



civics+
citizenship



history



economics
+business

good History

BEN
LAWLESS

DAMIEN
GREEN

NATALIE
SHEPHARD

ILJA
VAN WERINGH

ALERYK
FRICKER

PHILLIP
O'BRIEN

SALLY
ELLIOTT

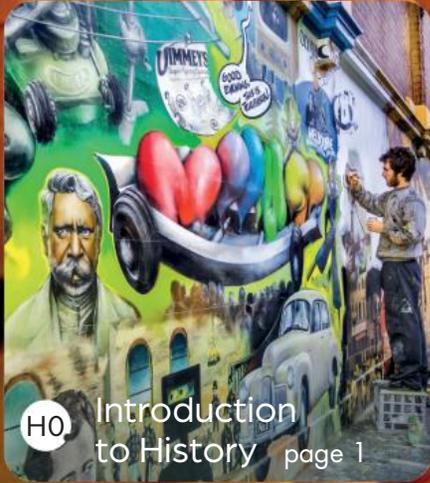



civics+
citizenship


history


economics+
business

contents



H0 Introduction
to History page 1

The modern world and Australia



H1 Australia at war: 1918 to 1945 page 21



H2 Rights and
freedoms page 117



H3 The globalising world page 169

History concepts + skills



H4 History How-To page 225

**HOW
TO**



Good History 10

Victorian Curriculum

1st edition

Sally Elliott

Aleryk Fricker

Damien Green

Ben Lawless

Phillip O'Brien

Natalie Shephard

Ilja van Weringh

Publisher: Catherine Charles-Brown

Publishing director: Olive McRae

Copy editor: Kate McGregor

Project editor: Kate McGregor

Proofreader: Kelly Robinson

Indexer: Max McMaster

Text and cover designer: Jo Groud

Typesetter: Paul Ryan

Illustrator: QBS Learning

Cartography: Stewart Adrain at Custom Mapping Services

Production controller: Sarah Blake

Permissions researchers: Samantha Russell-Tulip,

Hannah Tatton

Cover images photographed by:

History: Colourisation of V-E Day celebrations by Ben Buchanan
Bay Street, May 7, 1945

Photographer: John H. Boyd

City of Toronto Archives, Globe and Mail fonds,

Fonds 1266, Item 96241

First published in 2022 by Matilda Education Australia,

an imprint of Meanwhile Education Pty Ltd

Level 1/274 Brunswick St

Fitzroy, Victoria Australia 3065

T: 1300 277 235

E: customersupport@matildaed.com.au

www.matildaeducation.com.au

© Sally Elliott, Aleryk Fricker, Damien Green, Ben Lawless,
Phillip O'Brien, Danielle O'Leary, Natalie Shephard,
Ilja van Weringh 2022

© Matilda Education Australia 2022

The moral rights of the authors have been asserted.

All rights reserved. Except under the conditions described in the Copyright Act 1968 of Australia (the Act) and subsequent amendments, no part of this publication may be reproduced, in any form or by any means, without the prior written permission of the copyright owner. Enquiries outside this scope should be sent to Matilda Education Australia at the address listed above.

Educational institutions copying any part of this book for educational purposes under the Act must be covered by a Copyright Agency Limited (CAL) licence for educational institutions and must have given a remuneration notice to CAL. These limitations include: Restricting the copying to a maximum of one chapter or 10% of this book, whichever is greater. Licence restrictions must be adhered to. For details of the CAL licence for educational institutions, please contact: Copyright Agency Limited
Level 11, 66 Goulburn Street
Sydney, NSW 2000
Toll-free phone number (landlines only): 1800 066 844
Phone: (02) 9394 7600
Fax: +612 9394 7601
Email: memberservices@copyright.com.au
Website: <https://www.copyright.com.au>

National Library of Australia Cataloguing-in-Publication data

Author: Sally Elliott, Aleryk Fricker, Damien Green, Ben Lawless,
Phillip O'Brien, Danielle O'Leary, Natalie Shephard,
Ilja van Weringh

Title: Good History 10 Victorian Curriculum

ISBN: 9780655091271

A catalogue record for this book is available from the National Library of Australia at www.nla.gov.au

While every care has been taken to trace and acknowledge copyright, the publishers tender their apologies for any accidental infringement where copyright has proved untraceable. They would be pleased to come to a suitable arrangement with the rightful owner in each case.

Warning: It is recommended that First Nations peoples exercise caution when viewing this publication as it may contain names or images of deceased persons.

Printed in Malaysia by Vivar Printing

12 3 4 5 6 7 25 24 23 22 21 20



Introduction to History

H0

HOW DID WE
GET HERE?

page 14

historical concepts + skills

page 2

HOW DO I
STUDY HISTORY?

historiography

page 6

WHAT DOES A
HISTORIAN DO?

VCE History

page 8

HOW IS HISTORY
PART OF
MY FUTURE?

How do I study History?

In Year 10 History, you will build upon your earlier studies to now focus on the modern world and Australia’s place in it. When you are reading historical narratives, challenge yourself to look for examples of how identity is formed, stories that are hidden and conversations around diversity, tolerance and cultural appreciation.

Use the following five historical skills to help you explore History this year:

- source analysis
- continuity and change
- cause and effect
- historical significance
- historical interpretation.

You will also use critical and creative thinking; ethical, intercultural, personal and social capabilities; and the skills of historical research and writing. These are important skills that will help you in your career, in school and beyond. You can read an introduction to each of these skills over the following pages, before practising them in your first historical study. The History How-To section on pages 225–53 will also support you step by step when you begin to apply these skills.

Source analysis

Historians ask questions, then use sources to answer those questions and communicate historical narratives. Sources come in two main types: **primary sources** and **secondary sources**, as outlined in Source 1.

This book is a secondary source. It was created by authors, after the time being studied. There are many primary sources in this book, such as posters and photographs of historical events from the 20th century. Your challenge is to use the primary sources in this book, and the book itself, as sources of information to answer historical questions.

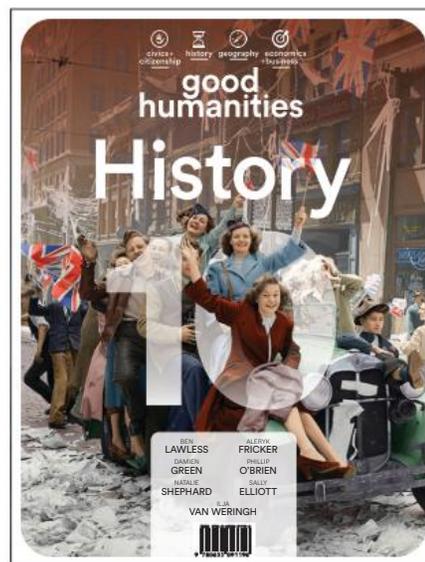
Source 1

Primary and secondary sources

Type of source	Definition	Examples
Primary sources	Created at the time being studied. Primary sources show the perspectives of the people who experienced the event first-hand. They might have a unique point of view about an event because the creator of the source was present at that time.	Books, diaries, photographs, archives, letters, artefacts, buildings, ruins
Secondary sources	Created after the time being studied. Secondary sources are created by people who combine primary sources to interpret the past, or to tell a narrative about it.	Textbooks, websites, documentaries, magazine articles, book reviews, encyclopaedias

Source 2

Textbooks are secondary sources.



Uncovering bias

Even though primary sources were created at the time being studied, that does not mean that they are automatically a reliable or an unbiased source of information. Primary sources can be **biased** (or unfair). Perhaps a photographer chose to take a photograph of a leader in a compromising position, taken out of context. Historians might then find that the leader was unethical. Should they believe the photograph?

The way to minimise bias is to look at lots of different sources – the more the better. Secondary sources help with this, as they usually bring a large number of primary sources together and interpret them. The most common secondary sources you will use are likely to be websites. Judging their reliability is very important. Many websites do not state where their information is from, making it hard to decide how reliable they are.

Continuity and change

History is a story of continuity and change: some things stay the same, while others change. Some things, such as transportation, have changed a lot over the course of history. Other things, such as friendship and love, have not changed that much.

Narratives, or historical ‘stories’, and timelines help you to understand what has changed and what has not. You will learn how to recognise continuity and change, and how to describe the pace and extent of that change.

Cause and effect

Historians often try to figure out why things happened. When studying History, you will learn about different kinds of causes:

- individual actors (e.g. Adolf Hitler)
- group actors (e.g. Greenpeace)
- conditions (e.g. social, political, economic, cultural, environmental, technological)
- short-term triggers
- long-term trends.

Causes and effects can be organised using timelines or by writing historical narratives. You will learn that most causes themselves were caused by something that happened even earlier, and most effects have effects even further into the future.

Historical significance

History is everything that has ever happened. So how do we decide what is worth studying? Who gets to decide what is significant?

Deciding how historically significant (or important) something is requires us to make a judgement call – an *evaluation*. Historians have come up with models to help guide us when determining what is important. In *Good History*, we use the model of historian Geoffrey Partington. To help work out how important something is, ask these five questions:

- 1 How important was it to people at the time?
- 2 How many people were affected?
- 3 How deeply were people’s lives affected?
- 4 For how long did these effects last?
- 5 How relevant is it to modern life?

Professor of History Christine Counsell offers an alternative model for evaluating significance. Professor Counsell’s model uses the following framework, which is often described as the five Rs:

- 1 **Remarkable** – was it remarked upon at the time?
- 2 **Remembered** – was it important enough to be remembered at some stage in History?
- 3 **Resulted in change** – did it have consequences for the future?
- 4 **Resonant** – did it make ‘ripples’ for future generations?
- 5 **Revealing** – does it reveal an aspect of the past?

Historical interpretations

People change the way they think about things as time passes. When you were 10, you felt a certain way. Looking back, you might recall this same time period quite differently, perhaps better or worse, compared to what has come after it. The same is true for History. When we look back at the past, we look through a lens of our present mindset. As our lens changes, our views about the past change. Historical interpretations are how we understand the past, and how this understanding changes over time. The name for this form of thinking is **historiography**. It is a higher-order thinking skill, which really helps people to start thinking like historians.

Source 3

Historians interpret the past by looking at primary and secondary sources. These interpretations can change over time depending on who the historian is.

Skills for history students

Historical writing

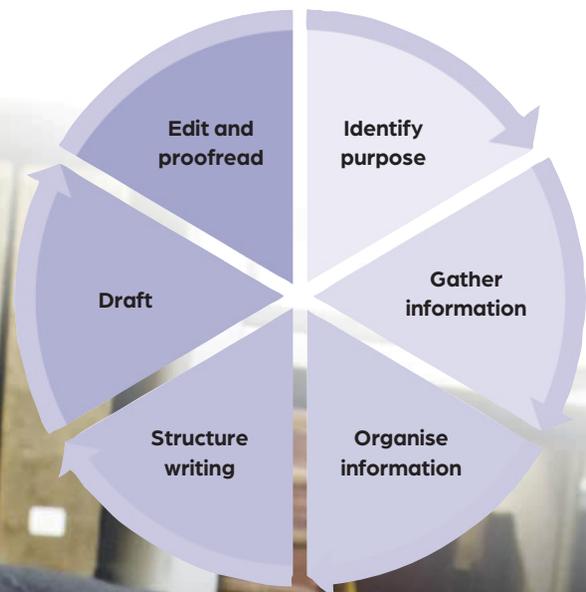
One of the most important skills you will learn is how to communicate. Writing is a central communication skill for a historian, but everyone uses communication skills throughout their life.

The writing process can be split into these six stages:

- Step 1 identify the writing purpose
- Step 2 gather information
- Step 3 organise information
- Step 4 structure writing
- Step 5 draft
- Step 6 edit and proofread.

Source 4

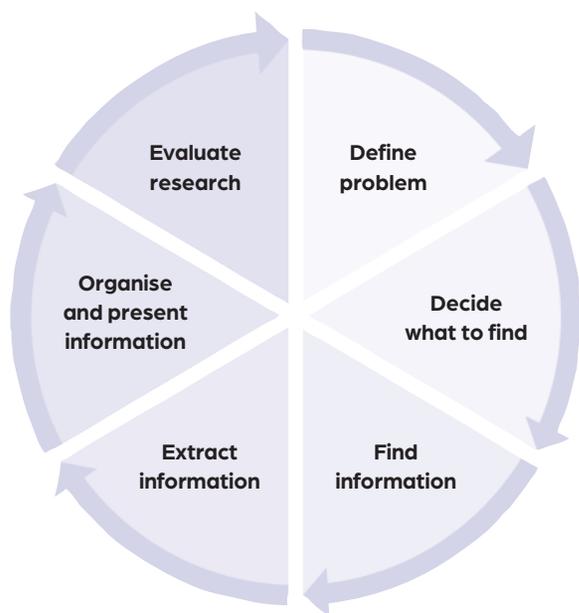
The six steps of the writing process



Historical research

A core skill for studying History is research. In this book, we split the research process into six parts:

- Step 1 define the issue
- Step 2 decide what information to find and where to find it
- Step 3 find the information
- Step 4 extract the information
- Step 5 organise and present the information
- Step 6 evaluate your research.



Source 5

The six steps of the research process

The History How-To section on pages 225–53 explains these stages in full.

Avoiding plagiarism

Plagiarism is when you use someone else's words or ideas and present them as your own work. It is forbidden, whether you do it on purpose or not.

Plagiarism is when you:

- copy and paste from a website, or copy but change the words around
- use information from the internet or a publication but leave it out of your sources
- copy directly out of a book, or copy but change the words around
- copy work from another student.

Plagiarism is a problem because it can be dishonest – you are pretending that someone else's writing or research is your own. If you just plagiarise others, it also means you do not gain any new understanding, knowledge or skills.

You can avoid plagiarism by taking your own notes from research sources using your own words. Then, when writing or doing further research, draw from *your own notes*.

Studying for exams and tests

One common way for students to show what they know is by sitting tests or exams. Some ways of studying for tests are better than others. In general, being active when you are studying; for example, by writing practice answers, is better than being passive; for example, just re-reading your book notes. Using **spaced repetition** can help you to remember historical information more easily and for a longer time. There are also specific skills you can learn about how to take tests, such as using positive thinking, getting a good night's sleep beforehand, and not necessarily completing the test in the same order that it is printed out in.

Learning Ladder H0.1

- 1 Which of the History skills do you think you are best at already? What makes you say that? Which one do you find hardest?
- 2 Source analysis: How can you minimise bias when looking at sources?
- 3 Continuity and change: What are three things that have stayed the same in the last 100 years, and three things that have changed a lot?
- 4 Cause and effect: Give one real-world example for each of the five different types of causes listed on page 3.
- 5 Historical significance: Pick one historical event you know well and apply Partington's model of significance to it, by writing at least five sentences.
- 6 Historical interpretations: Why might people view the past differently over time?

What does a historian do?

Historians study the past to understand the present. By asking questions, carrying out research and sharing their discoveries, historians expand our knowledge of the past and how it shapes the world of today.

The study of History

People may think History is a set of facts about what happened in the past. However, History is not a catalogue of information to be memorised. History is a process and a way of thinking.

Historians study history, follow its processes and use it to inform their thinking. Historians are researchers – they conduct research to uncover and understand historical evidence. Historical research can be as simple as writing a text, or as complex as unearthing artefacts at an archaeological dig site.

Historians perform three main tasks:

- 1 Ask a research question, such as ‘What happened here?’, ‘How did this happen?’, or ‘Who was behind this event?’.
- 2 Examine primary historical sources to uncover relevant evidence.
- 3 Use the evidence to answer their original research questions or to tell a story about the past.

Source 1

Historians analyse primary sources, such as archaeological finds, to answer historical questions.

Many historians specialise in studying a particular period of history, or the history of a particular field, such as art history. This is because they need to understand a field deeply to ask appropriate research questions, and to know what kind of primary sources to examine. There is a near endless supply of information about history, thus, we do not expect an expert in Japanese history to also be an expert in modern American political history.



Historians at work

Professor Stuart Macintyre is one of Australia's leading historians. He is Emeritus Laureate Professor of the University of Melbourne and a Professorial Fellow of the School of Historical and Philosophical Studies.

Why did you decide to become a historian?

As with so many others who choose history as a vocation, I was drawn to the study of the past by a gifted teacher who taught me in my final years of secondary school. He taught me several subjects: modern British history, 18th-century European history and Australian history. In each of them, I encountered the rewards of exploring and interpreting the past.

How did you become a historian?

I ... embarked on combined degrees in Arts and Law ... but found my history subjects far more compelling. Accordingly, I dropped law and completed an honours course in history. A scholarship then enabled me to complete a **postgraduate** thesis in British history. By then I was hooked and proceeded to doctoral studies in Cambridge University. That led to a research fellowship there and then academic appointments back in Australia.

What specific period or field is your focus?

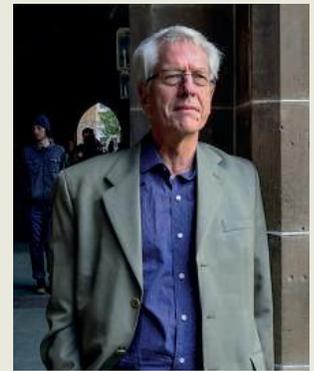
I began as a British historian, specialising in labour and social history in the first half of the 20th century. Upon returning to Australia from England, I began teaching and research in Australian history ... The material for studying Australian history was all around me.

I began as a general historian of Australia, and have worked principally in the 20th century in fields such as biography, political history, intellectual history, historiography and social history.

What does your work as a historian involve?

I no longer teach undergraduate subjects but continue to take advanced seminars and supervise postgraduates ... My principal work now is research. I spend a lot of my time reading books and articles, visiting archives where records are held or working

online if they are digitised. I sort them and think about their implications, which usually takes me to further material. Finally, I begin writing. Most of my writing is books, though I also write some chapters and articles, which are shorter and more specialised.



Source 2

Professor Stuart Macintyre

What kinds of research projects are you involved with?

Last year I revised a shortish history of Australia, which originally appeared in 1999. For this, the fifth edition, I went over new research that has appeared in the past few years and incorporated some of the findings. The recent work of archaeologists, for example, continues to deepen our knowledge of the Indigenous settlement of Australia.

What do you love about being a historian?

I like the way that it is an academic discipline that has its own conventions and procedures, and at the same time a form of knowledge that generates public interest. It is practised by professional historians, such as myself, and also by those interested in local history, family history or some particular branch of public history. It enables us to understand our own ways more deeply through an appreciation of the ways others have lived.

Learning ladder H0.2

- 1 What are the three steps a historian takes in their line of work?
- 2 Why do you think being able to ask interesting questions is so important?
- 3 If you could be a historian that specialised in one area, what would it be and why?
- 4 How is the work of a historian different to that of a teacher?

How is history part of my future?

Across Years 7–10, you have studied and continue to study ‘middle school’ history. You have gone on a journey from 65 000 years ago to the present day. If you choose to continue studying history, there are a number of exciting options, depending on what your school offers.

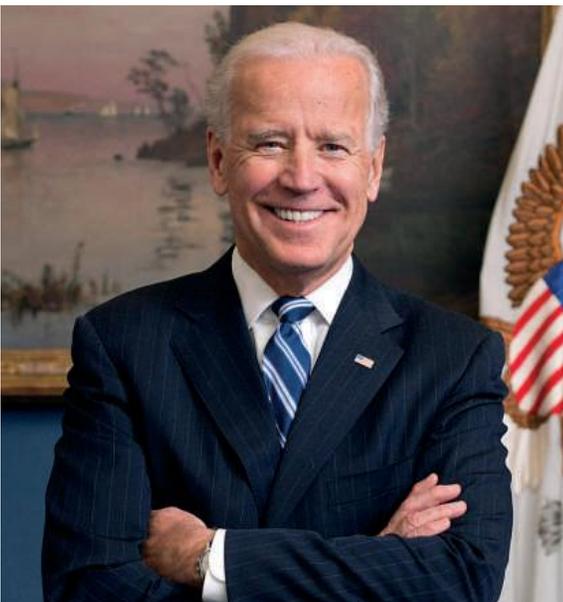
Typically, in Victoria, students study the VCE. Year 11 students complete Units 1 and 2, and Year 12 students complete Units 3 and 4. Some schools allow students to complete Units 1 and 2 in Year 10, and Units 3 and 4 in Year 11.

At the time of writing, the federal government had increased the cost of History degrees at university in the belief that **liberal arts** graduates (such as history students) are less likely to find work. In fact, many employers prefer applicants with liberal arts degrees, as they can think flexibly and critically. History students have a strong work ethic and are passionate lifelong learners – few other skills could be more useful in a world where a graduate may now have, on average, 17 jobs across five different career

pathways. History graduates can go on to careers in many fields, including (but not limited to) politics, media, business and commerce, teaching, research and academia, journalism, law and marketing. Few other subjects can claim such wide application.

If you do continue with your history education, you will be in good company. Your fellow students of history include US President Joe Biden, Prince of England, actor and comedian Sacha Baron Cohen, singer Shakira and actor Edward Norton.

Winston Churchill once said, ‘Study history. In history lies all the secrets of statecraft’, or, if you prefer, Oscar Wilde once quipped, ‘Anybody can make history. Only a great [person] can write it’. We tend to agree.



Source 1

History appeals to everyone from politicians to musicians.



Source 2

An image from a divided Berlin, Germany, during the Cold War, the **superpower** conflict that embodied the 20th century

Units 1 and 2

Empires

In VCE Units 1 and 2, you may explore the ‘Age of Empires’ – the period in history when major empires ruled the globe. You could choose to study two empires from this list:

- Ottoman Empire (1299–1699)
- Venetian Empire (1300–1797)
- Ming Dynasty (1368–1644)
- Portuguese Empire (1415–1822)
- Spanish Empire (1492–1713)
- Mughal Empire (1526–1758)
- Russian Empire (1552–1894)
- Dutch Empire (1543–1795)
- British Empire (1583–1788)
- French Empire (1605–1774)
- Qing Dynasty (1644–1911).

Source 3

Suleiman the Magnificent, one of the eminent rulers of the Ottoman Empire



Modern History

Alternatively, you might focus on events and developments from roughly 1850 to 1950. First, you could examine changes and conflicts around the world. Next, you would investigate the changing world order, by studying the **Cold War** (1945–1991), where the US and the USSR and their allies were in indirect conflict.

Ancient History

In this option students learn firstly about ancient Mesopotamia, one of the first cradles of civilisation. The second major civilisation looked at under this option is either ancient Egypt or ancient China, with their rich history spreading over millennia.

Units 3 and 4

Australian History

Under this option, schools choose from two of these topics:

- From **custodianship** to the Anthropocene (60 000 BCE–2010)
- Creating a nation (1834–2008)
- Power and resistance (1788–1998)
- War and upheaval (1909–1992).

Revolutions

In schools that offer this option, a very popular one at VCE, students will study two of these four revolutions in depth:

- The American Revolution
- The French Revolution
- The Russian Revolution
- The Chinese Revolution.

Ancient History

This option allows students to study everyday life in an ancient society. They also investigate powerful people in those societies, and crises that the societies may have experienced. There are three options:

- 1 Ancient Egypt 1550–1069 BCE
- 2 Ancient Greece 800–454 BCE
- 3 Ancient Rome 753–146 BCE.

Skills

There are a number of important skills for VCE History students to develop. This textbook has provided a lot of the foundation work for you to be able to excel at these. Below is a list of the VCE History skills and where you will encounter them in *Good History 10*.

VCE History skill	Learning ladder	History How-To
Engage in historical thinking and inquiry		Historical research
Use and evaluate historical sources	Source analysis	
Construct historical arguments		Historical research and Historical writing
Apply historical thinking concepts: cause and consequence	Cause and effect	
Apply historical thinking concepts: continuity and change	Continuity and change	
Apply historical thinking concepts: significance	Historical significance	
Engage with historical interpretations		Historical interpretations

What can we learn from studying ancient Egypt?

Learning about a culture so different from our own gives us insights into human nature, and reminds the limitations of our modern ways of thinking. If we want to learn lessons from history, studying a civilisation that lasted for thousands of years is essential.

Learning Ladder H2.1

Show what you know

- 1. What is a pyramid? How are they made? (Egyptian pyramids)
- 2. What is a sphinx? How are they made? (Egyptian sphinxes)
- 3. How do we know that the pyramids were built by ancient Egyptians? (Evidence from ancient Egypt)
- 4. How do we know that the pyramids were built by ancient Egyptians? (Evidence from ancient Egypt)

Chronology

1. I can define a timeline

2. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

3. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

4. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

5. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

6. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

7. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

8. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

9. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

10. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

11. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

12. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

13. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

14. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

15. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

16. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

17. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

18. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

19. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

20. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

21. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

22. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

23. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

24. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

25. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

26. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

27. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

28. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

29. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

30. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

31. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

32. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

33. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

34. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

35. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

36. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

37. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

38. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

39. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

40. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

41. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

42. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

43. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

44. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

45. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

46. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

47. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

48. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

49. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

50. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

51. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

52. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

53. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

54. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

55. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

56. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

57. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

58. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

59. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

60. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

61. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

62. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

63. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

64. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

65. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

66. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

67. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

68. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

69. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

70. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

71. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

72. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

73. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

74. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

75. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

76. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

77. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

78. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

79. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

80. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

81. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

82. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

83. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

84. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

85. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

86. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

87. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

88. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

89. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

90. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

91. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

92. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

93. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

94. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

95. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

96. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

97. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

98. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

99. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

100. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

Historical research

Learning Ladder H4

Show what you know

- 1. What is a primary source? (A document or object created at the time of the event)
- 2. What is a secondary source? (A document or object created after the event)
- 3. How do we know that a source is a primary source? (Evidence from the source)
- 4. How do we know that a source is a secondary source? (Evidence from the source)

Chronology

1. I can define a timeline

2. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

3. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

4. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

5. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

6. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

7. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

8. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

9. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

10. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

11. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

12. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

13. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

14. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

15. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

16. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

17. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

18. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

19. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

20. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

21. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

22. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

23. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

24. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

25. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

26. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

27. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

28. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

29. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

30. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

31. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

32. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

33. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

34. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

35. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

36. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

37. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

38. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

39. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

40. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

41. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

42. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

43. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

44. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

45. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

46. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

47. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

48. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

49. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

50. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

51. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

52. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

53. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

54. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

55. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

56. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

57. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

58. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

59. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

60. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

61. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

62. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

63. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

64. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

65. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

66. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

67. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

68. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

69. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

70. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

71. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

72. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

73. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

74. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

75. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

76. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

77. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

78. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

79. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

80. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

81. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

82. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

83. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

84. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

85. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

86. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

87. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

88. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

89. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

90. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

91. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

92. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

93. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

94. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

95. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

96. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

97. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

98. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

99. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

100. I can use a timeline to show the sequence of events

Word about Wikipedia

Many people will tell you that Wikipedia is not a reliable source. A common complaint is that anyone can edit it. This is misleading. Wikipedia is a great starting point for online research as it provides background information and usually suggests additional sources.

I can define the problem

To define the subject you will research, get some background information and write a list of keywords.

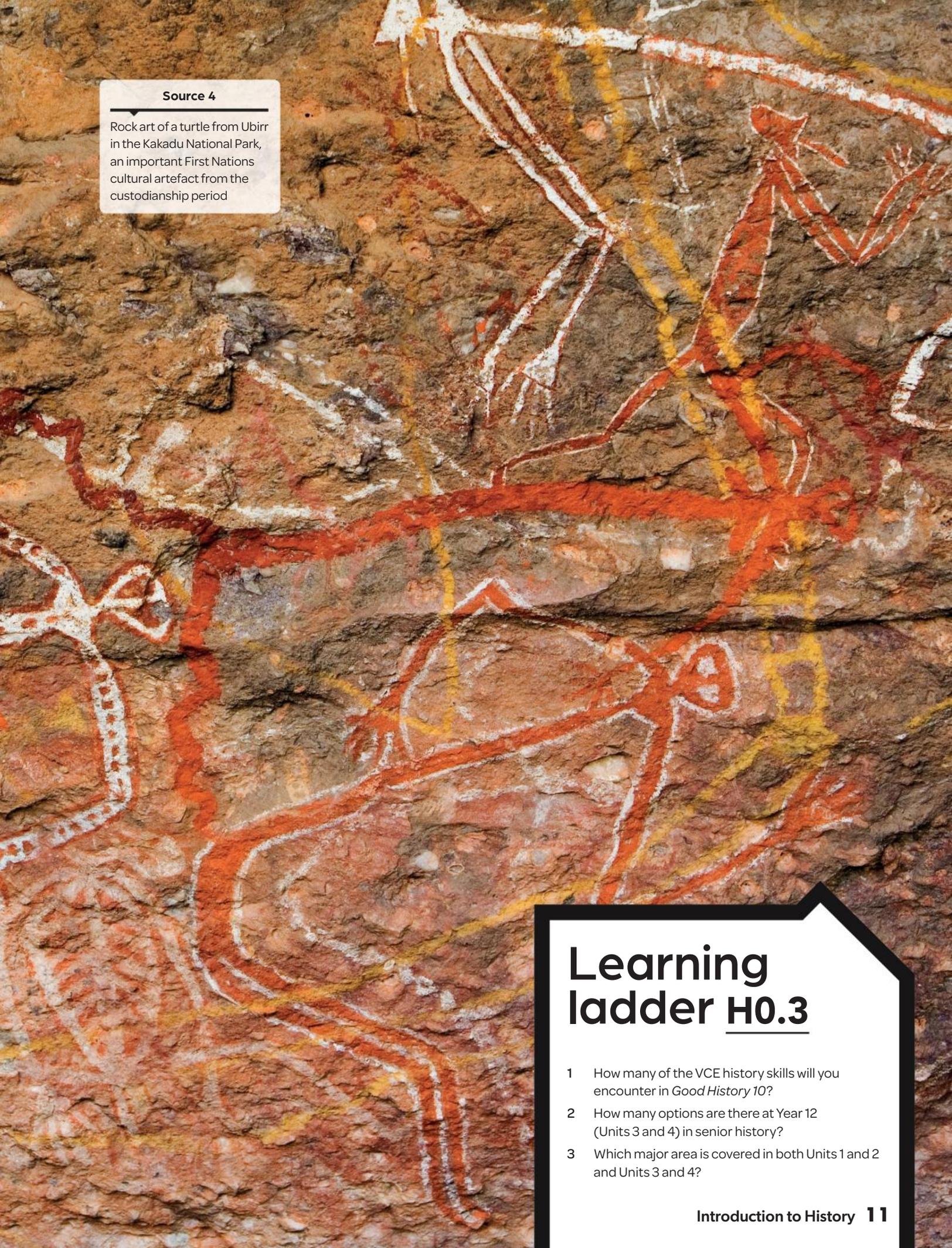
I can decide what information to find and where to find it

Can find information

Can evaluate information

Can present information

Can evaluate information



Source 4

Rock art of a turtle from Ubirr in the Kakadu National Park, an important First Nations cultural artefact from the custodianship period

Learning ladder H0.3

- 1 How many of the VCE history skills will you encounter in *Good History 10*?
- 2 How many options are there at Year 12 (Units 3 and 4) in senior history?
- 3 Which major area is covered in both Units 1 and 2 and Units 3 and 4?

How do I use this book?

Good History 10 includes three chapters of in-depth content to help you learn and progress through the Level 10 History curriculum. The book finishes with the History How-To skills section. This section is vital – refer to it often.

Climb the Learning ladder

Each chapter begins with a Learning ladder. The Learning ladder is your ‘plan of attack’ for the skills you will practise in each chapter. It lists the five historical skills you will be learning, and has five levels of difficulty for each of those skills.

Each skill described in the Learning ladder is of a higher difficulty than the one below it. To be able to achieve the higher-level skills, you need to be able to master the lower ones. Practising activities at all levels will help you to master more complex skills, such as evaluating. This approach is called ‘developmental learning’ – and it puts you in charge of your own learning progress.

Check your progress

Each chapter is divided into sections. Each section is designed to cover one lesson, but sometimes your teacher might decide to spend more or less time on a particular section. At the end of every section, you will find a block of questions to help you check your progress.

1 Show what you know

These questions ask you to look at the content you have learned about and to show your understanding by listing, describing and explaining.

2 Learning ladder

These activities are linked to the Learning ladder. You can complete one of the questions or several of them, depending on your progress. In each chapter, you will complete several activities for the Learning ladder, as well as for writing and research. This will sharpen your historical skills.

**civics+
citizenship**

**economics+
business**

The study of History can be enhanced by the study of Civics and citizenship, and Economics and business. In every chapter of this book, you will discover either a Civics and citizenship lesson or an Economics and business lesson. School is busy and you have a lot to cover, so designing a textbook where the important Civics and citizenship and Economics and business content is placed meaningfully next to relevant History lessons makes good sense and will help you connect your learning.

As you work through the Civics and citizenship and Economics and business sections in this book, you will also be working your way up a Learning ladder for these subjects as well.



Source 1

Explore Civics and citizenship, and Economics and business, alongside your history course.



Source 2

You can regularly check your progress. You can attempt one or more of the Learning ladder questions.

History How-To

At the end of the book, you will find a skills section called 'History How-To'. This section explains how to perform each skill and the steps needed for writing and research. There are *lots* of worked examples. Refer to the How-To often, especially when answering the Learning ladder questions and completing the review activities.

Continuity and change

One reason we study history is to see how life was different in the past. We can also see how an idea or piece of technology evolved over time.

Continuity and change exist on a scale, between no change and completely different, as shown below. Continuity and change can exist at the same time. Some things stay the same, while others change. Change can be fast or slow, or can happen gradually or all at once.

Can explain patterns of continuity and change

Examples of patterns of continuity include:

- Close family bonds
- The importance of blood
- The impact of disease
- Natural disasters
- Examples of patterns of change include:
- The improvement in technology
- The rise in population
- The spread of new ideas

So you need to be able to explain how or why one of these things occurred. An example of explaining a pattern of continuity:

One thing that has continued to be important in the lives of the British monarchy is the role of the monarch. Through the centuries, despite the changes in the monarchy, the monarch has remained an important part of British life. As monarchs are an important part of the British monarchy, we have seen a continuation of their role in the monarchy.

After World War I, the 1918-19 pandemic influenza killed millions of people. Through the centuries, despite the changes in the monarchy, the monarch has remained an important part of British life. As monarchs are an important part of the British monarchy, we have seen a continuation of their role in the monarchy.

Can analyse patterns of continuity and change

Analysing patterns of continuity and change involves looking at the different parts of the whole, you are analysing.

To analyse a pattern of continuity or change, you need to consider the different elements of the system and how they interacted over time to produce an overall outcome.

An example of analysing a pattern of change is as follows:

Transportation technology has changed dramatically over the last 100 years. Because of this, people can travel much faster than they could 100 years ago. This has led to many changes in the way we live, work, and play. For example, we can now fly to any part of the world in a matter of hours. This has led to a global economy and a global culture. It has also led to a global climate crisis. We need to think about how these changes have affected our lives and the world around us.

Finally, we can see how technology improved. From the steam engine to the internal combustion engine, we have seen a continuous improvement in the way we transport ourselves. This has led to a global economy and a global culture. It has also led to a global climate crisis. We need to think about how these changes have affected our lives and the world around us.

Can describe continuity and change

Describing continuity and change means that you have to both recognise it and describe what you recognise. You should do this by writing descriptive sentences that use historical evidence to back up your claim.

Can explain why something did or did not change

Explaining why something did or did not change means that you have to both recognise it and describe what you recognise. You should do this by writing descriptive sentences that use historical evidence to back up your claim.

Source 3

The History How-To section is your key to success – refer to it often.

Masterclass

At the end of each chapter is a review section called the Masterclass. The questions here are organised by the steps on the Learning ladder. You can complete all of the questions or your teacher might direct you to complete just some of them, depending on your progress.

Masterclass

Learning ladder

Work at the level that is right for you or level-up for a learning challenge!

Step 1

Can explain patterns of continuity and change

1. Look for specific features of a source. How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source? How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source?

Step 2

Can describe continuity and change

1. Look for patterns in a source. How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source? How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source?

Step 3

Can analyse patterns of continuity and change

1. Look for patterns in a source. How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source? How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source?

Step 4

Can explain why something did or did not change

1. Look for patterns in a source. How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source? How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source?

Source 4

The Masterclass is your opportunity to practise your skills. Take charge of your own learning and see if you can extend yourself.

Capstone

After you complete a chapter, it is time to put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you know and what you think. In the world of building, a capstone is an element that tops off a building or wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting and creative ways. It will ask you to think critically, to use key concepts and to answer 'big picture' questions. The capstone project is accessible online; scan the QR code to find it quickly.

Masterclass

Step 1

Can explain patterns of continuity and change

1. Look for specific features of a source. How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source? How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source?

Step 2

Can describe continuity and change

1. Look for patterns in a source. How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source? How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source?

Step 3

Can analyse patterns of continuity and change

1. Look for patterns in a source. How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source? How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source?

Step 4

Can explain why something did or did not change

1. Look for patterns in a source. How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source? How does the source show continuity or change? What are the key features of the source?

Source 5

The capstone project brings together the learning and understanding of each chapter. It provides an opportunity to engage in creative and critical thinking.

Learning ladder H0.4

- 1 Why is it important to monitor your own progress?
- 2 How can the Learning ladder help you to improve a historical skill?
- 3 Where do you think your skills are at the moment? How do you think you might improve one of your skills?

How did we get here?

The speed with which societies, technologies, nations and lifestyles changed in the last century is unmatched. So much happened in the last century that we can find evidence for almost any conclusion. Are humans evil? Witness the horrors of the two world wars. Are humans good? Witness the rise of human rights across the globe. Are things getting better? Look at how globalisation has lifted billions out of poverty. Are things getting worse? Globalisation is now challenged in many areas, as we see increasing political division and the rise of ethnic tensions as well as health crises and environmental devastation around the world.

The world wars

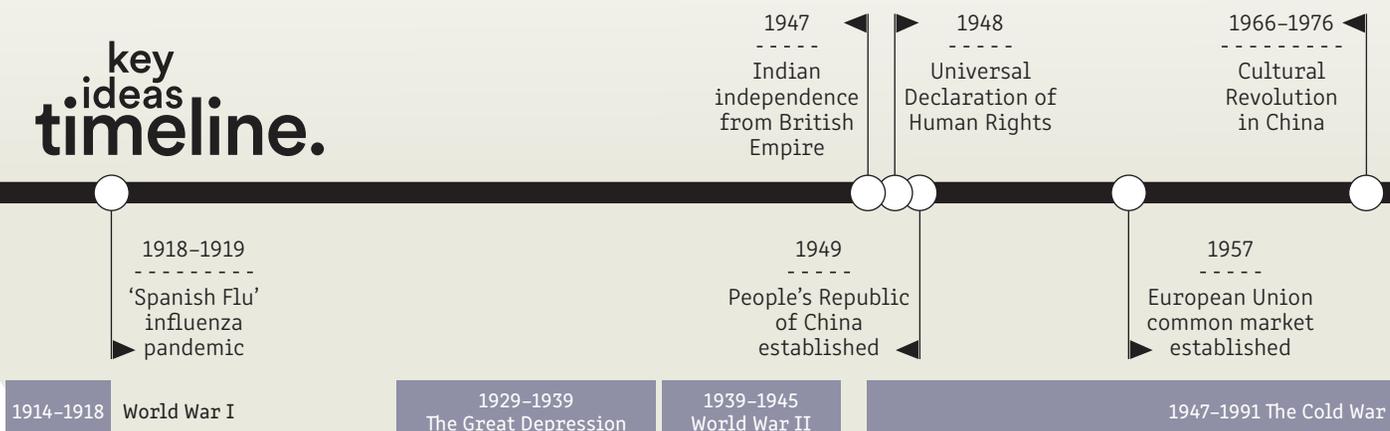
The Year 10 curriculum begins at the end of World War I, a vast war fought between the European powers and their allies. It was a war many historians still consider unnecessary, where both sides were fighting for ‘honour’ and ‘empire’; words made hollow by the events of 1914–1918. Various peace treaties ended the conflict, with Germany and its allies on the losing side. The most important of these treaties was the Treaty of Versailles (1919), which questionably laid the blame for the war on Germany.

This sowed the seeds for an even deadlier conflict that began a mere 20 years later. After World War I, the ‘League of Nations’ was set up in 1920 to promote peace and reduce military conflict between the great powers. However, it had few successes and was not supported fully by the

most powerful nations. In 1917, during World War I, the Russian Empire was taken over by communists and it expanded to become the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) by 1922, an alliance of pro-communist states in eastern Europe and central Asia.

Around the same time, another political **ideology** arose: fascism. Fascism was an ideology based loosely on **nationalism, authoritarianism** and supremacy of the state over all else. Fascist countries were usually led by a dictator. Italy, in 1925, and Germany, in 1933, fell prey to this ideology soon after the end of World War I, with dire consequences. After suffering through hyperinflation in Germany (1921–1923) and The Great Depression (1929–1939), Europe began heading down a dangerous road.

key ideas timeline.



Adolf Hitler, a decorated soldier from World War I, captivated many people in Germany and bent the population to his will. He launched the Nazi Party into power, on a policy platform of returning Germany to its former glory, rejecting the Treaty of Versailles, and rearming Germany, with a nationalist and racist tone.

The other European powers, willing to do almost anything to avoid another war, appeased Hitler as he enlarged Germany by annexing first Austria then parts of Czechoslovakia in 1938. This policy failed, and in late 1939 Britain and its allies declared war on Germany after it attacked Poland. Hitler quickly conquered most of Western Europe, in part by using new technology, fast battle tactics and an alliance with the USSR, which he would soon repudiate.

Meanwhile, in Asia, a quickly modernising Japan had defeated Russia in 1905 in a small war, the first time an Asian power had defeated a European one. This emboldened the Japanese, who embarked on their own imperial expansion in the early 1930s, conquering large parts of northern China in 1931–1932.

Japan soon realised that to keep control of vital natural resources required to continue its advancement, it would need to keep at bay the sleeping giant, the USA. In late 1941, Japan attacked Pearl Harbor, a US naval base in the Pacific. Then the war was global. As Japan expanded its sphere of

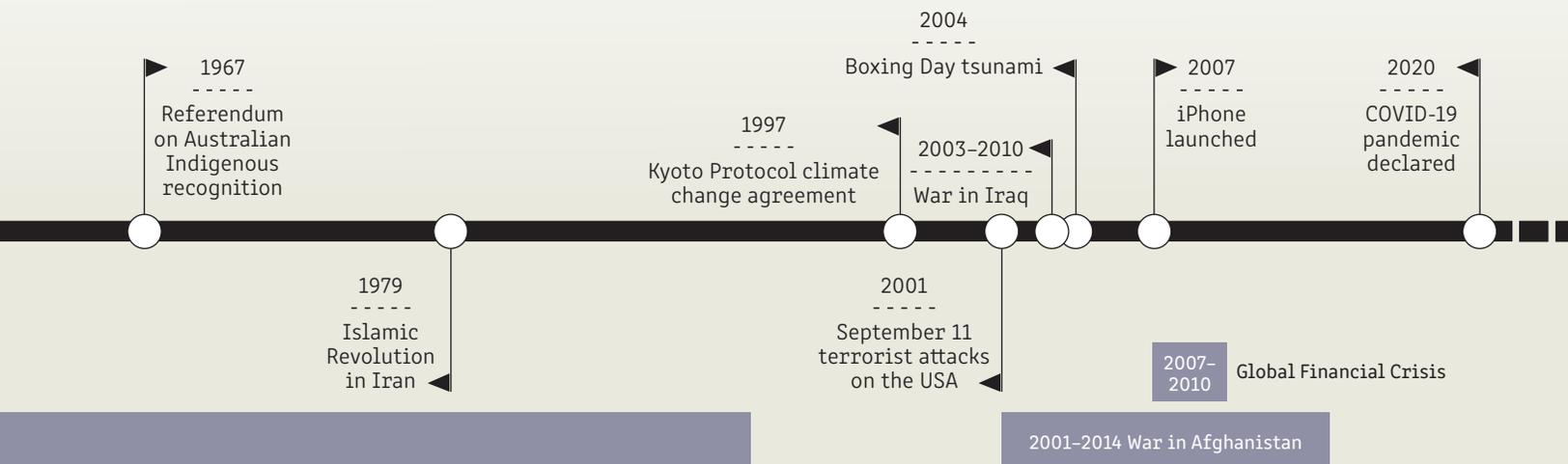
Source 1

Bomb damage in Kentish Town, London, 19 June 1944



influence to include all of east Asia and the Pacific, threatening Australia, Europe was under the grip of Hitler's war machine. The tide turned in 1942 and, over the next three years, the powers allied against Germany, Japan and Italy slowly regained territory lost in the first frenzied years of the war. By April 1945 they had won in the European theatre of war. In Japan, victory required the use of a terrible new weapon, the nuclear bomb, to finally force the Japanese to surrender in August 1945. The world's worst conflict had come to an end.

In the wake of the war, much of Europe was split between the influences of the two powers who had won the European war: the USSR and the USA and its allies. In addition, it was only at the end of the war that the world realised the worst horrors of the Nazi regime. Millions of Jews and other ethnic minority groups had been imprisoned and murdered. This period from 1941–1945 came to be known as the Holocaust.





Source 2

The Vietnam War, where the USA and allies fought communist forces in Asia

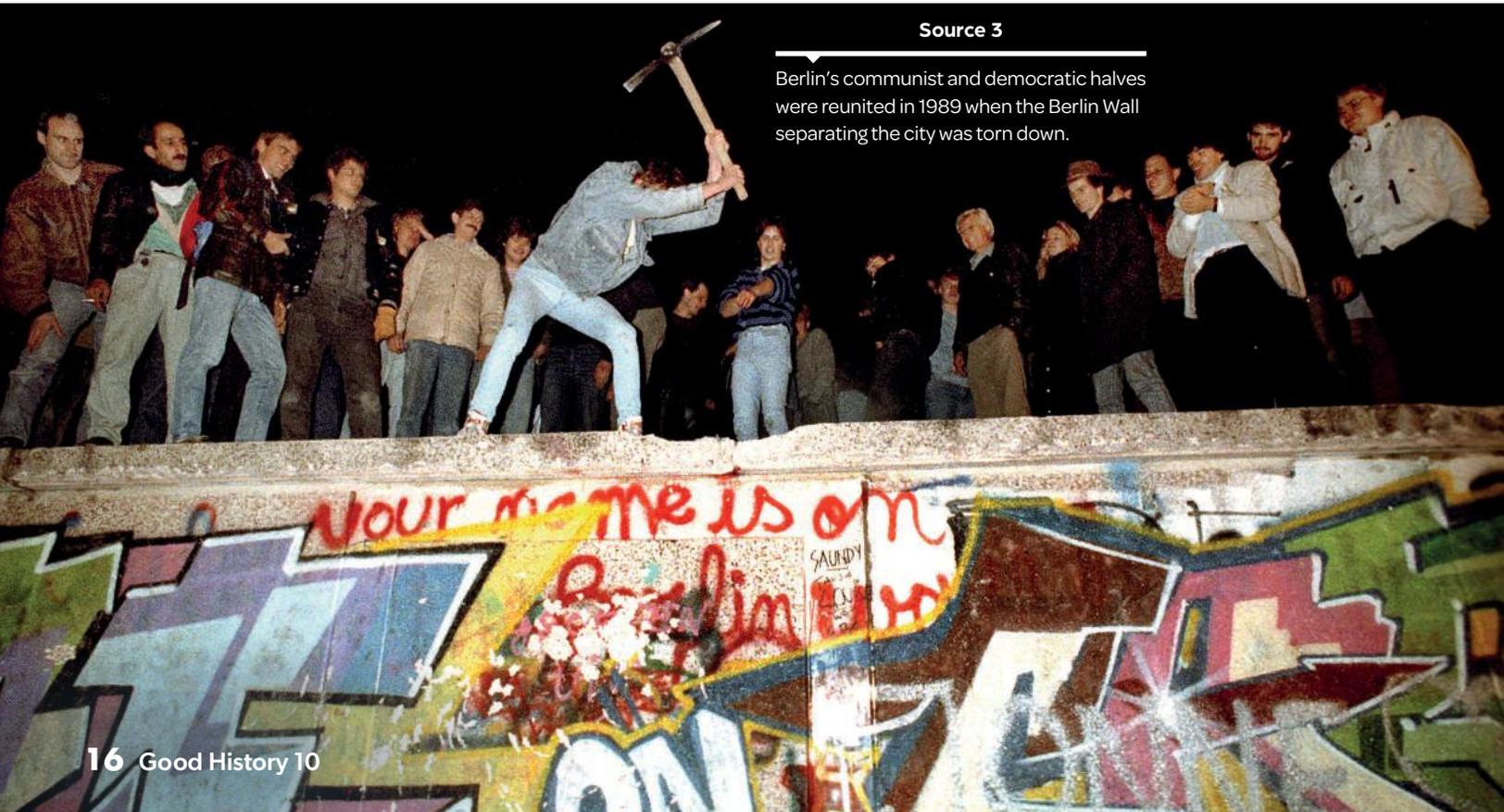
The Cold War

The two victors of World War II then locked themselves into an ideological, technological and strategic conflict that lasted for the next half century, from 1947 until 1991. Surprisingly, this was also a period of sustained economic growth. Historians call this conflict the Cold War because it supposedly never became ‘hot’, in the sense that the USSR and the USA rarely engaged each other in direct combat. Instead, smaller but still deadly conflicts were fought between **proxies** in distant lands: Korea, 1950–1953, and Vietnam, 1955–1975, being the most notable.

The Cold War also saw two political and economic systems compete. In the West, the US government provided resources to rebuild Western Europe under the Marshall Plan of 1948 and, in 1949, matched it with the political alliance of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). The USSR’s parallel alliance for eastern Europe was the Warsaw Pact, formed in 1955. An arms race ensued, as both sides built a nonsensical number of nuclear weapons; at one point the world’s nuclear arsenal stood at over 70 000 bombs, enough to destroy all life on Earth many times over.

The world was split into three camps: the ‘First World’, consisting of the USA and its allies, the ‘Second World’ consisting of the USSR and its allies, and the ‘Third World’, a group of unaligned countries. The USA promoted democracy, private ownership and capitalism, whereas the USSR endorsed one-party government, state ownership of resources and a state-managed economy. As the Third World was increasingly left out of the spoils of the two dominant economic systems, this label became a synonym for poverty.

As capitalism created more wealth, the competing Soviet system began to break down. Most communist governments in Europe fell from 1988 to 1991, with the USSR itself breaking up in 1991.



Source 3

Berlin’s communist and democratic halves were reunited in 1989 when the Berlin Wall separating the city was torn down.

Decolonisation and migration

The end of World War II saw a large wave of **decolonisation**. In the 1940s and 1950s, many nations, particularly in Asia and Africa, demanded their freedom from their colonial or imperial overlords. The two world wars marked the end of European dominance, as Europe's political, economic and moral leadership was called into question.

A vast surge of migration after 1945 saw the world's cultures mix in ways that had never happened before. There has been a **demographic** shift away from the developed West, and now most population growth occurs not in wealthy countries but in the megacities of Africa and Asia. If this trend continues, one could reasonably expect a degree of political and economic power to also migrate east and south.



Source 4

Vietnamese refugees escaping their war-torn nation in 1984

Economics

The 1920s was a period of rapid economic growth until the Great Depression, which was caused by overproduction and exacerbated by a stock market crash in 1929, which saw unemployment and poverty skyrocket.

World War II brought the world out of recession, with economic prosperity increasing from then on. The standard of living has risen for the majority of the world's population. One particular success story is the largest decrease in poverty in human history, which has taken place in China since the 1980s. Economic prosperity has, by and large, gone hand-in-hand with an improvement in the lives of ordinary people. The last century saw

a major improvement in women's employment, material comfort for most has improved, and death from starvation and privation has diminished. Yet, **paradoxically**, we now live in an age of extreme and increasing income inequality. Inequality stands as a potential source of political instability.

Post-Cold War politics

Less than a decade after the West had 'won' the Cold War, some argued that because countries were becoming more similar, with more nations adopting the liberal democratic system, we were witnessing the 'end of history'. Events of the last 25 years have shown the folly of such predictions. We are witnessing a plunge in the hard (military) and soft (diplomatic) power of the USA, which was the only superpower left after the end of the Cold War.

Terrorism, a common feature for centuries in some parts of the world, came to the USA in the early 21st century when Islamists attacked the US on its home soil (2001). The US immediately announced a 'War on Terror', recruiting many nations to their cause. As part of this campaign, they have fought long wars in Afghanistan and Iraq.

The world is now multipolar, and thus more uncertain. Before World War I, only the Europeans had true global power, and during the Cold War only the USA and the USSR did. In the modern era, many more (often nuclear-armed) powers are rising, particularly the so-called 'BRICS' (Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa) nations.

Source 5

The world was shocked when terrorists destroyed skyscrapers in New York City in 2001.



Globalisation

Globalisation is a force that has been with us for centuries, since the first far-flung groups began trading objects. This process accelerated considerably in the 20th century. National economies are now so interlinked with the international system that individual countries often have little control over their own economic fortunes. The waves of migration that started after World War II never truly stopped, and new ideas, peoples, ways of thinking and doing business were spread around the world. Multiculturalism has become the norm in many countries, as those seeking skilled migrants attract those escaping economic hardship elsewhere. The influence of globalisation has been felt strongly in Australia, as the country welcomes migrant families from around the world, enriching the culture of the nation.

Economic globalisation has now been called into question, as inequality has risen to its highest point in centuries, and some multinational companies have more political power than democratically elected governments, especially those of smaller nations.

Some have taken political integration a step further. In an act that would have seemed unfathomable in 1914, European nations slowly solidified into a political and economic alliance. The European Union formed in 1993 and introduced a common currency in 1999. The Union encapsulates 27 countries, many of whom fought each other in World Wars I and II.

Human rights

The UN was established in 1945. This **institution** has spawned a number of other international agencies, including ones devoted to finance, labour, health, science and culture. The last century has seen an improvement in human rights across almost all categories, aided by a visionary and ambitious statement, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in 1948. There has been a marked improvement in civil rights, gay rights and transgender rights, and many successful battles against racism, sexism and other forms of discrimination. The improvement in human rights for so many people, in such a short space of time, is truly unprecedented.



Source 6

The UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

The Australian civil rights movement is fundamental to our modern nation. Coming at a time when civil rights for **marginalised** racial communities was coming to a head elsewhere, most notably in the USA, the Australian First Nations community fought for equality, **reconciliation**, and their rights.

From the fledgling First Nations political bodies established in the 1930s, to the declaration of a ‘Day of Mourning’ in 1938, the fight for rights then gathered pace in the second half of the 20th century. Key figures in the movement included Pearl Gibbs, a prominent female activist, and Charles Perkins, the leader of the Australian Freedom Ride and a senior public servant, who advanced the cause of Australian First Nations peoples. Milestone events included union protests leading to land rights, legal victories, the Mabo decision in 1992 (which saw the federal government recognise First Nations peoples’ traditional rights to the land), and the setting up of a permanent Aboriginal Tent Embassy

on the grounds of the nation's capital in Canberra, a prominent site that keeps reconciliation in the national spotlight.

In 1962, all First Nations peoples of Australia were made eligible to vote in federal elections, and in all state elections by 1965. By 1967, in a widely supported referendum, First Nations peoples were counted in the census for the first time as the federal government was made responsible for Indigenous funding. Attempts at reconciliation included a Royal Commission into the forced removal of First Nations children, known as the Stolen Generations, and an official government apology for those actions by Prime Minister Rudd in 2008.

Science and technology

The scientific, military and industrial engine of the global economy has seen advances at a pace even more frenzied than the early decades of the Industrial Revolution. Military research and development has sped up technological development of a number of tools that have widespread civilian use, such as GPS, the internet, drones and computers. Technology has completely altered communication, travel and trade, and has gone hand-in-hand with globalisation.

International cooperation on scientific matters, from fusion power to vaccines, has improved human life and has seen collaboration between scientists that spans ideological and national divides. Major improvements in technology for the home have seen households awash with labour-saving devices. Whether this has in fact delivered more leisure time is an open question, however.

One technological development from just a few decades ago has made a profound impact – the internet. From its specialised use among the scientific and military community in the 1970s, it was expanded into civilian homes and businesses by the 1990s and is now the dominant form of technology and largest transmitter of culture on the planet. Its myriad applications have completely transformed commerce, communication, education, entertainment and journalism, to name but a handful of areas. The invention and rapid spread of the smartphone has given billions of users a high-powered, networked computer in the palm of their hand.

Source 7

Thousands watched Prime Minister Kevin Rudd's apology at Melbourne's Federation Square on 13 February 2008.





Source 8

Logging in the Great Otway National Park, Victoria

Environment

As the human population has quadrupled since the end of World War I, the amount of environmental resources each human uses (most notably, in the developed world) has increased, thus environmental degradation has increased radically.

Some concerned scientists noticed this around the middle of the 20th century, but in recent decades the murmur of concern has become a roar. Habitat destruction; biodiversity loss; air, water and land pollution; increased bushfires; deforestation and global warming caused by climate change are some of the many ecological horrors that humanity has inflicted on the planet. A small number of nuclear accidents (USA in 1979, Ukraine in 1986 and Japan in 2011) saw nuclear radiation spill into the atmosphere. We must now contend with the environmental problems many believe are the world's most fundamental and pressing concerns.

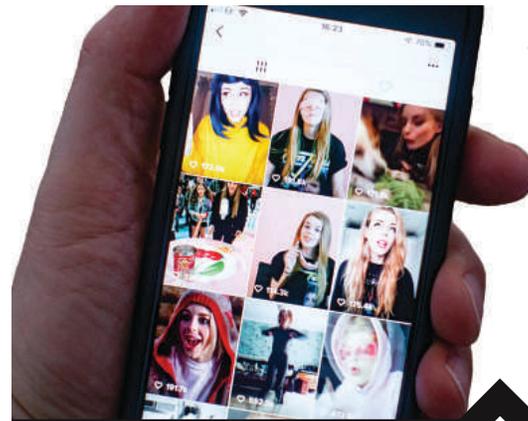
Culture

Before the 20th century, culture could be divided into lifestyles linked to specific ethnicities or locations. Now it is possible to talk of a single global 'culture', dominated by the internet and increasingly combining elements of disparate social backgrounds such as Korean pop music, African American street clothing, European high fashion and global video gaming.

Earlier in the 20th century, new cultural forms such as television, radio and mass journalism made the world a smaller place. They also turned culture into something to be consumed rather than created. Gone were the days when small family groups would entertain each other with musical

performances, instead replaced by everyone being focused on the one television. In more recent times, it is not uncommon to find every family member now absorbed in their own personal screen. The rise of the internet has seen a paradoxical divide, in that there are now niche cultures for almost any personal interest, yet also worldwide mass crazes that regularly sweep the globe.

Social media platforms and algorithms predicting what individuals want to see have begun to divide national populations in ways previously unseen. Unlike in the 1970s, when the entire country might have sat down to watch the same information on the nightly news, now every person has their own bespoke newsfeed. With a distinct lack of an agreed-upon set of facts, political and cultural polarisation is rising.



Source 9

Tiktok, launched in 2017, became a popular video sharing social media platform in a very short space of time.

Learning ladder H0.5

Show what you know

- 1 Why did World War II start and what effects has it had on the world?
- 2 Who 'won' the Cold War and why?
- 3 What was one of the major outcomes of mass migration in the 20th century?
- 4 Who gained major economic benefits in the last 100 years?
- 5 How has politics changed since the end of the Cold War?
- 6 Why do some people think globalisation is a bad thing?
- 7 What kinds of human rights were fought for in Australia in the 20th century and how successful have these struggles been?

Australia at war 1918 to 1945

H1

HOW CAN WE UNDERSTAND WORLD WAR II?

page 22

economics and business

page 38

WHAT WAS THE
GREAT
DEPRESSION?

cause and effect

page 68

WHERE AND HOW DID
AUSTRALIAN
SOLDIERS SERVE?

continuity and change

page 82

WHAT WAS THE
BACKGROUND TO THE
HOLOCAUST?

How can we 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 huge task – one that begins well before the war itself. Part 1 of this chapter explores the interwar years, the complex time between the end of World War I and the beginning of World War II. Part 2 explores World War II in detail and Part 3 of this chapter focuses on the Holocaust, the genocide of European Jews during World War II.

learning ladder

 step 5	<p>I can evaluate a source I can present a judgement on the usefulness of a source based on its strengths, weaknesses and limitations. I can determine whether information is missing about the event or person the source refers to.</p>	<p>I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change I answer the question 'So what?' about patterns of continuity and change. I weigh up different aspects and debate the importance of continuity or change.</p>	<p>I can evaluate causes and effects I answer the question 'So what?' about cause and effect. I weigh up different things and debate the importance of a cause or an effect.</p>
 step 4	<p>I can analyse a source I can use my own knowledge to determine the reliability of a source and can explain whether it shows a one-sided view.</p>	<p>I can analyse patterns of continuity and change I can look deeper into patterns of continuity and change and determine the factors that contribute to them.</p>	<p>I can analyse causes and effects I don't just see a cause or an effect as one thing. I can determine the factors that make up causes and effects.</p>
 step 3	<p>I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose I combine knowledge of when and where a source was created to answer the question, 'Why was it created?'.</p>	<p>I can explain patterns of continuity and change I can see beyond individual examples of continuity and change between historical periods and explain broader patterns.</p>	<p>I can explain causes and effects I can answer 'How?' or 'Why?' a cause led to an effect regarding Australia at war.</p>
 step 2	<p>I can find themes in a source I look a bit closer at a source and find more than just features. I find themes and patterns in a source.</p>	<p>I can explain why something did or did not change I can give a reason for why something changed or why it stayed the same.</p>	<p>I can determine causes and effects Applying what I have learnt about Australia at war, I can describe what the cause or effect of an event was.</p>
 step 1	<p>I can list specific features of a source I can look at a source from Australia at war and list the details I can see in it.</p>	<p>I can describe continuity and change I recognise what has stayed the same and what has changed about Australia at war.</p>	<p>I can recognise a cause and an effect From a supplied list, I can recognise things that were causes or effects of each other regarding Australia at war.</p>

Source analysis **Continuity and change** **Cause and effect**



Warm up

Source 1

The Munich Agreement in 1938 was a deal that allowed German forces to **annex** the Sudetenland, in western Czechoslovakia. As the Nazi forces arrive in her area, a woman cries while giving the Nazi salute. Is she happy or grief stricken?

I can evaluate historical significance

I answer the question 'So what?' about things that are supposedly important in the history of Australia at war. I weigh up factors against one another and can cast doubt on how important things are.

I can evaluate historical interpretations

I can weigh up the different historical interpretations that have been formed. I debate and challenge the interpretations that have been presented.

I can analyse historical significance

I can separate the various factors that make something historically important in the history of Australia at war.

I can analyse historical interpretations

I can determine the factors that have led to why a historical interpretation has been formed.

I can apply a theory of significance

I know a theory of significance. I use it to rank the importance of changes, causes, effects and events in the history of Australia at war.

I can explain historical interpretations

I can answer 'Why?' or 'How?' there are different interpretations of people and events in the past.

I can explain historical significance

I answer the question 'Why?' about what was important in Australia at war.

I can describe historical interpretations

I can provide different examples to show how people and events in the past have been interpreted.

I can recognise historical significance

When shown a list of facts about Australia at war, I can work out which are important.

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

I can identify different views of people and events in the past.

Historical significance

Historical interpretations

Source analysis

- 1 Source 1: In which region of Europe was this image taken?

Continuity and change

- 2 Source 1: Which European country controls this region today?

Cause and effect

- 3 Source 1: What was the Munich Agreement? How did it contribute to this image?

Historical significance

- 4 Source 1: How do you think the Nazis might have justified annexing the Sudetenland?

Historical interpretations

- 5 Source 1: What could be some of the reasons that the woman is crying yet still saluting the Nazi invaders?

PART I: AFTER THE GREAT WAR

What happened after World War I ended?

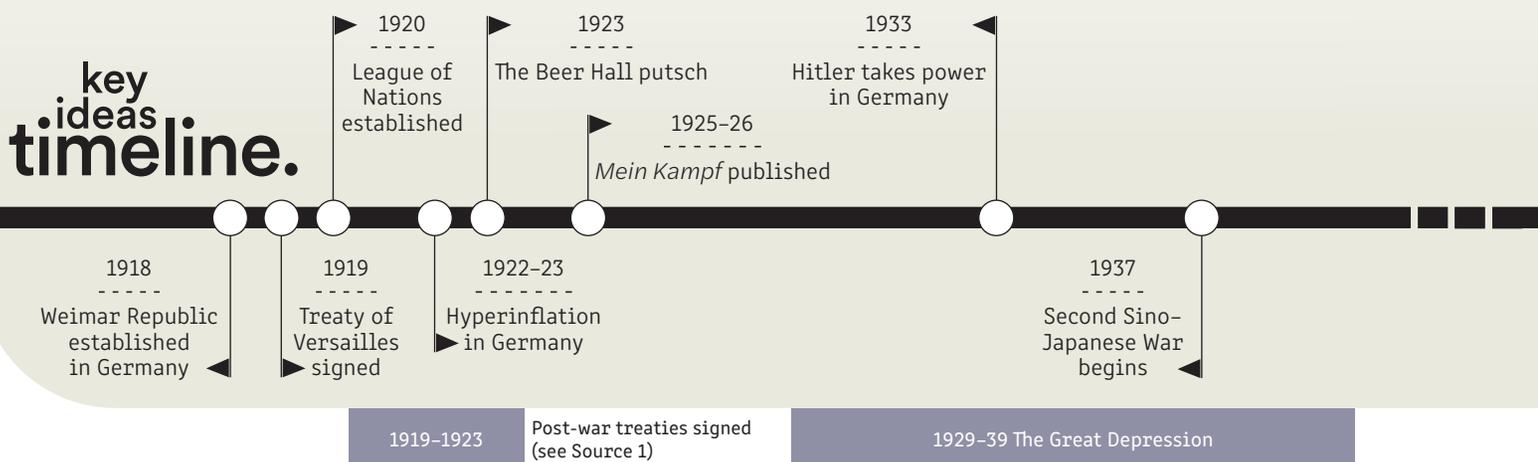
When the 'Great War' ended, the victorious powers sought to ensure lasting peace for the nations involved, leading to the establishment of a number of key **treaties**. Sixteen treaties were signed between the warring nations, the most prominent of which dealt with the defeated powers of Germany, the Ottoman Empire, the Austro-Hungarian Empire and Bulgaria, all of whom lost territory and influence.

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.

key ideas timeline.



Name of treaty	Date of signing	Treaty with	Outcomes
Versailles	1919	Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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 2)
Neuilly	1919	Bulgaria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Army reduced to 20 000 Reparations to be paid Lost land to Greece
Trianon	1920	Hungary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Army reduced to 35 000 Lost territory to Romania and Yugoslavia Reparations not agreed (as Hungary bankrupted)
Saint Germain	1920	Austria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reparations not agreed (as Austria bankrupted) Lost land to Czechoslovakia, Poland and Italy Army reduced to 30 000
Sèvres	1920	Turkey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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	Turkey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unlimited army Cancelled reparations Land not given to Greece

Source 1

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 culpable than any other participating nation. Anger and resentment, compounded by a difficult economic situation, began to grow.

A corporal named Adolf Hitler, having earned two Iron Crosses during his service, summarised the aftermath of the war for 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 who had been swayed by Allied **propaganda** and Germany had capitulated too easily. This thinking held that Germany had not been defeated on the battlefield, but rather by the government who were under the influence of minority groups within German society, including Jewish people and socialists.

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.

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 USA elected not to join, as 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 ultimate purpose to prevent another global war.



Source: Matilda Education Australia/Custom Mapping Services

Learning ladder H1.1

Show what you know

- 1 What is a treaty and how does it work?
- 2 What were the aims and purpose of the League of Nations?
- 3 Why did the USA refuse to join the League of Nations?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 4 Which empires ended at the end of the war and what did this mean in terms of new nations?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 5 According to the map, which territories and industrial assets did Germany lose after the war?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of historical significance

- 6 How did losing territories and assets impact upon Germany's ability to rebuild after the war?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 7 How did many Germans, including war veterans, view the Treaty of Versailles?

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 237

How were Australian soldiers brought home from Europe?

After World War I, many Australian veterans were stranded in Europe and were billeted with families in England, France and elsewhere. They occupied themselves with healing, duties, fitness, study and, for some, adjusting to life with a disability. The **repatriation** of Australians was as difficult logistically as it was costly.

In the immediate post-war period, there were not enough ships to transport 131 000 Australian personnel for repatriation. In addition, some soldiers had married in Europe and now had children, so there were another 7000 dependants to bring home. Another complex logistical task was how to transport injured soldiers, some of whom had serious ongoing medical issues. Once home, war pensions had to be calculated to a soldier's level of injury and the perceived impairment to their future employability.

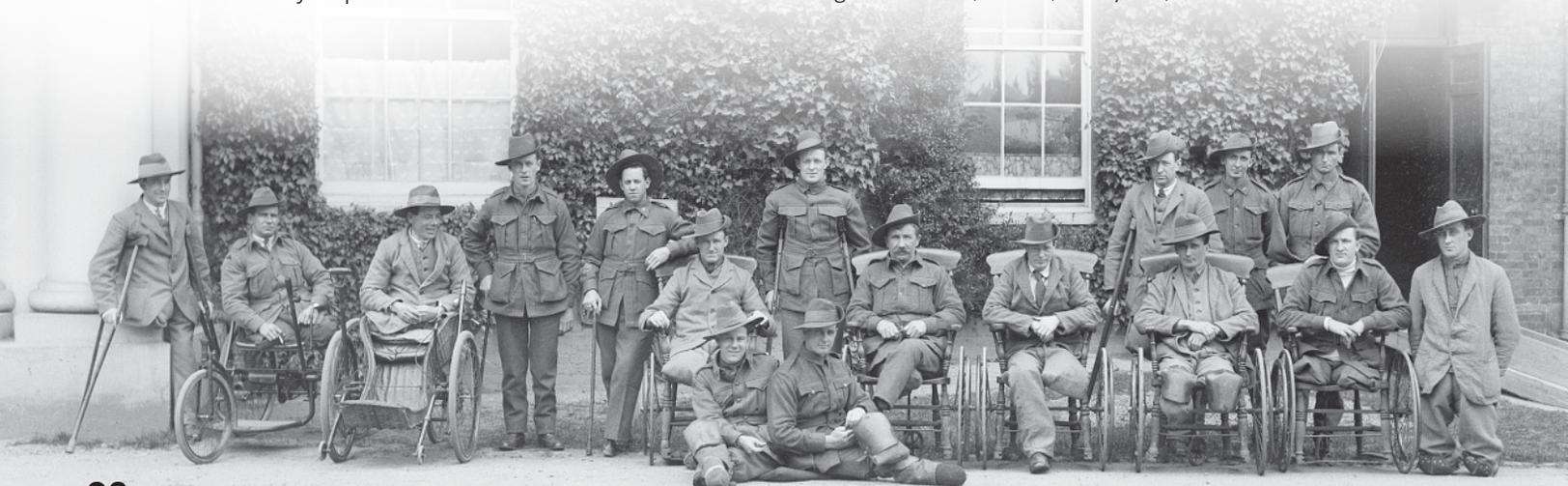
The decision as to who should go home first created some controversy. Some argued that the soldiers who had served the longest should have priority. With the pressures of rebuilding the country and economy, the government had to balance this with those who needed to return to take care of their families and those whose skills were economically important.

The Australian Government created legislation and a department to manage repatriation but it was ineffectively planned and poorly managed. The Soldiers Settlement Scheme provided pensions and land to returned white soldiers. However, this land was seized from First Nations reserves and was turned into agricultural land to enable the veterans to turn a profit.

The repatriation was made even more difficult due to the outbreak of a pandemic of what was called the 'Spanish Flu' in 1918. This illness infected more than 500 million and killed over 50 million people globally. The disease added an extra level of complexity to the repatriation of Australian soldiers from Europe.

Source 1

Patients outside No. 2 Australian Auxiliary Hospital, which specialised in fitting artificial limbs, London, 22 May 1919, AWM D00539



The scars of war

For some, the scars of war would never fully heal. The number of amputations, facial deformities and permanent injuries required innovative solutions, including prosthetics and newly developed skin-grafting surgery. One of the most pervasive injuries was psychological rather than physical: that of shellshock. Named after the shells that whistled overhead before exploding on impact, the sounds, smells and terror generated by artillery bombardment and fighting in war in general profoundly affected many young men who had been sold on the idea that war would be an adventure. A forward-thinking Major, Arthur Hurst, pioneered a treatment for shellshock in rural settings, which involved raising farm animals and using occupational therapy. It is still used to treat what we now call post-traumatic stress disorder. For others, however, the return to civilian life was almost unbearable; sadly, rates of alcoholism, family breakdowns and domestic violence increased in the post-war years.

On the home front

In a society in which the man was expected to be the family breadwinner, even those with permanent disabilities still needed to enter the workforce. Many of these men were single when they went to war and were away during years in which they would have been learning professions. This gave some urgency to the rehabilitation of veterans with disabilities, and special workshops were established such as those that catered to teaching amputees new jobs or new ways to perform certain physical roles.

The war had also given women new skills and training. While men were primarily at war, women stepped into jobs and professions they had traditionally been prevented from accessing. Women worked in the country in the 'Land Army' and in factories and docks in cities. For three years women had kept Australia's economy and labour-intensive agricultural sector going, which was vital for the economy and Australia's future ability to rebuild itself. The reinsertion of men and removal of women for traditional rather than meritocratic reasons led to movements for women's rights.



Learning ladder H1.2

Show what you know

- 1 What did soldiers do immediately after World War I?
- 2 How did the World War I veterans pass the time?
- 3 How were war pensions calculated?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 4 How many Australians were stranded in Europe after World War I?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 5 What was controversial about who got to come home first?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 6 What had women done during the war and how did this later change society?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 7 What was unfair about the war pensions and the Soldiers Settlement Scheme? How might this have affected veterans in different ways?



Cause and effect, page 233

What happened in Turkey and Armenia after World War I?

The collapse of several empires in the aftermath of World War I created the conditions for great social and political change. The end of the Ottoman Empire saw the birth of Turkey as a modern nation under the leadership of Mustafa Kemal, who became known as Atatürk ('the Father of the Turks').

Atatürk rose to prominence as a military leader and nationalist, and was the founding president of the Republic of Turkey. His government initiated a range of political, economic and cultural reforms to modernise the country.

The Treaty of Sèvres in 1920 divided the former Ottoman Empire and triggered conflict between the new Turkish state and some of its regional neighbours, including Greece and Armenia. The new government cancelled the treaty and instead negotiated the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923, which prevented further hostilities and allowed Turkey to enter the League of Nations. However, the new treaty also meant that Armenia was no longer recognised as a separate region.

Armenia and Turkey

With the collapse of several previously prominent empires, there were often internal shifts in control and, therefore, conflicts over the new power vacuums that had been created. In the transition from Ottoman Empire to Turkish Republic, old hostilities between the various ethnic groups manifested in new independence movements and racially motivated conflict. The leaders of the 'Young Turks' movement used the war as a distraction to conduct a series of resettlements

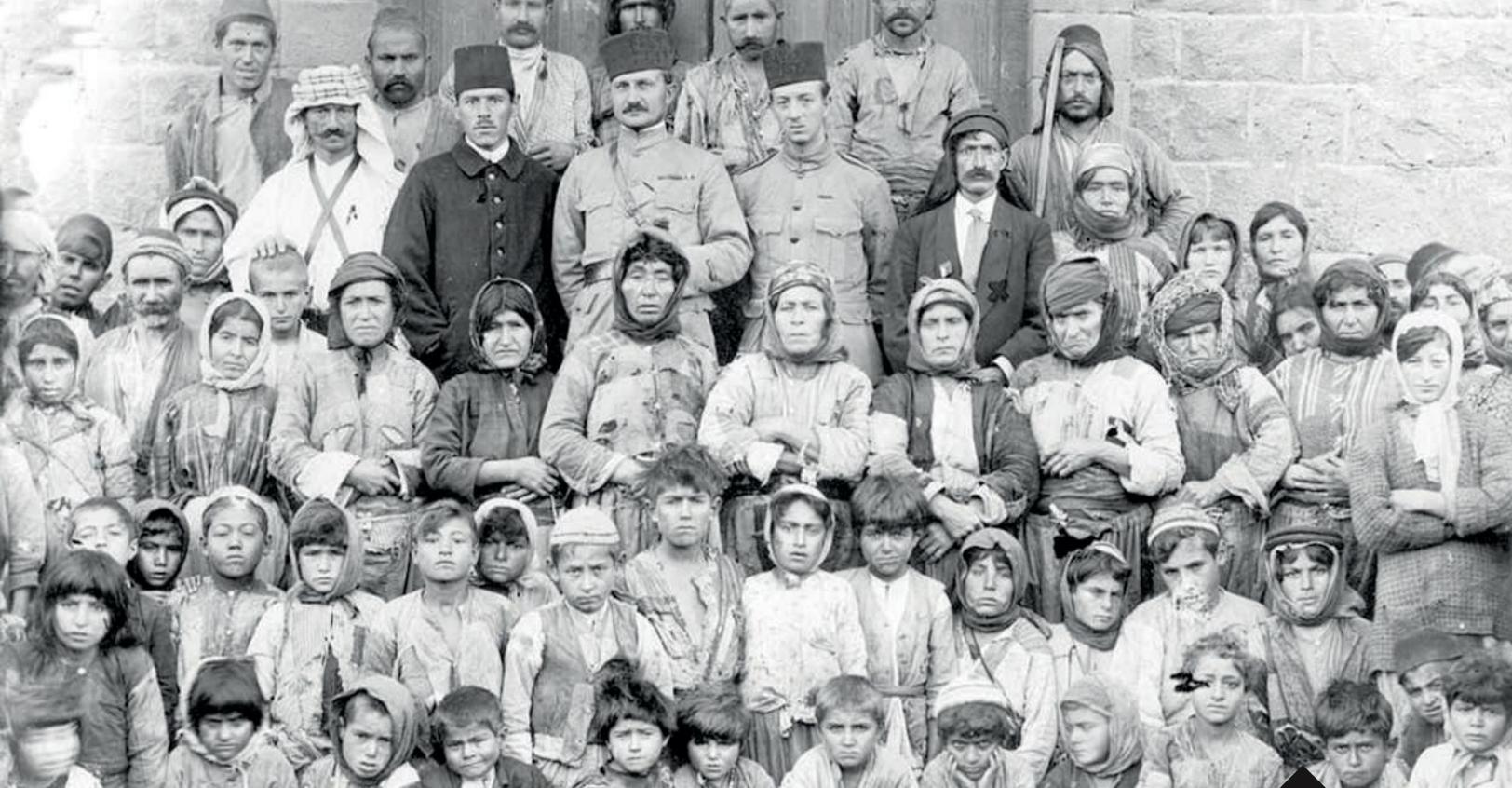


Source 1
President Atatürk

of the Armenian people between 1915 and 1923. This became a massacre of one of the oldest Christian communities in the world.

The massacres began on 24 April 1915, when Armenian intellectuals were rounded up in Istanbul. Authorities justified this by claiming they had links to Armenian independence groups. This escalated a month later, when the Tehcir (deportation) Law was introduced, which saw the mass deportation of Armenians to Syria.

Armenians were rounded up and forced to walk hundreds of kilometres with little food and water. Others were massacred; some near their villages and homes, and some in the Syrian desert. In addition to the massacres, the Ottomans also confiscated the property of the Armenians, justifying that it had been 'abandoned' and thousands of churches and monasteries were destroyed.



Source 2

Armenian women and children in Syria, rescued in the spring of 1918

The Ottoman Empire feared a coordinated attack from Russo and Turkic Armenians or that the Armenians would call for an independent state. This was further complicated by the large numbers of Muslim refugees fleeing the conflict in the Balkan region. Many of these refugees were settled in Armenian lands, which also inflamed the religiously motivated conflict.

Despite the Armenian resistance and some help from sympathisers, historians estimate that 1.5 million Armenians died in these events and many more were driven into exile. A large number of Armenian women were forced into Muslim marriages and children were taken and forced to convert to Islam.

Inspired by these and other horrific events, UN lawyer Raphael Lemkin coined the term **genocide** – a combination of *genos*, a Greek word for a group for whom there is a common descent, and *cide* from Latin for ‘murder’. He began to compile a legal convention for the international protection of minority religious, ethnic or racial groups to try to prevent any future attempts to annihilate these minorities. The US-led classification of the Armenian massacres as constituting a genocide is upheld by over 30 countries; however, modern-day Turkey disputes these claims, even rejecting a recent petition of Turkish intellectuals apologising for the deaths.

Learning ladder H1.3

Show what you know

- 1 What were Atatürk’s major achievements?
- 2 Why were Armenian churches and monasteries destroyed?
- 3 Define the word genocide.
- 4 According to whom are these events a genocide?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 5 What happened when the Tehcir Law was introduced?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 6 Do some research to find out why Armenia was no longer recognised in the Treaty of Lausanne.

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 7 What were the intended outcomes and actual effects of the deportations?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 8 Find out about the ‘Young Turks’ and describe their relationship to these events.



Cause and effect, page 233

How did colonial powers carve up the Middle East?

After victory over the Ottoman Empire in the Middle East, the UK and France actioned the Sykes–Picot Agreement, dividing the region into zones that they controlled. This agreement was made in secret in 1916.

In their push to vanquish the Ottoman Empire, the Allies made various promises to the Arabic and Jewish leaders and other peoples in the region. In return, these groups fed intelligence to the Allies and supplied trained militia to support the British Armed forces. On the third of January 1919, Arab leader Emir Faisal I bin Al-Hussein met with Jewish leader Chaim Weizmann and made the first peace agreement between Arabs and Jews in the Middle East. However, this was voided by the Sykes-Picot Agreement's implementation at the London Conference in 1920.

Between 1918 and 1939 a number of nations that had not previously existed emerged across the Middle East, with borders set by Mark Sykes of the UK and François Georges-Picot of France. Unfortunately, the borders had little geopolitical significance and the straight lines divided tribes, families and resources unfairly and unequally. A new elite established itself to capitalise on the power vacuum the Agreement had created.

Some of the new countries were:

- Palestine: In 1917, the UK made the Balfour Declaration, which created a Jewish homeland in the Middle East but also maintained the British **mandate** of Palestine.
- Lebanon: Under a League of Nations mandate, France created Greater Lebanon in 1920.

- Jordan: In 1921, Transjordan was separated from British Mandate Palestine and it was given to Abdullah who later established the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan.
- Iran: A strong military leader called Reza Pahlavi, originally Reza Khan, established himself as the Shah of Iran. Although he was not of royal descent, he was sympathetic to foreign influence and established the Pahlavi dynasty in 1925. He sought to rebuild Iran along modern democratic lines.

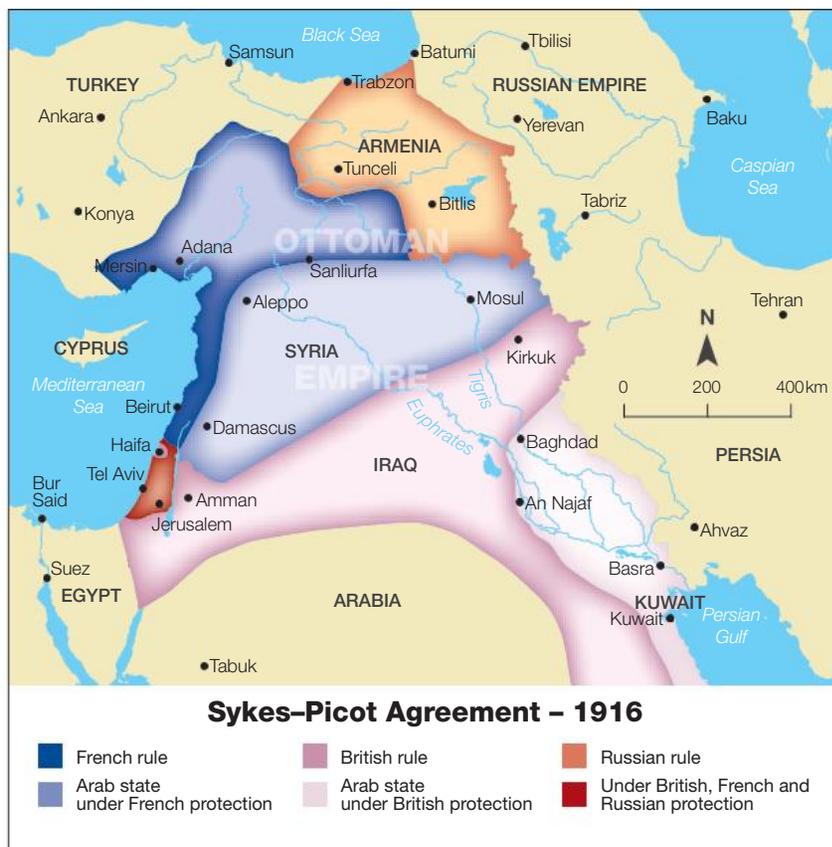
Source 1

Dr Chaim Weizmann of the Zionist Organisation (left) and Emir Faisal of Hejaz (right), at a meeting in June 1918.



Sykes-Picot Agreement 1916

- Saudi Arabia: From a tribe who had resisted Ottoman rule, the Saud family rose to prominence and established itself as a kingdom under King Abdulaziz Al-Saud (Ibn Saud) in 1932. As a proponent of a strict interpretation of Islam known as the Wahabi sect, Ibn Saud had conquered a large amount of territory, including the holy cities of Mecca and Madinah. He unified the disparate and warring tribes of Bedouins through coercion, agreements and marriages. He installed Wahabi leaders in the mosques and law courts. The fee on the Hajj, or pilgrimage to Mecca, which all Muslims are encouraged to make once or more in their lifetime, returned revenue to the kingdom. Knowing that oil had been discovered in other Middle Eastern territories, Ibn Saud recruited Western geologists to explore for oil, which was discovered in Saudi Arabia in 1938. Saud selected petroleum companies to find more oil fields and leased to them the rights to drill for oil. These became the largest oil fields in the world.



Source 2
The territory distributed under the Sykes-Picot Agreement

Source: Matilda Education Australia/Custom Mapping Services

Learning ladder H1.4

Show what you know

- Why is the meeting between Faisal and Weizmann significant?
- What happened at the London Conference of 1920?
- Compare a map of the Middle East today with the map in Source 2 and note similarities and differences.
- How did the nation of Iran come into existence?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- How did the Sykes-Picot Agreement divide the lands owned by the former Ottoman Empire?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- How did the Sykes-Picot Agreement affect the Faisal-Weizmann Agreement?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- How can treaties and agreements create or negate countries?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- How did Ibn Saud unify his country and regime?
 - What was the income of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia based on before oil was discovered?
 - How did Saudi Arabian income change with the discovery of oil?

Continuity and change, page 230

HOW TO

What were the Roaring Twenties?

The roaring 1920s sat within the *interwar* years. They marked a period of tremendous social, economic and cultural change around the world as new music, values and trends spread. In many cases, conservative traditional values were challenged and advancements in technology meant significant lifestyle changes.



These new technologies included automobiles, aeroplanes, refrigerators, heaters and telephones. The 1920s were also known for large economic growth and the rise in manufacturing that created jobs and drew people to urban areas. In Australia, the Ford and General Motors car manufacturers opened plants and attracted many former agricultural workers. New air travel was also sensationalised by aviation pioneers such as Charles Lindberg, Amelia Earhart and Charles Kingsford-Smith.

The spread of new technology from the USA was particularly notable, as the country emerged from World War I in an economically strong position. This allowed for the easy transmission of popular US culture, including dances such as the Charleston, new music such as jazz and new fashion trends, many of which broke away from the conservative fashions of the former decades, as shown in Source 1. Some considered these new fashions to be morally damaging, especially when combined with smoking cigarettes in public and drinking alcohol.

Source 1

Flapper became a popular term in the 1920s to refer to women with shorter skirts and bobbed hair. Similar trends emerged across the world.



Source 2

Anna May Wong appearing in the movie *Daughter of the Dragon*. She was the first Chinese American to become an international movie star. Her varied career spanned both silent and sound film. During the silent film era, she acted in *The Toll of the Sea* (1922), one of the first movies made in colour.

In the USA, concerns over consumption of alcohol led to a period of **prohibition**; the sale and purchase of alcohol was prohibited between 1920 and 1933. However, rather than reduce people's alcohol consumption, prohibition contributed to the rise of **bootleggers** – gangsters who smuggled alcohol – running **speakeasies** (illegal bars) and controlling sections of cities through networks of bribery and corruption. One such bootlegger and gangster was the notorious Al Capone.

The cultural changes spread to Asia, where trends in film, music and fashion were emulated from the West. These trends were also associated with growing independence for some women, who chose their own partners and lived their own lives. During the 1920s and 30s, Shanghai

became known as the 'Paris of the East, the New York of the West' and was a thriving hub of commerce and entertainment. The presence of Europeans, many of whom had fled the Russian Revolution, contributed to a renowned jazz scene.

The emerging new music style, jazz, also defined this period. It arose in the southern states of the US and was inspired by African music, slave working songs, French classical music and Creole culture. It emerged from the bawdy red-light district of New Orleans and its brothels and speakeasies. What is thought to be the first jazz album, by the Charles 'Buddy' Bolden band, was released 1918 and performers such as Louis Armstrong, Bolden's musical heir, turned jazz into a global phenomenon.

Josephine Baker

As jazz was a style of music pioneered by African American men and women, many Americans became very famous performers. One of the most notable was Freda Josephine McDonald, who took the stage name Josephine Baker. In 1925, Baker joined an African American performance group and toured Paris. France had more liberal values than the USA at the time and she got to experience life free of segregation laws.

Josephine Baker was shocked at the scant costumes she was required to perform in, but she soon embraced the opportunity to use her vaudeville experience to enhance her performances. Audiences adored her and early film records show her risqué dancing. Her performances allowed her to begin a career in film, making her one of the biggest stars and wealthiest women in Europe, despite the racism she experienced when touring Germany.



Source 3

Josephine Baker's awards included the Legion of Honour, the highest French military award.

Later in her career, she was able to use her celebrity status in Europe to support the French resistance during the Nazi occupation and was able to gain access to sensitive information from the **Axis** powers (Germany, Italy and Japan). Eventually, the Nazis forced her to flee to England. After the war, she was awarded with many military honours from the French government for her courage and service.

Source 4

Josephine Baker: Exotic dancer, jazz star, vaudeville performer, film star, opera singer, spy and war hero



While jazz music and technologies took the world by storm, the reality of life in the interwar periods for African Americans and many other minority groups was difficult. Race riots in the US underscored tensions between communities and, by 1925, the terrorist group the **Ku Klux Klan** claimed more than five million members.

At the 1936 Berlin Olympics, African American athlete Jesse Owens stunned the world by winning four gold medals. Many found it paradoxical that although he was not congratulated by Hitler – who didn't congratulate any gold medal winners that day – he would be ignored by his own President Roosevelt when he returned to the USA. Owens said, 'Hitler didn't snub me—it was our president who snubbed me. The president didn't even send me a telegram'.

Source 5

Jesse Owens won long jump gold at the Berlin Olympics, with German Luz Long (far right) claiming silver. The two became friends and wrote letters to each other after the Olympics. In one letter, Long asked Owens to tell his son 'what times were like when we were not separated by war. I am saying – tell him how things can be between men on this earth.' Long was killed soon after while serving with the German Army in Italy.



Learning ladder H1.5

Show what you know

- 1 This period is known as the Roaring Twenties, the interwar years and the Jazz Age. Suggest why each term might be used.
- 2 What technological advances began to change people's lives in this period?
- 3 Summarise the life of Josephine Baker. How did her life intersect with the major events of the period?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 4 Make a list of five events from the 1920s and 30s that could be considered historically significant.

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 5 Who were flappers? Suggest why some might have seen their emergence as a turning point for women's rights and freedoms, while others saw them as a threat to conservative society.

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 6 How could Jesse Owens' success be seen as progressive for African Americans? How did it also reveal challenges?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 7 Suggest factors that might influence why this period is often referred to as the Roaring Twenties, despite the fact that, for the majority of the world's population, segregation, colonialism and poverty remained a reality.

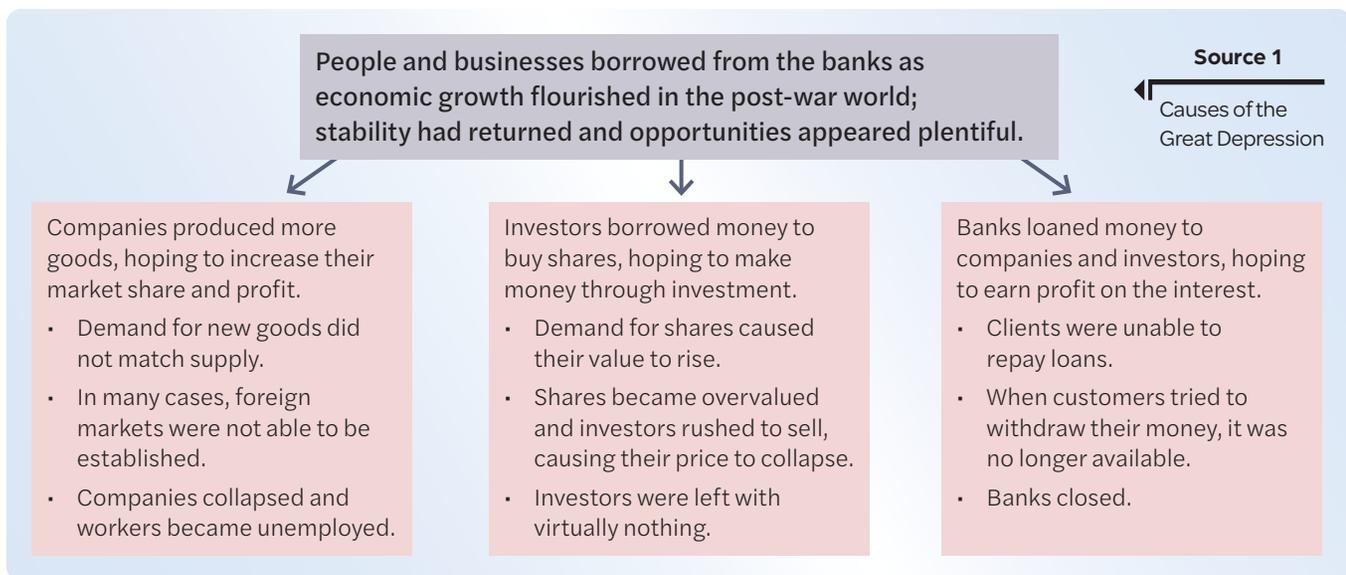
Historical interpretations, page 241

HOW TO

What was the Great Depression?

The heady days of the Roaring Twenties came to a crashing end in the final months of 1929, plunging first the USA, and then many other parts of the world, into crisis, with soaring unemployment and financial losses.

The lending and loaning of money, as well as speculation in investment and production were the primary causes of the Great Depression, as shown in Source 1.



As word spread of falling share prices, the New York Stock Exchange collapsed in October 1929. Desperate customers rushed to the banks to withdraw their savings, only to find the banks unable to give them their money. Unemployment rose as businesses closed and people began moving from city to city in search of work.

The Great Depression in Australia

After the USA emerged from World War I as an economic giant – the US dollar became the global standard for currency – the collapse of the US economy began a global domino effect. The Australian economy of the 1920s was largely dependent on primary produce and public works, funded by foreign investment and loans.

As the financial markets began to tremble, foreign investments began to shrink, leaving the government with loans to pay, but with less income to service the debt. This meant the end of many public works projects, triggering widespread unemployment. By 1932, Australian unemployment had reached 29 per cent. At the same time, demand for Australian exports also fell, further reducing the country's income.

Unemployment led to eviction and homelessness, shantytowns, widespread food shortages and malnutrition. Charities tried to fill the void by supporting families and government sustenance payments – known as the 'susso' – provided some relief, although the stigma of accepting handouts proved hard for many Australians.



The Great Depression in Europe

Across Europe, most major banks depended on loans and currency exchanges with the USA and, just as it had in the USA, market speculation and overinvestment soon led to a run on the banks, triggering collapse. Unemployment rose sharply and governments struggled to respond.

In Germany, the terms of the Treaty of Versailles already held the nation in a precarious economic position: in the 1920s, loaded with debt and unable to pay reparations, the German government had resorted to the mass printing of money, which then led to **hyperinflation**. In Germany, people's savings and investments were wiped out, and money was so devalued that people needed a wheelbarrow of cash to buy one loaf of bread.

As the currency spiralled out of control, a frustrated public turned on the political leadership. Supporters at both ends of the political spectrum clashed in the streets and uncertainty reigned, creating a fertile climate for sudden and

'Germany appeared to be on the brink of civil war. The young Weimar Republic was wracked by armed street fighting waged mainly between Communists and Nazis. Foreclosures, bankruptcies, suicides and malnourishment all skyrocketed. Six million Germans, 40 per cent of the working population, were unemployed; and thousands found themselves without a place to live ...'

Source 2

Historian Irene Guenther on the impact of the Great Depression on Germany

Source 3

Crowds rush to withdraw their bank savings as word of the economic crisis spreads.

dramatic change. When the Great Depression reached Europe, this second economic shock caused people to turn further towards extremist political parties, believing that democracy had failed them.

Learning ladder H1.6

Show what you know

- 1 How did the Great Depression affect the USA and Australia?
- 2 With reference to Source 3, explain how the Great Depression accelerated political change in Germany.

Economics and business

Step 1: I can recognise economic information

- 3 What does a bank generally do with the money its customers deposit?

Step 2: I can describe economic issues

- 4 What is 'hyperinflation'? How does a currency lose value?

Step 3: I can explain issues in economics

- 5 The collapse of the stock market in the late 1920s was partially caused by speculation. How can people make money by speculating? Why does this involve risk?

Step 4: I can integrate different economic topics

- 6 Draft a letter to the editor from before October 1929, warning of the dangers of speculation and borrowing money and the potential consequences for society.

What happened in interwar Germany?

The Treaty of Versailles named Germany as one of the main aggressors of World War I, placing a huge burden of blame on the country along with extensive reparations. Germany had a vulnerable new political system and was also trying to rebuild its own infrastructure after the war. The unfair burden helped to shape the conditions that led to the rise of the Nazi Party.

The Weimar Republic

After Kaiser Wilhelm II was forced to abdicate the throne on 9 November 1918, a provisional government was declared the next day. In December 1918, the government held elections and formed a national assembly. The purpose of this assembly was to create a new constitution for Germany as a republic and select a new government. The national assembly met in the town of Weimar, so the new regime was called the Weimar Republic. By August 1919, the new Weimar constitution was signed into law and allowed to undertake sweeping

political and social reforms for the German people. The new government consisted of a president, a chancellor and a two-chamber parliament to represent the people. The republic lasted until 1933 when Hitler seized almost total control of Germany.

The value shifts in German society during the Weimar Republic

In the interwar years in Germany, most people still followed their traditional values. They typically attended church weekly, which served to reinforce these values. Society was strict and people ‘knew their place’; however, this conservatism was in conflict with some of the more liberal ideas of the Weimar government. So, the Weimar period was also known as a time of new ideas and art.

Since a number of monarchies had been removed by World War I, the fealty and obedience that citizens had previously paid to royalty was now sought after by emerging political parties. Also, in this period, gangs perpetrated violence as a kind of pressure valve for society’s issues. These gangs contributed to the general instability, and contributed to the creation of small political parties of unemployed World War I veterans, many of whose traumatic experiences during the war and its aftermath went untreated. Many of these veterans felt uprooted by the modern world, and drew inspiration from various conservative ideas, including the vision of society cultivated by the **Völkisch movement**.

Source 1

The Hermannsdenkmal monument was erected in 1875 to celebrate the hero Arminius (also known as Hermann), who defeated the Romans. During the unification of the country in the 19th century, Arminius was hailed by German nationalists as a symbol of their unity and freedom, and his mythology was incorporated into the *Völkisch* movement.

The beginnings of Nazi ideology – the *Völkisch* movement

In the late 19th century, a new movement began in Germany known as the *Völkisch* movement. This movement sought to clarify the folk origins of what it meant to be German from an ethnic point of view. Proponents used the motto ‘blood and soil’, and the idea of one German nation–state called the *Volkskörper*, meaning, literally, the body

Source 2

Nazi propaganda sought to include Viking imagery as part of its version of the *Völkisch* ideology, to create a common ancestry for German, Dutch and Scandinavian peoples. Ironically, the Nazis ignored the evidence of Viking interactions with Polish, Slavic, Russian and Ukrainian peoples, whom the Nazi regime portrayed as beneath them.



of the people. This ‘body’ excluded minorities such as Jewish and **Romani** peoples as not being of the same ‘purity’ as the German race.

The Nazi Party grounded some of its ideology in this movement and combined it with other studies, such as archaeology and mythology. Often, they ‘cherry picked’ certain facts, divorcing them from their original contexts, which enabled them to create elaborate narratives about a mythical Aryan race. The Nazi regime cobbled together a variety of European myths and legends to fabricate a national identity that Nazism could draw from. They also misapplied the theory of evolution to the human species to justify their own white race as the most evolved.

Learning ladder H1.7

Show what you know

- 1 What were some of the reasons smaller, more extreme political parties became popular in the interwar years?
- 2 Why were Jews and Romani peoples excluded from the *Völkisch* movement?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise the past has been represented in different ways

- 3 Why did people follow ideas such as *Volkskörper* and ‘blood and soil’?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 4 How were Viking symbols appropriated in *Völkisch* and Nazi propaganda?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 5 How did academics and archaeologists assist people to create a narrative about German identity?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 6 What was ironic about the *Völkisch* and later Nazi adaptations of Vikings as opposed to the real historical interactions between Vikings and peoples in Europe?

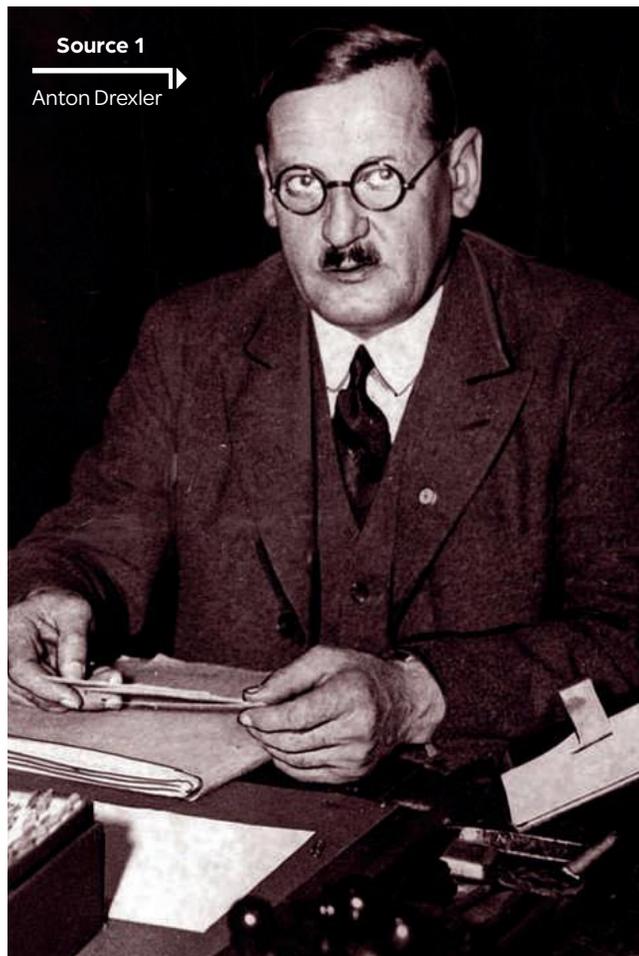
HOW TO

Historical interpretations, page 241

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 Worker's Party, in German, the Deutsche Arbeiterpartei (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 and its anti-Semitic ethos, along with its disdain for Communism and capitalism.

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 give the DAP some longevity in the political landscape of the republic.

Because public meetings were often banned, beer halls served as large venues where political activism could manifest. Hitler developed the DAP 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 came to the fore. 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 platform and direction of the Nazi Party gained notoriety as being different from other conservative parties. The Nazis were neatly uniformed, had stomping marches, iconic flags and strong youth engagement. In many ways, the Nazi Party offered something new and crystallised many of the nationalistic ideas that had been developing for over a century in Germany.

Hitler marches past a swastika banner at a 1930s Nazi march. The march was in memory of the Beer Hall putsch in Munich (pages 44–5). 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*.



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'.

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, and recasting these elements within a mythological Aryan framework strongly resonated with disaffected 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, as well as being written into an anthem and a chant for the Nazi Party's huge rallies. This was another way the party skilfully managed its public relations.

Learning ladder H1.8

Show what you know

- 1 What role did beer halls play in German culture during the Weimar Republic?
- 2 What was Hitler's job after the war, which put him in contact with Drexler and others?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 3 What did Hitler do with the DAP?
- 4 How was Drexler's story similar to that of other German men after World War I?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 5 What was the relationship between Eckart, Drexler, Hitler and the NSDAP?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 6 Where may Hitler have got the idea to use the swastika from?

Cause and effect, page 233

HOW TO

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** – 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 ultimately failed and Hitler was arrested soon after. However, the putsch gave Hitler and his party newfound 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. This appealed to some people, who found the orderliness of the SA and the Nazi Party rallies to be a visible symbol of structure emerging from the chaos of post-World War I Germany. The SA were part of the Nazi Party from beginnings 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 install a machine gun, holding those inside hostage.

The SA leader, Ernst Röhm, led a group of 2000 men to occupy select strategic targets throughout the city, including the war ministry. They persuaded a number of police and army to temporarily join the putsch. Hitler sought to persuade the three Bavarian leaders of the validity of a coup but they refused to endorse it.

Prime Minister von Kahr escaped the beer hall by lying to Hitler's ally Erich von Ludendorff about supporting the coup, and then marshalled the army and police to aggressively suppress the coup. 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*, the blood flag, and was used in various 'blessing' ceremonies throughout World War II. Two days after the failed putsch, Adolf Hitler and his deputy Rudolf Hess, along with 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 1925–26, Rudolph Hess and another Nazi, Emil Maurice, compiled these into the book *Mein Kampf* (in English, *My Struggle*) and this became Hitler's **manifesto** for the Nazi Party. The failure of the putsch and its aftershocks and imprisonment appeared to make Hitler realise that he would have to change tack and move to more political rather than paramilitary means 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.

Source 4

The SA march flags and with torches to mark Adolf Hitler becoming Chancellor of the Reich

Once he was released from prison, Hitler's power and popularity continued to grow. Adolf Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany in January 1933 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, with the understanding that appointing non-Nazis in key government roles would contain him. However, once Hitler was in power, he rapidly expanded Nazi security forces, taking control and stamping out any opposition.

The night of the long knives

While the SA grew in popularity, Hitler increasingly felt threatened by this part of his organisation. He had developed his own security force, the Schutzstaffel (SS), which gradually increased in power and influence over the party.

By 1933, the SA numbered approximately 2 million members, but by this time Hitler felt their leader, Ernst Röhm, was a threat. This led to the famous purge of 30 June 1934, known as the 'night of long knives'. Under the pretext that Röhm was a homosexual, he and other key figures of the SA were executed. While the SA continued to be a part of the Nazi regime, their power and influence were greatly reduced.





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 H1.9

Show what you know

- 1 What led to the proliferation of the paramilitary gangs of minor political parties after World War I?
- 2 Why was Ludendorff included in photos with Hitler?
- 3 What happened to the SA as the Nazi Party sought to become more legitimate?



Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 4 Briefly summarise the Beer Hall putsch in terms of its aims, why it failed and what Hitler learned from it.
- 5 What role did the SA play in society during the Weimar Republic era?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 6 Who owned the copyright for *Mein Kampf* and why did they suppress its publication?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 7 Which artefact that became sacred to Nazism was created during the 1923 Beer Hall putsch? Why was it significant?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 8 How was prison a defining moment for Hitler and the Nazi Party?

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 237

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. They were then diversified into junior and senior movements. All groups sought 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 held a rally with speeches from Hitler. 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 indoctrinated into the value of giving their lives for the German Reich. Members could inform on the political affiliations of their parents, extended family, family friends, teachers and priests or pastors. This was further reinforced in the propaganda film *The Triumph of the Will*, which showed many scenes of German youth supporting the values of the Nazis.

By 1940, the popularity of the group had increased to more than 7 million members – capturing the attention of 80 per cent of German youth. This reached a destructive end as, in the final year of World War II, parts of Germany were actually defended by children and youth

as the German Army had run out of adults to fight. In Hitler's final days in his bunker, one of these units of children met the Führer to receive his praise, as they were expected to defend the home front to their deaths. Countless youth sacrificed their lives needlessly.

Source 1

The Hitler Youth on parade



The youth who resisted Nazi propaganda

A number of young people who disliked the Hitler Youth left it or joined non-mainstream groups such as the Communist youth, 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 trials 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.

Learning ladder H1.10

Show what you know

- 1 Was the popularity of the movements that formed the Hitler Youth widespread or not?
- 2 Why might young people have wanted to join the Hitler Youth?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 3 What were the impacts of the Hitler Youth on German families and society?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- 4 What actions did alternative youth movements perform and what were the risks to them?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 5 How did alternative youth movements continue to resist after the war?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 6 Why were the actions of alternative youth movements only recognised as official resistance and honoured much later?

HOW TO

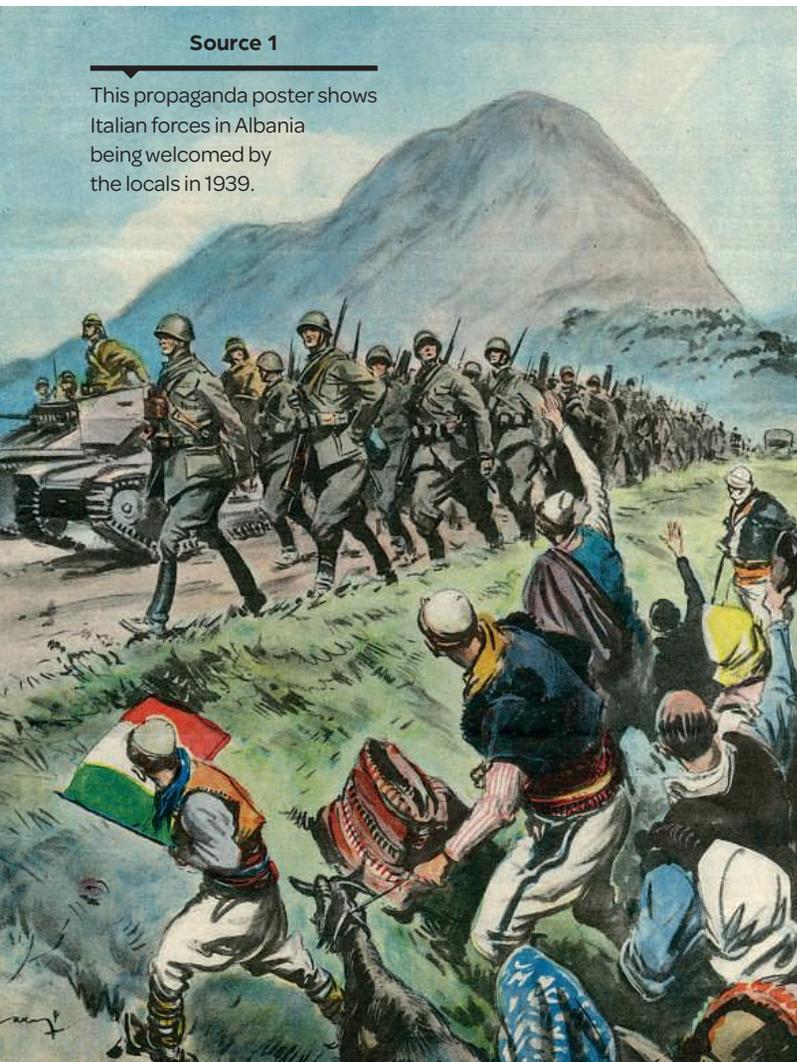
Continuity and change, page 230

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 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. Monarchies clung to power under the rising threat of these forceful movements.

Source 1

This propaganda poster shows Italian forces in Albania being welcomed by the locals in 1939.



Italy

The economic and social vacuum that followed World War I had left Italy in a difficult position. By 1922, support began to grow for Benito Mussolini and his Fascist Party, who promised to restore the glory days of the ancient Roman Empire and to quell the rising voices of socialism. With the support of nationalists and his 'blackshirts' or *squadristi* troops, who were 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'.

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. In the nations of Eritrea and Somalia, Italy already had a colonial presence on the Horn of Africa and it was from here that, 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 in reprisal, in which around 20 per cent of the population of the capital Addis Ababa were killed. 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 neighbouring Albania, the Italians had maintained a continuing presence following World War I, a tentative union in which they effectively administered much of the country. Throughout the 1930s, Italian demands for control and influence grew until April 1939, when military forces moved in and took control of the nation as the Albanian King Zog fled into exile. Albania was of strategic importance, providing

a potential geographic launching point into Yugoslavia and Greece. The potential to unite ethnic Albanian populations in those countries saw support among Albanians themselves and stoked nationalist tensions in the broader region. It also mirrored German movement under Hitler in annexing Austria.

Ireland

After the Easter Rising of 1916, calls for Irish independence grew, culminating in the country fighting a war of independence from 1919 to 1921. The Anglo-Irish treaty of 1921 declared Ireland to be an independent nation, consisting of 26 of the 32 counties of Ireland. In 1937, the Free State became the Republic of Ireland and, while it was still nominally a dominion of the British Empire, it adopted a position of neutrality when conflict flared between Germany and the UK.

Source 2

Irish women protesting the oppression of Irish political activists in 1922



The Soviet Union

In the early 1930s, the Soviet Union contained diverse populations 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. Insufficient production levels were further exacerbated by poor centralised administration and the diversification of crops; precious wheat production was sacrificed to grow sugar beets and cotton, mostly for export.

Millions starved to death, primarily in Ukraine, in what would later be known as the *Holodomor* (artificial hunger). While some historians believe the famine was the result of failed economic policies and environmental variation, others consider it to be a deliberate ploy by the government of Joseph Stalin to diminish and control the ethnic Ukrainian population.

Stalin also began a series of purges to root out those he perceived to be potential troublemakers among his own Communist Party and the differing populations of the Soviet Union. Several key Communist Party figures died as Stalin tightened control in a series of show trials.

From 1936 to 1938, around one million more people lost their lives or were deported to labour camps called *gulags*, including Orthodox clergy, political opponents, Red Army officers, Intelligentsia, *kulaks* (wealthy peasants or landowners), ethnic Poles and other minority groups, including Buddhist lamas suspected of having Japanese sympathies in Soviet-influenced Mongolia.

Source 3

Famine in the USSR; this image shows large crowds of people waiting 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 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 H1.11

Show what you know

- 1 How did Mussolini come to power in Italy?
- 2 Why did Ireland become independent? What might this have meant for other countries under the control of imperial powers?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 3 What does Source 4 tell us about the situation in Spain in the 1930s?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 4 With reference to Sources 1–4, suggest how Europe was becoming increasingly unstable in the 1930s.

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 5 Describe the key features of Source 1. Why do you think the Italian painter has included them? What is the purpose of the poster?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 6 What was the *Holodomor*? What does Source 3 suggest about the gravity of the situation at the time?



Source analysis, page 226

What happened in India and East Asia in the 1930s?

Having ended the relative freedoms and progress of the Roaring 20s, the Great Depression also heightened uncertainty in many parts of the world. Self-determination movements increased tensions, new political parties gained popularity and, in some cases, the military began to take on a much more active role in national affairs.

India

By the 1930s, the British had colonised India for more than a century and a half. Rebellions and protests against British rule continued to build and, 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 and the march was held in protest against British salt taxes.

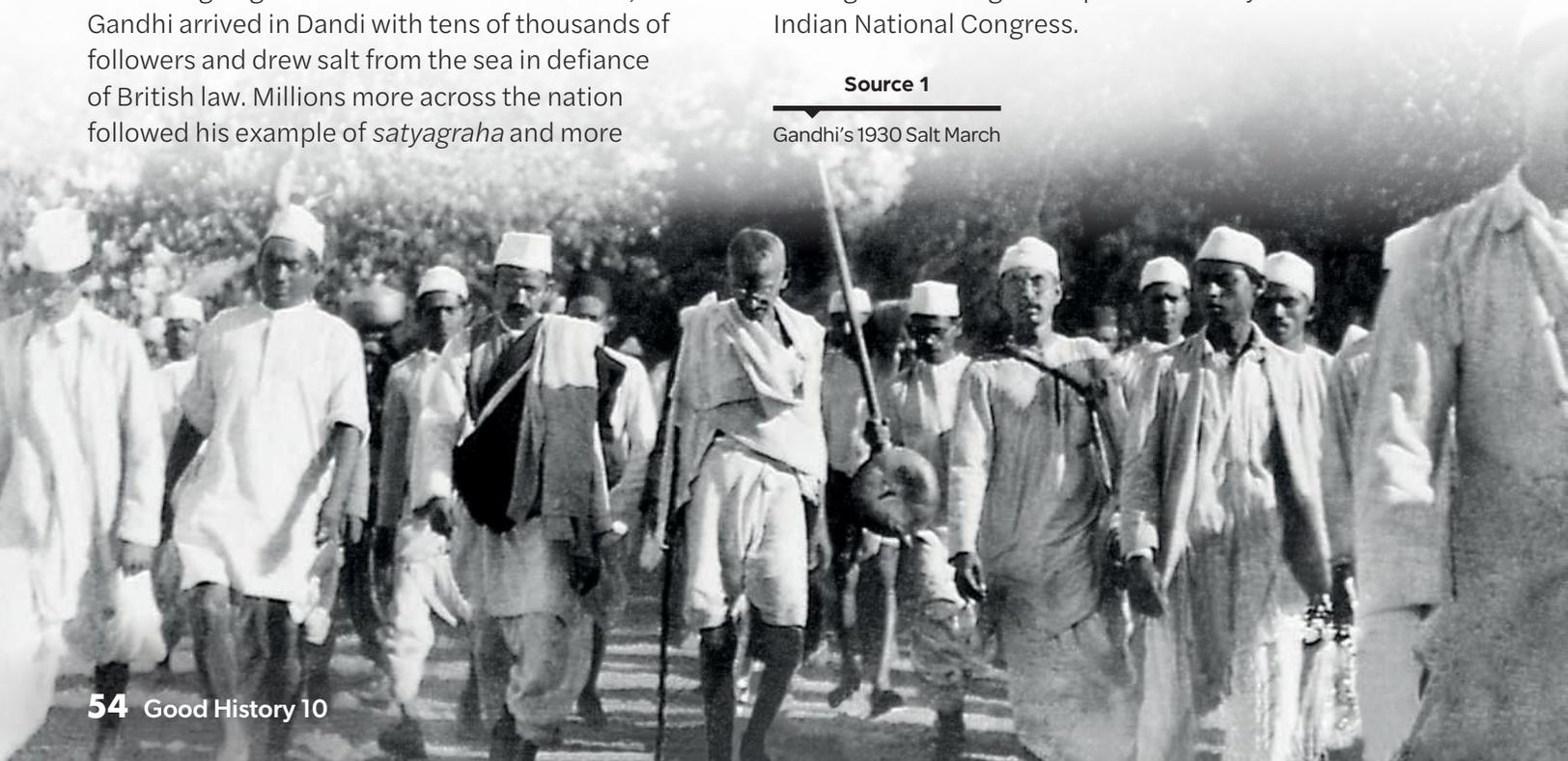
Having begun the march with 78 followers, Gandhi arrived in Dandi with tens of thousands of followers and drew salt from the sea in defiance of British law. Millions more across the nation followed his example of *satyagraha* and more

than 60 000 people, including Gandhi himself, were arrested nationwide. Upon his release from prison in 1931, the British Viceroy urged Gandhi to end *satyagraha* in exchange for a negotiating role at a London congress to determine India's future.

While opposition to British colonial rule grew, so too did unrest between Hindus and Muslims in British India. Muhammed Ali Jinnah, leader of the Muslim League, urged his fellow Muslims to also 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

Gandhi's 1930 Salt March



East Asia

Since the Meiji Restoration of the 19th century, Japan had modernised and industrialised at a rapid rate. Following the Sino–Japanese War of 1894, Taiwan was ceded from China and administered as a colony of Japan. At the same time, control of the Kwantung Leased Territory, a large area in north-eastern China, was also handed to Japan. Although it was briefly held by Russia, it returned to Japanese control following the Russo–Japanese War of 1905.

In 1931, without the support of Emperor Hirohito, the Japanese Army occupied the Kwantung region under the pretext of 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 was 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. The assassination of Japanese Prime Minister Tsuyoshi Inukai – who had sought to balance expansion with diplomacy – by junior naval officers in May 1932 meant the end of civilian rule in Japan and continued 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,



Source 2

A Japanese harmony in Manchuria propaganda poster, 'Five Races Under One Union'

the Japanese delegation simply walked out. A month later, they 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 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 engaged in bitter conflict for control, although together they formed the Second United Front to defend the homeland against the Japanese in 1937. The civil war of 1927–1937 was characterised by skirmishes and battles and, as the KMT forces, led by Chiang Kai-Shek, seemed on the verge of victory, Communist Party forces, led by Mao Zedong, escaped and regrouped. Known as the Long March, Zedong and his forces recruited peasants and disarmed local warlords, growing in numbers and support as they travelled thousands of kilometres inland to Shaanxi province in 1934–1935.

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 – would last for almost six weeks.

Thousands of young Chinese men across the city were rounded up and summarily executed. The figures are disputed, but historians estimate that from 40 000 to 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 reported on a killing competition between soldiers and the sheer 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, even writing to Hitler in an effort to have him persuade the Japanese against further 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 and the March 1st Movement, as it was known, was brutally suppressed by Japanese authorities.

Source 3

This mass grave has been preserved as a memorial to the victims of Nanjing

‘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.’

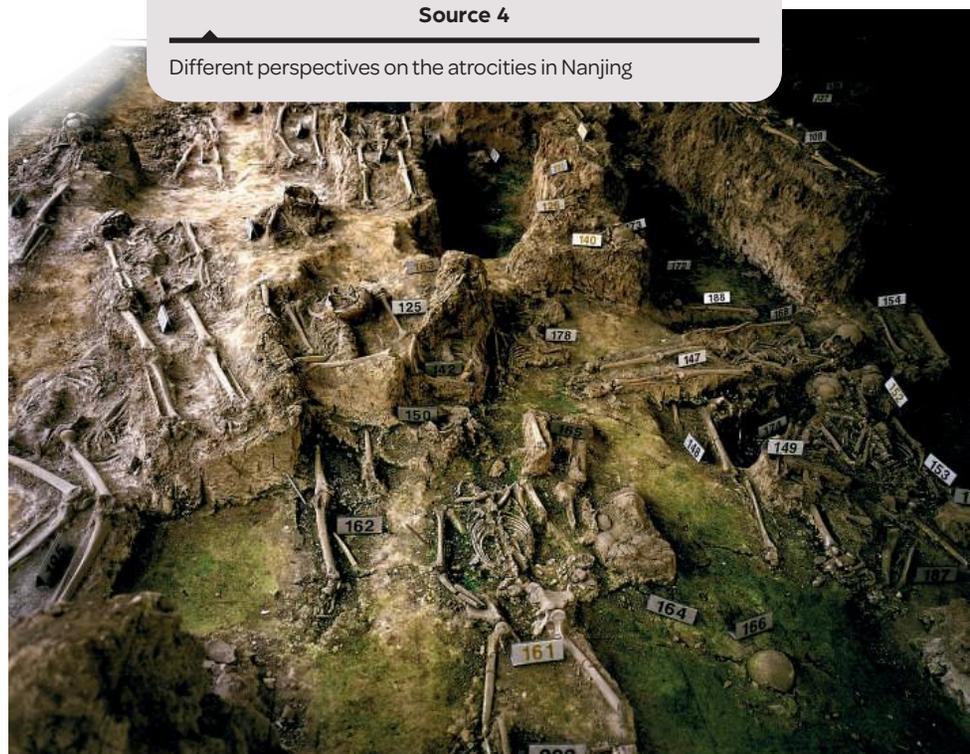
Reverend James M. McCallum, 19 December 1937

‘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



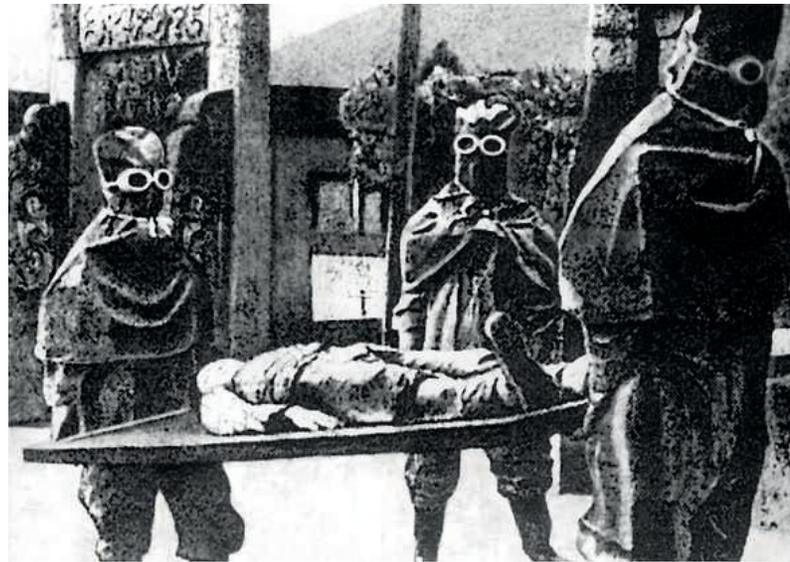
To mitigate the growing nationalist sentiment, colonisation from the mainland was encouraged and quickly attracted interest from investors and agriculturalists. Japanese land ownership increased dramatically from 39.8 per cent in 1920 to 52.7 per cent in 1932, with Korean labourers becoming increasingly indebted. As Japanese demand for labour increased in the latter half of the decade, Koreans were conscripted in large numbers. More than five million were taken to work in mines and factories under the *National Mobilization Law* of 1938, 670 000 of whom were transported to work in Japan itself, often in difficult and dangerous conditions. More than 60 000 of these labourers died.

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 such 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.



Source 5

Japanese staff conducting an experiment at Unit 731

Learning ladder H1.12

Show what you know

- 1 How did the League of Nations respond to Japanese aggression?
- 2 Describe the functions of Unit 731.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 3 Describe the key features in Source 1. Why might Gandhi's example have inspired others to join him?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 4 Using the quotes from Source 4, how would you describe the events in Nanjing in December 1937?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 5 Source 2: Why do you think this poster was created?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 6 How useful would Source 3 be in understanding this period of history? Use your own content knowledge to expand your response.



Source analysis, page 226

PART 2: GLOBAL CONFLICT, TOTAL WAR

How did WWII 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

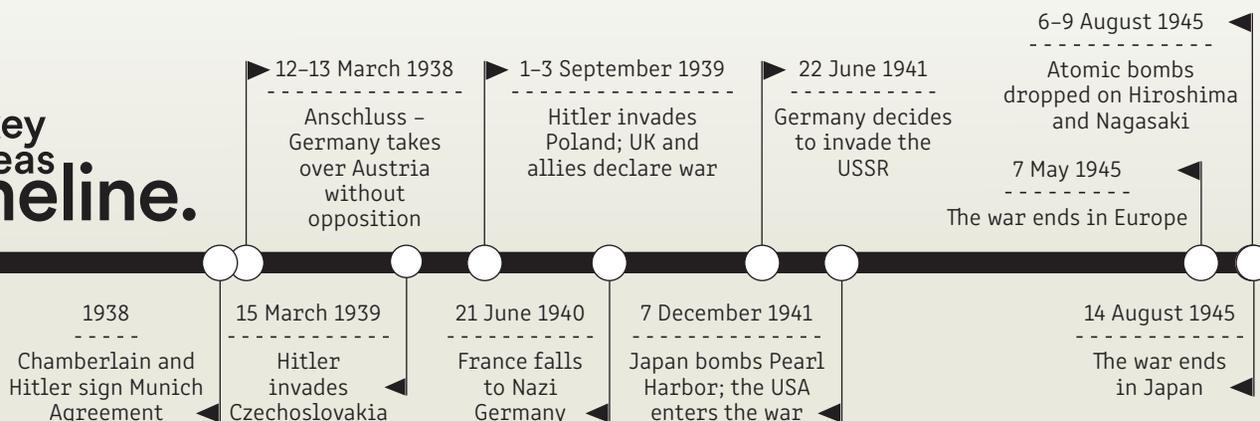
Still smarting over the loss of the resource-rich Sudetenland to Czechoslovakia under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany claimed that ethnic Germans in these lands were being

persecuted. While military forces amassed on both sides of the Czechoslovakian border, Hitler negotiated the notorious Munich Agreement between Germany, the UK, 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 UK and France sought peace with an obviously hostile Germany, known as the policy of **appeasement**, was that they were rebuilding their economies

key ideas timeline.



Source 1

Neville Chamberlain announcing
'Peace in our time'



say reports, the Poles were overpowered by German police who opened fire on them'. The next day, 1 September 1939, Germany invaded Poland.

The UK 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.

and military forces, so 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 SS chiefs Heinrich Himmler and Reinhard Heydrich. The idea was to create a pretext for invading Poland that would look like self-defence.

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,

Learning ladder H1.13

Show what you know

- 1 Why did the Anschluss occur?
- 2 Why is the Anschluss described as being a 'bloodless' coup?
- 3 What is a 'false flag' operation?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 4 How were polls of people's views used to substantiate the Anschluss?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 5 Why were the Allies reluctant to curb Germany's military rebuilding and its invasions of Austria and Czechoslovakia?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 6 What did Chamberlain believe he had achieved after his negotiations with Hitler? What did Churchill think of Chamberlain's actions at the time?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 7 How could World War II be considered to be caused by 'fake news'?



Historical interpretations, page 241

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 would last six long years, eventually involve all the global **superpowers**, and would cost an estimated 50 to 56 million lives.

European invasions during World War II



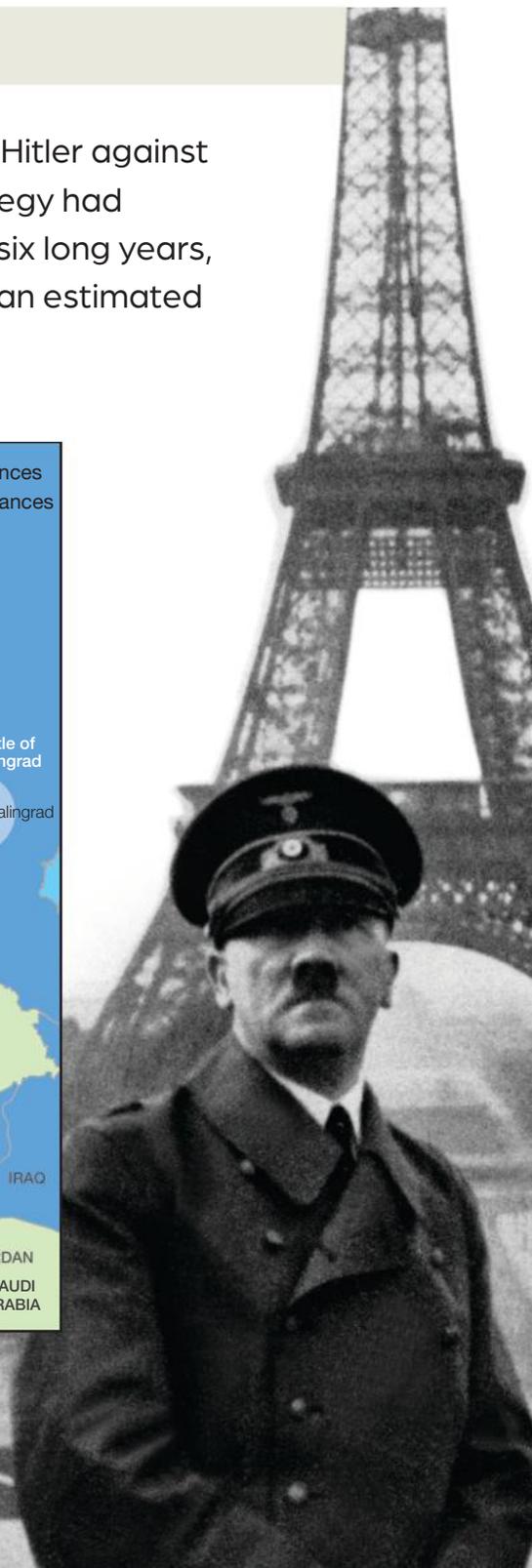
Source 1

Europe in World War II showing the different powers and the invasions

Source: Matilda Education Australia/ Custom Mapping Services

Source 2

Adolf Hitler in Paris shortly after the armistice was signed



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, as well as the first large-scale test of the latest Nazi weapons and tactics, including the **Blitzkrieg**, or lightning war of fast and aggressive attacks. The invasion of Poland was complete in just five weeks.

France and the UK had not anticipated that war would happen so soon and their militaries were caught unprepared. As such, 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 would be able to launch a large-scale European invasion without the risk of the long years of trench warfare of World War I.

France

Hitler then set his sights on France. Many in Germany still resented France as an enemy and as the main beneficiary of the Treaty of Versailles. As such, 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, anticipating that this would deter German aggression and prevent trench warfare.

Hitler's response was to avoid the Maginot Line altogether. On 10 May 1940, the Germans invaded France via Belgium and crossed the border where fortifications were weak. Again, the tactics of *Blitzkrieg* were used to great effect and, despite pockets of stiff resistance by French and English forces, the invasion was only slowed by the poor roads that made it difficult for mobile infantry (Panzer Brigades) to move ahead too quickly, and some mobile 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 central parts of the Western Front and many French and English divisions were stranded in the northern regions of France and Belgium. The French defence focused on getting as many men and tanks to join the forces in the north to launch a counter-offensive. In the final three weeks of the German invasion, the *Blitzkrieg* tactics were met with fierce resistance and the German advance began to slow, despite Italy joining the conflict to support the German forces. The German air force, the *Luftwaffe*, proved invaluable at this stage as they were able to attack French and English positions to weaken resistance.

Dunkirk

By 26 May 1940 it was clear to the Allied commanders that the forces stranded in the northern parts of France and Belgium would not win and it would only be a matter of days before they were completely surrounded. The only option was to launch an evacuation on a scale that had never been seen before, called 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 a small French town called Dunkirk. This operation was later referred to as 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 more resistance to the German invasion and, 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 the Germans, officially ending the conflict between France and Germany. However, this did not stop many French people continuing to fight the Nazis unofficially and the French Resistance and Free French government in exile, led by General Charles De Gaulle, continuing to resist the German occupation.

The UK

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 gain air superiority over the English Channel and the British Isles, he would be able to force the UK to negotiate for peace. The Nazi strategy was to initially target the Royal Air Force (RAF) command centres, but this proved to be ineffectual. The strategy then shifted to target the industrial centres producing war munitions and equipment and terror bombing campaigns against civilian targets. This was known in England as ‘the Blitz’.

From 7 September 1940 to 11 May 1941, the *Luftwaffe* failed to overcome the English defences and eventually withdrew with much of their air superiority depleted. This was hailed as the first German defeat of World War II and, it is argued, was 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 forces to build towards an invasion of the USSR, called Operation Barbarossa. The aim of Operation Barbarossa 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, as it was thought that the USSR would then collapse.

Again, *Blitzkrieg* tactics proved effective, but the same issues again stalled the offensive: vehicles ran out of fuel and some moved too quickly for the other mechanised battalions to keep up. Despite these limitations, the Nazi tactics forced the poorly equipped and trained Red Army into an almost complete rout. 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 for more than two years. More than 1.5 million civilians and soldiers died – many from the sometimes-brutal **guerrilla** conflict, but also from famine due to the siege.

The failure of the Nazis to take Leningrad proved to be a turning point on the Eastern Front. With the much-needed reinforcements of the Red Army as well as improved manufacturing output, and the Soviet T-34 tanks being better suited to the muddy and often icy conditions, the Soviets were able to push back against the German offensive.

Source 3

An image of 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 USSR invasion proved to be both a military and political blunder by Hitler. Not only had he failed to conquer the USSR, but he had also galvanised a relationship between Winston Churchill, who was now Prime Minister of the UK, and Stalin that was formalised in the Mutual Assistance Treaty that guaranteed that the UK 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 the Italian forces. However, it became stalled. The lack of progress forced Hitler to assign one of his best generals, Erwin Rommel, to try to advance the stalled 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 that 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 culminated in the siege of Tobruk, where the troops were described 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 the night-time resupply operations conducted by the UK Royal Navy.

Learning ladder H1.14

Show what you know

- 1 Where did many Londoners shelter during the Blitz?
- 2 What were the Australian 9th Infantry Division known as?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 3 How did Germany and the USSR signing the non-aggression pact affect Poland?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 4 Hitler forced the French government to sign the armistice in the same train carriage as Germany had signed its armistice in World War I. How was this a significant act?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 5 Do some additional research and consider the Eastern and Western Fronts. Which campaign was more significant? Why?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 6 How was it significant that the *Luftwaffe* could not overcome the RAF?



Historical significance, page 237

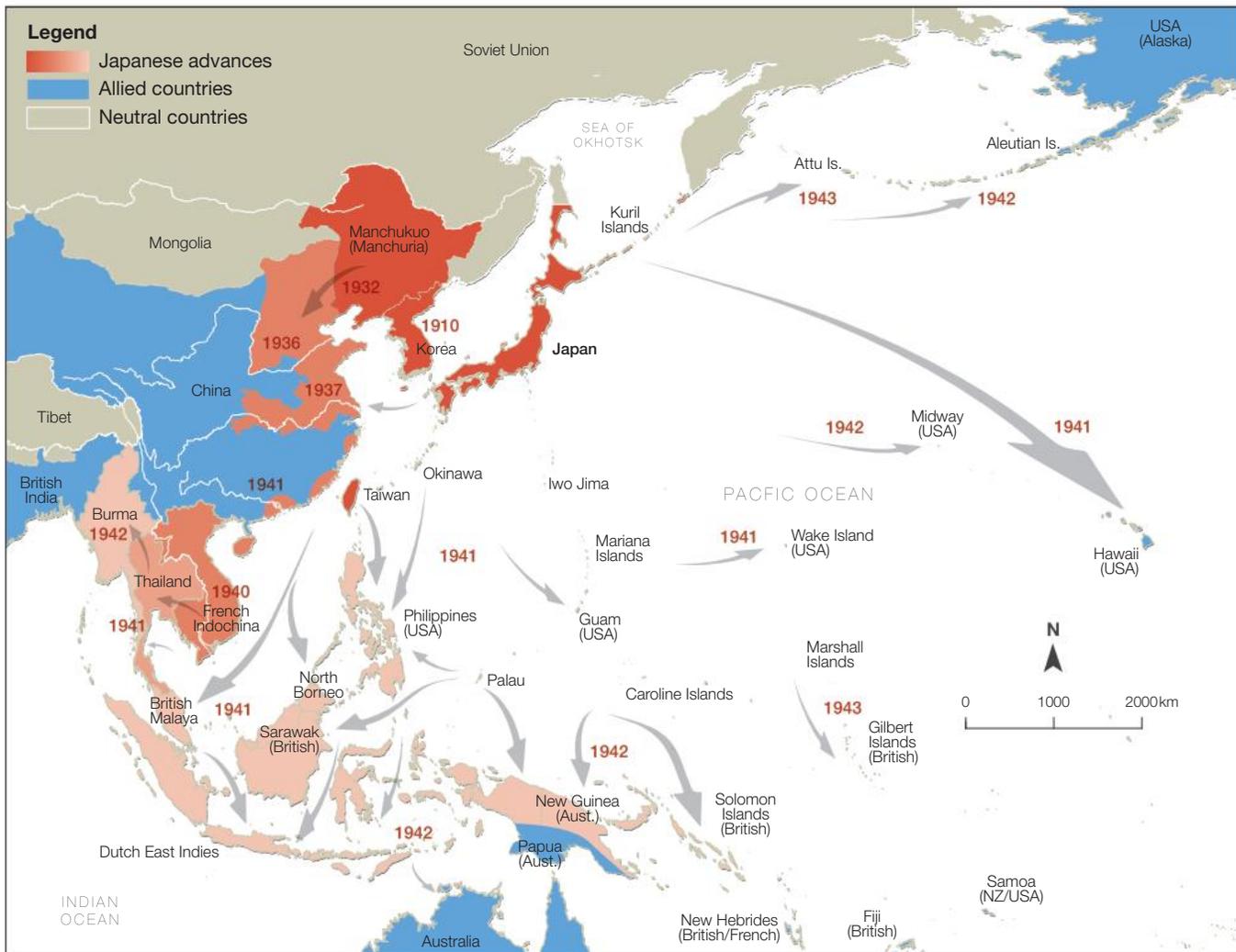
What happened in the Asia-Pacific?

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 USA 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.

Source 1

A map of Japanese expansion



Source: Matilda Education Australia/Custom Mapping Services

Among military leaders in Japan, debate raged about whether the nation should expand north into East Asia and the Soviet Union, or south into Southeast 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.

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 – first to close all supply routes to China, then to allow them to set up a naval base and to close the Chinese border completely and, finally, in September, to 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 acceded 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 UK and the USA. 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 Southeast Asia, it was acutely aware of the military capabilities of its Pacific neighbours, the USA. On 7 December 1941, Japan launched a surprise attack on the US naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii – weakening the US would mean precious time to secure the region and establish defences. Despite causing significant casualties and damage, the Japanese were unable to disable the American Pacific Fleet and their actions served to galvanise American support for the war, something the country had earlier resisted.

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 USA 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.

शैतानोंको डण्डेसे ठीक करो
और हिन्दुस्तानको बचाओ

लाठी द्वारा अंग्रेजानको शिक्षा
दिया जायतके रक्षा कर ।



Source 2

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'.

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.

Burma and India

Having conquered most of Southeast 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.

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 2, 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 H1.15

Show what you know

- 1 Why was the fall of Singapore significant for Australia?
- 2 With reference to examples, suggest why Japan chose to expand to the south, rather than to the north.

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 3 What was Japan's main motivation to invade the Dutch East Indies?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 4 Suggest why Japan attacked Pearl Harbor even though it was not at war with the USA.

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 5 Why did Thailand become an ally of Japan?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 6 At the height of the Pacific War, Japan occupied several different nations and territories. Discuss how you think this might have affected the local populations, with reference to colonial governments and the Kempeitai.

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 233

Where and how 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 in 1939 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 those of Chinese, Lebanese and Japanese descent. The Australian Imperial Force (AIF) included 28 Australians of Japanese descent, including Mario Takasuka, the Mildura-born son of Japanese migrants, who volunteered in 1940. He was rejected twice 'on racial grounds', so travelled to Melbourne, where he was able to enlist and went on to serve in Crete and Alexandria. When Japan entered the war in 1941, Australian military authorities tried to have him removed, doubting his loyalty. His commanding officer and military peers wrote in his support and he remained in active service in Palestine, before later transferring to New Guinea and returning to Australia after the war.



Source 1

Mario Takasuka
on leave in Cairo

Almost 4000 First Nations Australians served in Europe, the Middle East and North Africa, in the Asia-Pacific and on the home front, despite the prevailing attitudes to non-European enlistment. First Nations soldiers typically earned less than half of the wages their non-Indigenous colleagues earned and had limited opportunities for promotion or advancement. Like the First Nations World War I veterans, they were not welcomed into servicemen's clubs, nor granted land, pensions or other benefits. Although many hoped that service would be a catalyst for change, it took decades for their achievements to be acknowledged, in some cases posthumously. Joe McGinness, Doug Nicholls, Lambert McBride and many other Indigenous servicemen and women would later take on prominent roles, becoming politically active in the move towards Indigenous advancement.

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 services abroad. With the British defence at Singapore 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 UK itself, in 1940–41.

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. While they were concerned about the Japanese threat, Australian officials kept faith that the large British garrison at Singapore and the other expeditionary forces and allies across the region would prevail. But by early 1942, all had fallen and the Japanese military

lay within striking distance of the Australian mainland, at a time when most Australian forces were engaged overseas.

Despite some attacks on Australian soil in early 1942 (see page 73), 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.

Source 2

Geographic conditions on the Kokoda Trail made progress slow, difficult and dangerous.



With the bulk of Australia's military engaged abroad or captured, inexperienced soldiers from the CMF supported local Papuans – together known as Maroubra Force – in attempting to slow the Japanese advance. Initially engaging at the villages of Kokoda and Deniki in central New Guinea, further reserves arrived in early August for the Battle of Isurava. Over several months, Maroubra Force began to push the Japanese back, gaining momentum and winning nationwide respect. More than 16 000 were wounded, another 4000 infected with tropical illnesses and around 625 lost their lives. With the American presence in the Pacific now increasing, momentum shifted to the Allied forces and increasingly Japan could not supply the necessary resources their armed forces needed, especially as their control over essential supplies began to shrink.

Source 3

The Maroubra Force were assisted by local Papuans, such as Mr Ovuri Indiki. They proved to be both courageous and loyal and were known as 'Fuzzy Wuzzy Angels'.



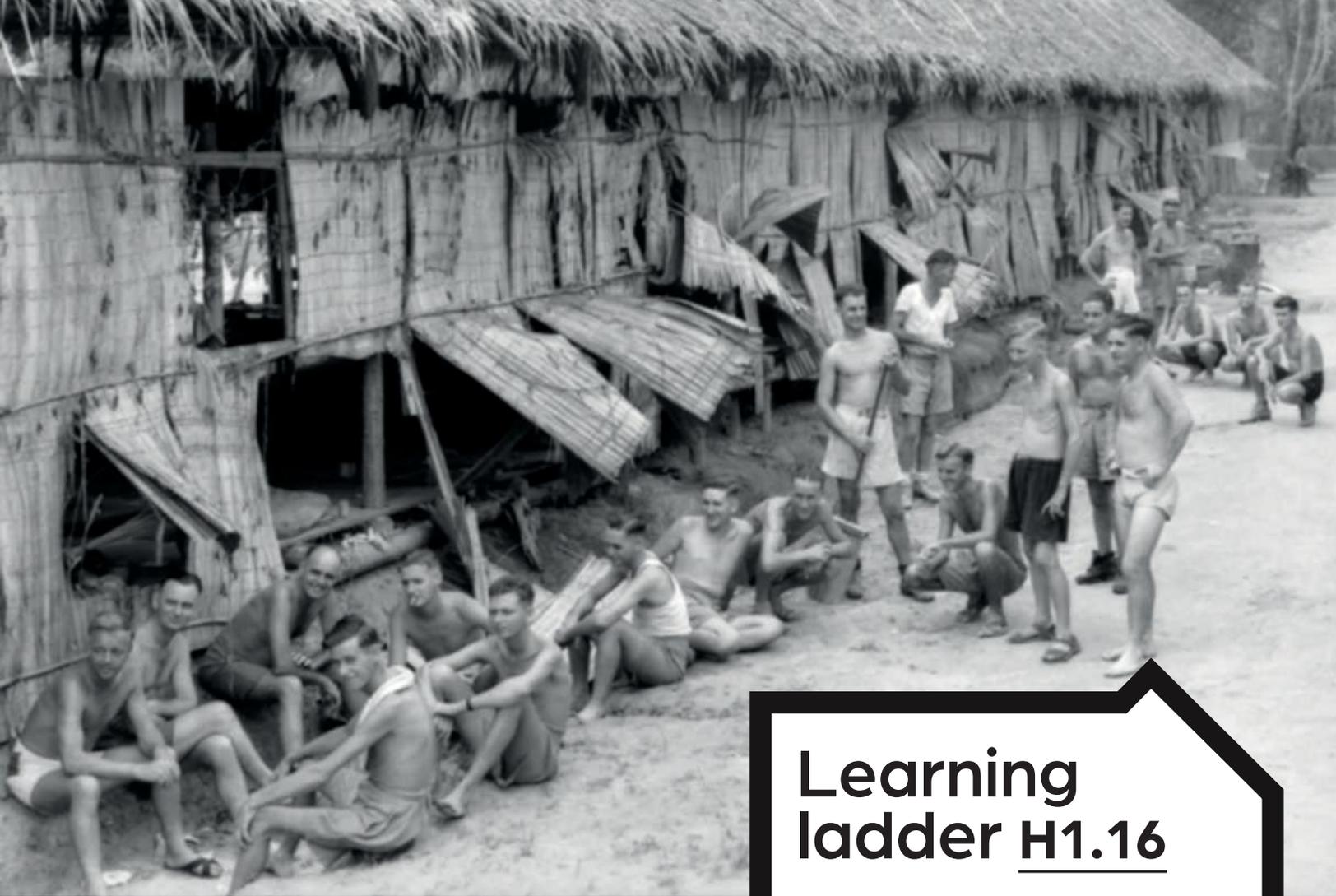
Australian forces continued to be engaged, albeit less directly, and by late 1944, the USA retook control of the Philippines and was ready for a final assault on Japan itself. As the Americans progressed closer and closer, bitter fighting continued at every turn, with the Japanese armed forces determined not to allow the US forces to reach their homeland. One such example was at Iwo Jima, a tiny island in the Pacific with limited resources or material value, which was the scene of fierce fighting. The Japanese forces fought to the last man, despite being hopelessly outnumbered.

Prisoners of war

Under the Geneva Convention, an international agreement on the treatment of captured prisoners, all nations were obligated to provide both civilians and military personnel with adequate supplies and conditions and to seek their repatriation when suitable. For Australians captured by German or Italian forces and their allies in Europe or the Middle East, conditions were relatively suitable. More than 8000 Australians – of whom 269 died – were taken as POWs in these campaigns, primarily in Greece and North Africa, as well as pilots who survived crashes or parachuted to safety.

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. POWs were also used as labourers, being forced to build infrastructure such as the Thai–Burma Railway. During its construction, 12 000 Allied POWs lost their lives, including 2800 Australians. Edward 'Weary' Dunlop was an Australian present on the railway and used his pre-war medical skills to support others, while also standing up for those too ill to continue working.



Source 4

Prisoners of War from the Australian 2/29th Infantry Battalion outside their hut in the Changi gaol area after they had been rescued in 1945

‘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 5

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 6

Tom Uren in *Straight Left*

Learning ladder H1.16

Show what you know

- 1 How many Australians served in World War II? What were some of the places they served overseas?
- 2 Who were the Maroubra Force?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 3 Suggest why mid-1942 was considered a turning point in the war.

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 4 Why did the Imperial Japanese Army treat its POWs differently to the Germans and Italians?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 5 The Kokoda Trail is considered one of the Australian military’s greatest moments. Research three reasons why.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 6 ‘World War II was a turning point for Indigenous Australians.’ To what extent do you agree?
- 7 Research conditions building the Thai–Burma Railway. How might this have affected morale?



Cause and effect, page 233

What happened on the home front?

The war would eventually come to Australia's doorstep as Japanese planes bombed Darwin and the threat of combat on Australian soil loomed. The sense of urgency and danger led to significant changes to daily life, education and politics on the home front, as well as changing Australia's relationship with the USA. It also furthered engagement with First Nations Australians.

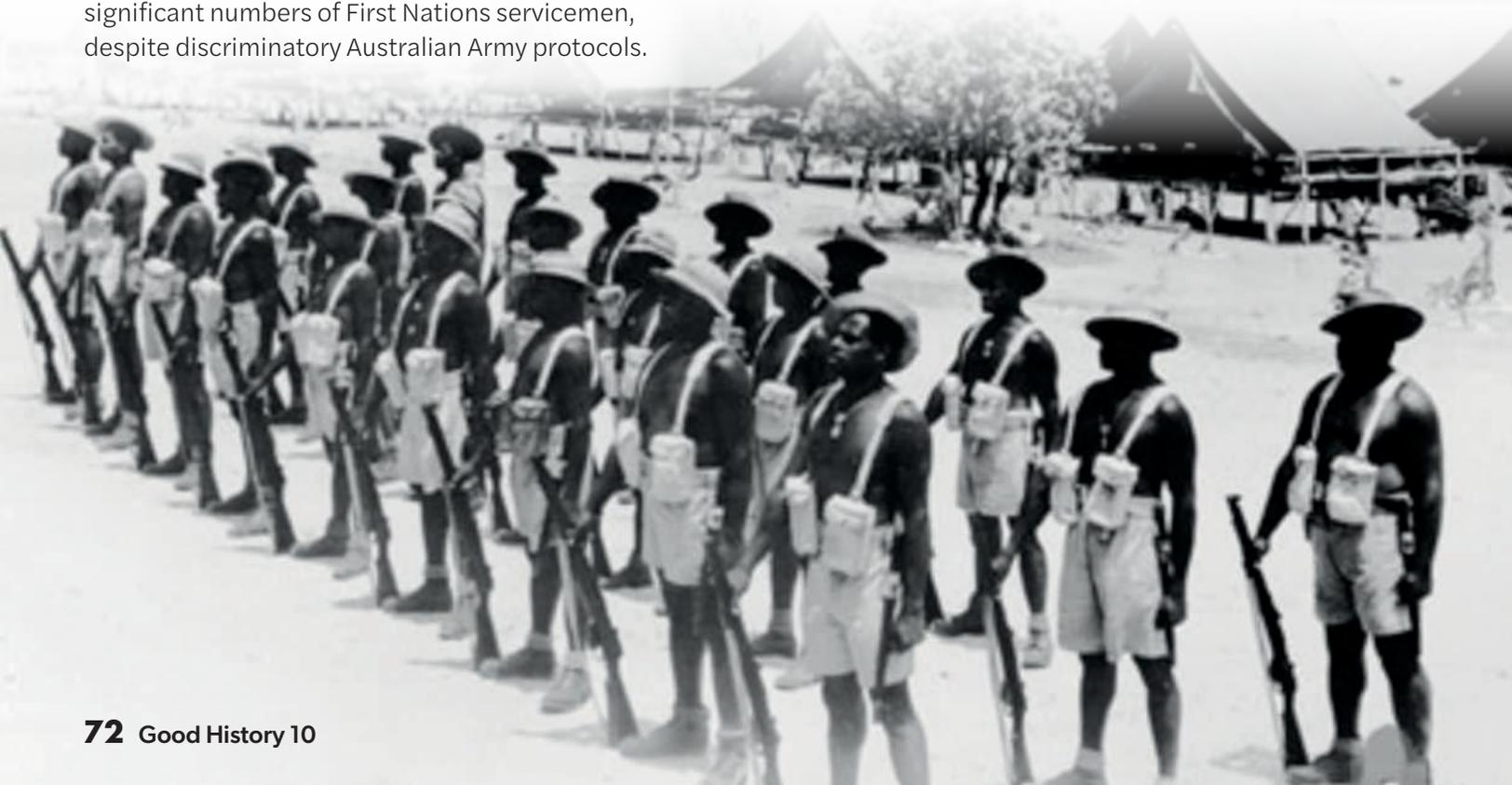
First Nations

First Nations Australians were drawn into the war effort from the beginning; indeed, the very first prisoner of war on Australian soil – Japanese pilot Hajime Toyoshima, who crashed on Melville Island during the Bombing of Darwin – was captured by an Indigenous man, Matthias Ulungara. Following the fall of Singapore and the Japanese presence in the Dutch East Indies and New Guinea, coastwatchers were formed to guard and monitor the northern Australian coastline; known as the 'Nackeroos' the North Australia Observation Unit included significant numbers of First Nations servicemen, despite discriminatory Australian Army protocols.

After the war, and with the support of pre-war anthropologist Donald Thomson, the Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit was also formed, including more than 50 Yolngu men in eastern Arnhem Land, who used traditional weapons, knowledge and methods to guard their traditional lands from potential invaders.

Source 1

Members of a squad of the Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion stand in formation.





Source 2

This 1942 front page of *The Daily Express* reports on Japanese raids and bombings. While acceptable at the time, some of the language used is racist and offensive by modern standards.

The Torres Strait Islanders, whose traditional lands stood directly between the Japanese and the mainland, showed the highest rate of voluntarism per capita of anywhere in Australia. Of around 890 eligible able-bodied men, 880 enlisted, forming the Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion, Australia's only fully Indigenous military unit.

The Japanese attack Australia

On 19 February 1942, the Japanese launched a direct attack on Australia, bombing the city of Darwin. The bombs killed 236 people and wounded a further 300–400. Two weeks later, on 3 March, Broome was bombed, killing another 88 people. Soon after, on March 14, hundreds of bombs rained on Horn Island in the Torres Strait, the site of Australia's most northerly airfield, followed by a further 91 bombs launched at the town of Katherine on March 22.

In late May and early June, submarine attacks were launched on Newcastle and Sydney, where 22 people were killed. In total, more than 900 people were killed on Australian soil, as well as 75 aircraft destroyed, in addition to damaged buildings, ships and infrastructure. There remains an ongoing historical debate as to whether the Japanese intended 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.

Following the fall of Singapore, Australian authorities realised that the ability of the UK to support the Pacific defence would be limited at best. In December 1941, Prime Minister John Curtin advocated for closer ties to the USA (see Source 3), an increasingly influential nation with an impressive military and, following the attack on Pearl Harbor, an enemy of Japan.

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.'

John Curtin, quoted in the *Herald*, 27 December 1941

Source 3

As the threat to Australia increased, the USA would become an important ally.

From 1942 until the end of the war, more than one million American servicemen – including more than 100 000 African American troops – were based in Australia, mostly in Queensland. Given the White Australia Policy in place, these African American troops needed exemptions to be allowed entry into Australia and American authorities insisted on them being billeted separately from their white American colleagues.

As US troop numbers grew, so did tensions with the locals (see Source 5), primarily as the Americans proved popular with Australian women; the common complaint was that the Americans were ‘overpaid, oversexed and over here’. These tensions even spilled over into scuffles and brawls, notably on 26 November 1942, when violence erupted between hundreds of servicemen, leading to the death of one Australian soldier in an event that would later be known as the Battle of Brisbane. Nevertheless, the USA would prove an invaluable ally in the Pacific defence and also to reduce fears of vulnerability in Australia following the Japanese attacks.



‘The Americans had the chocolates, the ice-cream, the silk stockings and the dollars. They were able to show the girls a good time, and the Australians became very resentful about the fact that they’d lost control of their own city.’

Sergeant Bill Bentson, US Army

Source 5

American soldiers were seen as better remunerated and less conservative than their Australian peers, leading to tensions between the two groups.

The National Security Act

On 8 September 1939, the federal government passed the *National Security Act*, giving the government special powers for the duration of the war, including the ability to detain people perceived as being a threat to national security, the censoring of newspapers and radio broadcasting and the banning of the Communist Party of Australia, as well as other groups opposed to the war effort. Such powers were unprecedented in Australia, but were seen as necessary measures to support the war effort.

In 1942, the government also established the Directorate of Manpower that enabled the government to direct labour to where it was seen to be essential, such as transferring workers to munitions factories or to clothing companies to make uniforms. Earlier in the same year, a rationing system was introduced to ensure resources were used conservatively and travel restrictions, blackouts and reduced trading hours became commonplace.

The detention of people under the National Security Act included many Australians of German and Italian ancestry, particularly if they were born in those countries or were perceived to be potentially pro-Nazi or pro-fascist. The entire Japanese–Australian population of around 7000, many of whom had lived in Australia for decades or were born here and spoke little or no Japanese, were interned in camps; when the war ended, the vast majority were deported to Japan.

Source 4

The Australian Government used propaganda to support the ‘all in’ attitude of the home front. While acceptable at the time, this image is offensive and racist by modern standards.

The Cowra break-out

In addition to these groups, Australia also maintained a number of prisoner of war camps for foreign nationals, including large numbers of Italians captured in North Africa, German seamen and Japanese and Korean soldiers from the Japanese

Army, many of whom were kept at a POW camp near Cowra, in central NSW. On 5 August 1944, 1104 prisoners attempted to break out of the camp. The escape and the resulting manhunt resulted in the deaths of 234 detainees and four Australian soldiers. It took almost two weeks to recapture all 334 escaped prisoners. The event is remembered in Cowra today with a traditional garden and Japanese cemetery, Australia's largest.

Women in wartime

As had been the case during World War I, the absence of many men in Australia due to war commitments led to increased opportunities for women and would play a role in changing traditionally conservative societal attitudes. Volunteer work in support of the war effort was essential and the Australian Women's National League took on a broad range of responsibilities, including fundraising, support for families and the provision of training.

Prior to 1939, women could not serve in Australia's armed forces; however, by late 1940 they were actively encouraged to do so. During the course of the war, more than 35 000 women served in the military, as doctors, nurses, clerical workers, signallers, drivers, ground staff and in maintenance, although only medical staff could serve overseas. Hundreds of thousands more women undertook essential services, such as farm and factory work, often to fill labour shortages and to enable more men to join the military. At the end of the war, most women returned to their pre-war lives, but the seeds of progress planted during the war would prove a catalyst for later change.



Source 6

The Japanese gardens at Cowra were designed in memory of the POW camp there and in honour of those who lost their lives.

Learning ladder H1.17

Show what you know

- 1 List examples of how Australia came under direct attack in World War II.
- 2 What was the Cowra Breakout?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance.

- 3 What was the *National Security Act*?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 4 Provide three reasons why 1942 was such a significant year for Australia during the war.

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 5 To what extent do you feel that Australia needed the USA? Why would the presence of American servicemen here have been both popular and problematic?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 6 Select one of the following groups: First Nations Australians, women or Australians of Italian, German or Japanese descent. Discuss how the war might have affected the lives of that group. In what ways did their lives change?

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 237

How did the war end?

With the Axis powers facing increasing resistance and the USA joining the European theatre, the focus shifted to how the Allies would be able to 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 in 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 what was called D-Day, the Allies waged a comprehensive deception campaign to keep the Nazis guessing about their plans. The Allies also completed comprehensive reconnaissance of the target beaches.

On 6 June 1944, after an extensive aerial and artillery assault, the Allies landed extensive 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 stiff resistance. At the end of the first day, most of the Allied objectives were unmet, but enough had been done 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, flagged how determined the Japanese were to defend their homeland and how difficult a campaign on Japanese soil would be. Meanwhile, firebombing campaigns – designed to force a surrender – struck 67 Japanese cities from late 1944, claiming the lives of up to half a million civilians and causing widespread damage.

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, President Truman of the USA authorised the use of a newly developed and deadly weapon: the atomic bomb. The US government justified this action by stating it wanted to force Japan to surrender to avoid the potentially huge loss of life on both sides that a US invasion of Japan might 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. Albert Einstein and Leo Szilard, prominent physicists, had written to President Roosevelt, urging him to have the USA begin developing atomic weapons of its own.



By 1942, the research program had been expanded and adopted by the military, who coined it 'the Manhattan Project'. By 1944, more than 125 000 people were engaged in the program, 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 USA dropped an atomic bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The city, which had remained largely unscathed from earlier firebombing, was an assembly point for troops and had been used for military storage. The bomb, nicknamed 'Little Boy', proved 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 told of a burning bright light and then plunging darkness followed by a raging fire storm that spread quickly through the timber structures of the old city. Even after the devastation, survivors were plagued with burns, cancers, radiation sickness and other ailments. By 1950, it was estimated that up to 200 000 people had died as a result of the bomb.

Nagasaki

With the Soviets declaring war and invading Manchuria, pressure on the Japanese Government mounted 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 significance as an industrial and port city where ships and weapons were produced, its geography had made it a difficult target for the firebombing campaigns.

While the bomb, nicknamed 'Fat Man', was larger and more powerful than that dropped on Hiroshima, it fell 3 kilometres northwest of its intended target, mitigating the potential blast radius. However, it still claimed the lives of almost 75 000 people, with a further 75 000 injured. Just as in Hiroshima, survivors suffered greatly from the side effects of the bombing.

Source 1

The Hiroshima Dome after the atomic bombing



Surrender

On August 14, 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 members of the royal family; the US felt that the Emperor and his family would help support the nation’s post-war 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.

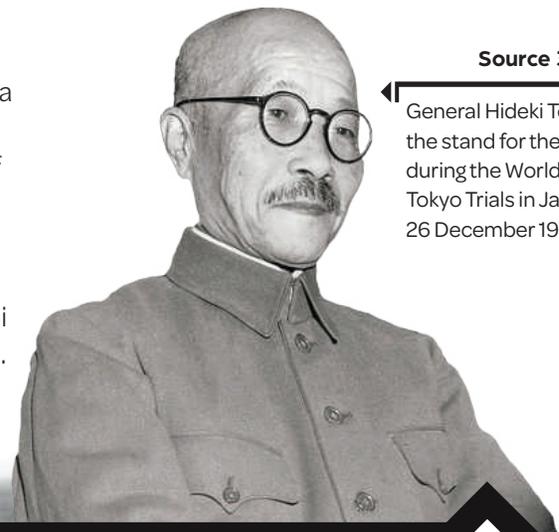
The military tribunal identified 39 suspects, most famously General Hideki Tojo and much of his war cabinet. Tojo tried to take his own life when arrested, but was resuscitated by US doctors. Over the next two and a half years, hundreds of witnesses gave testimony and thousands of pieces of evidence 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, while a further 16 men received life sentences and the remaining men lighter sentences.



Despite the fact that the war had officially ended, some Japanese soldiers in remote locations across Southeast 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 and denounced Allied attempts to repatriate them as trickery. Some remained ‘at war’ for decades, including Hiroo Onoda (1974, Philippines), Shoichi Yokoi (1972, Guam) and Teruo Nakamura (1974, Indonesia). Onoda only returned home after his commanding officer during the war was brought to the Philippines and ordered him to stand down – a testimony to the tenacity and loyalty of the soldiers.

Source 2

Charred bodies after the bombing at Nagasaki



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 H1.18

Show what you know

- 1 Why did the USA drop atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki?
- 2 What were the Tokyo Trials?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 3 How did the atomic bombs affect Hiroshima and Nagasaki?
- Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change**
- 4 Using three different examples, explain how members of the Japanese Imperial Army remained loyal to the Empire of Japan, despite the fact that defeat seemed inevitable.
 - 5 Why did the Japanese start to use *kamikaze* attacks?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 6 ‘America sought to destroy Japan, rather than rebuild it.’ To what extent do you agree with this statement?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 7 Imagine yourself as a Japanese civilian in August 1945, hearing the Emperor’s actual voice on the radio. What events have led to this moment? How will the nation change in the future?



Continuity and change, page 230

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 US 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

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.

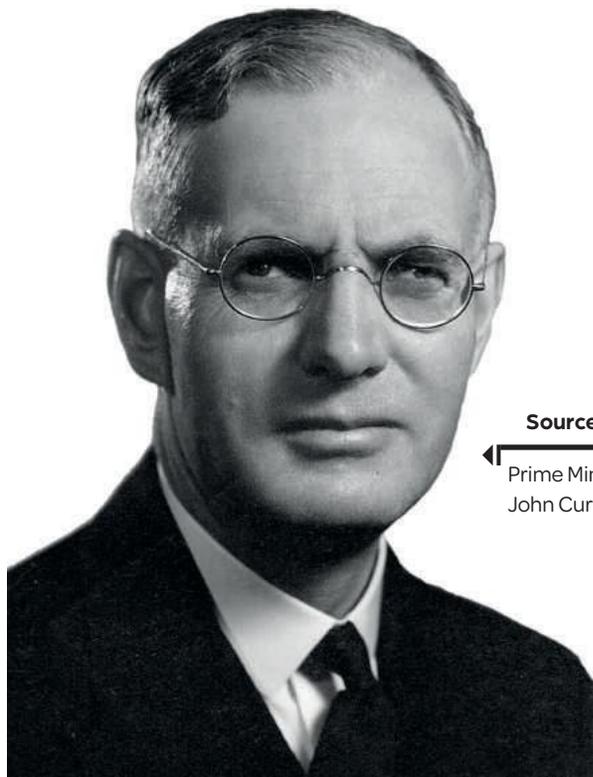
When the Allied victory was only months away, Joseph Stalin, Winston Churchill and Franklin D. Roosevelt, the leaders of the three Allied superpowers, gathered at Yalta in the USSR to begin planning the structure of the world after the war. They negotiated how Germany would be split between the three 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.

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 UK 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 USA, despite their losses at Pearl Harbor. Meanwhile, it seemed that any help coming from the UK would take significant time, if it arrived at all. This meant that Australia had to strike out on its own from the UK, 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 page 73).



Source 2

Prime Minister
John Curtin

After the war was over, Australia was still anxious about the possibility of a resurgent Japanese threat. To mitigate this threat, the USA, Australia and New Zealand formed 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 our foreign policy from the UK to the USA.

This treaty supported Pacific stability in the face of the rising Cold War between the US and USSR, especially after the 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.

Learning ladder H1.19

Show what you know

- 1 What were the two Allied conferences called?
- 2 Who led the USSR at both conferences?
- 3 In what year were Australian troops redeployed from Europe?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 4 Do some additional research. How was Germany split after the Potsdam Conference?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- 5 Why did Australia shift its foreign policy focus from the UK to the US?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 6 How did the ANZUS treaty change the focus of Australia's foreign policy?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 7 Do some additional research. How has the ANZUS treaty contributed to stability in the Pacific region?

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 230

PART 3: THE HOLOCAUST

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, the persecution of Jewish people has existed since ancient times. In Ancient Rome, Jewish people were expelled from Israel and Judea by Emperor Hadrian. During the medieval period in Europe, Jewish and Christian people initially lived in close proximity; however, Jewish people were increasingly subjected to anti-Semitic violence.

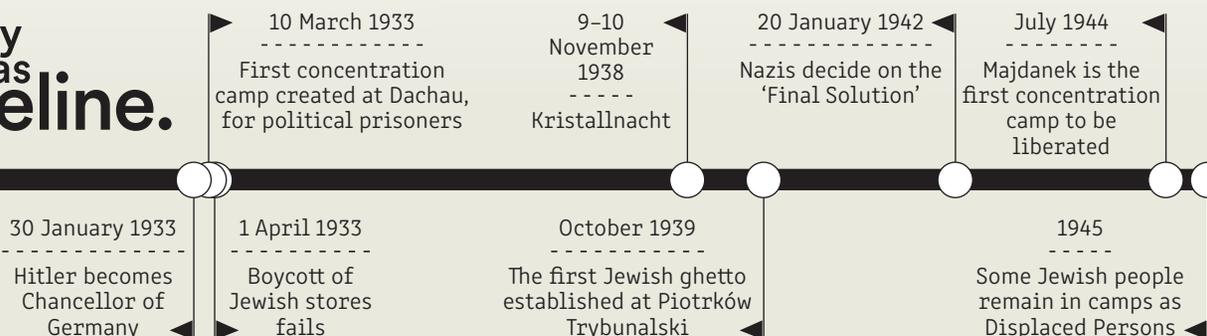
The medieval Holocaust in Germany

Medieval Europe was a religiously diverse region. With the rise of Islam and the spread of the Ottoman Empire, Muslims also inhabited many

parts of Europe for several centuries. During the Crusades, many Jewish people were murdered by the Christian crusaders, or were forced to convert to Christianity. In 1492, the King and Queen of Spain issued the Edict of Expulsion, forcing all Jewish people to flee to neighbouring countries, including Germany.

Anti-Jewish violence, known as **pogroms**, would often occur in their new homes. In many places in Europe pogroms would happen during Easter, where Jewish people would be accused of religious desecration and the fabricated idea that Jewish people consumed the blood of Christian children. When the black plague infected

key ideas timeline.



1933-1945 The Holocaust

people, rumours accused the Jewish community of ‘poisoning the wells’, again resulting in murderous riots against Jews and confiscation of their property.

Martin Luther, one of the founders of Protestantism, used accusations that the Catholic Church was ‘too Jewish’ as reason to explain why Jewish people had not converted to Christianity in his 1543 treatise ‘On the Jews and their Lies’. In many parts of Europe around this time, Christians were allowed to murder Jewish people as they did not have the same legal protections. However, one key element of medieval persecution was that Jewish people were allowed to convert to Christianity. In the 20th century, the Nazis linked Judaism to genetics, thus making it impossible to convert from being Jewish.

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.

For many centuries, Jewish communities were not allowed to own land or to work for the governments of many countries. As such, they tended to congregate in suburbs within the cities and would usually work in middle-class occupations. Anti-Semitic writers such as Marr and others appealed to their audiences by saying that cities were 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, including celebrating German heroes such as Arminius (page 40). According to this made-up narrative, this country’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 but, at the outbreak of World War I, before enlisting, he stayed with the Popp family and the daughter Elizabeth remembered many conversations between her father and Hitler, most notably, that ‘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 a young Adolf Hitler’s thinking.



Source 1

This 1907 painting, *The Raid (Pogrom)* by Wojciech Kossak, depicts the aftermath of a pogrom.

Learning ladder H1.20

Show what you know

- 1 Who issued the Edict of Expulsion?
- 2 What were the restrictions placed on Jewish communities throughout Medieval Europe and into modern times?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 3 How was the plague linked to the Jewish community?
Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change
- 4 What were the motivating factors that contributed to anti-Semitism in Medieval Europe?
Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change
- 5 How do we know that Hitler was anti-Semitic before he fought in World War I?
Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change
- 6 Research anti-Semitism today. What are the factors that lead to anti-Semitism? How are these similar to or different from those in the past?



Continuity and change, page 230

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 and continually advertised 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.

Source 1

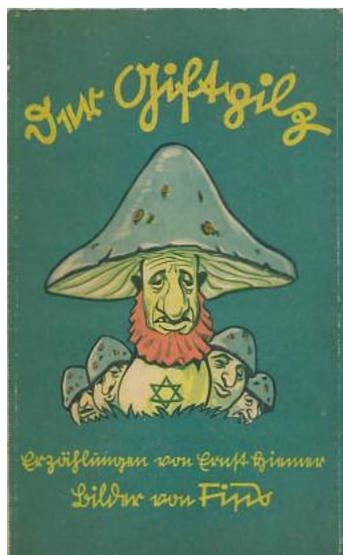
This photograph is supposed to depict 23-year-old Adolf Hitler attending a 1914 rally. While the original photographer claimed he found Hitler in the photo, historian Gerd Krumeich has concluded that it was faked to be used as Nazi propaganda. Krumeich noticed that other pictures of the event taken from different standpoints do not show Hitler.



Goebbels had a flair for organising mass rallies and spectacles to be 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. 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'.

The purge of the education system

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.



Source 2

Children's books such as *Der Giftpilz* – 'The Poisonous Mushroom' – played a large role in educating children about anti-Semitic myths. The intended effect was to create a hateful stereotype of a Jewish person that was harmful to German society. This image is offensive and racist by modern standards.

From the start of Hitler's reign in 1933, discrimination against Jewish people increased. However, initially, public humiliations and **boycotts** of Jewish businesses instituted on 1 April 1933 were largely ignored. People walked past the SA placards to get what they had ordered and displays such as that shown in Source 3 were not as effective as Goebbels had hoped.



Source 3

SA stormtroopers protest outside a department store. The placards read 'Germans protect yourselves, don't buy from Jews'.

Learning ladder H1.21

Show what you know

- 1 What did Hitler's regime promise to achieve with 'bread and work'?
- 2 How was education a vital aspect of Nazi propaganda?
- 3 What roles did public spectacles and media have in this process?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 4 Source 2: What do children's books reveal about the level of anti-Semitism in society at the time?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 5 What messages were being conveyed about German values in the revised education system?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 6 Was the SA-promoted boycott of Jewish businesses effective?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 7 What were the roles and purposes of propaganda in Nazi Germany?

HOW TO

Historical interpretations, page 241

What was Jewish life like before the Holocaust?

In 1933, the Jewish population in Europe was estimated to be around 9.5 million people. Common approaches to the German attempt to systematically annihilate the Jewish ethnoreligious group tend to discuss the beginning of the Holocaust as starting when Hitler became Chancellor. However, this approach does not adequately describe the victims, their culture, the advances they developed and the world that they inhabited. Nor does it account for the incalculable advances and contributions to the world that never happened because of the murder of so many.



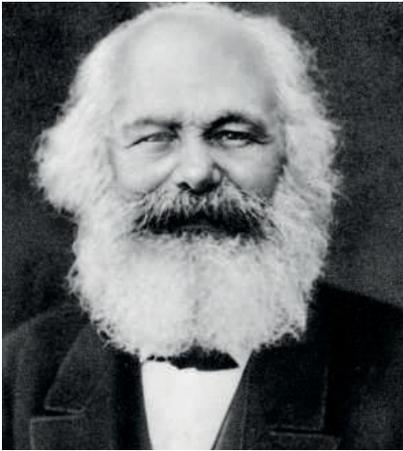
Source 1

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 from the window ledge of the family home looking out on to the building across the road 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.

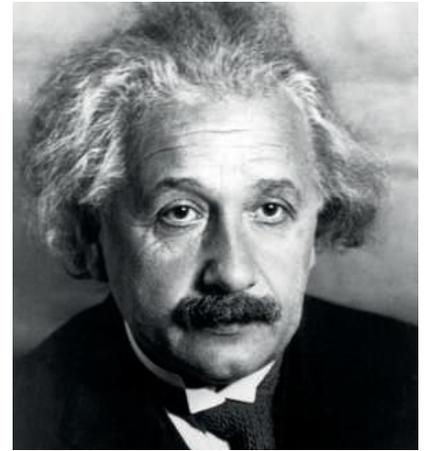
Jewish people in Germany were largely indistinguishable from their German peers, as many had adopted the dress and appearance of their Christian neighbours. A significant number had totally assimilated, baptising their children as Christian, while being nominally Jewish in name only.



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.

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 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 Hindenberg 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 Hindenberg's death in 1935 this law and the discriminatory Nuremberg Laws were enacted.

Learning ladder H1.22

Show what you know

- 1 How many Jewish people lived in Europe in 1933?
- 2 Why were German Jews difficult to differentiate from non-Jewish Germans?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 3 What did the Edict of Tolerance enable Jews to do?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 4 What did Hitler's 'Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service' do to Jews and why did von Hindenberg protest against it?

Step 3: I can use the origin of the source to explain its creator's purpose

- 5 What comment does Rachel Posner's text make in general about what she suspected would be her family's fate?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 6 Why did the Posner family choose to place the menorah in the window opposite the Nazi flag?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 226

How did the world find out about the Holocaust?

After the liberation of the Nazi concentration camps, newsreel footage alerted the world's public to what had been happening while the Nazi war machine had raged across Europe. In many ways, the shock experienced by audiences then is still felt today, and the trauma of those who survived the Holocaust continues.

Nazi propaganda had made it no secret that the Jewish people were not welcome in Germany. The Allies also knew that the Nazis had begun campaigns to discriminate, exile and in some cases murder their Jewish population and the Jewish populations of the countries that they invaded. However, it was only as the USSR pushed into Germany and liberated the various death camps that the scale of the atrocities of the Holocaust became known.

Liberation

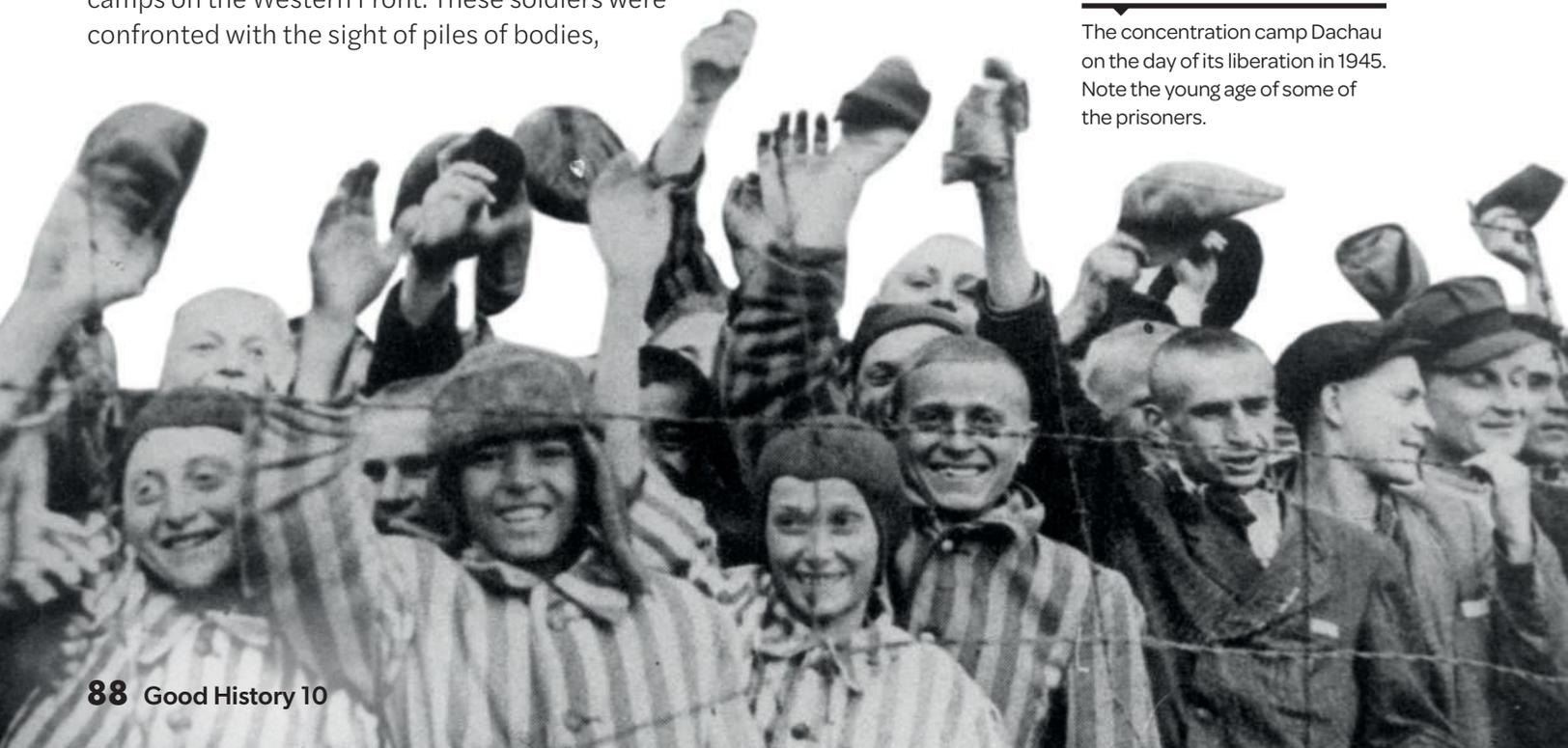
In 1944, the USSR forces, known as the Red Army, arrived at the gates of Majdanek in Poland and in January 1945 they liberated Auschwitz. Later, French, British and US troops reached various camps on the Western Front. These soldiers were confronted with the sight of piles of bodies,

starving people who showed more of their bones than muscles, and the psychological and physical trauma of the people who had miraculously survived.

Some became so enraged at the SS personnel that, at the Dachau concentration camp, the Allied soldiers summarily executed the SS guards with firing squads, and stories exist of guards being shot on sight. At the Bergen-Belsen camp, the British Army forced the well-fed German townsfolk on tours of the camp, to confront them with the atrocities that had happened on their doorstep. Town council members were made to watch as former SS guards buried thousands of corpses, in varying states of decay, in mass graves.

Source 1

The concentration camp Dachau on the day of its liberation in 1945. Note the young age of some of the prisoners.





Source 2

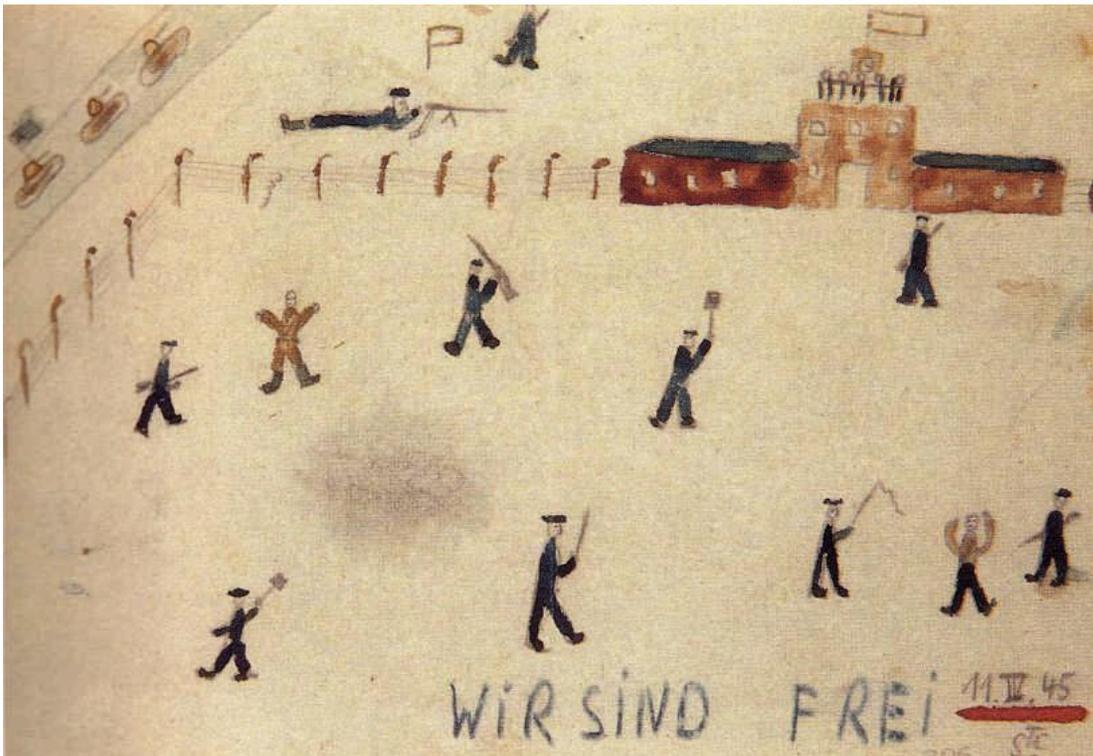
A concentration camp prisoner affected by starvation

Army film crews recorded the liberation of the camps, and when these films were distributed the world shared the horror of the liberators. While the Nazis tried to remove all evidence of their inhumanity, in the years after liberation the Allies discovered some Nazi records that had not been destroyed in the final months of the war. Archives kept by the Jewish and Polish Resistance documenting and describing what was going on became vital primary sources and evidence at the Nuremberg trials.

The liberators, bystanders, victims, resisters and survivors all struggled to fully comprehend the scale and nature of the crime that had been perpetrated. Some villagers who lived next to the camps told the Allied armies that they had no idea what was happening, even while the stench of smoke from the crematoriums buffeted their towns on a daily basis.

The liberating army units who now ran the camps got food, clothing and water to the inmates, and organised showers for them. Some people were in such a state of starvation that they died after eating, as their stomachs could no longer digest food. Liberation came with its own challenges; people who had mentally set themselves the task of surviving suddenly had to confront what had happened to them. They began to process what had happened: how had they survived while others hadn't? How could they be the sole survivors of their entire families? Did they deserve to survive? Many told of this in testimonies; their emotions were overwhelming.

During the religious holiday of Yom Kippur, people held services at the same camps where they had survived and were now living as displaced persons (DP). People finally got to mourn their families, friends, peers and entire communities who had been murdered.



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.

To prevent reprisals but also to keep order, some camps were maintained and operated as DP camps. However, this meant Jewish people and other detainees languished there for another three years. In addition, post-war pogroms in towns in Poland in 1946 sent the message to Jewish people that they were not welcome if they returned to their former homes. This intolerable situation led Jewish people to push for their release from the former concentration camps and to return to their ancient homeland of *Eretz Yisrael*, the land of Israel.

In addition, Jewish people faced discrimination from some US officials, including General George Patton. The DP camps were inspected by Earl Harrison on behalf of President Truman. Harrison's scathing report into Patton's management of the camps said the following: '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'.

The 761st Tank Battalion

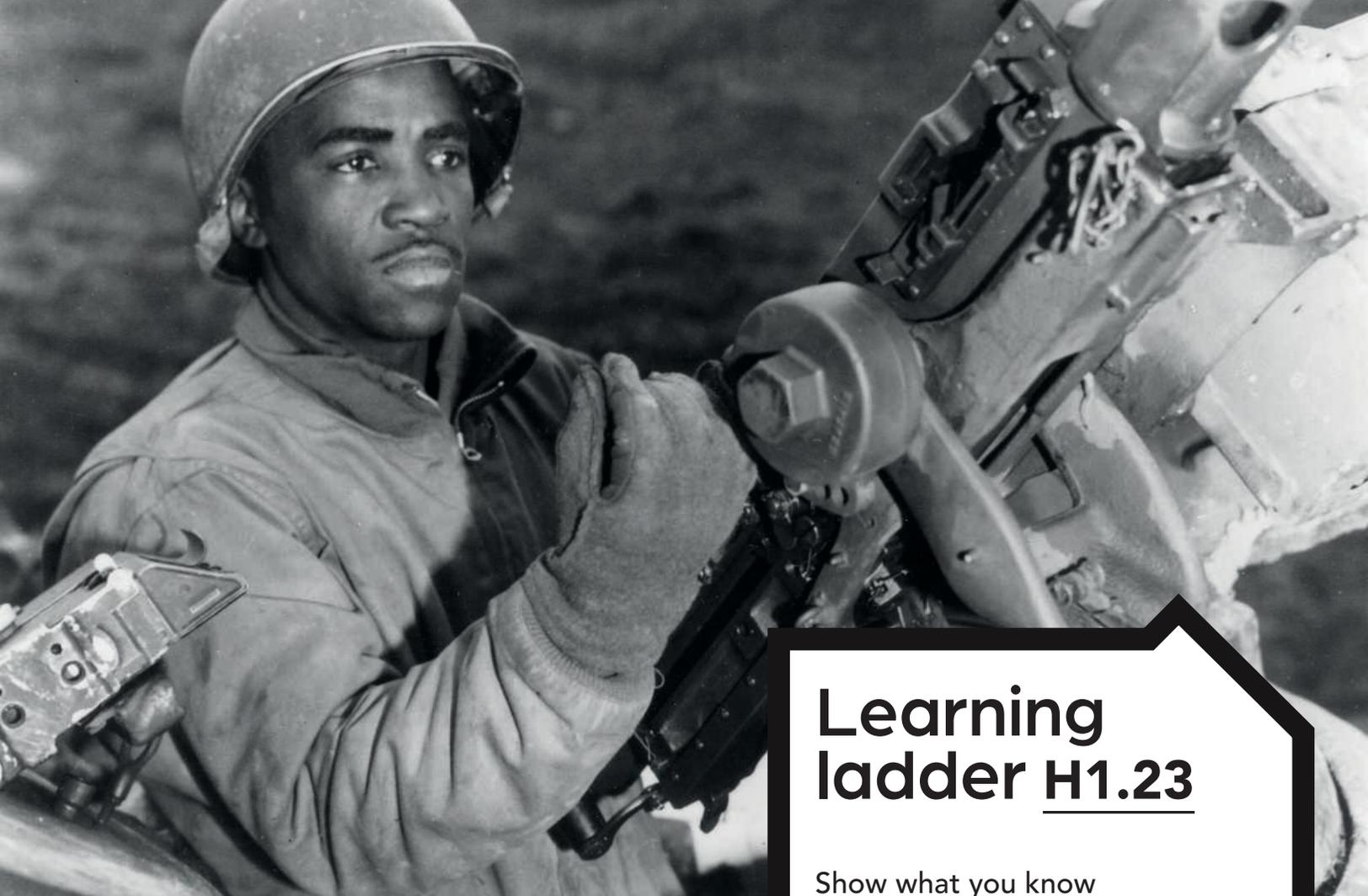
During the war, African American men and women who enlisted were put in separate units because of the segregation policy of the US Army. They faced a number of institutionalised discriminations such as being prevented from sharing living quarters, not being included in social events and being ignored by army media reporters. The wife of the US President, Eleanor Roosevelt, had lobbied to let African American soldiers serve in combat roles. This led to the creation of the 761st Tank Battalion. These soldiers faced heavy fighting in Holland and Germany, including in the Battle of the Bulge.

In 1944, the 761st Battalion liberated the Gunskirchen subcamp of Mauthausen concentration camp. Some soldiers described the camp as looking like the land of the living dead, with people so emaciated they resembled walking skeletons. When the soldiers shared their rations, it made the inmates sick as their bodies were so unused to solid food.

Source 4

The 761st Tank Battalion
in France 1944





Source 5

Private Lieutenant-Corporal Byrd from the 761st Tank Battalion in France, 1944

The soldiers of the 761st Tank Battalion had already faced racial discrimination, violence and segregation in America and they battled it after the war upon their return. The irony that they were fighting for freedoms that they did not enjoy was not lost on the soldiers and many later became active in the Civil Rights Movement. At some camps there were people of African descent who had been inmates. They had been living in Germany, or had been arrested as entertainers (Freddy Johnson) or captured soldiers. These inmates received some of the harshest treatments under the camp regime and Nazi doctrine, being experimented on, worked to death, brutally beaten or executed on sight.

Some of the people liberated by the 761st Division became lifelong friends with the soldiers. Associations have formed between African Americans and Jews, and include some of the soldiers and their descendants, who are determined to prevent the atrocities and impacts of racial discrimination and prejudice from happening again.

Learning ladder H1.23

Show what you know

- 1 How did the liberating soldiers react to what they saw and experienced?
- 2 Describe the challenges faced by the African American Divisions.
- 3 Why were people forced to stay in DP camps for years after the war?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 4 Describe the scenes that confronted the liberators of the camps.
- Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change
- 5 If Jewish people had to remain in the same camps as displaced persons, had they truly been liberated?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 6 Why were Jewish people killed after the war when they attempted to return to their former homes?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 7 What did the post-war pogroms and being in DP camps for years after the war cause Jewish people to do?



Continuity and change, page 230

What were the aims of the Holocaust?

Adolf Hitler's dual aims can be summarised as, first, 'Germanisation' of lands under the *Lebensraum* concept of 'Greater Germany' and, second, of '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.

The Nazi war on 'Judeobolshevism' (there were a number of Jewish people at the head of Bolshevik Party involved in the Russian Revolution) included a war waged in the east which would create German colonies. The government policy of getting rid of *untermenschen*, or undesirable people, began as a move to coerce people to leave Germany or be killed.

Emigration was initially very effective: more than 397 000 of Germany and Austria's 500 000 Jewish people fled the country. 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 LGBTQI 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 and thus were an 'asocial' hindrance to the Reich.

German lesbians were excluded, as they were not seen to be such a threat to society; however, they were forced into secrecy, were persecuted, had to marry male friends, relinquished 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 enabled everyday people to transcend their morality and 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*. Just as nationalism drew on people's psychological pride in their nation, anti-Semitism and prejudice against Romani were also intimately connected to fear and hostility of the Other and to ideas about racial pollution and purity.

The concept of people declared 'unworthy of life' allowed perpetrators to dehumanise their victims. The hateful ideas that many people held allowed them to set aside their moral compass and orchestrate the terror apparatus on a societal scale.



Source 1

Pedestrians pass by a shattered storefront of a Jewish-owned shop after Kristallnacht in Berlin, Germany

Scholars generally agree that Hitler's rise in 1933 marked the start of events that would facilitate this societal degeneration. However, throughout this time, many protested against anti-Semitism and other Nazi atrocities. As mentioned, the 1935 boycott of Jewish businesses failed (page 85) and the Nazis feared a backlash to **Kristallnacht**. 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 protested his family's deportation from Germany to Poland. Elites within the Nazi regime were divided about how to respond, but Goebbels sent the 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 that such public violence and chaos caused to the German people. 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, when he petitioned the German embassy (see pages 130–1).

Learning ladder H1.24

Show what you know

- 1 Define 'Aryanisation'.
- 2 What is 'Judeobolshevism'?
- 3 Why did German people hate Jewish and Romani peoples?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 4 What were Hitler's aims?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 5 What caused most German people to become more anti-Semitic?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 6 What are *Untermenschen* and why are they expendable?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 7 How did people develop the ability to ignore morality?



Cause and effect, page 233

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 and better allow for them to be discriminated against. 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.

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 on their clothes, as shown in Source 1.



Source 1
Heydrich's yellow star

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, as shown in Source 2, some being created by walling in suburbs and sections of cities. As the Nazis forced thousands of people into 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 as per the needs of the Nazi regime and as to 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.



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

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 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, diseases born by parasites and respiratory pathogens proliferated.

Those who could worked for the ghetto administration, the Judenräte, 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.

‘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

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 died from starvation before ever getting on a train to an extermination camp.

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.

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

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 really meant going to a camp.

The stress of these decisions was shown when Adam Czerniaków, the head of the Warsaw Ghetto, took his own life, leaving a letter and diary entries explaining why, as shown in Source 5.

Learning ladder H1.25

Show what you know

- 1 What was there to do during the day in the ghettos?
- 2 What was the euphemism used by the Nazis to empty the ghettos and send people to the camps?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 3 What were the historical reasons for establishing ghettos? How were Nazi-established ghettos similar or different?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- 4 Why did Jewish people have to wear badges or hats to distinguish them?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 5 Which specific measures were used to demarcate the Jewish people in the Nazi regime?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 6 What was the role of the Judenräte? Was it better for people that this structure organised everything in the ghettos?

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 230

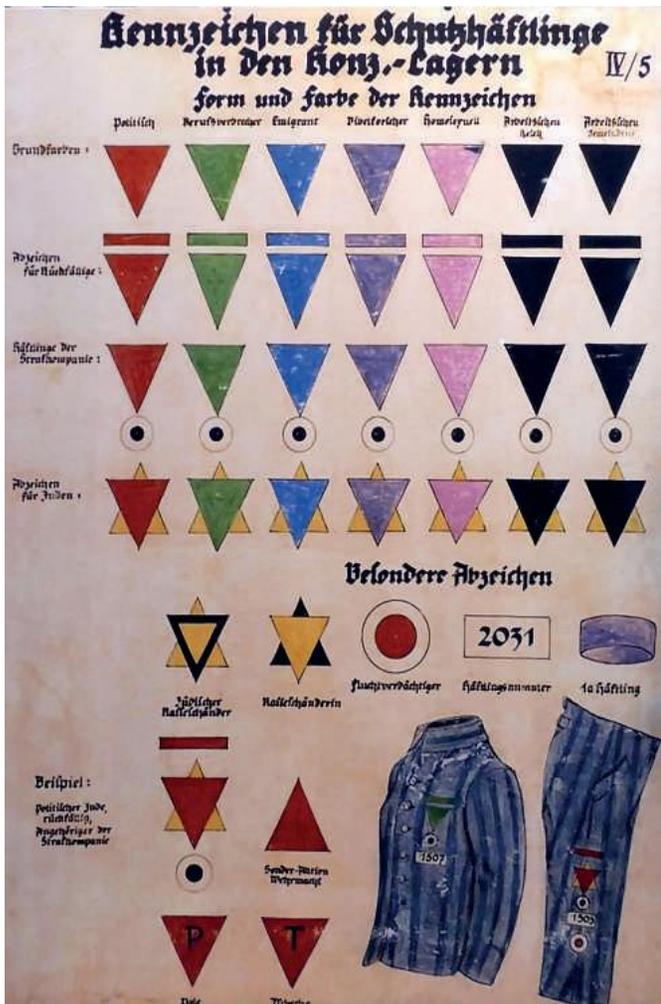
What were the concentration camps?

With the various ghettos at capacity, the Nazi regime sought new locations to send the Jewish inhabitants. One of the options they used was to increase the number of concentration camps to house the Jewish population.

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 general 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 incarcerated with Romani peoples, LGBTQI people and anyone else that was deemed to be *untermenschen*. 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,



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

and executing 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*. Soon Dachau 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 as a source of slave labour. Finally, six 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, then healthy women who could be used as forced labour were separated from all other people in this line.

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 (see Source 1), while at camps such as Auschwitz-Birkenau the number was tattooed into the inmate's arm, using the same needle for hundreds of people. People were then given the blue and white striped prison uniform and their heads were shaved. They were then 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 prisoners. Meanwhile, young children, the elderly and many women were sent straight to the extermination centre.



Source 3

Romani woman Ružena Danielová shows the tattoo she received in Auschwitz. Held in the so-called 'Gypsy camp' in Auschwitz-Birkenau, Ružena was the only member of her family to survive.



Source 4

Women assemble for daily *selektion*.

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.

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 it was guaranteed to be fewer calories than the inmates required. The calories were set in such a way that inmates would slowly die in 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 and which guard or *Kapo* to avoid were shared. Which jobs were better to do? Some inmates 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 Ravensbruck, 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 that 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 allow a person to survive daily *selektion*. Women of certain cultural or similar backgrounds often formed alliances and through these vital relationships assisted each other in the face of the Holocaust.

‘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

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 through

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 in the middle of winter and dousing them with cold water. Other experiments included torturous and unnecessary surgery, which caused significant pain and trauma to the victims. Many experimental results were sealed at the trial of doctors at Nuremberg after the war; however, some research went on to be used in the treatment of hypothermia.

Learning ladder H1.26

Show what you know

- 1 When did *selektions* occur?
- 2 How were women particularly vulnerable in the camps?
- 3 What did inmates do to enable their survival?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 4 Why was any injury sustained in the camps a liability in terms of survival?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 5 What did women do to survive the camps specifically?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 6 What did the hierarchy of triangle badges mean for the inmates in the camps?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 7 What was the original purpose of the first concentration camp in Germany? How did this contribute to the horrors of the Holocaust?



Cause and effect, page 233

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. As such, the policy of the 'Final Solution' was proposed: 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, **eugenics** and anti-Semitism had a profound influence on how the Nazis treated the Jewish populations of Germany and the territories they invaded. There is no evidence that Hitler ever set foot in a concentration camp and his orders were vague and often delivered through others.

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 six 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.

‘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 1

An extract from a speech by Heinrich Himmler from the 1943 Posen Conference, entitled 'Extermination'

Source 2

The railway lines leading to Auschwitz



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 generally 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. This meant that they were told they would be 'emigrating to Palestine'; 'going to work in Germany', 'being deloused' and other euphemisms. New technology was required such as the poison gases carbon monoxide and Zyklon B pesticide. Cattle carriages and trains had to be put together and were paid for by the victims.

Meanwhile, mobile killing units, called *Einsatzgruppen*, were authorised to operate in the Soviet Union and committed many murders and massacres of Polish Jews, Romani, resistance fighters and anyone else deemed to be undesirable. Meanwhile, the vast ghetto and concentration camp network in Poland linked to six major camps with purpose-built facilities to exterminate and cremate massive numbers of people.

Learning ladder H1.27

Show what you know

- 1 How many people did Reinhard Heydrich intend to kill?
- 2 Why was it imperative that victims not know what was happening until the moment of death?
- 3 Why did mass murder involve euphemisms?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 4 What does evacuation really mean in Source 1?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 5 Source 1: Why is it important not to talk of what they are doing?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 6 Source 1: What is the overall aim of the program Himmler is discussing?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 7 Source 1: Why did Himmler think the Nazis had 'a moral right'? How is this statement ironic?



Source analysis, page 226

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 normal expected rates or who showed signs of mental or physical disabilities. The children were then executed.

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

Source 1

Hans Asperger with children at the University Paediatric Clinic in Vienna, around 1940



were established with utmost secrecy and the babies and children who were placed there were given lethal injections or were starved to death, while their deaths were officially listed as caused by pneumonia.

At one such clinic in Vienna was the paediatrician Hans Asperger who was researching children diagnosed as having mild autism spectrum disorder. His work continued the research started by Jewish doctors who had been removed from his medical school in 1938. Evidence has surfaced that he referred severely disabled children to the euthanasia program. Far from his claims of being a conscientious objector, evidence emerged that Asperger obtained privileges from his collaboration with the Nazi regime.

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 Reichmarks 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.



Limits on those to be killed were extended to 17-year-olds, then older people and then even included injured soldiers from the battle of Leningrad. The soldiers' deaths were misreported as having happened on the frontline. Operation T4 was where the SS, doctors and nurses developed the carbon monoxide gas chambers that were designed to resemble shower blocks with false shower heads. When it was discovered in 1941, the T4 policy drew the ire of the German people and they protested against it. Publicly it ceased but, in reality, it continued until 1945.

Learning ladder H1.28

Show what you know

- 1 Why were soldiers in Operation T4?
- 2 Which famous doctor was involved in the program and how was he involved?
- 3 Which features were developed in the program that were used in other camps?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 4 What did Nazi propaganda say about people with mental and physical disabilities?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 5 Research Hans Asperger. Was he a conscientious objector? What evidence is there that he was a collaborator?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 6 Why was there a public outcry against Operation T4? Was it effective?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 7 For which reasons did the Nazi regime murder people in the Operation T4?

HOW TO

Historical interpretations, page 241

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 clandestine networks to try to save people from being sent to the camps.

In 1942, Czech resistance fighters Jan Kubis, Jozef Gabcik and Josef Valcik, 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.

Case study: Witold Pilecki

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 as they could be punished if he was discovered.



Source 2

Witold Pilecki Polish cavalry officer, intelligence agent and resistance leader

Pilecki deliberately got caught in an SS round up, where 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, which was an act of rebellion by the Polish Resistance. Unfortunately, he was executed by the Soviets in 1948 but the records he made are vital evidence of the brutality of the concentration camps.

In 1942, Szlama Ber Winer, a young Jewish man, was forced to kill people using a gas van at Chelmo, 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.

The Warsaw Ghetto uprising

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 this of their amazing success in Source 3.

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 3

Anielewicz in a letter smuggled out of the ghetto to Yitzhak Zuckerman, 23 April 1943

Although the Germans had crushed the 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 H1.29

Show what you know

- 1 Why did religious leaders and others speak out against the Nazi regime and its actions?
- 2 Which militarily significant achievements did resistance organisations achieve?
- 3 Why did Anielewicz and his fighters wait for the 'liquidation' of the Warsaw Ghetto to begin fighting?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 4 What does Niemöller's statement reveal about people who did and did not resist the Nazi regime?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 5 What actions inspired people to resist the Nazis in the ghettos and camps?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 6 Why did Pilecki and Ber Winer take such dangerous risks?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 7 How were the efforts of resistance movements vital to the success of the Allies?



Cause and effect, page 233

How did the Nazis try to cover up their crimes?

Since Kristallnacht riots, Nazi policies about the 'Final Solution' required secrecy. As the tide of the war began to turn, the Nazis increasingly realised they needed to hide all evidence of their mass murder, otherwise they would be held accountable for their crimes.

While German officers were given cameras to record the desperate situations of Jewish, Romani and other peoples, they were strictly instructed not to record what they were doing as perpetrators. However, some photos and film footage were accidentally produced; for example, by the Einsatzgruppen in Latvia.

Throughout the war, the Nazis, aware of the shocking nature and the enormity of their mass crime, had already begun the process of dynamiting crematoriums and camp buildings, and destroying records and other evidence. After months of operation, the Belzec extermination camp was destroyed in 1943, trees were planted on the site and a fake farmhouse was built, complete with a farmer. A special group of Jewish slave labourers, known as *Sonderkommando*, were tasked with exhuming and burning bodies at Belzec, then those labourers were sent to Sobibor Concentration Camp where they were gased.

The death marches

As the Allied armies moved closer to the camps, the Nazis began moving inmates from sites close to territories reclaimed by the Allies back to behind German lines. Guards forced inmates on 'death marches' to stop the Nazi crimes from being discovered. The Soviet Army reached Auschwitz-Birkenau in January 1945. As the German Army retreated, they marched tens of thousands of starved and ill concentration camp inmates, in the middle of winter, back behind German lines. Any who could not keep up or go any further were shot or left

‘Lately, they have started clearing away the traces, and wherever there were a lot of ashes, they have ordered them to be ground fine, taken to the Vistula and released with the current. We have dug up a lot of graves, but there are still two open graves on the grounds of the second and third crematoriums. Several graves are still full of ash ... A vast amount of ash from hundreds of thousands of Jews, Russians, and Poles is scattered and ploughed into the grounds of the crematoriums ...’

Source 1

Notes from Zafmen Gradowski, a *Sonderkommando*, that were dug up after the war on the grounds of Auschwitz

to die as the others marched on, and anyone who tried to help a relative or friend who could not keep marching was beaten. However, the Germans left behind hundreds of prisoners too sick to be moved. These prisoners told a story so horrific that many of their liberators initially refused to believe them.

The resources committed to genocide are believed to have led to resource failures on many fighting fronts. German soldiers and officers who were low on munitions and supplies vital for the war effort could not comprehend the drain on resources caused by the clandestine annihilation of people on such a large scale.

March of Death

‘... A white road, and the large black walls of the forest on both sides ... Gunshots kept ripping the nighttime silence apart and women were constantly thudding into the ditch for their eternal repose. Then someone ahead of me fell over. I helped her up. She was a tiny girl, totally exhausted and as completely alone as I was. Every few steps, she stumbled. She had a huge pack on her back. “Get rid of that, it’ll be lighter”, I urged her. “No. I’ve got bread in there. If I get rid of it, I’ll starve to death”. I threw her bundle to the ground. She wept out loud. “Don’t cry. I’ve got bread. I’ll walk with you and I’ll share it with you. You haven’t got the strength to carry anything”. I learned, walking along beside her and supporting her, that she didn’t have anyone at all in the world ... I declared that she would come back with me to my home, and that I wouldn’t leave her. I begged her to gather up her strength, to hold out until dawn, because the sun would come up in the morning and that would make things easier. She calmed down, and went on for a while with a regular gait, and then she fell again. I picked her up. Now I was dragging her along. Nobody helped me. I had lost so much strength, I was all sweaty from the effort, but I was past the point where I could have left her.

And so we found ourselves at the tail end of the column. When she fell for the final time, and I no longer had the strength to lift her up, I called for help, and somebody’s hand took hold of me and pulled me forward. I was very tired, and did not realise that I was not going to save that girl, and that I myself could die with her. One of the prisoners, a stranger, oriented herself in the situation, grabbed me by the arm, and pulled me along with her. A moment later, there was a shot. It was my poor little ward, whom I had promised not to abandon. She had stopped suffering ...’

Source 2

Zofia Stepień-Bator’s account of the evacuation of Auschwitz in January 1945

As Germany was in the throes of defeat, Hitler ordered that the remaining concentration camps be dynamited to kill off as many Jewish people as possible. However, Heinrich Himmler, the architect of the ‘Final Solution’, realised that the Nazis were facing defeat and therefore tried to save himself. He sought a top-secret meeting with Norbert Masur, a World Jewish Congress representative, on 20–21 April 1945. Himmler claimed to have saved thousands of Jews and said that he had issued an order in November 1944 to stop the destruction at the camps. Himmler was trying to set himself up as leader of a post-war Nazi regime who would assist the Allies against Stalin. Meanwhile, people continued to be killed by death marches, hunger and disease but the halt in the coverup, the coverup itself and Hitler’s own desire for total Jewish annihilation were all part of the context of this bizarre meeting.

Learning ladder H1.30

Show what you know

- 1 Why did soldiers have cameras?
- 2 What was accidentally recorded against orders?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 3 What happened at Belzec?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 4 Why did the liberators not believe the Auschwitz inmates initially?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 5 What does Himmler’s meeting with Norbert Masur indicate about the coverup?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 6 How could the massive resources devoted to the ‘Final Solution’ be seen to have impaired Germany’s war efforts?



Historical interpretations, page 241

What is the legacy of the Holocaust?

Many survivors of the Holocaust migrated to Victoria after World War II and these survivors became heavily involved in the Victorian Jewish Community. Despite what had happened to them, 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 the people endured. Holocaust Museums were built in major communities across the world to bear witness to what had happened, including the Holocaust Museum in Melbourne.

After World War II, many Jewish people debated when and how they should remember the Holocaust. Should they include it with other catastrophic events as part of a traditional religious festival marking terrible events in Judaism – Tisha B'Av? Or was it so unprecedented that it required its own separate event? Which day or days should be marked for its 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.



The Israeli government chose the date of 27th of the Hebrew calendar month of Nisan to commemorate the event, known as Yom HaShoah. Sirens are sounded across the country and everyone must stop what they are doing to observe two minutes' silence. This occurs at sundown the day before and at 11 am on the day itself. No public entertainment is held and many venues are closed. All broadcasts on various media are related to the Holocaust and many survivors speak during televised and radio broadcasts. Some Orthodox Jews adopted the fast day of the 10th of Tivet of the Hebrew Calendar and others the Tisha B'Av Festival. Jewish communities around the world followed Israel's example, with assemblies in schools during which survivors tell their stories. In 2005, the UN declared an international day for the commemoration of the Holocaust as the 27th of January. Some communities mark the above dates and commemorate the night of Kristallnacht as well.

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, and it is a memorial to the communities that perished. It also contains a number of avenues of trees marking the 'Righteous Among the Nations'. This honour is conferred to non-Jewish people who risked their lives to try to save Jewish people, and others from the Nazi regime and their collaborators. William Cooper (pages 130–1) was given this honour in 2010 and the ceremony to mark the event was attended by Alfred Turner 'Uncle Boydie', Cooper's grandson.

Learning about the Holocaust is very challenging but is absolutely 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



Learning ladder H1.31

Show what you know

- 1 Why did survivors tell their stories and donate artefacts to create museums?
- 2 How did the Israeli government decide to commemorate the Holocaust?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 3 How is Yom HaShoah commemorated today?
- Step 2: I can explain historical significance**

- 4 Is the Jewish community unanimous about commemorating Yom HaShoah?
- 5 Why do some Orthodox Jews link the Holocaust to other historical events and festivals?
- 6 Why did others feel that the Holocaust required its own commemorative day?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 7 What criteria define whether a person is considered Righteous Among the Nations?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 8 How does a community remember or commemorate the mass murder of its people?



Historical significance, page 237

A survivor's account: Peter Gaspar

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 boys 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.

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. I knew everybody in the street and here was a strange man. Mum came out onto the balcony and the man waved and Mum realised it was Dad.

A while later after that Mum's brother Paul passed the hotel and pub as we had, and 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. When it became a travelling rather than stationary exhibition, it evolved into an educational experience for students. This really captured my interest, that I could share my experience of being a child during the Holocaust. The program became more focused on what we can learn from the Holocaust, less about what had happened.

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 H1.32

Show what you know

- 1 Why should we remember and teach students about the Holocaust?
- 2 What role do you think survivor testimonies play in the way that people remember the Holocaust?
- 3 How did the Nazi regime use Terezín for propaganda?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 4 How old was Peter when he went into hiding and was arrested with his family? Make a timeline.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 5 What was Peter's view of what was happening to him and his family? Why does he feel as if he was lucky?
- 6 How may this have been different to his Mum and Dad's views of the same experiences?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 7 Why does Peter tell his story to school children today?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 8 How do Peter's experiences and those of his parents give some insights into the events described earlier in the chapter?



Masterclass



Learning ladder

Work at the level that is right for you or level-up for a learning challenge!



Source 1

The United China Relief fund was established in the USA in 1941 to support the people of China.

In the preface, the authors urged the students not to apply current standards of good and evil to Japan's militaristic past and to refrain from evaluating historical events from a 21st-century perspective. The textbook emphasised the uniqueness and superiority of Japanese culture, championed the modernisation that occurred in the Meiji period (1868–1912), criticised Western

The Nazi revolution was broader than just the Holocaust. Its second goal was to eliminate Slavs from central and eastern Europe and to create a *Lebensraum* for Aryans. ... As Bartov (*The Eastern Front; Hitler's Army*) shows, it barbarised the German armies on the Eastern Front. Most of their three million men, from generals to ordinary soldiers, helped exterminate captured Slav soldiers and civilians. This was sometimes cold and deliberate murder of individuals (as with Jews), sometimes generalised brutality and neglect. ... German soldiers' letters and memoirs reveal their terrible reasoning: Slavs were 'the Asiatic-Bolshevik' horde, an inferior but threatening race.'

Source 2

British historian Ian Kershaw on the aims of the Nazis

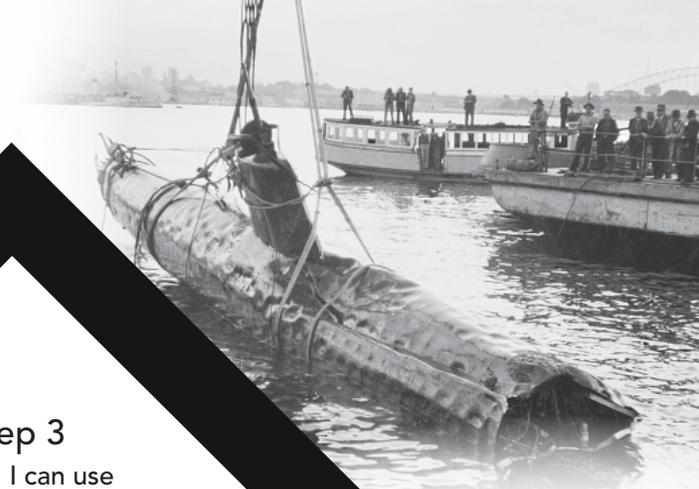
imperialism in Asia, and stressed Western hostilities against Japan in the 1930s and the 1940s. In summary, the textbook is not so different from the wartime history textbook that applauded Japanese expansionism and legitimised Japan's waging of war against the Allied Powers.'

Source 3

Takashi Yoshida discussing the new textbooks used in Japanese junior high school classes

Source 4

A Japanese midget submarine being raised from Sydney Harbour in June 1942, AWM 060696



Step 1

- a I can list specific features of a source
How are the people presented in Source 1? For example, what are they wearing and how are they portrayed?
- b I can describe continuity and change
How did the borders in Europe change after World War I?
- c I can recognise a cause and an effect
How did the Great Depression affect Australia?
- d I can recognise historical significance
Why was the fall of Singapore significant for Australia?
- e I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways
Why do you think the contributions of Australians of diverse cultural backgrounds towards the war effort is not well known?



Step 2

- a I can find themes in a source
What contentious themes are identified in Source 3?
- b I can explain why something did or did not change
Why did the situation for Jewish people in Europe become increasingly unstable in the 1930s?
- c I can determine causes and effects
What was the *Holodomor*? What were its causes?
- d I can explain historical significance
How did the Roaring Twenties change people's lives?
- e I can describe historical interpretations
Why might some historians feel that the Treaty of Versailles was a potential trigger for World War II?



Step 3

- a I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose
Source 1 was created in the USA. Why would Americans have raised funds for China in the early 1940s?
- b I can explain patterns of continuity and change
How did the war affect life in Australia? Provide examples of change.
- c I can explain causes and effects
Explain how the end of the Ottoman Empire contributed to regional instability.
- d I can apply a theory of significance
World War II is considered by some to be the beginning of the modern relationship between Australia and the USA. What events brought the two nations together? What issues arose at the same time?
- e I can explain historical interpretations
Source 3: Why does Takashi Yoshida interpret that the new textbooks are similar to wartime history textbooks?



Step 4

- a I can analyse a source
Source 1: Whom do you feel was the intended audience for this image? Why?
- b I can analyse patterns of continuity and change
In what ways did the Roaring Twenties, the Great Depression and World War II affect the lives of women around the world? Discuss with examples of both change and continuity.
- c I can analyse causes and effects
Describe the events that led to the Great Depression. To what extent did the advancements of the 1920s play a role?

Masterclass

d I can analyse historical significance

Working with a partner, select what you feel are the three most significant events of 1918–1945. Rank them, then discuss your rationale for selecting each, before comparing with the class.

e I can analyse historical interpretations

Consider Source 3. How might the teaching of national history between 1918–1945 in Japan be different to that of other nations?



Step 5

a I can evaluate a source

Describe Source 4 and suggest why it might have contributed to the popular fear in Australia of an impending Japanese invasion.

b I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

'While the Roaring Twenties brought enormous changes to the lives of people, it overshadowed the fact that, for many more, life remained difficult.' Evaluate the extent to which you agree with this statement using evidence to support your point of view.

c I can evaluate causes and effects

Select one of the following statements to evaluate, preparing an extended response:

- If they had not attacked Pearl Harbor, Japan would have remained unchallenged in the Asia–Pacific.
- Jewish people were the primary target of the Holocaust.
- Japan intended to invade Australia.
- The events in Armenia and the Soviet Union have largely been 'written out' of history.

d I can evaluate historical significance

Evaluate the factors that saw Hitler rise to power in Germany. Which played the greatest role?

e I can evaluate historical interpretations

Compare Sources 2 and 3. Evaluate how each source interprets the role and aims of the German and Japanese armies during this period. To what extent do they provide a balanced view?

Historical writing

1 Structure

Imagine you are given the essay topic 'The outcomes of World War I essentially caused World War II'. Write an essay plan for this topic. Include at least three main paragraphs.

2 Draft

Use the drafting and vocabulary suggestions on page 248 to draft a 600–800-word essay (at least 30–40 sentences) responding to the topic.

3 Edit and proofread

Use the editing and proofreading tips on page 249, to help you edit and proofread your work.

Historical research

4 Organise and present information

Imagine you are completing a research project on the Holocaust. As part of the statement, you need create a plan outlining the background, major events and legacies. Write a contents page for this project. There should be an introduction, a conclusion, at least four main sections and many subsections. Number your chapters.



How can I understand Australia at War: 1918 to 1945?

In this chapter, you have learned a lot about World War II. Now you can put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you know and what you think.

In the world of building, a capstone is an element that tops off a building or a wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting, critical and creative ways. You can complete this project yourself, or your teacher can make it a class task or a homework task.

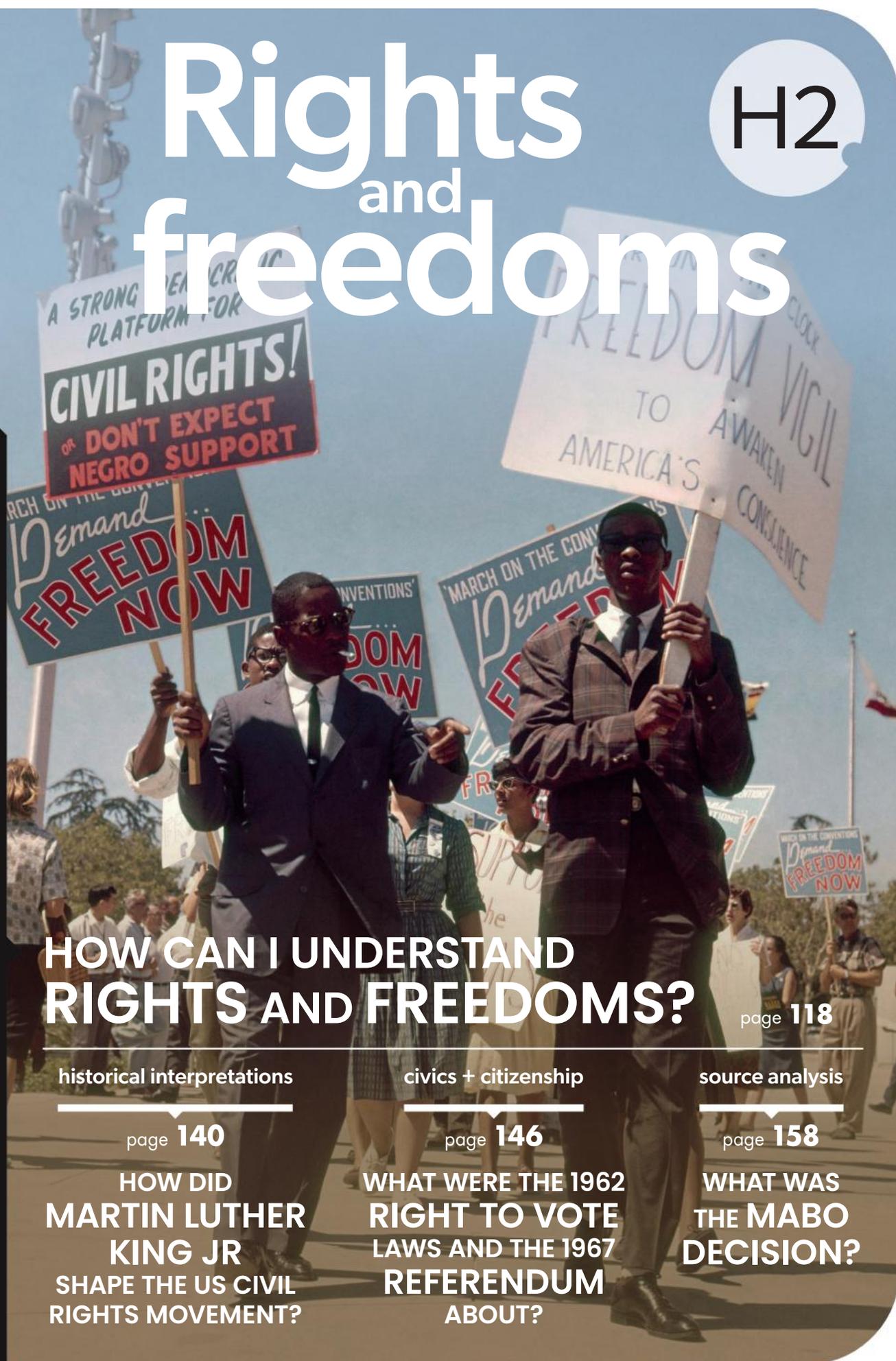


mea.digital/GHV10_H1

Scan this QR code to find the capstone project online.

Rights and freedoms

H2



HOW CAN I UNDERSTAND RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS?

page 118

historical interpretations

page 140

HOW DID MARTIN LUTHER KING JR SHAPE THE US CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT?

civics + citizenship

page 146

WHAT WERE THE 1962 RIGHT TO VOTE LAWS AND THE 1967 REFERENDUM ABOUT?

source analysis

page 158

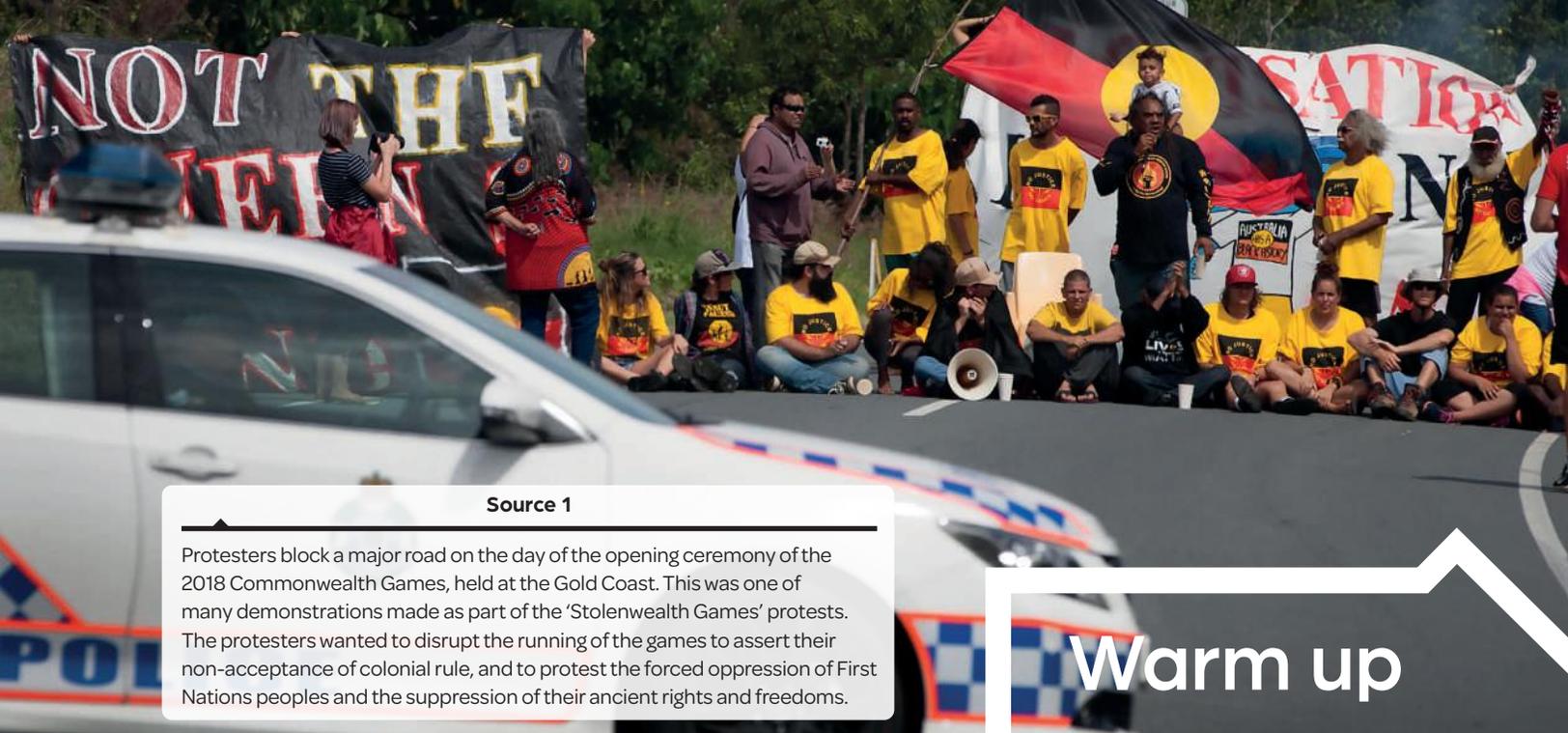
WHAT WAS THE MABO DECISION?

How can I understand rights and freedoms?

The colonisation of Australia had a significant negative impact on First Nations peoples. As Australia federated, First Nations peoples were excluded. Many in authority thought that the First Nations would die out and Australia would be exclusively for white people. The attempted **genocide** of First Nations peoples was unsuccessful and the 20th century saw First Nations peoples fight for their rights on a national and international scale.

learning ladder

step 5	<p>I can evaluate a source I can present a judgement on the usefulness of a source based on its strengths, weaknesses and limitations. I can determine whether information is missing about the event or person the source refers to.</p>	<p>I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change I answer the question 'So what?' about patterns of continuity and change. I weigh up different aspects and debate the importance of continuity or change.</p>	<p>I can evaluate causes and effects I answer the question 'So what?' about cause and effect. I weigh up different things and debate the importance of a cause or an effect.</p>
step 4	<p>I can analyse a source I can use my own knowledge to determine the reliability of a source and can explain whether it shows a one-sided view.</p>	<p>I can analyse patterns of continuity and change I can look deeper into patterns of continuity and change and determine the factors that contribute to them.</p>	<p>I can analyse causes and effects I don't just see a cause or an effect as one thing. I can determine the factors that make up causes and effects.</p>
step 3	<p>I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose I combine knowledge of when and where a source was created to answer the question, 'Why was it created?'.</p>	<p>I can explain patterns of continuity and change I can see beyond individual examples of continuity and change between historical periods and explain broader patterns.</p>	<p>I can explain causes and effects I can answer 'How?' or 'Why?' a cause led to an effect regarding rights and freedoms.</p>
step 2	<p>I can find themes in a source I look a bit closer at a source and find more than just features. I find themes and patterns in a source.</p>	<p>I can explain why something did or did not change I can give a reason for why something changed or why it stayed the same.</p>	<p>I can determine causes and effects Applying what I have learned about rights and freedoms, I can describe what the cause or effect of an event was.</p>
step 1	<p>I can list specific features of a source I can look at a rights and freedoms source and list the details I can see in it.</p>	<p>I can describe continuity and change I recognise what has stayed the same and what has changed about rights and freedoms.</p>	<p>I can recognise a cause and an effect From a supplied list, I can recognise things that were causes or effects of each other regarding rights and freedoms.</p>



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.

Warm up

Source analysis

- 1 Source 1: What were the aims of the protesters in this image?

Continuity and change

- 2 Source 1: This photograph was taken in 2018. How does the protest reflect the continuity and change present in the civil rights movement in Australia?

Cause and effect

- 3 Source 1: What is the police response to the protesters blocking a busy road?

Historical significance

- 4 Source 1: Why did the protesters choose to hold their demonstrations during the Commonwealth Games?

Historical interpretations

- 5 Source 1: Why would the Queensland Government not be supportive of these demonstrations during the Commonwealth Games?

I can evaluate historical significance

I answer the question 'So what?' about things that are supposedly important in the history of rights and freedoms. I weigh up factors against one another and can cast doubt on how important things are.

I can evaluate historical interpretations

I can weigh up the different historical interpretations that have been formed. I debate and challenge the interpretations that have been presented.

I can analyse historical significance

I can separate the various factors that make something historically important in the history of rights and freedoms.

I can analyse historical interpretations

I can determine the factors that have led to why a historical interpretation has been formed.

I can apply a theory of significance

I know a theory of significance. I use it to rank the importance of changes, causes, effects and events in the history of rights and freedoms.

I can explain historical interpretations

I can answer 'Why?' or 'How?' there are different interpretations of people and events in the past.

I can explain historical significance

I answer the question 'Why?' about what was important in rights and freedoms.

I can describe historical interpretations

I can provide different examples to show how people and events in the past have been interpreted.

I can recognise historical significance

When shown a list of facts about rights and freedoms, I can work out which are important.

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

I can identify different views of people and events in the past.

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’.

Although this definition covers much of what racism is, there is growing evidence and theory suggesting that racism is more than this definition. Critical race theorists define racism as going beyond just prejudice, as they argue that anyone has the capacity to be prejudiced against another, but a key factor in how this affects others is the power that they have.

In this case, racism is defined as being 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, at the hands of police in Minneapolis, USA.

The movement organised protests across the world, including Australia, and aimed to fight racial injustice and educate society about what constitutes racism. In this case, BLM seeks to highlight how the policing systems within the USA, Australia and around the world unfairly target, incarcerate and in some cases kill people of colour while in police custody. 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 prominent forms of racism and involves a harmful and intentional attitude or behaviour towards an individual from a minority group. This is also done in an obvious and public manner.
- **Covert racism** is where racism is perpetrated in a concealed or subtle way but is still done with malice and the intent to harm. An example could be a person in charge of hiring at a company removing the job applications of people with ‘foreign-looking names’.

key ideas timeline.



- **Casual racism** is where a person will make a comment or joke in an offhand manner that perpetuates racial stereotypes. This can be difficult to detect and address as often the speaker downplays or denies that what they said was racist. In 2013, Eddie McGuire, a prominent media figure, was accused of casual racism when he suggested on his radio show that former AFL footballer Adam Goodes could promote the King Kong film in the wake of him being racially vilified and called an ape during a football game.



Source 1

A BLM protest in Sydney

- **Systemic and structural racism** describes when systems and structures created by society are either only accessible to some groups, or have been designed to discriminate against minority communities within society. Examples include policing and justice, education, healthcare and welfare. The Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody illustrated how systemic and structural racism played a role in the over-representation of First Nations peoples in the Australian criminal justice system.

Racism is an important concept to explore when learning about the civil rights movement in Australia because, 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; and this struggle continues today.

Learning ladder H2.1

Show what you know

- 1 What do critical race theorists argue should be present for an act to be considered racist?
- 2 What is systemic and structural racism?
- 3 How can covert racism manifest?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 4 Source 1: This protest occurred in 2020. What are some of the methods that the protesters are using to be safe from COVID-19?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 5 Source 1: What are the main themes of the placards and banners that the protesters are carrying in this image?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

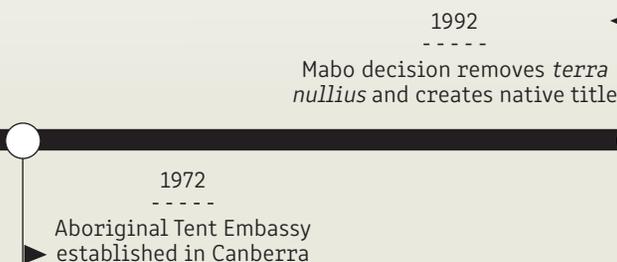
- 6 Using the timeline, which specific developments in the US civil rights movement influenced the equivalent in the Australian civil rights movement?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 7 Why are prejudice and power required to create racism?

Source analysis, page 226

HOW TO



1966-75
Wave Hill Walk-off

What is the UN Declaration of Human Rights?

World War II clearly demonstrated the destructive capacity humans had developed. As well as the nuclear bombs detonated in Japan that killed more than 100 000 civilians, in the European theatre of war it is estimated that there were many millions of civilian deaths including the estimated 6 million civilians killed in the Holocaust.

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 UN lists its four main purposes as:

- 1 to keep peace throughout the world
- 2 to develop friendly relations among nations
- 3 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
- 4 to be a centre for harmonising the actions of nations to achieve these goals.

One of the first foundational documents that the UN produced was the Declaration of Human Rights. This was the first time that there had been a codified universal declaration supported by all the countries in the UN protecting people's fundamental human rights.

Many people had input into the declaration, including women from a variety of countries who ensured that the declaration supported women, children and people living in colonised countries. One of the most prominent women to help shape the declaration was Eleanor Roosevelt, the wife

Source 1

Eleanor Roosevelt holding a Spanish language version of the Declaration of Human Rights



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 USA appointed Eleanor Roosevelt to represent it in the UN General Assembly. She used this new appointment to begin work on the declaration, in partnership with other women including Hansa Mehta and Lakshmi Menon from India, Minerva Bernardino from the Dominican Republic, Begum Ikramullah from Pakistan, Bodil Begtrup from Denmark, Marie-Hélène Lefaucheu from France and Evdokia Uralova from Belarus. These women fought hard to ensure that the language used in the declaration was inclusive and that sex discrimination was explicitly mentioned throughout to ensure that the human rights of women and children would be upheld.

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.

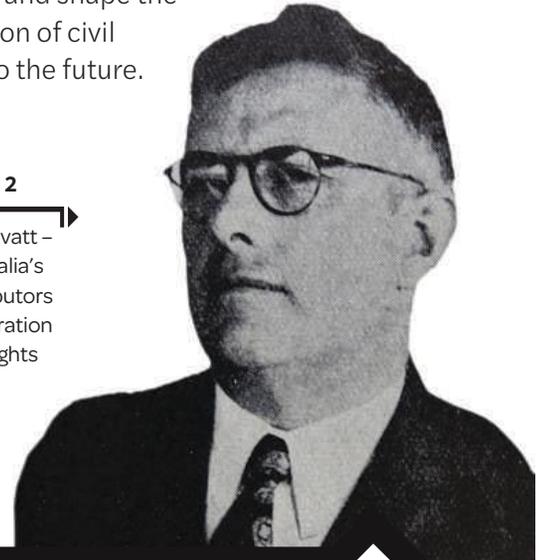
Colonel Hodgson was selected because he was a staunch advocate for the legal enforcement of the declaration and believed that countries that violated it should be held legally accountable. His influence helped to strengthen various articles that still work to protect our human rights today.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is not without its limitations. The UN has published additional declarations covering the rights of specific groups. Some of the most notable of these newer declarations are The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and its Optional Protocol in 2006, The Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1959, and the Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous Peoples in 2007. These declarations recognise the special status of these people 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 in 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 H2.2

Show what you know

- 1 Name the women who were integral in creating the Declaration of Human Rights.
- 2 What had Eleanor Roosevelt been before she worked at the UN?
- 3 What were the contributions of Dr Evatt and Colonel Hodgson to the Declaration of Human Rights?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 4 How did World War II lead to the creation of the UN?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 5 What are the aims of the UN and how do they relate to what happened during World War II?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 6 Why was the UN Declaration of Human Rights perceived as something that was necessary?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 7 Why was the Declaration of Rights of Indigenous Peoples created in 2007?

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 233

What are the origins of civil rights in Australia?

The civil rights movements around Australia and the world have been campaigns to ensure that all people, regardless of their ethnicity, race, religion or other characteristics, have the same rights and opportunities as the people of the dominant cultures in their communities.

These movements have worked to highlight the inequalities and additional challenges primarily placed on people of colour, indigenous communities, refugees and migrants. Despite the main focus of the civil rights movements being race, ethnicity and religion, these movements influenced other struggles for justice and equality around class, feminism, LGBTQI, and other minority groups.

The civil rights movement in Australia, although gaining mainstream awareness during the mid-20th century, actually had its origins before the federation of Australia in 1901. Towards the end of the Frontier Wars across Australia, the colonial governments began the process of forcibly moving the surviving First Nations people onto missions and reserves around

Australia. In Victoria, the establishment of the Port Phillip Protectorate provided the legal framework to establish numerous missions and reserves across the colony and force First Nations peoples to live on them. Despite the protectorate only lasting 10 years, the precedent was established, and many First Nations peoples lived on the Aboriginal reserves until the last reserves were abolished in the 1970s.



Source 1

As well as being a prominent early civil rights leader in Australia, William Barak was also a talented artist and drew images of some of the last occurring ceremonies in Naarm (Melbourne).

The living conditions in the missions and reserves were often harsh and were far worse than those of the colonists who enjoyed many comforts not available to the First Nations. The leaders of these First Nations communities would often fight and campaign for the same rights as everyone else in the colony. Key figures in this fight were William Barak and Louisa Briggs.

William Barak

William Barak was born in 1824 and was from the Wurundjeri people of the Kulin Nations. During his life he became an accomplished negotiator and leader. He was also an exceptional artist and was one of the first to record the Wurundjeri culture through story and art. He became the *Ngurungaeta* (the leader) of the clan and continued to fight for the rights of the First Nations peoples in Victoria through prolific letter writing and regularly walking to Melbourne to petition politicians to support the rights of the First Nations peoples.

Louisa Briggs

Louisa Briggs was another influential and resolute leader of the First Nations peoples at Coranderrk and other Aboriginal reserves. As a child she and her mother, grandmother and aunt were abducted by sealers from a beach near the Port Phillip heads. They were taken to the Furneaux Island group in the Bass Strait where they were forced into **bonded labour** as seal hunters and private domestic servants. This work also often involved sexual violence against Briggs.

In 1854 she left the islands with her husband and returned to Victoria and her ancestral lands. They spent some time living in hardship on the highland goldfields with their 10 children where they worked as casual labourers trying to make a living. In 1871 the conditions were so terrible that the family relocated to Coranderrk, and in the subsequent 15 years she was expelled from the reserve several times for criticising the reserve's administration.

Louisa Briggs was employed as a dormitory matron and nurse and used her position to petition for an inquiry into the living conditions at Coranderrk in a series of letters. After the death of her husband in 1878, she and her family were relocated to the Ebenezer Mission and shortly after arriving she was

holding that mission's administration to account. She stands as a symbol of the strength of the First Nations women of this period.

The ongoing legacy

This period laid the foundations for the future civil rights movement in Australia, Barak and Briggs had gained valuable knowledge about the systems and processes that non-Indigenous people used and how to navigate them as First Nations people. The next stage in the civil rights movement was the creation of First Nations political and social organisations, after which followed the process of gaining national and international awareness and support.

Learning ladder H2.3

Show what you know

- 1 What is the title that William Barak held as the leader of his people?
- 2 Why was Louisa Briggs expelled from Coranderrk?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 3 Describe how the living conditions for many First Nations peoples changed when Europeans colonised Victoria.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- 4 Explain how the living conditions on the missions and reserves were or were not changed in response to campaigns to improve them.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 5 What methods did Barak and Briggs use to try to improve the conditions of the First Nations people living in the missions and reserves?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 6 Were these leaders successful in changing the living conditions for First Nations people in the missions and reserves? Why or why not?



Continuity and change, page 230

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 USA.

The Australian Aboriginal Progressive Association (AAPA)

In 1924 the AAPA was formed in Sydney. During its five-year existence, the AAPA 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 the First Nations people who founded it 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.

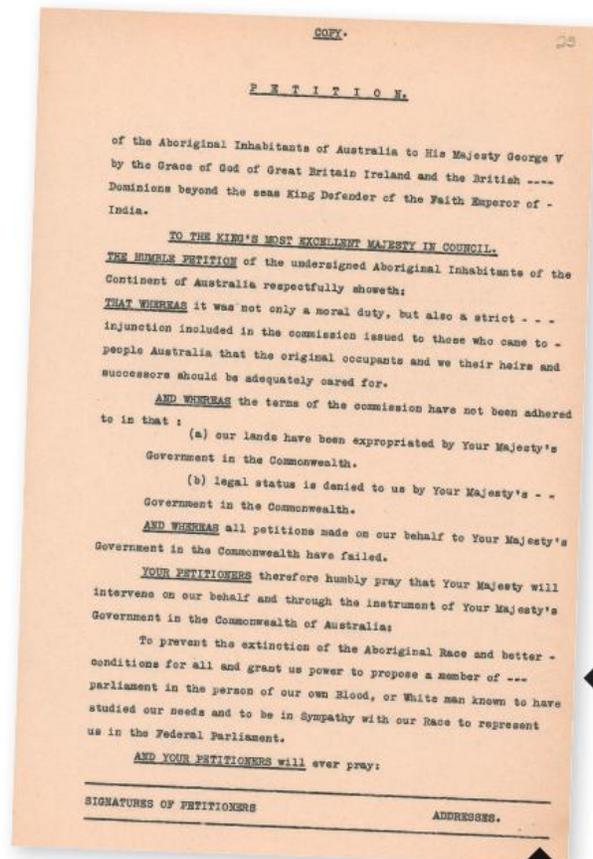
One of the AAL's major campaigns was to create and present a petition signed by First Nations peoples to King George V in 1934. The petition called on the King to 'prevent the extinction of the Aboriginal race and give better conditions for all, granting us the power to propose a member of parliament ... 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, discussed further on pages 146–7.

The Aborigines Progressive Association (APA)

In 1937 the APA was formed in NSW by William (Bill) Ferguson, Jack Patten and Pearl Gibbs, among others. The APA actively campaigned throughout NSW for civil rights for First Nations people. 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 to mark 150 years of colonisation and genocide in Australia on 26 January 1938 (pages 128–9). 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

Learning ladder H2.4

Show what you know

- 1 Who was considered to be the 'father of black nationalism'?
- 2 What was the event called that the APA and the AAL planned and ran together?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 3 What was the reason for the AAL first being dissolved?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 4 How did the APA and the AAL gain national attention for First Nations civil rights?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 5 What were the long-term successes that these organisations contributed to?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 6 Source 1: Why was a statue of William 'Bill' Ferguson erected in Dubbo in 2019?

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 237

What was the Day of Mourning?

The first Day of Mourning was held on 26 January 1938 to highlight the terrible treatment that First Nations peoples were being subjected to. About 100 First Nations people gathered at Australian Hall to protest the celebration of Australia's sesquicentenary, the 150-year anniversary of the arrival of the First Fleet.

The celebrations for the sesquicentenary included a re-enactment of the landing of the First Fleet. Because the Eora people refused to take part, a group of First Nations men from Menindee in far-west NSW were transported to Sydney to act as the Eora. These men were not told what was going on and, when they found out, many refused to take part. The response from the organisers was to threaten not to take them home. The conference for the Day of Mourning began after the silent protest march following the official celebration parade.

The official joint statement for the day was: 'The 26th of January, 1938 is not a day of rejoicing for Australia's Aborigines; it is a day of mourning. This festival of 150 years of so-called "progress" in Australia commemorates also 150 years of misery and degradation.'

Source 1

An image taken at the 1938 Day of Mourning in Sydney with (L-R) Bill Ferguson, Jack Kinchela, Isaac Ingram, Doris Williams, Esther Ingram, Arthur Williams, Phillip Ingram, Louisa Agnes Ingram holding daughter Olive and Jack Patten. The man directly behind Louisa Ingram is unknown. This was the first time that First Nations people formally protested against the celebrations of the British colonisation of Australia.



Source 2

An image taken from the meeting and protest on the Day of Mourning. The figures are (L-R) Tom Foster, Jack Kinchela (obstructed), Doug Nicholls, William Cooper and Jack Patten. Jack Patten is reading from the speech that helped to pass a motion condemning the colonisation of Australia and calling for civil rights for First Nations peoples.



The protest is an important example of First Nations self-determination. During this conference, many speakers discussed the plight of First Nations peoples and called for reform and equal rights for Aboriginal people across the continent.

The President of the APA, Jack Patten, provided the opening address in the conference, stating: 'We refuse to be pushed into the background. We have decided to make ourselves heard. White men pretend that the Australian Aboriginal is a low type, who cannot be bettered. Our reply to that is, "Give us a chance!" We do not wish to be left behind in Australia's march to progress. We ask for full citizen rights including old-age pensions, maternity bonus, relief work when unemployed and the right to a full Australian education for our children. We do not wish to be herded like cattle and treated as a special class'.

The final speaker of the conference was Pearl Gibbs. In her address she recalled a visit she made to an Aboriginal reserve: '... the children are taught by a man who is not a qualified teacher. Two men on that station, one blind and the other a cripple, are left by themselves in a half-starved state. I spoke to these old men, and when they told me how badly they were treated it made me cry, and pray that this movement will be a success'.

This event was also one of the first Aboriginal protests to be broadcast across Australia. It was covered by radio and newspapers, which meant that the APA and AAL and their supporters had gained a national platform and widespread coverage.

The first Day of Morning left a significant legacy that inspired many First Nations activists and campaigners in the subsequent decades. In the short term, the protest and conference put political pressure on Prime Minister Joseph Lyons to meet with a small group of the delegates to discuss their aims. Eventually, this led to the national reform of the various state-based **Aboriginal Protection Boards**. Despite these reforms, little changed in the daily lives of First Nations peoples.

Learning ladder H2.5

Show what you know

- 1 Where did the First Nations men who were forced to perform in the sesquicentenary celebrations come from?
- 2 What were the two Aboriginal organisations who organised the Day of Mourning?
- 3 What made this protest different from the First Nations protests that had occurred before?

Historical interpretations

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 4 What were the conditions of the Aboriginal reserve that Pearl Gibbs described in her protest speech?

I can describe historical interpretations

- 5 Why were the First Nations people protesting against the celebration of 150 years of the colonisation of Australia?

I can explain historical interpretations

- 6 How did the interpretations of the 150-year anniversary of the colonisation of Australia differ between the First Nations peoples and non-Indigenous people?

I can analyse historical interpretations

- 7 Do some additional research about Australia Day protests. Are the points that the protesters made about celebrating the colonisation of Australia on the Day of Mourning still relevant today? Why or why not?

HOW TO

Historical interpretations, page 241

How was the civil rights movement affected by World War II?

First Nations soldiers have fought in every conflict Australia has engaged with, from the Boer War before federation to the most recent conflicts in Afghanistan and Iraq. In many of the older conflicts, First Nations soldiers were officially banned from serving, but they served anyway.

Despite the official bans, First Nations soldiers were often enlisted because of a shortage of volunteers. It is estimated that over 1000 First Nations men and women served in World War I and more than 5000 in World War II. The official restrictions were not lifted until 1949.

The bans on enlisting First Nations soldiers meant that records were often adjusted to indicate that they were of First Nations descent without excluding them from serving. This makes it difficult to know exactly how many served, as they were often described as having 'dark' complexions, hair or brown eyes.

First Nations soldiers serving in the military often had positive experiences – this was the first time in their lives that their skin colour and heritage were overlooked, and they enjoyed the same rights as their non-Indigenous comrades. Many hoped that this equal treatment would be continued upon their return home after their successful service.

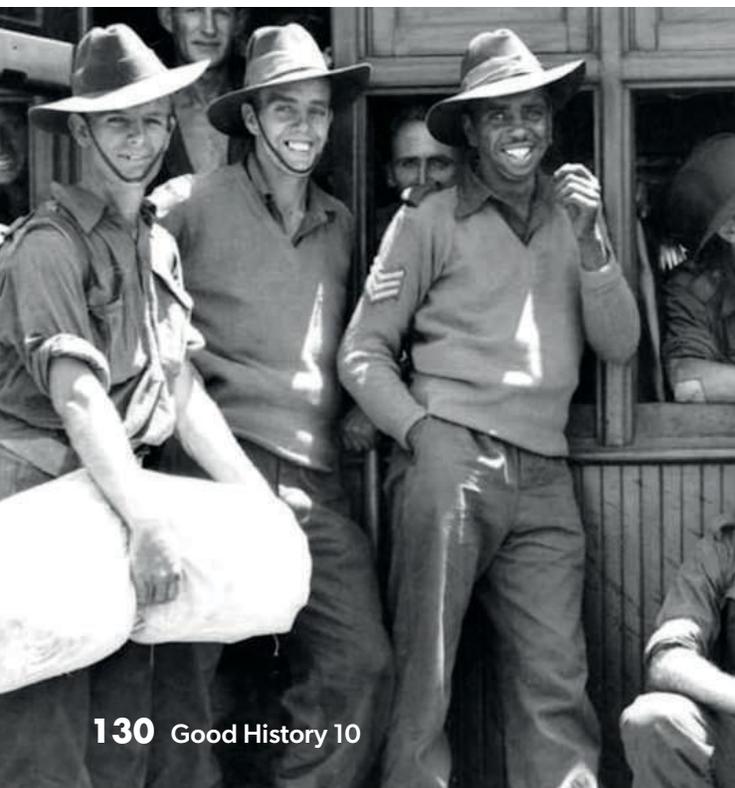
The conditions, however, did not change. It is thought that several First Nations veterans from World War I returned home to find that their children had been removed by the government and were now part of the Stolen Generations, and others had their wages held in 'trust' and were denied their pay for service.

Condemnation of Nazi Germany by AAL

As part of his leadership of the AAL, William Cooper 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

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.



Description of Fricker George Frederick on Enlistment.

Age <u>22</u> years <u>4</u> months.	DISTINCTIVE MARKS. <u>3 Yacc L. Arm</u> <u>Scar L. Neck</u> <u>Mole L. Chest</u>
Height <u>6</u> feet <u>—</u> inches.	
Weight <u>154</u> lbs.	
Chest Measurement <u>32½-35</u> inches.	
Complexion <u>Dark</u>	
Eyes <u>Blue D-6 both eyes</u>	
Hair <u>Black</u>	
Religious Denomination <u>Methodist</u>	

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 Wangarratta
Walter Gooker Capt R.A.M.C.
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 Ed. Service in REINFORCEMENT.
Date 11.4.16
Place MARBYRON
Commanding MARBYRON
12th Bn. 2nd Coy.

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.

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.

First Nations soldiers post-World War II

For many First Nations soldiers, World War II was also the first time that they were treated like equals. There were also several instances of First Nations soldiers being given command of non-Indigenous servicemen. The most notable instance was Lieutenant Reg Saunders (shown in Source 1).

who was the first Aboriginal commissioned officer in the Australian armed forces.

These experiences highlighted the hypocritical policies of the Australian government, as when the First Nations soldiers returned home, they still had far fewer rights than their comrades. After the war ended, First Nations soldiers were banned from attending Returned and Services League (RSL) premises. They were only allowed limited access to attend on Anzac Day.

There is no doubt that the treatment of First Nations diggers, and their contrasting experiences of racism within the armed services and once they got home, made them all the more resolute to continue to fight for their civil rights in the coming decades.

Learning ladder H2.6

Show what you know

- 1 How many First Nations soldiers are thought to have fought in World War I?
- 2 Who led the delegation to the German Consulate condemning the actions of the Nazis?
- 3 What day of the year were First Nations Diggers usually allowed to attend an RSL venue?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 4 Why were First Nations peoples banned from serving in the military?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 5 Why did William Cooper protest against Kristallnacht?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 6 Why were First Nations soldiers often not identified as such in their enlistment papers?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 7 How did the treatment of First Nations soldiers both in the military and once they returned home impact the civil rights movement in Australia?



Cause and effect, page 233

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

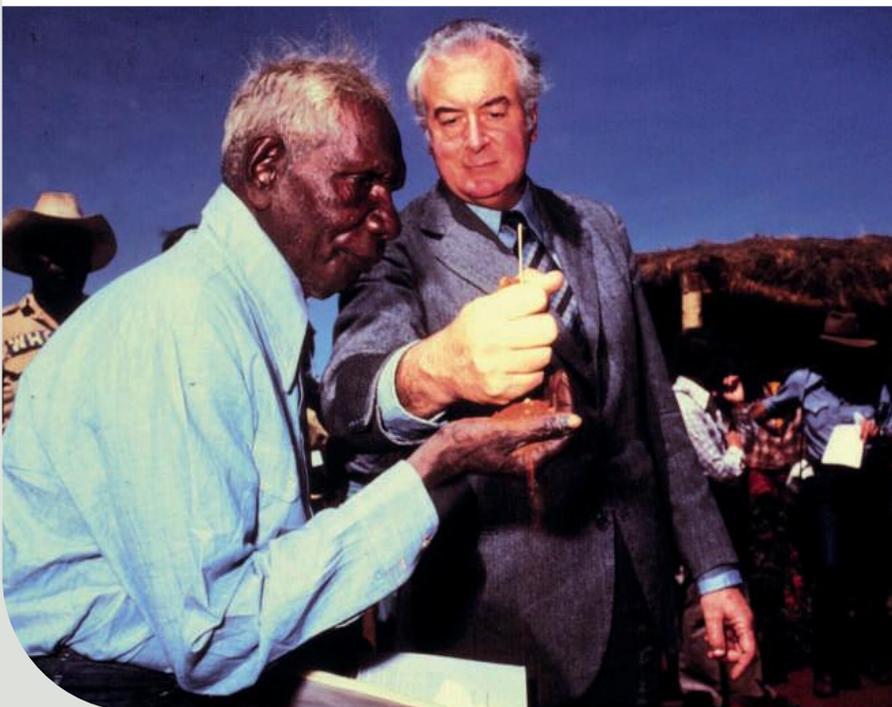
The Pilbara strike was one of the first major civil rights actions that occurred after the end of World War II. For First Nations peoples who had survived massacres and then been dispossessed of their land and homes, working on the stations was the only opportunity left to them to survive, but they were often paid only in rations, if they were paid at all.

The first larger-scale action occurred on 1 May 1946, when workers from across the region went on strike. At this point, minimal improvements were awarded in pay and conditions

for the shearing season only. This was enough to encourage most of the workers back to the stations.

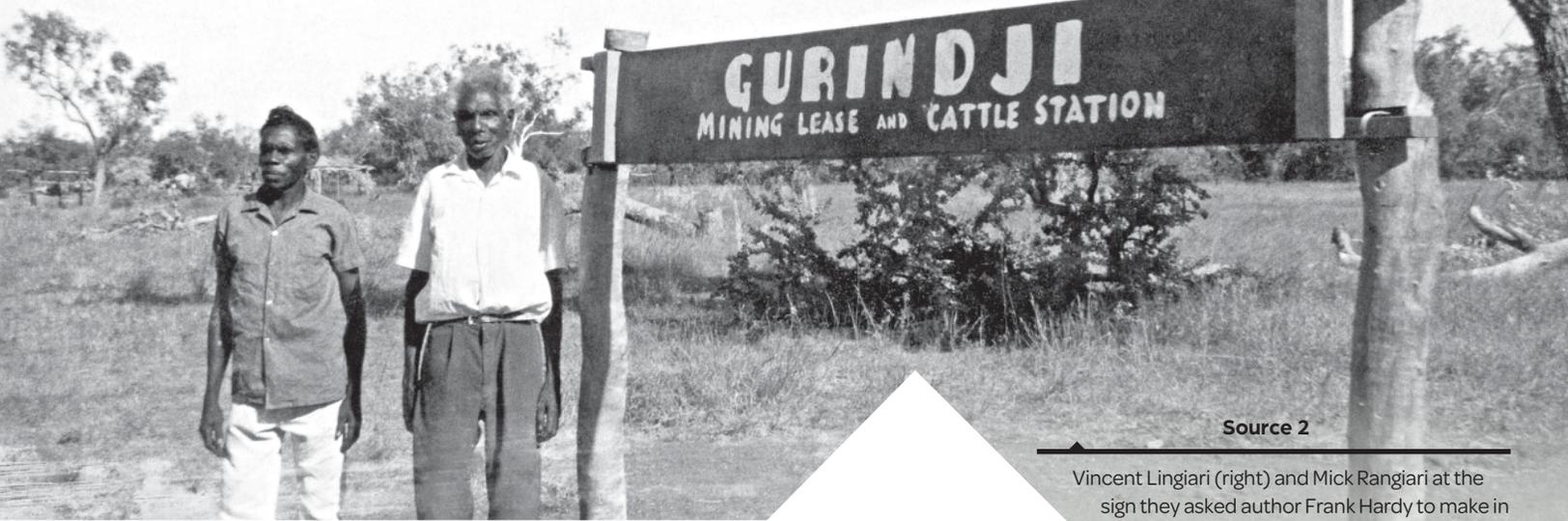
However, these concessions were short-lived, and by July 1946 an even bigger strike and walk-off was organised. With the increased strike action, the police responded with even more force and this prompted the organisers to use more peaceful civil disobedience techniques to 'fill the jails'. As the prisons filled up quickly, 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 many non-Indigenous members who represented over 19 state-based unions, seven federal unions, four trade and labour councils, the Communist Party of Australia, and many church groups.



Source 1

This was the symbolic moment that Prime Minister Gough Whitlam poured the soil into the hand of the Gurindji leader Vincent Lingiari. After seven long years, the Gurindji people were successful in both their labour strike and their land rights. Gough Whitlam helped to create the legal framework where First Nations peoples could 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.

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. This 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**.

The Wave Hill Walk-off

Another important event in the Australian civil rights movement was the Wave Hill Walk-off, which began on 23 August 1966. The causes of this strike were similar to the Pilbara strike of almost 20 years before. By 1966, Vincent Lingiari led 200 workers from the cattle station and demanded 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 freehold lease over much of their ancestral lands and now had the right to use it as they saw fit. This event was marked by Prime Minister Gough Whitlam's visit to Daguragu where, with much ceremony, he was able to pour earth into the hands of the now blind Vincent Lingiari as a symbolic act of returning the land.

The union movement played a vital role in the resolution of this strike and this 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 H2.7



Economics and business

Step 1: I can recognise economic information

- 1 What were First Nations workers paid with instead of money?

Step 2: I can describe economic issues

- 2 How would not being paid in money impact First Nations workers' quality of life?

Step 3: I can explain issues in economics

- 3 What would it mean for other workers if First Nations workers were being paid far less to do the same job?

Step 4: I can integrate different economic topics

- 4 What were the economic reasons why it was so important for the strikers in the Wave Hill Walk-off to get their land back?

Step 5: I can evaluate alternatives

- 5 Research the roles of unions in industrial relations. What are some of their greatest successes in Australia?

Where were the centres of resistance for Australian civil rights?

From their earliest interactions with the Europeans, First Nations peoples have resisted the colonisation, assimilation and genocide across the continent. At times, First Nations peoples came together with non-Indigenous people to create communities where ideas, knowledge and civil rights protest techniques could be discussed.

Salt Pan Creek

One of the earliest communities of this kind was established at Salt Pan Creek in NSW 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 Aboriginal Protection Board.

This camp was important in the civil rights movement and became a focal point of First Nations resistance against the Aboriginal Protection Boards. There were also many First Nations civil rights leaders who spent time at the camp, including Jack Campbell, George and Jack Patten, Pearl Gibbs and Bill Onus. The time spent at this camp gave these future civil rights leaders great insight into the terrible conditions, punitive policies and great challenges that the civil rights movement would need to overcome.

Source 1

Residents of Salt Pan Creek, many of whom moved there to escape from the NSW Aboriginal Protection Board. This camp became a centre for First Nations resistance and many civil rights leaders spent time there.

Fitzroy

Around the same time, the suburb of Fitzroy in Naarm (Melbourne) became the centre of First Nations resistance and civil rights in Victoria. This was not expected by the non-Indigenous residents of Naarm, as in 1900 there were only 46 First Nations people living in the city. By the late 1940s, the First Nations population of Fitzroy had grown to over 300 people – the largest First Nations population in Victoria.



Source 2

First Nations activists and civil right leaders outside the Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service – the first legal service specifically for First Nations peoples, created in response to the unjust and violent policing in Redfern.

This community was also home to William Cooper, and it was the support of this community that helped him found the AAL as a pioneering political organisation. The Fitzroy community also had a strong spiritual aspect. The local First Nations community church was established and led by Pastor Sir Doug Nichols, who would go on to become a leading figure in First Nations civil rights in Australia.

Later in the 1960s and 1970s, Fitzroy became a centre of the Australian Black Power movement (pages 156–7) and it was also the birthplace of important First Nations-run community organisations including 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 60s.

By 1965, Redfern was home to more than 12 000 First Nations people and 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 the place 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 H2.8

Show what you know

- 1 Who were the First Nations civil rights leaders who spent time in Salt Pan Creek?
- 2 Which First Nations organisation did William Cooper establish in Fitzroy?
- 3 Which sporting club was founded by Bill Onus in Redfern?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 4 Why did many First Nations people move to Salt Pan Creek?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- 5 How did Naarm (Melbourne) become one of the early centres of the fight for First Nations civil rights?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 6 Why did Redfern become a centre of First Nations resistance and the fight for civil rights?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 7 Read or listen to the Redfern speech here http://mea.digital/GHV10_H2_1. Do you think the aims of the address have been achieved? Why or why not?



Continuity and change, page 230

What were the origins of the US civil rights movement?

The civil rights movement in the USA 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 USA, because of the labour-intensive agriculture industries established there.

By 1804, most of the northern states had abolished slavery and more pressure was being put 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 USA. 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 US 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.

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'.



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.

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 USA 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 earliest events to spark the civil rights movements in the 1950s was the brutal murder of Emmett Till. Till was a 14-year-old African American boy who was visiting extended family in Mississippi. On 24 August 1955, Till was enjoying time with his cousins and friends when he mentioned that he had a white girlfriend back home in Chicago. His friends did not believe him and dared him to enter a nearby store and ask out the white woman behind the counter.

He went into the store and purchased some lollies. A witness claimed that as he exited the store he said 'bye baby' to the woman inside. Beyond Till and the white woman, Carolyn Bryant, there were no other witnesses in the store. Shortly after, Bryant claimed that Till had grabbed her, made lewd advances and wolf-whistled at her as he left the store.

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 be 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 progressed on its route, it began to fill and soon there were no more seats available. Finally, a white man got on

the bus but could not get a seat in the white section. The bus driver then instructed Parks and three other passengers to relinquish their seats. However, Rosa Parks refused to move, so the bus driver called the police and she was immediately arrested.

This prompted community leaders to form the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA) which was led by a young and charismatic Baptist preacher called 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.

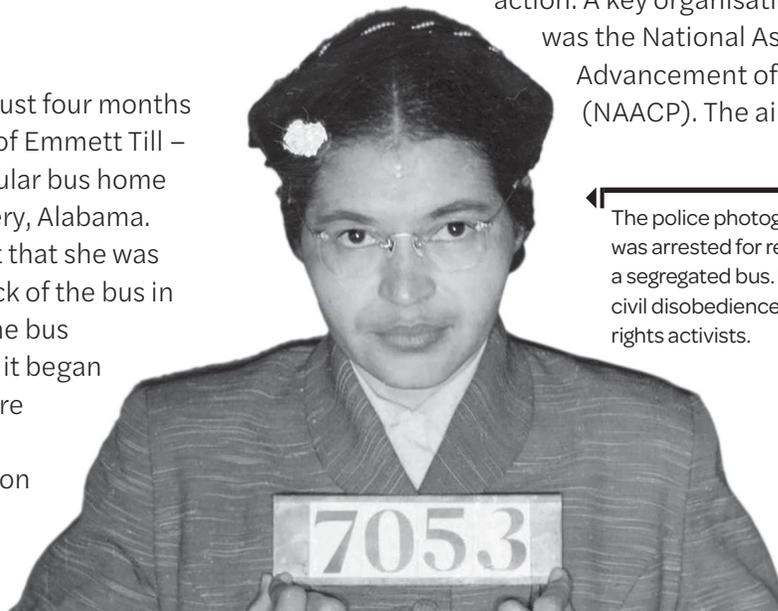
Little Rock Nine

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

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.



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'.

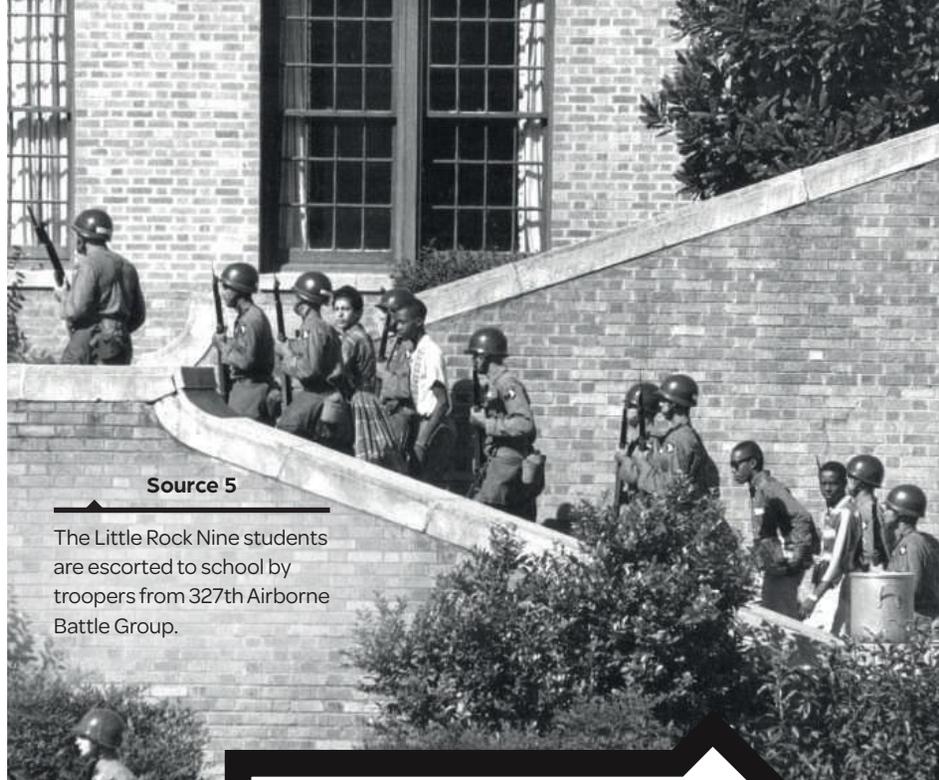
Resistance to the planned integration of the school had been growing and culminated with the Governor of Arkansas, Orval Faubus, calling in the Arkansas National Guard to stop the students.

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. The students arrived at Little Rock Central High School as planned and walked through hundreds of aggressive and violent pro-segregation protesters. Once the students had walked 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 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.



Source 5

The Little Rock Nine students are escorted to school by troopers from 327th Airborne Battle Group.

Learning ladder H2.9

Show what you know

- 1 How long did the all-white jury take to acquit the two men accused of Emmett Till's death?
- 2 What happened to the Montgomery bus system after the arrest of Rosa Parks?
- 3 Through approximately how many angry protesters did the National Guard escort the Little Rock Nine to attend school?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 4 Do some additional research. How did people react to the open casket at Emmett Till's funeral?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 5 Why are these events considered to be what sparked the civil rights movement in the USA?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 6 What was the purpose of the bus boycott and how was it significant in the fight for civil rights?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 7 What was the significance of the US Army being called in to protect the Little Rock Nine?



Historical significance, page 237

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 the years of near constant harassment from the police, the Ku Klux Klan and other white supremacy organisations, he was able to write five books and numerous articles, and led many marches.

The US Freedom Rides

The first 1961 Freedom Ride was started in response to the delay in many of the southern states 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 until the bus and the riders were bombed and beaten again. The local police were sympathetic towards the segregationist crowd and usually arrived once 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 violating an anti-protest injunction and was incarcerated in solitary confinement in Birmingham Jail. King knew that being imprisoned without money to be bailed from custody was a risk to his life but, during the time of his incarceration, he took the time to pen

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.

the 'Letter from Birmingham Jail'. In this letter, he justified his and the actions of the protesters and put forward a vision for a future in America where racial discrimination was relegated to the history books.

This letter was widely published and helped increase support for King and the civil rights cause. Two weeks after the letter was published, young people in Birmingham also took a stand. This action was dubbed the 'Children's Crusade' and involved over 1000 students leaving their schools and marching 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 march. On the first day, over 600 children were arrested.

The media documented these brutal scenes, showing the population who had not already chosen a side that the violence against the protesters was getting worse. The way the children were treated by the police horrified many people across the country.





Source 3

The 16th Street Baptist Church bombed by the Ku Klux Klan. Four young girls were killed in the attack and this contributed to a much wider acceptance of the civil rights movement. This event was also a catalyst for the passing of *The Civil Rights Act of 1964* shortly after.

of all public schools in 1963, to train and place unemployed workers, and a Federal Fair Employment Practices Act barring discrimination in all employment.

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 important omission was the absence of the Nation of Islam. Its leader, 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 to be one of the defining moments of the civil rights movement in the USA.

'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

Source 2

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 speech was one of the most influential speeches of the 20th century.



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 was transported to St Joseph's Hospital but was pronounced dead an hour later.

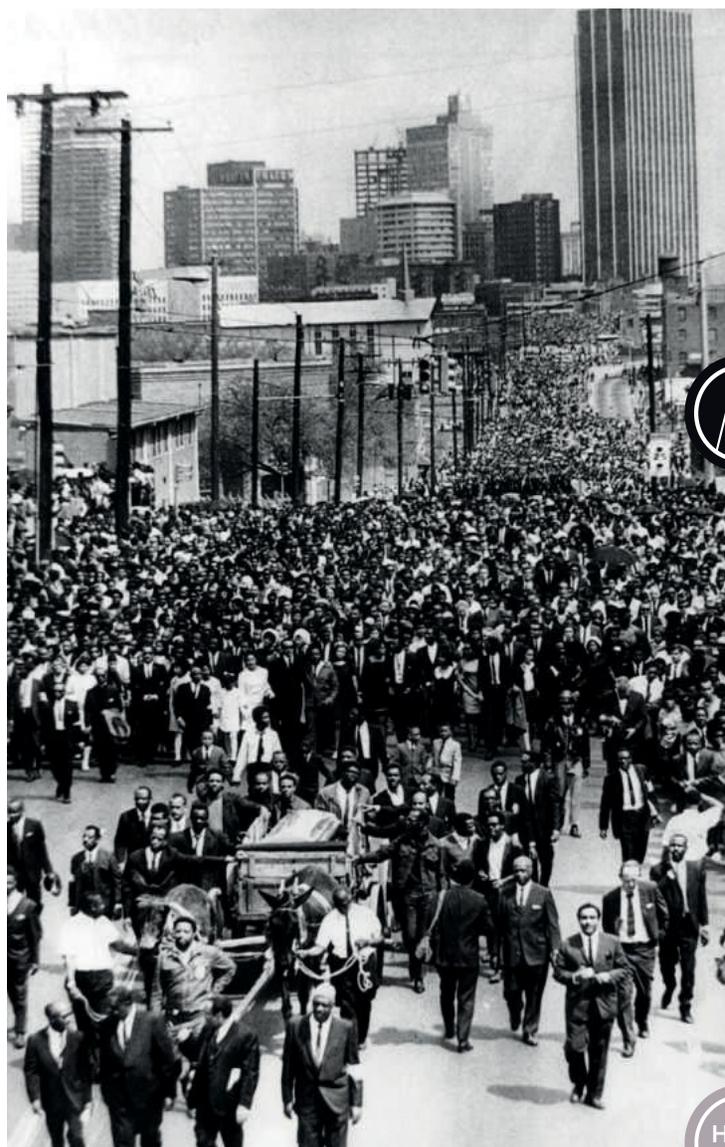
He was shot by James Earl Ray, a petty criminal and white supremacist. Several months after the murder, Ray was captured in the UK as he

attempted to flee to Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), a haven for white supremacists. Ray entered into a plea deal and was spared the death penalty, but was sentenced to 99 years jail for the murder.

In the immediate aftermath of King's assassination, a national day of mourning was declared by President Lyndon Johnson. In addition, there was also a week of civil unrest, protest and riots across the US in which African Americans continued to protest for civil rights. At King's funeral, his family was joined by over 100 000 mourners, indicating just how much work King had done to fight for civil rights, and how he inspired so many.

Source 4

A pair of mules pull a wagon carrying the casket of Dr King.



Learning ladder H2.10

Show what you know

- 1 Who was the famous Indian leader credited with having inspired Dr King?
- 2 Who assassinated Dr King?
- 3 Approximately how many people attended Dr King's funeral?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 4 Describe how the two sides of the fight for civil rights considered Dr Martin Luther King Jr in different ways.

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 5 Do some additional research. How was Dr King portrayed by the media and politics in both positive and negative ways?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 6 In pairs, read Dr King's 'Letter from Birmingham Jail', available at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H2_2. How does Dr King justify his actions? Do you agree with him? Why or why not?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 7 Do some additional research. How have Dr King's words been misappropriated? What does this do to interpretations of his contributions to and legacy for the civil rights movement in the US?

HOW TO

Historical interpretations, page 241

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 peoples 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 peoples in Australia. After some smaller protests and

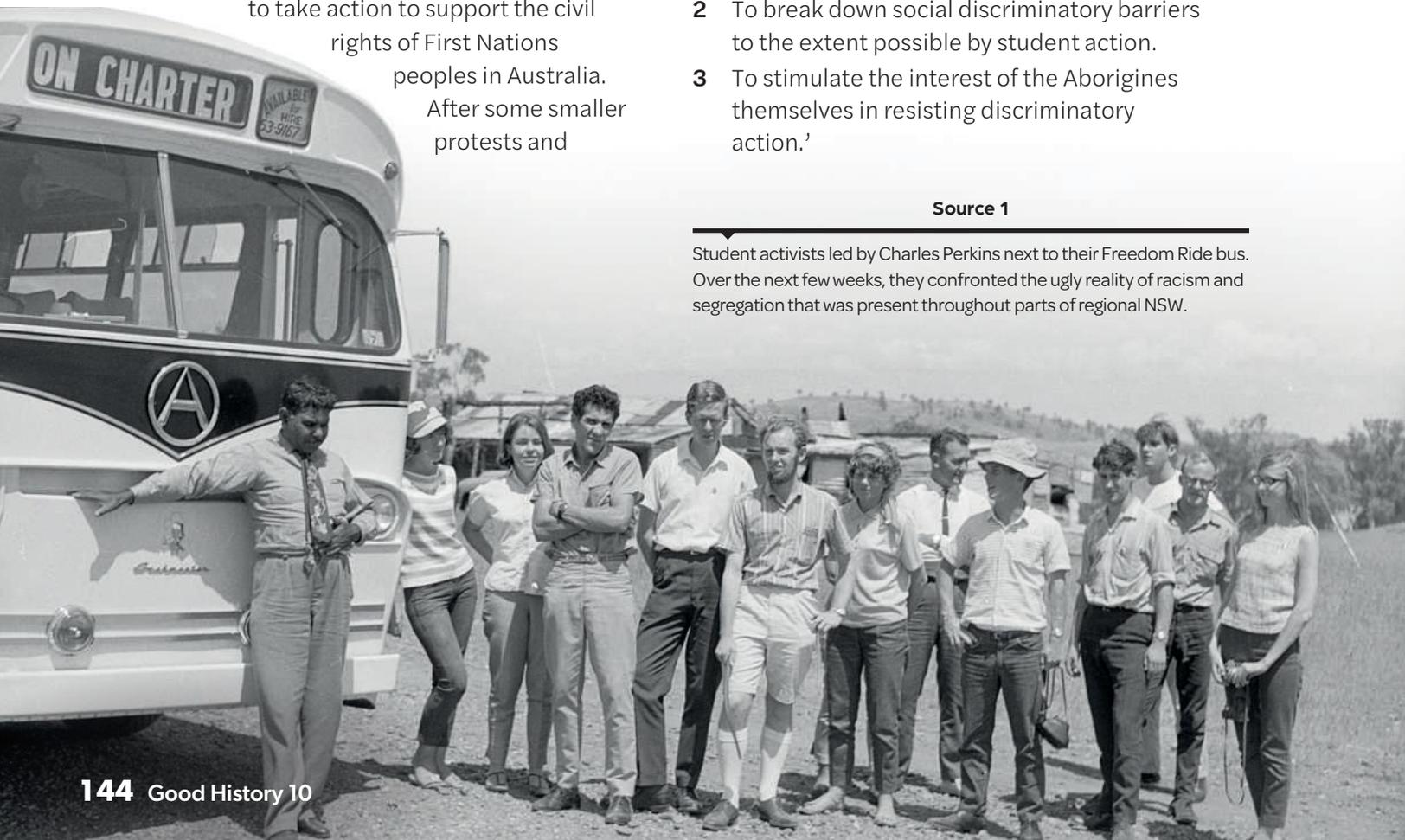
demonstrations, the organisation decided to hire a bus and go on a Freedom Ride to highlight the segregation and racism present in regional NSW.

SAFA had three specific aims they hoped the Freedom Ride would achieve. These were:

- ‘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 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.



On 12 February 1965 the bus left Warrang (Sydney) with 35 students. The riders included the only two First Nations students enrolled at the university: the leader, Charlie Perkins, an Arrernte man who was born in Mparntwe (Alice Springs), and Gary Williams, a Gumbaynggir student from Nambucca Heads.

The freedom ride was able to gain national and international coverage because Darce Cassidy, one of the students, was also a part-time radio producer for the ABC and recorded events as they occurred. The students knew how important media coverage was and used a partnership with the Wayside Chapel, who coordinated the media for the ride. Within a few days the organisation was swamped with media inquiries.

An important primary source was Ann Curthoys' journal, which detailed the events of the ride. Curthoys recorded the pickets, protests, hostility and violence that the riders were subjected to.

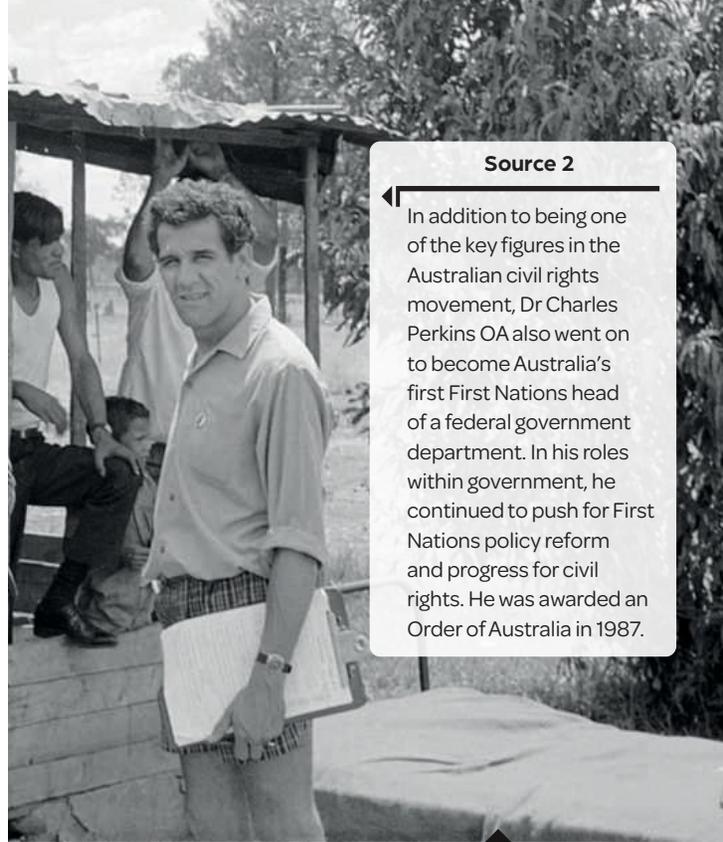
The first major confrontation occurred several days into the ride in Walgett. In this town, First Nations residents, including veterans, were banned from the local RSL and were forced to purchase watered-down alcohol at greatly inflated prices through a window.

The freedom riders set up outside the RSL and held banners highlighting the racism. A sign stated that the bullets fired in war did not discriminate, so the RSL shouldn't either. 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 still shaken after 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 First Nations community and returned with 21 other children keen to swim.

The ride was completed by 26 February and, even though it only lasted 15 days, the footage of the segregation and racism against First Nations people, and the violence and hostility towards SAFA, changed Australia forever.



Source 2

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 H2.11

Show what you know

- 1 How many days did the Australian Freedom Ride last?
- 2 What were the three specific aims of SAFA?
- 3 Where did Charles Perkins continue his career after the Australian Freedom Rides?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 4 What caused the pool at Moree to change its rules and allow First Nations children to access it?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 5 How did the racist people at Walgett react to the presence of the freedom riders?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 6 How did the freedom riders change the policy of the RSL to better support the First Nations diggers?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 7 How did the US Freedom Rides influence SAFA?

Cause and effect, page 233



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 the voting rights for those who already had them.

This was expanded in 1948 with the *Commonwealth Electoral Act*, which extended federal voting rights to First Nations people who could vote at a 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

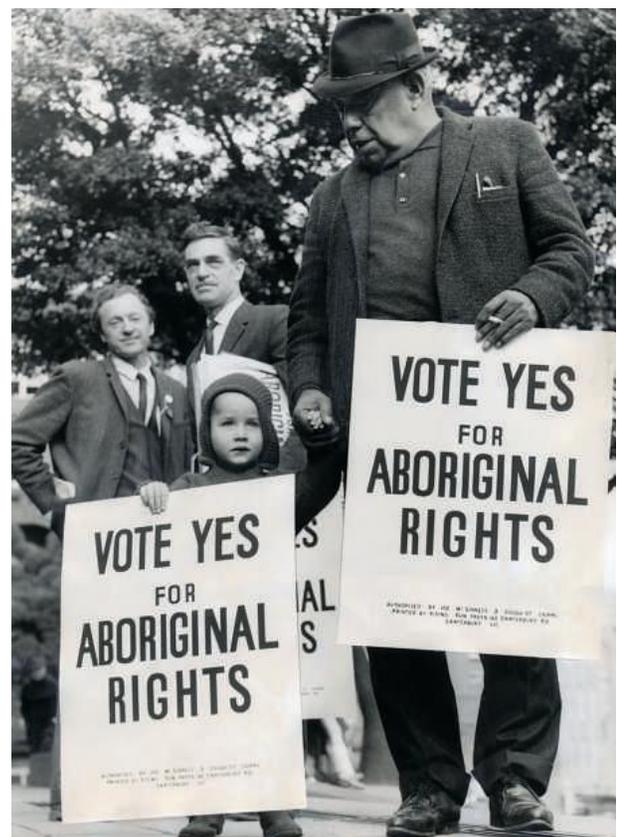
The restriction of voting rights for First Nations people prompted First Nations activists to form the Federal Council for Aboriginal Advancement (FCAA). This organisation lobbied the government and was successful in getting the Select Committee for Voting Rights of Aborigines established in 1961. The resulting report estimated that more than 30 000 First Nations peoples were being denied the right to vote across the country, and was a factor in the government passing the *Commonwealth Electoral Act (1962)* allowing all First Nations peoples 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.

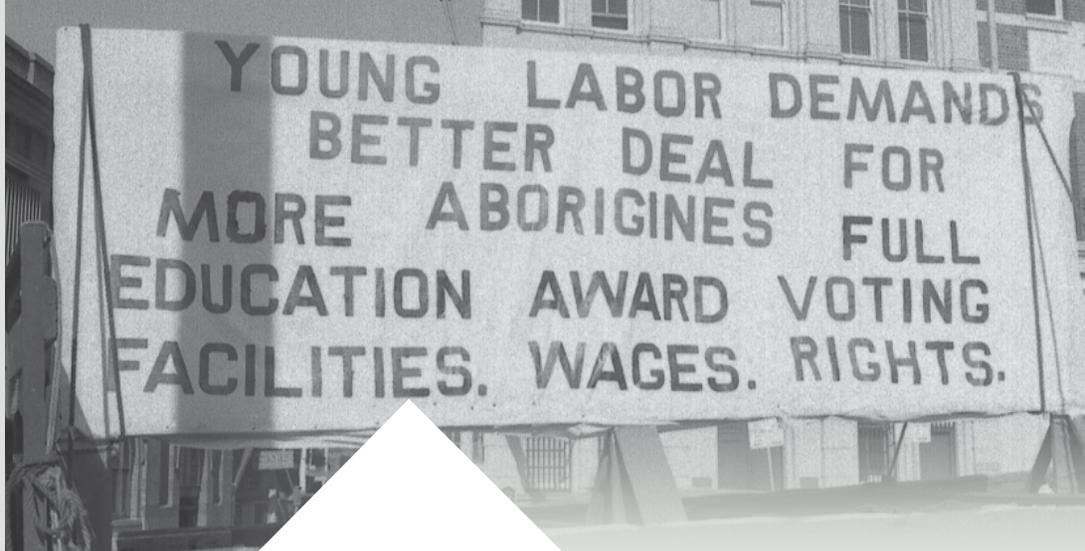
The 1967 referendum

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.



Source 2

Despite federal legislation guaranteeing voting rights for First Nations peoples, 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 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 peoples, 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 peoples 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 and, 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 peoples, life did not change at all, and they had to continue to fight against discrimination.

Learning ladder H2.12



Civics and citizenship

Step 1: I can identify topics about society

- 1 What were the two sections of the constitution that were changed with the 1967 referendum?

Step 2: I can describe societal issues

- 2 Do some additional research. What is the process that a referendum must successfully go through to change the constitution?

Step 3: I can explain issues in society

- 3 What were the issues for First Nations peoples that had to be addressed in the referendum?

Step 4: I can explain different points of view

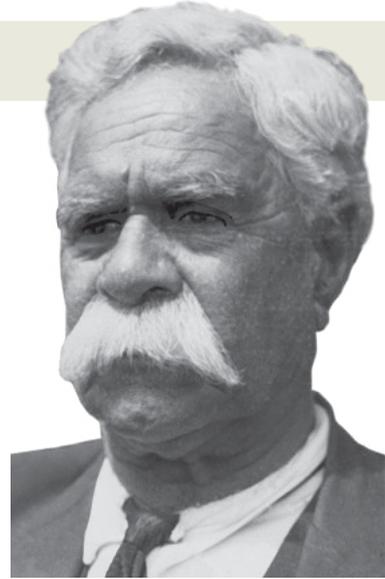
- 4 How did the 1967 referendum reflect changes in how Australian society viewed First Nations peoples?

Step 5: I can analyse issues in society

- 5 Research the different referenda that Australia has had. What are some of the common themes in the referenda that succeed? Why was this one so successful?

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 peoples as well as maintaining an international focus and fighting for civil rights across the globe.



Source 1

William Cooper was a proud Yorta Yorta man and an outspoken activist for First Nations civil rights in Australia.

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.

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.

As discussed earlier, Cooper petitioned King George V for First Nations rights as well as the German consulate in Melbourne to condemn the actions of the Nazis, and he led the AAL in partnership with the APA to organise the 1938 Day of Mourning (see pages 128–9).

Cooper died in 1941 without seeing much change for the First Nations peoples around Australia, but his legacy lived on as an inspiration for 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 pages 144–5).

The following year he graduated university and was one of the earliest First Nations people to complete an undergraduate degree. In 1969 he worked in Canberra within the newly formed Office of Aboriginal affairs and in 1972 also 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

people across the country. He left a large legacy demonstrating the importance of education for First Nations people as well as the importance 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 was able to attend school until he was 12 years old. After he turned 16, he worked as a shearer around the Riverina region of NSW. In 1929 Onus moved to Warrang (Sydney) and worked as a truck driver. During this time, he was an active member of the trade union movement and developed considerable skills as a public speaker.

Onus became directly involved in Aboriginal activism in 1939 when he joined the APA and worked tirelessly to get First Nations representation on the NSW Aboriginal Protection Board. In 1945 he also established the Redfern All-Blacks rugby club, which would become an important organisation in the Redfern Aboriginal activist movement.



In 1946 Onus moved to Naarm (Melbourne) and worked as a shipping clerk. While there, he was reunited with other residents from the Cummergunja Mission and, with his younger brother Eric Onus and Pastor Sir Doug Nichols, worked to reform the AAL. During this time, Onus became a prolific speaker on civil rights for First Nations peoples and regularly addressed rallies and the media about issues affecting First Nations peoples.

Onus was also a talented business operator and an example of Indigenous economic self-determination that was rare at the time. He successfully ran his own business producing replica First Nations artefacts, but most notably focused on sharing culture through the objects with First Nations children.

In 1957, Onus was a key figure in the establishment of the Aborigines Advancement League that absorbed the previous AAL organisation. In 1967 he became the first First Nations president of this organisation. Along with Pearl Gibbs and other civil rights leaders, he campaigned for the successful 1967 referendum, as shown in Source 1 on page 146. He died in 1968 having left a significant mark on the Australian civil rights movement and inspired many future activists in this movement.

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 became 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. She was moved by their stories and began to work with them on their behalf to petition the NSW Aboriginal Protection Board to improve their conditions.

Gibbs' father was a non-Indigenous man and she was designated as a 'half-caste'. This meant that, for much of her early life, the law said she was not Aboriginal and she was forced to **assimilate** into white society. When the law changed in 1936, she was then considered to be Aboriginal and subjected to the harsh conditions that she had been campaigning against.

In 1937 she began working with Bill Ferguson and Jack Patten in the newly formed APA, and shortly after in 1938 she was voted as the organisation's secretary. Gibbs used this position to campaign on issues relating to women's and children's rights and to expose the terrible nutrition and health conditions mothers and children faced in the government-run reserves.

Gibbs was a savvy activist who had valuable relationships with the trade union movement, and ensured she kept the media informed about the various actions and protests as they were planned. Gibbs was known for how well she was able to bring people together to fight for the same cause and, even after she officially retired, she maintained contact with and supported the subsequent generations of First Nations activists.

Source 3

Pearl Gibbs was a staunch advocate for the civil rights of First Nations people 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 in NSW in 1950. At the age of 15 he was expelled from school and moved to Warrang (Sydney), where he began an apprenticeship as a drafter. While in Warrang (Sydney) he engaged with the local First Nations community and was inspired by the First Nations political leadership and activism that was occurring at the time.

By the 1970s, he was at the centre of many activist campaigns, including protests against South African apartheid and the Spring Bok tour of 1971, the Tent Embassy in Canberra in 1972, the Commonwealth Games protest in 1988 and protests during the 1988 bicentennial celebrations.

Professor Foley was a key figure in the Australia Black Power movement and was central in establishing the Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service as a response to the illegal police violence

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.

that was used against the residents at Redfern in the late 1960s and 70s. In 1979 Professor Foley established the first Aboriginal Information Centre in London and was the director of the Aboriginal Arts Board (1983–86). He has enjoyed success in the dramatic arts.

Over the course of Professor Foley's life, he has been arrested numerous times for his protest actions and was also spied on as a possible threat to the Australian government by the Australian intelligence agency, ASIO.

Later in life Professor Foley enrolled at university and in 2013 was awarded a PhD in History. He currently works as an academic in Victoria and continues to fight for First Nations rights.

Learning ladder H2.13

Show what you know

- 1 Why did William Cooper move to Naarm (Melbourne)?
- 2 What were the First Nations organisations that led the 1938 Day of Mourning?
- 3 What did Charles Perkins become the first of in 1984?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 4 Who did William Cooper attempt to petition for First Nations rights?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 5 Explain why Pearl Gibbs was such an important figure in the civil rights movement in Australia.

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 6 Research the life and achievements of Bill Onus. What is the significance of his work in the Australian civil rights movement? Why is it significant?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

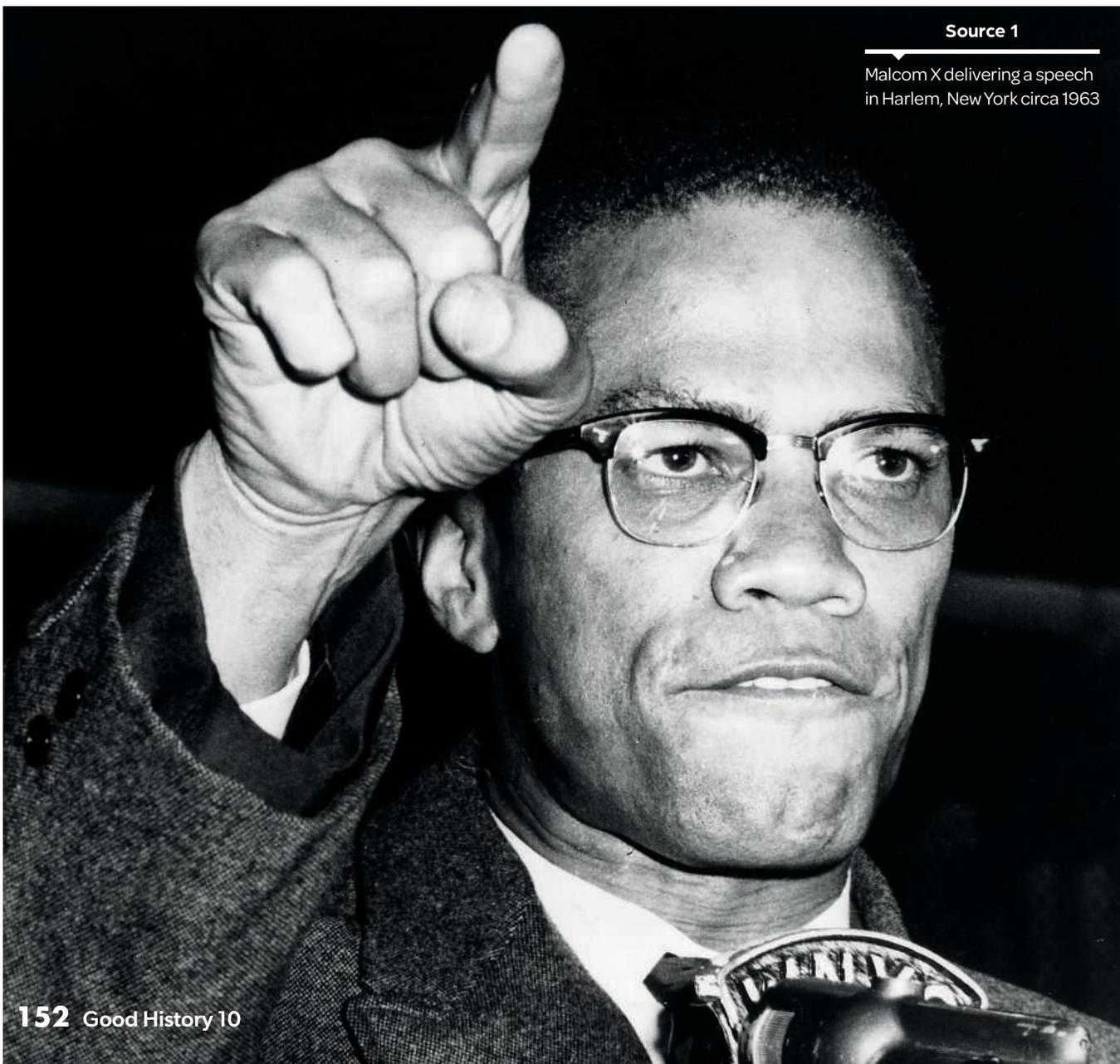
- 7 Analyse Professor Gary Foley's past and ongoing contributions to the civil rights movement. How have they been significant in Australia's history?

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 237

What was the Black Power movement in the US?

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.



Source 1

Malcom X delivering a speech
in Harlem, New York circa 1963

The origins of the Black Power movement

The origins of the Black Power movement came from the earlier activists who sought to better the conditions of the African American population after the end of the American Civil War. For some, the route to better conditions was to transport the emancipated slaves back to Africa to help build their nations there, and, indeed, after the war, many African Americans emigrated or returned to the country Liberia.

For those who remained, the aim was to improve the conditions of African Americans living in the USA. During this period, Jim Crow laws dictated the rights that African Americans had, and this inspired the civil rights leaders who advocated for full integration. However, the violence and terrible conditions also inspired many African Americans to advocate for a complete separation from the mainstream white society, where they could exist within a black community and economy, described as a 'nation within a nation'.

Malcolm X

One of the central organisations formed to fight for this end was the Nation of Islam (NOI) in the 1930s. The NOI aimed to develop an intentionally 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, and claimed that, 'the only revolution in which the goal is loving your enemy is the Negro revolution ... that's no revolution'.

Malcolm X regularly spoke at protests and events and advocated the use of force, if necessary, to achieve positive social change. 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'.

In early 1965, despite his criticisms of King, Malcolm X was making significant efforts to bring their approaches closer together and he proposed working more closely to achieve their shared goals. This came to a sudden end in February when Malcolm X was assassinated by members of a rival black nationalist organisation while addressing a rally.

The birth of the Black Power movement

Researchers contend that 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 intended to walk over 200 miles to highlight ongoing racism and to campaign for black voter registration. Shortly after he began his walk, he was shot by a white gunman and wounded. He was rushed to hospital but was unable to continue. In his stead, Dr Martin Luther King Jr and other activists continued the walk. One of those on the walk was Stokely Carmichael, who was shaken by the hostile and violent response to the march from the white people in Mississippi.

A few days after the march concluded, Carmichael addressed a rally and started the chant 'we want Black Power' instead of 'we want freedom', which was the usual chant for the civil rights movement.

The Black Power movement

Carmichael filled the leadership void that was left after the assassination of Malcolm X. He quickly gained national prominence in the movement. Carmichael continued to work with King where possible, but had changed his methods of protest and his goals. Rather than focusing on integration and equal rights, the Black Power movement worked to promote racial self-respect and increased power for African Americans in the economic and political realms. Carmichael asserted 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'.



**POLITICAL PRISONERS
OF USA FASCISM**



BLACK POWER

Source 2

Stokely Carmichael delivering a speech at the University of California in Berkeley circa 1965–67. There is a large Black Power sign behind him, and the lectern has been painted by the Students for a Democratic Society (SDS).

In addition to the assertion of black self-determination and sovereignty, the Black Power movement also advocated the use of violence in self-defence, prompting the creation of Black Panther Party chapters all over the USA. At its inception, this party's main practice was to have armed patrols to protect citizens against police brutality. The militant aspect of these chapters attracted the attention of the US Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) and local law enforcement, who monitored them closely. However, the Black Panthers also helped establish African American community services, including health and legal centres and breakfast programs for school children.

Another important area where the Black Power movement differed from the civil rights movement was the engagement with First Nations American rights. The Black Power movement and the First Nations movements aligned in their shared goals of self-determination, sovereignty and control over their own affairs. This culminated in the Longest Walk in 1978, where prominent activists from both movements campaigned together for civil rights and American Black and First Nations power.

Source 3

Together, Huey Newton and Bobby Seale created the Black Panther Party. This 1965 poster is one of a number the Black Panthers distributed to promote their political activities and ideas.

Learning ladder H2.14

Show what you know

- 1 What was the event that began the Black Power movement?
- 2 What religious organisation was Malcolm X associated with?
- 3 Source 3: Who were the two men who established the Black Panther Party?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 4 How did the FBI and local law enforcement in the US respond to the Black Panther Party?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 5 What were some of the community programs the Black Panther movement established?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 6 Consider the earlier topics. How have the wider civil rights movement and the Black Power movement been interpreted differently?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 7 Do some additional research. How do the political messages of Malcolm X and the Black Power movement differ from those held by Dr King and the wider civil rights movement?

HOW TO

Historical interpretations, page 241

What was the Black Power movement in Australia?

The violent reactions to peaceful civil rights protests in Australia and the US 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 US were often seen as being ineffective, or too slow to achieve any meaningful change.

Towards the end of the 1960s, disillusioned by the slow progress of the Australian civil rights movement, activists from the Victorian AAL invited the Caribbean Black Power leader Roosevelt Brown to visit. The branch was inspired to release a statement that they were 'enlightened' and that the proper position of whites within any Aboriginal organisation was to 'stand back' while Aboriginal leaders did their jobs.

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.



These new leaders were tired of the near-constant letter writing, petitioning local political representatives and the focus on equality and multiracial togetherness where the dominant white culture was never challenged. They rejected assimilation and worked to assert their sovereign First Nations cultures. The Australian Black Power movement also recognised the parallels between the USA and Australia with respect to poverty and political powerlessness, and that legislative change was often symbolic and ineffectual. They felt that new tactics were required to bring meaningful change.

The Black Panther Party of Australia was formed in 1971. Directly influenced by the US Black Power movement, it was the most militant political body since the end of the Frontier Wars. The leader of this newly formed organisation was Denis Walker, the son of an earlier civil rights campaigner, Oodgeroo Noonuccal (Kath Walker). 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, violence between police and Black Panther members resulted in several protests that ended with police and protesters being injured.



Source 2

On 28 January 1972 the 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 also met with police violence and became a centre of conflict, protest and activism.

The Aboriginal Tent Embassy

In 1972, in the wake of the growing Black Power movement in Australia, four First Nations men – Michael Anderson, Billy Craigie, Tony Coorey and Bertie Williams – arrived in Canberra with a beach umbrella and set up a protest embassy on the lawns opposite Parliament House. This embassy was established 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. The members wanted:

- control of the Northern Territory as a state within the Commonwealth of Australia; the parliament to be predominantly Aboriginal with Native Title and mining rights to all land in the territory
- legal title and mining rights to all other presently existing Aboriginal reserve lands and settlements throughout Australia
- the preservation of all sacred sites in Australia
- legal title and mining rights to areas in and around all Australian capital cities
- compensation money for lands not returnable to take the form of a down payment of \$6 billion and an annual percentage of the gross national income.

The federal government’s response was to reject the demands and then amend the Commonwealth Lands Ordinance legislation to make it illegal to camp where the embassy was set up. This prompted police action – the camp was removed and the activists were arrested.

People were outraged at this heavy-handed response and within two weeks a protest of over 1000 people forced the police to back down. The campaigners were then able to re-establish the embassy.

The Tent Embassy’s legacy has lasted over 40 years and it continues to be a centre of First Nations activism.

Learning ladder H2.15

Show what you know

- 1 Who was the Black Power leader who visited Australia in the 1960s?
- 2 Who was the Australian silver medallist from the Olympics who stood with the African American athletes?
- 3 In what year was the Black Panther Party formed in Australia?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 4 What was the role of the Black Power movement in the establishment of the Aboriginal Tent Embassy?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 5 Research how and why the athletes at the 1968 Olympics were punished for their Black Power salute.

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 6 Do some additional research. What government reforms has the Aboriginal Tent Embassy helped to achieve?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 7 What was the significance of the establishment of the Black Power movement in Australia?



Historical significance, page 237

What was the Mabo decision?

The modern fight for land rights began with the Yirrkala Bark Petitions in 1963. The Yolngu people from North-East Arnhem land presented the petitions to the federal government protesting that the Yolngu land where they lived, hunted and conducted ceremonies was being sold to a mining company.



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.

This protest was also argued in court in the *Milirripum vs Nabalco Pty Ltd* case in 1971. This legal challenge was unsuccessful but, importantly, it acknowledged that the Yolngu people did have an ongoing relationship with the land and had complex legal systems to manage this relationship. During the case, Justice Blackburn stated that the claim was rejected because there was no Aboriginal title, as the only law in existence at the time was British. This law stated that the land beyond the colonies was 'desert and uncultivated' and that in these areas lived 'uncivilised inhabitants in a primitive state of society'.

The Mabo case

The origins of the Mabo case arose when Eddie Koiki Mabo was working at James Cook University as a gardener during the 1970s and early 1980s. He was speaking to some of the staff of the university about his home of Mer as someone who owned it, and when he was told that, in fact, it was owned by the Australian government, he became visibly upset.

The Torres Strait Islands were first inhabited during the last Ice age when Papua New Guinea was joined to Australia by a land bridge. In 1606, the Spaniard Luis Vaez de Torres sailed through the islands and in 1879 the islands were annexed by the colony of Queensland. After federation, they were considered as part of Australia within the state of Queensland.

In 1981, Mabo delivered a presentation on the land inheritance laws in Mer. In the audience were several lawyers who approached Mabo afterwards to tell him that they thought he could have a case. Over the next decade, Mabo and several other Torres Strait Islanders including David Passi, Sam Passi, Celuia Mapo Salee and James Rice gathered evidence from 33 Meriam people.

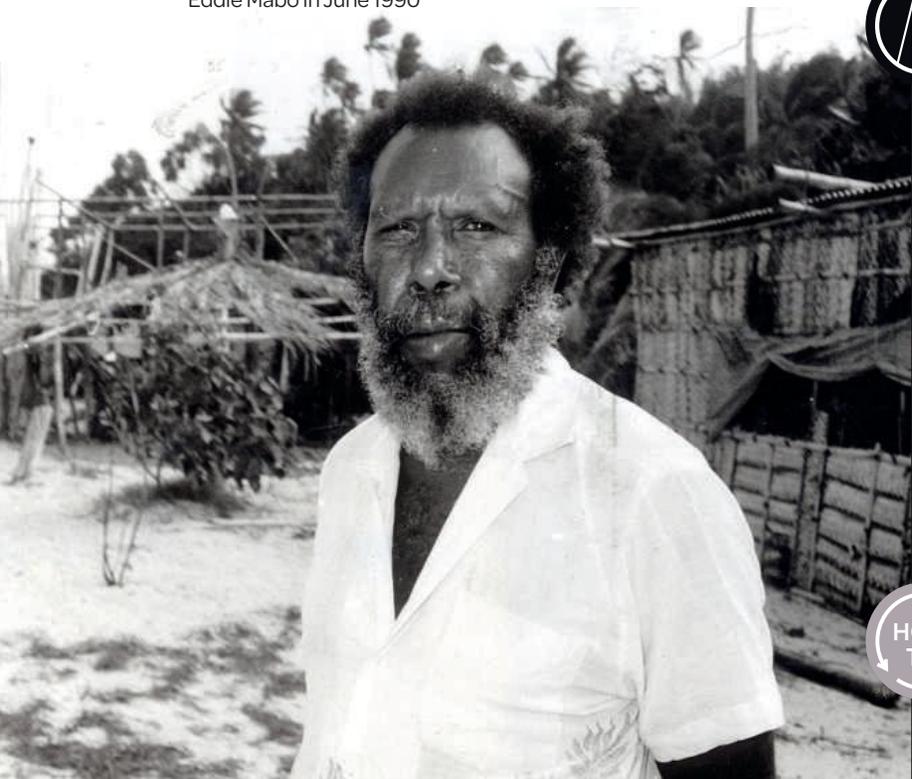
On 3 June 1992, tragically about six months after Mabo passed away, the landmark ruling in the *Mabo v Queensland (No 2)* case recognised the Meriam People of Mer (Murray Island) as having Native Title over their lands, and that the common law of Australia recognised the rights and interests to land held by Indigenous peoples under their traditional laws and customs. The ruling changed the legal definition of Australia and meant that the designation of **terra nullius** was struck out. After almost 20 years of campaigning by the Meriam People and the non-Indigenous lawyers who argued the case, Mabo had won.

This ruling sparked significant backlash against First Nations peoples, led by pastoral and mining interests. A public relations campaign started to spread misinformation and fear that the landmark ruling would mean that citizens would lose their backyards and be forcibly removed from their homes.

In the wake of the landmark Mabo decision, the Labor government drafted and eventually passed the *Native Title Act (1993)*. This recognised where Native Title still existed and the legal process to have it granted. The legislation was amended in 1998 by the recently elected conservative LNP government. These amendments made it much more difficult for First Nations peoples to claim Native Title over their lands.

Source 2

Eddie Mabo in June 1990



Since this ruling and the relevant legislation was passed, Victoria has had several successful and unsuccessful Native Title cases. The first unsuccessful case was the Yorta Yorta land rights case in 1994. The failure of this claim highlighted the weakness in the Native Title legislation, which requires any First Nations applicant to demonstrate an unbroken connection to the land they claim Native Title over. For many groups, this is impossible because of the government policies that forcibly removed them from their land and their families. For many, despite the legacy that Mabo and the Meriam people left, the non-Indigenous governments have made the process too difficult to claim Native Title.

Learning ladder H2.16

Show what you know

- 1 Name the claimants in the Mabo case.
- 2 What were the reasons the justice gave as to why the Yolgnu people's legal challenge was unsuccessful?
- 3 What was the legal definition of Australia that was struck out as a result of the Mabo decision?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list the specific features of a source

- 4 Source 1: What are the images that have been painted around the outside of the petition?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 5 Source 1: Do some additional research. Why did the creators of this petition include these images?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 6 Source 1: Why was this petition created? Was it successful in its purpose?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 7 Source 1: Why is this petition written in two languages?

HOW TO

Source analysis, page 226

Who were the Stolen Generations?

The Stolen Generations were First Nations children who were removed from their families and placed them in children's homes, 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 origins of the Stolen Generations came from the legislative framework that was established during the colonial period. In the colony of Victoria, the *Victorian Aboriginal Protection Act 1869* was passed, designating all First Nations peoples as being wards of the state and, therefore, under the protection of the person representing the office of the Protector of Aborigines. The other Australian colonies introduced similar legislation. This legislation meant that the protector had the power to remove children from their families if they felt that that the child would be 'better off' but, at this time, it was not widespread practice.

The systematic removal of children began around 1910 and initially involved children that were designated as being 'half-caste'; children where only one parent was 'full-blood Aborigine'. Over time, the systematic removal of children included those who were 'quarter-caste', with one 'full-blood Aborigine' grandparent. This meant that there were numerous examples of children being removed from their families, and having their children removed in turn. In addition, First Nations children that were considered to have lighter-toned skin, and therefore assumed to be capable of assimilating into white culture, were also removed.

Source 1

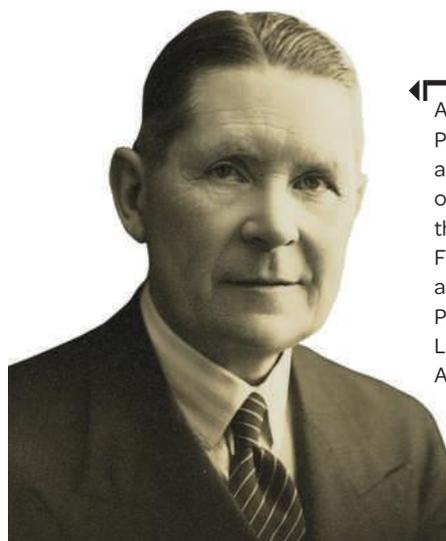
A protest on 26 January 2017 in Warrang (Sydney). Despite the federal government's apology, First Nations children are still taken from their families in much higher numbers than non-Indigenous children.

Bringing them Home

In 1995, the federal government launched a Royal Commission into the Stolen Generations and the impact that child-removal policies had on individuals, families and First Nations communities. After extensive investigations, the 'Bringing them Home Report' was tabled in Parliament in 1997. This report detailed the findings of the Royal Commission and explored the terrible experiences that the children and their families had suffered. The report estimated that between one in three and one in 10 children had been forcibly removed from their families and that, beyond the trauma that family separation had caused, the children were also often placed in conditions that exposed them to additional violence, molestation and harm.



AO Neville was the Chief Protector of Aborigines and is considered to be one of the architects of the policies to remove First Nations children across the country. Photo from State Library of Western Australia, 5000B



The report also found that it was not only police who removed children, but social workers and teachers also contributed to this policy. 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 found that the trauma did not just impact First Nations individuals, but also affected the following generations in the form of trans-generational trauma.

The Royal Commission made 54 recommendations to the government. These included making payments as compensation to the people directly affected by being removed, and delivering a formal apology by the Prime Minister on behalf of the Australian government and its people.

The apology

Most of the recommendations were considered by the LNP government led by Prime Minister John Howard and were slowly implemented. Howard, however, did not think an apology was appropriate. This was problematic because, for many people removed from their families, the apology and acknowledgment of their pain and suffering would be an important part of their healing process.

Kevin Rudd made the apology on 13 February 2008. 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.'

Many of the Stolen Generations people who were in 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 LNP politicians, including current MP Peter Dutton, did not attend the apology.

Despite the positives that came from the apology, the rates of child removal of First Nations children still remain much higher than for non-Indigenous children, and this is still a cause for concern in many First Nations communities.

Learning ladder H2.17

Show what you know

- 1 How many years did it take for the federal government to apologise to the survivors after the 'Bringing them Home Report' was tabled in Parliament?
- 2 What did it mean for a First Nations person to be designated as a 'half-caste'?
- 3 In 2021, who is the only currently sitting Member of Parliament that boycotted the apology to the Stolen Generations?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 4 What was the legislation passed in Victoria in 1869 that allowed First Nations children to be forcibly removed from their families?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 5 How did non-Indigenous people justify their child removal policies?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 6 Source 2: Research AO Neville. How did he change the ways that First Nations children were treated during his time as the Chief Protector of Aborigines?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 7 Why are members of the Stolen Generations more likely to commit a crime and less likely to be in good health or employed?



Cause and effect, page 233

What is reconciliation and 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, First Nations peoples presented the Barunga Statement to Prime Minister Hawke.

This statement called for self-management and land rights for First Nations peoples and also a treaty. Initially, Hawke was in favour of a treaty, but when it became apparent that he would likely lose electoral popularity if he supported it, he stepped away from the proposal. Instead, successive governments proposed a process of reconciliation which, in theory, would change the opinions of non-Indigenous people and make a treaty a more popular outcome.

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.



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, when we reconcile with others, one or both of us admit fault and apologise for past wrongs. When reconciliation is interpreted in this way, it can be problematic for many First Nations people, as they rightly feel that they have nothing to apologise for. Additionally, although apologies are an important symbolic act, many First Nations people also want non-Indigenous people to take meaningful actions to make positive changes.

A more appropriate way of considering reconciliation is in the context of how we reconcile with the past. That is, how we come to terms with the wrongs, destruction, trauma and genocide committed in Australia. In this context, it requires non-Indigenous people to recognise that the relative success and wealth that Australia has achieved has come at great cost to First Nations peoples. This kind of reconciliation asks nothing from First Nations peoples but focuses on practical actions and changes to support their civil rights. It also considers reconciliation as a lifelong journey, not a destination.

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.

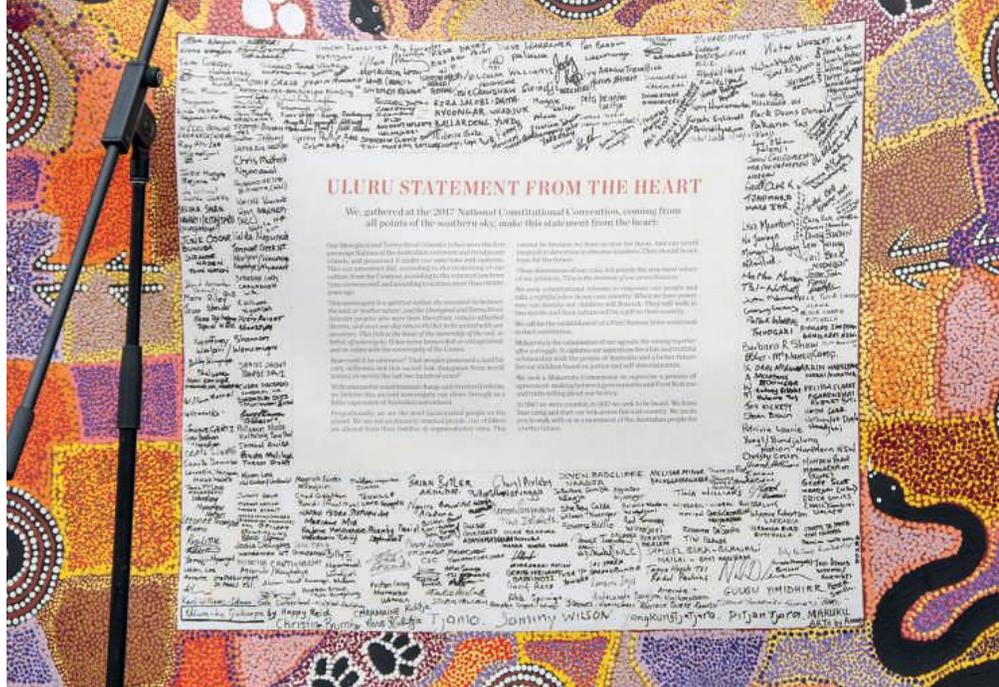
The support for the reconciliation movement gained momentum during the famous Peoples' Walk for Aboriginal Reconciliation in May 2000, shown in Source 1.

However, nothing came from this agenda, and, in a few years, it was eclipsed by the Northern Territory Intervention and the entrenched and endemic quality of life gaps between non-Indigenous Australians and First Nations peoples. The lack of progress in the areas of life expectancy, infant mortality and incarceration rates were factors in the growing First Nations community opposition to constitutional reform and reconciliation.

For many, reconciliation had become symbolic and was actually preventing meaningful change in the living conditions and civil rights for First Nations peoples. It was perceived as a barrier to achieving a legally binding treaty.

More recently, in 2016, the Referendum Council conducted extensive community consultation with First Nations peoples and compiled their responses into the Uluru Statement from the Heart. This document, endorsed by 250 First Nations delegates, calls for two key reforms. The first is a referendum to establish a First Nations voice to parliament that can engage with legislation affecting First Nations peoples, and the second is the establishment of the Makarrata Commission with the dual purpose of overseeing the negotiations between the government and First Nations groups, and to have a truth-telling role to uncover and reconcile Australia's dark history.

It remains to be seen whether the government and opposing First Nations communities will accept this proposal in the coming years.



Learning ladder H2.18

Show what you know

- 1 How many people walked over the Sydney Harbour Bridge for the Walk for Reconciliation in 2000?
- 2 What was the name of the peak First Nations body that supported reconciliation and constitutional reform in 1996?
- 3 List the social welfare and wellbeing gaps that are still present between First Nations and non-Indigenous Australians.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list the specific features of a source

- 4 Source 2: What are the three aims of the Uluru Statement from the Heart?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 5 Source 2: Read the Uluru Statement from the Heart. What are the themes from the statement?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 6 Source 2: How do First Nations incarceration rates relate to the statement?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 7 Source 2: Do some additional research. What was the government and the media's response to the statement?



Source analysis, page 226

What is the legacy of the civil rights movement in Australia?

After the successful passing of the referendum in 1967, First Nations peoples were considered equal. This led to the abolishment of the Aboriginal Protection Boards and meant that First Nations issues would be legislated and controlled centrally and, in theory, be consistent across the country. However, despite the many important achievements of the civil rights movement and the hard work of many First Nations and non-Indigenous activists, there is still a long way to go.

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. The importance of some sacred sites is being recognised, such as Budj Bim. This sacred site is located near the southwest coast of Victoria on the Country of the Gunditjimarra and in 2019 was designated as a UN World Heritage Site.

This achievement sits in contrast to 2020, when caves in the Juukan Gorge in Western Australia and the sacred Directions Tree in Victoria were both destroyed. In the case of the Juukan Gorge, the caves were the site of the oldest known inland inhabitation of Australia and held artefacts that were over 46 000 years old. The Directions Tree, located on the Country of the Djab Wurrung people, was cut down by the state government, despite years of protest by the local community, to make room for a highway duplication.

In both cases, the wishes of the local communities were ignored and the laws regulating this practice did not provide the protection to the sites that they should have.

Health and welfare

Although the health of First Nations peoples has steadily improved over the last few decades, there is still a significant way to go to improve life expectancy and quality of life. In 2020, the life

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.



expectancy gap meant that First Nations peoples would die, on average, eight to nine years younger than non-Indigenous people. These differences show that our health systems do not support the health of First Nations peoples well enough, and that living conditions and access to various services do not support long and healthy lives.

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, with First Nations children almost 10 times more likely to have been removed from their immediate families and be living in out-of-home care. There are many reasons for this phenomenon, but this also demonstrates that there is still much more work to be done.

Police and justice

Racist police policies led to the formation of the Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service, and the deaths in custody of First Nations peoples prompted the establishment of the Royal Commission. In 2017, the First Nations people of Australia were the most incarcerated people in the world. For First Nations women, incarceration increased by 34 per cent from 2000 to 2015. For First Nations children, the statistics are so bad that, in 2019, for most of the year, every single juvenile incarcerated in the Northern Territory was First Nations. This included children as young as 10 years old. Much more needs to be done to divert First Nations peoples from the prison system.

The Northern Territory Emergency Response (the Intervention)

The Northern Territory Intervention began in 2007 on the basis of false information and outright lies that children were at great risk of sexual abuse in remote First Nations communities. (After an 18-month investigation, the Australian Crime Commission found that these claims were false.) Despite a report recommending consultation and partnership with First Nations communities, the government response was to send the Australian Defence Force into the communities to conduct compulsory health checks and to try to catch the fabricated sexual predators.

In addition, the government established the Basics Card that quarantined people's welfare payments and forced them to spend their money at the local shop, and only for authorised purchases.

This intervention continues today, effectively recreating the reserve protection system. If First Nations people can only access their money within their community, this effectively limits them to one place, just as if they lived on a reserve. Despite the efforts of the civil rights movement, it seems that the reserves have returned for many First Nations people, just in a different form.

Learning ladder H2.19

Show what you know

- 1 Who are the Traditional Owners of Budj Bim?
- 2 What is the minimum age that a child can be incarcerated in Australia?
- 3 What were the lies that contributed to the establishment of the Northern Territory Emergency Response?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 4 What are the similarities and differences between the conditions on the missions and reserves and communities subject to the the Intervention?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- 5 Why was Budj Bim recognised as a site of international cultural heritage?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 6 How have incarceration rates and deaths in custody changed since the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 7 Was the fight for civil rights in Australia successful? Why? Why not?



Continuity and change, page 230

Masterclass



Learning ladder

Work at the level that is right for you or level-up for a learning challenge!



Source 1

A march for civil rights
in Washington D.C.,
August 1963

‘**T**he policy of assimilation means that all Aborigines and part-Aborigines are expected to attain the same manner of living as other Australians and to live as members of a single Australian community, enjoying the same rights and privileges, accepting the same customs and influenced by the same beliefs as other Australians.’

Source 2

Quote from the 1961 Native Welfare Conference

Source 3

Black Panther members standing on the steps of the Capitol Building in Olympia, February 1969. They were protesting against proposed gun reform laws that would specifically strip them of their right to own firearms while maintaining the existing rights for white gun owners.



Step 1

a I can list specific features of a source

List the different civil rights demands being protested for in Source 1.

b I can describe continuity and change

Where did the fight for civil rights begin in Australia?

c I can recognise a cause and an effect

Why was the Universal Declaration of Human Rights created?

d I can recognise historical significance

What is the significance of the creation of the *Victorian Aboriginal Protection Act 1869*?

e I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

How did First Nations peoples perceive their living conditions in the missions and reserves?



Step 2

a I can find themes in a source

Source 2: What did the assimilation policy aim to do to First Nations peoples?

b I can explain why something did or did not change

Why did Charles Perkins lead the Freedom Ride through NSW?

c I can determine causes and effects

What were the causes of the civil rights movement in the USA?

d I can explain historical significance

What was the significance of the 1938 Day of Mourning? What is its significance today?

e I can describe historical interpretations

Source 2: What does the policy imply about First Nations and non-Indigenous cultures?



Step 3

a I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

Source 1: What do you think was the purpose of this photograph at the time it was taken?



Step 4

a I can analyse a source

Source 3: What was the purpose of the Black Panther members bringing their rifles to the protest?

b I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

What was the reconciliation movement? Was it successful?

c I can analyse causes and effects

How did the Wave Hill Walk-off lead to the first successful land rights campaign?

d I can analyse historical significance

What are the different perspectives on the destruction of Juukan Gorge and the Directions Tree?

e I can analyse historical interpretations

Why might stories of non-Indigenous families from the civil rights period differ from the contemporary stories of First Nations families at the time?

b I can explain patterns of continuity and change

How did the riots and civil unrest after the assassination of Dr Martin Luther King Jr impact the civil rights movement in the US?

c I can explain causes and effects

What caused the civil rights movement in Australia?

d I can apply a theory of significance

Why were the early First Nations organisations formed? Did they achieve their goals?

e I can explain historical interpretations

Source 2: How does the assimilation statement help us better understand the Stolen Generations?

Masterclass



Step 5

a I can evaluate a source

Source 3: What necessitated this specific protest by the Black Panthers? Why were the FBI and other local law enforcement agencies so concerned about this organisation?

b I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

In your opinion, which civil rights movement was more successful, the US or Australian one? Justify your answer.

c I can evaluate causes and effects

What was the impact of the 1967 referendum on civil rights in Australia?

d I can evaluate historical significance

What were the contributions from the civil rights and trade union movements to Australian society?

e I can evaluate historical interpretations

What did the violence against African American and First Nations Australian protesters show about the respective societies in the USA and Australia at the time?

Historical writing

1 Structure

Imagine you are given the essay topic 'All of the Australian civil rights movement was influenced by the US civil rights movement'. Write an essay plan for this topic. Include at least three main paragraphs.

2 Draft

Use the drafting and vocabulary suggestions on page 248 to draft a 600–800-word essay (at least 30–40 sentences) responding to the topic.

3 Edit and proofread

Use the editing and proofreading tips on page 249 to help you edit and proofread your work.

Historical research

4 Organise and present information

Imagine you are completing a research project on the Uluru Statement from the Heart. As part of the statement, there is a plan to have a voice to parliament. Do some research and find out the different ways this voice has been proposed. Write a contents page for this project. There should be an introduction, a conclusion, at least four main sections and many subsections. Number your chapters.



Capstone

How can I understand the fight for rights and freedoms in the US and Australia?

In this chapter, you have learned a lot about rights and freedoms. Now you can put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you know and what you think.

In the world of building, a capstone is an element that finishes off an arch or tops off a building or a wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting, critical and creative ways. You can complete this project yourself, or your teacher can make it a class task or a homework task.



mea.digital/GHV10_H2

Scan this QR code to find the capstone project online.

The globalising world

H3



HOW CAN I UNDERSTAND THE GLOBALISING WORLD?

page 170

cause and effect

source analysis

civics + citizenship

page 178

page 190

page 206

HOW DID WAVES OF MIGRATION SHAPE AUSTRALIA?

HOW DID MUSIC AND TELEVISION CHANGE MODERN AUSTRALIAN SOCIETY?

HOW WAS THE FRANKLIN RIVER SAVED?

How can I understand the globalising world?

From the first powered flight in 1903 to affordable airfares for most Australians, from Coolgardie safes to fridges and from the telegraph to the internet, the 20th century saw the extraordinary impact of rapidly changing technology on the way people lived their lives. By the end of the 20th century, globalisation had arrived.

learning ladder

step 5	<p>I can evaluate a source I can present a judgement on the usefulness of a source based on its strengths, weaknesses and limitations. I can determine whether information is missing about the event or person the source refers to.</p>	<p>I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change I answer the question 'So what?' about patterns of continuity and change. I weigh up different aspects and debate the importance of continuity or change.</p>	<p>I can evaluate causes and effects I answer the question 'So what?' about cause and effect. I weigh up different things and debate the importance of a cause or an effect.</p>
step 4	<p>I can analyse a source I can use my own knowledge to determine the reliability of a source and can explain whether it shows a one-sided view.</p>	<p>I can analyse patterns of continuity and change I can look deeper into patterns of continuity and change and determine the factors that contribute to them.</p>	<p>I can analyse causes and effects I don't just see a cause or an effect as one thing. I can determine the factors that make up causes and effects.</p>
step 3	<p>I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose I combine knowledge of when and where a source was created to answer the question, 'Why was it created?'.</p>	<p>I can explain patterns of continuity and change I can see beyond individual examples of continuity and change between historical periods and explain broader patterns.</p>	<p>I can explain causes and effects I can answer 'How?' or 'Why?' a cause led to an effect regarding the globalising world.</p>
step 2	<p>I can find themes in a source I look a bit closer at a source and find more than just features. I find themes and patterns in a source.</p>	<p>I can explain why something did or did not change I can give a reason for why something changed or why it stayed the same.</p>	<p>I can determine causes and effects Applying what I have learned about the globalising world, I can describe what the cause or effect of an event was.</p>
step 1	<p>I can list specific features of a source I can look at a source on the globalising world and list the details I can see in it.</p>	<p>I can describe continuity and change I recognise what has stayed the same and what has changed in the globalising world.</p>	<p>I can recognise a cause and an effect From a supplied list, I can recognise things that were causes or effects of each other in the globalising world.</p>



Warm up

Source 1

The heritage-listed post and telegraph office at Glen Innes in NSW was built in 1895. Telegraph machines were used to send messages rapidly over vast distances. However, because of the time it took to convert them from the machine, messages sent needed to be relatively short, making the telegraph only useful to send brief missives.

I can evaluate historical significance

I answer the question 'So what?' about things that are supposedly important in the history of the globalising world. I weigh up factors against one another and can cast doubt on how important things are.

I can evaluate historical interpretations

I can weigh up the different historical interpretations that have been formed. I debate and challenge the interpretations that have been presented.

I can analyse historical significance

I can separate the various factors that make something historically important in the history of the globalising world.

I can analyse historical interpretations

I can determine the factors that have led to why a historical interpretation has been formed.

I can apply a theory of significance

I know a theory of significance. I use it to rank the importance of changes, causes, effects and events in the history of the globalising world.

I can explain historical interpretations

I can answer 'Why?' or 'How?' there are different interpretations of people and events in the past.

I can explain historical significance

I answer the question 'Why?' about what was important in the globalising world.

I can describe historical interpretations

I can provide different examples to show how people and events in the past have been interpreted.

I can recognise historical significance

When shown a list of facts about the globalising world, I can work out which are important.

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

I can identify different views of people and events in the past.

Historical significance

Historical interpretations

Source analysis

- 1 Source 1: Almost 200 years ago, the fastest way to send a message was via the telegraph. How did this technology open up the world? What were its limitations?

Continuity and change

- 2 We think of globalisation as a recent development but, using your historical knowledge, think of examples that show how the ancient world was globalised too.

Cause and effect

- 3 What, in your opinion, is the biggest cause of rapid globalisation since 1945? Explain your answer.

Historical significance

- 4 Do you think the invention of the World Wide Web in 1989 has been more or less significant than the invention of the printing press in 1436? Why?

Historical interpretation

- 5 How do you think the definition of 'Australian culture' has changed over the past 100 years?

What global influences shaped Australian society in the 20th century?

Political, economic, environmental, social, cultural and technological influences have all helped to shape today's Australia. These influences include: Australia's involvement in World War II; new flows of migration that contributed to an evolving multicultural society; and the development of the internet, which revolutionised communications, opening modern society to global influences. We also have increased awareness about the need to protect the environment.

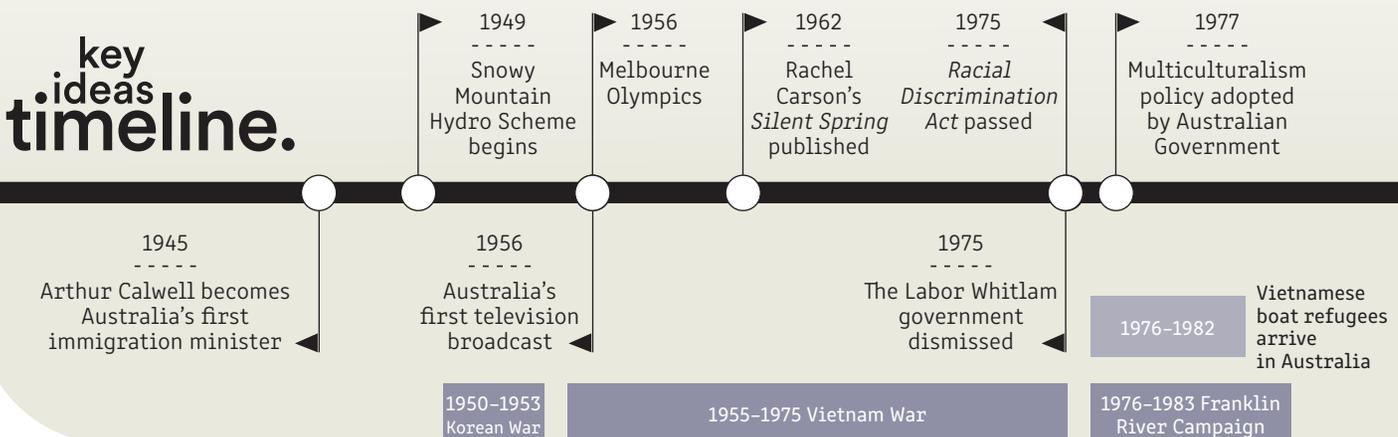
Political

The 20th century saw the emergence of differing politics and political extremism. The century was dominated by World Wars I and II, as well as the Cold War. By the end of the 20th century, the War on Terror had come to influence political decisions around the world.

Locally, post-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**, which provided expertise, food and equipment to countries in the Asian region. The goal was to increase stability in the region, which was hoped would prevent Communism from spreading further.

key ideas timeline.



Fear of Communism also saw Australia involved in the key conflicts of the Korean War (1950–53) and the Vietnam War (1955–75). During the Korean War, 17 000 soldiers served with 339 casualties. Around 60 000 Australian soldiers served in Vietnam between 1962 and 1975, with the loss of 521 lives. The Cold War dominated politics until its end in 1991.

At the start of the 21st century, the focus shifted to the War on Terror. The World Trade Centre attacks in the US on 11 September 2001 prompted the Australian government to join a US counter-terrorism campaign with major conflicts in Afghanistan and Iraq. Our troops were sent to Afghanistan in late 2001 and were withdrawn from the country in 2021, making the conflict Australia’s longest ongoing war. Up to 26 000 Australians served in Afghanistan.

Economic

Economics play a big role in influencing our lives. Wages, the level of taxation and the price of food and utilities all play a part in influencing our standard of living. The level of disposable income also affects how we spend our leisure time. How governments respond to the economic climate and the policies that they introduce also help shape our lives. The end of the 20th century has seen global integration of trade, banking and commerce.

Over the last 100 years, three key economic crises directly affected Australia:

- 1 The Great Depression: In October 1929, the New York Stock exchange crashed, triggering the Great Depression (see pages 38–9).

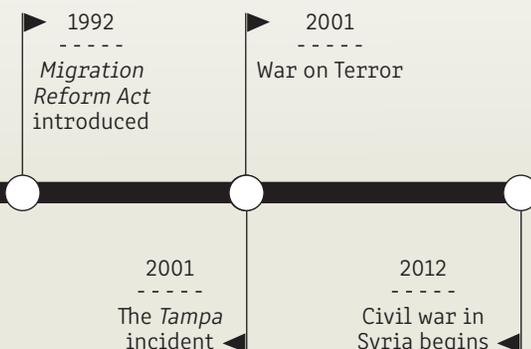
Lasting 10 years, it resulted in the collapse of many economies, including Australia’s. At its worst, Australian unemployment rates hit 32 per cent in 1932, national income had declined by a third and hundreds of thousands were dependent on ‘the susso’ – a government sustenance or welfare payment.

- 2 The 1973 oil crisis: The second economic crisis occurred when the members of OPEC (Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries), comprising mostly Arab countries, retaliated against the USA and its allies when the US supported Israel in the fourth Arab–Israeli war. The rapid rise in oil prices led to an **inflation** rate of 18 per cent in Australia, and the country slid into a recession. The economic crisis coincided with Prime Minister Gough Whitlam’s high rate of spending on social programs, which gave the Opposition ammunition against the government.
- 3 The Global Financial Crisis: This crisis, the most severe since the Great Depression, began in 2007. However, the slowdown was more moderate in Australia and, although trade fell by 10 per cent, the unemployment rate peaked at 5.8 per cent compared with 8.8 per cent in other Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries.



Source 1

The Bendix front-loading automatic washing machine, circa 1950. This machine potentially used less water than washing by hand, a plus for the environment.



Currently, our economy has been struggling because of the COVID-19 pandemic. The forced closure of businesses, restrictions and lockdowns resulted in the unemployment rate peaking at 7 per cent in October 2020. The long-term effects are yet to be determined.

Environmental

Environmental movements in Australia began, primarily, in the 1960s. Although the development of national parks had begun a hundred years previously, it was the mass production of cars and electrical goods in the post-World War II era, as well as the use of chemicals in agriculture that prompted increased environmental awareness, as people became aware that the environment was being permanently damaged.

The global spread of industrialisation (and urbanisation) in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, has increased our use of non-renewable resources, which has contributed to global warming. Ideas such as the Gaia hypothesis (1979) emerged in the latter half of the 20th century, and changed the way people thought about the environment. The Gaia hypothesis proposed that Earth functioned as a self-regulating system that maintained conditions necessary for sustaining life.

Understanding about the impact of the modern world on the environment was also helped by popular culture. Books, music and especially television helped influence public opinion and educate people on environmental issues.

By the end of the 20th century, sustainability emerged as a way of balancing the demands of development with the need to protect the environment. Campaigns and protests about the need to prevent climate change continue to occur as people feel the government is not taking enough action. The bushfire crisis of 2019–20 has seen growing calls for the adoption of First Nations land management strategies, as more extreme weather events are linked to climate change.

Social

The way that people live their lives has changed dramatically in the last 100 years. The world today is vastly different than the world people lived in at the start of the 20th century. This has been driven by advances in technology.

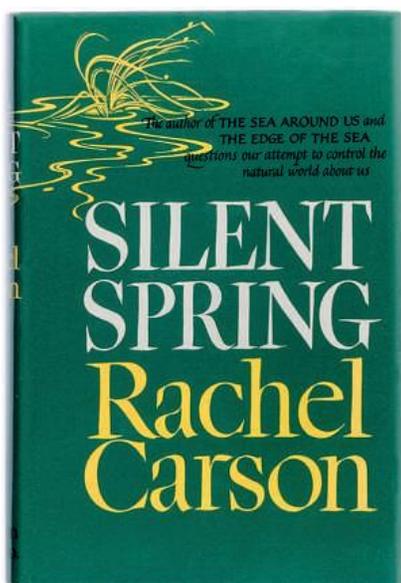
There have been massive improvements in public health, standards of living and life expectancy. Improvements in sanitation, urban planning, agriculture, science and medicine have all shaped the world in which we now live.

In addition, the world's population has grown exponentially, and Australia's has tripled since the end of World War II. Urbanisation has seen demographic shifts in where people live and, although this has been less of an issue in Australia, migration has put a strain on urban resources, especially in the immediate post-World War II era.

Technological

Technology has revolutionised the way we live our lives, the way we communicate and the way in which we perceive the world. Continued industrialisation and mechanisation, along with more people having electricity connected to their homes, brought rapid change over the 20th century.

The invention of electrical appliances changed the time required for chores, freeing up time for entertainment and leisure. Washing machines radically cut the time that it took to wash and wring clothing by hand. Electric refrigerators and later freezers changed people's shopping habits and what they ate. Prior to this, people had had to rely on the evaporative cooling method of Coolgardie safes or storage in ice chests.



Source 2

Rachel Carson's 1962 book *Silent Spring* (see page 217) argued against the use of pesticides and eventually led to the banning of DDT, a pesticide used to protect crops from insects.



Source 3

Flinders Street Station in the early 20th century, and today

Technology has completely changed the movement of people and goods. At the start of the 20th century, horses were still a frequent sight in cities and global travel and trade was only possible by sea. Now, large cargo ships transporting freight containers have slashed transport costs, facilitating global trade. Cars have increased freedom of movement for most of the population. The development of jet engines has made international travel affordable for many people worldwide.

Cultural

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 and how it can contribute to a country's national identity and way of life.

Learning ladder H3.1

Show what you know

- 1 Identify which wars Australia was involved with in the 20th century.
- 2 Which three economic crises directly affected Australia in the 20th century?
- 3 Create a list of five important technological developments in the 20th century in the fields of sanitation, agriculture, science and medicine.
- 4 In what ways has technology changed cultures around the world?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 5 Source 3: Compare and contrast the two images of Flinders Street Station.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- 6 Explain why the environmental movement gained so much more support after the 1960s.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 7 Explain the general impacts that economic crises have had on Australian politics and society.

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 8 Australian society changed significantly after World War II. For each of these factors – political, economic, environmental, social, technological and cultural – pick one key change and explain how it affects Australian society in the present.



Continuity and change, page 230

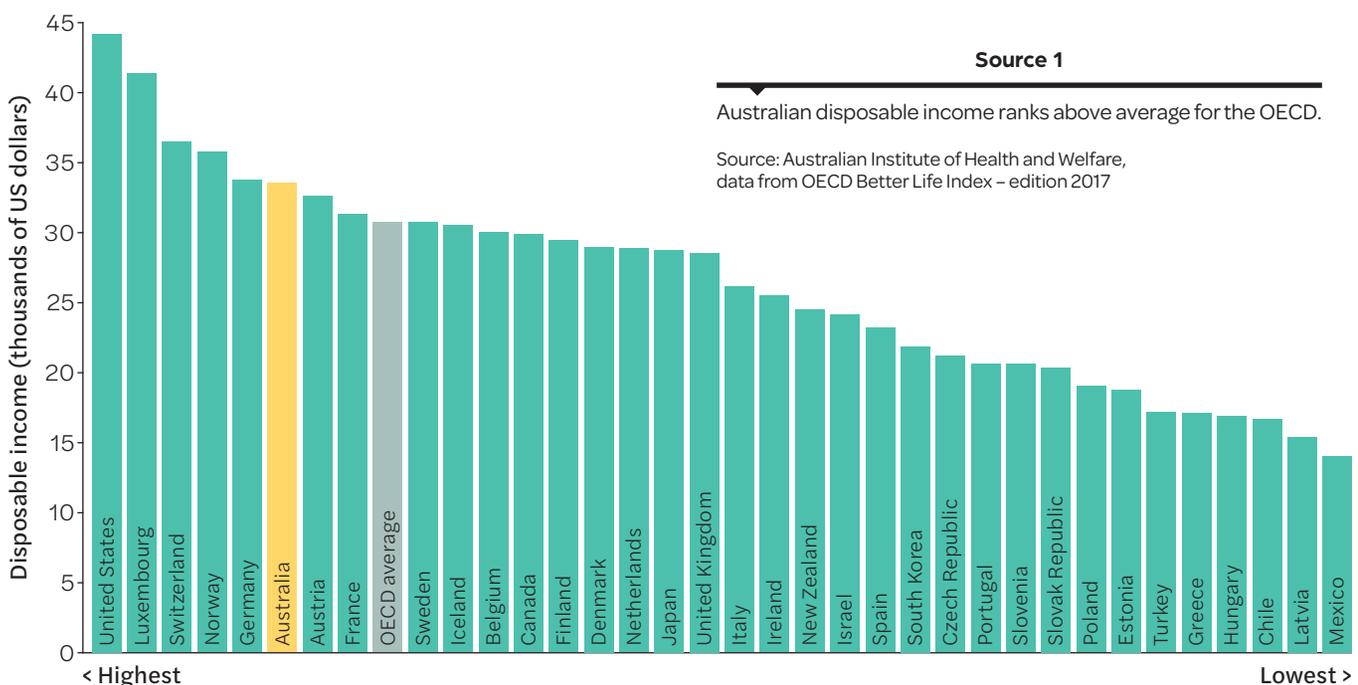
What are the links between economic performance and living standards?

Living standards are the level of material comfort and wealth experienced by society. Standard of living is often connected to a person's income, as the ability to access the material goods and services that contribute to our wellbeing requires a disposable income. Therefore, having a strong economy that provides people with a steady income allows them the purchasing power to make their lives more comfortable.

Australia has a large supply of natural resources such as coal, natural gas, iron and minerals such as bauxite (which has a high aluminium content). Minerals account for about 7 per cent of the country's **Gross Domestic Product (GDP)**, providing employment and a means of trading with other countries, which generates income for Australia.

Australia also has political stability. Stability is important to living standards as it allows governments to focus on creating policies to encourage the production of goods and services and the development of infrastructure, which in turn supports the economy. In countries where there is political instability or civil war, the economy often suffers. This, in turn, leads to higher levels of unemployment, an increase in poverty and lower standards of living.

Household net adjusted disposable income, 2017



Source 1

Australian disposable income ranks above average for the OECD.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, data from OECD Better Life Index – edition 2017



“Sure, it’s a six hour commute, but where else could we afford this standard of living?”

Source 2

Factors such as commuting time can affect people’s standard of living, but are harder to measure.

The level of control that a government exerts over the economy can also affect the standards of living within a country. The policies they introduce can have a direct impact on the economy, and therefore affect the standard of living.

Living standards can be measured in a number of ways. Material living standards such as goods and services can be measured on a national level using GDP. This calculation assesses the monetary value of goods and services produced within a country at a particular time.

GDP is used as a broad indicator of a specific country’s economic health. However, living standards also need to include elements such as environmental quality, social connections and personal security. As these indicators are more subjective, they are harder to measure and they can mean different things to different people.

However, the OECD has developed a way of assessing non-material indicators of wellbeing and this is known as the Better Life Index. This includes 11 key criteria such as civic engagement and life satisfaction, as well as income, jobs and education. For example, according to the Index, Australia has a strong sense of community and 95 per cent of people here believe that they know someone they could rely on in times of need, compared to the OECD average of 89 per cent.

Overall, Australia ranks well in many of these wellbeing criteria relative to other countries. The United Nations Human Development Index (HDI) also assesses wellbeing based upon people and their capabilities rather than economic growth alone.

The key dimensions they use to measure a country’s progress in human development are: living a long and healthy life, being knowledgeable [as in, receiving a good education] and having a decent standard of living. In 2021, Australia was ranked seventh on the HDI.

Learning ladder H3.2



Economics and business

Step 1: I can recognise economic information

- 1 Source 1: What was Australia’s household net disposable income in 2017?

Step 2: I can describe economic issues

- 2 List some of the factors that affect the standard of living in a country.

Step 3: I can explain issues in economics

- 3 Why is disposable income not always a good measure of a country’s standard of living?

Step 4: I can integrate different economic topics

- 4 Research why some countries are richer than others and make a list of key reasons why there are differences in living standards between countries.

Step 5: I can evaluate alternatives

- 5 To what extent is the UN’s HDI a useful alternative to the widely used Gross Domestic Product when measuring or comparing living standards?

How did waves of migration shape Australia?

Australia has been shaped by waves of migration, initially by the waves of First Nations peoples many thousands of years ago. As a modern nation, we were shaped by the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788 and the influx of Europeans to Australia. The waves continue to this day. Migrants arrive from across the world and bring 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 compared with 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.'

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 UK, with whom Australia still had close ties. From 1947, assisted migration schemes were launched to subsidise the cost of migration. The '10-pound Pom' became the moniker that was applied to the British migrants who arrived in this period, having paid just a £10 fare for adults.

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 just under 900 migrants arriving from Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia, whose appearance would lead to easier assimilation.

Immigrants also arrived from Poland, Ukraine, Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia: countries who had been occupied by the Soviets and people whose desire to escape Communism would see them fit in with the values of Australia at that time.

Source 1

Extracts from a speech made by Calwell to parliament a few weeks after his appointment in July 1945

From 1951, Australia began to accept economic migrants from Greece, Italy, Malta, Croatia and Turkey. On arrival, these migrants were placed in camps across Australia, such as Bonegilla, near Albury (Australia's first migrant reception centre) where, in often cramped conditions, 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.

Source 3

Men in the mess hall at Bonegilla Migrant Reception and Training Centre, Victoria, in 1950



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

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

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.

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.

Australia

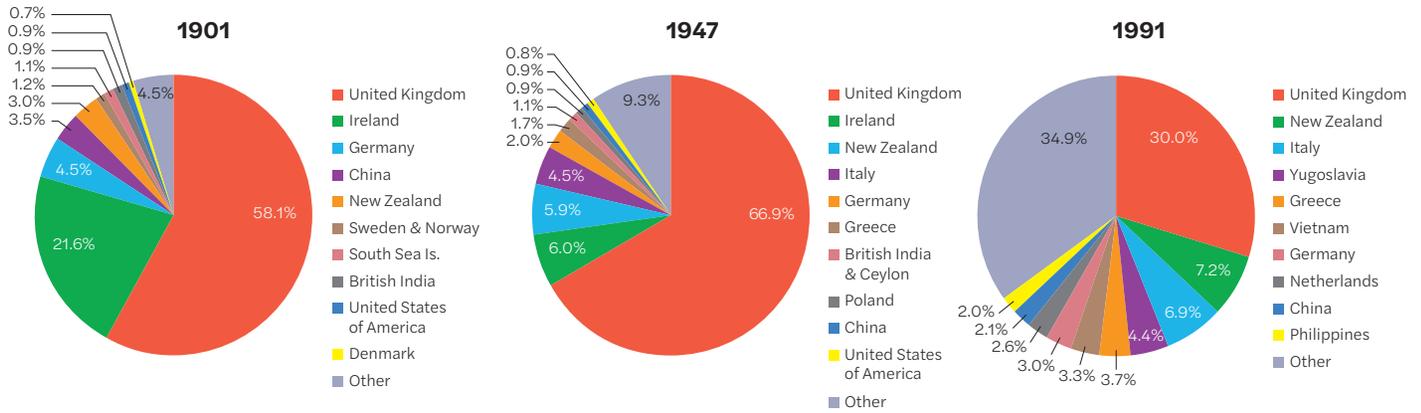
Source 4

This 1949 Department of Immigration poster advertises an idyllic Australia to potential immigrants.



land of tomorrow

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, two million immigrants arrived in Australia. It was this post-war migration that 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 100 000 workers required to work on the Snowy Mountain Hydro-Electric Scheme. 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). By the start of the 21st century, conflict in the Middle East, in particular in Syria and Afghanistan, has resulted in an increase in refugees from these regions. From 2000, the number of visas to Australia available through the UNHCR has been between 12 000–13 000 per year.

Learning ladder H3.3

Show what you know

- List four reasons why the Australian Government wanted to increase migration after 1945.
- Who were the 10-pound Poms?
- Create a brief timeline of overseas migration to Australia between 1945 and 1965.

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- Source 4: Explain why this poster may have persuaded people to migrate to Australia.
- Source 1: Explain what the effects of this speech were on migration to Australia.

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- Name one effect the Cold War had on migration to Australia.
- Migration happens because of push and pull factors. Investigate and categorise the push and pull factors which caused migration to Australia to increase after World War II.

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- Using the text and your own knowledge, what contributions did post-war migration make to the economy and culture of Australia?

Cause and effect, page 233

HOW TO

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 dismantled its remnants.

The White Australia policy emerged from the desire by Australians at the time to restrict immigration in order to ensure that their way of life was not threatened and to keep Australia 'white', believing that white-skinned people were superior to other races. Although the *Immigration Restriction Act* did not explicitly exclude migrants on the basis of race or ethnic background, it allowed officials to use their discretion to prevent migrants who were considered 'undesirable' from entering the country.

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 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 those who owned property.

‘That end, put in plain and equivocal terms ... means the prohibition of all alien coloured immigration, and ... 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*

‘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 2

Bruce Smith, 'Immigration Restriction Bill,' House of Representatives, *Debates*, 25 September 1901, p. 5153

As discussed on pages 178–81, Australia pursued European migrants after World War II. Part of the attempts to increase Australia’s population involved child migrants, who had been orphaned by the war or were destitute. Despite provisions under British law that required children themselves to agree to the arrangement, many children were taken against their will – an aspect that both the British and Australian Government 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 UK 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 being able to more readily adapt and ‘assimilate’ 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.

018
9333 Fee paid No. 4726

Book No. 246

Form No. 21. COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA. No. 091
DUPLICATE. 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.

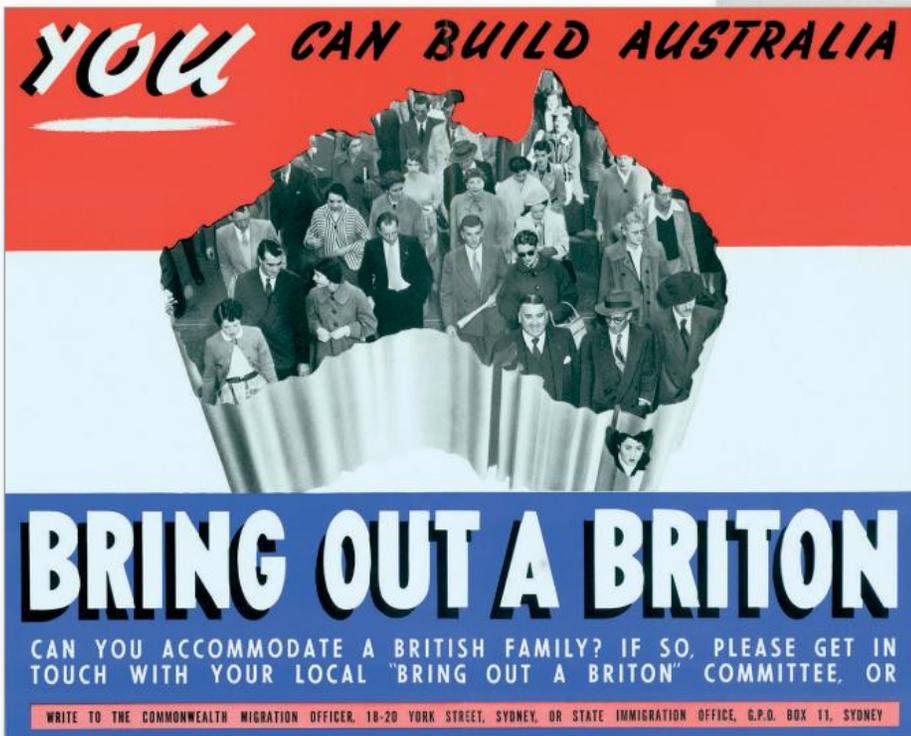
DESCRIPTION	
Nationality <u>Chinese</u>	Birthplace <u>Canton</u>
Age <u>50 years</u>	Complexion <u>Dark</u>
Height <u>5ft 6 1/2 in</u>	Hair <u>Dark</u>
Build <u>Middle</u>	Eyes <u>Brown</u>
Particular marks <u>Mole left side upper lip</u>	

(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 2/1/19 Ship Victoria
 Port Moony Post Office

Customs Officers.



Source 3

Choy Yee’s Certificate of Exemption from the dictation test

Source 4

‘Bring out a Briton’ poster encouraging migration from the UK

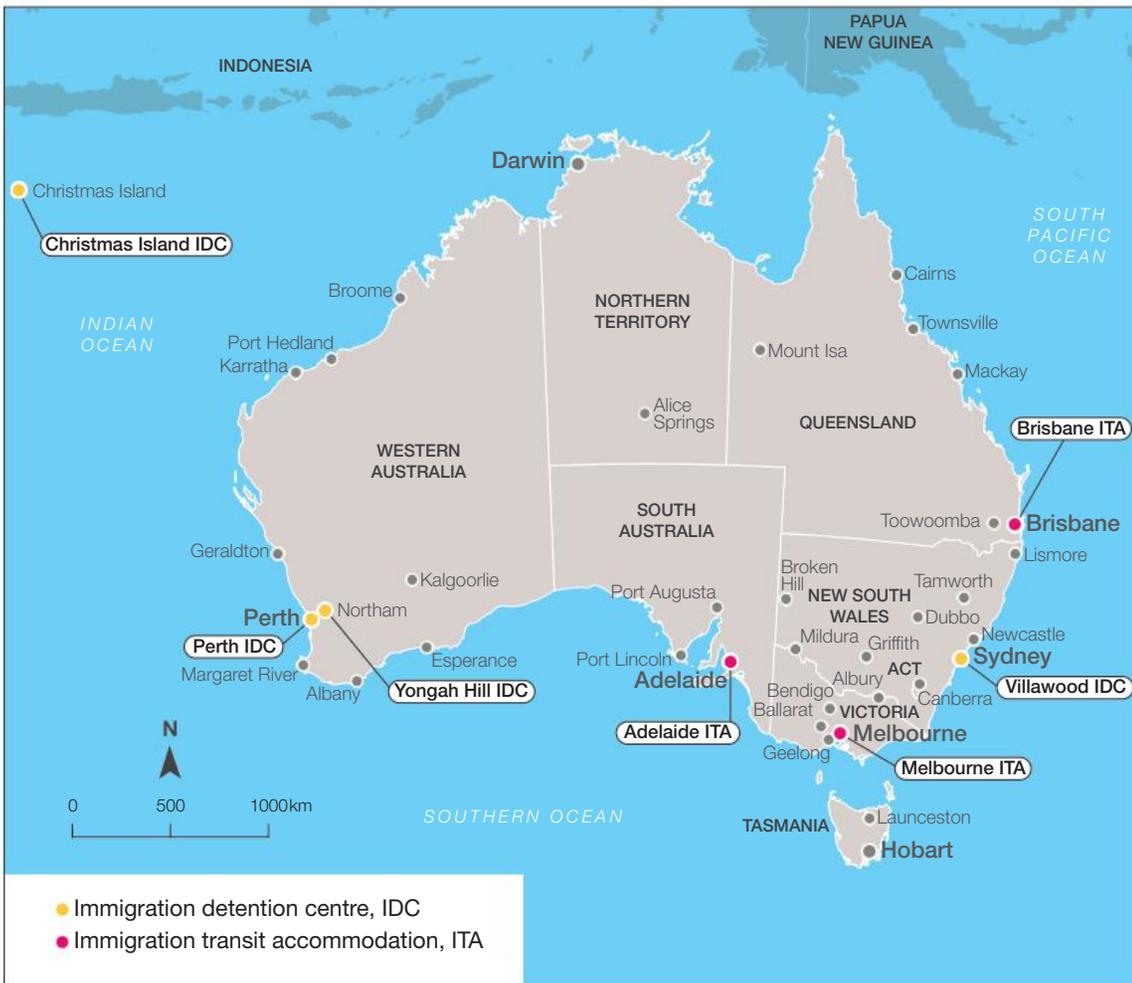
In 1949, Harold Holt replaced Arthur Calwell as the Minister for Immigration. He began to make some changes to the White Australia policy. His decision in 1949 to allow 800 non-European refugees to stay in Australia ‘was the first step towards non-discriminatory immigration policy’, according to the 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 5

The locations of detention centres in and around Australia

Source: Matilda Education Australia/Custom Mapping Services

‘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 time as Prime Minister in 2012.

During Tony Abbott’s time as Prime Minister (2013–2015), numbers in offshore detention centres 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 H3.4

Show what you know:

- 1 Explain the history and details of the White Australia policy.
- 2 How was the infamous dictation test used to exclude migrants?
- 3 How did migration policy change and develop between 1949 and 1958?
- 4 Describe the policy of mandatory detention and evaluate why this policy has been the subject of vigorous public debate since it was introduced in 1992.

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

- 5 How did advertising and bulletins such as Source 4 and Source 2 on page 179 help maintain the idea of a ‘white Australia’ between 1901 and the 1950s?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 6 Source 6: How does Al Grasby describe Australia’s immigration policy? Use quotes from the source to illustrate your point.

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 7 Explain why the slogan ‘populate or perish’ was used. Refer to some of the sources in this section to illustrate your points.

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 8 Compare Sources 1 and 2. Summarise and explain the difference between the opinions of these two politicians. Quote from the sources to illustrate your points.



How did World War II influence popular culture to change what we consume?

Culture is an essential feature of any society, yet it is a difficult term to define. Put simply, culture is a way of life of a group of people and includes belief systems, attitudes, lifestyle choices and communication. This notion of culture was once expressed primarily through 'high art' – classical music, art and literature – mediums often unattainable to the masses.

Popular culture, by comparison, is a little less complex in its meaning and refers to the things that are popular among ordinary people in a particular society or, put simply, *what people like*. Popular culture encompasses many elements, but the most dominant are film and television, music, sport and, more recently, social media. These are accessible to the masses and shared widely.

Popular culture and World War II

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 USA.

Coca-Cola

When the Australian Prime Minister John Curtin called on the USA for support during World War II, it delivered, with thousands of service people

arriving on our shores to take part on the Pacific front in 1942. By 1943, approximately 250 000 Americans were stationed in Australia, with the largest concentration in Brisbane. With them came a taste for American culture.

One of the first popular US products was Coca-Cola. Coca-Cola had been in Australia before World War II, initially as an import, with local production beginning in 1938. However, sales were slow. In 1941 that all changed. The president of the company stipulated that, 'Coca-Cola should be made available to all American servicemen and women, no matter the cost'. Brisbane, which was the USA South Pacific Headquarters, soon became home to a 24-hour bottling factory supplying Coca-Cola to American and Australian servicepeople at home and abroad.

Further evidence of the wartime relationship between Digger and Yank can be seen in the 1945 'Have a Coke' campaign. One poster in particular contains images of Aussie 'diggers' and American soldiers arm wrestling while onlookers enjoy the entertainment with a Coke in hand. This sent a message of solidarity, teamwork and a fighting chance. By the time the war ended in 1945, the Coca-Cola brand was in Australia to stay.

By the 1950s it was the Australian music industry that benefited from the beverage. In the 1950s the brand set up a worldwide music club called the Hi-Fi Club and set up chapters in Australian states. The club held dances, ran competitions and provided DJs with access to new jazz and big band music. This again helped to cement the USA as a major influence on Australian popular culture.

In more recent times, Coca-Cola expanded an Australian marketing campaign that went on to become a global phenomenon. Despite the beverage's ongoing recognition, its sales were slipping early in the 21st century. In the summer of 2011, Australian marketers started the 'Share a Coke' campaign, where the product was sold with 150 various Australian names and nicknames replacing the familiar Coca-Cola branding. That year, the brand sold 250 million bottles and cans, a huge turnaround. The campaign was then run in over 80 markets globally, and managed to reverse an 11-year consumption decline in the US.

Over summer 2019–2020, the campaign was revamped, this time with Australia's diversity and inclusivity in mind. Names like Shazza and Dazza stayed but Sunima, Fatima and Li were included, along with surnames – Zhou and Nguyen – highlighting the ethnic diversity of the nation.

The campaign also realised the power of social media as a marketing tool to reach the masses. At the time of the first campaign, Instagram had 10 million users, while it now boasts over 1 billion users. The company credits social media as a driving force of 'Share a Coke' popularity. When asked what they would do differently, campaign creators said that they would likely spend less money on TV advertising and be more confident in using social media as a marketing platform.

Source 1

Australian bottling plants supplied Coca-Cola from urban bases to jungle units stationed in the Pacific theatre.



Coffee culture

Another culinary delight that surged to prominence during and after World War II was coffee. Coffee was available before the war; in fact, the First Fleet transported coffee seeds from Brazil. However, coffee's popularity in Australia surged as a result of the US soldiers stationed here during the war. This, coupled with the hefty rationing of tea over the same period, paved the way for a rise in coffee consumption. However, Australia's love for coffee, brewed the Italian way, is intrinsically linked to post-war immigration.

In the 1950s the first Gaggia espresso machine was brought to Australia and, though hotly debated, the first in Melbourne is thought to have been installed in Pellegrinis café in 1954. This café was designed to attract the newly arrived post-war Italian migrants. The café on Bourke Street is now a favourite of theatregoers and city workers – the decor and menu remain unchanged since the 1950s and the café is so much a part of Melbourne that its neon sign is now heritage listed.

Source 2

Pellegrinis has become a Melbourne institution.

Over the years, coffee culture has grown to become part of the fabric of Melbourne and one would argue this has extended across the country. Nationally, a staggering 19 million Australians drink coffee each day and, statistically, Melbourne residents venture to coffee shops, cafés and restaurants in search of their caffeine fix more than anyone else in the country. Australians are also proud of their café culture, with 95 per cent of cafés being independently owned and individually styled.

Australians have made this product of migration their own. Flat whites, magics and piccolos are Australian coffee inventions that can now be found in New York at the Little Collins café or in Europe, at Holybelly in Paris, the Drovers Dog in Amsterdam and My Ugly Baby in Oslo.

The democracy sausage

In 2018, Prime Minister Scott Morrison took time out of a political summit to comment on a hotly debated topic – not about marriage equality or climate change – but about the placement of onions on a Bunnings sausage. The PM didn't give much away with regards to placement preference but did say he would gladly partake, adding that a sausage in bread served at a sausage sizzle was 'an Australian way of life'.

However, such reverence for the sausage was not always the case. During World War II many food and drink items were rationed as part of Australia's **Austerity** Campaign. Tea was the first item to be rationed in July 1942, with households only able to purchase ½ a pound (around 225 grams) every 5 weeks. Sugar followed suit in 1943 and meat was rationed in January 1944. However, one unrationed meat product was the humble sausage. Because Australia sent prime cuts of meat back to the UK during wartime, the sausage, along with other cheaper cuts of meat, could be eaten without the need of a coupon for the duration of the war.



‘CLOTHING AND FOOD RATIONING (ix) Unrationed Goods. Sausages, edible offals, canned meats, poultry, rabbits, fish, bacon and ham are not rationed.’

Source 3

Extract from the list of rationed items 1944–45. Sausages were one of the few unlimited items.



Source 4

The ‘Smell of Democracy’ poster to vote sausages no.1 from the 2016 election. Sausage sizzles have become an Australian tradition on election day, with many polling booths offering voters the chance to grab a snack when they cast their ballot.



After the war, sausages were looked down upon as a reminder of poorer times. Australians who had made sacrifices during the war years now wanted to enjoy the foods they had missed. The humble sausage, a food item not worthy of rationing, would not suffice.

However, over time, the sausage became popular. Its rise can be attributed to the role of the sausage sizzle in Australian society. From as early as 1946, the sausage sizzle has been linked to charity and fundraising events. Sausage sizzles jumped in popularity in the 1980s and became a staple of school fundraisers, sporting clubs and at stores such as Bunnings. Between 2014 and 2018, more than 160 000 community sausage sizzles were held at the 237 Bunnings warehouse stores within Australia and raised more than 144 million dollars for various charities. In 2017, the Lions Club of Australia ran a marketing campaign titled ‘We are (more than sausages)’. In a video, the charity showed that its humble sausages were working to cure cancer, provide drought relief, plant trees and help to connect communities.

Perhaps the most significant event associated with the Australian sausage sizzle is election day. Australian elections are usually held on a Saturday and many polling places are set up at local schools or community centres, providing a fantastic fundraising opportunity. The election in 2016 saw the rise of the term ‘democracy sausage’. A reflection of its importance in Australian culture is that, in the lead-up to the election, Twitter included a sausage in bread emoji to the hashtag #ausvotes and, in December of that year, the Australian National Dictionary Centre selected ‘democracy sausage’ as the Australian word of the year.

Learning ladder H3.5

Show what you know

- 1 Describe the ways in which popular culture is different from the more general notion of culture.
- 2 Where was the main base for US forces in Australia?
- 3 List historical, cultural and economic reasons why the humble sausage has become an Australian cultural symbol.

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

- 4 Why do you think Coca-Cola became such a significant symbol of the US in the 1940s in Australia?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

- 5 Use Partington’s model of significance (page 237) to evaluate the significance of the installation of the first espresso machine on social culture in Melbourne.

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

- 6 Why do you think the Prime Minister said in 2018 that a sausage in bread was ‘an Australian way of life’? Use the quote to illustrate your answer.

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

- 7 In which specific ways does the study of a nation’s popular culture contribute to our understanding of its history?



Historical significance, page 237

How did music and television change modern Australian society?

Access to and spread of popular culture is intrinsically linked to technological advancement. In between the wars, radio and film were the dominant media. In the post-war world, vinyl records and the invention of television made popular culture accessible at home. In today's society, culture finds us via our smartphones and social media platforms. Alongside these technological changes, what Australians consider popular and important also changed, especially in regards to how we saw ourselves.

A new youthful audience

In the post-war 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 pre-war world dictated. They were to become a powerful consumer group that advertisers could reach via far-reaching technology.

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.



The Easybeats on stage in the Netherlands in 1968



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 USA 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 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 Adelaide alone, over 250 000 fans greeted the group on arrival, and, in Melbourne, 20 000 stood outside their hotel to catch a glimpse of the men at a balcony appearance.

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 USA.

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 (pages 182–5). 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. Between 1972 and 1975 the Sunbury Music Festival took place.

It was held over the January long weekend on a private farm between Sunbury and Diggers Rest in Victoria. Over its lifetime, the festival 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'.

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.

Welcome to television

Television was introduced to Australia in September of 1956, just in time to beam the Melbourne Olympic Games to the homes of its citizens and the world. Known colloquially as the idiot box, telly, babysitter and the tube, television revolutionised the lives of Australians.

In Melbourne, the first television station was HSV-7. The master of ceremonies of the broadcast, Eric Pearce, said, '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'. However, at around £200 (in today's money, \$6658) not every family could afford a television.



Source 3

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.

Learning ladder H3.6

Show what you know

- 1 What is the definition of a 'baby boomer,' and why was that name given to this generation?
- 2 Describe how Australian popular music changed between 1945 and the 1970s.
- 3 The music of AC/DC has been used in many movies over the past 30 years. Research some movies in which the band's music has featured. How does this music influence the visuals presented?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 4 Watch the 'Fire Fight Australia' here: http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_1. Who are the key artists involved in performing this song?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 5 Watch the trailer of the movie *Blackboard Jungle* at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_2. What type of cultural themes can you identify?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 6 Listen to Archie Roach singing 'Took the Children Away' at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_15. What was Roach's intention when he wrote the lyric: 'Like the promises they did not keep, and how they fenced us in like sheep'?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 7 Watch this clip about the remastering of the Beatles' 1964 Melbourne concert: http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_3. Use this video, the text in this section and your own research to describe the impact the Beatles' visit had on Australian popular culture in the short and long term.

By the end of the year only 5 per cent of households owned a set. For the other 95 per cent, it was either miss out, or hover at their local department store to watch through their display windows. Stores like Myer advertised that you could view the first broadcast through their Bourke and Lonsdale Street windows.

It wasn't until 1975 that colour television became available in Australia. Subscription and cable television services such as Galaxy, Optus Vision and Foxtel became available to Australians in the mid-1990s.

The impact of technology

Australians first began connecting their homes to the internet in 1990. By 2001, over half the population had access to the internet at home. With this change in technology came a change in the way we consumed music and television. For example, in 2008 people bought 132 million compact discs but, by 2018, this figure had dropped to 32 million. This change is largely due to music streaming services and the growing trend for listeners to consume music 'whenever and wherever'. The most recognised audio streaming service, Spotify, boasted 345 million active monthly users in 2020, of which 155 million are paid subscribers. Streaming music means it is easier to discover new artists, but also means there is far more competition for a listener's attention.

A similar change occurred in television viewing habits. Before the internet, households were limited to the broadcast schedule decided by the television networks. Streaming services such as Netflix became available in Australia in 2015, giving viewers far more choice and control over their media consumption.



Source analysis, page 226

Did it age well?

Australians have long compared our homegrown culture to US and European culture with a view that international content is more sophisticated. Now, with increased access to archived content available freely online, 'Did it age well?' is a question we need to ask when considering elements of our culture made in the past.

We are considering whether a piece of media meets the standards of an inclusive modern society or whether it represents a view which is no longer acceptable.

Cultural cringe

American and European popular culture had a profound influence on Australia's popular culture. The music made, films produced, the impact of World War II and our ties to 'Mother England' help to explain this influence, but perhaps the fact that we look outside our country for cultural influence is connected to the way Australians critique themselves.

In 1950, writer Arthur Phillips coined the term **cultural cringe**: 'Above our writers – and other artists – looms the intimidating mass of Anglo-Saxon culture. Such a situation almost inevitably produces the characteristic Australian Cultural Cringe'. This refers to the notion that Australians considered themselves deficient, predominantly in the arts, when compared to their European or American counterparts. Phillips argued that Australians were prejudiced against their homegrown products, and made conscious decisions to overlook them in favour of imported products.

It has been 70 years since Phillips first used the term 'cultural cringe' and, although its impact has faded somewhat, there is still a lingering feeling in the arts that what is created beyond our borders is best. Grappling with this issue may continue for years to come, and has been part of our history since before the term was invented, as Source 1 shows.

Digital citizenship and cancel culture

As a result of movements such as #MeToo and Black Lives Matter, along with a growing public conscience around what is appropriate, the content creators of film, television and social media are coming under

'The Australian writer, until he gets a 'London hearing,' is only accepted as an imitator of some recognized English or American author ... Thus no matter how original he may be, he is branded, at the very start, as a plagiarist, and by his own country, which thinks, no doubt, that it is paying him a compliment and encouraging him, while it is really doing him a cruel and an almost irreparable injury. But mark! As soon as the Southern writer goes 'home' and gets some recognition in England, he is 'So-and-So, the well-known Australian author whose work has attracted so much attention in London lately'; and we first hear of him by cable, even though he might have been writing at his best for ten years in Australia.'

Source 1

In 1894, Australian bush poet Henry Lawson wrote about the cultural cringe in his preface to his book *Short Stories in Prose and Verse*.

increased scrutiny. In addition to this, technological progress and access to personal devices have enabled shared messages of dissatisfaction to be delivered quicker than ever before. Celebrities are now being held accountable for their actions by the very people they create for and this has recently led to a new form of disapproval known as **cancel culture**. This is very different

Source 2

Chris Lilley appearing as the character Ja'mie in *Summer Heights High*. While Ja'mie has not provoked controversy, his characters Jonah Takalua and S.mouse have been described as racist.

to counterculture, because in this instance if a celebrity is seen to have spoken or acted inappropriately, they can effectively become 'cancelled' or banished from our pop culture lens.

In 2020, some celebrities that found themselves 'cancelled' were US television host Ellen DeGeneres and author JK Rowling. In Australia, Chris Lilley's comedy shows were quietly removed from the streaming service Netflix. Lilley's works were originally considered 'a masterclass in character comedy'. But in the present day, the vision of a white man in 'blackface' is viewed as racist and an example of television not ageing well.

Another example of television not ageing well is *Hey Hey it's Saturday*, a variety show that aired on Australian screens for 28 years. The show was considered funny and engaging family viewing. But the humour it relied on is inappropriate for the times we live in now. One of the most controversial moments in the history of the show and a turning point in its longevity took place in 2009. One of the acts on the popular Red Faces talent skit appeared in blackface and impersonated Michael Jackson. American singer Harry Connick Jr, who was on the show as a judge, gave the act a score of zero and said 'if they turned up looking like that in the United States ... it would be "hey, hey, there's no more show"'.

Is cancel culture always in our best interests?

While cancel culture has successfully challenged examples of harmful sexism, racism and discrimination from view, its opponents argue that it encourages censorship and a mob mentality to attack the person online. Worse, when a person is 'called out' publicly for their views, the impact on their mental health can be catastrophic. Academics in 2020 have suggested a gentler action known as 'calling in' – the act of privately questioning and challenging a person's discriminatory views without the public shaming or associated pile on.



Learning ladder H3.7

Show what you know

- 1 What is the definition of 'cultural cringe' and why does it exist in Australia?
- 2 Why has the internet contributed to the rise of cancel culture?
- 3 How is cancel culture different to counterculture?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 4 Compare Source 2 with some of Chris Lilley's other characters. What features might make them inappropriate for today's audience?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 5 What negative theme was musician Harry Connick Jr commenting on when he publicly said it would be 'hey, hey, there's no more show' if the performance on *Hey Hey it's Saturday* was aired in the US?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 6 Source 1: Who is Henry Lawson, what is the point he makes and, based on who he is, why do you think he makes that point? Include the notion of 'cultural cringe' in your answer.

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 7 In 2020, 153 scholars and writers, including JK Rowling, signed an open letter defending free speech. Access a copy here: http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_4. Use this letter, the text in this chapter and your own popular culture experiences to write an analytical text response. Make sure you use evidence from the letter in your analysis.



HOW TO

Source analysis, page 226

How did the Vietnam War change Australia?

The Vietnam War was Australia's longest conflict in the 20th century. Taking place in the middle of the Cold War, Vietnam was strategically important to the West's fight against Communism. Our country's involvement began in 1962, when 30 military advisers were sent to South Vietnam. This grew to include the participation of some 60 000 personnel by the war's end in 1975. Of our soldiers, 521 were killed in the conflict and over 3000 were injured.

Initial Australian responses to the US-led war were supportive because of the fear of Communism, perpetuated by the notion of the **domino theory** (see Source 1). However, as the war continued, people viewed the conflict more negatively. This shift was largely due to the way in which men were sent to war. In 1964, in order to increase numbers of troops in Vietnam, the National Service Scheme, commonly referred to as **conscription**, was introduced by the Menzies government. The system was considered inherently unjust and assisted in strengthening the opposition to the war.

'Now let us assume that we lose Indochina. If Indochina goes, several things happen right away.

The Malayan peninsula, the last little bit of the end hanging on down there, would be scarcely defensible – and tin and tungsten that we so greatly value from that area would cease coming.' [Eisenhower then lists other countries that would fall in turn.] 'All of that weakening position around there is very ominous for the United States, because finally if we lost all that, how would the free world hold the rich empire of Indonesia? So you see, somewhere along the line, this must be blocked. It must be blocked now.'

Reel and reality of war

Another reason for opposition to the war is linked to the advancement of technology, specifically with regards to film-making. For example, by 1966, 95 per cent of homes in Melbourne and Sydney had their own television. This meant that, for the first time, Australians were viewing images of Vietnam War from the comfort of an armchair. Early official imagery was used largely to promote rather than document the war. This meant less of a focus on the gruesome realities of war, and more attention to progress and the Australian ethos at war, forged at Gallipoli, of heroism, mateship and camaraderie. But as the war dragged on, images became more disturbing, capturing the confronting nature of the war.

In 1965 the development of filmmaking technology helped to capture the changes in the nature of the war and the way in which it was documented. In this year Kodak released the first Super 8 camera. This was a handheld device designed with amateur film-makers in mind, perfect for recording home movies, or, in the case of Vietnam, packing in your kitbag and recording the experiences and reality of war. One soldier remarked, 'Any mug could shoot film over there'.

Source 1

President Eisenhower's remarks at Governors' Conference on 4 August 1953 describing the domino theory



Source 2

Australian troops on Operation Pinnaroo, Vietnam, March 1968

Neil Davis was an Australian war correspondent who documented the war and is credited as being the first Western journalist to capture the fall of Saigon. Davis is also credited with depicting the war from a neutral standpoint. Most Western war correspondents went out with American troops, but Davis often filmed on location with South Vietnamese soldiers. According to his biographer, Tim Bowden, this meant that, 'He was able to provide a perspective on the war that really told the story of what was really going on ... The South Vietnamese were killed in very large numbers and Neil put that out all over the world'. Davis was killed by shrapnel in Bangkok while filming a coup. His camera was rolling to the very end.

Counterculture, music and Vietnam

During the 1960s and 70s, Australia felt the US influence of **counterculture**. Counterculture is defined as having an attitude or set of beliefs that differ to the societal norms of the time and music was seen as a way of expressing dissatisfaction with the government, society and tradition. Music allowed the musician to deliver messages of equality, justice, peace and protest. The audience in turn felt that music, by now an integral feature of youth culture, was a driving force on which to voice their own opinions and concerns.

The war in Vietnam is synonymous with music and its messages of peace, protest or personal experience. 'Fortunate Son' by US band Creedence Clearwater Revival, which had much success in Australia, was written by lead singer John Fogerty. Fogerty was conscripted to fight in Vietnam and his lyrics expressed the unfair nature of national

service. The 'fortunate sons' in Fogerty's song are a reference to the sons of politicians and other rich people who seemed to have been able to defer their military service.

In Australia one of the earliest protest songs was released in 1969 by Ronnie Burns, titled 'Smiley'. It was a song about a conscripted soldier sent to fight in the 'Asian War'. Burns said the song was inspired by the experiences of fellow musician Normie Rowe who, like Fogerty, was conscripted to fight in Vietnam. Rowe's call up for national service put an immediate halt to his music career. The performer has said of his National Service days: 'You can look at your life and say that wasn't fair and that killed your career ... or you can look back and take out of that segment of your life whatever was good. The best friends that I've got are Vietnam veterans'.

However, some of Australia's best-known songs about Vietnam were written after Australia withdrew troops in 1975. 'Khe Sanh' by Cold Chisel and 'I was only 19' by Redgum focused more on soldiers' perspectives and memories of wartime. 'Khe Sanh', in particular, is considered an Australian anthem and details the hardship a returned soldier faced upon the return to post-war life. The song itself has no chorus; instead, it is a series of verses sung as if to reflect the restless life of the returned soldier depicted in the lyrics.

'I was only 19' is another example of a song about the Vietnam War told from the perspective of a returned soldier. The song is considered to have unified Vietnam Veterans and helped lead to a national conversation about the experiences and struggles of the returned soldier.

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.



Moratorium protests and the end of the war

As the war in Vietnam continued, so too did anti-war sentiment. Opinion polls in 1969 indicated that only 39 per cent of Australians supported the war effort, compared to 59 per cent recorded the year before.

Australia held its first anti-war **moratorium protest** on 8 May 1970, which was the largest public demonstration in Australia's history at the time. Despite the strong presence of armed police, the 70 000 demonstrators in Melbourne protested peacefully. The moratorium protests helped to galvanise support for the withdrawal of troops in Vietnam.

The My Lai massacre in 1968, where a company of US soldiers killed women and children in the village of My Lai, also helped to shift public attitudes. People were now negatively focused on the actions of the soldiers rather than that of the government. Unfortunately, this shift in attitudes led to years of indifference towards Vietnam's returned soldiers. Veterans from Australia's previous wars were welcomed back as heroes, but those that fought in Vietnam felt obliged to remove their uniforms prior to returning home to minimise the potential of being spat on, vilified and accosted by protesters.

Even the very organisation formed to support service men and women, the RSL, was less than welcoming. Over time, attitudes to our veterans changed and in 1987 veterans were finally given a welcome home parade in Sydney. In 1992 a National Memorial for the Vietnam War was unveiled.

Immigration

The term 'boat people' entered Australian language after Saigon (now Ho Chi Minh City) fell to the North Vietnamese in the 1970s. Many South Vietnamese people fled, as they feared persecution by the Communist government. Escaping was not easy and most did so by buying a ticket of passage on a large boat, crowded with up to 400 people. However, others sailed on smaller fishing vessels not designed for such a dangerous journey. The first boat carrying Vietnamese refugees, the KG4435, arrived in

Darwin in 1976. The boat's crew was accepted on humanitarian grounds and over the next five years more than 56 boats would ferry 2100 Vietnamese people to Australia. In 1979, Western and Vietnamese governments agreed on a scheme called the Orderly Departure Program. This emphasised family reunion and processing for arrival in Australia took place in refugee camps in Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore and the Philippines.

Learning ladder H3.8

Show what you know

- 1 During which years and for how long were Australian soldiers involved in the Vietnam conflict?
- 2 Explain what the domino theory is in the field of foreign policy.
- 3 Why did it take until 1987 for Vietnam War veterans to be given an official welcome home parade?
- 4 Listen to the song 'Fortunate Son' at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_5. What elements of this song are an example of the counterculture of the 1970s?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

- 5 How did the introduction of conscription in 1964 change attitudes towards the Vietnam War?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

- 6 What were the effects of the arrival of Vietnamese 'boat people' on Australian migration policies after the 1970s?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

- 7 Explain how changing advances in media technology led to changing attitudes towards the Vietnam War.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

- 8 In what ways did the Vietnam War affect Australian culture and society?



Cause and effect, page 233

What caused the Whitlam dismissal?

After coming to power in 1972, the Labor government of Gough Whitlam was subjected to a number of crises that ultimately resulted in its dismissal by the Governor-General in November 1975, an event that remains controversial.

Before Gough Whitlam led the Australian Labor Party to victory in December 1972, a **coalition** of the Liberal and Country (now National) parties had been in power since 1949. After 23 years of governing, this coalition no longer seemed able to provide a clear direction for Australia's future. In contrast, the Labor Party seemed dynamic and exciting, proposing changes that appealed to many non-traditional Labor voters.

The Labor Party ran a highly successful political campaign in 1972 on the back of the slogan, 'It's time'. The first modern political campaign, market research had shown there was a need to 'humanise' Whitlam and to target the voter groups of women and young people. The campaign revolved around the slogan, and a television commercial featuring a catchy song written by Paul Jones. The song reflected the mood of the nation at the time and the campaign effectively communicated Whitlam's policies centred around 'cities, schools and hospitals'. This all led to political success when the Labor Party won 49.6 per cent of the primary vote and 67 seats in the House of Representatives, to the coalition's 58 seats.

Source 1

The iconic 'It's time' campaign swayed voters.



It's
time

It's
time

During the time the Whitlam government was in power, it enacted more than 508 bills, acting on election promises and making changes that reflected Australia's growing demands for improvements to women's and civil rights, an end to involvement in Vietnam, recognition of multiculturalism and addressing environmental concerns. Some of the changes are listed below.

- Changes in social wellbeing – the introduction of bulk billing and free treatment at public hospitals – called medibank (now known as Medicare), pension increases and other social security benefits as well as an increase in social housing.
- Education – Australian Schools Commission established, fees for higher education abolished, Disadvantaged Schools Program established, Commonwealth contribution to school spending increased to 42 per cent.
- Women's rights – creation of Office of Women's Affairs to improve gender equality, equal pay for women; tax ended on contraceptive pills to make them cheaper.
- Indigenous rights – Federal Ministry for Aboriginal Affairs created and National Aboriginal Consultative Committee formed; Aboriginal Land Rights (*Northern Territory Act 1976* passed, Aboriginal Legal Service created).
- Politics and law – voting age reduced from 21 to 18 years in federal elections, Australian Legal Aid created and the death penalty abolished for all federal crimes. Australian Law Reform Commission established.
- Foreign affairs – People's Republic of China officially recognised, voted for economic sanctions on South African apartheid government at the UN, supported independence for Papua New Guinea.
- Multiculturalism – dismantled the remnants of the White Australia policy (pages 182–5), *Racial Discrimination Act 1975* passed, funding for multilingual welfare officers and radio programs including community languages.
- Environment – Australian Heritage Commission set up, proposed drilling on the Great Barrier Reef prevented by *Seas and Submerged Lands Act 1973*, prevention of nuclear testing in South Pacific by France through the International Court of Justice.

'Men and Women of Australia!
The decision we will make for our country on 2 December is a choice between the past and the future, between the habits and fears of the past, and the demands and opportunities of the future. There are moments in history when the whole fate and future of nations can be decided by a single decision. For Australia, this is such a time. It's time for a new team, a new program, a new drive for equality of opportunities: it's time to create new opportunities for Australians, time for a new vision of what we can achieve in this generation for our nation and the region in which we live. It's time for a new government – a Labor Government.

... the Australian Labor Party offers the Australian people the most carefully developed and consistent program ever placed before them. I am proud of our program. I am proud of our team. I am proud to be the leader of this team.

Our program has three great aims. They are:

- to promote equality
- to involve the people of Australia in the decision-making processes of our land
- and to liberate the talents and uplift the horizons of the Australian people.

We want to give a new life and a new meaning in this new nation to the touchstone of modern democracy – to liberty, equality, fraternity.'

Source 2

Extracts from a campaign speech delivered by Gough Whitlam at Blacktown, NSW, 13 November 1972

While implementing these radical changes, the Whitlam government also faced numerous problems and challenges, especially as the Labor Party did not hold a majority in the Senate. This provided the opportunity for the Opposition (with the support of the Democratic Labour Party) to block legislation and, by early 1974, it had blocked 19 pieces of legislation.

The first challenge faced by the Whitlam government was high inflation rates, which rose to 18 per cent in 1973. This was caused by the 1973 oil crisis (page 173), where OPEC restricted oil exports. This made petrol prices rise steeply, contributing to a rise in prices generally. The rise in prices and subsequent demands for wage increases were exacerbated by the spending on Whitlam's social programs. The opposition parties used these economic challenges to criticise the government and its changes.

The second challenge resulted in a **double dissolution** (when both houses of the Commonwealth are dissolved and all members of government have to stand for election).

Source 3

This photo shows a petrol station closed during the 1973 oil crisis. Global petrol shortages fuelled inflation, which made implementing new programs more expensive for the Whitlam government.



This came about because the Liberal–Country Party Opposition in the Senate used its numbers to postpone a vote on supply bills. Supply bills were legislation presented by the government granting it the right to spend money in the first months of the financial year (1 July–mid-August). As the Senate had rejected six bills for the second time, Whitlam advised the Governor-General to call a double dissolution. The election, held on 18 May, did not result in a majority in the Senate, although Labor did gain an extra three senate seats.

Confidence in the government was also damaged by what became known as the ‘Loans Affair’, where accusations of secrecy and ignoring procedures damaged the reputation of the government. In November 1974, Rex Connor, Minister for Minerals and Energy, attempted to secure loans of \$4 billion for the government from commodities trader Tirath Khemlani. However, these attempts occurred after Connor's authority to do so had been revoked. He was forced to resign after the Opposition exposed the secrecy of these dealings during question time in parliament. This came after Whitlam had been forced to dismiss Jim Cairns, Deputy Prime Minister and Treasurer, for his part in the loan-raising activities. The situation was an embarrassment for the government and led to claims of impropriety.

The deadlock in the Senate continued and was supported by Malcolm Fraser, who became leader of the Liberal Party in March 1975. He pledged that the Opposition would use its Senate numbers to block supply in the ‘most extraordinary and reprehensible circumstance’. By mid-1975, Whitlam only had the support of 27 senators versus the Opposition's 30. In mid-October 1975, when the budget was presented for 1975–1976, Fraser cited the Loans Affair as an example of circumstances to defer voting on the bills. Whitlam was faced with limited funds but refused to be forced into calling an early election. Despite meeting with the Governor-General, Sir John Kerr, the deadlock continued into November. It was broken when Sir Kerr advised



Source 4

This photo shows a protest outside Parliament House in 1975. Leading the demonstration is future Prime Minister Bob Hawke.

Whitlam at 1 pm on 11 November 1975 that he was dismissing the government and sacking him as Prime Minister on the basis that Whitlam refused to resign or hold an election following his failure to obtain supply.

Fraser was then sworn in as a caretaker and, that afternoon, the appropriation bills were passed by the Senate and then the two houses were dissolved. Despite adopting the slogan from protests in Canberra and across Australia, 'We want Gough', the Labor Party lost the election 91 seats to 36 on 13 December.

The dismissal of Gough Whitlam and his government came after three years of political conflict and remains controversial more than 40 years after the event. It represented a major crisis in Australian politics. At the time, it was portrayed by some as an attack on democracy while others argue that it was within the Governor-General's constitutional power to dismiss the government.

Learning ladder H3.9

Show what you know

- 1 Explain why Labor's 1972 political campaign, with its slogan 'It's time', was successful.
- 2 List some of the political, social and education policies enacted by the Whitlam government that changed Australian society.
- 3 What challenges did the Whitlam government face?
- 4 The three key people in the dismissal were John Kerr, Malcolm Fraser and Gough Whitlam. Describe what role each man played in the ultimate dismissal of Prime Minister Gough Whitlam.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 5 Source 2: Identify the features of this source that make it typical of a politician's election speech.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 6 Source 2: What political themes and aims does Gough Whitlam reveal in his speech?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 7 Watch the video of the 'It's Time' campaign at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_6. What type of audience is this video aimed at? Include examples from the video to support your answer.

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 8 Just after Whitlam was dismissed on 11 November 1975, he said: 'Well may we say God save the Queen, because nothing will save the Governor-General'. Why do you think he said that? What did he mean by it?



HOW TO

Source analysis, page 226

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 were 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.

When Europeans arrived in Australia in 1788, they brought with them their own culture, beliefs and values. The application of ***terra nullius*** meant First Nations peoples became dispossessed and much of their traditional culture was destroyed. During the colonial period, as the majority of settlers were from the UK, 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 UK. People believed that the British way of life was superior and other cultures were viewed with hostility.

Post-World War II, this prejudice extended to the new migrants arriving from Europe. Some of the Australians' hostility could be explained because of immigrants arriving from countries that had been 'enemies' during the war; however, suspicions were

also directed more generally at those who were regarded as different. The government, therefore, promoted **assimilation**, whereby immigrants adopted the Australian way of life at the expense of their own culture. Assimilation as a policy was challenging, as to give up values and beliefs that a person has grown up with created barriers. These issues were compounded by language differences. Moreover, 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 migrants to form communities and live in the same areas. For example, the Melbourne suburbs of Brunswick, Carlton and Fitzroy North all had concentrations of Italian migrants. Similarly, Oakleigh housed a large Greek community. 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.

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 1

The International Club of Victoria, 1956, many migrants celebrated their cultural heritage by establishing and joining clubs. This helped people to overcome the social isolation of being in a new country.



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)* and, in 1977, the establishment of the Ethnic Affairs Council.

Many improvements were made to support immigrants over time, including the establishment of the first multicultural television channel in the world – Channel O/28 (renamed the Special Broadcasting Service (SBS) in 1985). Subsequent governments have continued to uphold multiculturalism as a fundamental policy. Most recently, the words of Australia’s national anthem have been changed to reflect Australia’s long multicultural history: the words ‘we are young and free’ have been altered to ‘we are one and free’.

‘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 2

Extract from the foreword by Malcom Turnbull, *Multicultural Australia: United, Strong, Successful*, 2016



Source 2

Somali Day Festival, 2019

Learning ladder H3.10

Show what you know

- 1 Describe the policy of assimilation.
- 2 Source 2: Why does Malcolm Turnbull state that Australia is one of the most successful multicultural nations in the world?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

- 3 Describe how migration changed Australia’s eating and drinking culture.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

- 4 Explain how Australia has been a multicultural place for more than 65 000 years.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

- 5 What has changed and what has stayed the same in Australian society when it comes to migration?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

- 6 How and why did Australia’s cultural policies change from assimilation to integration to multiculturalism between 1901 and the present?



Continuity and change, page 230

How was the Franklin River saved?

The Franklin Dam project was a proposed dam on the Gordon River in Tasmania. The campaign to stop the dam became one of the most significant environmental campaigns in Australian history.

Lake Pedder, an ancient glacier lake in remote southwest Tasmania, was given National Park status in 1955 for its outstanding natural beauty and unique ecosystem. When, in 1967, the Tasmanian government, along with the Hydro-Electric Commission (HEC), proposed constructing three dams on the Gordon River, which would flood the lake, they were met with fierce opposition from conservationists.

There was widespread public protest and a petition of over 10 000 signatures in an attempt to prevent the lake's destruction. Prime Minister Gough Whitlam even offered a blank cheque to preserve the area, which was rejected by the Tasmanian Premier Eric Reece as he did not want 'the federal government interfering with the sovereign rights of Tasmania'.

So, in 1972, campaigners lost their battle to stop the flooding of Lake Pedder, which also saw the loss of its famous pink beaches. The world's first Green party, the United Tasmania Group (UTG), was formed during this protest. The subsequent proposal by the HEC in Tasmania to dam the Gordon River south of the Franklin River junction precipitated the most significant environmental protest Australia had ever seen, lasting seven years.

When, in 1976, the HEC proposed the new dam, conservationists responded by establishing the Tasmanian Wilderness Society (TWS), led by activist Bob Brown. They began a campaign that raised public awareness of the issue and the proposed destruction of Tasmania's last wild river. The position of the conservationists was strengthened by the discovery of Kutikina Cave, which the dam would flood, destroying culturally significant First Nations artefacts. In 1981, Premier Doug Lowe organised a referendum on the issue providing two options – a dam on the Gordon River



Source 1

Tasmania, with Lake Pedder in the southwest

Source 2

A campaign flyer from TWS, encouraging voters to write 'No Dams'; on their ballot papers

Write "NO DAMS" on your Ballot Paper on June 5th for World Environment Day.

Vote as normal, then put "NO DAMS" on the top right hand corner of your vote.

THIS WILL NOT INVALIDATE YOUR VOTE.

THE FRANKLIN RIVER IS A NATIONAL ASSET

Phone 49 8011 if you want to help the "NO DAMS" campaign.

Do not sign the ballot paper.



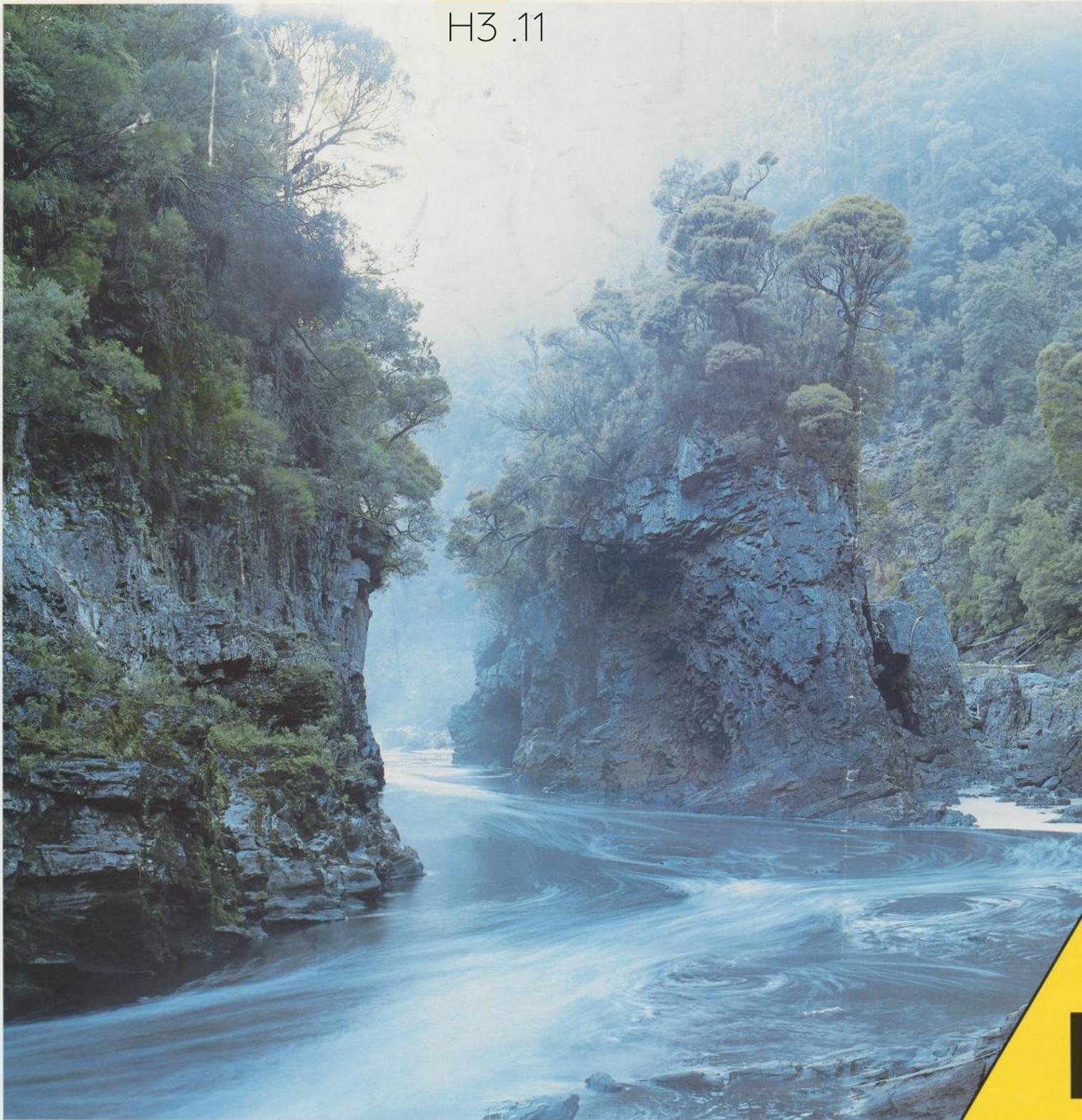
Source 3

A photo of the blockade

above its junction with the Franklin River or a dam on the Gordon River below the Franklin River. There was no option to vote for no dams. So, the TWS led a campaign encouraging voters to write no dams on their ballot papers, which was supported by 45 per cent of those who voted in the referendum.

In 1982, however, the Tasmanian government passed the *Gordon River Hydro-Electric Power Development Act* to try to continue with the dam. Bob Brown increased his public awareness campaign with increasing support from Australians

across the country but, despite this, the federal government refused to act. So, in December 1982, the TWS began a peaceful non-violent blockade of the construction site. Over 6000 protesters participated, with 2500 directly involved in blockading heavy equipment. When they were prevented from staying at Strahan's campsite by the local council, a local farmer offered the use of a paddock. During this blockade, the police made over 1200 arrests, including Brown and UK television presenter Professor David Bellamy.



National South-West Coalition including Tasmanian Wilderness Society, Australian Conservation Foundation.
 285 Little Lonsdale Street, Melbourne. 3000. Telephone Melbourne. (03)663 1561. Sydney (02)267 7929.
 Brisbane (07)221 0188. Adelaide (08)223 5155. Canberra (062)498011.

AUTHORISED BY R. J. BROWN, PARLIAMENT HOUSE, HOBART.
 PRINTED BY W. M. CAULFIELD & SONS, 14-24 VICTORIA ST. FITZROY.

BECAUS

The protest came to an end in March 1983, when the Labor Party won the federal election and passed the *World Heritage Properties Conservation Act 1983*. Although the Tasmanian Government challenged the Act, the challenge was defeated in the High Court.

The High Court's decision in favour of the federal government was helped by UNESCO granting southwest Tasmania World Heritage status in December 1982.

The saving of the Franklin River was not only a significant moment in creating awareness of the



The Franklin needs your help.

If you can offer your time, or your financial support, please contact the National South-West Coalition (which includes the Tasmanian Wilderness Society and the Australian Conservation Foundation) at this address.

**VOTE
FOR THE
FRANKLIN**
THE ONLY YOUR VOTE CAN SAVE IT.

Source 4

← Campaign poster from the National South-West Coalition, 1981

environmental movement and the protection of wilderness areas but also politically fundamental to the Australian environmental movement. During the 1980s, green parties formed in most Australian states. In 1992, a national Greens Party formed under the leadership of Bob Brown.

‘Those opposed to the power development have also made totally dishonest claims about the environmental aspects of the scheme ... Furthermore, the Franklin is not Tasmania’s last wild river – and even that part of it to be flooded is not the ‘wild’ part ... Finally, I would point out that Tasmanians overwhelmingly support the scheme. It has been endorsed by the State’s Parliament, and the State Government intends to proceed. As the Prime Minister and Federal Ministers have said time and again: it is a decision for Tasmania to take.

I urge you not to be misled by the untruthful claims being made on the mainland.’

Source 5

An extract from a letter sent by Robin Gray (Premier) to Hon James Joseph Carlton, 13 October 1982

Learning ladder H3.11



Civics and citizenship

Step 1: I can identify topics about society

- 1 What is the name of the political party that was the first in the world to focus specifically on environmental issues?

Step 2: I can describe societal issues

- 2 How can people change government policies? Use examples from the Franklin River protest, as well as examples from our present day.

Step 3: I can explain issues in society

- 3 Source 2: Explain why the TWS recommended that people write ‘no dams’ on the ballot paper.

Step 4: I can explain different points of view

- 4 Explain why the Tasmanian government wanted to dam the Franklin River and why the TWS was against this plan.

Step 5: I can analyse issues in society

- 5 ‘Wealthy nations are responsible for global warming.’ To what extent do you agree with this statement? Provide justifications for your answer.

How do international laws shape Australian laws and policies?

Australia is one of 191 nations that are members of the UN. The fundamental goals of the UN are: to maintain international peace and security; to develop friendly relations among nations on the basis of equality and the principle of self-determination; and to foster worldwide cooperation in solving economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems. As a member of the UN, Australia, therefore, has a number of international legal obligations, which are agreed to under treaties.

When the Australian Government signs a treaty, it is signing a formal document under which our government agrees to follow the laws that are outlined. Australia is thus bound to observe these laws once the treaty has been ratified. However, even though Australia might sign an international treaty, it does not become part of Australian law until our parliament itself passes legislation to meet the laws we have agreed to in the treaty.

Sometimes, our country may already have existing legislation at commonwealth or state and territory level that means Australia meets the obligations of the treaty without having to pass new laws. For example, the Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989 (CRC) is a treaty that aims to protect the rights of children. Laws in Australia such as the *Family Law Act 1975* (Commonwealth), which is focussed on the rights of children and the responsibilities parents have towards their children, already meet our requirements under the CRC. Subsequent acts such as the *Child Wellbeing and Safety Act 2005* (Victoria) also reflect the principles within the CRC.

Note, however, that the Australian Government has been criticised for breaching this treaty in a number of areas, including the over representation of First Nations children in the justice system and the mistreatment suffered by children of asylum seekers in detention centres.

Domestic policy concerning the environment is also influenced by international treaties. The Convention for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage 1972, which preserves cultural and natural heritage sites for future generations, was used by the Australian Government to prevent the flooding of the Franklin River in 1983 when it passed the *World Heritage Properties Conservation Act 1983*.

Australia is a signatory to UN Framework Convention on Climate Change 1992, an agreement made by 154 countries to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. One attempt by the Australian Government to reach the targets set in this treaty was the introduction of the *Clean Energy Act 2011*.

This legislation was an attempt to put a price on carbon emissions – the government called it an emission trading scheme, while the opposition labelled it a carbon tax. The scheme was politically unpopular and was repealed in 2014.

Australia generates approximately 85 per cent of its electricity from fossil fuels and this has contributed to the failure of the nation to effectively reduce its greenhouse gas emissions.

Source 1

The International Court of Justice at The Hague is another UN organisation. The court settles disputes between countries, with its rulings and opinions serving as the main source of international law. In this image, public hearings of the court are presided over by Judge Rosalyn Higgins.



Australia also has obligations to First Nations peoples under the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People, signed in 2007. This is a non-binding document, which means its goals are aspirational but our federal government will not be held accountable to deliver on those goals.

The historical context of genocide in Australia has meant that there are gaps in important measures of quality of life between First Nations and non-Indigenous Australians.

More recently, policies such as the Closing the Gap strategy have been introduced to address these gaps. However, the **paternalistic** implementation of this policy has led to a lack of progress in meeting its targets. The government has attempted to address this through the 2019 National Partnership Agreement that involves the Coalition of First Nations Peak Bodies. In 2020, Prime Minister Scott Morrison announced 16 targets, including four priority reforms aimed at empowering First Nations peoples to share decision making with governments. It remains to be seen if these will have any effect.

Learning ladder H3.12



Civics and citizenship

Step 1: I can identify topics about society

- 1 Watch the 'Fanfare for all Peoples' at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_7. What are the key societal topics that the UN concerns itself with?

Step 2: I can describe societal issues

- 2 Why do you think an organisation such as the UN is needed?

Step 3: I can explain issues in society

- 3 Research the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples 2007 (UNDRIP). What does this declaration suggest that Australia and other countries do to improve circumstances for Indigenous peoples?

Step 4: I can explain different points of view

- 4 Research some of the political and structural challenges that the UN faces in implementing its aims for a better world.

How has public opinion towards immigration changed?

Throughout the 20th century and into the 21st, there have been varying views towards migration, reflecting the changing beliefs and attitudes of the Australian public and the media. There have often been controversies regarding immigration, which continues to be a contentious issue. 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.

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 an increased resentment that non-Europeans, in particular Chinese, were taking the jobs of 'white' Australians. This contributed to the introduction of the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*.

During World War I, there was increased distrust directed towards the 100 000 Australians of German descent. 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'.



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.

With the government's post-war 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 post-

war 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. By the 1970s, the introduction of multiculturalism saw an increasing acceptance of immigrants from different cultures.

‘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

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’.

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, with 1.8 per cent of Victorians voting for it.

‘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 4

Demonstrators in Melbourne call for refugees on Manus and Nauru to be brought to Australia.

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.

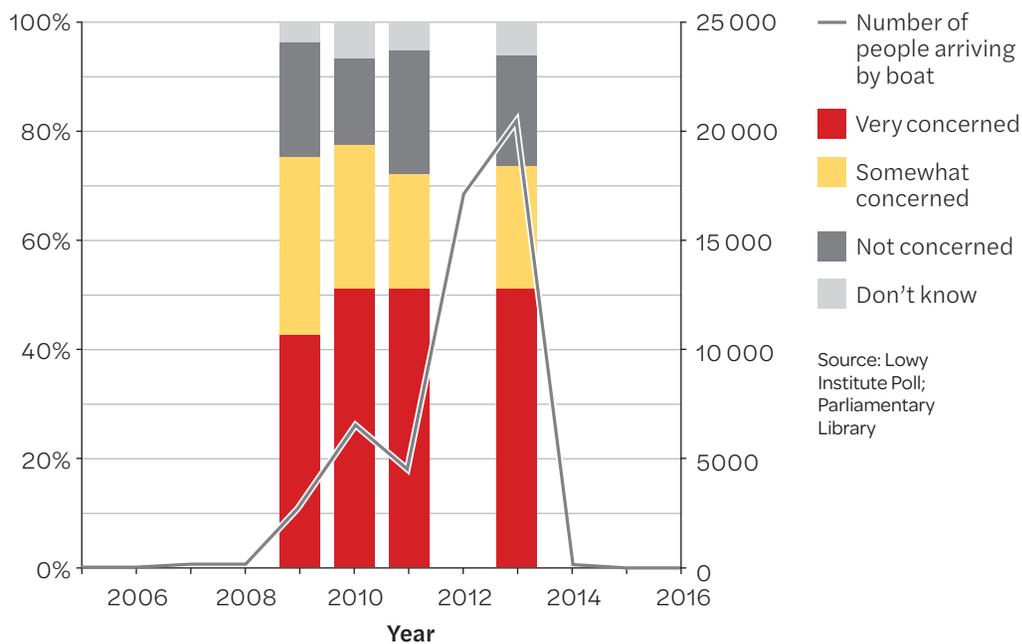
There have, however, been negative public reactions around mandatory detention. This policy, and the conditions in which immigrants have often been detained, has come under scrutiny. In 2002, conditions in the Woomera detention centre were found to be 'inhumane and degrading' by a UN investigation. Conditions 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.



Polls apart: how Australian views have changed on 'boat people'

Boat arrivals and concern about the issue from Lowy poll

Are you very concerned, somewhat concerned or not concerned about unauthorised asylum seekers coming to Australia by boat or do you have no view on this?



Source: Lowy Institute Poll; Parliamentary Library

Source 5

This graph tracks concern about unauthorised asylum seeker arrivals against actual arrivals. Kelsey Munro and Alex Oliver, The Interpreter website, Lowy Institute, 19 February 2019.

Learning ladder H3.13

Show what you know

- 1 How did economic circumstances in Australia contribute to the introduction of the *Immigration Restriction Act* in 1901?
- 2 Describe how public debate about migration changed in the 1980s.
- 3 Do research and explain how the policy of mandatory detention works.

Historical interpretations

- 4 Source 5: What is the attitude towards unauthorised asylum seeker arrivals in this graph? Describe elements of the graph to illustrate your point.

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

- 5 How did views of people of German descent change in 1914?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

- 6 Source 2: Use this source and your own research to explain the different attitudes towards migrants in the 1950s.

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

- 7 Source 3: In what ways are the views on migration in the Pauline Hanson's speech and in John Howard's 'One Australia' policy similar and different?

Historical interpretations, page 241

HOW TO

How have people's perspectives on the environment changed?

Concerns about the environment and human impact on Earth and its resources is not a new phenomenon. However, as the 20th century progressed, people's awareness of the destruction that human actions were having on the planet increased and environmentalism became more politicised. As we have moved into the 21st century, governments are cooperating on a global scale to deal with the threat of human-induced climate change to the balance of nature.

The Industrial Revolution and its need for raw resources saw the exploitation of the natural world. At the same time, the increase in the world's population put further pressure on the environment as the need for food production led

to further deforestation and soil degradation as farming techniques intensified. The use of fossil fuels (in particular, burning coal) created thick air pollution, which is a problem still affecting many countries around the world.

Source 1

Air pollution is an ongoing problem. This 2020 image shows people walking near India Gate in New Delhi amid heavy smog.

Source 2

The iconic photo of Earth seen from space for the first time via the Apollo 8 spacecraft, 24 December 1968, entitled 'Earth Rise'



However, during the late 19th century, some groups began to advocate to protect natural areas that had not yet been exploited. In 1872, this desire to protect wilderness areas led to the establishment of the world's first national park in the USA. Yellowstone National Park comprised nearly 900 000 hectares of land across the states of Wyoming, Montana and Ohio. In 1879, Australia was the second country in the world to create a national park, setting aside land to create the Royal National Park, 30 kilometres south of Sydney.

Just under a hundred years later, the environmental movement really began to gain momentum. During the 1960s, there were increasing demands for protection of the environment, in part prompted by the publication of Rachel Carson's 1962 book, *Silent Spring*. Her book called for reducing or banning the use of some pesticides, which damaged ecosystems and were toxic to humans.

In 1972, the USA banned the use of the most harmful pesticides identified in Carson's book, including DDT, a synthetic pesticide, although the use of DDT was not banned in Australia until 1987.

As well as Carson's book, magazines and music also helped spread awareness of environmental issues. *Mother Earth News*, first published in 1970, offered practical advice on self-sufficient living and became popular with those who sought to escape modern commercial living. The magazine is still published today.

In 1966, the French began testing nuclear weapons in the Pacific Ocean. However, many feared that this would destroy marine ecosystems. This spurred on global anti-nuclear protests and led to an increase in environmental activism. One of the most prominent activist organisations founded was Greenpeace, which formed in 1971. Greenpeace members protested by sailing into French nuclear testing sites to disrupt the testing program. Their ship *Rainbow Warrior* was destroyed by French intelligence agents in Auckland Harbour in 1985, as they continued to protest the ongoing nuclear testing. Greenpeace has also campaigned against whaling, as well as illegal dumping of nuclear waste.

'Greenpeace exists because this fragile earth deserves a voice. It needs solutions. It needs change. It needs action.

Some people look at a forest, and all they see is lumber. But there are millions more who see a home, a heritage, a future. Around the globe, we are standing up for our communities, and we are holding governments and corporations accountable. Whether on the streets or at the ballot box, we hold the real power when we work together.

Our vision

We believe optimism is a form of courage. We believe that a billion acts of courage can spark a brighter tomorrow. To that end we model courage, we champion courage, we share stories of courageous acts by our supporters and allies, we invite people out of their comfort zones to take courageous action with us, individually in their daily lives, and in community with others who share our commitment to a better world. A green and peaceful future is our quest. The heroes of our story are all of us who believe that a better world is not only within reach but being built today.'

Source 3

Greenpeace's vision

As discussed on pages 206–9, the environmental movement became political in the 1970s when the world's first Green party was formed in Australia. The United Tasmania Party was formed in March 1972. Its charter became the foundation of green politics.

Green parties were soon established in New Zealand (1972), the UK (1973) and Germany (1979). Changing attitudes to the environment

were also reflected in the establishment of the Department of the Environment, Aborigines and the Arts in 1971. Following this, in 1972, the Labor government appointed a Minister for Environment and Conservation, also reflecting the greater emphasis given to environmental issues.

In 1983, Bob Hawke's Labor government contributed to the development of environmental legislation, introducing the *World Heritage Properties Conservation Act 1983*, which gave the federal government power to overrule state governments when it came to heritage areas. Under the Liberal government of John Howard, legislation to protect the environment, conserve Australia's biodiversity and promote sustainable development was introduced in the form of the *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999*.

On the international stage, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) was set up in 1972 to drive global initiatives to promote cooperation between nations in the face of growing environmental concerns.

One of the major issues the UN continues to tackle is climate change. From the 1980s, scientists became increasingly concerned that our climate was warming far too quickly. While initially controversial, scientific evidence now points to human activity as being the most significant contributor to this warming climate.



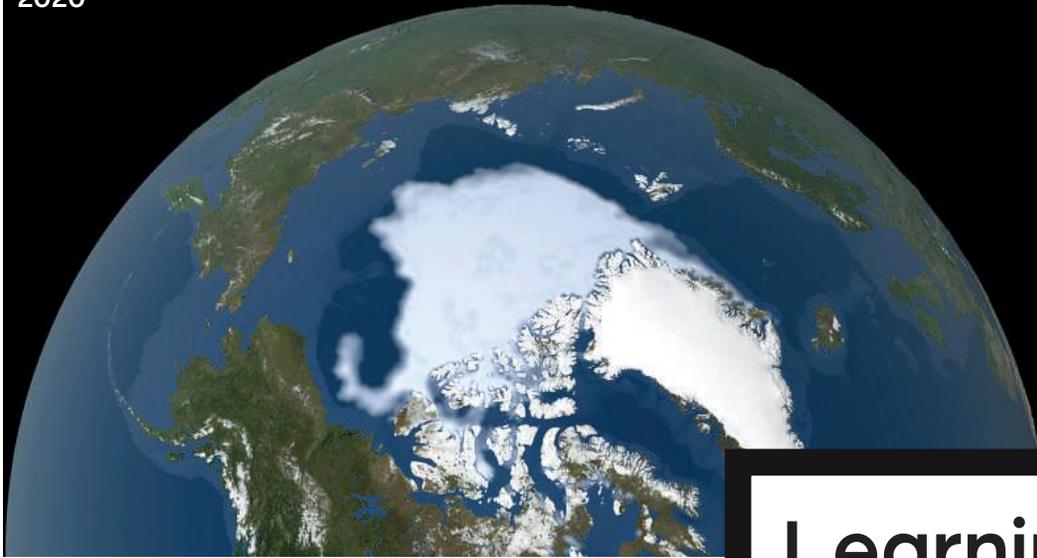
The UNEP, along with the World Meteorological Organization, established the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 1988. Initially, the IPCC was asked to review, 'the state of knowledge of the science of climate change; the social and economic impact of climate change, and potential response strategies and elements for inclusion in a possible future international convention on climate'. Since then, the IPCC has completed five comprehensive assessment reports to provide information to governments on this ongoing issue.

In 1987, the UN established the Montreal Protocol, which aimed to reduce the use of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs). Using CFCs damages the ozone layer above Earth and their use created a hole in this layer, increasing damaging ultraviolet radiation. After concerted global efforts, the hole is shrinking, but it is not expected to recover to the 1980 level until 2070.

As discussed on pages 210–11, Australia signed on to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change in 1992 and signed on to the Paris Agreement in 2015, pledging to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 26 to 28 per cent below 2005 levels by 2030.

Concerns over the environment have continued to grow into the 21st century. In 2006, Al Gore, former Vice-President of the USA from 1993–2001, published a book and documentary called

2020



Source 4

These two photos show the effects of global warming. The first image shows the wide coverage of Arctic sea ice in 1979. By 2020 the same area is much smaller.

An Inconvenient Truth: The Planetary Emergency of Global Warming and What We Can Do About It, which earned him a Nobel prize.

Some UN Climate Change Conferences have been met with protests that not enough is being done to halt climate change. The music of artists such as Missy Higgins reflects these ongoing concerns about climate change and Higgins herself has attended climate change marches inspired by Greta Thunberg. Thunberg sailed from Sweden to America in 2019 to address a US climate conference in New York, avoiding the emissions she might create by flying there. She began campaigning for climate change in 2018, encouraging students to go on strike on Fridays.

‘Every year of inaction sees us slide closer to the point where a tragedy of unprecedented scale becomes irreversible. As politicians fail to find the collective will to overcome inertia, international rivalries, and the all-pervasive power of vested interests, ordinary people all around the world will be demanding decisive action now, not later when the fate of billions could already have been sealed and the catastrophe will have become unstoppable.’

Source 5

Phil Thornhill, Campaign Against Climate Change (UK), speaking at the Copenhagen protest in 2009

Learning ladder H3.14

Show what you know

- 1 Where were the world's first national parks, and why were they created?
- 2 Describe the impact of the book *Silent Spring* on attitudes towards the environment.
- 3 Create a timeline of key events in the development of the environmental movement. Pick 10 events from the text, or use your knowledge and research about significant events.
- 4 Describe how attitudes towards the environment changed over the 20th century.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 5 Source 3: Summarise Greenpeace's vision statement in one or two sentences.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 6 Source 5: What types of emotions are evident in Phil Thornhill's speech?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

- 7 Source 2: When was the 'Earth Rise' photo taken? What do you think the original purpose of the photo was, and what were the, perhaps unexpected, effects of this photo on society?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 8 Source 4: Study the reduction in sea ice from 1979 to 2020. What has changed since 1970 and what has stayed the same?



Source analysis, page 226

How has technology changed the discipline of History?

Historians use artefacts and evidence to create an interpretation of past events. The most vital source of information for most historians is the written word, but how these written words are preserved for posterity has changed significantly.

Some might say that the sending of the world's first email in 1971 was as significant an event as the invention of the printing press, because of the changes internet technology has created in all aspects of our society. The email was sent between two computers sitting right next to each other using ARPANET, an experimental computer network that was the forerunner of the internet.

In 1989, British scientist Tim Berners-Lee invented the protocol that would become the World Wide Web, which led to the birth of the modern internet.

Source 1

The homepage of Amazon.com 1995, when the internet was in its infancy



Welcome to Amazon.com Books!

One million titles, consistently low prices.

(If you explore just one thing, make it our personal notification service. We think it's very cool!)

SPOTLIGHT! -- AUGUST 16TH
These are the books we love, offered at Amazon.com low prices. The spotlight moves EVERY day so please come often.

ONE MILLION TITLES
Search Amazon.com's [million title catalog](#) by author, subject, title, keyword, and more... Or take a look at the [books we recommend](#) in over 20 categories... Check out our [customer reviews](#) and the [award winners](#) from the Hugo and Nebula to the Pulitzer and Nobel... and [bestsellers](#) are 30% off the publishers list...

EYES & EDITORS, A PERSONAL NOTIFICATION SERVICE
Like to know when that book you want comes out in paperback or when your favorite author releases a new title? Eyes, our tireless, automated search agent, will send you mail. Meanwhile, our human editors are busy previewing galleys and reading advance reviews. They can let you know when especially wonderful works are published in particular genres or subject areas. Come in, [meet Eyes](#), and have it all explained.

YOUR ACCOUNT
Check the status of your orders or change the email address and password you have on file with us. Please note that you **do not** need an account to use the store. The first time you place an order, you will be given the opportunity to create an account.

Online technologies have had a big impact on how historians work and gather data, but they have also created challenges as to how historians select and interpret the material they find. For instance, a historian who writes about the career of Julius Caesar can only access a limited amount of primary material, while a historian who writes about the Trump presidency is flooded with information from a huge range of sources. The number of tweets, books, articles, photos, Facebook posts and YouTube videos available to the modern historian is staggering.

However, complaints about 'information overload' are certainly not bound to our modern times. The Bible mentions in Ecclesiastes 12:12 that, 'there is no end to books, and too much study will wear you out'. The stoic philosopher Seneca wrote in about 60 CE that 'the abundance of books is a distraction'. And in 1255 CE, a Dominican monk named Vincent of Beauvais wrote that, with the amount of information available to him, he felt overwhelmed by 'the multitude of books, the shortness of time and the slipperiness of memory'.

These days, we are able to scroll through limitless amounts of information. The word 'scrolling' is interesting in itself. Before the widespread use of books, people used rolled up scrolls to read information. So, just like our historical forebears, we are 'scrolling' through text again.

This volume of information available to the modern historian makes the notion of selection and significance more important than ever. The discipline of 'Digital History' or

‘Digital Humanities’ became a serious field in 1996, when the non-profit organisation ‘Internet Archive’ started to archive as many websites as possible. Today, there is more than 20 years of web history accessible through its site the ‘Wayback Machine’ and the archive continues to identify and store important web pages.

According to online learning site Norwich Pro, ‘digital history involves the use of digital tools to:

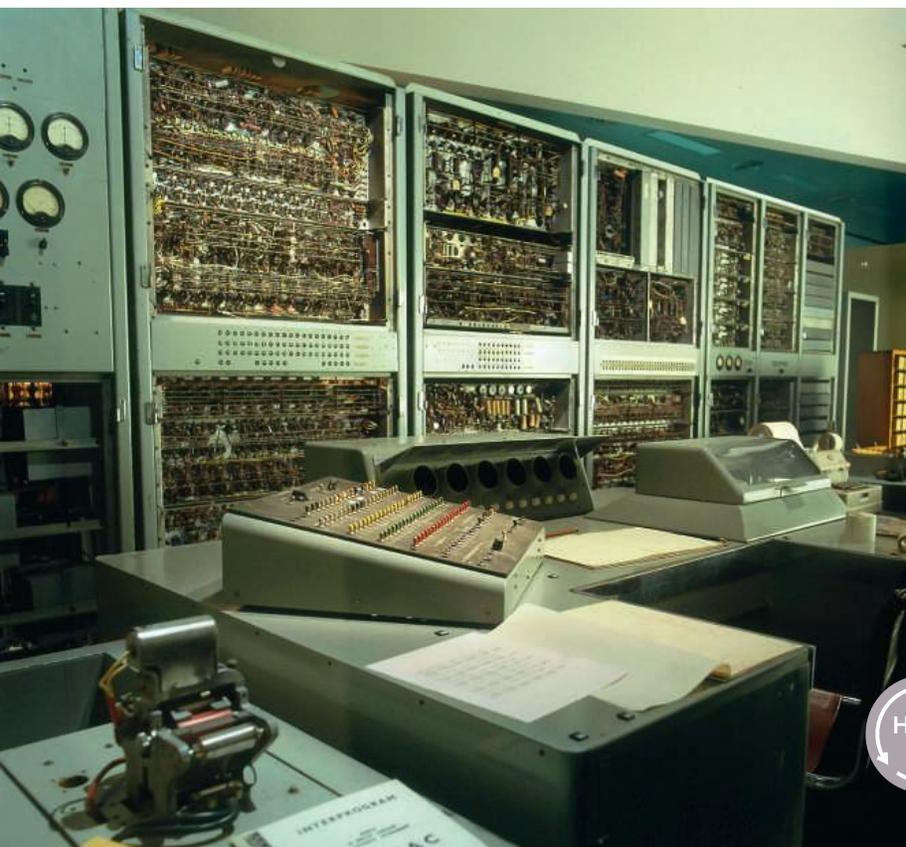
- research, analyse and visualise patterns in historical information
- present research findings and historical narratives in an enriched content format that is both informative and entertaining
- invite collaboration and enable various audiences to participate in the preservation and telling of stories.’

In order to choose the right sources from the vast amount of material available, it is important to look at each source critically and ask questions such as:

- Why was this source created?
- Who created this source?
- For what audience and purpose was this source created?

Source 2

CSIRAC was Australia’s first digital computer, built in 1949. Now on display at Scienceworks in Melbourne, the computer weighs 7000 kilograms and has a RAM of 768 words. It was the first computer able to play digital music.



- How is this source valuable to the study of the topic in question?
- What limits the usefulness of this source for the topic in question?

Critical analysis and evaluation of sources of information has always been vital for any historian or anyone interested in learning about our society, but now that we have access to almost an unlimited amount of information, it is more important than ever.

Learning ladder H3.15

Show what you know

- 1 How many years were there between the invention of the printing press and the invention of the ‘World Wide Web’?
- 2 How has the discipline of History changed because of technology?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

- 3 Source 2: List three features of the CSIRAC computer.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

- 4 Watch the video at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_8. List some of the attitudes that these news presenters from the early 90s have towards the internet.

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator’s purpose

- 5 Go to http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_9 and answer the following questions:
 - For what purpose did Prime Minister Scott Morrison create this tweet?
 - How is this source valuable to historians studying the impacts of COVID-19 on Australia in 2020–2021?
 - What limits the usefulness of this tweet to historians studying the impacts of COVID-19 on Australia in 2020–2021?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

- 6 Compare Source 1 to the homepage of Amazon today. What do the differences and similarities in these pages tell you about how the internet has changed?



Source analysis, page 226

Masterclass



Learning ladder

Work at the level that is right for you or level-up for a learning challenge!

Hooray, we're digital natives – so now what?

Sue McKemish and Andrew Wilson, 2012

It's estimated that in 2011 a truly staggering 1.8 zettabytes of digital information was created. Or to put it in more meaningful terms, that's 57.5 billion 32-gigabyte iPads full.

Recent articles about this 'digital deluge' warn of an approaching 'digital dark age' if this vast amount of digital information isn't preserved for posterity ... Recently the global market intelligence firm IDC estimated that the world's demand for storage is increasing by 60% a year ...

The challenges involved in preserving the huge datasets created by governments, businesses and research institutions have prompted some dire predictions about the loss of digital history. Doomsayers suggest the only solution is the frequent transfer of data from device to device ...

Clearly, not all digital information can or should be kept – much of it is 'ephemeral' or of short-term value. But much is of continuing value as collective memory, and vital evidence of our identity and our past.

The first of the digital challenges we face relates to what to preserve as digital cultural heritage. Who decides, and using which criteria? Once we've decided, how can we preserve it, keep it secure, guarantee its authenticity, ensure its accessibility and maintain its meaning over long periods of time?

Trusted digital repositories around the world use a mix of strategies. They address pressing issues of software and hardware obsolescence, media degradation, and bit rot (changes at the level of individual atoms). ...

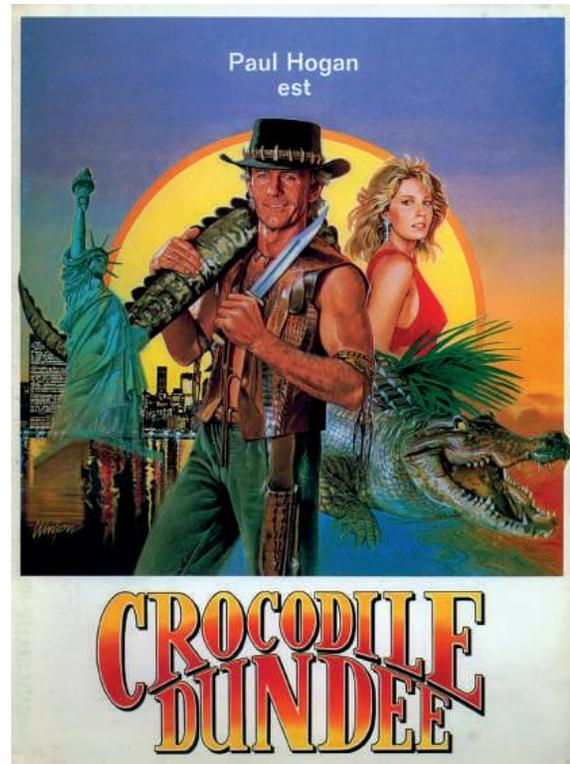
The Commonwealth Government initiative ANDS (the Australian National Data Service) is building the Australian Research Data Commons. In the Commons, once invisible, isolated and unmanaged data collections will be structured, connected, findable and reusable ... Innovative features include use of digital signatures to guarantee authenticity.

Source 1

Text extract – full article from The Conversation website, <https://theconversation.com/hooray-were-digital-natives-so-who-preserves-our-culture-9693>

Source 2

The 1986 movie poster for *Crocodile Dundee*



Source 3

A Coolgardie safe made by the Trafalgar company.



Step 1

a I can list specific features of a source

Source 3: Do some research to find out how a Coolgardie safe works to keep food cold.

b I can describe continuity and change

In which ways have people's television viewing habits stayed the same since 1956, and how have they changed?

c I can recognise a cause and an effect

What effect do you think the Melbourne Olympic games had on the development of Australia's television industry?

d I can recognise historical significance

The song 'Beds are Burning' was played during the closing ceremony of the Sydney Olympic Games in 2000. Why is this song significant to Australia?

e I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

Source 1: What are the challenges with preserving digital records of the recent past?



Step 2

a I can find themes in a source

Source 2: How is Australian culture depicted in the poster for the 1986 movie *Crocodile Dundee*?

b I can explain why something did or did not change

How has the depiction of Australian culture to a global audience changed over the last 70 years? To illustrate your answer, compare and contrast Source 4 on page 180 to the poster in Source 2.

c I can determine causes and effects

What harmful environmental substance was banned as a result of the Montreal Protocol in 1987 and what effect did this have on the environment?

d I can explain historical significance

What is the historical significance of the 'Earth Rise' photo (page 217) to the environmental movement?



Step 3

a I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

Look up the full lyrics of the song 'I am Woman' by Helen Reddy at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_11. Why do you think Helen Reddy created this song in 1972?

b I can explain patterns of continuity and change

Source 1 describes a digital dark age. What is implied by that term? What sources of information do you think were not preserved from the dark ages in Europe?

c I can explain causes and effects

Explain the rise of the 'democracy sausage' as an Australian icon of democracy.

d I can apply a theory of significance

In what ways did the Beatles' visit to Australia in 1964 affect Australian society? Use Counsell's Five Rs model of significance (page 3) to justify your answer.

e I can explain historical interpretations

How have views of the environmental movement changed since the Franklin Dam protests?



Step 4

a I can analyse a source

Analyse the lyrics of the 1987 song 'Beds are Burning' by Midnight Oil at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_12. What is the main message of the song?

b I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

In what ways has multiculturalism always been a part of Australian culture from over 65 000 years ago till the present?

Masterclass

c I can analyse causes and effects

What is the Australian 'cultural cringe', and what do you think it was caused by?

d I can analyse historical significance

How significant was the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* to Australia's attitudes towards migration before 1945?

e I can analyse historical interpretations

In the early 1970s, the Sunbury Music festivals were portrayed as 'Australia's Woodstock'. Research both festivals and explain why the Sunbury festivals were important to Australian music culture.



Step 5

a I can evaluate a source

Watch the trailer of the first *Crocodile Dundee* movie at http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_13. How are genders represented in this trailer?

b I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

Using the text and your own knowledge, evaluate which elements of Australian cuisine have changed or stayed the same since 1945.

c I can evaluate causes and effects

How did Australian music and culture change as a result of new licensing laws and the lowering of the legal drinking age?

d I can evaluate historical significance

Draft a response to the following statement: 'The aftermath of World War II caused a significant change to and modernisation of Australian culture.'

e I can evaluate historical interpretations

Use the website Trove (http://mea.digital/GHV10_H3_14) to find advertisements or articles aimed at women in Australia, in each decade from the 1940s until today. Describe how women are represented in these articles. Evaluate the ways in which these representations have or haven't changed.

Historical writing

1 Structure

Imagine you are given the essay topic 'How has Australian popular culture been shaped by globalisation?' Write an essay plan for this topic. Include at least three main paragraphs.

2 Draft

Use the drafting and vocabulary suggestions on page 248 to draft a 600–800-word essay (at least 30–40 sentences) responding to the topic.

3 Edit and proofread

Use the editing and proofreading tips on page 249, to help you edit and proofread your work.

Historical research

4 Organise and present information

Imagine you are completing a research project on the impact of globalisation on Australian culture. Create a visual timeline of the impact of global cultural and economic forces on Australian culture, from 1945 to the present. Write a contents page for this project. There should be an introduction, a conclusion, at least four main sections and many subsections. Number your chapters.



Capstone

How can I understand the globalising world?

In this chapter, you have learned a lot about our globalising world. Now you can put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you know and what you think.

In the world of building, a capstone is an element that tops off a building or a wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting, critical and creative ways. You can complete this project yourself, or your teacher can make it a class task or a homework task.



mea.digital/GHV10_H3

Scan this QR code to find the capstone project online.

History HOW-TO

H4



History has its own set of skills to help us analyse and understand societies in the past and the key ideas, people and changes that shape the world we live in today. Historical skills are based around interpreting sources of evidence from the past, provoking debate and encouraging investigation.

Source analysis

Source analysis asks us to look at evidence and ask, 'How do we know what we know about the past?' A good source analysis interprets and makes meaning of the source:

- Who created it?
- When was it created?
- What was the author or creator's purpose?
- What is the historical context of the source?



I can list specific features of a source

When you list features of a source, they can be general or specific. For the general features of a source, when you list them, it is like you are providing a summarised version of what you see.

Listing specific, or detailed, features of a source is more like you are writing the long version of what you can see or interpret, describing as much as you can.

General features	Detailed or specific features
The most obvious features	Obvious <i>and</i> minor details
The most important things in the source	Everything in the source, whether or not you think it is 'important'
Using vague words: 'big', 'small', 'very', 'good' ...	Using specific words and phrases, such as: 'three times bigger than ...', 'small or big when compared to ...', 'in the background/ foreground', 'useful for ...'



I can find themes in a source

Often, a source contains a theme. The theme can help you uncover more meaning in a source. A theme is something that you might notice after recognising specific features.

Some examples of themes and how they might be shown are listed in this table.

Theme	How this might be shown in a source
Beauty	A statue of a handsome person with a muscular body and symmetrical facial features
Faith	A decoration on a vase showing people offering sacrifices to a god
Good vs bad	A statue of two figures fighting – one that looks like an angel and one that looks like a demon
Hierarchy	An image going from top to bottom, with gods on the top, then people, then animals, then rocks
Humanity vs nature	A building located in a natural place, dominating it; e.g. a temple on a mountain
Technology in society – good or bad	Good: a statue of a smiling person using a new farm implement Bad: a painting of a person using a machine to work, looking unhappy
War or conflict	A decoration on a building depicting a large-scale battle

If you think there is an underlying theme, after looking at all the details in a source, always give evidence *from the source* to back up your answer.

Not all sources have themes. If the source is a piece of technology, such as a train, it might not have a ‘theme’ like the poster shown in Source 1. However, you could still comment on the type of society that produced it. For example, what materials did they use? Why did they need trains? When did they build railways?



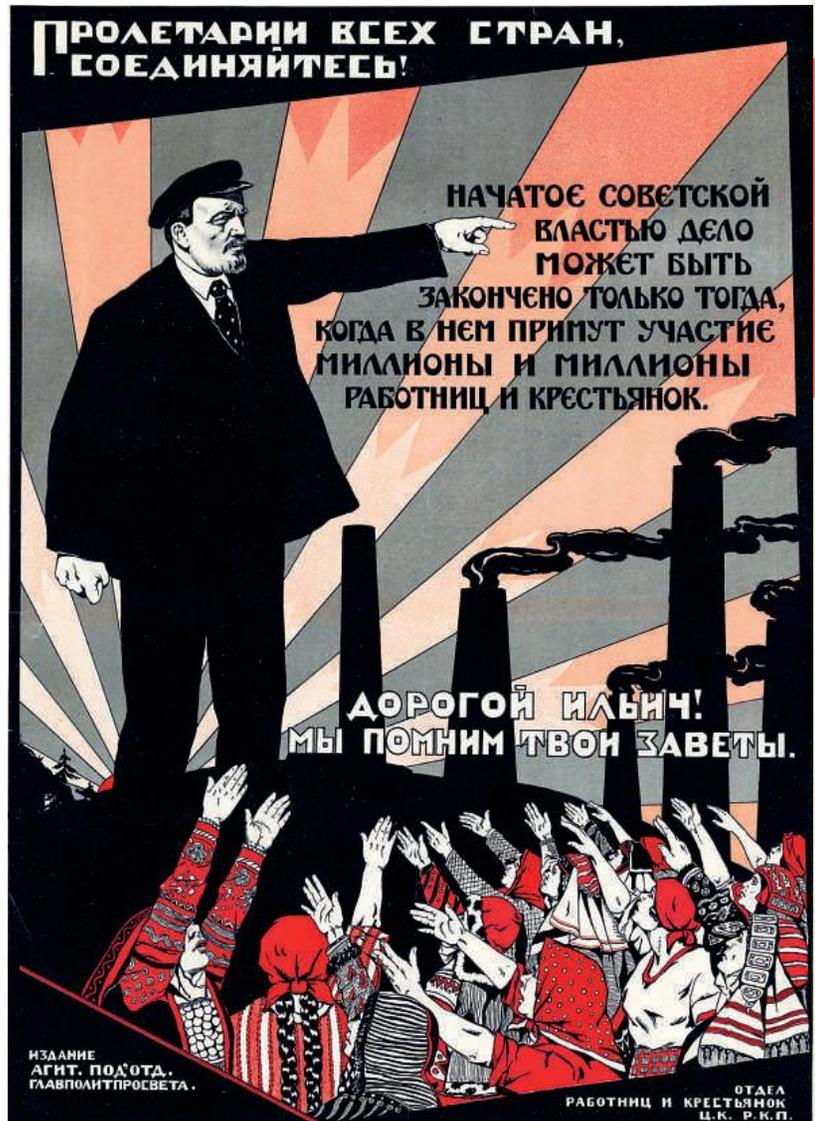
I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

Here are three ways you could explain a creator's purpose. You could:

- 1 use *who* created it to explain *why* it was made
- 2 use *when* it was created to explain *why* it was made
- 3 use both *when* it was created *and* *who* created it to explain *why* it was made.

The third explanation is the best. Here are some questions to ask of the source:

- What do you know about who created the source?
 - How old were they?
 - What gender were they?
 - What job did they do?
 - What position did they have in society?
For example, were they powerful or powerless?
 - What beliefs did they have?
- What was going on at the time the source was made?
 - Were there any important events taking place?
 - What was going on politically?
 - What biases might people have had?
 - What was normal behaviour in society?
- Why was it produced?



Source 1

A propaganda poster from the former USSR. What themes can you see in this poster?

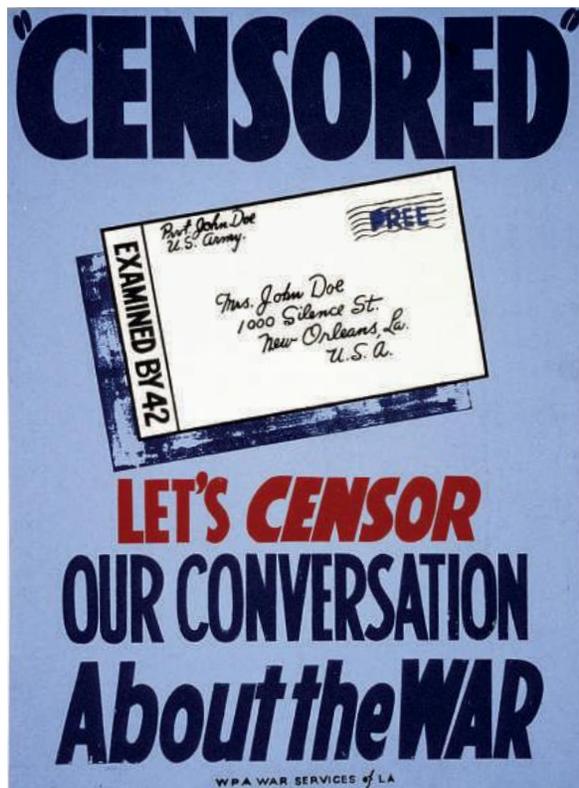
The purpose of a source refers to what the source was originally made for. Don't get confused and think about what we, as historians, might use it for. Sources aren't usually created to leave records for historians.

Try to get into the head of the creator *at the time they were making the object*. For example, were they trying to:

- influence people?
- sell something?
- tell their version of events?
- make art? If so, who would enjoy it?
- make something practical, such as a tool?

The table below provides two examples of using the origin of a source to explain its purpose, using the US censorship poster in Source 2 and the construction of the Aboriginal Tent Embassy.

Source	Origin: Who created the source	Origin: When the source was created	Why you think the source was created (its purpose)	Using the origin of the source to explain its purpose
US World War II censorship poster	US government (War Service of LA)	Sometime between 1939–1945	To make sure soldiers did not write things in their letters that would reveal secret information	This poster was created by the US government during World War II. At this time, keeping military information secret from the enemy was very important. Thus, the poster aims to convince soldiers to avoid including sensitive information in their letters home.
Aboriginal Tent Embassy	First Nations activists	1972	To protest against the Australian government's approach to First Nations land rights	The Aboriginal Tent Embassy was set up in Canberra in 1972, when the struggle for First Nations land rights was becoming a major issue. <i>The Racial Discrimination Act</i> was passed just a few years later. Indigenous activists wanted to draw attention to the inequality they experienced by setting up the embassy in a well-known place.



Source 2

A US government propaganda poster from World War II. Soldiers were forbidden from writing about their location or military details in letters home.



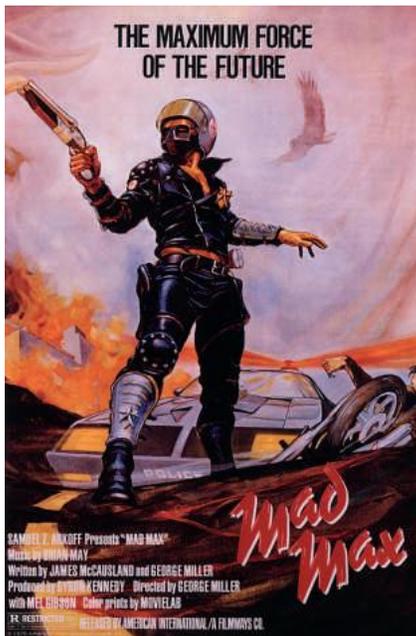
I can analyse a source

Analysing involves breaking down something into its parts. If you can identify these different parts, and explain how together they make up the whole, you are analysing. If you can explain rules or theories that show how these parts are organised, you are analysing.

To analyse a source, consider the different elements of the source and see how they work together, and whether they produce an overall effect. We can break this into three parts:

- 1 Notice various elements of the source
- 2 Explain them
- 3 Show how they relate to each other, influence each other or are linked in some way to produce an overall effect.

As an example, we can analyse Source 3. The colours indicate different sections of the analysis.



Source 3

The poster for the original 1979 *Mad Max* film, an Australian production starring Mel Gibson and directed by George Miller

We can see many elements in the poster. A figure in the middle is dressed in leather clothing with various metallic things attached to it. This looks like some kind of futuristic clothing, with some armour involved. Behind the figure is a car, with the label 'police' on it. Again, for the time it was produced, in 1979, it seems futuristic.

The rest of the picture shows the arm of an injured or dead person high in the air, a crashed motorbike, and a burning building on the left-hand side. The scenery in the poster appears to be sandy, indicating a desert. High above the figure is a bird of prey, circling.

The overall effect created by this poster is one of a futuristic dystopia. It also appears dystopian due to the destroyed building, motorcycle and dead person.



5 I can evaluate a source

Evaluation is a higher-order thinking skill. Evaluation can involve:

- assessing whether a statement is true, such as 'the US bombing of Japan was racist'.
- comparing different ideas, such as 'which source is a better example of fascism?'
- judging between different things, such as 'were long- or short-term causes more important in causing World War II?'
- making a judgement about the value of something by asking, 'So what?'. Was a source a good or bad thing, or perhaps partially both? A historian may include both positives and negatives to form a balanced view.

Source 4 shows a speech we can evaluate.

‘Yesterday, December 7th, 1941 – a date which will live in infamy – the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by naval and air forces of the Empire of Japan ...

The attack yesterday on the Hawaiian islands has caused severe damage to American naval and military forces. I regret to tell you that very many American lives have been lost ...

Yesterday, the Japanese government also launched an attack against Malaya. Last night, Japanese forces attacked Hong Kong. Last night, Japanese forces attacked Guam. Last night, Japanese forces attacked the Philippine Islands. Last night, the Japanese attacked Wake Island. And this morning, the Japanese attacked Midway Island ...

... we will not only defend ourselves to the uttermost, but will make it very certain that this form of treachery shall never again endanger us.

Source 4

President Roosevelt gave the 'Day of Infamy' speech to a joint session of US Congress on 8 December 1941.

Here is how Source 4 could be evaluated:

This famous speech, delivered by Roosevelt when Japan had launched a preemptive strike on the US Navy, was a wake-up call to the people of the USA. It used detail and persuasion to convince the US public and their politicians to join the war. Roosevelt uses repetition of the phrase 'Japanese forces attacked ...' to highlight the enormity of the attack. He also uses emotional language such as 'infamy' and 'treachery'.

Numerous leaders, journalists and commentators have remarked on the power of this speech to motivate the USA to take decisive action in the war. Not only was it a call to arms, but it was also a very public request to the Congress to declare war on Japan, which they did just 33 minutes later.

This evaluation made a judgement about the value of something; that is, how well the speech motivated the people of the USA to take an active part in the conflict of World War II.

Continuity and change

One reason we study history is to see how life was different in the past. We can also see how an idea or a piece of technology evolved over time.

Continuity and change exist on a scale, between 'no change' and 'completely different', as shown below.

Continuity and change can exist at the same time: some things stay the same, while others change.

Change can be fast or slow, or can 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. communication and
transportation technology)



I can describe continuity and change

Describing continuity and change means that you have to both recognise it and describe what you recognise. You should do this by writing descriptive sentences that use historical evidence to back up your claim.

Scale of change from least (on the left) to most (on the right)

Civilisation	Earlier time	Later time	Continuity between these times	Change between these times
First Nations peoples of Australia	1800: had few or no land rights recognised in British law	2000: Native title exists, after Mabo case victory and <i>Native Title Act (1993)</i>	First Nations land rights still being determined by the (predominantly non-Indigenous) Australian federal government	First Nations people have their land rights recognised by the government of Australia, such as limited access to areas based on evidence of continuous traditional practices
European Jews	1935: widespread persecution in many European countries	1980: By this time, the Jewish homeland of Israel had been established decades earlier	Discrimination against Jewish people still exists in many Western countries, including in Europe and North America.	Jewish people now have a country of their own, where they have political self-determination.



I can explain why something did or did not change

Explanations require you to answer the question *why?* When explaining continuity and change, you need to:

- recognise it
- describe it
- know what caused it, or what effect it had.





I can explain patterns of continuity and change

Examples of patterns of continuity include:

- close family bonds
- the importance of food
- the impact of disease
- natural disasters.

Examples of patterns of change include:

- the improvement in technology
- the rise in population
- the spread of new ideas.

So you would need to explain *how* or *why* one of these things occurred. An example of explaining a pattern of continuity:

One thing that has continued to be of importance from the start of the 20th century until today is the impact of disease. At various points since 1900, we have seen epidemics of different scales wreak havoc.

After World War I, the 1918 flu pandemic (often called the Spanish Flu) killed more people than the war itself and spread to every part of the globe. Throughout the century, despite improvements in medicine and hygiene, we have seen deadly outbreaks of smallpox, influenza, Ebola and HIV/AIDS, to name a few.

As proof that we are as vulnerable to disease outbreak as ever, in 2020 the world was rocked by the deadly COVID-19 pandemic.

Source 5

Air transportation made huge technological strides in the 20th century.



I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

Analysing involves breaking a pattern down into its parts. If you can identify these different parts, and explain how together they make up the whole, you are analysing.

To analyse a pattern of continuity or change, you need to consider the different elements of the pattern and see how they interacted over time to produce an overall outcome.

An example of analysing a pattern of change is as follows:

Transportation technology has changed dramatically over the last 100 years.

Various factors have been significant in this change. First, transportation technology is much more widely available than it used to be. Far more people have access to cars than they did, and even plane flights are affordable for the growing middle class in all but the poorest of countries.

Second, transportation has become much faster. Planes travel at about ten times the speed of cars and carry millions of passengers across the world. In the early 20th century, most long-distance travel was done by boat, which was much slower.

Finally, not only has technology progressed, but the technological advances within each form of transport have also improved greatly. For example, cars were extremely basic in the early 20th century, but now cars have music players, video cameras, seat warmers and automatically tuning engines. A combination of these factors means that a large number of people can travel long distances very quickly, and often in more luxury.





I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

Evaluation is a higher-order thinking skill. It involves remembering what you have learned and being able to use that information to make sense of something or make a judgement.

Evaluation can involve:

- assessing whether a theory or belief is true; for example, 'Is it true that all empires rise and fall?'
- comparing different ideas; for example, 'Which is a better job: working as a farmer or working as a miner?'
- judging between different things; for example, 'Some people think British colonial rule was positive for African people, while others think it was negative: who is right?'
- asking 'So what?'; for example, 'Was it a good or bad thing? Or was it both good and bad?'. A historian might include both positive and negative aspects to form a balanced view, as shown in this table. (See the key in the next column for an explanation of the colours.)

Each balanced view in the table contains four elements:

- 1 A statement about whether the situation was a continuity or a change.
- 2 A statement showing the positive aspect of it.
- 3 A statement showing the negative aspect of it.
- 4 A statement summarising the balance.

There is no 'right' answer when evaluating. Having a balanced view is not always the best answer, either. For example, it would be impossible to argue for the benefits of Hitler's policy to exterminate specific groups of people. However, some answers are better or worse than others. Better answers:

- use more historical evidence as examples in their evaluation
- use more logical reasoning – they show directly how beneficial the patterns of change were.

Situation	Positive thing	Negative thing	Balanced view
Continuity: Some First Nations peoples of Australia continue to lead traditional lifestyles away from heavily populated areas.	This allows First Nations peoples to experience a deep connection to Country	They are often far from traditional Western medical facilities such as hospitals	Some First Nations people have been able to continue to live a traditional lifestyle, far from populated areas. The cultural benefits of this are obvious – their strong connection to Country can continue. However, living remotely can mean less access to health facilities, such as hospitals. Ultimately, those living traditional First Nations lifestyles clearly prefer that form of living, and believe it outweighs the negatives of limited healthcare access.
Change: Popular pastimes of young Australians, such as playing computer games or watching YouTube	Young people are exposed to a wider range of activities and interests	Has led to more sedentary, less active lifestyles	There has been a large change in the typical pastimes of young Australians over the past century, such as playing computer games and accessing the internet for entertainment. On one hand, this allows people to explore a wider range of interests. On the other hand, sitting in front of a screen reduces physical activity and has increased childhood obesity. On balance, the increase in screen time for Australian youth is probably a negative thing, due to the health problems created.

Cause and effect

Cause and effect is visible every day. For example, when we open the fridge, the light comes on; when we wave our hand, the bus stops for us.

There are short-term and long-term causes. The short-term cause of the fridge light coming on is opening the door. The long-term cause is because we are hungry. Equally, there are short-term and long-term effects. After I wave my hand, the short-term effect is that the bus stops. The long-term effect is that I arrive at school on time.

Understanding cause and effect requires identifying which events are linked and why. When we say things are linked by cause and effect, we say 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, the Nazis
- historical conditions: social, political, economic, cultural and environmental factors; for example, increasing concern over climate change in the late 20th and early 21st century

However, just because one event happens after another, it doesn't always mean that the first event caused the second. For example, when a rooster crows in the morning, we don't think it makes the sun rise. You also need to be able to tell an acceptable story about why something caused its 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 Hitler had been killed in World War I, would World War II still have started? It is easy, with hindsight, to think our cause-and-effect explanations are perfect. But we need to be cautious when we make claims about causes and effects, as many events are unpredictable.



I can recognise a cause and an effect

Recognising cause and effect means correctly choosing from a list of possibilities. For example, which of these is most likely to have been a cause of migration to Australia in the 1970s?

- A** Refugees were fleeing World War II.
- B** Australia seemed like a place with great weather.
- C** There was really high population growth in other countries.
- D** Australia offered people free passage and citizenship to migrate to Australia.
- E** Refugees were fleeing the Vietnam War.



I can determine causes and effects

The cause is unlikely to be option A because World War II ended in 1945, and it would be surprising that refugees waited 30 years to leave Europe. Option B seems unlikely because Australia's weather did not change much in the 20th century, so why would its weather be a particular draw card in the 1970s? Option C might be true, but Australia also had a high population growth in the same time period. Option D is, in fact, not true. A similar policy was enacted after World War II (known as 'Ten-pound Poms'), but not in the 1970s. Option E is the correct cause, as the Vietnam War ended in 1975, and this meant there were many displaced people wanting to migrate to other countries.

For events to be causally linked:

- one event must come before the other
- you must be able to tell a believable story about why one event caused the other
- if possible, you should have some historical evidence that one event caused the other.

There is not necessarily a right or wrong answer, but there are better or worse answers. Better answers use more historical evidence, and have reasoning that is more logical.

Determining cause and effect means deciding what the cause or effect of something might be. Knowledge of the period will help with this.

Examples of historical causes include:

- conditions:
 - social
 - cultural
 - political
 - environmental
 - economic.
- actors:
 - individuals
 - groups.

If you suspect that two things are linked, see if one of the above items is the cause.

Type of cause	Example cause	Example effect
Social conditions	Huge disruption, famine and economic decline in Europe in the aftermath of World War II	Mass migration of Europeans to other parts of the world, such as Australia
Political conditions	Lack of desire by European powers to stand up to Hitler when he rearmed	German aggression at the start of World War II; e.g., the attack on Poland, where Hitler assumed no-one would stand up to him
Economic conditions	Stock market crash of 1929 (among other things)	The Great Depression of the 1930s
Cultural conditions	Cultural production from the USA is by far the highest in the world	Australia takes on a lot of US culture, such as music, film and fashion
Environmental conditions	Rise in average temperature	UN sets up the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in response to human-induced climate change
Individual actor	Eddie Mabo takes the government to court over land rights	Mabo court case decision, leading to the establishment of Native Title
Group actor	Students from the University of Sydney, led by an Arrernte man, Charles Perkins, go on a bus tour around rural NSW to highlight racial injustice and prejudice	Racial inequality and injustice become more widely known about in Australia



I can explain causes and effects

Explaining cause and effect involves stating *how* or *why* a cause led to an effect.

Cause	Effect	Explaining how the cause led to the effect
The Treaty of Versailles' 'war guilt clause'	Germans felt hard done by, they felt they were forced to take all the blame for the war	After World War I, the victorious powers forced Germany to sign the Treaty of Versailles. Being forced to sign a peace treaty angered some Germans. Even worse was the fact that they had to accept blame for the entire conflict, even though many nations were to blame. Germans did not believe it was fair that all the fault for the conflict be attributed to them, which made many feel bitter. This went some way towards making Germans want revenge for their treatment after the war.
Eddie Mabo took the Queensland government to court claiming he had native rights to the land	The <i>Native Title Act (1993)</i> was passed, giving Indigenous people traditional use of their land	Eddie Mabo believed that his people owned the land they lived on. According to Australian law, the doctrine of <i>terra nullius</i> existed, meaning that the land of Australia belonged to no-one before settlers arrived. When the High Court of Australia found that Mabo did have traditional rights to his land, this struck down the legal precedent of <i>terra nullius</i> . This left a lot of confusion as to what would be considered native title, so the government passed the <i>Native Title Act</i> in 1993. This law set up a tribunal that could make decisions about what land was considered to have Native Title status.



I can analyse causes and effects

Analysing means the ability to break down something into its parts. If you can identify these 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 something down into its parts. For example, what caused the rise of the environmental movement in the 1980s?

We can break the cause into four parts:

- 1 Concern about nuclear waste after bombs were tested in the Pacific and nuclear power accidents in the USA at Three Mile Island and in Ukraine at Chernobyl
- 2 Fears over oil spills that had occurred around the world in the 1970s, such as Ixtoc I, and in the 1980s, such as *Exxon Valdez*
- 3 Growing scientific evidence of threats to the environment from issues such as climate change and exponential human population growth
- 4 The actions of environmental activists from the 20th century such as Rachel Carson, David Attenborough, James Lovelock and Gaylord Nelson.

Breaking down the cause is the first part of the analysis. Now we can try to explain how these combined causes would have led to the the rise of the environmental movement in the 1980s. For example:

The 1980s saw major growth in the environmental movement, due to a number of events and developments. Concerns over the use of nuclear energy and the transportation of oil around the world in large quantities came to a head around this time, as many high profile accidents occurred, such as the Chernobyl disaster in 1986 and the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill in 1989. It was not just these infamous incidents, but also a growing body of scientific research suggesting that human activity was causing damage to the environment, particularly in heating up the planet and overpopulation. Significant individuals who played a part in the rise of the movement included scientists such as Rachel Carson (who highlighted the damage caused by pesticides), politicians such as Gaylord Nelson (who organised the first 'Earth Day') and media stars such as Sir David Attenborough. Environmentalism became much more widespread because of these notorious events, long-term developments, and noteworthy individuals.

Here we have linked all four causes together.



Another way to analyse cause and effect is to look at how strong the causal link is. Causes can have different strengths.

Small causal link

Large causal link



Gradual, minor, almost no part, short-lived, partly, partial, to some extent, small extent

Radical, powerfully, significant, important, to a great extent, considerable, main, crucial

Once you have decided how strong a cause was, here are some words you can use to describe it.

- If something had only a minor effect you could say:

The sunny weather may have had some minor influence over the decision of migrants to move to Australia after World War II.

- If something had a major effect you could say:

American influence played a major part in the development of Australian popular culture in the 20th century.

I can evaluate causes and effects

Evaluation is a higher-order thinking skill. Evaluation can involve:

- assessing whether a theory or belief is true or not; for example, some historians think the Treaty of Versailles was one of the most important reasons for World War II. Is this true?
- comparing different ideas; for example, which is a more important effect of the Great Depression: instability in Europe or the rise of homelessness in the USA?
- judging between different things; for example, some people think European dominance ended after World War I, others think it ended after World War II, while others still don't think European dominance has ended. Who is right?
- asking, 'So what?'. Were the causes or effects good or bad, or perhaps a bit of both? A historian may include both positives and negatives to form a balanced view.



Source 6

Flags fly outside the European Parliament building. Has European dominance ended? If so, when did this process begin?

Historical significance

How do we decide what is important to learn about from the past? How do we decide which events or time periods have **historical significance**?

We can use a model or theory to help us decide. A useful model is Geoffrey Partington's model of significance.

Partington's model states that you can determine historical significance by asking:

- 1 Importance: How important was it to people living at the time?
- 2 Depth: How deeply were people's lives affected?
- 3 Number: How many people were affected?
- 4 Time: For how long were they affected?
- 5 Relevance: How relevant is it to the present?

The table below shows an example using Partington's model of significance.

Source 7

UN peacekeepers – their distinctive blue helmets are interesting, but not particularly historically significant.



The implementation of the Native Title Act in Australia

Importance	It was vitally important to the people of Mer Island, and to First Nations people in Australia, as well as being important to Australians more generally.
Depth	First Nations peoples' connection to Country is paramount, so having their connection upheld in law would have had a deep impact.
Number	This affected all First Nations peoples, whose population, according to the 1991 census, was about 265 000. It also affected those who lived on lands that were subject to native title claims.
Time	The effects of Native Title are ongoing. The law was passed in 1993 and continues to have influence today.
Relevance	It is very relevant today. There has been a recent awakening to the historical injustice done to First Nations peoples, particularly with regards to dispossession of land. Indeed, the NAIDOC Week 2020 theme was 'Always Was, Always Will Be', meaning Australia always did and always will belong to its First Nations peoples.



I can recognise historical significance

Recognising historical significance means looking at a list of events or developments and deciding how important they are. (Significant means important; something worth noting.)

You should have some way of determining significance. You might ask: 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? The more you answer 'Yes' to these questions, the more significant the event was.

Historical significance is not a black and white issue, as it can be shown on a significance scale like the one above.



I can explain historical significance

Explaining historical significance means asking *how* or *why* something is important.

Here are some examples of significant and less significant events, based on Partington's model.

	More significant	Less significant
Importance	The Great Depression was extremely significant historically because it affected many parts of the world, and sowed the seeds for Fascism in Europe, which led to World War II.	The Australian currency (notes) was changed to plastic beginning in 1988. This made the notes more durable but did not really have a major impact on the people living at the time, as the currency itself and its use did not change.
Depth	Few events affected people more deeply at the time than World War II. This caused mass death and destruction across the world.	The change from black and white to colour television in Australia in 1975 did not affect people deeply and so cannot be considered particularly historically important. It merely changed the look of television shows.
Number	The rise of global trade has been very significant, as it has affected workers right across the globe. Countries rich and poor now all work to produce goods and services to be sold in the international market.	The 1940 murder of Russian revolutionary Leon Trotsky in Mexico was a tragedy but not that historically significant. By 1940, Stalin had expelled Trotsky from the Communist Party in the USSR and Trotsky had fled to Mexico. He had little influence at this point and, while his death was a dark day for human freedom, it did not affect a large number of people. It mostly affected just those close to Trotsky himself.
Time	The improvement in human rights for minorities in the USA began in earnest in the 1960s and has continued to this day. Minorities have been affected by this fight for rights for the past 60 years.	The landing on the Moon did not have long-term significance. People only continued going to the Moon for three years after the first moon landing in 1969. Humans have not been back in person since.
Relevance	The development of a military alliance between Australia and the USA, particularly during and after World War II, is highly significant to the present time. Australia's foreign policy is in many ways dominated by the relationship Australia has with its much more powerful ally.	The death of American President Franklin Roosevelt is not that relevant to the present as he was succeeded by another president who continued on with similar policies.



I can analyse historical significance

Analysing means the ability to break down something into its parts. If you can identify these 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.

In the next paragraph, we will analyse the significance of the Montgomery bus boycott. Our breakdown of the topic provides us with three main points, not just one, and we can make a claim as to how each contributes to significance.

Key:

Main point

Claim

Evidence backing up claim

Summary statement

The bus boycott in Montgomery, USA, was historically significant because it helped ignite the civil rights movement and saw Martin Luther King Jr rise to prominence. The Montgomery bus boycott helped to start the civil rights movement in the USA. The boycott led to a Supreme Court decision outlawing segregation of buses in Alabama. The ruling said the practice went against the constitution, opening up other legal challenges. The boycott was also significant because it saw the rise of Martin Luther King Jr, a vital civil rights activist. After the event, King became president of an activist group, helping to organise struggles across the South, leading to the 1963 March on Washington where he delivered his 'I Have a dream' speech. Finally, the events in Montgomery in 1955–56 were crucial because they showed groups outside of the US who were fighting for civil rights that change was possible. The event inspired Australian campaigners to continue and intensify their First Nations activism in the 1960s. Thus, for at least these three reasons, the boycott in Montgomery was a crucial moment in world history, helping to initiate civil rights improvements for minorities across the globe.

Source 8

◀ A statue of Rosa Parks, commemorating her protest against racial segregation on public transport in Montgomery, Alabama.

Good explanations of historical significance will discuss more than one of these elements.

Partington's model of significance is just an aid to your thinking. There are other things that could explain whether a historical event was significant. For example, a person might be important if they changed other people's ideas, or provided a good or bad example of how to live. An event might be important if it reveals underlying themes or patterns in history.



I can apply a theory of significance

Applying Partington's theory would mean looking at a set of events and ranking them against his criteria. When applying his theory, use phrases such as those in the table below.

Importance	Issue A was more significant than Issue B because it was more important to people <i>at the time</i> .
Depth	Issue A is more important in history, because it affected people more <i>deeply</i> at the time than Issue B did.
Number	Issue A deserves the status of historical importance more than Issue B. Put simply, it affected more people.
Time	Issue B has been shown to be less important historically than Issue A because it didn't last as long.
Relevance	Issue A is a more significant event than Issue B because it is still relevant to the present. It helps us to understand the modern world, whereas Issue B doesn't help as much.





I can evaluate historical significance

Evaluating historical significance could include:

- questioning Partington's model of significance:
 - Perhaps the model suggests that Event A is more important than Event B, but you don't agree. Evaluating would involve you explaining why you think the model of significance doesn't give the right result in this instance.
- Maybe you think some of the questions about significance are more important than others. Perhaps you think that relevance to today is more important than how significant it was to people at the time.
- making a judgement call about the worth of important events:
 - Were these events 'good' or 'bad' in some way? When making an evaluation like this, make sure you define what 'good' or 'bad' means in this context.

Questioning the model of significance

The environmental movement is considered historically significant because, as one model of historical significance would argue, it affects every person on Earth.

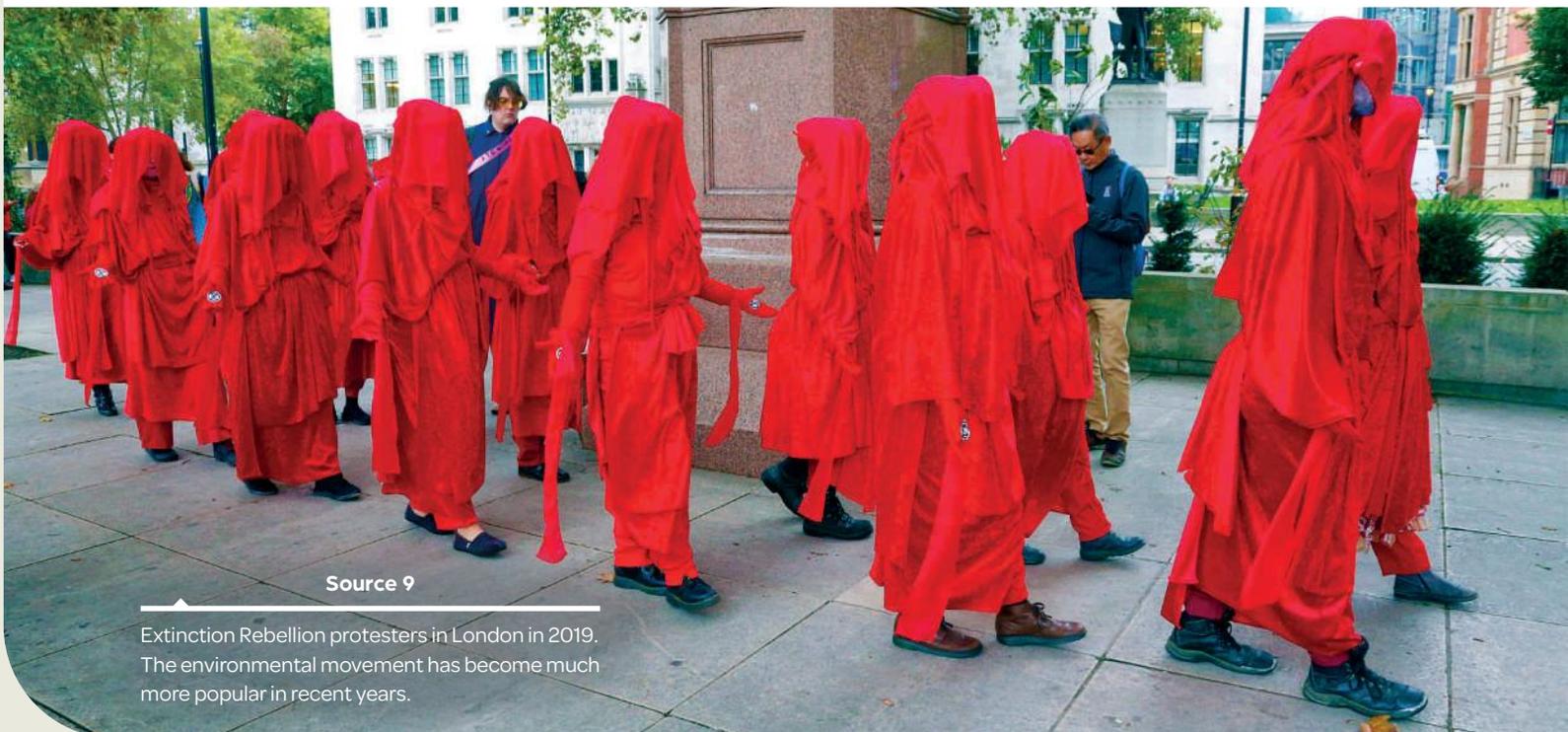
However, considering that many people do not pay much attention to the environment, and many countries do not take protection of the environment very seriously, is it really that significant? Just because environmental degradation may harm everyone one day, does it mean that the movement is *currently* significant?

A good model of significance needs to assess *how* people are affected and to what degree, not just that they are affected in some vague way that is not clearly laid out.

Judging the worth of an important event

The large number of migrants who moved to Australia after the end of World War II represent a very significant event in Australian history.

We could go further and say that this was an overwhelmingly positive development for Australia. European migrants who came to Australia brought with them their culture, ideas and skills. These migrants were hardworking and set up many small businesses in Australia upon arrival. As they were already educated, they provided a benefit to the local economy without incurring many costs.



Source 9

Extinction Rebellion protesters in London in 2019. The environmental movement has become much more popular in recent years.

Historical interpretations

The way we understand history is always changing. People take sources about the past and make meaning out of them, creating 'history' as opposed to 'facts'. *Interpreting* means to explain the meaning of information; different people will look at the same facts and interpret them differently. Studying **historical interpretations** is called **historiography**.

So why do people have different views? Some possible reasons include:

- they might have different political or economic views, such as favouring communism or capitalism
- as time passes, society changes, so people's view of the past changes too. For instance, racism is unacceptable now but was common 100 years ago
- new information may have been found
- historians might have different biases or emphases.

There are often debates between historians about the historiography of different events from the past.

When fans describe the game to others later, they will 'represent' it in different ways – the same facts, but different interpretations.

For example, one view of the 1920s in the USA was that it was a period of great cultural production, with new dance performances and musical styles on show. Another is that it was a time of cultural decline, when debauched youth drank too much and acted inappropriately. The same facts about 1920s culture in the USA have been represented in different ways: one positive, one negative.

Source 10

A 1925 photo of students applying to the Paramount Motion Picture School, most dressed in the bathing suit fashion of the times



I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

Recognising that the past has been represented in different ways involves understanding the difference between:

- historical facts (things that we know from evidence have actually happened)
- historical interpretations (when we study and interpret these facts).

Different people interpret the same facts in different ways. When a sports team wins, its fans may think the game demonstrated their team's great skill. The losing team's fans might think the game featured incorrect refereeing, bad luck or unhelpful weather.



I can describe historical interpretations

Describing historical interpretations is difficult because you have to recognise and then describe them, not just notice them.

Once you have recognised one or more historical interpretations, you must then write descriptive sentences. Description involves writing at length, not just listing things or using dot points. It is also a good idea to use evidence from the interpretation to support your description.

For example, consider the **appeasement** of Hitler in the lead-up to World War II. There are different historical interpretations of how various European leaders dealt with Hitler's aggression in the 1930s. Some thought that leaders, weary from a world war just years before, should try to appease Hitler and avoid armed conflict. Others had a different view, believing that Hitler's aggression could only be met with force.

The Rt. Hon. Neville Chamberlain

Dear Sir,

I have listened to your broadcast speech with gratitude. But, while I am sure you have the cause of Peace and Justice at heart, I cannot agree that an attempt at world domination can for long be defeated by war, any more than the Czechs can be saved by it. The present situation, the outcome of the last war, proves that up to the hilt.

I therefore appeal to you to make every concession rather than plunge us into war, for war will inevitably cost more than any concession and will as little achieve its objective as the war of 1914–18.

The German people do not want to dominate their neighbours, whatever their leaders may wish. Continued appeals to them, as by the excellent broadcasts in German and Italian tonight, may yet cause them to disown those leaders. I know Germany well and have good grounds for believing so.

Here is how this historical interpretation could be described:

This interpretation of Chamberlain's approach to Hitler is negative. He believes that the Prime Minister should avoid war with Hitler at any cost, and that a different approach should be taken. He states that ordinary Germans do not want war, and that Chamberlain should appeal to them directly. Bayliss seems to be suggesting that it is the war-hungry nature of leaders that will bring about another war, not the views of everyday people.



I can explain historical interpretations

Explanations require you to answer the questions 'Why?' or 'How?'. When explaining historical interpretations, you need to do one or more of these things:

- explain *why* what someone has written is a way of interpreting historical facts, not just them listing those facts
- explain *why* a person interprets history in that way by referring to their political views, upbringing, biases or the new evidence they have access to
- explain *how* a person has interpreted historical facts.

Consider the settlement of Australia by colonists from Europe. Some interpret this history as positive and some as negative (indeed, some would object to the word settlement and replace it with invasion). Source 12 contains one interpretation of the settlement of Australia.

Source 11

A letter from Scott Bayliss, a private citizen, to then UK Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain, asking him to appease Hitler



This is the story of Australia: the unresolved question of who truly owns this land. The historian Stuart Macintyre says our story is the story of ‘a sleeping land finally brought to life’. To the British of the 18th and 19th Centuries it was a white story. They named the great cities of this new country – Sydney, Melbourne, Perth, Hobart – after British politicians. Adelaide is named after a queen and Brisbane after a governor.

[...]

Each Australia Day – January 26 – commemorates the arrival of the First Fleet from Britain. The day the foreigners came to stay. I feel the bones of my ancestors – black and white – buried in this land, and wonder if they can ever truly be at peace. Our history lives in me. My Irish ancestor came on one of the convict ships, and my Indigenous ancestors stood on the shore. I am born between the ship and the shore: it is the space where I become an Australian even though we are still not sure what being an Australian truly means.’

Source 12

Extract from Stan Grant’s speech, ‘Australia is a Country Best Seen from Above’

This historical interpretation could be explained like this:

Stan Grant is a journalist, author and a Wiradjuri man. Due to his ethnicity, he is likely to take a view that focuses on the perspectives of the First Nations peoples of Australia. As a First Nations person himself, he has experience with what it feels like to know his ancestors lost culture, land and lives when European colonists arrived in Australia.

As a journalist, he is knowledgeable about the history of the time. As someone of European and Indigenous ethnic background, he is torn between his ancestral lines, which are in conflict. He highlights the activities and experiences of both groups, but as someone with a keen eye for justice, he seems to imply in this interpretation that First Nations people were harmed by European colonists.

I can analyse historical interpretations

Analysing is breaking something into its parts and explaining how they are linked or make up the whole. If you can explain the rules that show how these parts are organised, you are analysing.

When analysing historical interpretations, you could break down the different reasons the writer decided to interpret the facts in that way or the different parts or aspects of the interpretation. Or we could do a combination of the two.

The first step is always to break the interpretation down into its parts. For example, globalisation can be considered a positive or a negative phenomenon, particularly in recent history. Source 13 shows one interpretation.

In the heyday of the globalisation consensus, few economists questioned its merits in public. But in 1997 ... economist Dani Rodrik published a slim book that created a stir. ...

Rodrik pointed to ... events that challenged the idea that growing free trade would be peacefully accepted. In 1995, France had adopted a program of fiscal austerity in order to prepare for entry into the eurozone; trade unions responded with the largest wave of strikes since 1968. In 1996, only five years after the end of the Soviet Union – with Russia’s once-protected markets having been forcibly opened ... a communist won 40 per cent of the vote in Russia’s presidential elections.

That same year, two years after the passing of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), one of the most ambitious multinational deals ever accomplished, a white nationalist running on an “America first” program of economic protectionism did surprisingly well in the presidential primaries of the Republican party.’

Source 13

Article about globalisation by Nikil Saval in the *Guardian* newspaper, 14 July 2017

Here is how you could analyse this historical interpretation:

This piece questions the typical belief that globalisation is overwhelmingly positive. As stated in the first part, it was ‘consensus’ that globalisation was a good thing, and not many academics questioned it. Then, the article refers to a book that queries globalisation.

The book mentions a number of events that have taken place since the mid-1990s that question whether globalisation is a positive thing: union strikes in France, a communist resurgence in Russia, and an anti-globalist US Republican party candidate all highlighted problems with the globalisation agenda.

Saval refers to an academic, Dani Rodrik, who has brought these threads together. The reason these events challenge globalisation is because globalisation was supposed to be beneficial to workers (so why would French people strike?), favourable to capitalism (so why would communists re-emerge?) and promote economic openness (so why would a protectionist win votes?).

Source 14

Advertising hoarding for Coca-Cola on a roof-top in Tbilisi, Georgia. Globalisation has brought benefits, but have they been equally shared?



step
5

I can evaluate historical interpretations

Evaluation is a higher-order thinking skill. Evaluation can include:

- assessing whether a theory or belief is true or not. Some historians think communism failed because it took hold in a non-industrialised nation. Is this true?
- comparing different ideas. Which was the more significant factor in the improvement in the rights of women – female activists campaigning or softening attitudes from powerful men?
- judging between different things. Some historians think Australia’s contribution in World War II didn’t have much impact, while others think Australia’s support was vital. Who is right?
- asking ‘So what?’. Were the causes or effects good or bad, or perhaps both? A historian may include both positives and negatives to form a balanced view.

Situation	Positive thing	Negative thing	Balanced view
Globalisation	It has increased trade around the world, bringing higher employment levels and cheaper goods.	It has contributed to the destruction of the environment. It has also added to wealth inequality between people and countries.	Globalisation has many facets. On the one hand, it has increased trade and employment, and allowed more people to buy cheap imported goods. On the other hand, its effects have harmed the environment, and its benefits have not been equally shared. On balance, one would have to say there is only limited evidence that globalisation is a force for good.
The environmental movement	It has highlighted real problems the planet faces. It has broad support and grass-roots origins.	It can get in the way of economic development. Some argue it offers unrealistic solutions.	Environmentalism has put a spotlight on real issues concerning the degradation of the planet, in a way that has gained a lot of popular support. However, some of its recommendations are unrealistic and are not persuasive to those in politics or business, weakening its effects. Overall, the environmental movement has lofty and ethical aims, but its methods for achieving action could be improved.

Historical writing



I can identify the writing purpose

If you are given a writing task, it will usually involve certain ‘task words’, such as *analyse*, *argue* and *compare*. These task words are explained below.

- *analyse*: look at the features of something, showing the relationships between the parts, how they’re related and why they’re important
- *argue*: make a case for or against something
- *compare*: discuss two things, emphasising what is the same and what is different between them
- *contrast*: discuss two things, emphasising what is different between them
- *describe*: write a detailed description of something, showing what something looks like, what it is for and how it works, without judgement
- *discuss*: write about something, talking about the arguments for and against an issue. Provide a balanced description, but make a judgement at the end
- *evaluate*: make a judgment about something, but back it up with lots of evidence
- *explain*: answer the question ‘Why?’ about something. Go into detail about the reasons for it, causes of it and effects of it
- *justify*: provide reasons why a decision was or should be made, or why a conclusion was reached
- *summarise*: briefly state the main points. Leave out the details.

After you know our purpose, figure out:

- *what kind of information you need to gather*. This relates to Stage 2 of the history-writing process: gathering information. Gather the right kind of information – but avoid gathering lots of irrelevant material
- *how that information should be organised*. You will eventually need to write up any information you have gathered. How you do that – and what structure your writing takes – should be determined by the purpose of the writing.

Here is an example history-writing question, and how it can be tackled: ‘Discuss how important the Australian defence of the Kokoda Track was to the Pacific campaign in World War II’.

This is a ‘discuss’ type question, so it is asking us to write about the topic, discussing arguments for and against it. You should also make a judgement.

Information needed to answer the question:

- details about the Australian defence of the Kokoda Track in Papua New Guinea (PNG)
- details about other military campaigns in the Pacific (so you can compare the Track’s significance with them).

How should that information be organised? A graphic organiser like the one on the next page is a great way to structure your note-taking. You can see it would be quite easy to turn this into an essay plan.

	General information	Evidence about Australia's defence of the Kokoda Track	Evidence about other military campaigns in the Pacific
Suggests Kokoda defence was important	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ PNG lies between Southeast Asia and Australia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Japan wanted to capture Port Moresby ○ Japan wanted to isolate Australia from the US ○ Japan wanted to attack Australia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ None from sources used
Suggests Kokoda defence was not that important compared to other campaigns	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ PNG is a small island nation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ About 7000 deaths on both sides ○ Malaria caused some of the deaths ○ US commander criticised Australian forces 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Japan retreated from Kokoda to focus on Guadalcanal ○ Japan lost 400 000 lives in the Philippines ○ Japan lost 70 000 soldiers and 100–150 000 civilians in Okinawa battles



I can gather information

Good history writing involves providing lots of evidence. The more *relevant* information you use, the better. Relevant means the information is closely connected to what is being studied.

Gathering information will involve taking notes from historical sources. For most school projects, you are likely to rely on secondary sources. Secondary sources provide a wide range of easily accessible information. Textbooks and reference books are easy to obtain, relatively cheap, easy to read and contain pictures, facts, explanations and examples.

Follow these steps when taking notes for your history writing:

- 1 Purpose: *why* am I taking notes?
- 2 Organise: use a graphic organiser or codes
- 3 Skim-read the source. This is so:
 - you can look for topics, headings and so on
 - you *don't* have to read the entire source.
- 4 Find the *most* important information *for your purpose*:
 - rewrite it in your own words
 - write as briefly as possible
 - include keywords, and definitions of any words you don't know.



I can organise information

Two ways to organise your information are to use a graphic organiser or use codes.

A *graphic organiser* is best for when you know in advance the kind of information you will be

taking notes about and when the question you are answering has obvious parts to it that you can divide information into; for example, for and against.

Using codes is a different process. It involves taking notes, then reading through those notes to see what patterns, themes or categories emerge.

You then make up a code for each pattern, theme or category; for example, 'W' for *war*; 'I' for *individual*; 'WWII' for *World War II*.

Next, go through your notes and write the code beside each point, then rewrite your notes in the code categories. This is much easier if you have taken notes electronically, because you can change their order without having to rewrite them. Finally, use your notes in their coded categories to form the basis of your essay structure.

With either of these methods, don't forget to ask yourself which notes you should *not* use. You will always take notes that you thought were important but later realise don't actually matter. Get rid of them. Remember: the final written piece is what is most important, not your notes. Don't worry that you spent time writing those notes in the first place, only your final piece of writing matters. Next time, try to take fewer irrelevant notes.

On the next page, you can see an example of the process, with all the steps from note-taking to organising your notes using the graphic organiser method.

Essay question: 'What caused World War II?'

1 Original notes

- Britain had a lot of allies in its 'Commonwealth'
- Germany did not have a very big army because of the Treaty of Versailles
- Hitler hated Communism
- Hitler rebuilt the army in the 1930s
- Hitler was a persuasive speaker
- Hyperinflation in Germany
- Japan was very aggressive
- Japan attacked China in the 1930s
- League of Nations was not powerful enough to enforce peace
- The Americans were isolationist in World War I and wanted to be again in World War II
- The rest of Europe would do anything to avoid another war
- There was a worldwide depression in the 1930s
- Treaty of Versailles blamed Germany

2 Notes not needed:

- Britain had a lot of allies in its 'Commonwealth'
- The Americans were isolationist in World War I and wanted to be again in World War II

3 Put into a graphic organiser, the notes look like this:

Activity in Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Hitler hated communism○ Hitler rebuilt the army in the 1930s○ Hitler was a persuasive speaker○ Hyperinflation in Germany
Treaty of Versailles	<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Treaty of Versailles blamed Germany
Activity in Japan	<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Japan was very aggressive○ Japan attacked China in the 1930s
Inability to act against aggressors	<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ League of Nations was not powerful enough to enforce peace○ The rest of Europe would do anything to avoid another war○ There was a worldwide depression in the 1930s

4 You could then put your notes into paragraphs. The following example discusses the activity in Germany.

Activity in Germany was arguably the major cause of World War II. Germany was suffering from a depression as well as hyperinflation, which made desperate people more likely to turn towards a strong leader or dictator.

This new leader was Hitler, who was a persuasive speaker. He used the 'guilt clause' of the Treaty of Versailles to rally Germans to his cause, which was anti-Communist, racist and nationalist. He ignored the restrictions of the Treaty of Versailles and began to rebuild German military power in the 1930s, eventually leading to Germany's invasion of Poland in 1939.



I can structure a piece of writing

History essays should have an introduction, several body paragraphs and a conclusion.

When you are starting out writing essays, a paragraph structure that is easy to learn is **TEEL**. TEEL is an acronym for:

- **T**opic sentence
- **E**vidence
- **E**xplanation
- **L**ink.

These words are explained below. Every paragraph should have TEEL.

Introduction

The introduction should:

- show you understand what the question is asking
- say your overall response to the question
- introduce your main points.

Paragraphs using TEEL

Paragraphs using TEEL should include:

- Topic sentence: one sentence that summarises the whole paragraph
- Evidence: use *specific* examples, not general examples
- Explanation: how evidence supports your claim
- Link: at the end of the whole paragraph, link the paragraph back to the main question.

Conclusion

In your conclusion, make sure to:

- summarise your main points
- restate your response to the question.



step
5

I can write a draft

Drafting tips

- Focus on answering the question; don't just write everything you know about the subject.
- Don't worry about making mistakes when drafting – you will fix these later.
- Don't worry too much about punctuation, grammar or spelling when drafting.
- Start with the paragraphs. Draft the introduction and conclusion last.
- If you can, use a computer, as it makes it easier to edit and proofread your work later.
- Write the first draft quickly. Then edit and proofread slowly.

Sentence starters

Here are some sentence starters for introductions:

- This essay will discuss ...
- This essay will focus on ...
- The issue being focused on is ...

Other words you could use in sentence starters in place of *focused* are:

- described
- analysed
- evaluated
- explained
- explored
- justified
- outlined.

For conclusions, some starters include:

- In conclusion, ...
- In summary, ...
- It has been shown/demonstrated that ...
- Therefore/Thus/Hence, ...
- To summarise, ...

For comparing within your answer (when things are the same):

- By comparison, ...
- In the same way, ...
- Likewise, ...
- Similarly, ...

For comparing (when things are different):

- However, ...
- In contrast, ...
- On the other hand, ...
- Then again, ...

For adding more:

- Additionally, ...
- Also, ...
- First, ... Second, ... Third, ... Finally, ...
- Furthermore, ...
- In addition, ...
- Moreover, ...

For giving examples:

- For example, ...
- For instance, ...
- An illustration of this is ...
- As an example, ...
- ... such as ...

For showing effects:

- As a result, ...
- For this reason ...
- It can be seen that ...
- The evidence suggests ...
- The result of this is that ...
- These factors contribute to ...

Different ways to say 'caused':

- resulted in
- created
- lead to
- determined
- is attributed to
- meant that
- is dependent on
- forced
- made.



I can edit and proofread

The point of writing is to communicate – using words to pass ideas from you to another person. So, keep your writing clear and simple.

Editing means checking for meaning, to make sure your text answers the question and meets the task requirements. For example, does your writing need a bibliography? Does it need labelled pictures? Proofreading means checking the grammar, spelling and punctuation of your work. Always edit first, then proofread.

Editing tips

- Always use headings, unless told otherwise.
- Delete any words, sentences or paragraphs that do not help the piece of writing overall.
- Check what you have written against the requirements of the task. Ask yourself:
 - does my writing answer the question asked?
 - is it clear that I have done the full task?
 - is there an assessment schedule or rubric my writing will be marked against? Mark yourself against these criteria. Is there time to improve at least one aspect of what you have written?
- What is your worst paragraph? Why? What would it take to make it your best paragraph?

Proofreading tips

Proofreading is going back over your finished work and looking for errors.

- Don't try to fix every problem at once. Pick one thing to correct each time you proofread. For example, first look at spelling, then look at punctuation, then look at confused words, then look at making your vocabulary more interesting.
- Read your work aloud. Even better, record it, then play it back to yourself a bit later.
- Ask someone else to read your work aloud.
- Read sentences backwards to check for mistakes. This will help you pick up more errors.
- If you know you are not a great speller, don't trust your instincts. Check words you are unsure about in the dictionary.

- Spellcheckers are not perfect. A word can be spelled correctly but still be the wrong word, so don't rely on a spellchecker!
- Read a printed copy of your work, rather than reading on screen.

Common errors

Following is a list of common errors:

- only use apostrophes for shortening words and for ownership, not for plurals
- write short sentences, preferably less than 25 words
- only use capital letters at the start of sentences and for proper nouns
- confusing 'your' and 'you're'
- confusing 'there', 'their' and 'they're'
- writing informally: don't use 'I' (unless told to), '&', 'etc.', 'e.g.', 'i.e.', 'wanna', 'heaps', 'stuff'
- could of / would of / should of are incorrect; replace with could have / would have / should have
- confusing 'to', 'too' and two'
- confusing 'much/many': much = for an item that can't be counted (e.g. water), many = individual item that can be counted
- then = something happening after something else; than = comparing
- subject-verb agreement. If the subject is a plural, the verb must be too, for example 'towels *are* in the closet'
- be careful about starting a sentence with 'and', 'but' or 'because'
- a full sentence should have a subject (doer), verb (action) and an object (the thing the verb is happening to)
- use the same tense (future, present, past) in the whole text
- avoid using boring words: very, good, bad, amazing, interesting, crazy, mad, extremely
- avoid 'passive' sentences. Instead of 'The forces were commanded by General MacArthur', write 'General MacArthur commanded the forces'.

Historical research




I can define the problem

To define the subject you will research, get some background information and build up a list of keywords.

Start by reading a simple Wikipedia page about your subject.

Get keywords for your topic. Think of different ways of saying your topic, or google 'synonyms for ...' and insert your search term.



I can decide what information to find and where to find it

What type of evidence do you want?

Include these kinds of words in your search:

- facts, examples, definitions, quotes, artefacts, images, data, statistics
- primary and secondary sources
- databases, links, archives, collections, references, research, museums, journals, graphs, tables, 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 credible is the evidence?

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 *reliable*? 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.) In what way is the source biased?
- Is the source *true*? Is it backed up by other sources? Does it *sound* right? Does it fit in with other things you know?
- Does the source state where its information comes from? This means it is more likely to be credible (able to be believed).



I can find information

Online search strategies

Following are some search strategies:

- After you type in a search term, scan through the first page of results. If they are not relevant, change your search.
- 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.

Tips for searching with Google

- Every word matters.
- The order of the words matters.
- Capitalisation doesn't matter.
- Punctuation doesn't matter.
- Specific search terms are better.

A word about Wikipedia

Many people will tell you that Wikipedia is not a reliable source. A common complaint is that 'anyone can edit it'. This is misleading. Vandalism of pages on Wikipedia is rare and in almost all cases is corrected immediately. Most pages, especially those concerning important historical events and developments, are monitored by subject matter experts.

Studies show Wikipedia is at least as reliable as *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, if not more so. For very recent events, it can be the best source. The reason that it is reliable is because it provides links to other sources, states where its information comes from, and is regularly updated. It is a great starting point for online research as it provides background information and usually suggests additional sources.

- Use these capitalised terms to narrow your search: AND, OR, NOT.
- A search with 'filetype:' will find specific files. For example, 'Australian immigration filetype:ppt' will find PowerPoint files about the immigration in Australia.
- A search with 'site:' will find things *within* a website. For example: 'World War Two site: britishmuseum.org' will find WWII-related material from the British Museum website.
- Use Google's subject tabs to search by category, such as images, news and maps.
- Use a hyphen to exclude words and narrow your search. For example, adding a hyphen to the search 'Danish -pastry' will find information about Danish people and culture but exclude the term pastry, to avoid finding information on Danish pastries.
- Search for a range of numbers using two full stops between speech marks: '..'
For example:
 - '2001..2004' searches between 2001 and 2004
 - '..2004' searches before 2004
 - '2004..' searches after 2004.
- An asterisk acts as a wildcard. So, 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 to find exact text.



I can extract information

This note-taking stage is the same as Step 2 in the Historical writing section. Read that section on page 246.



I can organise and present information

This stage is very similar to Step 3 in the Historical writing section. Read that section on page 246.

Research will be presented in a number of different ways, and will usually include some history writing. History writing is generally presented as text with perhaps some supporting pictures.

You should also edit and proofread your research, just as you do with your writing. Read Step 6 from the Historical writing section on page 249.



I can evaluate information

You can improve every time you conduct research by asking yourself these questions after you finish:

- What worked? What didn't work?
- How could I work smarter next time?
- Can I apply what I've learnt to other situations?
- How could I have improved:
 - the project?
 - the way I worked on my project?
 - the way I managed my time?

Studying for exams

and tests



As you progress to the more senior levels of school, you will find that the tests and exams that you do become increasingly important. Your technique for taking tests and exams will have a huge impact on how well you do. If you have a good exam technique, you can use your content knowledge to do well. First, well before a test or exam, you need to develop good study habits.

Avoiding procrastination

Procrastination is the negative feeling that you experience before you begin doing something that you do not want to do but know you should, such as studying for a test. Note that the feeling only happens when you *think* about what you have to do. When you are actually doing it, the feeling goes away. After doing something you have put off, you feel a sense of achievement.

When approaching some work you do not want to do, avoid thinking about how you must complete the task, because this will merely increase your negative feelings. Just focus on spending some time on the task and make a start. Set yourself a timer for 5, 10 or 20 minutes. Start with a time limit that you can handle. Work your way up to 20–30 minutes to slowly build up your mental stamina. When the timer is on, completely focus on your study. Do not look at your phone, have a browser window open, or have a screen on in the background. Once the timer goes off, reward yourself with a break. You will be surprised how much you can get done in a short space of time if you focus. Good study is about quality, not quantity.

Spaced repetition

It takes time for your brain to build new connections. Cramming your revision right before an exam is not a good way to study. You need to study for short periods of time throughout the year. The great thing about this method is that you can actually study for less time overall, as long as you study regularly throughout the year and not just in the days before a test.

Spaced repetition is a cognitive theory that says we learn best when we repeatedly memorise information, but space out how often we study it. For example:

- 1 You learn new material in class (same day).
- 2 You do a few homework questions about it at home that night (same day).
- 3 Your teacher gives you a revision quiz at the end of the week (same week).
- 4 You complete a Kahoot quiz yourself or as a class revision at the end of the month (same month).
- 5 You do some of your own independent study for five minutes every few weeks (same term).
- 6 You do an hour of study in the week before the test (same semester).

This example shows six opportunities to study, spaced out over longer and longer time periods.



Sleep

Teenagers need a minimum of nine hours of sleep a night. If you are not getting this much sleep, you cannot learn properly, study properly or use your memory very well and, therefore, you won't do very well on tests. Even if you do not normally get nine hours of sleep, you definitely need to sleep well the night before a test. More sleep is better than more late-night cramming, so make sure you are well rested before a test.

Being active

Being physically active slows the inevitable loss of brain cells. Exercise is highly beneficial to brain function. Active studying is also important. A common but pointless method of studying is to vaguely re-read your study notes. Reading something does not mean you will remember it; only *trying to remember* it will tell you if you have memorised your learning. Your study needs to be *active*:

- study in different environments, then your knowledge is not tied to any one setting (e.g., your study desk)
- summarise your notes
- do practice questions and quizzes
- talk about the material with someone, or teach it to someone else (even your cat!)
- write topic headings, and try to write as many dot points about the topic as you can remember.

Before, during and after tests and exams

Before:

- try to sleep well and have a healthy breakfast
- drink water and take some with you
- relax
- arrive early
- visualise yourself finishing the test and getting a high mark.

During:

- read the whole test first
- do not do the test from start to finish, as your brain will fatigue as you do the test. Therefore, complete the questions alternating between harder and easier; for example, start with a long essay response first, then follow with multiple choice
- divide the test up into marks, and spend a proportionate amount of time depending on how much the section is worth
- always plan your longer written answers first; that is, write a short essay plan
- never leave a test early; instead, check your answers and proofread your writing
- use this multiple-choice question technique:
 - decide what you think the answer is *before* looking at the options
 - read all the options
 - if you are unsure, use a process of elimination, cross off the least likely answers and make an educated guess from the remaining options
 - sometimes more than one answer could be correct; ask yourself what is the *best* answer?

After:

- do not talk about the exam with your friends; you will just cause each other stress
- move on to studying for your next exam.

Glossary

Aboriginal Protection Boards

various state-run boards established to manage government reserves and welfare of First Nations people; in reality, the boards controlled and restricted every facet of life for First Nations people on reserves including where they lived, their access to healthcare, education, employment and even who they could marry and if they would be allowed to leave the reserve to visit family; these boards were often governed by the Protector of Aborigines who had the power to remove any First Nations child from their family regardless of whether they lived on a reserve; this was a main contributor to the Stolen Generations.

annex to include a territory within the area of a country – similar to a takeover or invasion, but usually welcomed by at least some of those in the territory that is taken over

Anschluss a word meaning 'union', refers to the joining of Austria and Germany in 1938

anti-Semitic to be hostile to or prejudiced against Jewish people

appeasement a policy of pacifying an aggressive country through negotiation in order to prevent war

armistice a formal agreement made by opposing sides to stop fighting; also known as a truce

assimilate to replace the language and culture of a non-dominant social group with those of the dominant social group

austerity in economic terms, to reduce spending or use of resources; Australia's Austerity Campaign was a World War II scheme to save resources for the war effort by recycling and reusing materials

authoritarianism a form of rule that requires strict obedience to the government

Axis the World War II alliance of Germany, Italy and Japan

baby boomers children born between 1946 and 1964, who had an outsize influence on popular culture

bias to show a preference for or a prejudice against something

bipartisan support when both of the two main political parties in a country agree on an issue or legislation

Blitzkrieg, translated as 'lightning war', means a fast, aggressive war meant to bring about a quick victory

bonded labour where a person agrees to work to pay off a debt; can often become slave labour when the debt is continually extended and the worker can never pay it off

bootlegger a gangster who smuggled alcohol

boycott to intentionally abstain from an activity, from using or buying a product, or from interacting with a person, group, state or country usually for moral, social or political reasons

cancel culture refers to the practice of withdrawing support for or publicly criticising people or companies after they have done or said something considered offensive.

casual racism where a person will make a comment or joke in an offhand manner that perpetuates racial stereotypes; can be difficult to detect and address, as often the speaker downplays or denies that what they said was racist

coalition where two or more political parties form an alliance, particularly to help form a government

Cold War a dispute between the USSR and the USA and their allies, so-called because it never became 'hot' – the superpowers rarely engaged each other in direct combat

connection to Country the deep spiritual, physical, social and cultural relationship between Indigenous Australians and the land

collectivisation where private farmland and livestock is transferred to state-owned farms

Colombo Plan an intergovernmental program created in 1951 to forge relationships between countries in Asia and the Pacific and to promote partnerships working towards social and economic development

conscription a system where eligible people (usually young men) are forced to enter the army for a certain period

counterculture an attitude or set of beliefs that differ to the societal norms of the time; often used to refer to the period of the late 1960s where attitudes of peace and love were at odds with government policies supporting the Vietnam War



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

cultural cringe the view that your own nation's culture is inferior when compared to other cultures; in the Australian context, usually inferior to US and European cultures

culture a way of life of a group of people; includes belief systems, attitudes, lifestyle choices and communication

custodianship guarding or protecting

decolonisation when a country that had conquered or colonised another country leaves that country, allowing the original inhabitants to form an independent state

demographic the statistical characteristics of human populations (such as age or income)

domino theory a US theory of the Cold War, warning against the threat of Communism; the theory was that as one country fell to Communism, its neighbours would be taken over in turn, like one toppling domino causing an entire row to fall

double dissolution when both houses of the Commonwealth are dissolved and all members of government have to stand for election

dystopia a fictional country or society that is frightening or cruel, often one that has a tyrannical ruler or a totalitarian government

emigration leaving one's own country in order to settle permanently in another

eugenics a movement focused on enhancing the genetic composition of the human race; used by the Nazis to promote ideas of 'purity' that involved murdering those deemed inferior

flapper a woman from the 1920s who wore shorter dresses or skirts and had bobbed hair

Führer a German word meaning 'leader', associated with the Nazi dictator Adolf Hitler

genocide a combination of *genos*, a Greek word for a group for whom there is a common descent and *cide* from Latin for 'murder'

Gross domestic product (GDP) a calculation of the monetary value of goods and services produced within a country at a particular time; used as a broad indicator of a specific country's economic health

guerrilla an unorthodox method of fighting where small groups of fighters use tactics such as ambushes, sabotage and raids to fight a traditional military force

historian a person who specialises in the study of history by using evidence to answer questions about the past

historiography the study of the methods of history and historical interpretations

hyperinflation refers to runaway inflation, where prices increase rapidly over a short time-scale and the purchasing power of money plummets; often caused by governments printing too much money, which reduces its value

ideology a system of ideas

inflation refers to the general increase in prices over time, and a fall in the purchasing power of money

institution an organisation, or a group, usually with a political focus

Jim Crow laws laws in the USA that enforced racial segregation; Jim Crow was not a person but a stereotypical racist caricature of an African American slave

kamikaze literally translated as 'divine wind', where Japanese pilots would deliberately crash their planes into enemy targets, killing themselves in the process

Kristallnacht the 'Night of Broken Glass', where Jewish businesses, synagogues, houses and schools were destroyed and where more than 30 000 mostly Jewish men were arrested and sent to concentration camps

Ku Klux Klan a secretive US terrorist group, who target African Americans and Jewish people, as well as many other groups; sometimes shortened to the KKK or the Klan

Lebensraum living space for the German people

liberal arts the group of subjects such as history and literature

mandate official authority to do something; in the case of a region, official authority for another country to manage that region

manifesto a written statement publicly outlining the aims and policies of an organisation, particularly political organisations

marginalised when a person or group is treated as unimportant

Molotov cocktail an open bottle of fuel with a wick; once lit, it had to be thrown quickly

moratorium protests a series of protests in the US and Australia calling for a halt to the Vietnam War

nationalism extreme loyalty to your nation-state, its people and culture; it involves promoting these interests ahead of other nations

overt racism a harmful and intentional attitude of behaviour towards an individual from a minority group, done in an obvious and public manner

paradoxically absurd, or the opposite to what one would normally think

paramilitary a description of an unofficial fighting force, run along military lines but not part of the official military

paternalistic describes the act of making decisions for other people or groups rather than letting those people have the responsibility to make their own choices

pogrom a violent riot aimed at massacring or expelling a particular ethnic or religious group, often specifically aimed at Jewish people

popular culture reflects the dominant interests and activities of ordinary people at a period in time

postgraduate studying after having completed an undergraduate degree, such as a Bachelor of Arts

primary source a source that was created or existed at the time under study, such as a book, a letter, an artefact or a building

prohibition a period between 1920 and 1933 in the USA, where the sale and purchase of alcohol was prohibited

propaganda one-sided information, ideas or images used to influence others to promote a political cause

proxies a group with the authority to represent someone else or another group; in the context of the Cold War, proxies were forces that represented the USSR and the USA in conflicts

puppet state a government appointed and directed by an outside authority, such as an invading nation; for example, the World War II Vichy government of France was appointed and directed by the Nazis

putsch an attempt to overthrow a government, also known as a coup d'état

reconciliation often thought to relate to two or more people reconciling and apologising for past wrongs. For non-tokenistic reconciliation, Australia needs to recognise, reconcile and come to terms with the wrongs, destruction, trauma and genocide committed in Australia, and which non-Indigenous people still benefit from today.

Reich a word meaning 'realm', referring to the German state

reparation to make amends for a wrong that a person or country has committed, by paying money or giving some other assistance to the person or country that has been wronged

repatriation to return a person to their own country

Romani also known as Roma, Romani people originated from South Asia and traditionally live a nomadic lifestyle. They have lived dispersed throughout Europe for centuries; similar to Jewish people, Romani have often been oppressed or discriminated against

secede to separate or formally withdraw from a group or community, often when a group wants to leave a country to form their own

secondary source a source created after the time under study, such as a textbook, a website or a documentary

selektions a Nazi term for the daily roll call where people were selected for execution

settler-colonialism a form of colonialism that involves replacing a region's Indigenous population with a new society of settlers

spaced repetition a process of repeatedly studying information over gradually longer time periods; also known as distributed practice, it helps to increase recall when learning is spaced out over time

speakeasy an illegal bar or nightclub, primarily in the USA

systemic and structural racism the systems and structures that have been created by society to support individuals and communities, which are either only accessible to some groups, or have been designed to discriminate against minority communities within society

superpower a very powerful and influential nation, used especially in reference to the USA and the former USSR

terra nullius a Latin expression translated as 'nobody's land'; a principle used in British law to justify claims that territory in Australia could be acquired by just by the state occupying it

totalitarian state where the government does not allow individual freedom; where all citizens must bow to the authority of the state

trade union an organisation that protects and promotes the rights of a specific group of workers

treaty an agreement in law and action between states

untermenschen undesirable people, or people the Nazis felt were beneath them, who could be discriminated against, exiled or executed

veto the right to object or oppose a decision

vexillum a Roman military standard or banner for a military unit

Völkisch movement a movement based on the idea of 'blood and soil' and the mythical idea of a naturally created pure German people



Index

761st Tank Battalion (an African-American battalion) 90–1



Abbott, Tony 185

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) 163

Aboriginal Protection Boards 127, 129, 134, 149, 150

Aboriginal reserves 124–5

Aboriginal Tent Embassy 19, 149, 151, 157

Aborigines Progressive Association (APA) 127

AC/DC 192

Afghanistan war 17, 173

African Americans

761st Tank Battalion 90–1

active in Civil Rights Movement 91

Black Power movement 152–5

Little Rock Nine 138–9

Martin Luther King Jr and civil rights

protests 138, 140–3, 152

murder of Emmett Till 137–8

racism towards 36, 37, 91, 120, 136–43

Rosa Parks 138, 140

troops, billeted in Australia 74

air pollution 20, 216

air travel 34

Al-Saud, King Abdulaziz 33

Albania 51

Alfonso XIII, King 53

Allied forces (WWII) 64, 65, 70, 76

liberation of Nazi concentration camps 88–90

Potsdam Declaration 76

American Civil War 136

Ancient History

VCE Unit 1 and 2 9

VCE Unit 3 and 4 10

Anderson, Michael 157

Anglo-Irish treaty 51

anti-Jewish violence 82–3

anti-Nazi youth groups 49

anti-nuclear protest 217

anti-Semitism 42, 82, 83, 85

ANZUS treaty 81

Arabs-Jews peace agreement 32

Armenians, treatment by Ottomans 30–1

arms race 16

Aryanisation 41, 92, 95, 104

Asia, Roaring Twenties 35

Asian migrants 182, 184

Asia-Pacific

impact of naval warfare 64, 69

war in 15, 64–7, 69–70, 74–5, 76–9

Asperger, Hans 104, 105

assimilation policies

First Nations peoples 150, 156, 165, 166

immigrants 204

asylum seekers 185, 210, 213, 214, 215

Atatürk, President 30

atomic weapons

bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki 15, 77

development 76–7

Auschwitz-Birkenau concentration camp

88, 96, 100, 106, 108, 112

Block 10 – hideous experiments on inmates 101

Australia

ANZUS treaty 81

baby boomers 190

can no longer rely on Britain 73, 81

car manufacturing 34

civil rights movements *see* civil rights

movements in Australia

conscription 68, 196, 197

detention of foreign nationals, WWII 74–5

fears at fall of Singapore 67, 69, 73, 81

fears of Japanese in New Guinea 67

food and beverages 186–9

foreign policy change during and after WWII 91

as founding member-state of UN 123, 210

global influences shaping Australia in the 20th century 172–5

Great Depression 38

on the home front (WWI and WWII) 29, 72–5

household net disposable income 176

immigration policies 178, 182–5, 199, 213, 214

impact of technology 193

Japanese attacks on 68, 72, 73

looks to USA for support, WWII 73, 74, 81, 186

manpower control and restrictions 74

migrants impact on 178–81

multiculturalism 18, 201, 204–5, 213

music 187, 190–2

popular culture 186–93

prisoners-of-war camps 75

public opinion towards immigration 212–15

racism 130, 144–7

Roaring Twenties 34

television 192–3

Vietnam War impact on 196–9

withdraws troops from Europe 81

women's role, WWII 75

and World War I 212

and World War II 68–75, 186–9, 212

see also First Nations people

Australia Black Power movement 151

Australian 9th Infantry Division 63

Australian Aboriginal Progressive Association (AAPA) 126

Australian Aborigines League (AAL) 127, 130–1

Australian citizenship 185

Australian constitution, 1967 referendum 146–7

Australian Cultural Cringe 194

Australian Freedom Ride 18, 144–5, 149

Australian government
 environmental legislation 208, 210, 218
 and Franklin River dam project 206,
 207, 208, 210
 and international treaties 210–11
 management of repatriation of
 soldiers from Europe 28
 Whitlam government dismissal 200–3

Australian History (VCE Unit 3 and 4) 10

Australian Imperial Force (AIF) 68

Australian soldiers (WWI)
 rehabilitation after 29
 repatriation from Europe after 28–9
 scars of war 29

Australian soldiers (WWII)
 in Asia 69
 conscripts 68
 enlistment 68
 First Nations soldiers 68, 72–3, 130
 in Middle East 69
 in New Guinea 69, 70
 in North Africa 63, 69, 70
 as POWs 70–1
 in Singapore and Malaya 67, 70
 where they served 68–71
 withdrawn from Europe 81

Austria, Anschluss with Germany 15, 58

authoritarianism 14

Axis powers 36, 64, 76

B

baby boomers 190, 192

Baker, Josephine 36

Balfour Declaration 32

Barak, William 125

Barunga Statement 162

Belgium, war in 61

Bellamy, David 207

Bergen-Belsen concentration camp
 88, 89

Better Life Index 177

biased sources 3

biodiversity loss 20

biowarfare agents 57

Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement 120,
 121, 194

Black Panther Party (US) 155

Black Panther Party of Australia 156

Black Power movement in Australia 151,
 156–7

Black Power movement in the USA 152–5
 advocates use of violence in self-
 defence 155
 birth of 153

engagement with First Nations
 American rights 155
 goals 153–5
 Malcolm X's role 153
 origins 153

Black Power salute, 1968 Olympics 156

Blitzkrieg tactics 61, 62

'boat people' 181, 199, 215

bonded labour 125

bootleggers 35

Briggs, Louisa 125

'Bringing them Home Report' 160–1

British colonial rule in India, opposition
 to 54

British migrants 178, 183

British troops in Malaya and Singapore
 67, 69

Brown, Bob 206, 207, 209

Bryant, Carolyn 137, 138

Budj Bim sacred site, Victoria 164

Bund Deutscher Mädel (League of
 German Girls) 48

Burma campaign 67, 81

Burns, Ronnie 197

bus boycott, Montgomery, Alabama 138

bushfire crisis of 2019–20 174

bushfires 20

C

'calling in' 195

Calwell, Arthur 178, 184

cancel culture 194–5

capitalism 16

car manufacturing 34

carbon tax 210

Carmichael, Stokely 153, 155

Carson, Rachel, *Silent Spring* 174, 217

casual racism 121

cause and effect 3, 22, 118, 170, 233–6

Chamberlain, Neville 58, 59, 60

Chiang Kai-Shek 55

Child Wellbeing and Safety Act 2005
 (Vic) 210

China
 Australian recognition of 201
 economic prosperity 17
 internal struggles between KMT and
 Communist Party forces 55
 Japanese Army conquers northern
 China 15, 55–6
 Japanese puppet state of Manchukuo
 55
 Nanjing Massacre (Rape of Nanjing) 55
 Sino-Japanese Wars 55, 56, 65
 Chinese, fear of 212

Chinese residents 182, 183

chlorofluorocarbons 218

Churchill, Winston 58, 63, 80, 81

Citizen Military Forces (CMF) 68

civics + citizenship 146–7, 206–11

civil disobedience 140

civil rights movement in Australia
 and Black Power movement 151, 156–7
 Day of Mourning protests 127, 128–9,
 135, 148, 150
 Freedom Ride 18, 144–5, 149
 Indigenous political organisations
 126–7
 influence of US civil rights movement
 on 144–5
 international influences 126
 legacy 164–5
 origins 124–5
 reconciliation 162–3
 significant figures 148–51
 timeline 120–1
 trade unions role 132–3
 WWII impact on 130–1
see also First Nations peoples;
 land rights

civil rights movement in the USA 91,
 136–9
 and Black Power movement 152–5
 end of slavery 136
 Freedom Ride 140–1
 influence on Australia 144–5
 and Jim Crow segregation laws 126,
 136–7
 Little Rock Nine 138–9
 Martin Luther King Jr's role 138,
 140–3, 152
 murder of Emmett Till 137–8
 Rosa Parks 138
 and segregation 138–9, 140–1
 timeline 120–1

Clauberg, Carl 101

Clean Energy Act 2011 210

climate change 20, 174, 218–19

coastwatchers ('Nackaroos') 72

Coca-Cola 186–7

Coe, Paul 156

coffee culture 188

Cold Chisel 197

Cold War 16, 80, 81, 173
 impact on migration 181
 post-Cold War politics 17

Colombo Plan 172

Commonwealth Electoral Act (1962) 146

communism, fear of 42, 81, 172, 196

communist governments 16

Communist Party of China 55

conscriptio 68, 196, 197
continuity and change 3, 22, 118, 170,
230–2
Convention for the Protection of the
World Cultural and Natural Heritage 210
Convention on the Rights of the Child
(CRC) 210
Convention on the Rights of Persons with
Disabilities 123
Cooper, William 93, 111, 127, 130–1, 144
Cortese, Guido 51
counterculture 195, 197
covert racism 120
COVID-19 pandemic 174
Cowra break-out 75
Craigie, Billy 156, 157
Crusades 82
cultural cringe 194
cultural influences/changes 20
 impacting Australian society in the 20th
 century 175
 multiculturalism 18, 201, 204–5, 213
 Roaring Twenties 34–7
 WWII, affecting popular culture in what
 we consume 186–9
 see also popular culture
Curtin, John 73, 81, 186
Czech resistance 106
Czechoslovakia, taken over by Germany
15, 58, 59
Czerniaków, Adam 97

D

D-Day landings, northern France 76
Dachau concentration camp 88, 98, 99
Darwin, bombing of 72, 73
Davis, Neil 197
Day of Mourning 127, 128–9, 135, 148, 150
De Gaulle, General Charles 61
Declaration of the Rights of the Child 123
decolonisation 17
deforestation 20, 216
'democracy sausage' 189
demographic shift 17
desegregation of transportation (US)
140–1
Deutschland Ehrwache! (slogan) 43
dictation test 182, 184

digital citizenship 194–5
digital history 221
digital information 222
Directions Tree, Victoria, cut down 164
discrimination 184, 185, 195
 see also racism
Displaced Person (DP) camps 90
disposable income 176
Dolchstoßlegende 26
domino theory 196
Drexler, Anton 42
Dunkirk, France 61
Dunlop, Edward 'Weary' 70
Dutch East Indies, Japanese troops
invade 65, 67

E

East Asia, 1930s 55–7
Easter Rising, Ireland 51
Eastern Front, war on 62–3, 76
Easybeats 192
Eckart, Dietrich 43
economic influences/changes 16, 17
 impacting Australian society in the 20th
 century 173–4
 Roaring Twenties 34–7
economic performance, links to living
standards 176–7
economics + business 132–3, 176–7
Edelweiss Pirates 49
educational change, under Whitlam
government 201
Eicke, Theodore 98
Einstein, Albert 76, 86, 87
Eisenhower, President 139, 196
electrical appliances 174
emigration, Germany 92
emission trading scheme 210
Empires (VCE Unit 1 and 2) 9
'enemy aliens' 212
*Environment Protection and Biodiversity
Conservation Act 1999* 218
environmental change, under Whitlam
government 201
environmental movement 174, 217
in Australia 174, 208–9, 217, 218
environmentalism 20, 174, 216–19
espresso machines 188

Ethiopia, Italian soldiers invasion and
massacre 51
Europe
 Allies victory in 76
 Australia withdraws troops from (WWII)
 81
 Great Depression 39
 interwar years 50–3
 Normandy Landings 76
 repatriation of Australian soldiers
 from after WWI 28–9
 World War II in 15, 60–3, 68, 76
 see also Germany
European immigrants 178–9, 183
European invasions during World War II
60–3
European Union 18
Evatt, Dr Herbert 123
examinations and tests, studying for 5,
252–3

F

Faisal, Emir 32
Family Law Act 1975 (Cth) 210
fascism 14, 50, 53
fashion, Roaring Twenties 34
Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) 155
Federal Council for Aboriginal
Advancement (FCAA) 146
Ferguson, William 'Bill' 126, 127, 128, 150
First Nations American rights 155
First Nations peoples 204
 1962 right to vote 146
 1967 referendum to amend racist
 sections of the Australian
 constitution 19, 146–7, 164
Aboriginal Tent Embassy 19, 149, 151, 157
apology to 19, 161
assimilation policies 150, 156, 165, 166
and Australian Freedom Rides 144–5
and Australia's obligations under
UN Declaration on the Rights of
Indigenous People 211
Barunga Statement 162
Black Power movement 151, 156–7
centres of resistance for civil rights
134–5
Closing the Gap strategy 211
Day of Mourning 127, 128–9, 135, 148,
150
dispossession 204
fight for rights 18–19, 125, 128–9, 132–5,
144–51
and Frontier Wars 124, 156
genocide 211

- health and welfare 164–5
 Kutikina Cave artefacts, Tasmania 206
 land management strategies 174
 land rights 18, 132, 133, 157, 158–9, 164, 201
 Mabou decision 158–9
 Makarrata Commission 163
 moved onto reserves and missions 124–5
 Native Title 159
 Northern Territory Emergency Response (intervention) 165
 ongoing relationship with the land 158
 Pilbara strike 132–3
 police and justice 165, 210
 political organisations 126–7
 protest music 192
 reconciliation/reconciliation movement 18, 19, 162–3
 referendum to establish a voice to parliament 163
 significant figures in civil rights movement 148–51
 soldiers, WWII 68, 72–3, 130, 131
 Stolen Generations 19, 130, 160–1, 165, 192
 systematic removal of children from 160, 161
 and *terra nullius* 159, 204
 and trade unionists 132–3
 Uluru Statement from the Heart 163
 Wave Hill Walk-off 133
 ‘First World’ 16
 Fitzroy (Melbourne), as centre for First Nations resistance 134–5
 flappers 34
 Floyd, George 120
 Fogerty, John 197
 Foley, Gary 151, 156
 food and beverages 186–91
 foreign nationals, detention of, WWII 74–5
 fossil fuels, use of 210, 216
 France
 can no longer support its overseas territories 65
 declares war on Germany 59
 evacuation of troops from Dunkirk 61
 German troops invade via Belgium 61
 liberation of 76
 Normandy Landings (D-Day) 77
 policy of appeasement with Germany 58
 signs armistice with Germany 61
 Franco, Francisco 53
 Franklin River dam protest 206–9
 Fraser, Malcolm 202, 203
 Freedom Rides (Australia) 18, 144–5, 149
 Freedom Rides (USA) 140–1
 French Indochina, Japanese troops invade 65
 French Resistance 61
 Freud, Sigmund 86, 87
- G**
- Gaia hypothesis 174
 Gandhi, Mahatma 54, 140
 Gaspar, Peter, child survivor of Holocaust (interview) 112–13
 Geneva Convention 70
 genocide 30, 31, 311
 German placenames in Australia, name changes 212
 German Worker’s Party (DAP) 42
 Germanisation 92
 Germany
 annexation of Sudetenland 58, 59
 Anschluss with Austria 15, 58
 antisemitism 83, 85
 Beer Hall putsch 44–5
 Blitzkrieg tactics 61
 book burning 47
 curriculum change 95
 and Czechoslovakia 15, 58, 59
 Eastern Front 62–3, 76
 emigration 92
 fascism 14
 Great Depression 14, 39
 Holocaust *see* Jewish people and the Holocaust
 hyperinflation 14, 39
 interwar years 42–9
 invades France via Belgium 61
 invades Poland 59, 60, 61
 invades UK 62
 invades USSR 62–3
 life for Jewish people before the Holocaust 86–7
 medieval, Holocaust 82–3
 Nazi Party *see* Nazi Party/ideology/ regime
 night of the long knives 46
 non-aggression pact with USSR (WWII) 15, 59, 61
 and Normandy Landings 76
 North Africa campaign 63
 NSDAP Party 42
 policy of *untermenschen* 92–3, 98
 propaganda role 41, 43, 47, 48, 49, 84–5
 reparations and territorial confiscations following WWI 25, 26–7
 resentment of Treaty of Versailles 25, 26–7, 40, 58
 rise of Hitler 15, 26, 40, 42–3, 44–7
 Sturmabteilung (SA) (stormtroopers) 44, 46, 47, 48
 surrender 76
 USSR troops invade 76
 Völkisch movement 40–1
 Weimar Republic and societal change 40, 86
 Western Front 61–2
 World War II 15, 59–63, 76
 Yalta Conference plans to split 80
 youth movements 48–9
 Gestapo 49
 Gibbs, Pearl 18, 127, 129, 134, 150
 Gillard, Julia 185
 global ‘culture’ 20
 Global Financial Crisis 173
 global influences shaping Australian society in the 20th century 172–5
 global powers 17
 global trade 175
 global travel 175
 global warming 20, 174
 globalisation 18, 170
 glossary 254–5
 Goebbels, Joseph 47, 84–5, 93
 Gordon River below the Franklin River dam protest 206–9
Gordon River Hydro-Electric Power Development Act 1982 207
 Gore, Al, *An Inconvenient Truth* 218–19
 Göring, Herman 45
 Great Depression 14, 17, 38–9, 173
 in Australia 38
 causes 38
 in Europe 14, 39
 Great War *see* World War I
 green parties 206, 209, 218
 greenhouse gas emissions 210, 218
 Greenpeace 217
 Gross Domestic Product (GDP) 176, 177
 Gruber, Kurt 48
 Gurindji people 133
- H**
- habitat destruction 20
 Haley, Bill 191
 Hanson, Pauline 213
 Harrison, Earl 90
 Hawke, Robert 162, 218
 health and welfare (First Nations peoples) 164–5
 Hess, Rudolf 44, 45, 46

Heydrich, Reinhard 59, 93, 94, 102, 106
Himmler, Heinrich 59, 102, 109
Hindus 54
Hirohito, Emperor 78
Hiroshima, Japan, atomic bomb dropped on 77
historians 6, 7
 and online technology 220–1
historical interpretations 4, 23, 119, 171, 241–4
historical research 5
historical significance 3, 23, 119, 171, 237–40
historical skills 2–5
historical writing 4, 245–9
historiography 4, 241
History
 studying 2–5, 6
 technology changing the discipline of 220–1
 and your future 8–11
Hitler, Adolf 15, 26, 37, 48
 aims of Germanisation and Aryanisation 92
 on anti-Semitism 83
 appointed Chancellor of Germany 46
 arrested following putsch 45, 46
 and Beer Hall putsch 44, 45
 develops Schutzstaffel (SS) (security force) 46
 invades Poland 59
 purges education system of Jewish people 85
 renames DAP the NSDAP 42
 rise of 40, 42–3, 44–7, 84, 85, 93, 109
 uses *Mein Kampf* as Nazi Party manifesto 46
 war in Europe 60–3
Hitler Youth 48, 93
 opposition to 49
Hodgson, Colonel William 123
Holocaust 15, 82–113
 aims 92–3
 commemorations 110–11
 ‘Final Solution’ 102–3
 interview with Peter Gaspar (child survivor) 112–13
 Jewish life in Germany before the 86–7
 legacy 110–11

 in medieval Germany 82–3
 Nazi concentration camps 88–90, 98–101, 103, 108–9
 resistance to 106–7, 111
 timeline 82
 world learns about 88–91
Holocaust Museums 110
Holt, Harold 184
homosexuals 92, 98
Howard, John 161, 185, 213, 218
human rights 18–19
Hydro-Electric Commission (HEC), Tasmania 206
hyperinflation, Germany 14, 39

I

ideology 14
immigrants *see* migrants
immigration detention centres 184, 185, 214
immigration policies 178, 182–5, 199, 213, 214
Immigration Restriction Act (1901) 182, 212
incarceration rates, First Nations peoples 165, 210
India
 1930s 54
 Gandhi’s policy of *satyagraha* 54
 protests against British rule in 54
 unrest between Hindus and Muslims 54
Indian troops, WWII 67
Indigenous political organisations 126–7
industrialisation 174
inequality 17
integration policy (migrants) 205
Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) 218
international laws, shaping Australian laws and policies 210–11
internet 19, 20, 193, 220
interwar years
 Germany 42–9
 Great Depression 14, 38–9
 India and East Asia in the 1930s 54–7
 other countries in Europe 50–3
 Roaring Twenties 34–7
Inukai, Tsuyoshi 55

Iran 32
Iraq war 17, 173
Ireland, interwar years 51
‘iron curtain’ 81
Ishii, Shiro 57
Israeli government, commemoration of the Holocaust 111
Italy
 colonial expansion in north Africa 51
 fascism 14, 50
 interwar years 50–1
 World War II 15, 63
Iwo Jima 70, 76

J

Japan
 1930s 55–7
 atomic bombs dropped on 15, 77
 attacks on Australian soil 69, 72, 73
 Burma campaign 67
 conquers northern China 15, 55–6
 conscripts Korean labourers to work in Japan and Korea 57
 establishes puppet state of Manchukuo in China 55
 firebombing campaigns on Japanese cities 76
 gains control of German territories in the Pacific 65
 imperial expansion 15, 64–5
 invades Dutch East Indies 65, 67
 invades French Indochina 65
 invades Manchuria 55
 invades New Guinea 67, 69–70
 invades the Philippines 65
 invades Singapore and Malaya 67
 modernisation and industrialisation 55 and Nanjing Massacre 56
 naval defeats 69, 70
 rejects/accepts Potsdam Declaration to surrender 76, 77, 78
 Russo–Japanese War 15, 55
 Sino–Japanese Wars 55, 56, 65
 suppresses protests in occupied Korean Peninsula 56
 surprise attack on Pearl Harbor 15, 64, 65, 73
 surrender 78, 79
 takes control of Rabaul in New Guinea 67
 Thailand becomes ally of 65
 Tokyo Trials following WWII 78
 Unit 731, biochemical weapons development 57

US occupation of 78
 withdraws from League of Nations 55
 World War II 15, 64–7, 69, 70, 74–5, 76–7

Japanese
 fighting against American forces 70, 76
kamikaze attacks on enemy targets 76
 land ownership in Korea 57
 soldiers continue fighting after
 surrender 79
 treatment of prisoners of war 70–1

jazz 35–6, 187, 191

Jewish ghettos 94, 95
 child's account of life in 112–13
 daily life in 95–7
 food rationing 95, 97
 Judenräte (administration) 95, 97
 origins 94
 Warsaw uprising 107

Jewish people and the Holocaust 15,
 82–113
 aims of the Holocaust 92–3
 anti-Semitism 82, 83, 85, 93
 boycotts of Jewish businesses 85
 commemorations 110–11
 in concentration camps 88–9,
 98–101, 103
 death marches out of concentration
 camps 108–9
 Displaced Persons kept in
 concentration camps 90
 'Final Solution' 102–3
 ghettos 94–7, 107, 112–13
 Kristallnacht 93, 130
 legacy of the Holocaust 110–11
 life in Germany before the Holocaust
 86–7
 medieval Europe 82–3
 museums and artefacts 110, 111
 and Nazi government policy of
untersmenschen 92–3, 98
 pogroms 82, 83, 91
 protests over violence towards Jewish
 people 130–1, 148
 purged from Germany's education
 system 85
 required to wear distinguishing insignia
 94
 resistance to Holocaust 106–7, 111

Jews–Arabs peace agreement 32

Jim Crow segregation laws 126, 136–7

Johnson, President Lyndon 143

Jordan 32

Judeobolshevism 92

Juukan Gorge, WA, destruction 164

K

kamikaze attacks 76

Katherine, NT, bombing of 73

Keating, Paul 135, 185

Kennedy, President 141

Kerr, Sir John, sacks Whitlam 202–3

King, Martin Luther, Jr 138, 140–3, 152, 153
 and civil disobedience 140
 criticised by Malcolm X 142, 153
 death and legacy 143
 'I have a dream' speech 142
 letter from Birmingham Jail 140–1

Kokoda Trail, Papua New Guinea 69, 81

Korean Peninsula 56–7

Korean War 16, 173

Kristallnacht 93, 108, 130

Ku Klux Klan 37, 136

Kuomintang (KMT)-led government of
 China 55

Kwantung Leased Territory, Japanese
 control of 55

L

Lacey, Tom 126

Lake Pedder, Tasmania, flooding of 206

land rights (First Nations people) 18, 132,
 133, 157, 158, 164, 201
 Mabo decision 18, 158–9, 164
 success and failures 154

League of Nations 14, 27, 30, 55

Learning ladder 22–3, 118, 170

Lebanon 32

lesbians 92

liberal arts graduates 8

Libya 51

Lingiari, Vincent 132, 133

Little Rock Nine 138–9

living standards, links to economic
 performance 176–7

London Conference (1920) 32

Lowe, Doug 206

Luftwaffe 61, 62

Luther, Martin 83

M

Mabo, Eddie 158

Mabo decision 18, 158–9, 164

Macintyre, Stuart 7

Maginot Line 61

Makarrata Commission 163

Malaya
 Australian troops in 70
 Japanese attack on 67

Manchuria, Japanese invasion of 55

mandatory detention 185, 214

Manhattan Project 77

Mao Zedong 55

Maroubra Force 70

Marr, Wilhelm 83

Marshall Plan 16

Marx, Karl 86, 87

Masur, Norbert 109

Maynard, Fred 126

medieval Europe, Holocaust in 82–3

Mein Kampf 46

Melbourne, coffee culture 188

Mengele, Josef 101

Meredith, James 153

Meriam people or Mer (Murray Island)
 158–9

#MeToo movement 194

Middle East
 Arabs–Jews peace agreement 32
 Australian troops in 68, 70
 colonial powers carve up 32–3
 new countries 32–3
 and Sykes–Picot Agreement 32–3

Midnight Oil 192

migrant children 183

migrants
 assimilation policy towards 204
 Australia seeks to attract 178–81, 183
 changing public opinion towards 212–15
 country of birth 181
 escaping conflicts 181
 form communities and live in the same
 areas 205
 integration policy towards 205
 multiculturalism 18, 201, 204–5
 migration 17, 18
 to Australia 178–81, 212–15

Migration Act 1958 184

migration policies 178, 182–5, 199, 213, 214

migration schemes 181, 183

missions 124–5

Modern History (VCE Unit 1 and 2) 9

Moldova 52

Molotov cocktails 107

Montgomery bus boycott, Alabama 138,
 140

Montreal Protocol 218

moratorium protests (over Vietnam War)
 199

Moree, NSW, freedom riders 145

Morrison, Scott 211

multiculturalism 18, 201, 204–5, 213

Munich Agreement 58

music

1950s–1990s 187, 191–2

political voices 192, 197, 219

Roaring Twenties 34, 35–7

music festivals 192

music streaming services 193

Muslim refugees 31

Muslims 33, 54, 82

Mussolini, Benito 50–1

N

Naarm (Melbourne), as centre for First Nations people 134–5, 150

Nagasaki, Japan, atomic bomb dropped on 77

Nanjing Massacre (Rape of Nanjing) 56

Nation of Islam (NOI) 142, 153

National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People (NAACP) 138, 140, 142

National Guard, and Little Rock Nine 139

national parks 217

National Security Act 74–5

nationalism 14, 42, 50, 53

Native Title 159

Nazi concentration camps 98–101

daily life in 99–100

death marches of inmates from 108–9

destruction to cover up crimes 108, 109

extermination facilities 99, 103

hierarchy of prisoner markings 98, 99

horrors 88–9

injuries sustained 100

liberation 88–91

operating system 98

selektion (for extermination) 100, 101

starvation rations 99

treatment of women 101

used as Displaced Person camps

post-war 90

women in 101

Nazi Party/ideology/regime 15, 27

aim of *Lebensraum* 61, 92, 114

and Anschluss with Austria 58

antisemitism 83, 84–5, 93

Aryanisation 41, 92, 95, 104, 114

attempts to cover up their crimes 108–9

Beer Hall putsch 44–5

book burning 47

condemnation by AAL 130–1

death marches of inmates 108–9

Deutschland Ehrwache! (slogan) 43

‘Final Solution’ to the Jewish problem

102–3, 108

German people’s resistance to anti-Semitism Nazi atrocities 93

Gestapo 49

and Hitler Youth 48, 49, 93

Hitler’s rise 40, 42–3, 44–7, 84, 85, 93, 109

and the Holocaust 15, 82–113

Kristallnacht riots 93, 108, 130

manifesto 46

mobile killing units 103

and night of the long knives 46

Operation T4 104–5

policy of *untermenschen* 92–3, 98

predecessors 42

propaganda role 41, 43, 47, 48, 49, 84–5, 88, 105

protests over treatment of Jewish people 130–1, 144

purges education system of Jewish people 85

requires Jewish people to wear distinguishing insignia 94

research into atomic weapons 76

resistance to 106–7

rise of 41, 42–3, 44–7

Schutzstaffel (SS) (security force) 46

Sturmabteilung (stormtroopers) 44, 46, 47, 48, 93

surrender 76

swastika 43

World War II 60–3, 76

youth resistance to Nazi propaganda 49

New Guinea

Australian troops in 69, 70

Japanese invasion of 67, 69–70, 81

Maroubra Force 70

New Zealand, ANZUS treaty 81

Newcastle, NSW, submarine attacks on 73

Nichols, Pastor Sir Doug 135, 150

Normandy Landings, France 76

North Africa campaign 63

Australian troops in 63, 69, 70

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) 16

Northern Territory Intervention in First Nations communities 165

NSW Aboriginal Protection Board 127, 134, 149, 150

nuclear accidents 20

nuclear-armed powers 17

nuclear weapons testing 217

Nuremberg Laws 87

Nuremberg Trials 101, 102

O

offshore detention centres 185, 214

oil crisis (1973) 173

O’Keefe, Johnny 191

Okinawa 76

online technologies, and the discipline of History 220–1

Onus, Bill 135, 149–50

Operation Barbarossa 62

Operation T4 (extermination of people with mental or physical disabilities) 104–5

public outcry against 105

Ottoman Empire

divided by Sykes–Picot Agreement 32–3

end of 30, 32

and treatment of Armenians 30–1

overt racism 120

Owens, Jessie 37

ozone hole 217

P

Palestine 32

Papuan forces 70

Paris Peace Conference 24

Parks, Rosa 138, 140

Patten, Jack 127, 129, 134, 150

Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, Japanese surprise attack on 15, 64, 65, 73

people of colour 124, 136–7

people smugglers 185

Perkins, Charles 18, 144, 145, 149

pesticides 174, 217

Philippines, war in 65, 70

physical activity 253

Pilbara strike 132–3

Pilecki, Witold 106

- plagiarism 5
- pogroms 82, 83, 91
- Poland
- after Yalta Conference 80
 - invaded by Germany 59, 60
 - Jewish ghettos 95, 103
 - Nazi concentration camps 99, 103
 - post-war pogroms 91
- police and justice (First Nations peoples) 165, 211
- Polish Resistance 106
- political influences/changes 16, 17, 18
- impacting Australian society in the 20th century 172–3
 - under Whitlam government 201
- political voices through music 192, 197, 219
- pollution 20, 216
- popular culture 175
- counterculture, music and Vietnam 197
 - and cultural cringe 194
 - digital citizenship and cancel culture 194–5
 - music and television changing Australian society 190–3
 - political voices through music 192, 197, 219
 - WWII and change in what we consume 186–9
- Posen conference 102
- Posner family 86
- Potsdam Declaration/conference 76, 77, 81
- primary sources 2, 3
- prisoners of war (POWs)
- Cowra break-out (NSW) 75
 - in Europe 70
 - Japanese treatment of 70–1
 - used as labourers 70
- procrastination 252
- prohibition, USA 35
- propaganda 26, 49, 50, 66
- role in Germany 41, 43, 47, 48, 84–5, 88, 105
- protest music 192, 197, 219
- 'pub rock' 192
- puppet state of Manchukuo 55
- R**
- Rabaul, New Guinea 67
- Rabe, John 56
- race riots, USA 37
- Racial Discrimination Act 1975* 184, 201
- racism 36, 37
- in Australia 130, 144–7
 - definition 120
 - timeline 120–1
 - types of 120–1
 - in the USA 36, 37, 91, 120, 126, 136–43, 152–5
- Ray, James Earl 143
- reconciliation (with First Nations peoples) 18, 19, 162
- act of 162
- reconciliation movement 163
- Reddy, Helen 192
- Redfern (Sydney), as centre for First Nations resistance 135
- Redfern Aboriginal Legal Service 151, 165
- Redgum 197
- Reece, Eric 206
- refugees 181, 185, 198, 199, 213
- research, historical 5, 250–1
- Revolutions (VCE Unit 3 and 4) 10
- rights and freedoms 118
- see also* civil rights movement in Australia; civil rights movement in the USA; First Nations peoples; land rights
- Ringelblum, Emanuel 107
- Roach, Archie 192
- Roaring Twenties 34–7
- ends with Great Depression 38–9
 - music and fashion 34, 35–7
 - race riots, USA 37
 - social, economic and cultural change 34–7
 - technological advances 34
- rock 'n' roll 191
- Röhm, Ernst 45, 46
- Romani peoples 83, 92, 93, 94, 98, 107
- Rommel, Erwin 63
- Roosevelt, Eleanor 90, 122, 123
- Roosevelt, President Franklin 65, 76, 80
- Rowe, Normie 197
- Royal Air Force (RAF) 62
- Royal Commission into the Stolen Generations 160–1
- Rudd, Kevin 185
- apology to Stolen Generations 19, 161
- Russian Empire 14
- Russo-Japanese War 15, 55
- S**
- Salt Pan Creek, NSW, as centre for First Nations resistance 134
- satyagraha* (mass civil disobedience) 54
- Saudi Arabia 33
- Saunders, Lt Reg 130, 131
- sausage sizzle 189
- sausages 188–9
- Schumann, Horst 101
- Schutzstaffel (SS) (security force) 46
- science and technology 19
- 'Second World' 16
- secondary sources 2
- segregation laws (USA) 126, 136–7
- desegregation of transportation 140–1
 - protests against 138–9
- Selassie, Haile 51
- sex discrimination 123
- Shah of Iran 32
- Singapore
- British troops in 67, 69, 81
 - Japanese attack on 67
- Sino-Japanese Wars 55, 56
- slavery, end of 136
- sleep 253
- smartphones 19
- Snowy Mountain Hydro-Electric Scheme 181
- social influences/changes
- impacting Australian society in the 20th century 174
 - Roaring Twenties 34–7
 - under Whitlam government 201
- social media 20, 187
- Soldiers Settlement Scheme 28
- source analysis 2–3, 22, 118, 170, 221, 226–9
- south-west Tasmania World Heritage status 208
- Southern states (USA)
- and Jim Crow segregation laws 136–7
 - slavery 136
- Soviet Union *see* USSR
- spaced repetition 5, 252
- Spain, interwar years 53
- Spanish Civil War 53
- 'Spanish Flu' 28
- speakeasies 35
- Stalin, Joseph 52, 62, 63, 80–1, 109
- standards of living 176–7
- Stolen Generations 19, 130, 160–1, 165, 192
- apology by Kevin Rudd to 19, 161
 - 'Bringing them Home Report' 160–1
 - origins 160
- Student Action for Aborigines (SAFA) 144
- studying for exams and tests 5, 252–3
- Sturmabteilung (stormtroopers) 44, 46, 47, 48, 93
- Sudetenland 58, 59

superpowers 80
'susso' 38
sustainability 174
swastika 43
Sydney, submarine attacks on 73
Sykes–Picot Agreement 32–3
systemic and structural racism 121

T

Taiwan 55
Takasuka, Mario 68
Tasmanian government, Franklin River dam project 206–9
Tasmanian Wilderness Society (TWS) 206, 207
technological development 19
 changing the discipline of History 220–1
 impacting Australian society in the 20th century 174–5, 193
 Roaring Twenties 34
TEEL (paragraph structure) 247–8
teenagers 190, 191
Tehcir Law 30
television 20, 192–3
 not ageing well 194, 195
television streaming services 193
Terezin Ghetto, child's account of 112–13
terra nullius 159, 204
terrorism 17
Thailand, becomes ally of Japan 65
Thai–Burma Railway 70
The Beatles 191–2
'The Blitz' 62
'Third World' 16
Thornton, Phillip 219
Thunberg, Greta 219
Till, Emmett, murder of 137–8
timelines
 1914–2020 14–15
 1918–1937 24
 civil rights movement 120–1
 global influences shaping Australian society in the 20th century 172–3
 Holocaust 82
 World War II 58
Tobruk, siege of 63, 69
Tojo, General Hideki 78, 79
Tokyo Trials 78

Torres Strait Islanders 158–9
Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion 72, 73
trade unions' role in Australian civil rights movement 132–3
treaties
 after World War I 24–6
 international, affecting Australian laws and policies 210–11
Treaty of Lausanne 25, 30
Treaty of Sèvres 25, 30
Treaty of Versailles 14, 15, 24, 25
 Germany resentment of 25, 26–7, 40, 58
 nations in attendance at signing of 26
Truman, President Harry 76, 81, 90, 137
Turkey
 birth of 30, 31
 deportation and massacre of Armenians 30–1
Turnbull, Malcolm 185, 205

U

UK

can no longer protect Australia 73, 81
declares war on Germany 15, 59
and fall of Singapore 67, 69, 81
German attacks on 62
Normandy Landings in northern France 76
policy of appeasement with Germany 58–9, 60
tension with Australia over redeployment of troops 81
Ukraine
 artificial famine (*Holodomor*) 52
 unpopularity of Soviet collectivisation policy 52
Uluru Statement from the Heart 163
UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination 184
UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples 123, 211
UN Framework Convention on Climate Change 210, 218
UN Human Rights Commission (UNHCR) 181
unemployment, Great Depression 38

Unit 731 (Japan), biochemical weapons development 57
United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) 218
United Nations (UN) 18
 Australia as founding member-state of 123, 210
 formation 80, 122
 Human Development Index (HDI) 177
 purposes 122
United Tasmania Party 206, 218
Universal Declaration of Human Rights 18, 122–3
untersmenschen, policy of (Germany) 92–3, 98
urbanisation 174
US Freedom Ride 140–1
US soldiers
 based in Australia 74
 impact on popular culture in Australia 18–19
 tensions with locals 74
USA
 761st Tank Battalion 90–1
 abolition of slavery 136
 ANZUS treaty 81
 as Australian ally 73, 74, 81, 186
 Black Power movement 152–5
 civil rights movement 91, 120–1, 136–43
 Cold War 16, 80, 81
 develops atomic weapons 76–7
 drops atomic bombs on Japan 15, 77
 economic philosophy 16
 elects not to join League of Nations 27
 fighting against Japanese 70, 76
 forces take control of Philippines 70
 Great Depression 38
 helps rebuild western Europe 16
 Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor 15, 64, 65, 73
 Jim Crow segregation laws 126, 136–7
 joins World War II 64, 65, 76–7
 music and fashion 34, 35–7
 naval battles against Japanese 69, 70
 people of colour as soldiers, WWII 90–1, 137
 prohibition 35
 racism 36, 37, 91, 120, 126, 136–43, 152–5
 Roaring Twenties 34–7
 segregation law protests 138–9
 serviceman based in Australia 74
 as superpower 80
 terrorism in 17
 troops occupy Japan 78
 'War on Terror' 17

USSR 14

- break-up of 16
- Cold War 16, 80, 81
- deportation of troublemakers to labour camps 52
- economic philosophy 16
- German invasion of 62–3
- interwar years 52
- Jewish ghettos (Nazi-controlled) 95
- liberates Nazi concentration camps 88
- Nazi mobile killing units 103
- non-aggression pact with Germany (WWII) 15, 59, 61
- policy of collectivisation 52
- pushes into Germany 75, 88
- as superpower 80
- under Stalin 52, 62, 80, 81
- and Yalta Conference 80–1

V

VCE History

- skills to develop 10
- Units 1 and 2 9
- Units 3 and 4 10

Victor Emmanuel III, King 50

Victorian Aboriginal Protection Act 1869 160

Vietnam War 16, 173, 181

- conscription 196, 197
- counterculture and music 197
- film and reality of war 196–7
- impact on Australia 196–9
- indifference to returned soldiers 199
- moratorium protests 199
- My Lai massacre 199
- opposition to 196, 199
- refugees/'boat people' 181, 198, 199

Völkisch movement, Germany 40–1

von Hindenberg, Paul 87

von Ludendorff, Erich 45

W

Walgett, NSW, freedom riders 145

Walker, Denis 156

Wannsee conference 102

war pensions 28

'War on Terror' 17, 173

Warsaw Ghetto 96, 97

- uprising 107

Warsaw Pact 16

Wave Hill Walk-off 133

Weimar Republic 40, 86

Weizmann, Chaim 32

Western Front, war on 61–2

White Australia policy 178, 182, 184, 201, 212

Whitlam, Gough, government 132, 133, 182, 184, 206

- Australian Labor Party 'It's time' election campaign 200

- deadlock in the Senate over supply bills 202–3

- dismissal 200–3

- double dissolution 202

- introduces policy of multiculturalism 201, 205

- 'Loans Affair' 202

- political, social and economic changes 201

- sacked by Sir John Kerr 202–3

Wikipedia 251

Wilhelm II, Kaiser 40

Williams, Gary 145

Wilson, President Woodrow 27

women

- in Nazi concentration camps 101

- role during WWII 75

- skills and work during WWI 29

women's liberation movement 192

women's rights 29, 201

World Heritage Properties Conservation Act 1983 208, 210, 218

World Trade Centre attack (11 September 2001) 173

World War I 14

- internment camps 212

- mistrust of German Australians 212

World War I (events after the war ended) 24–57

- Germany and Treatment of Versailles 25–7, 40, 58

- on the home front 29, 212

- League of Nations formation 14, 27

- Middle East carve up 32–3

- repatriation of Australians 28–9

- timeline 24

- treaties 24–6

- Turkey and Armenia 30–1

- see also* interwar years

World War II 22, 58–80

- Australian soldiers 68–71

- beginnings 58–9

- end of 76–9

- on the home front 72–5, 212

- impact on civil rights movement 130–1

- influence on popular culture to change what we consume 186–9

- Normandy Landings 76

- political order after 80–1

- post-war migration to Australia 178–81

- rationing 188

- timeline 58

- war in Asia and the Pacific 15, 64–7, 69–70, 74–5, 76–9

- war in Europe 6, 15, 60–3, 68

- writing, historical 4, 245–9

X

X, Malcolm 142, 153

Y

Yalta Conference 80

Yirrkala Bark Petitions 158

Yolngu people 158

Yom HaShoah 111

Acknowledgements

The author and publisher are grateful to the following for permission to reproduce copyright material:

PHOTOGRAPHS: Alamy/© Fine Art Images/Heritage Images, **83**, /AB Forces News Collection, **237**, /Album, **41**, /Alpha Historica, **138** (bottom), **142** (top), /American Photo Archive, **17** (left), /Ammentorp Photography, **253**, /Artokoloro, **179**, /Azoor Photo, **94**, /Holly Bickerton, **241**, /BNA Photographic, **191**, /Martin Brayley, **90, 91**, /CHROMORANGE / Monika Wirth, **40**, /Chronicle, **39, 44, 50**, /Chronicle of World History, **55, 85** (bottom), /Collection Christophel, **195**, /Courtesy: CSU Archives / Everett Collection, **143**, /CPA Media Pte Ltd, **31, 57, 198**, /Cyberstock, **20** (top), /Dinodia Photos, **54**, /domonabike, **188**, /DOZIER Marc / hemis.fr, **69**, /dpa picture alliance, **4**, /Eclipse, **i** (background), /Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc/UIG, **206**, /Everett Collection Historical, **23, 51, 78–9, 138** (top), **142** (bottom), **155**, /Everett Collection Inc, **35, 156**, /John t. fowler, **6**, /Roy Garner, **56**, /Gino's Premium Images, **239**, /GL Archive, **25, 81, 46** (top), **106**, /Glasshouse Images, **137, 80**, /GM/Current Affairs, **8** (left), /Manfred Gottschalk, **75**, /Granger Historical Picture Archive, **18, 47, 141, 152, 230–1**, /Hi-Story, **37, 48–9, 66**, /History and Art Collection, **71**, /Holli, **i** (right centre), **169**, /Peter Horree, **9** (top), /Ian Dagnall Computing, **9** (bottom), **87** (centre), /Image Professionals GmbH/Schmitz, Walter, **110–11**, /Amril Izan Imran, **175** (right), /incamerastock, **136, 227**, /John Frost Newspapers, **73**, /John Warburton-Lee Photography/Andrew Watson, **11**, /Jose Giribas/Süddeutsche Zeitung Photo, **16** (bottom), /karind, **121**, /Keystone Archives/Heritage Images/The Print Collector, **197**, /KEYSTONE Pictures USA, **89** (top), /Keystone Press, **45**, /Andreas Klatt, **244**, /LOU Collection, **16** (top), /Kirsty McLaren, **i** (top left), **1**, /Colin McPherson, **119**, /Richard Milnes, **151, 160, 163, 214**, /Eric Nathan, **103**, /Matteo Omied, **130**, /OZSHOTZ, **171**, /Panther Media GmbH, **257–66**, /Photo 12/Rimfire Films, **222**, /Photo12/Ann Ronan Picture Library, **228**, /Pictorial Press Ltd, **30, 34, 104, 114, 139**, /PictureLux / The Hollywood Archive, **36** (bottom), /PjrStudio, **110**, /Prisma by Dukas Presseagentur GmbH, **53, 96, 77**, /Retro AdArchives, **229**, /Edward Reeves, **70**, /Simon Reddy, **i** (bottom right), **225**, /Stacy Walsh Rosenstock, **17** (right), /S.E.A. Photo, **217**, /Scherl/Süddeutsche Zeitung Photo, **46** (bottom), /Science History Images, **i** (bottom left), **117, 87**, /Science Photo Library, **202, 240**, /Shawshots, **43, 59, 62, 74, 79, 93, 99, 105**, /Andrew Sole, **254–6**, /Sputnik, **63, 87** (left), /stock imager, **144**, /stock imagery, **175** (left), /Sueddeutsche Zeitung Photo, **52, 60, 88**, /Jochen Tack, **236**, /The Picture Art Collection, **72, 211**, /This life pictures, **29**, /Trinity Mirror/Mirrorpix, **15**, /Kristoffer Tripplaar, **8** (right), /Universal Art Archive, **174**, /Universal History Archive, **49** (top), /Vintage Collection **216, 145**, /Taras Vyshnya, **i** (top right), **21**, /World History Archive, **32, 42, 85** (top), **98, 122, 123, 124, 145, 166, 173**, /YAY Media AS, **177**, /ZUMA Press Inc, **216**; 1944 The Coca-Cola Company, All Rights Reserved, **187**; Daily Liberal/ACM, **126**; Fairfax/Fairfax Photographic, **146**, /Ted Golding/The Sydney Morning Herald, **190**, /George Lipman/The Sydney

Morning Herald, **150**, /Stuart MacGladrie/The Sydney Morning Herald, **149**, /Jim McEwen, The Age, **159**, /Justin Macmanus/The Age, **164**, /Kenneth Stevens, **193**, /Penny Stephens/The Age, **7**, /Rick Stevens/The Sydney Morning Herald, **162**, /The Sydney Morning Herald, **128**; Getty Images/Hulton Deutsch/Corbis Historical, **84**, /Hulton Archive/Stringer, **100** (right), **200**, /James D. Morgan, **189**, /Menager Georges/Paris Match Archive, **36** (top), /William West, **19**; Drawing 'We are free!' all rights reserved to Thomas Geve, **89** (bottom); Gilo family, Yad Vashem, The World Holocaust remembrance Centre, Israel, **86**; iStockphoto/Alexander Yershov, **13, 116, 168, 224** (arch icon); Library of Congress, Prints & Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-101451], Yanker Poster Collection, **154**; Museum of Romani Culture, Brno/Photo: M. Prasek, F29/1994/inv/F/2564, **100** (left); Museums Victoria/item ST 32407, **223**; National Archives of Australia/NAA: A431, 1949/1591, **127**, /NAA: B2455, FRICKER G F, **131**, /NAA: F1, 1968/27350, **133**, /NAA: A8739, A2/8/74/15, **135**, /NAA: A3300, 699, **179**, /NAA: ST84/1, 1918/246/91-100, **183** (top), /NAA: SP545/3, 58/61, **183** (bottom), /NAA: A6135, K14/11/75/40, **203**, /NAA: A12111, 1/1956/18/6, **204**; NASA Scientific Visualization Studio, **218, 219**; National Library of Australia/Peter Dombrovskis, Wilderness Society, Australian Conservation Foundation, nla.obj-138235758, **208**, /Wilderness Society, nla.obj-39198193, **207** (top), /Jerry de Gryse, nla.obj-225621419, **207** (bottom); National Museum of Australia/Photo: Lannon Harley, **158**; Newspix/News Ltd, **132, 148**; Somali Community Inc. Australia, **205**; State Library of New South Wales/'The Mongolian Octopus—Its Grip On Australia', by Phil May, 21 August 1886, *The Bulletin* (Sydney, Australia); MDQ079/39: a5893001, **212**, /item number IE3157975, **129**, /Mitchell Library, item number IE1123955, **134**, /Noel Hazard. Mitchell Library, State Library of New South Wales and Tribune /SEARCH Foundation, **157**; State Library of Victoria, H92.400/96, **68**; Sourced from the collections of the State Library of Western Australia and reproduced with the permission of the Library Board of Western Australia, **161**; Young Labor banner on Aboriginal Australians, May Day procession, Roma Street, Brisbane, 9 May 1965', Grahame Garner Collection, Fryer Library, F3400, Folder 5, item 3. The University of Queensland Library, **147**; Unsplash/Gryffn M, **20** (bottom), /Museums Victoria, **180, 221**, /Gunnar Ridderstrom, **267–8**; State Governors' Negative Collection, 1949-1975, Washington State Archives. Original images held at the Washington State Archives, Olympia, WA, **167**.

OTHER MATERIAL: Archival collection of the State Museum Auschwitz-Birkenau in Oświęcim/the account by Zofia Stępień-Btor, vol. 68, page 156, **109**/the notes by Mr. Załmen Gradowski, Testimonies, vol. 73, page 11, **108**; Graph based on Australian Bureau of Statistics data (2016), 'Table 8: Country of Birth', Australian Historical Population Statistics, accessed April 2021, **181**; Graph adapted from Australian Institute of Health and Welfare; OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) 2019; OECD Better Life Index - edition 2017 in OECD.Stat.Paris: OECD.Viewed 9 May 2019, <<http://stats.oecd.org>>.

176; Account by Carmen Calleya-Capp sourced from AMES Australia, 213; Extract from *Nazi "Chic"? Fashioning Women in the Third Reich* by Irene Guenther, (Berg: Oxford, 2004), 39; Extract from *Stalinism and Nazism: dictatorships in comparison* by Ian Kershaw. Cambridge University Press, 1997. Reproduced with permission of the Licensor through PLSclear, 114; Map adapted from Department of Home Affairs, 184; Extract from an interview with Peter Gaspar, 112–13; Extract from *I Met Hitler: Karl Hoffkes interviews with contemporary witnesses*, Wieland Giebel, April 2020, 83; Extract from 'Australia is a country best seen from above' by Stan Grant, *Crossing Ponto UK-Australia/New Zealand Pacific: Common Interests, Shared Concerns. Essays*, 243; Extract from 'Globalisation: the rise and fall of an idea that swept the world' by Nikil Saval, 14 July 2017. Copyright Guardian News & Media Ltd 2021, 243; Extract from Ms Hanson MP, House of Representatives Hansard, 10 September 1996, p. 3860, 213; 'Racism' definition, Lexico.com, 2020, 120; Extract by Petr Fischl from *I Never Saw Another Butterfly: Children's Drawings and Poems from Terezin Concentration Camp, 1942-44* edited by Hana Volavkova, copyright © 1978, 1993 by Artia, Prague. Compilation © 1993 by Penguin Random House LLC. Used by permission of Schocken

Books, an imprint of the Knopf Doubleday Publishing Group, a division of Penguin Random House LLC. All rights reserved, 96; Extract from *The Warsaw Diary of Adam Czerniakow: Prelude to doom*, by Adam Czerniakow, Rowman & Littlefield Publishing Group Inc, 1999, 97; Extract from 'The historiography of the Asia-Pacific War' by Yoshida Takashi, SciencesPo, Mass Violence & Resistance, 3 June 2008, 114; Extract from letter sent by Robin Gray (Premier of Tasmania) to Hon James Joseph Carlton, Federal Minister assisting the Minister for National Development and Energy, 13 October 1982. Copyright in this work resides with the State of Tasmania, 209; Foreword by Malcolm Turnbull, 'Multicultural Australia: Australia's Multicultural Statement', 205; Extract from 'Hanukkah Menorah from the home of Rabbi Akiva and Rachel Posner in Kiel, Germany', Yad Vashem, The World Holocaust Remembrance Centre, Israel, 86; Extract from the testimony of DitaDita Chana Segal-Kurschner courtesy of the Yad Vashem Archives, 101.

While every care has been taken to trace and acknowledge copyright, the publisher tenders their apologies for any accidental infringement where copyright has proved untraceable. They would be pleased to come to a suitable arrangement with the rightful owner in each case.

Hc·Hce SKÖNLITTERATUR PÅ SVENSKA

good
history

