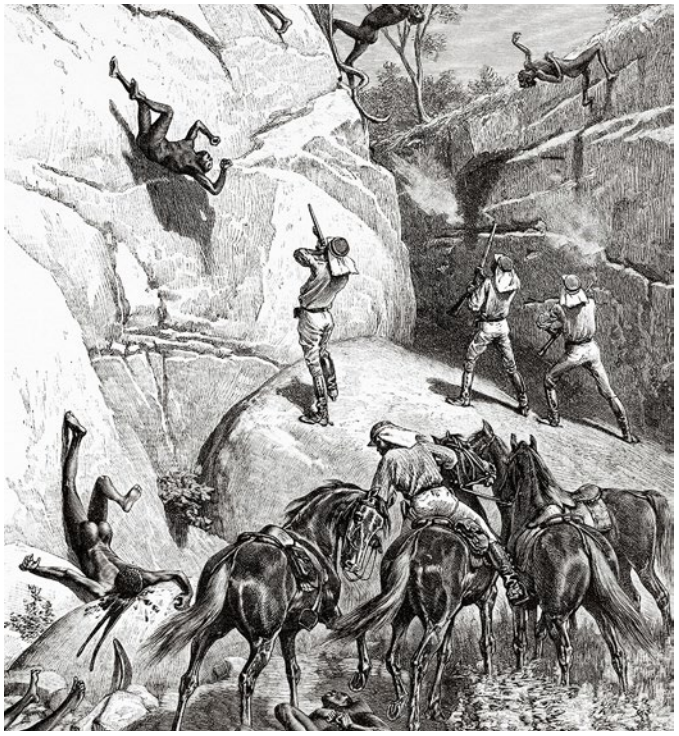
Breaking down the cause is the first part of the analysis. Now we can explain how these combined causes led to Britain colonising Australia:

Britain needed a place to send its excess convict population. Because the British had superior weapons, it was able to colonise Aboriginal lands. Britain was also concerned that imperial rivals, like France, might colonise the country before them.

Here, we have linked Causes 1, 2 and 4 together. Next, you need to decide how strong the causal link is.

Once you have decided how strong the causal link is, here are some words you can use to describe it:

- If something had a minor effect, you could say:
  The lives of First Nations Peoples were only affected to a small extent by the introduction of rabbits.
- If something had a major effect, you could say:
  The lives of First Nations Peoples were significantly affected by European colonisation.



▲ **Source 13:** There was a large causal link between hardships faced by First Nations Peoples in Australia and the arrival of colonisers in 1788. This illustration from the 19th century shows policemen on horseback shooting First Nations Peoples. [This illustration by Carl Lumholtz appeared in *Le Tour du Monde* in 1889.]

Perspectives

Perspectives are different ways of looking at the world or different points of view. A person's **perspective** is influenced by their culture, social class, wealth, where they live and their gender. It is important for historians to understand the perspectives of people who lived in the past. This helps us to avoid 'presentism', which is when we mistakenly see the past from our own modern point of view, which can be very different from the perspectives of the people who lived at the time.

1 I can identify the perspective of a person from the past

To identify the perspective of a person who lived in a particular period in the past, imagine what that person might have thought. Try putting yourself in their shoes.

Here are some examples of the points of view of people from the past:

Example	Perspective they might have
Late 19th-century capitalist	Nothing should get in the way of progress.
Imperial nationalist	We are proudly part of the British Imperial family.
Nun	We must trust in God.

2 I can describe perspectives

'Describing' is when you explain something in detail. Describing a perspective from the past is when you learn about a person's views and then use key details to paint a vivid picture of life from their perspective. For example, you watch a documentary about the life of socialist William Lane who established a utopian settlement in Paraguay. You can then describe their perspective by writing, 'William Lane believed that his followers would have better lives if they lived in a commune under his care and guidance'.

3 I can explain a perspective

'Explaining a perspective' is when you say why a person from the past had a certain point of view. People in the past often held very different views to those held by people today. For example, in Australia around Federation, many people believed that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were a 'dying race' and were not worthy of citizenship.

In addition, like today, there were different perspectives on the future of Australia:

- Some people believed in a 'White Australia', while others supported immigration from non-European countries.
- Trade unions wanted to protect workers' rights, but business owners often opposed new labour laws.

Source 14: Ned Kelly was a bushranger and convicted murderer who was hanged at Old Melbourne Gaol on 11 November 1880. Some people, however, saw him as a hero of the people who defied the authorities, the rich squatters and the banks and fought for independence.

Perspective	Historical context	Explanation
Queen Victoria	The Victorian era (1837–1901) saw the acceleration of movements for rights and freedoms. However, it was generally a conservative time and many people, especially elites, opposed liberalisation (i.e. making things more equal), including Queen Victoria.	Queen Victoria was the monarch in a patriarchal society and had come to the throne after a long line of male monarchs. The system of government was also patriarchal and hierarchical. She opposed what she called 'this dangerous … unchristian and unnatural cry and movement of women's rights'. She considered women 'a helpmate for a man'.
First wave feminist	The first women's rights movement from the mid-19th century focused on legal rights. The women involved lobbied mainly for the right to vote. They were called suffragists.	The 19th century saw the rise of the modern middle classes. Articulate women who could read and write began to create networks and organise themselves into lobby groups usually linked to Christian and temperance movements. They began to gain political rights from the mid-1890s.

4 I can compare perspectives

'Comparing' is when you look at two things and identify what is the same and what is different. A good comparison makes an overall statement about how similar or different the two things are. Here are two examples:

Example	Similarities	Differences	Overall comparison statement
• Squatter • Selector	• Language • Male	• Squatters were wealthy. • Selectors were poor.	Squatters were the rural elite and they were mainly engaged in pastoralism. Life on selections was difficult and involved cropping. There were tensions between the two groups.
• Sydney Chinese worker • Waterside worker	• Male • Working class	• Religion • Race	White workers often had ill feelings towards Chinese migrant workers, who were seen as taking jobs from Australians.

5 I can evaluate historical perspectives

To evaluate historical perspectives, you need to understand the social and cultural settings that influenced people's beliefs and actions.

Evaluating historical perspectives involves thinking about why people made the choices they did. By looking at different viewpoints, you can gain a deeper understanding of historical events and actions.

Here are some steps you could follow to evaluate a perspective:

1 **Understand the historical context:** Identify the social and cultural settings that influenced people's beliefs and actions during the period you are studying.

2 **Examine evidence:** Use primary sources from the period, such as artefacts or written historical records, to gather information about people's perspectives.

3 **Consider multiple viewpoints:** Explore the differences between the perspectives held by different groups of people (e.g. from different social classes). Use your understanding of these differences to form a more complete understanding of the historical situation.

Here's an example from the history of socialism.

Perspective: Karl Marx's three-volume analysis of capitalism, titled *Capital* (vol 1, 1867), greatly influenced political leaders, unionists and intellectuals.

Millions of copies of his books were sold and read. Marxism became the dominant political ideology in countries including Russia and Cuba. Statues of Marx have been erected in many countries.

Many working-class people read Marx's work in the 19th century. But perhaps most were more concerned about their working conditions and families rather than Marxist political economy.

Significance

How do we decide which events or time periods in the past are important? Not all events, people or developments hold the same weight. By understanding historical significance, you can prioritise information and make sense of the huge amount of historical evidence.

1 I can identify something historically significant

'Significant' means important – something worth noting. So 'identifying something historically significant' means deciding whether an event, person or development is important.

To identify if something is significant, ask yourself: Was it important back then? Were people deeply affected? Did it affect a lot of people for a long time? Is it still relevant to modern times? If you answer 'yes' to these questions, the event, person or development is likely to be historically significant.

2 I can describe something historically significant

'Describing historical significance' involves writing in detail about the importance of an event, person or development. For example:

Event	Establishment of the United Nations in 1945, with 51 founding members including the United States and Australia.
Immediate impact	The UN *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* was published in December 1948.
Long-term impact	Several other conventions and declarations were adopted in later years to cover the rights of different groups of people. The UN currently has 193 sovereign states as members.
Description of historical significance	This has been perhaps the most influential document in the 20th and 21st centuries and will continue to shape the progression of civil rights into the future.

3 I can explain something historically significant

Explaining historical significance means describing how or why something is important.

To help you explain why something (such as an event) was historically significant, you can ask a series of questions, such as how many people were affected and how long were they affected? The answers will help you formulate your answer. The example below uses these questions to explain the historical significance of the 1967 referendum.

Question	Example: The 1967 referendum
How important was it to people at the time?	It was extremely important for First Nations people and civil rights activists, as well as to Australians concerned about civil rights.
How deeply were people affected?	First Nations people and their supporters were jubilant at the outcome.
How many people were affected?	Millions of Australians were affected by the outcome of the referendum.
For how long were they affected?	The outcome had an ongoing impact on Australians.
How does the event help us understand the modern world?	It helps us understand that change can take time to occur and that civil rights movements have been critical to shaping the modern world.
Did the event change people's ideas or beliefs?	It helped change some people's ideas about the historical treatment of First Nations people.
Does the event reveal any important themes or patterns in history?	The referendum highlighted the themes of social justice and the treatment of minorities historically.

4 I can explain why something is historically significant

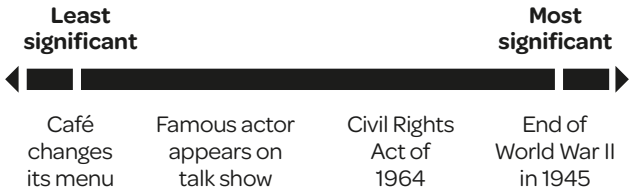
You can use primary and secondary sources to help you explain why something is historically significant. The steps in this process include finding sources, identifying what those sources say about an event, then using that information to determine the significance of the event. For example:

Event	The establishment of the Aboriginal Tent Embassy in front of Old Parliament House, 26 January 1972
Relevant sources	• Primary sources, such as photographs, newspaper articles and oral histories • Secondary sources, such as history textbooks and scholarly articles about the Tent Embassy and First Nations land rights
What the sources say about the event	Four First Nations men put up a beach umbrella on the lawns of Parliament House calling it the Aboriginal Embassy. They were protesting the McMahon Liberal government's attitude to land rights. The Embassy was moved until it finished up in its current site in 1992.
Determine the historical significance of the event from the sources	The Aboriginal Tent Embassy is historically significant as the first national and permanent symbol of First Nations people's struggle for land rights and self-determination.

Source 15: The Aboriginal Tent Embassy remains as a permanent protest site.

5 I can evaluate historical significance

Historical significance is not black and white; it can be shown on a scale, like this one:



Question	Example of low historical significance	Example of high historical significance
Event	The construction of a headstone for a drowned sailor	The construction of Old Parliament House
Importance at the time	Only important to family and fellow sailors	The building had national and international importance as the seat of Australia's federal government
Depth of impact	Limited to a small group of people directly involved	Old Parliament House was a national focal point at the time
Quantity affected	Affected a handful of local workers, family members and friends	Affected the entire nation in different ways
Duration of impact	The headstone's significance faded over time	Old Parliament House continues to be highly important but its significance has changed over time, especially since the construction of New Parliament House
Relevance to today	Little relevance today beyond local and family historical interest	The building remains highly significant and functions as the Museum of Australian Democracy
Extent of significance	The impact was minor and localised, with no lasting influence	Old Parliament House had a significant and enduring impact on the Australian nation due to its role in our democracy

Contestability

History is not just a list of facts. What we think we know about the past changes all the time as we uncover more information and interpret things in different ways. Historical knowledge is always being contested, or questioned and challenged. **Contestability** refers to determining the validity of different **interpretations**.

2 I can identify a historical debate

Historians do not always agree on exactly what happened in the past. Even though they are looking at the same evidence, they might interpret this evidence differently.

One historian might interpret the federation of the Australian colonies as mainly a product of economic circumstances. Another might emphasise the power of the White Australia policy. Both historians use the same facts but provide different interpretations of what caused the colonies to federate.

Source 16: Thomas Nast's celebration of the emancipation of Southern slaves with the end of the American Civil War. Wood engraving, 1865.

Source 17: Memorial to William Wilberforce (1759–1833), champion of the abolition of slavery, situated in the gardens of William Wilberforce House, Hull, England.

2 I can describe an interpretation of history

Describing a historical interpretation involves outlining the main ideas and arguments of a historian's viewpoint on a particular event or period. It is a good idea to use evidence from the interpretation to support your description. For example:

Topic	Historical interpretation	Describing the historical interpretation
Why was slavery abolished in Britain?	One argument is that evangelical politicians brought about the abolition of slavery.	William Wilberforce (1759–1833) was an evangelical Anglican member of the British parliament and a leader of the abolitionist movement. He believed that God had called him to end the immoral practice.

Source 18: Living conditions were very poor in many parts of Sydney around Federation. This is the rear of 2 Walton Place in the city, in 1900. [SLNSW, FL1137668]

3 I can explain an interpretation of history

When explaining a historical interpretation you need to think about what evidence has led to this interpretation. Use primary and secondary sources to help you explain how an interpretation has been formed.

> … [considering the] comprehensive documentary evidence available for the period [1860–1900], it become clear that by the century's close, Sydney's slum problem was acute … for city workers needing to reside near to their work, living conditions were as bad as they could be. Here was a major section of Sydney society a victim of … [slow] and largely disinterested government and living in sectors of the city where housing facilities, forgotten by absentee landlords, health authorities, city managers and parliament alike, were grim indeed.

Source 19: Max Kelly, *Picturesque and Pestilential: The Sydney Slum Observed 1860–1900*, Sydney University Press, 1978.

Topic	Historical interpretation	Explaining the interpretation using the source
Was Australia a workingman's paradise around Federation?	Economic and urban growth in cities like Sydney turned large parts of them into slums.	Around Federation, despite a reasonable average standard of living, most working-class people lived in poor conditions, without adequate sanitation or other services.

4 I can compare historical interpretations

When comparing historical interpretations, you need to explain the similarities and differences between historical interpretations. Are the interpretations completely different or are there some similarities?

Topic	Historical interpretation	Comparing the interpretations
Why was slavery abolished?	Humanitarian, moral and religious issues brought about the end of slavery.	Thomas Clarkson and William Wilberforce were the most prominent abolitionists in Britain. Both were brilliant publicists. In 1883, a strong campaign began in Britain to abolish the slave trade. Humanitarian, moral and religious argument found increasing support. Opinion was also changing in Europe.
	Economic factors were important to the abolition of slavery.	Economic factors were important in abolishing the slave trade. British merchants based in Liverpool were developing the palm oil trade with West Africa. Cuba and Brazil were major competitors to British West Indian sugar production and the merchants were concerned that their business would be harmed by illegal slaving.

5 I can evaluate the evidence supporting a historical interpretation

Evaluating the evidence supporting a historical interpretation is the final and most complex step. This involves assessing the quality, relevance and reliability of the evidence used to support a historical interpretation.

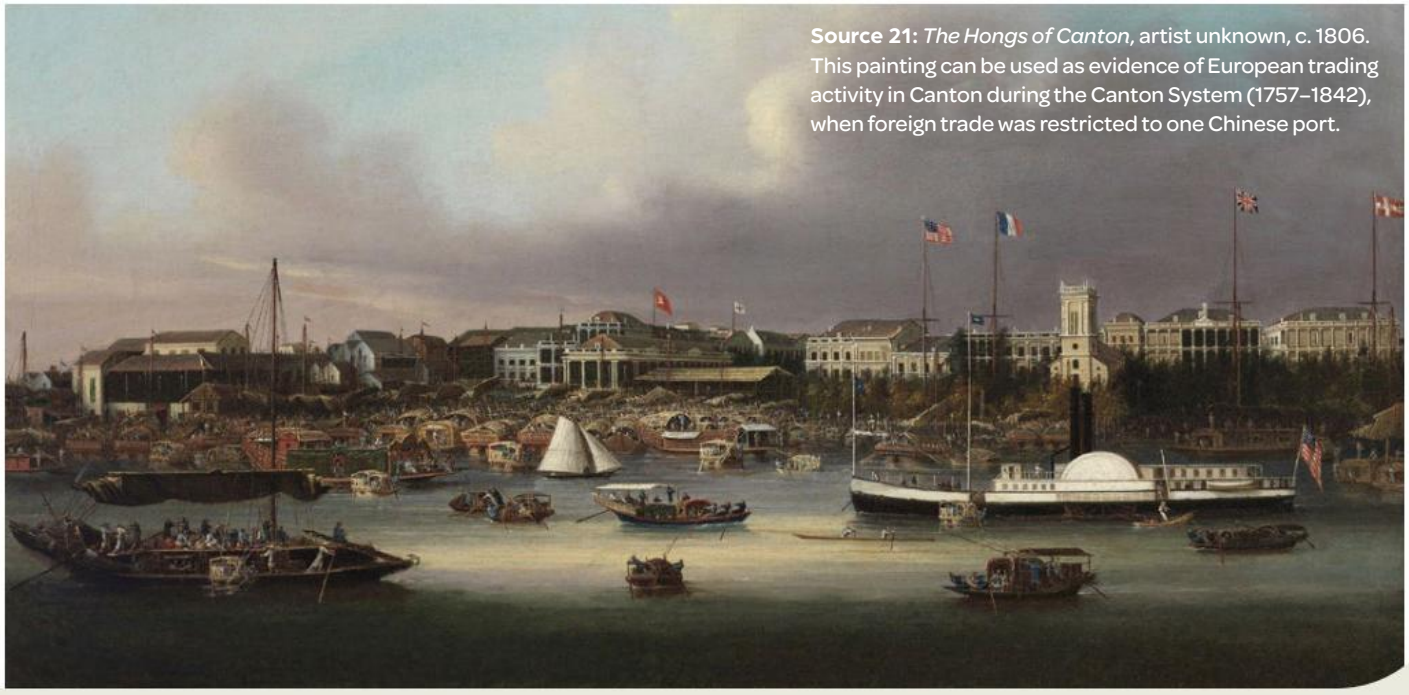
Source 20: During 1900, Bubonic plague – the Black Death – broke out in all Australian capital cities except Hobart. In Sydney, areas around the city's commercial wharves like The Rocks and Millers Point were quarantined. Local residents were employed to catch rats, which spread the disease by carrying plague fleas. The NSW government had photographers take photographs of affected parts of the city. They clearly show Sydney's slums. The photographs have been placed in the State Library of NSW and professionally catalogued.

For example, let us evaluate photographic evidence depicting plague-cleansing operations in Sydney in 1900:

Quality of the evidence	Consider the reliability of the source. For example, are the photographs authentic? Have they been accurately interpreted? Evaluate the credibility and reliability of the historians studying and writing about them.
Relevance of the evidence	Does the evidence directly support the historical interpretation that Sydney was not a 'workingman's paradise'? Are there other explanations?
Reliability of the evidence	Has the evidence been corroborated by multiple independent studies?
Evaluation	Based on your evaluation of the quality, relevance and reliability of the evidence, form your own judgement about whether Sydney was a workingman's paradise.

An evaluation of the evidence supporting a historical interpretation also considers the pros and the cons and then makes an 'on balance' judgement, taking the pros and cons into account. For example:

Evidence	Pro	Con	Evaluation
Quality of the evidence	Clear, catalogued photographic evidence of Sydney slums in 1900.	Some navigation tools may be incomplete or damaged, which limits their interpretive value.	The evidence demonstrates the condition of Sydney's slums in 1900.
Relevance of the evidence	There is a direct link between the images and arguments about slums in Sydney.	Alternative explanations for some photographs might exist.	The evidence demonstrates the condition of Sydney's slums in 1900.
Reliability of the evidence	Independent studies confirm the reliability of the evidence, including J.H.L. Cumpston and F. McCallum, 1926, *The History of Plague in Australia 1900–1925*, Government Printer, Melbourne; and Max Kelly, 1981, *Plague Sydney 1900*, Doak Press, Sydney.	The limited availability of certain tools may affect validation. Variations in cultural practices might lead to some inconsistencies in the evidence.	The evidence is highly reliable, showing strong agreement among studies and corroborating sources.



Source 21: *The Hongs of Canton*, artist unknown, c. 1806. This painting can be used as evidence of European trading activity in Canton during the Canton System (1757–1842), when foreign trade was restricted to one Chinese port.

How to develop a historical inquiry

Historians develop their knowledge of history by posing questions, finding new sources, weighing up the evidence and then forming their own interpretation. This process is known as historical inquiry.

What is a historical inquiry?

A historical inquiry allows you to research an aspect of a topic that you have studied and want to know more about. You begin by examining a range of resources, including books, websites, documentaries and films, to explore ideas relating to your specific topic area. You then start to form 'small' questions to develop your focus, such as:

- Who played a key role?
- What events occurred beforehand?
- In what ways did society change?

Once you have started to develop the small questions, you then conduct more detailed research. You can use this to help you form a 'big' question, such as 'What factors led to change?' or 'Why did the new ideology become popular?'

You need to have evidence from primary and secondary sources to support your view.

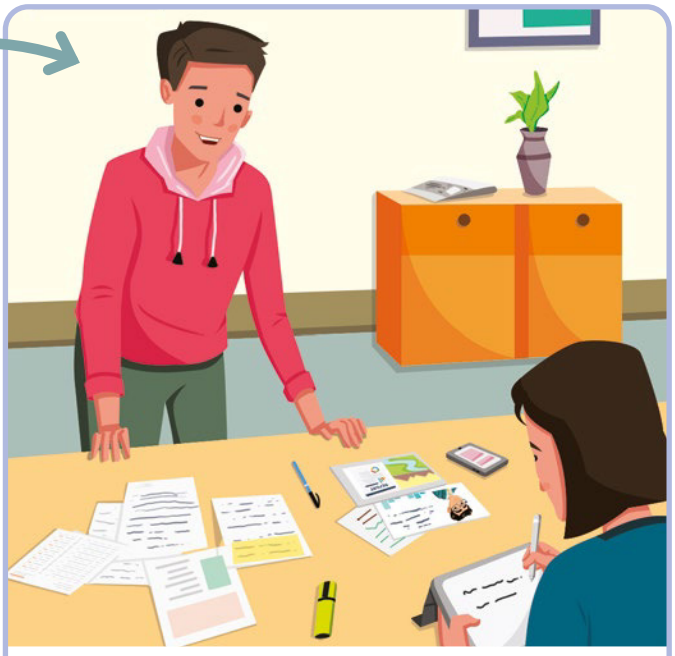
Conducting a historical inquiry is a bit like researching for an investigative podcast. Follow these steps to uncover your answers:

Step 1: Briefing

Start with a quick news briefing: list the key events, figures and issues you know about your topic. Brainstorm basic questions like 'What happened?', 'Who was involved?' and 'Why did it matter?' to pinpoint areas for further investigation.

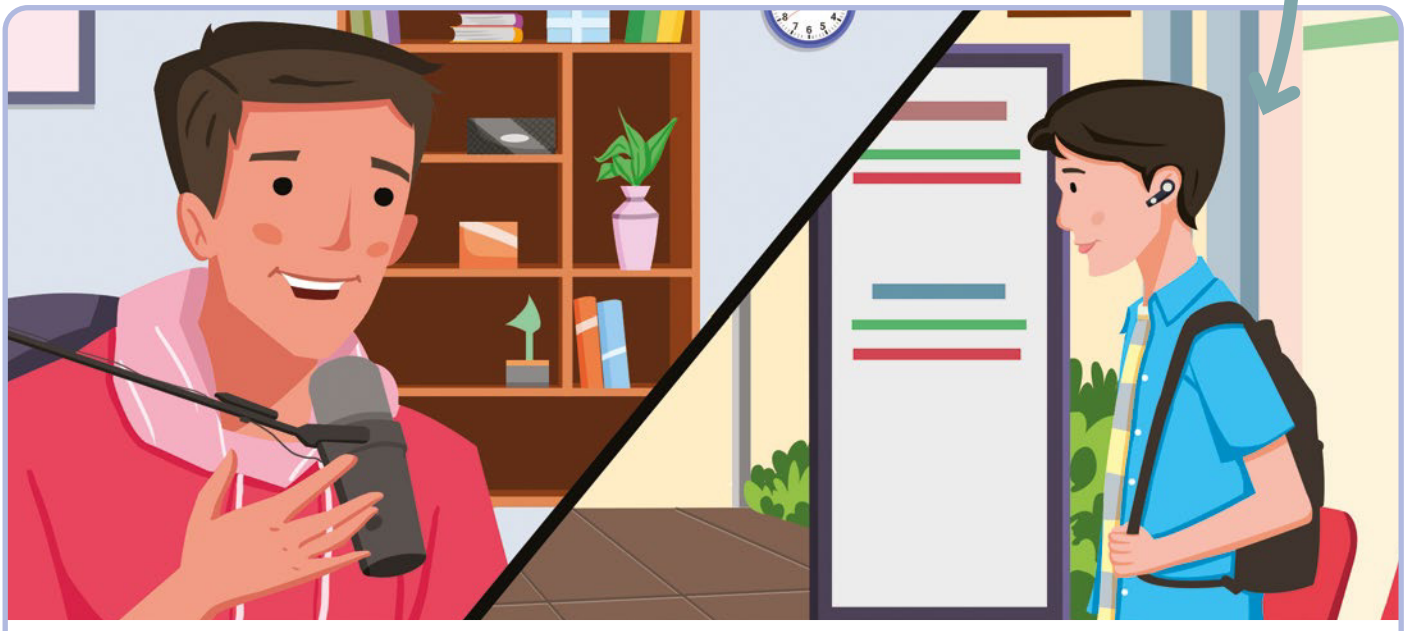
Step 2: Field report

Step into an investigative reporter's role by exploring diverse primary and secondary sources. Jot down notes, record quotes and collect images or clips that add context, just as you would gather material for a podcast.



Step 3: Exclusive

Review your evidence to find the key insights – your 'exclusive scoop'. Identify the turning points or major trends and determine the big question your investigation reveals. This is the main story behind the headlines.



Step 4: Presenting

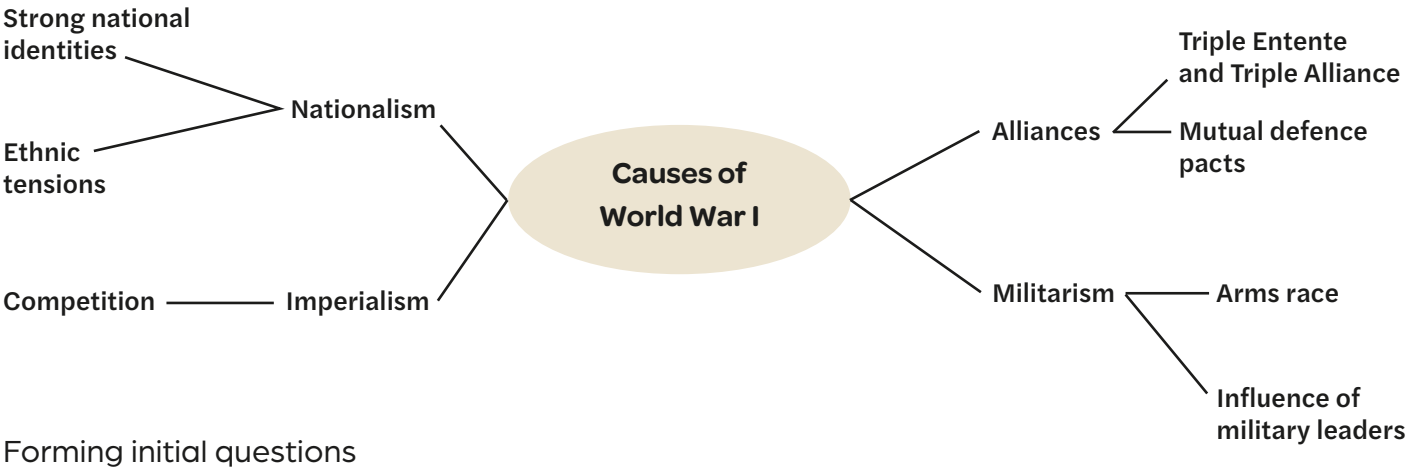
Finally, organise your findings into a clear and engaging narrative. Whether you record a podcast, produce a report or create a digital presentation, make sure you explain your evidence and show why your inquiry matters in modern history.

Step 1: Briefing

Rationale

To begin your inquiry, think about which aspects of modern history interest you the most – was it the politics of World War I, the technological innovations, the experiences of soldiers and civilians, or perhaps the social changes that followed? Why is it interesting to you and why is it important to learn about this topic?

Next, draw a simple mind map or compile a list of what you already know. Then highlight the areas you would like to know more about.



Forming initial questions

Now that you have summarised the knowledge you already know, you need to devise some questions to guide your next steps. These questions should start with the words *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *why* and *how*.

For example, suppose you are interested in mechanised warfare in WWI:

Who	What	When	Where	Why	How
Who pioneered mechanised warfare in WWI?	What are some examples of mechanised warfare in WWI?	When were these new technologies developed?	Where did mechanised warfare have the largest impact?	Why were these new technologies so important?	How did mechanised warfare change WWI battles?

Or in the rise of nationalist movements in Indonesia:

Who	What	When	Where	Why	How
Who were the leaders of Indonesia's nationalist movements?	What were the goals of these movements?	When did Indonesian nationalism first emerge?	Where were the movements located?	Why did Indonesians embrace nationalism?	How did Indonesians challenge colonial rule?

Step 2: Field report

Conducting research to find your evidence

Once you have your initial questions, you need to gather more evidence. Go back to the relevant pages in the chapter and select the information that answers your small questions.

Then begin your research. Go to the research section of this chapter (page 516) to guide your selection of research sources. These can include primary sources (from the time) and secondary sources (made after the time).

It is also important to consider perspectives (which show what different people thought at the time) and modern interpretations (what different historians have said about that time).

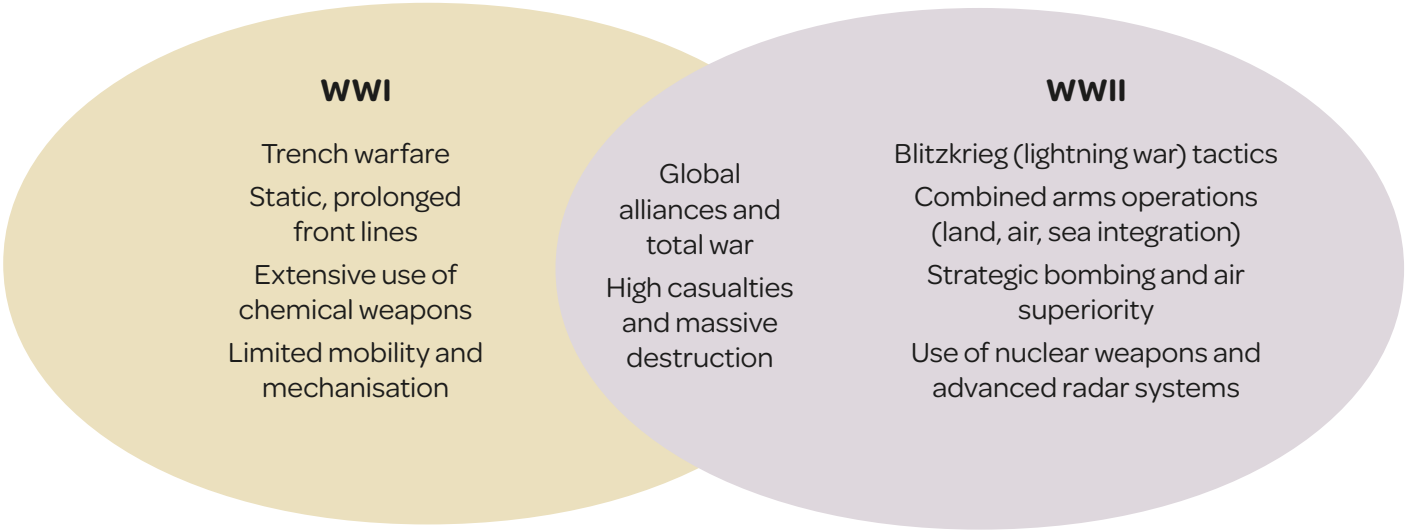
As you locate sources, organise them using the headings and/or table below. This can help determine whether the source is useful (gives you relevant information) and reliable (you can trust it).

Type of source? Primary or secondary?	Origin and purpose of source	Is this source reliable? Does it give you a perspective from the time or an interpretation of the time?	Which question(s) can it help to answer?
Example: Declaration of Independence (primary source) 	**Example:** 1776 Used to declare independence, assert inherent rights and justify separation from Britain.	**Example:** Reliable. Provides a genuine contemporary perspective, not a retrospective interpretation.	**Example:** • How does the document justify separation from Britain? • What Enlightenment ideas are evident in the language?

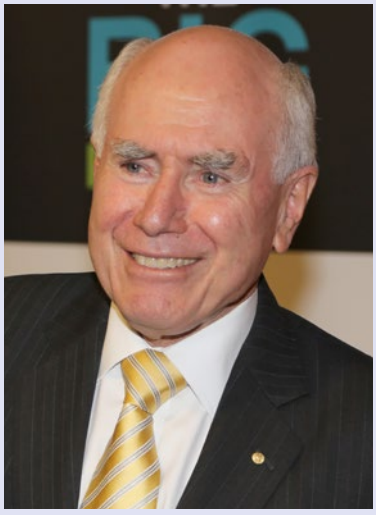
Sorting your evidence

Having collected the relevant information and source evidence, make notes to help you form your big question. Summarise or list the key points – this includes 'quotes' from written sources and descriptions of visual sources. You can use a graphic organiser such as a table, mind map, Venn diagram and/or colour coding to sort your evidence.

Here is an example of a Venn diagram comparing the nature of warfare in WWI compared to WWII.



Here is an example of an analysis table to evaluate the impact of former prime minister John Howard on Australian society:

What were John Howard's achievements?	Positive impacts	Negative impacts
 **Source 22:** John Howard, Australia's 25th prime minister (1996–2007)	• Boosted economic growth and improved fiscal stability • Strengthened Australia's ties with key allies, notably the United States • Provided a stable political climate during his term • Increased investment in infrastructure projects • Maintained strong electoral support at key points during his leadership	• Controversial asylum policies affecting refugees • Involvement in the Iraq War, which remains divisive • Economic reforms contributed to increased social inequality • Reduced funding for some social services • Criticised for policies perceived to erode civil liberties
• Modernised Australia's economy • Strengthened Australia's international alliances		

Step 3: Exclusive

Forming and answering your 'big' question

Once you have collected and analysed your evidence, you are ready to form and answer your big question.

This can be a 'what', 'how' or 'why' question. It could also be an evaluative question that requires you to make a judgement. Have a look at the Learning ladder below to find the type of question that is right for you. Can you challenge yourself to try the next level?

	Command term	Definition	Question type	Sample question
5	Evaluate	Make a judgement based on criteria	Evaluate	Evaluate the long-term impact of the Frontier Wars on First Nations communities.
4	Explain	Show the relationship between things (such as cause and effect)	Why	Why did colonial government policies escalate frontier conflicts?
3	Explain	Provide an explanation of how something happened	How	How did European settlement escalate conflict during the Frontier Wars?
2	Describe	Provide characteristics and features	What (describe)	What were the main characteristics of frontier warfare in Australia?
1	Identify	Recognise and name	What	What First Nations groups were involved in the Frontier Wars?

Discuss your ideas with a class member or your teacher. You may find there is more than one answer, or that your answer is different from others in your class.

This is fine, as long as you have the evidence to support your view.

Step 4: Present

Communicating your findings

It can be tempting to present every piece of evidence you have found; however, a historian has to consider what information is most useful in answering their question. You are presenting an explanation or an argument about history, so you need to make it engaging and relevant to your audience.

Use the presentation rubric below to select a suitable way to communicate your findings. Again, consider challenging yourself to try the next level.

Once you have selected an appropriate format and level, organise your findings into a clear narrative that explains your evidence, highlights your exclusive insights and shows why your inquiry matters. You can refer to the section 'How to write in history' in this chapter (pp. 518–521) for guidance.

Presentation rubric

5	I can write an extended response to evaluate the causes or effects of an event or the motivations of a key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images, footage, music and narration to evaluate the accuracy of a historical feature film.	I can create a 5-minute podcast that evaluates the causes or effects of an event or the motivations of a key individual.	I can create a diorama using primary sources and evaluate it for its representation of significance or perspectives.	I can evaluate my choice of artefacts for a museum display for how significance or perspectives is communicated.
4	I can write an extended response to explain why an event occurred or the motivations of a key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images, footage, music and narration to explain why an event occurred, or the motivations of a key individual.	I can create a 5-minute podcast that explains why an event occurred or the motivations of a key individual.	I can use primary sources to create a diorama of a key site or event and write a rationale to explain my decisions.	I can explain why I have chosen these artefacts to represent cause and effect.
3	I can write an extended response to explain how an event occurred or the role of a key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images, footage and narration to explain an event or key individual.	I can create a 3- to 4-minute podcast that explains an event or the role of a key individual.	I can use primary sources to create a diorama of a key site or event.	I can explain how these artefacts demonstrate significance or continuity and change.
2	I can write a paragraph to describe an event or key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images, footage and narration to describe an event or key individual.	I can create a 3-minute podcast that describes an event or key individual.	I can create a diorama of a key event using secondary source images and include descriptive labels.	I can label and describe artefacts for a virtual museum.
1	I can write descriptive sentences about an event or key individual.	I can create a film that includes relevant images and subtitles about an event or key individual.	I can create a 2-minute podcast about an event or key individual.	I can use secondary source images to create and label a diorama of a key event.	I can identify and label artefacts for a virtual museum.
	Written response	**Film**	**Podcast**	**Diorama**	**Museum display**
	Presentation format				

How to develop research skills

I can define the research topic

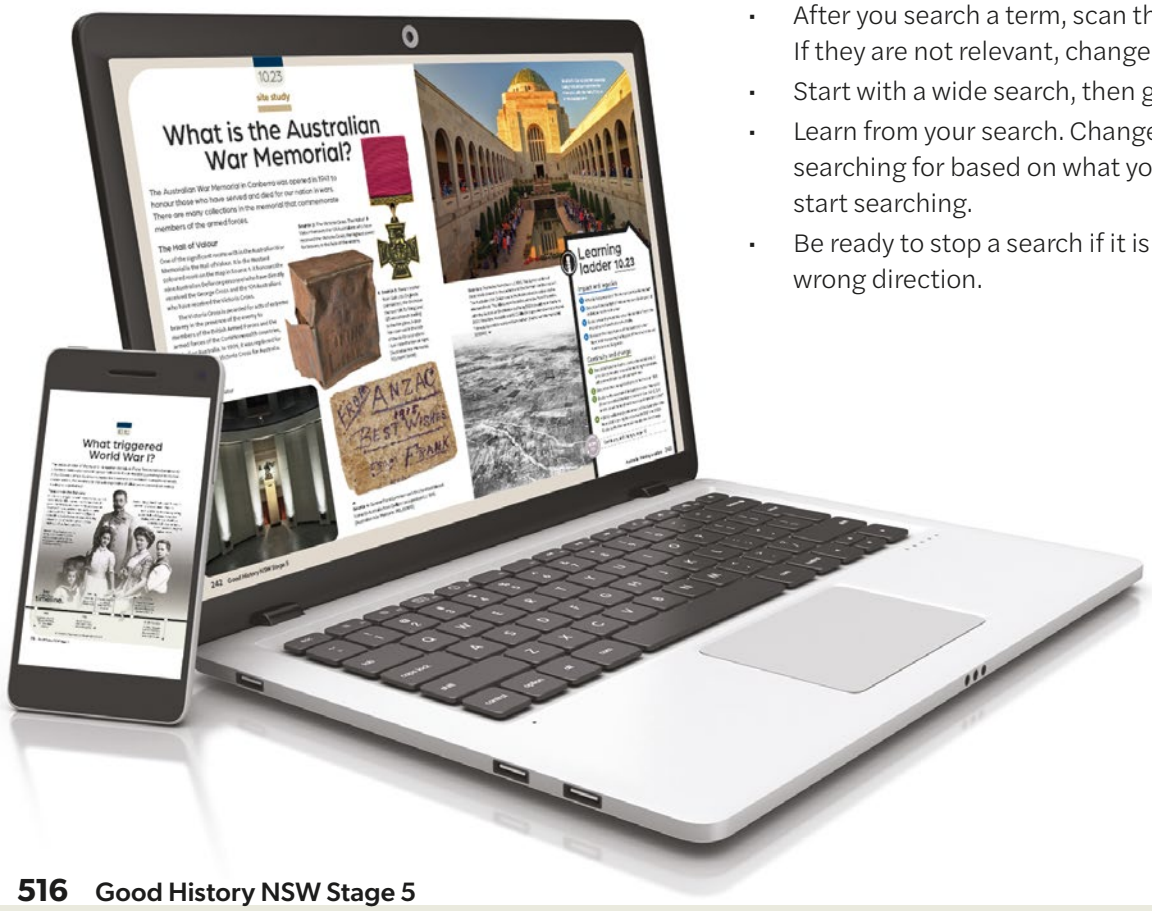
When researching a historical topic, a good place to start is to write a list of keywords for the subject. To do this, think of different ways of saying the topic, or search 'synonyms of ...' and insert the topic. Refer also to the section 'Developing a historical inquiry'. Pay particular attention to the 'Briefing' section (page 512), which is when you form your initial questions to guide your next steps.

I know how to find the evidence and information I need

What type of evidence do you need?

Include these words in your search:

- facts, examples, definitions, quotes, artefacts, images, data, statistics
- primary sources, secondary sources
- databases, links, archives, collections, references, research, museums, journals, graphs, tables and letters.



Where is your evidence?

There are many different types of websites to look at: scholarly works, databases, archives, reference sources and information pages.

How do you decide if evidence is credible?

Ask yourself the following questions:

- Is the content relevant? Is it useful for my purpose? Does it contain links to other relevant sources? Is it at an appropriate reading level?
- Is the source believable? What type of source is it? (Published or official sources are better.) Who is the author? (Experts are better.) When was it published? (Newer is usually better.) Is the source biased?
- Is the source true? Is it backed up by other sources?
- Does the source state where its information comes from? This means it is more likely to be credible (able to be believed).

Online search strategies

Following are some search strategies:

- After you search a term, scan the first page of results. If they are not relevant, change your search term.
- Start with a wide search, then get more specific.
- Learn from your search. Change what you are searching for based on what you learn after you start searching.
- Be ready to stop a search if it is taking you in the wrong direction.

Source 23: The Australian War Memorial at https://mea.digital/nrj has an amazing range of primary sources, along with virtual tours of the collections.

Tips for searching using Google

- Every word matters.
- The order of the words matters.
- Capitalisation does not matter.
- Punctuation does not matter.
- Specific search terms are better.
- Use these terms to narrow your search: AND, OR, NOT.
- A search with 'filetype:' will find specific files. For example, 'Vida Goldstein filetype:ppt' will find PowerPoint files about Vida Goldstein.
- A search with 'site:' will find things *within* a website. For example, 'boomerang site: nma.gov.au' will find boomerang-related material from the National Museum of Australia website.
- Use the tabs along the top for different types of results such as images, news, videos, maps and books.
- Use a hyphen to exclude words and narrow your search. For example, 'Great Wall-takeaways' will find information about the Great Wall of China, not a fast-food outlet.
- Search for a range of numbers using two full stops between speech marks: '..' For example:
  - '2021..2024' searches between 2021 and 2024
  - '..2024' searches before 2024
  - '2024..' searches after 2024.
- An asterisk acts as a wildcard. For example, 'teen*' will return results with any of the words *teen, teens, teenager* in them.
- Use exact phrase searching by putting speech marks around a search phrase to find exact text.

I can extract information

This stage involves the 'Field report' and 'Exclusive' steps in the 'Developing a historical inquiry' section (see pages 513 and 514). You need to gather your evidence and then form and answer your 'big' question.

I can organise and present information

This is when you communicate your findings to your audience. Refer to the 'Present' section on page 515 for guidance.

I can evaluate my research

You can improve every time you conduct research by asking yourself these questions after you finish:

- What worked? What did not work?
- How could I work smarter next time?
- Can I apply what I have learned to other situations?
- How could I have improved:
  - the project?
  - the way I worked on my project?
  - the way I managed my time?

How to write in history

I can organise information to convey understanding

Before starting to write, take a moment to visualise the bigger picture and plan your structure. The type of question you are responding to will determine the structure you use. Consider:

- What is the command term (e.g. discuss, compare, evaluate, explain) asking me to do?
- What kinds of paragraphs will best address the question?
- Should I structure my body paragraphs to compare different perspectives, analyse cause and effect or evaluate evidence?

For example, imagine you want to communicate your findings on the topic:

> **Discuss how significant the establishment of the Australian Federation was for national identity.**

This is a 'discuss' type question, so you will need to present both supporting and opposing arguments, then make a judgement. The body paragraphs could be structured as follows:

Source 24: In the wake of Federation, the Australian flag was chosen through a public contest. It was first flown, in its original form, on 3 September 1901. Its design was later modified slightly to account for the Territories, and it was officially adopted in that form as the Australian flag in 1954.

1. Explain how Federation created a single government and national institutions (e.g. the Commonwealth Constitution, federal parliament) that fostered national identity, noting limitations (e.g. persistent regional loyalties).
2. Discuss how national symbols (e.g. the flag, anthem, Australia Day) emerged to promote a shared sense of belonging. Consider how these symbols did not fully represent regional diversity.
3. Evaluate Federation's influence on Australian identity, comparing its strengths with ongoing regional and cultural debates. Conclude with a balanced judgement reflecting both sides.

Other historical writing structures you might encounter include:

Analysing	Comparing and contrasting	Evaluating
Break down the causes and effects (e.g. analyse how early convict experiences contributed to later political developments).	Look at similarities and differences (e.g. compare the experiences of different colonies leading to Federation).	Weigh the evidence to judge significance (e.g. evaluate the long-term impact of Federation on national identity).

This step helps you structure your ideas in a way that directly matches the demands of your question, ensuring your final response is organised and focused.

I can write a draft

Begin by writing your paragraphs to get your ideas down. Don't worry about perfection at first; your draft is for organising your thoughts.

- Focus on answering the question directly.
- Don't stress over punctuation or grammar – you'll fix these later.
- If possible, type your draft so you can easily rearrange and edit your work.
- Write the body paragraphs first, then the introduction and conclusion.

I can synthesise and organise ideas

Your historical writing should have a clear structure, with an introduction, body paragraphs and a conclusion.

Introduction

The purpose of the introduction is to:

- show you understand the question
- state your overall response
- introduce your main points.

Model

In 1901, the Australian colonies united to form a Federation. This landmark event not only established a national government but also fostered a shared national identity through common symbols and ideals. However, regional differences mean that the impact of Federation remains debated.

Body paragraphs

A useful method to structure your body paragraphs is TEEL: **T**opic sentence, **E**vidence, **E**xplanation, **L**ink.

Topic sentence
Summarise the main idea of the paragraph.

Evidence
Provide specific examples (e.g. quotes from convicts' journals, details of the Eureka Stockade or Federation debates).

Model

Political unification through Federation was crucial for forging a national identity. For example, the adoption of a single Constitution and the formation of national institutions brought disparate colonies together under one legal framework. This unification enabled citizens to view themselves as part of one nation rather than separate colonies. Thus, the political structures established at Federation laid the groundwork for a collective Australian identity.

Explanation
Explain how the evidence supports your point.

Link
Connect the paragraph back to the main question.

Conclusion

The purpose of the conclusion is to:

- summarise your main points
- restate your answer to the question.

Model

The establishment of the Australian Federation was highly significant for national identity. Through political unification and the creation of national symbols, Federation laid the foundation for modern Australia, even though regional differences persist.

I can cite my sources

Accurate referencing is essential in historical writing to show where your evidence comes from and to give credit to original sources. When you include quotes, data or ideas from a source, always cite it using the required format. This not only strengthens your argument but also helps avoid plagiarism.

Remember to include a bibliography at the end of your work and double-check that all references match your in-text citations. Accurate referencing ensures your work is reliable and academically honest.

Chicago Author–Date referencing style examples

Journal article

Author name/s | Title (part) | Volume(Issue number)

Ashton, Paul. 2021. 'Statue Wars'. *Public History Review* 28(1), 1–18.

Year | Title (whole) | Page range

Book

Author name/s | Year | Title | Edition

Anderson, Mark, Paul Ashton, and Annika Fawcett. 2025. *Good History: NSW Stage 5* (2nd ed.). Melbourne, Vic: Matilda Education.

Place of publication: Publisher

Book chapter

Author name/s | Year | Title (part) | Title (whole)

Fricker, Aleryk. 2024. 'Challenging the Great Australian Silence'. In *Decolonising Australian History Education: Fresh Perspectives from beyond the 'History Wars'*, edited by Rebecca Cairns, Aleryk Fricker and Sara Weuffen, pp. 53–68. London, UK: Routledge.

Editor name/s | Page range

Place of publication: Publisher

Webpage

Author name/s | Year* | Title(part) | Title (whole)† | Access date

Australian War Memorial. n.d. 'The Story of ANZAC'. Australian War Memorial. Accessed 25 April 2024. https://www.awm.gov.au/articles/anzac.

URL

* n.d. means no date is given. This is quite common for webpages that are updated frequently.

† Website titles are not italicised, unlike book and journal titles.

In-text citations

In the body of your text, give the author surname and date. You may also want to give a page number:

(Ashton 2021, 11)

If you want to cite multiple sources, arrange them alphabetically:

(Ashton 2021; Australian War Memorial n.d.; Fricker 2024)

If you use the name in your writing, you just need to give the year and page number (if using one):

According to Aleryk Fricker (2024, 35) ...

I can edit and proofread my work

The aim of writing is to communicate your ideas clearly. Editing and proofreading are essential to refine your work.

Editing checklist

- [ ] Check that your text answers the question and meets all task requirements (e.g. does it include a bibliography, are pictures labelled if required?)
- [ ] Delete any words, sentences or paragraphs that do not contribute to your argument.
- [ ] Compare your work against the task criteria or rubric.
- [ ] Ask yourself: Does this paragraph clearly support my main point?

Proofreading checklist

- [ ] Look for errors in grammar, spelling and punctuation.
- [ ] Read your work aloud or ask someone else to review it.
- [ ] Use strategies like reading sentences backwards to spot mistakes.
- [ ] Print your draft if possible to catch errors you might miss on screen.

Model

The new Constitution in 1901 pulled the six colonies into one county so they could make laws about defence and trade however many people felt nervous about losing their own state rules. According to one historian, the first Commonwealth Parliament helped people 'think as Australians, not just as Victorians or Queenslanders'. It also gave men and women the same voting rules across the country.

New symbols backed up these legal changes. The brand-new flag was soon flying over schools and post offices, and the coat of arms turned up on coins by 1912. Australians still loved weekend cricket matches, which had been popular since the 1800s. A student in Melbourne commented, 'seeing the flag in class made me feel part of something bigger' (Smith 1903, 14). These shared symbols therefore reinforced the way Federation helped Australians see themselves as one people.

Run-on sentence

Two independent ideas are jammed together without proper punctuation.

Edit: Split at however: ... trade. However, ...

Missing citation

Direct quotations need a citation.

Edit: Add (Brett 2016, 22) immediately after the quote (using the source's actual year + page).

Off-topic detail

The cricket fact predates 1901 and doesn't support the argument about Federation's impact.

Edit: Delete, or replace with a symbol that emerged because of Federation.

Spelling

Incorrect spelling that would likely be missed by a spell check program. Reading aloud helps to catch these.

Edit: Change to 'country'.

Missing link sentence

This paragraph ends without reconnecting to the essay question.

Edit: Add a final sentence, such as 'These changes laid the foundation for a shared Australian identity.'

Glossary

abdication the formal act of giving up a position of power

accessibility designing products, environments and services so they can be used by people with disabilities

accuracy how close something is to the truth or to known facts

agrarian relating to farming, land use and rural life, especially where agriculture is the main economic activity

agricultural revolution a period of significant change in farming techniques and productivity, often marked by innovations such as crop rotation and enclosure that greatly increased food production

air pollution the presence of harmful substances such as smoke or chemicals in the air that can affect human health and the environment

alliance formal agreement between countries to support each other in times of conflict

Anschluss the 1938 union of Austria with Germany

antiquated old-fashioned or outdated

anti-Semitic hostile to or prejudiced against Jewish people

anti-Semitism hostility towards or prejudice against Jewish people

ANZUS Treaty the 1951 security agreement between Australia, New Zealand and the United States

appeasement a policy of pacifying an aggressive country through negotiation to prevent war

arithmetic change or growth that occurs at a constant rate over a set time

armistice an agreement to lay down arms and stop fighting

arms race a competition between nations to develop and accumulate the most powerful weapons

Aryanisation removing Jewish people and other minorities to 'purify' the Aryan race under Nazi ideology

Aryans an ancient Indo-European people that the Nazis wrongly claimed as ancestors of all 'pure' Germans

assassination the killing of a prominent figure

assignment (convict) the system of allocating convicts to free settlers to work on farms or businesses in the colony

assimilate replacing the language and culture of a non-dominant group with those of the dominant group

assisted migration government-subsidised migration that reduces costs for people moving to a new country

asylum seeker a person who leaves their country to apply for refugee status elsewhere

austerity the reduction of spending and use of resources, often imposed in wartime or economic crisis

Australian Imperial Force (AIF) the main expeditionary force of Australian troops during World War I

Australian Natives' Association a group formed to promote unification of the colonies and support native-born Australians

auxiliary services support roles that help the main forces, such as cooks, nurses or drivers during wartime

baby boomers people born between 1946 and 1964 who had a significant influence on popular culture

Bible language the formal style of English found in some Bible translations

bilingual (education) where students learn academic content (e.g. math, science) through two languages, developing proficiency in both

biodiversity the variety of plant and animal life in a habitat or on Earth as a whole

bipartisan support when the two major political parties agree on an issue or policy

blackbirding the practice of deceiving, coercing or kidnapping Pacific Islanders to work as plantation labour in Australia

blank cheque an unconditional promise of support without limits

Blitzkrieg lightning war – a fast, aggressive style of warfare designed for quick victory

boat people refugees who fled their country by sea, especially those who left Indochina after the Vietnam War

bourgeoisie in Marxist theory, the class of people who own the means of production and profit from the labour of others

boycott to refuse to buy, use or participate in something as a form of protest

buffer a neutral zone or state that separates two rival powers and reduces the chance of conflict

capital wealth in the form of money or other assets that is available for investing

capitalism a political and economic system in which private individuals and companies own property and goods and compete to make a profit

carbon footprint the total amount of greenhouse gases produced by human activities, measured in carbon dioxide equivalent

castes the class structure in India determined by birth

casual racism where a person makes a comment or joke in an offhand manner that perpetuates racial stereotypes and is often downplayed or denied

cause something that makes an event happen or brings about a result

child labour the employment of children in work that deprives them of their childhood or education, or harms their development

child marriage the formal marriage of a person under the age of 18

civil disobedience the peaceful refusal to obey certain laws as a form of political protest

civil liberties basic rights and freedoms guaranteed to individuals, such as freedom of speech and assembly

climate change a long-term change in average weather patterns, often linked to human activities such as burning fossil fuels

Cold War the period of political, military and ideological rivalry between the United States and the USSR from 1945 to 1991

collectivisation the transfer of private farmland and livestock to state-owned farms

Colombo Plan the intergovernmental program created in 1951 to build relationships in Asia and the Pacific and promote development

colonise to settle in and take control of an area away from one's home territory

commemorate to honour or remember a person or event, typically with a ceremony or memorial

commune a group of people living together and sharing possessions, responsibilities and work

communism when a nation is run by an authoritarian government featuring a planned economy with equally shared resources

communist a person who believes in or supports a system where the government owns all property and resources are shared equally

concentration camp a Nazi prison camp where Jewish people and other minorities were imprisoned and forced to work under brutal conditions

concessions discounts or other favourable conditions, such as reduced prices or cheaper loans

concubine a woman in a recognised relationship with a man of high rank, often without the legal status of a wife

Confucian relating to the teachings of Confucius, which emphasise respect for family, social harmony, learning and moral behaviour

conglomerate a large company with diverse subsidiaries operating in different industries under one corporate umbrella

conscription compulsory military service for eligible people

conservation the protection and sustainable use of natural resources and environments to prevent loss

Constitution the set of fundamental principles that governs a nation

consumerism the economic and social ideology encouraging acquisition of goods and services in growing amounts

contaminated made impure or unsafe by harmful substances or pollutants

contestability the idea that an interpretation of the past can be challenged because of differing evidence or viewpoints

context the circumstances or background information that help explain an event, idea or source

continuity an aspect of life or society that stays the same over time

coolie a derogatory historical term for a manual labourer from Asia, often under exploitative conditions

corvée unpaid labour demanded by the state or ruling class as a form of tax or obligation

counterculture attitudes or beliefs that differ from societal norms

covenant an agreement or treaty

covert racism racism perpetrated in a concealed or subtle way that is still done with malice and the intent to harm

crematorium a facility in extermination camps where the bodies of murdered victims were burned

crimes against humanity acts such as murder, enslavement or deportation committed as part of a widespread or systematic attack on civilians

crop rotation farming method where different crops are grown in the same field in successive seasons to improve soil health and reduce pests

Cultivation System the Dutch colonial policy forcing Indonesian farmers to grow export crops under harsh conditions

cultural diversity the coexistence of different cultures within a society

decolonisation a colonising country leaving a territory, allowing it to form an independent state

deforestation the large-scale removal of forests, often to clear land for farming or urban development, which can cause environmental problems

degradation damage or deterioration in the quality and productivity of soil, water, vegetation or ecosystems

despot a ruler with absolute power who often rules cruelly or oppressively

dictation test a test once used in Australia to restrict immigration

dictatorship a form of government where one individual rules the country and makes all the decisions

diplomatic crisis a serious breakdown in relations between countries that risks or leads to conflict

displaced forced to leave one's home, often due to conflict, disaster or persecution

displaced persons people left without homes who were placed in temporary refugee camps after the Holocaust

dominion a self-governing community within the former British Empire recognising the Monarch as head of state

Domino Theory the belief that if one country fell to communism, neighbouring countries would soon follow

dowager a woman who holds a title or property from her deceased husband, especially in royal families

dowry money, goods or property brought by a bride to her husband at marriage

Dutch East India Company (VOC) a powerful Dutch trading company that colonised parts of Asia, including Indonesia

dynasty a family that maintains power over many years by handing the throne to an heir

economic migrant a person who relocates to another country for better economic prospects

egalitarianism the belief that all people should be equal and have the same political, economic and social rights

emancipist a convict who had been pardoned or granted freedom after serving their sentence

emigrant a person who permanently leaves one country to settle in another

emigration leaving one's own country to settle permanently in another

enclosure the process of dividing common land into privately owned plots by fences or hedges, often forcing tenant farmers to leave

enfranchise give the right to vote in political elections

Enlightenment an 18th-century European intellectual movement that emphasised reason, science and individual rights and influenced political and social change

entente a friendly understanding or alliance between countries

entrepreneur a person who sets up and runs a business

envoy a messenger or representative

erosion the wearing away of soil, rock or land by water, wind or ice

eugenics a movement focused on enhancing the genetic composition of humans, used by Nazis to promote 'purity'

euthanasia the deliberate ending of a life to relieve suffering, used by Nazis as a euphemism for murdering people with disabilities

evidence information from a source that helps a historian answer questions about the past

excise a government tax on certain goods produced or sold within a country

exclusives free settlers of higher social status who received preferential treatment such as better land allocations

expatriate a person who lives outside their country of birth

exploitation the unfair or cruel use of people or resources for personal gain

exponential change or growth that occurs more and more rapidly over a set period of time – for example, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32

extermination camp a Nazi facility designed for the mass murder of people using gas chambers and other methods

extrajudicial occurring without legal authority or outside the normal judicial (court) process, such as an unapproved arrest or punishment

false flag a covert action designed to appear carried out by another party to justify retaliation

fascism a political ideology that promotes strong authoritarian leadership, extreme nationalism and the suppression of opposition

Federation the process by which the six Australian colonies united to form Australia

female factory a facility where female convicts were housed and given labour assignments

feudal system a social, political and economic structure of mutual obligations between lords and vassals, exchanging land for loyalty and service

First Fleet the group of ships that carried the first convicts from Britain to Australia in 1788

forced migration the movement of people under coercion, such as slaves or convicts

fossil fuels fuels such as coal, oil and natural gas formed from ancient plants and animals that release energy and carbon dioxide when burned

free settlers people who chose to migrate to the colonies voluntarily, not as convicts

ghetto a section of a city where Jewish people were forcibly confined in overcrowded, poor conditions

global warming the gradual increase in Earth's average surface temperature caused mainly by greenhouse gases

golden age a period when a civilisation is at its peak of achievement and prosperity

guarantor a person or state that promises to take responsibility if another party fails to meet their obligation

guerrilla (conflict) irregular fighting by small groups using ambushes, sabotage and raids against larger forces

guerrilla (fighter) a member of a small group taking part in impromptu fighting against a larger organised force

guerrilla warfare fighting in which small groups use surprise attacks and ambushes against a larger organised force

handicraft a product made by hand using traditional skills

harmonise coordinate and align actions or policies among nations to achieve common goals

hawker a travelling salesperson who sells goods, often door-to-door or at markets

heritage the cultural, natural and built features, traditions and values inherited from past generations that are valued and preserved

Holocaust the systematic, state-sponsored persecution and murder of six million Jews by Nazi Germany during World War II

home front the civilian side of a nation during wartime, including economic and social changes

home rule the right for a region or colony to govern its internal affairs without interference from the ruling country

honorific a title or word used to show respect

hulk decommissioned warship converted into a floating prison to house convicts

humanistic describing a system of thought with primary importance attached to human rather than religious matters

humanitarian relating to or concerned with the wellbeing of people

hydroelectricity electricity generated by harnessing the energy of flowing or falling water

imperialism the policy of extending a country's power and influence, often through colonisation or military force

incarcerate to put someone in prison or another place of legal detention

incarceration the state of being confined in prison

indemnify compensate or clear of blame

Indigenous the original or earliest known inhabitants of an area

indigo a plant grown for its deep blue dye and used as a cash crop in India

Indonesian National Awakening the rise of Indonesian nationalism during colonial rule that led to demands for independence

industrialisation the growth of industries through machinery and new technologies

infanticide the killing of an infant

infiltration the secret entry of agents or ideas into a country or organisation to undermine it from within

innovation the creation and introduction of new ideas, products or methods that improve the way things are done

integration incorporating migrants into society while allowing them to retain elements of their own culture

internal combustion engine an engine in which fuel is burned inside a cylinder to produce power for vehicles

internment the confinement of people, often during war, without trial

interpretation an explanation or understanding of the past based on analysing evidence

Jim Crow laws laws in the United States that enforced racial segregation and discriminated against Black people

kamikaze Japanese pilots who deliberately crashed their aircraft into enemy targets, killing themselves in the process

Kristallnacht the 'Night of Broken Glass' in 1938 when Jewish homes, businesses and synagogues were attacked by Nazis

laissez-faire an economic policy where the government does not interfere in business, letting individuals and companies make their own decisions

land rights the legal or customary rights of people (especially Indigenous peoples) to own, live on and use their traditional lands

League of Nations an international organisation founded in 1920 after World War I to promote peace and cooperation among countries

Lebensraum living space for the German people

left-wing supporting political views that prioritise social equality, government economic intervention and progressive reform

legislature the branch of government made up of elected representatives who make, amend and repeal laws

liberation freeing a country or people from occupation or oppression

liquidate a Nazi term for clearing out ghettos by sending residents to camps

malnourished weak and in poor health because of insufficient or poor-quality food

mandatory detention a policy requiring people without a valid visa to be held while their status is assessed

manifesto a written statement outlining the aims and policies of an organisation, especially a political group

marginalised treated as insignificant or peripheral, resulting in reduced access to resources, rights or opportunities

Marxism a political and economic theory developed by Karl Marx that focuses on class struggle and argues that the working class should own the means of production

mass production the manufacture of large quantities of goods using machinery and assembly lines to produce items cheaply and quickly

means of production the tools, machines, land and resources used to produce goods and services in an economy

mechanisation replacing manual work with machines to increase efficiency and productivity

mercantile interest a profitable trading system based on increasing exports to boost national power

mercantilism an economic system where governments regulate trade to build national wealth, limiting imports and encouraging exports

mercenaries soldiers who fight for payment rather than allegiance to a nation or cause

merchant person or company involved in buying and selling goods on a large scale

messiah a holy saviour of a cause or people

militarism the belief in maintaining a strong military to defend or promote national interests

mission church-run institution that provided education and religious instruction to First Nations Peoples, often aiming at assimilation

Molotov cocktails bottles of fuel with a wick that are lit and thrown as incendiary weapons

monetisation earning revenue from something such as a product or service

monopoly exclusive control over a market or resource by one person or group, limiting competition and setting prices

mother tongue the first language a person learns at home and uses most comfortably

multiculturalism a policy that supports the coexistence of different cultural traditions in society

national identity the emerging sense of being Australian as distinct from Britain

nationalism strong loyalty to one's nation that can drive political or military action

nationalist a person who shows strong loyalty to their country and promotes its interests over those of other nations

nation–state a country with its own government, defined territory and a population sharing a common national identity

new imperialism the 19th-century wave of imperial expansion marked by the scramble for Africa and Asia

New World the Americas, which were colonised by European powers

offshore processing assessing asylum seekers in detention centres located on islands or in foreign countries

old imperialism the early period of colonial expansion, particularly during the 15th to 18th centuries, focused on trade and conquest

oppressed subjected to harsh and unfair treatment, often by a more powerful authority

out-of-home care when children who cannot live with their families are placed in foster homes, group homes or other residential settings

overt racism a harmful and intentional attitude or behaviour towards an individual from a minority group, done in an obvious and public manner

paddle steamer a boat powered by a steam engine that turns large paddle wheels

paramilitary an unofficial fighting force organised along military lines but not part of a nation's regular army

penal colony a settlement where convicts were sent as punishment and to provide labour

penicillin the first antibiotic discovered to treat bacterial infections

peninsula a piece of land almost entirely surrounded by water but connected to the mainland

perspective a point of view or attitude shaped by a person's experiences, beliefs or position in society

plantations large farms growing crops on a large scale, often using forced labour

plebiscite a non-binding vote on a political question used to gauge public opinion

pogrom a violent riot aimed at massacring or expelling a particular ethnic or religious group, often Jewish people

popular culture the dominant interests and activities of ordinary people at a particular time

populist a person or politician who claims to represent ordinary people against the elite

primary source a source that was created or existed at the time under study, such as a book, letter, artefact or building

privy toilet located outside a house

programmable computer an electronic device that stores and executes coded instructions

proletariat in Marxist theory, the working class who sell their labour because they do not own significant property

propaganda biased or misleading information used to promote a political cause or influence opinion

proportional representation an electoral system allocating seats to parties in proportion to votes received

protectorate a state or territory that is protected and partly controlled by a more powerful country

proto-industrial relating to an early stage of industrial development with small-scale mechanisation before full industrialisation

proxy war a conflict where opposing powers support different sides in a war without directly fighting each other

public service government departments and agencies responsible for administering public policy

puppet state a country that is officially independent but is controlled by another power

putsch an attempt to overthrow a government – a coup d'état

racism unfair treatment or prejudice against people based on their race or ethnicity

Raj a Hindi word meaning 'rule' or 'government', used for both the Company Raj and the British Raj in India

rationing government-controlled allocation of scarce goods such as food, fuel or clothing

reconciliation the process of repairing relationships and making amends after injustice or conflict, especially between First Nations and non-Indigenous Australians

referendum a vote by all eligible citizens on a specific proposal or issue, such as changes to a constitution

refugee camp a temporary settlement where refugees receive shelter and basic assistance

regent a person appointed to govern temporarily because the monarch is too young or unable to rule

Reign of Terror the period during the French Revolution from 1793 to 1794 when thousands were executed by the revolutionary government

reliability how trustworthy and accurate a source or account is considered to be

reparations payments made by a defeated country to compensate others for war damage

repatriation the process of returning a person, often a soldier or refugee, to their home country

republic a state governed by the people or their elected representatives, independent of a monarch

reserve an area of land designated for First Nations Peoples where their movements and rights were restricted

resettlement the permanent placement of refugees in a new country

resistance group small underground movement that fought back against an oppressive regime, often through sabotage or uprisings

resistance opposing or fighting against control or oppression through protest or conflict

resource depletion consuming a resource faster than it can be replenished

revolution a radical change to an established system that leads to major political, economic or social shifts

route (maritime) a course or path taken by ships across the sea for trade, transport or exploration

saboteur a person who deliberately damages or destroys property or equipment to hinder an enemy

salination the accumulation of soluble salts in soil or water, often reducing fertility or usability

secede to separate from a country or organisation, formally withdrawing to create a new, independent entity

secondary source a source created after the time under study, such as a textbook, website or documentary

sedition speech or actions encouraging people to rebel against government authority

segregation the enforced separation of different racial groups through laws or policies

selectors free settlers who chose or purchased land from the government in the colony

selektions the Nazi process of selecting prisoners for forced labour or execution in camps

self-determination the right of a people to determine their own political status and development

settler-colonialism a form of colonialism that replaces an Indigenous population with a society of settlers

shell shock a condition experienced by soldiers exposed to long periods of intense warfare, now recognised as a type of post-traumatic stress

slum an overcrowded and often unsanitary urban area of poor housing and living conditions

smog air pollution formed by sunlight interacting with pollutants such as hydrocarbons and nitrogen oxides

social fabric the networks of relationships, institutions and norms that shape how a society functions

socialism a political and economic system in which communities or the state control major industries for the benefit of all

socialist someone who supports or believes in socialism

societal norms the usual or accepted ways people behave in a society or community

solitary confinement the practice of keeping someone alone in a cell as a form of punishment or protection

sovereignty the authority of a state or nation to govern itself independently of other nations

space race the competition between the United States and the USSR to achieve milestones in space exploration

spice trade the exchange of spices between Indonesia and Europe that sparked European interest and global trade

sports diplomacy using sporting events and athletes to influence diplomatic, social and political relations

squatters settlers who occupied land without legal permission and later claimed rights to it

stagflation simultaneous high inflation, high unemployment and stagnant demand in an economy

status quo the existing state of affairs, especially relating to politics or society

steam engine an engine that converts the energy of steam into mechanical work to drive machines or locomotives

Stolen Generations Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children forcibly removed from their families under government policy

subversive intended to overturn the principles, morals or norms of a current system or way of thinking

suffragist a person who campaigns peacefully for the right to vote

superpower a very powerful and influential nation, especially the United States or the former USSR

sustainable capable of being maintained without depleting resources or causing severe ecological damage

systemic and structural racism the systems and structures that have been created by society to support some groups or discriminate against minority communities

systemic racism unfair treatment of people based on race that is built into laws, institutions or everyday systems

tariff a tax placed on imported or exported goods to protect local industries

terra nullius Latin for 'nobody's land', used to claim territory that appeared unoccupied

Tokyo Trials the military tribunals held in Tokyo from 1946 to 1948 to prosecute Japanese leaders for war crimes

totalitarian state where the government does not allow individual freedom and all citizens must bow to state authority

trade union organisation formed by workers to protect their rights and negotiate better wages and conditions

transistor a semiconductor device used to amplify or switch electronic signals

transportation (convict) the practice of sending convicts from Britain to penal colonies as punishment and to supply labour

treason the crime of betraying one's country by attempting to overthrow the government or aiding its enemies

treaty formal agreement in law and action between states

Treaty of Versailles the 1919 peace agreement that ended World War I and imposed harsh penalties on Germany

Triple Alliance the military alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy before World War I, also known as the Central Powers

Triple Entente the military alliance between France, Russia and Britain before World War I, also known as the Allies or Allied Powers

ultimatum a final demand or statement of terms, with the threat of serious consequences if not accepted

Universal Service Scheme a compulsory training program for young Australian men introduced before World War I

universal suffrage the right of all adult citizens to vote in political elections

untermenschen a Nazi term for 'sub-humans' – people considered beneath them who could be discriminated against or killed

urbanisation the process by which people move from rural areas to live and work in cities

usefulness how helpful a source is for answering a specific historical question

vassal a person or kingdom owing military service and loyalty to a lord in return for privileges such as land

vassal state a state subordinate to a more powerful state, often paying tribute and following its foreign policy

veteran a person who has served in the armed forces, especially during war

veto the right to object to or block a decision

vexillum a military standard or banner for a unit, as used in ancient Rome

Vichy the regime based in Vichy that governed unoccupied southern France from 1940 to 1944 and collaborated with Nazi Germany

vilify to speak or write about someone in an abusively disparaging way

Warsaw Pact the military alliance formed in 1955 by the USSR and its Eastern European satellite states

welfare state a country where the government provides support to people through healthcare, education, pensions and other services

White Australia policy laws and practices that restricted non-European immigration to Australia

women's suffrage the right of women to vote in federal elections

workhouse a public institution offering work and shelter to those unable to support themselves

zaibatsu large family-owned Japanese business conglomerates that controlled major industries before World War II

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