

oxford  
big ideas  
australian curriculum

history 10



geraldine carrodus | tim delany | kate mcarthur |  
richard smith | tony taylor | carmel young

OXFORD



oxford  
big ideas  
australian curriculum  
history 10

geraldine carrodus | tim delany  
kate mcarthur | richard smith

consultants: tony taylor, carmel young, michael spurr  
contributors: anthony bidgood, luke matthews, mailie ross

**OXFORD**  
UNIVERSITY PRESS  
AUSTRALIA & NEW ZEALAND

**OXFORD**  
UNIVERSITY PRESS

Oxford University Press is a department of the University of Oxford. It furthers the University's objective of excellence in research, scholarship, and education by publishing worldwide. Oxford is a registered trademark of Oxford University Press in the UK and in certain other countries.

Published in Australia by Oxford University Press  
253 Normanby Road, South Melbourne, Victoria 3205, Australia

© Geraldine Carrodus, Tim Delany, Richard Smith 2012

The moral rights of the author have been asserted.

First published 2012  
Reprinted 2012, 2013

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, without the prior permission in writing of Oxford University Press, or as expressly permitted by law, by licence, or under terms agreed with the appropriate reprographics rights organisation. Enquiries concerning reproduction outside the scope of the above should be sent to the Rights Department, Oxford University Press, at the address above.

You must not circulate this work in any other form and you must impose this same condition on any acquirer.

National Library of Australia Cataloguing-in-Publication data

Oxford big ideas. History 10 : Australian Curriculum / Geraldine Carrodus . . . et al.

ISBN 9780195572346 (pbk.)

ISBN 9780195576610 (pbk. plus ebook/assess)

ISBN 9780195525007 (pbk. plus ebook/assess/MULTI)

Includes index.

For secondary school age.

History - - Textbooks.

History, Modern - Study and teaching (secondary).

Carrodus, Geraldine.

909

### **Reproduction and communication for educational purposes**

The Australian *Copyright Act 1968* (the Act) allows a maximum of one chapter or 10% of the pages of this work, whichever is the greater, to be reproduced and/or communicated by any educational institution for its educational purposes provided that the educational institution (or the body that administers it) has given a remuneration notice to Copyright Agency Limited (CAL) under the Act.

For details of the CAL licence for educational institutions contact:

Copyright Agency Limited  
Level 15, 233 Castlereagh Street  
Sydney NSW 2000  
Telephone: (02) 9394 7600  
Facsimile: (02) 9394 7601  
Email: [info@copyright.com.au](mailto:info@copyright.com.au)



Edited by Frith Luton  
Typeset by Polar Design  
Illustrated by Richard Bonson, MAPgraphics Pty Ltd  
Proofread by Ingrid De Baets  
Indexed by Don Jordan, Antipodes Indexing  
Printed in Hong Long by Sheck Wah Tong Printing Press Ltd

### **Disclaimer**

Indigenous Australians and Torres Strait Islanders are advised that this publication may include images or names of people now deceased.

*Links to third party websites are provided by Oxford in good faith and for information only. Oxford disclaims any responsibility for the materials contained in any third party website referenced in this work.*



oxford

# big ideas

australian curriculum

history 10



What is ... *Oxford Big Ideas History*? ..... vi  
 Using *Oxford Big Ideas History* ..... viii  
 Australian Curriculum: History 10—Scope and sequence ..... x

## Overview

**1.0 The modern world and Australia: an overview** **2**  
 1.1 What were the significant events and key features of the inter-war years? .....6  
 1.2 How did the nature of global conflict change during the 20th century? ..... 16  
 1.3 How has Australian society been affected by other significant changes during the 20th century? .....36

## Depth studies

**World War II** **56**

**2.0 World War II (1939–1945)** **58**  
 2.1 What were the causes of World War II and what course did it take? .....62  
 2.2 What were some of the most significant events of World War II? .....90  
 2.3 How did the events of World War II affect people around the world and in Australia? ..... 104  
 2.4 How did the events of World War II shape Australia’s international relationships? ..... 120

**Rights and freedoms** **128**

**3.0 Rights and freedoms (1945–the present)** **130**  
 3.1 How have Indigenous peoples in Australia struggled for rights and freedoms? .....134  
 3.2 How have Indigenous peoples in Australia achieved change and what were some of the significant events that influenced this change?..... 148  
 3.3 In what ways do activists continue to struggle for civil rights and freedoms in Australia and around the world? ..... 164



The globalising world 174

4.0 Popular culture (1945–the present) 176

- 4.1 What was the nature of popular culture in Australia at the end of World War II? ..... 180
- 4.2 What developments in popular culture most affected Australia after World War II? ..... 186
- 4.3 How have the Australian music, film and television industries changed in Australia? ..... 198
- 4.4 What has Australia contributed to international popular culture? ..... 210

5.0 Migration experiences (1945–the present) 224

- 5.1 How have key events influenced migration to Australia since World War II? ..... 228
- 5.2 How have government immigration policies changed? ..... 240
- 5.3 How did the Vietnam War affect migration to Australia? ..... 252
- 5.4 How has migration shaped Australia’s identity and global relationships? ..... 260

Glossary 270

Index 275

Acknowledgments 285

**o** The environment movement [**obook** only]

- 1 How did the environment movement start?
- 2 Why did the 20th century lead to a growing environmental awareness?
- 3 How did environmental issues and campaigns contribute to the growth of the environment movement in Australia and overseas?
- 4 How have Australian governments and international organisations responded to environmental threats?

# What is... Oxford Big Ideas History?

*Oxford Big Ideas History* is a brand-new series developed and written specifically to meet the requirements of the Australian Curriculum across Years 7–10. Based on a big ideas framework, the pedagogy enables students to develop deep, transferable understandings and skills.

## Why big ideas?

The Australian Curriculum: History identifies a range of key inquiry questions—or **big ideas**—that span each year level and direct student learning. These big ideas, together with a range of historical skills, key concepts and cross-curricular priorities, form the foundation of the Australian Curriculum: History.

Research shows that students achieve greater success when the information they learn is connected to big ideas. *Oxford Big Ideas History* provides students and teachers with the opportunity to discover, explore and connect with an inquiry-based series written for the Australian Curriculum.

## What are the big ideas?

At each year level of the Australian Curriculum: History, students are expected to engage with a set of key inquiry questions, such as:

- ‘How do we know about the ancient past?’
- ‘What key beliefs and values emerged and how did they influence society?’
- ‘How do new ideas and technological developments contribute to change?’
- ‘How did the nature of global conflict change during the 20th century?’

*Oxford Big Ideas History* is built around these big ideas. Each chapter of the course is carefully organised around these big questions that are linked directly to the Australian Curriculum: History—helping students develop deep, transferable understandings and skills.



# Key features

- organises learning around meaningful inquiry-based questions, or big ideas, that are closely mapped to the content of the Australian Curriculum: History
- provides complete coverage of all overview and depth study options from the curriculum across the print and digital components
- integrates both strands of the Australian Curriculum: History with an explicit focus on the acquisition of historical skills and key concepts at each year level
- caters for even the most reluctant learners, with a wealth of stunning images, illustrations and engaging source materials
- provides a complete teaching and learning program at each year level from Years 7 to 10, in both print (textbooks, workbooks and teacher kits) and digital formats (ebooks and interactive workbooks).



# Using Oxford Big Ideas History

## Big questions

Each chapter of *Big Ideas History* is structured around key inquiry questions from the Australian Curriculum. This supports students and teachers as they implement an inquiry-based approach to history.

Key inquiry questions are used to organise chapters and help students connect with learning.



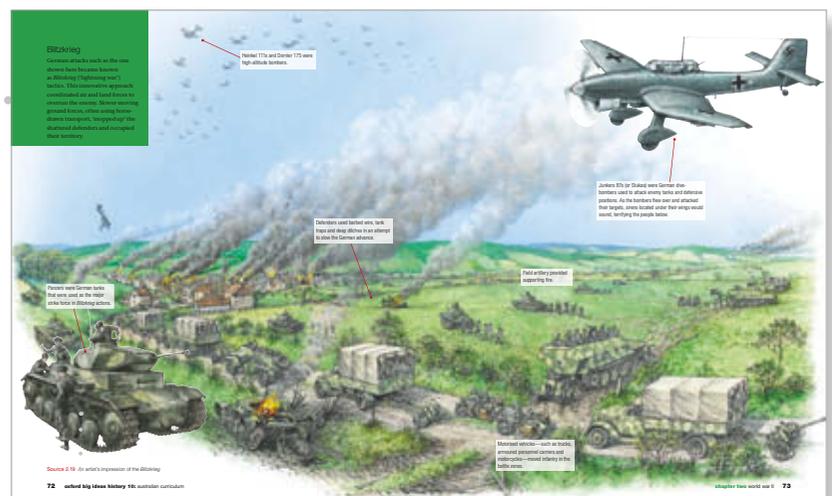
Learning sequences are carefully organised around the key inquiry questions in the Australian Curriculum to help students delve deeply into topics.

Stunning full-colour photography to generate discussion and interest

big ideas activity blocks at the end of each section use Bloom's Taxonomy and other strategies to cater for a multiplicity of learning styles.

## Engaging learning

Each student book chapter combines a range of engaging historical sources, skills and concepts with a wide range of supporting activities. This content is brought to life with stunning illustrations and photographs to engage students.



Stunning full-colour illustrations encourage even the most reluctant learners to engage in historical inquiry.

# Deep learning

Check your learning question blocks appear throughout the chapter, allowing students to reflect on and consolidate their learning.

Content is designed for depth of learning. Concepts are revisited with increasing levels of complexity so that students gain a rich understanding of key historical concepts.

**The tide of war turns in Europe**

By 1943, the German tactics had lost the element of surprise, and their reaction times had slowed. Britain, the British Commonwealth, the USA, the Soviet Union and the Free French Forces formed an alliance to force Germany and its allies into an unconditional surrender.

From 1943, the Soviet army initiated a series of offensives on Germany. By 1944, Germany had been forced out of most of Eastern Europe, with Soviet troops occupying Russia, Poland, Romania, Czechoslovakia and the Baltic states. The Russians continued their advance into Germany, and reached the German capital, Berlin, in April.

In Western Europe, the Allies began major bombing campaigns on Germany from 1942, initially focusing on destroying factories that were producing industrial goods. This campaign failed to significantly affect German morale or production, and so the Allies shifted their focus. The Allies developed a plan to invade France. On 6 June 1944, around 160,000 Allied troops landed on the beaches of Normandy in Northern France. This operation, known as 'D-Day', precipitated the Liberation of France in August 1944.



**Source 2.20** American troops learning a lesson at Normandy, on D-Day

**The end of the war in Europe**

In September 1944, Allied ground troops invaded Germany from the west. The Allies continued bombing major German cities, including Berlin. In April, the Soviets attacked Berlin and launched a final assault. Hitler remained in Berlin, to allow the defence of the city from his bunker. Although most of the city's population was evacuated, the Soviets seized Berlin after a week of bitter fighting in the streets. Hitler committed suicide on 30 April, and Germany officially surrendered on 7 May 1945.



**Source 2.21** Europe and North Africa at the height of Axis power in 1942

**80** *selected big ideas history 10: essential curriculum*

**Check your learning**

- 1 Why were Germany's military tactics less effective after 1942?
- 2 What was the Allied bombing of German cities, and why was it a significant factor in the defeat of Germany?
- 3 What military campaign was 'D-Day' and what off which countries were involved in this campaign?
- 4 Identify some of the main factors that led to the end of the war in Europe.

**Contestability: Conflicting reports surrounding Hitler's death**

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

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

While there was little evidence to support the idea that Hitler had committed suicide, many alleged sightings of Hitler were reported all around the world in the years following the war. In addition to these reports, the FBI kept detailed records on Adolf Hitler for 32 years after the war, and it is assumed it has fully investigated any report that alleged he was still alive.



**Source 2.22** The first page of the New Zealand Herald, 2 May 1945, announces the death of Adolf Hitler

**81** *chapter two world war II*

Key concepts are explicitly covered in the overview chapter, and are constantly revisited throughout each chapter in the 'focus on...' boxes, allowing students to consolidate their learning.

## connecting ideas

History as tourism

*Historical tourism is the term used to describe tourists who visit certain sites because of their historical significance. These popular sites are often museums or memorials, but they also include battlefields, shipwrecks, and buildings that are connected to historical events.*

*Historical tourism has existed for a long time, but sites associated with World War II have become increasingly popular in the last decade or so.*



**The Kokoda Track**

The Kokoda Track has become an important site for Australian historical tourism. As well as a walking route, it is a site of historical significance. It has been described as a 'pilgrimage' for many Australians. Some people who experience the difficult conditions of the track as a way of honoring the soldiers who fought there. Since 2010, there has even been a 'Kokoda Challenge' race. Other sites, like Gallipoli and the Western Front, also attract large numbers of historical tourists. The Kokoda Track, however, provides tourists with the unique opportunity to witness both commemorative and sporting activities in a form of commemoration.

- 1 Why do you think that walking the Kokoda Track has become so much more popular since 2017?
- 2 What other sites associated with World War II do you think might become sites of historical tourism for Australians in the future?

**Source 2.23** A group of hikers on the Kokoda Track, Papua New Guinea

**Keeping sites sacred**

While some World War II sites have become popular with tourists, others have been protected from historical tourism by government legislation. The sinking of the USSLS Sydney in Australia's worst maritime disaster. It became involved in a battle with the German ship Kormoran in 1941 off the coast of Western Australia, which resulted in both ships sunk. All 443 crew on the Sydney were killed. The location of the wrecks of both Sydney and Kormoran was unknown until 2008, when they were rediscovered. Both wrecks are now protected by an exclusion zone, which makes it illegal to come within 500 metres of the site without a permit issued by the Australian government. This means that historical tourism has not developed around the wreck of Sydney like it has around the Kokoda Track.

- 1 Why hasn't historical tourism developed around the site of Sydney and Kormoran?
- 2 Do you think historical tourism is a positive or negative thing for history and historical sites? Should other historical sites associated with World War II, such as the Kokoda Track, be protected from historical tourism?

**Source 2.24** The USSLS Sydney Memorial on Mount Sorell

**Q** In small groups, discuss whether historical tourism is a valid way of commemorating World War II.

**82** *chapter two world war II*

Connecting ideas activities encourage students to transfer and connect what they have learnt in each chapter to areas of interest or personal experience, making learning fun and meaningful.

# Integrated teaching and learning support

## obook

The **obook** is Oxford's next generation ebook, offering online and offline access to the complete range of content at each year level. Each **obook** contains a range of interactive resources, as well as links to video, audio and supporting websites. The **obook** allows students to take notes and highlight text, then save and export their work.

## Workbook

Each level of *Oxford Big Ideas History* is supported by a Workbook that provides extra practice of key historical skills and supports an inquiry-based approach to learning—perfect for use in class or at home. An interactive digital Workbook is also available.

## Teacher Kit

Each Teacher Kit includes the student textbook in a wraparound format containing teaching strategies, lesson ideas and planning tips, assessment advice and suggested answers to all activities in the Textbook and Workbook.

# Australian Curriculum: History 10—Scope and sequence

The Australian Curriculum: History is organised into two interrelated strands: Historical Knowledge and Understanding and Historical Skills. *Oxford Big Ideas History 10* has been written to address both of these strands in an integrated way and enable students to meet the Year 10 achievement standard.

<b>Focus</b>	The Year 10 curriculum provides a study of the history of the modern world and Australia from 1918 to the present, with an emphasis on Australia in its global context. The 20th century became a critical period in Australia's social, cultural, economic and political development. The transformation of the modern world during a time of political turmoil, global conflict and international cooperation provides a necessary context for understanding Australia's development, its place within the Asia–Pacific region, and its global standing.
<b>Key inquiry questions</b>	The key inquiry questions at this year level are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How did the nature of global conflict change during the 20th century?</li> <li>• What were the consequences of World War II? How did these consequences shape the modern world?</li> <li>• How was Australian society affected by other significant global events and changes in this period?</li> </ul>

## Historical knowledge and understanding

		Chapters	Suggested class time
<b>Overview</b>	This overview of the historical period <b>MUST</b> be studied →	1.0 The modern world and Australia: an overview	10%
<b>Depth studies</b>	<b>World War II</b> This depth study <b>MUST</b> be studied →	2.0 World War II	30%
	<b>Rights and freedoms</b> This depth study <b>MUST</b> be studied →	3.0 Rights and freedoms	30%
	<b>The globalising world</b> Choose <b>ONE</b> of the depth study options →	4.0 Popular culture <a href="#">o</a> The environment movement [ <b>obook only</b> ] 5.0 Migration experiences	30%

# Historical skills

<b>Chronology, terms and concepts</b>	<p>Use chronological sequencing to</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demonstrate the relationship between events and developments in different periods and places (ACHHS182)</li> <li>• Use historical terms and concepts (ACHHS183)</li> </ul>
<b>Historical questions and research</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify and select different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry (ACHHS184)</li> <li>• Evaluate and enhance these questions (ACHHS185)</li> <li>• Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods (ACHHS186)</li> </ul>
<b>Analysis and use of sources</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS187)</li> <li>• Process and synthesise information from a range of sources for use as evidence in an historical argument (ACHHS188)</li> <li>• Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS189)</li> </ul>
<b>Perspectives and interpretations</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past (ACHHS190)</li> <li>• Identify and analyse different historical interpretations (including their own) (ACHHS191)</li> </ul>
<b>Explanation and communication</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop texts, particularly descriptions and discussions that use evidence from a range of sources that are referenced (ACHHS192)</li> <li>• Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies (ACHHS193)</li> </ul>

## Year 10 achievement standard

By the end of Year 10, students refer to key events, the actions of individuals and groups, and beliefs and values to explain patterns of change and continuity over time. They analyse the causes and effects of events and developments, and explain their relative importance. They explain the context for people's actions in the past. Students explain the significance of events and developments from a range of perspectives. They explain different interpretations of the past and recognise the evidence used to support these interpretations.

Students sequence events and developments within a chronological framework, and identify relationships between events across different places and periods of time. When researching, students develop, evaluate and modify questions to frame a historical inquiry. They process, analyse and synthesise information from a range of primary and secondary sources and use it as evidence to answer inquiry questions. Students analyse sources to identify motivations, values and attitudes. When evaluating these sources, they analyse and draw conclusions about their usefulness, taking into account their origin, purpose, and context. They develop and justify their own interpretations about the past. Students develop texts, particularly explanations and discussions, incorporating historical argument. In developing these texts and organising and presenting their arguments, they use historical terms and concepts, evidence identified in sources, and they reference these sources.

© Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority 2012. Content descriptions and elaborations – This is an extract from the Australian Curriculum and is current as at October 2012. ACARA neither endorses nor verifies the accuracy of the information provided and accepts no responsibility for incomplete or inaccurate information. In particular, ACARA does not endorse or verify the content descriptions are solely for Year 10; and that all the content descriptions for Year 10 have been used. You can find the unaltered and most up-to-date versions of this material at <http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/>. This material is reproduced with the permission of ACARA.

overview

# The modern world and Australia: an overview

*Over the last century, the world has changed more than it has during any other period of human history. At the end of World War I, the **empires** of the great European powers, like Britain and France, dominated the world. The collapse of these empires created dozens of new nations. Now, in the early 21st century, China and India are emerging as new global powers.*

The nature of military conflict has changed. No longer are whole societies mobilised to fight wars as was the case during World Wars I and II. Instead, war is more complex, with tactics shifting towards the use of terror, as well as more highly advanced and mechanised methods.

Everyday life in much of the world has been transformed by new technologies. Advances in

communication and information technologies, the sciences and transport have been extraordinarily rapid. These changes have all contributed to making a more **globalised** society. These transformations, however, have not been without cost. Increasing wealth, population and consumption are now coming to be seen as a threat to our society and a challenge for the future of humankind.

## Key inquiry questions

- 1.1 What were the significant events and key features of the inter-war years?
- 1.2 How did the nature of global conflict change during the 20th century?
- 1.3 How has Australian society been affected by other significant changes during the 20th century?

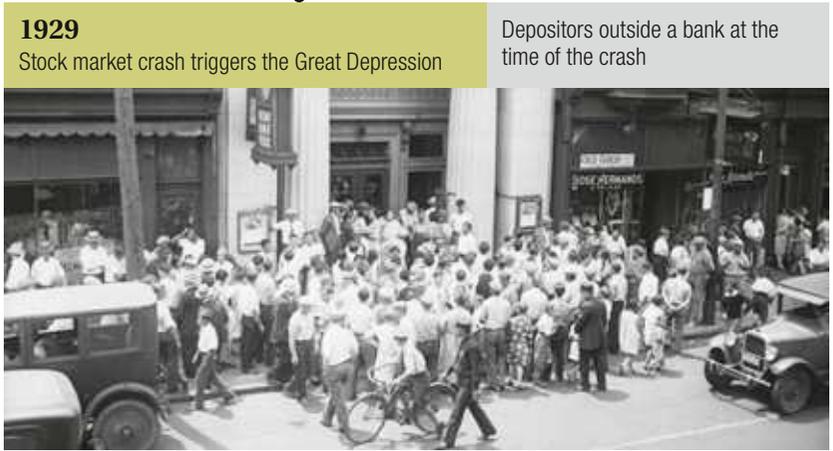
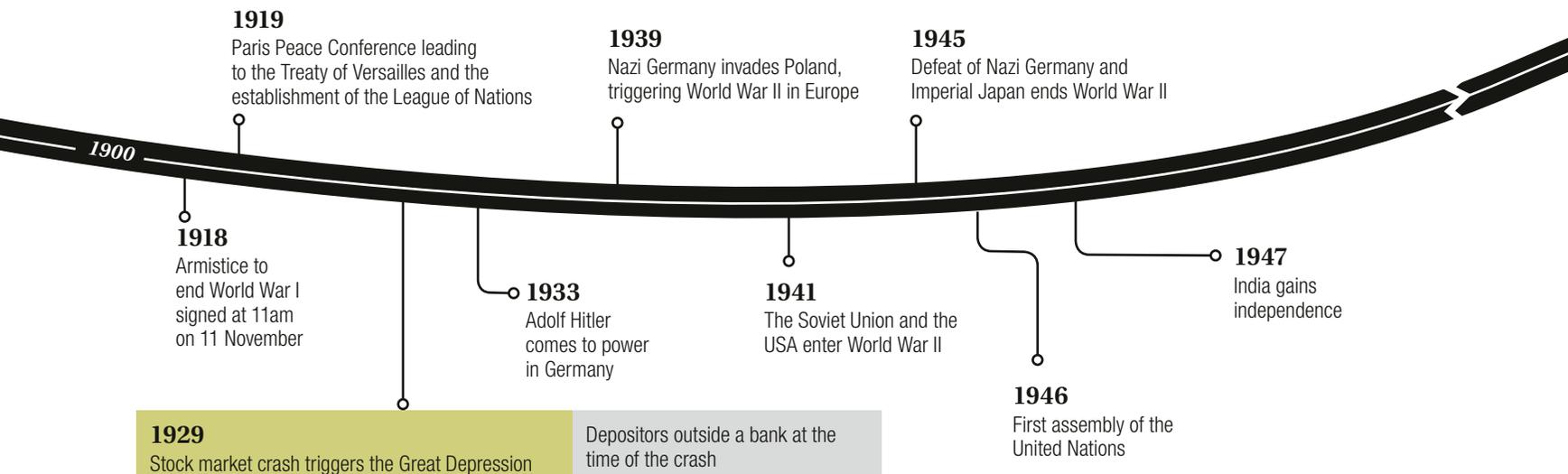
Djakapurra Munyarryun stands amongst 100 000 hands of reconciliation planted in the sand at Bondi Beach in 1998.



## The modern world and Australia

*The period since the end of World War I through to the present day has seen Australia emerge as an entity in its own right, rather than being viewed as an extension of Great Britain. Australia's signing of the Treaty of Versailles was the first significant indication of its new and separate stance from Great Britain.*

*After the excitement of the 'Roaring Twenties', the inter-war years saw the **Great Depression** cause a massive disruption to the world economy. Not long after that, the outbreak of World War II between the Allied powers (mainly Russia, the USA and the United Kingdom) and the Axis powers (Nazi Germany, Japan and Italy) would lead to the deaths of over 60 million people. The United Nations was formed as a means of preventing future world wars; however, rivalry between two new superpowers, the Soviet Union and the USA, resulted in the **Cold War**, which had global ramifications for a further 45 years.*



Source 1.1 Timeline of some key events of the modern world (1918–2011)

School children in Florida, USA, practising a 'duck and cover' disaster drill in case of a nuclear attack

### 1945–1948

Tensions between the USA and the Soviet Union after World War II lead to the Cold War



### 11 September 2001

Terrorist attacks on New York and Washington DC, USA, triggering the US-led war on terror

### 1955–1975

The Vietnam War

### 1968

Martin Luther King, leader of the American Civil Rights movement, is assassinated

### 1967

Referendum in Australia grants the Commonwealth Government rights to legislate on issues impacting on Indigenous Australians

### 1989–1991

The Cold War ends with the break-up of the Soviet Union and the establishment of democratic governments in the former Soviet bloc

### June 2010

Australia's first female prime minister, Julia Gillard, comes to power

### 1949

Communist Party wins power in China

### 1956

Elvis Presley makes his first recordings; television launched in Australia



Elvis Presley performing on stage

### 1970–1980

First personal computers released on the market



Schoolboys playing an early computer game



**Source 1.2** Despite increasing prosperity, living conditions remained harsh for many Australian families in the 1920s.

# 1.1

## What were the significant events and key features of the inter-war years?

*The period between the two world wars saw tremendous change and upheaval, as Europe struggled to recover from the devastation of World War I. The 'Roaring Twenties' were a time of considerable prosperity, particularly in Europe and North America, but this changed dramatically with the onset of the Great Depression in 1929. This brought unemployment and poverty to millions and was only fully relieved as the countries of Europe re-armed for war in the face of the threat from the dictatorships that had emerged in Germany, Italy and Japan.*

### The aftermath of World War I

World War I had left Europe devastated. Over a four-year period, the main combatants on the Western Front had become bogged down in **trench warfare** as they attempted to wear down their opponents through attacks and counterattacks. The Great War, as it was known, had involved multiple nations and resulted in casualties never experienced before. Over 8 million soldiers and sailors lost their lives, and a similar number of civilians were killed through war, starvation and disease. A further 21 million were wounded. Very soon after peace was declared, the world was hit by an outbreak of Spanish Influenza. Unlike most strains of influenza, which are mainly dangerous for the elderly and the very young, the Spanish Influenza was predominantly a killer of people aged 20–40 years. Over 30 million people died as a result of this **pandemic**.

## The Treaty of Versailles

In January 1919, the victorious nations met at the Paris Peace Conference in France, to come up with a plan for rebuilding Europe and ensuring ongoing peace for the future. Leaders of 32 countries were represented at the conference, but negotiations were dominated by four main powers: Prime Minister David Lloyd George of Britain, Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau of France, President Woodrow Wilson of the USA and Prime Minister Vittorio Orlando of Italy (see Source 1.4).

These four leaders were divided on how to treat the defeated nations. The French, who had suffered greatly during World War I, wanted revenge and compensation for the damage done to their country. Clemenceau wanted to weaken Germany to such an extent that it would never be able to take up arms again. President Wilson, on the other hand, wanted to achieve lasting peace with a treaty that punished Germany, but not so harshly that they would one day want revenge. He put forward a 'Fourteen Point Plan', which he believed would serve as the basis for lasting world peace. Part of this proposed plan was that an international 'League of Nations' should be established, whereby countries could come together to discuss problems rather than go to war. Lloyd George's position was somewhere between that of the USA and France. He was influenced by the desire of the British public to see Germany punished as harshly as possible, but was also concerned that a severely weakened Germany might enable France, Britain's old rival, to dominate Europe.

After months of negotiations, the Treaty of Versailles was signed in the Hall of Mirrors, inside the Chateau de Versailles, on 28 June 1919. The treaty addressed territorial, military and financial issues. Germany had not been allowed to attend the Paris Peace Conference until the terms of the treaty had been agreed upon. While many German people were opposed to the terms of the treaty, German representatives knew that if they did not sign it, then the Allies would invade Germany, and Germany would be powerless to stop them.

### Territorial terms

Germany was required to surrender much of its territory (see Source 1.3) and all of its overseas colonies (including the former German New Guinea which was given to Australia). The Austro-Hungarian Empire was replaced by new states, including Czechoslovakia. Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia became independent states. Germany was also prohibited from uniting with Austria, its former ally.

### Military terms

The Treaty of Versailles forced Germany to limit its army to 100 000 men, and also prohibited them from possessing an air force, tanks, submarines or heavy artillery. Most of Germany's battle fleet had to be given to Britain. Additionally, no German soldiers or weapons were allowed within the Rhineland (an area along the banks of the River Rhine). This ensured a buffer zone between Germany and the countries that bordered the west of Germany (France, Belgium and Luxembourg).

### Financial terms

Germany was required to accept full responsibility for starting the war and to pay **reparations** (the damage and warfare costs of the Allies). It was agreed that Germany should pay the huge amount of nearly 7 million pounds in compensation, primarily to France and Belgium. This was difficult for Germany given that its own economy had been damaged as a result of the war. Terms of the treaty also meant that they lost territory and thus natural resources that had previously served as a source of income.



Source 1.3 Germany's territorial losses after the Treaty of Versailles



**Source 1.4** This cartoon appeared in Britain in 1920. It shows the French prime minister and other leaders leaving the Peace Conference. Clemenceau, known as 'The Tiger', says he can hear a child weeping. The child represents the '1940 class'—the young men who in 1940 will be 'cannon fodder' for the next war.

## Establishment of the League of Nations

The League of Nations was formed as an outcome of the Treaty of Versailles, with the major purpose of preventing another world war. To help ensure this, it had the power to order countries in conflict to discuss differences in the League Assembly, where the aggressor could be warned, punished with economic sanctions, or threatened with military action. Forty-two countries (including Australia) joined the League of Nations at the start. Ironically, given that the League of Nations had been President Wilson's idea, the USA did not join the League. This was because of hostility at home towards further involvement in European affairs. Germany was not initially allowed to join, and then, after becoming a member in 1926, withdrew in 1933 on instructions from Adolf Hitler. Japan, who had been one of the foundation members, withdrew in 1934 when it was questioned regarding its expansion into China.

## Check your learning

- Look at the timeline (Source 1.1) and determine:
  - For how long after World War I was the Soviet Union a 'superpower'?
  - What cultural changes happened in the world during that time?
- Describe the impact of Spanish Influenza on the post-war population.
- Summarise the positions of the British, French and US leaders in relation to how Germany should be treated after WWI and why.
  - Why would the German people have opposed the Treaty of Versailles?
  - Why did the German representatives sign it?
- Summarise the restrictions placed on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles in terms of territory, military and finance.
- Why was the League of Nations created?
- What were some early problems with the League?
- What is the meaning of the political cartoon in Source 1.4?

## The Roaring Twenties

While the 1920s involved a severe economic downturn for Germany, this was not the case in other parts of the world. Indeed, in many places, including the USA, London, Paris and Australia, these post-war years were a time of great economic prosperity. This, combined with radical advances in technology as well as the sense of freedom, excitement and optimism brought about by the end of the war, led to huge changes in social ideas and practices.

**Source 1.5** The Roaring Twenties was a time of growing freedom for women.



## Consumerism

During the 1920s, the production of **consumer** goods rose dramatically. New methods of mass production meant that a widening range of goods became available on a scale never seen before. Advertising encouraged ordinary people to buy these goods.

At the same time, people had more money to spend. One of the reasons for this was the introduction of hire-purchase systems, where people could buy items they wanted by paying them off over time, with interest. Hire-purchase meant that people could get whatever they wanted, essentially by going into debt.

Things like toasters, vacuum cleaners and refrigerators became products in high demand. The more that people bought goods, the more jobs were created. Secondary industries that supplied raw materials for these goods also boomed.

### Cars

Before the war, cars were a luxury. But as a result of mass production methods, they, like many other goods, became substantially cheaper. Mass production involved **assembly lines** being built in factories where each worker concentrated on one small job only. The most famous example of this method was Henry Ford's factory, which used mass production methods to produce one Model T car every ten seconds.

In the 1920s, mass-produced vehicles became common throughout the USA and Canada. Only about 300 000 vehicles were registered in 1918 in all of Canada, but by 1929, there were 1.9 million. Cars in Australia were mostly imported until Ford and General Motors established themselves here in 1925.

The automobile industry's effects were widespread. Suburbs expanded away from public transport routes, and people had freedom to travel and socialise in ways that had not been possible previously. Many new roads had to be built, which required many more workers. Petrol, leather and rubber industries boomed.



Source 1.6 The Ford factory assembly line

### Radio and cinema

Another influential innovation of the time was the radio, which became the first mass broadcasting medium. The advertising industry blossomed as companies began to deliver their sales pitches via the airwaves to all the families who gathered nightly around the radio.

The 1920s was the Jazz Age. Jazz music spread like wildfire from the dance halls to the radio. Originating in black communities in New Orleans around the turn of the century, jazz slowly moved its way north and became an international phenomenon thanks to the radio. The Hollywood motion-picture industry also emerged during the 1920s. Silent films had been popular in America for some years, but 1927 saw the first feature film 'talkie' (sound synchronised motion picture) with the release of *The Jazz Singer*. This was the first ever full-length film to contain spoken words. By 1930, over 100 million Americans a week were going to the movies. Actors and actresses like Charlie Chaplin, Mary Pickford and Rudolf Valentino became 'stars' and were known all over the world.

### Check your learning

- 1 Were the 'Roaring Twenties' experienced by all nations of the world? Why or why not?
- 2 What was the name of the first feature-length film to contain sound?
- 3 What were some of the causes of the 'wildness' seen in the 1920s?

## keyconcepts

# Cause and effect

A cause is something that produces an effect or an action. An effect is a change resulting from this action. Generally, an effect will then cause a subsequent action or event, which will then cause yet another action, and so on. History provides countless examples of the link between these two factors, and the ability to identify **cause and effect** is a critical skill.

## The rise of the Nazi party

Many Germans bitterly resented the terms of the Treaty of Versailles (1919), but were forced to accept them. The treaty devastated Germany politically and economically, and the territorial losses they suffered were an ongoing source of humiliation. It was impossible for Germany to meet the reparation (compensation) payments that had been imposed on it by the treaty. By the 1920s, there was considerable

unrest and suffering. Economic difficulties resulted in hyper-inflation, meaning that Germany's Deutschmarks currency became almost worthless, destroying the savings and prosperity of many German people. This discontent was reflected in unstable governments, many of which stayed in power for only a few months at a time.

It was in this context that a far right-wing party known as the National Socialists (**Nazis**), led by charismatic leader Adolf Hitler, began to rise in popularity. Hitler promised a strong, authoritarian government, peace and full employment. He was to restore German national pride by repudiating the Versailles treaty and 'ridding' the country of Jews and Marxists, whom he considered to have subverted the nation.

By 1932, the Nazi party had won a significant number of seats in parliament and was the second largest political party. Hitler exerted pressure on the government and had himself appointed chancellor, after which he began to roll out laws that removed civil liberties and gave him unprecedented powers. He consolidated his power in June 1934 by assassinating his political enemies in the 'night of the long knives'. The Nazi era was characterised by suppression of social and political freedoms and brutal persecution of the Jews and other minority groups. Despite repeated violations of the Treaty of Versailles, it was not until Germany invaded Poland, in 1939, that Britain declared war.

With the benefit of hindsight, and knowing the horrific actions of the Nazi party in the extermination of the Jews, it can be difficult to imagine what may have caused the rise of Hitler and the Nazis. It is the job of historians to analyse and interpret the evidence in order to understand the causes.



**Source 1.7** German banknotes being baled as waste paper



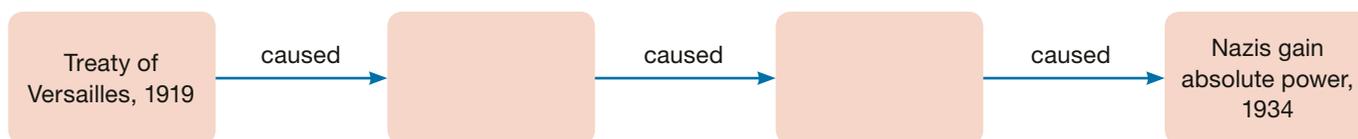
**Source 1.8** An election poster for the German National People's Party—'Wer hat im Weltkrieg dem deutschen Heere den Dolchstoß versetzt?' ('Who stabbed the German army in the back in the Great War?')



**Source 1.9** A campaign poster depicting Adolf Hitler. The text reads 'One People, One Empire, One Leader'.

## Check your learning

- 1 What were the effects of the Treaty of Versailles on the German people in the 1920s and 1930s?
- 2 Look at the political propaganda in Sources 1.8 and 1.9. What do these sources tell you about how the Nazi party presented itself to the German people?
- 3 What were the causes of the Nazi party's popularity in Germany in the early 1930s?
- 4 Draw a flow chart in your notebook to demonstrate a chain of causation, starting with the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 and ending with absolute Nazi power in 1934. Add as many boxes as you can.



## skilldrill

# Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past

When investigating a period in history or a particular historical question, it is important to identify and analyse a range of perspectives. When analysing primary sources of evidence, we need to:

- Identify WHO wrote, produced or made the **source** as well as WHERE and WHEN.
- Identify WHY it was written, produced or made: for example, were there personal motives or political reasons?
- Identify HOW it was written or produced: for example, does it give a particular point of view? Does it give a detached, balanced account? Is it biased either for or against a particular issue? Is it trustworthy?

## Women

Apart from being a time of major economic growth and consumerism, the 1920s were also a time of major changes in social norms and practices. This new age was expressed not just in lifestyle but in dress, culture, music and behaviour, particularly by many young women who rebelled against the expectations that had been placed upon them socially. These women became known as 'flappers'. Flappers wore more daring clothes, danced, smoked and drank in public, and went out in cars without a chaperone.

At the same time, the range of jobs open to women had grown during the war, and most girls leaving school now expected to work. Pay rates for women, however, were still half those of men. Male-dominated trade unions argued that if they supported females, they would be putting men out of work. The government was also generally opposed to women's working ambitions. There was still a common perception that a woman's 'real' job was to maintain the home.

### Source 1.10

*Modern ideas, modern dress, modern plays, modern picture shows, modern conversation, modern adolescent freedom and many other 'modern' dangers are responsible for a serious canker, more insidious than the dreaded cancer, which seems to be sapping the erstwhile purity of mind of our girlhood ... The 'abandon' of the jazz and the voluptuous, to say the least of it, movements of our dances of today, with the semi-nudity as a necessary female embellishment, must have an effect diametrically opposed to all that Catholic morals stand for ...*

*Freeman's Journal*, published March 1925

### Source 1.11

*'Listen, Nick; let me tell you what I said when she was born. Would you like to hear?'*

*'Very much.'*

*'It'll show you how I've gotten to feel about—things. Well, she was less than an hour old and Tom was God knows where. I woke up out of the ether with an utterly abandoned feeling, and asked the nurse right away if it was a boy or a girl. She told me it was a girl, and so I turned my head away and wept. "All right," I said, "I'm glad it's a girl. And I hope she'll be a fool—that's the best thing a girl can be in this world, a beautiful little fool."'*

*The Great Gatsby*, F. Scott Fitzgerald, 1925

### Source 1.12

*If one judges by appearances, I suppose I am a flapper. I am within the age limit. I wear bobbed hair, the badge of flapperhood. (And, oh, what a comfort it is!) I powder my nose. I wear fringed skirts and bright-colored sweaters, and scarfs, and waists with Peter Pan collars, and low-heeled 'finale hopper' shoes. I adore to dance. I spend a large amount of time in automobiles. I attend hops, and proms, and ball-games, and crew races, and other affairs at men's colleges ...*

*Think back to the time when you were struggling through the teens. Remember how spontaneous and deep were the joys, how serious and penetrating the sorrows. Most of us, under the present system of modern education, are further advanced and more thoroughly developed mentally, physically, and vocationally than were our parents at our age. We hold the infinite possibilities of the myriads of new inventions within our grasp. We have learned to take for granted conveniences, and many luxuries, which not so many years ago were as yet undreamed of. We are in touch with the whole universe. We have a tremendous problem on our hands. You must help us. Give us confidence—not distrust. Give us practical aid and advice—not criticism. Praise us when praise is merited. Be patient and understanding when we make mistakes.*

*We are the Younger Generation. The war tore away our spiritual foundations and challenged our faith. We are struggling to regain our equilibrium. The times have made us older and more experienced than you were at our age. It must be so with each succeeding generation if it is to keep pace with the rapidly advancing and mighty tide of civilisation.*

*'A Flapper's Appeal to Parents'* by Ellen Welles Page  
(from *Outlook*, 6 December, 1922)



A little dispute in the Church about the Lady's retaining fee.



(1) The New Service  
The Bridegroom: 'I take this woman for £10 a month.'



Wifey: 'Yes, I'm sorry – I couldn't cook them – My ten hours were up.'



(2) The Bride: 'To love, honour and obey for ten hours a day.'



The Union Secretary addresses the strikers.



His Honor  
the New Mother-in-Law.



### THE NEW STATUS OF WOMAN

Wife's Working Hours and Her Pay—Woman M.P. Introduces a Bill—Reasonable 'Wages and Hours' Demanded—Perth—The Legislative Assembly sat till after midnight on Wednesday discussing a private bill to give access to Arbitration Court to insurance and commission agents and domestic servants. Mrs. Cowan said she intended to move a clause making for the purposes of the law husbands stand as employers and wives rank as employees. The wife should have a reasonable 'wage' and she should be allowed to apply to the Arbitration Court for 'reasonable hours'. She had as much right as the cook, the housemaid and the washerwoman to have access to the Arbitration Court.

- 1 What perspectives towards the place of women in society during the 1920s are evident in these sources?
- 2 What do these sources tell us about how social attitudes and morals were changing during this period?
- 3 Which social activities referred to in the extracts are accepted as normal in today's society? What primary sources could you locate from the present time to show this change?

Source 1.13 'The new status of woman'—a cartoon in the *Bulletin*, 1 December 1921

# The Great Depression

In the late 1920s, the world economy began to slow as prices for agricultural produce dropped worldwide. Unemployment slowly began to rise in many of the industrialised nations. Such problems may have been overcome, if they had not been followed by the collapse of the American stock exchange.

Throughout the 1920s, the American stock market had been a popular place to invest because shares could be bought on credit and sold for a profit without any actual money changing hands. In October 1929, however, the stock market crashed. Investors, stockbrokers and business owners lost everything.

As confidence in the economy evaporated, businesses closed down and unemployment grew. As workers lost their wages, they bought less, leading to further cutbacks in production and thus jobs. Governments seemed powerless to stop their economies spiralling out of control.



**Source 1.14** A family living in a shanty town in Sydney during the Great Depression

## Australia and the Great Depression

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

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

Many men took to the roads in search of jobs such as fruit picking. Often, children and women became the major income earners, as they were cheaper to employ. Soup kitchens and charity groups desperately attempted to feed the starving and destitute. Soldiers who had just returned from the war were hit the hardest, as they were still suffering trauma from their wartime experiences. Many became homeless, and the suicide rate increased dramatically.

### The susso

The government provided relief to the unemployed in the form of sustenance payments—known as the 'susso'. By 1932, more than 60 000 people depended on the susso merely to survive. This was only for the truly destitute, who had been unemployed for a sustained period of time, and had no assets or savings. The susso was given in the form of staple, filling foods, such as bread and potatoes. It was immortalised in a contemporary children's rhyme:

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

### Source 1.15

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

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

## Check your learning

- 1 How did the collapse of the American stock exchange affect the economy and why?
- 2 Why did events overseas affect jobs in Australia?
- 3 Look at the clothing and houses of the family in Source 1.14. What can you learn about how the family lived from the photo?
- 4 Explain what the 'susso' was and who qualified for it.
- 5 Read Source 1.15. Explain what the author means by the 'shabby and humiliating compromises' people were forced into making.
- 6 Who was hit the hardest by the Great Depression in Australian society? Why do you think this was the case?

## 1.1 What were the significant events and key features of the inter-war years?

### Remember

- 1 How many people were killed as a result of World War I?
- 2 Which countries had the most significant influence in the development of the Treaty of Versailles?

### Understand

- 3 Why would the Australian Medical Association have called the Spanish Influenza ‘the greatest enemy of all’?
- 4 Find out what hyper-inflation is. Why did people in Germany bale German banknotes as waste paper?

### Apply

- 5 If you were to interview a person who lived in Australia during the Great Depression, whom would you choose?
  - a Explain your reasons and create a profile of this person.
  - b Frame five questions to ask your chosen subject.
  - c Explain why you have decided to ask these questions.

### Analyse

- 6 The popular culture of the Jazz Age emphasised fun and fast living. Describe the changes in lifestyles, morals and attitudes of the time. To what extent do you think these attitudes were a reaction to the war, or a reaction to new technology?
- 7 In what ways did the Treaty of Versailles and, later, the economic crisis of the Great Depression, sow the seeds of World War II?

### Evaluate

- 8 Look at Sources 1.10–1.13. What conclusions can you draw about the position of women in Australian society in the 1920s and 1930s?

### Create

- 9 Conduct some research into the major technological innovations of the 1920s. Create a cartoon that shows the changes and advances brought about by the new technologies.
- 10 Look at Source 1.16 below, which shows men queuing for unemployment benefits during the Great Depression in Australia. Do some research to find out exactly what the unemployment rate was in Australia for each year between 1929 and 1940. Use Excel to create a graph of your findings.



Source 1.16 Unemployment queues during the 1930s Depression in Australia



Source 1.17 An example of modern weaponry—a Hawk missile battery

## 1.2 How did the nature of global conflict change during the 20th century?

*Conflict in the 20th century became more costly and involved a greater number of nations and people. The way in which war was fought changed dramatically: the use of bombers to attack cities well away from the fighting fronts brought warfare to civilians and saw large losses of life by non-combatants. Developments in weapon technology also led to radical increases in the number of casualties. World War II resulted in old, established **empires** crumbling and new superpowers emerging. As these superpowers grew, they divided the world and new antagonisms arose between what was seen as the East and the West.*

## A second world war

It had been less than 20 years since ‘the war to end all wars’, when yet another global conflict emerged. The nature and character of this conflict was more confronting and radical than World War I, as it involved the deaths of many civilians, as well as combatants. As with World War I, World War II was initially centred in Europe. The warring nations were divided into two groups: the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan) and the Allies (France, Britain, the USA, the Soviet Union and China). When Britain declared war on Germany on 3 September 1939, Australia was automatically involved as part of the British Empire.

World War II was fought on several fronts and expanded with the entry of the Japanese into the war. This saw the conflict spread to the East as well as continue in the West. With the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour, the Americans were drawn into the war in both the Pacific and the East. Initially, Japan pushed down through the old European colonies of the East, but was then slowly driven back towards its home islands.

Weaponry had developed greatly, particularly in aerial warfare and in the use of tanks. The use of aircraft to raid and bomb enemy cities resulted in huge numbers of civilian deaths (see Source 1.18). This was ‘total war’—with all parts of society involved in and affected by the conflict. Britain in particular was among the first nations to introduce policies to support a total war effort. These included introducing rationing of supplies and **conscripting** civilians. The governments of the Soviet Union, Japan and the USA had similar policies.



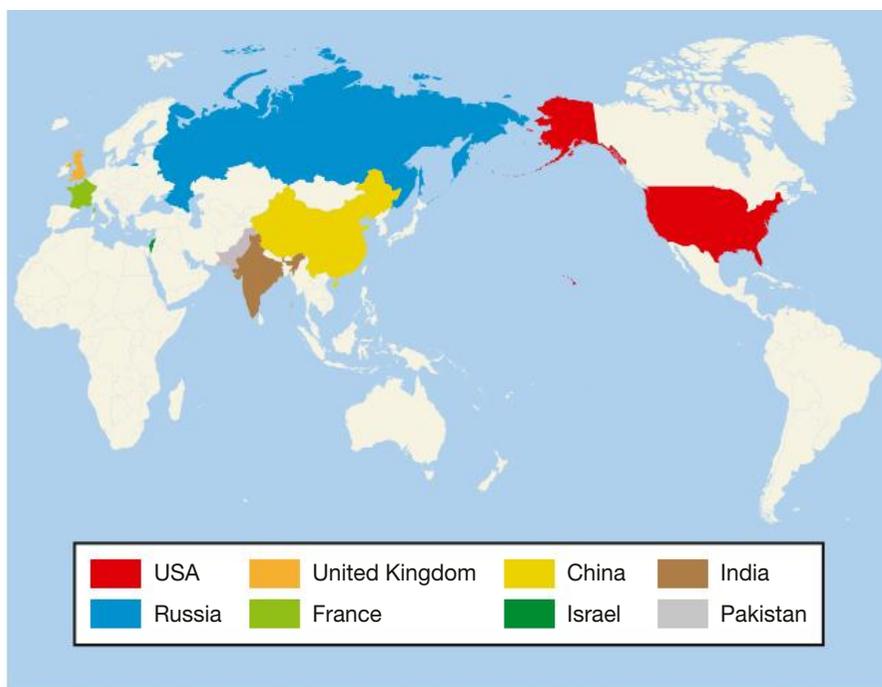
**Source 1.18** Images like this painting of the bombing of Cologne, by British wartime artist W Krogman, were used as wartime propaganda to boost civilian morale. Images such as this one, although factually inaccurate, served to rally public support for the war.

## The Holocaust

Nazi political ideology included theories about racial superiority. Some people, such as the German 'Aryans', were seen as being superior, while others (such as the Jews) were seen as dangerous to the existence of the world. Hitler had indicated that he wished to cleanse Europe of Jewish people. Plans included the forced transit of the Jewish people to somewhere such as Madagascar, once Germany had defeated France and gained control of her territories. Instead, under Nazi leadership, a policy of **genocide** was implemented. Jews were rounded up and initially interred in ghettos or camps where the food and health provisions were very poor. This policy was followed by one of planned extermination where, as a 'final solution', Jews were delivered to death camps where they were killed by shooting or gas (see Source 1.19). It is estimated that over six million Jews died as a result of the **Holocaust**. Many other minority groups such as gypsies and homosexuals, also labelled as undesirables by the Nazi party, were rounded up and sent to camps or murdered.



Source 1.19 Corpses at Belsen Concentration Camp



Source 1.20 Today, eight countries possess nuclear weapons. Only five of these countries (the USA, Russia, the United Kingdom, France and China) are allowed to have nuclear weapons according to the 'Non-Proliferation Treaty' (NPT), which was passed by the United Nations in 1970.

## The atomic bomb

In 1945, President Truman of the USA decided to impose a quick end to the war in the East. He ordered the use of an atomic bomb to force the Japanese to surrender. On 6 August 1945, an atomic bomb was dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima, instantly killing about 70 000 people. On 9 August, a second bomb was dropped on the Japanese city of Nagasaki. Five years later, more than half a million people had died in these two cities as a result of sickness associated with radiation from the atomic bombs.

After the Japanese surrender on 15 August 1945, many people wanted a complete ban on nuclear weapons in order to avoid a nuclear arms race. Both the USA and the Soviet Union declared that they wanted to put the atomic bomb under careful international control. Yet, in fact, neither of these nations was actually ready to give up their own nuclear weapons programs. The Soviet Union worked secretly to catch up with the USA and, by 29 August 1949, also conducted successful testing of its own atomic bomb. This was one important element of a rivalry between the two powers, which would continue until 1991. This rivalry would become known as the 'Cold War'.

### Check your learning

- 1 Why did Australia enter World War II?
- 2 What made World War II different from World War I?

## The Cold War

The Cold War was fought between the USSR (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, or the Soviet Union) and the USA from roughly 1946 to 1991. It is described as a ‘cold’ war because at no time during this period did the two countries directly fight each other. Rather, it was a war of propaganda, espionage and rivalry in everything from sports events to weaponry and other forms of technological development.

### A changing international order

World War I had resulted in the end of three ancient and powerful empires: the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Tsarist Russia and the Ottoman Empire. The fall of these empires allowed Britain and France to grow stronger during the 1920s. In the 1930s, Germany, Italy and Japan challenged this dominance, and this was a major cause of World War II.

Despite winning World War II, Britain and France found that their places in the world were weakened. From 1947 onwards, most European nations, including Britain, France, Belgium and the Netherlands, abandoned or were driven from their **colonies**. The age of European empires was over.

Until they had been attacked by Axis forces in 1941, both the USA and the USSR had largely avoided becoming involved in international events. But by the time Soviet and US forces met in Germany in 1945 to celebrate their defeat of the Germans, it was clear that these two nations would be the most powerful in the post-war world. The USA (a capitalist nation) had enormous economic power, as well as its own huge army, navy and air force. The USSR (a communist nation), despite the damage and loss it had suffered as a result of the German invasion, had the world’s biggest army. While they had been allies during the war, this was only because they had Germany as a common enemy. In fact, there was much distrust and suspicion between these two nations, which would continue to escalate for the next 50 years.

Source 1.22 Comparison of key features of capitalist and communist economic systems

	Capitalism	Communism
<b>Government control</b>	Belief that government should not interfere in the economy any more than necessary.	Belief that the government should control the economy for the benefit of all citizens.
<b>Competition</b>	Competition is healthy and encourages individuals to be the best that they can.	Competition puts people against each other. All should work together for the common good.
<b>Profit</b>	Profits are a fair reward for owners of business. Different wages and salaries for different jobs is fair and encourages people to aim higher.	Profits kept in the hands of a few represents the exploitation of workers.



Source 1.21

Civil defence in the USA included not just defence against natural disasters but also against the threat of attack from the USSR.

## Origins of the Cold War

During the 1945 Yalta Conference, the leaders of the USA, the USSR and Britain agreed that Germany and its capital, Berlin, would be divided into four zones: American, Soviet, British and French (see source 1.23).

Between 1945 and 1949, the USSR set up communist governments in Poland, Albania, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria and Hungary. Stalin, the leader of the USSR, had achieved **communist** domination of Eastern Europe. The border between Soviet-controlled countries and the West was famously described by British Prime Minister Winston Churchill as an 'iron curtain' (see Source 1.24).

Berlin lay within the Soviet-controlled part of Germany. The Western-controlled half of Berlin thus effectively became an island, surrounded by communist-controlled Germany.



Source 1.24 The iron curtain in Europe at the end of World War II



Source 1.23 The division of Germany into four zones—British, American, French and Soviet controlled areas

## The Berlin Blockade

Stalin decided to put pressure on the Western powers by blocking all land routes to Berlin. He hoped to force the Western powers out of West Berlin.

The Western powers were determined not to surrender to this pressure, and kept their sectors of Berlin alive by flying in the fuel and food needed to keep the city operating. A round-the-clock airlift was established, which saw pilots and planes from the USA and Britain flying in everything that people living in West Berlin needed. The airlift ran from May 1948 to March 1949, supplying at its peak 13 000 tonnes of goods per day. After realising that the Western powers were not going to give up West Berlin, Stalin called off the blockade on 12 May 1949.



**Source 1.25** Workers add layers of bricks to the Berlin Wall, 1960.

Britain, France and the USA then announced that the spheres of Germany and Berlin under their control were going to be merged or unified to form the 'Federal Republic of Germany' (West Germany). The Soviets announced the formation of the 'German Democratic Republic' (East Germany). This division would last until 1990.

As West Germany's economy grew and its standard of living steadily improved, many East Germans wanted to move to West Germany. These people were considered 'defectors' by the East German authorities. They often migrated through Berlin, which remained a divided city even though it was located in the middle of East Germany. This was considered a disaster to communist leaders, and led to the construction of the 'Berlin Wall' (see Source 1.25).

## key concepts

# Evidence

Photographs, drawings and other images are historical sources that can provide information about the past. Sources can be used to frame arguments or ideas about history. Sources alone, however, do not constitute evidence. **Evidence** is the information you create when you interrogate a source and ask specific questions about it. You can use evidence to support a historical argument. The questions you ask about a source and the evidence that you uncover as a result will depend on the purpose of the inquiry and the argument you are making.

## A city divided

Berlin became a symbol of the Cold War after the Berlin Blockade. As the years passed, the contrasts between West Germany and East Germany grew. Capitalist West Germany enjoyed economic prosperity, a growing economy and a steadily improving standard of living under the guidance of the US-led Marshall Plan, while communist-held East Germany stagnated. In the 1950s, thousands of East Germans escaped into West Berlin from communist-led East Berlin.

On 13 August 1961, in response to the flight of its citizens to the West, the East German government erected barbed wire fences along the boundary between East and West Berlin. These were soon replaced by a concrete wall that was patrolled 24 hours a day by armed border guards. Almost 200 people were shot and killed in the ensuing years as they tried to escape into West Berlin. The Berlin Wall divided the city until 1989.



**Source 1.26** West Berlin in the 1950s, view of the Gedächtniskirche (a church damaged during World War II)



**Source 1.27** Strausberger Platz in East Berlin, 1950s



**Source 1.28** East Berliner Peter Fechter was shot and killed trying to escape over the wall to West Berlin on 17 August 1962. He was 18 years old.

## Check your learning

- 1 Look at the cars in the photographs in Sources 1.26 and 1.27. What evidence do these provide about everyday life in East and West Berlin in the post-war years? Think about economic prosperity and social freedoms.
- 2 Make a table and use the photographs to infer three differences between life in East and West Berlin.
- 3 What evidence does Source 1.28 provide about life in East and West Berlin in the post-war years? Why?
- 4 Write an argument that outlines why you believe people tried to escape from East to West Germany, and use the evidence you have gathered from the sources included in this section of the chapter to support your argument.

## The Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan

By 1947, the USA had become increasingly concerned about the growth of Soviet power. At this time, Greece was one of the few countries in Eastern Europe that had not become communist, thanks to the presence there of the British Army. When the British told US President Truman they could no longer afford to keep their soldiers in Greece, Truman stepped in. In March 1947, he told the American Congress that it was America's job to contain the spread of communism. This became known as the 'Truman Doctrine'.

Truman believed that communism succeeded when people faced financial hardship. In June 1947, US General George Marshall visited Europe and expressed concern that, given the extreme levels of poverty he had witnessed, many more European nations were at risk of turning communist. Marshall and Truman came up with the 'Marshall Plan', which involved the provision of \$17 billion worth of US aid being used to get the economies of Europe going again. Initially, the US government was dubious about the plan, but approved it in 1948 when Czechoslovakia adopted communism. Food, machinery and many other things were shipped to **democratic** countries in Europe. Stalin saw this as an attempt by the USA to dominate Europe by making it dependent on American handouts.

### Check your learning

- 1 Explain why the USSR and the USA emerged after WWII as the most powerful countries in the world.
- 2 Study Source 1.22 and describe the major differences between capitalism and communism.
- 3 Why do you think Churchill referred to the border between Germany and the West as the 'iron curtain'?
- 4 Why did the East German government build a wall between East and West Berlin?

## Korea

When Japan surrendered at the end of World War II, its former Korean colony was split in two. North Korea was supported by the USSR, and South Korea was supported by US-led UN forces. In 1950, Stalin encouraged the leader of North Korea, Kim Il Sung, to invade South Korea. The US president, Harry Truman, immediately called on the United Nations (UN) to act.

The UN ordered the North Korean army to retreat, but they refused. In response, the UN sponsored a military intervention that was led by US troops under the command of General Douglas MacArthur. At one stage during the conflict, communist Chinese forces came to the aid of their North Korean allies. General MacArthur considered using nuclear bombs against China, but was overruled by the US government. Neither side wanted a total victory at the risk of a nuclear war.

Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies, who was strongly anti-communist, believed that if communism was not stopped in Asia, it would eventually spread to Australia. Thousands of Australians enlisted and volunteered to fight in Korea (see Source 1.29).

The fighting eventually ended with a negotiated ceasefire on 27 July 1953, which left Korea divided as it had been when the war began.



Source 1.29 Australians fighting in Korea. c. 1951

## The Cuban Missile Crisis

The most potentially dangerous confrontation between the USSR and the USA during the Cold War was over Cuba.

In 1959, a rebel named Fidel Castro took power in Cuba, and soon afterwards **nationalised** most Cuban industries, which meant that the USA lost the commercial investments it had there. In retaliation, the Americans stopped all aid to Cuba, and all imports of Cuban sugar. This was very damaging to Cuba as sugar was the mainstay of the Cuban economy. Castro asked the USSR for help, and in 1960, the USSR signed an agreement to buy one million tonnes of Cuban sugar every year.

This alliance with the USSR made the USA very nervous. In April 1961, they supported a group of Cuban anti-communist exiles to invade Cuba at the Bay of Pigs and overthrow Castro. The invasion was a disaster.

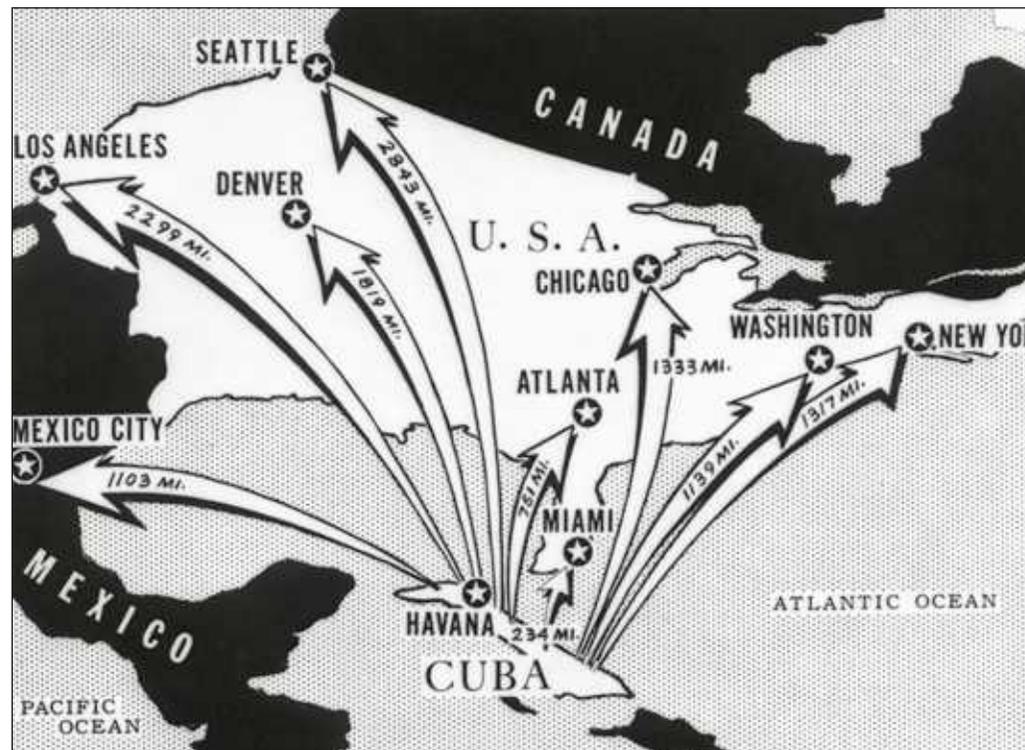
The Soviet leader, Premier Nikita Khrushchev, took the opportunity to get the Soviet military involved in Cuba, by arguing that the USSR was helping to defend Cuba against US aggression. In September 1961, Castro asked Russia for weapons to defend Cuba against the USA. Not long after that, photographs of Cuba taken by American spy planes revealed Soviet nuclear missiles under construction at various sites in Cuba. These sites brought every city and town in the USA within range of Soviet nuclear missiles (see Source 1.31). President John Kennedy made a televised announcement to the American people on 22 October that they were under threat. He also proclaimed that any nuclear missile launched from Cuba would be regarded as an attack on the US by the USSR, and demanded that the Soviets remove all of their offensive weapons from Cuba.

For a few days in late October, it seemed very likely that there would be a war between the USA and the USSR. The US armed forces were at their highest state of readiness ever, and Soviet field commanders in Cuba were prepared to use nuclear weapons to defend the island if the USA invaded.

Luckily, President Kennedy and Premier Khrushchev were able to reach an agreement whereby the Soviets removed their missiles from Cuba in exchange for a commitment by the USA not to invade Cuba. The Cuban Missile Crisis was the closest the world has ever come to nuclear war.



Source 1.30 A US destroyer intercepts a Russian freighter off Cuba.



Source 1.31 Distances of major US cities from Cuba

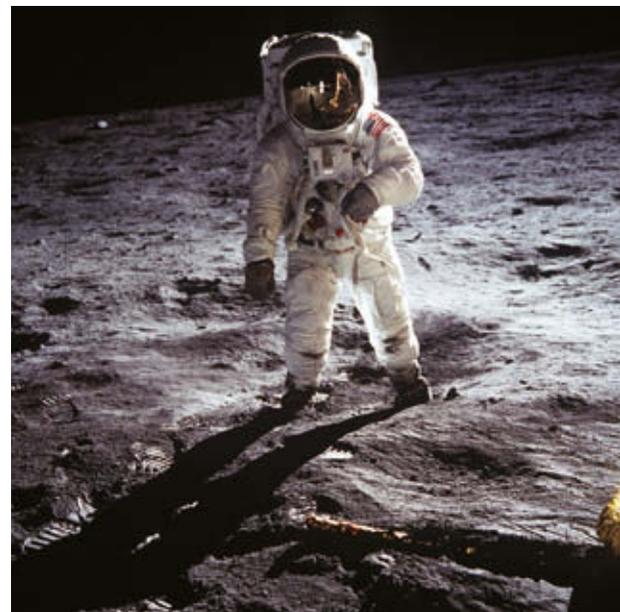
## The space race

Another important element of Cold War rivalry between the USA and the USSR was space exploration. This was seen as necessary for national security and symbolic of technological superiority. The ‘space race’ became a way for the two superpowers to compete without direct military conflict.

The space race became particularly serious when the USSR successfully launched a satellite, called *Sputnik*, in 1957. Ten days later, they launched a second satellite—this time with a dog inside it that survived the flight. This caused massive concern in the USA, where it was felt that American superiority in terms of education and technology was being threatened.

The USA sent a satellite into space the next year, and established the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) to coordinate and plan its future space program. Yet once again, the Russians moved ahead of the Americans in the space race by successfully sending the first manned flight into space in 1961. This triggered a pledge from President John Kennedy that the USA would be the first to land a man on the moon. This was achieved in 1969 (see Source 1.32).

The economies of both nations were strained by the high cost of this race, as well as the arms race. Many believe that this cost was a contributing factor in the eventual collapse of the Soviet economy.



**Source 1.32** Astronaut Buzz Aldrin was on the first space mission to land men on the moon.

## Check your learning

- 1 With regard to the Korean War, what is meant by the statement, ‘neither side wanted a total victory at the risk of a nuclear war’?
- 2 Why was the USA so nervous about the relationship between Cuba and the USSR?
- 3 What were the major causes of Australia’s involvement in overseas wars during the Cold War?

## Communism, the Cold War and Australia

Under the Menzies government (1949–1966), Australia’s foreign policy was based on two main principles. The first was support for Britain and the USA in wars in Asia, especially where communists were attempting to take power. The second was participation in treaty organisations that appeared to increase Australia’s security. In 1951, a treaty was signed by Australia, New Zealand and the USA—the ANZUS Pact. The pact was a military alliance that committed the three nations to helping each other in terms of defence. In September 1954, the South-East Asian Treaty Organisation (SEATO) was formed between the USA, Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Thailand and the Philippines—all anti-communist states. Like ANZUS, this was essentially a Cold War pact based on fear of communism.

Because of these foreign policy principles, Australia was directly involved in a number of other conflicts in South-East Asia in the 1950s and 1960s.

## Malaya

In June 1948, when Malaya was still a British colony, the Malayan Communist party, which was mostly Chinese in membership, attempted an uprising against the British. The ‘Malayan Emergency’, as it was called, lasted until 1963. In 1955, Australian troops were sent to Malaya to support the British. The situation by this stage was not critical, and the conflict ended with the granting of Malayan self-government in 1957.



**Source 1.33** Prime Minister Robert Menzies was a strong supporter of the fight against the spread of communism.

## Borneo

In August 1962, Indonesia took over the former Dutch territory of West New Guinea and began a confrontation with the newly independent state of Malaysia. As tension mounted, Britain and Australia sent military aid. Australian soldiers were placed along a 56-kilometre front on the Borneo border. Their commitment helped to deter Indonesia from a full-scale invasion.

## Vietnam

Since the mid 19th century, Vietnam had been part of the French Empire. During World War II, however, Japan invaded Vietnam and treated the Vietnamese very badly. During this time, Ho Chi Minh led a mainly communist resistance group to fight both the Japanese and the French occupation. In May 1941, the Viet Minh was formed as a united front against Japan.

After Japan's surrender in 1945, the Viet Minh formed a government and declared Vietnam's independence. However, British forces sent to Vietnam to accept the Japanese surrender were ordered by the Allies to restore French rule. The Viet Minh saw this as a betrayal, as they had supported the Allies during World War II and now expected independence. By December 1946, the French and the Viet Minh were involved in a war that would last for another nine years.

By 1952, Vietnam had become divided. The Viet Minh had control of the north, and the French had set up a rival government in the south under the Vietnamese Emperor Bao Dai. The Soviet Union and China offered support and recognition to the Viet Minh in the north, while the USA and Britain did the same for Bao Dai in the south. With the election of Eisenhower in the USA in November 1952, the war was no longer regarded as a colonial war by the USA, but as a war between the free world and communism.

Bao Dai was ousted from power in the south by Ngo Dinh Diem, a corrupt landowner who had little support from within Vietnam. However, because he was an anti-communist, he had the support of the USA. Diem's police tortured and killed peasants suspected of supporting the Viet Minh.

In December 1960, the National Liberation Front (NLF) of South Vietnam was formed in opposition to Diem's government. It became known as the Viet Cong by its opponents and included both communists and non-communists. They began to wage guerrilla warfare against Diem's South Vietnamese government from the start of the 1960s.

### The domino theory

US military involvement in the Vietnam War increased from 300 military advisers in 1955 to over 500 000 US troops by 1968. To justify this level of intervention, US President Eisenhower, and presidents following him, declared that if one country in South-East Asia fell to communism, this would lead to the fall of all countries in the region. This was called the **domino theory**.



**Source 1.34**  
The Viet Minh led by Ho Chi Minh fought for Vietnamese independence.

### Australian involvement

In 1964, the Menzies government announced that it was introducing military conscription. The system chosen was conscription by lottery, so that each year, all fit 20-year-old men whose birthdays fell on the chosen dates were conscripted into the army. In May 1965, Menzies announced the commitment of a battalion of Australian troops to South Vietnam. He represented the decision as one that would make Australia more secure against the threat of communism by strengthening its alliance with the USA. Public opinion polls at this time indicated that most Australians supported the government's decision. This would change dramatically in the coming years. By 1970, there were mass demonstrations held in the major capitals of Australia to demand a moratorium (suspension of the war to allow negotiations to take place).

Further Australian battalions were committed in 1966, including many conscripts as well as professional soldiers. By 1968, there were 8000 Australian troops in Vietnam, 40 per cent of whom were conscripts. When the USA began withdrawing troops from 1969, Australia followed suit. Between 1970 and 1972, all Australian combat troops were withdrawn. On 27 December 1972, the newly elected Labor government ended all Australian military aid to South Vietnam.

### Check your learning

- 1 Why do you think the Soviet Union and China supported the Viet Minh in the Vietnam War?
- 2 Why did the USA support Ngo Dinh Diem?
- 3 Explain what is meant by the domino theory.
- 4 Explain what guerrilla warfare is.
- 5 What factors gave the Viet Cong an advantage over the USA and its allies?
- 6 How did the USA respond to the threat from the Viet Cong?
- 7 What proportion of Australian soldiers in the Vietnam War were volunteers?

## key concepts

# Empathy

Historical **empathy** is understanding what happened in the past through the range of perspectives of people living at the time. It is about explaining people's behaviour based on an appreciation of their specific beliefs, customs and values and the contexts in which they acted. Rather than merely knowing *what* people did, historical empathy allows us to understand *why* they did it. Empathy does not mean judging a culture or people subjectively, by *your* standards. It requires a balanced and objective understanding of the social and cultural norms of the period you are studying. Historical empathy requires a deep understanding of the context of a particular period, so that you can understand people's motives and intentions. Empathy does not excuse the actions of people in the past, but it does allow us to better understand them.

## Agent Orange and Napalm

The nature of warfare in Vietnam was largely new to the USA and its allies. The Americans found that their enemy was often difficult to identify because the Viet Cong were experts at guerrilla warfare. While the USA and its allies had advantages in terms of firepower and military technology, the Viet Cong knew the country, had lots of support from Vietnamese civilians as well as North Vietnamese troops, and were determined to win. Their techniques were so effective that by the mid 1960s, it was clear that the government in the south would fall.

In August 1964, US President Lyndon Johnson launched Operation Rolling Thunder, in which US planes bombed targets in North Vietnam and the supply routes from North Vietnam to the Viet Cong in the south. To counter the guerrilla warfare of the Viet Cong, US planes sprayed the jungles with Agent Orange, a toxic herbicide that destroyed leaves so the enemy could be more easily seen, killed or captured. Napalm, a sticky jelly made with petroleum which is highly flammable, was also dropped on villages causing terrible injuries.



Source 1.35 US planes spraying Agent Orange



Source 1.36 Children fleeing a village bombed with Napalm

Source 1.37

*We sure are pleased with those backroom boys at Dow [Chemicals]. The original product wasn't so hot—if the gooks were quick they could scrape it off. So the boys started adding polystyrene—now it sticks like shit to a blanket. But if the gooks jumped under water it stopped burning, so they started adding Willie Peter (white phosphorus) so's to make it burn better. And just one drop is enough, it'll keep on burning right down to the bone so they die anyway from phosphorus poisoning.*

A US army source talks about Napalm.  
Quoted in *Vietnam Inc.* by Philip Jones Griffiths (1971)

Source 1.38

*We of the Kennedy and Johnson administrations who participated in the decisions on Vietnam acted according to what we thought were the principles and traditions of this nation. We made our decisions in light of those values. Yet we were wrong, terribly wrong. We owe it to future generations to explain why.*

Extract from *In Retrospect: The Tragedy and Lessons of Vietnam* by Robert McNamara, 1995. Robert McNamara was the US Secretary of Defence from 1961 to 1968.

.....  
: Check your learning

- : 1 Why did guerrilla warfare present a challenge for the USA and its allies in winning the war?
- : 2 What were the effects of dropping Napalm on villages?
- : 3 The use of Napalm in Vietnam has been widely condemned, and provoked public outrage during the Vietnam War. What do you think may have motivated the US government to use a weapon such as Napalm against the Vietnamese?

## skilldrill

# Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources

**Sources** produced through various time periods are rich in historical importance. However, they are also produced by individuals with different views and various intentions. The historian must have the skills to evaluate any piece of information—primary or secondary—and determine its *reliability* and *usefulness*.

When considering whether a source is reliable, you firstly need to ask yourself:

- WHO wrote it?
- WHEN and WHERE was it written?
- WHY was it written?

You should then determine whether or not the source is biased (that is, whether it presents a one-sided perspective). Whether or not a source is biased affects its reliability. The more biased the source, the less reliable it is. However, it is important to remember that a source is never completely reliable or unreliable and all sources are biased in some way.

The second thing to ask of the source is, is it useful to a historian? A source may not be very reliable, yet it still may be very useful. For example, a source written by a Nazi politician giving unfavourable descriptions of Jewish people may be

biased, yet would be very useful in telling a historian about Nazi attitudes towards Jews at that time.

You can only decide whether a source is useful when you know what you as a historian want to use the source for. Once you know the question being asked, you need to consider:

- What are the **USES** of this source in terms of answering this question?
- What are the **PROBLEMS** of using this source to answer this question?

Additionally, you should ask:

- What other sources can be used to assess the trustworthiness of a source?
- How do our own beliefs and knowledge affect our reading of sources?
- How does the use of language in the source provide information about its trustworthiness?

You are then able to make a final judgment as to the usefulness of the source for your particular historical inquiry.

Consider the following three sources:

### Source 1.39

*The House in recent weeks has conducted an important debate on foreign affairs in which there can be no doubt of the gravity of the situation in South Vietnam. There is ample evidence to show that with the support of the North Vietnamese regime and other Communist powers, the Viet Cong has been preparing on a more substantial scale than hitherto insurgency action designed to destroy South Vietnamese Government control, and to disrupt by violence the life of the local people. The rate of infiltration of guerrillas from North Vietnam has been increasing and last year rose to some 10 000. The infiltration of a battalion of the North Vietnamese regular Army has recently been confirmed.*

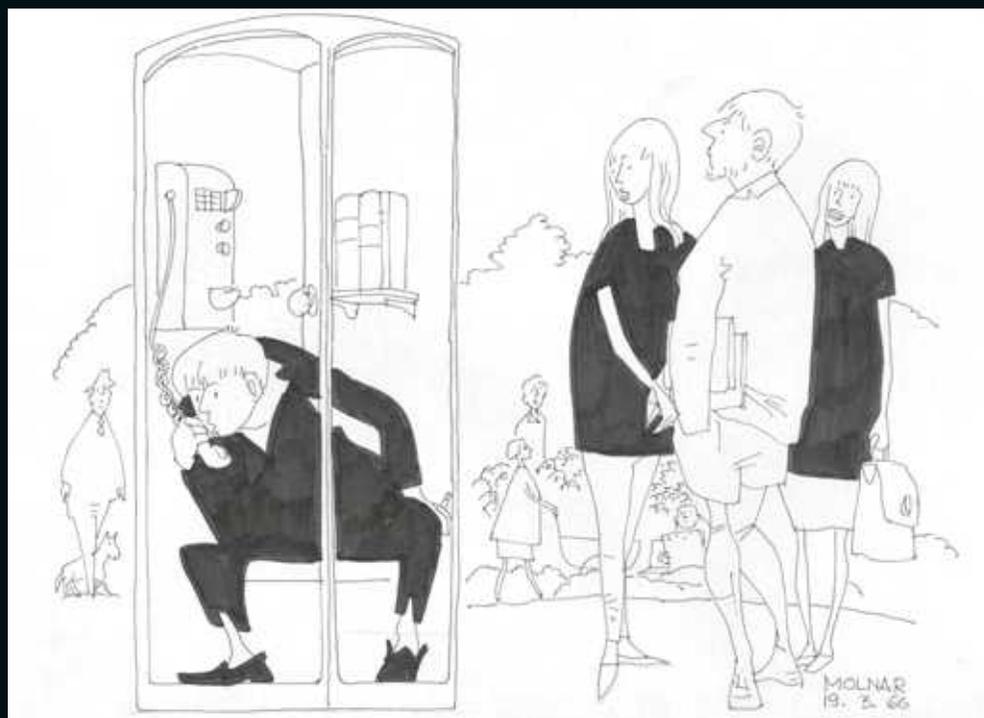
*Assessing all this, it is our judgment that the decision to commit a battalion in South Vietnam represents the most useful additional contribution which we can make to the defence of the region at this time. The takeover of South Vietnam would be a direct military threat to Australia and all the countries of South and South East Asia. It must be seen as a part of a thrust by Communist China between the Indian and Pacific Oceans. The task of holding the situation in South Vietnam and restraining the North Vietnamese is formidable. But we are conscious of the magnitude of the effort being made by the Government and people of South Vietnam in their own defence. In recent months the United States has taken historic decisions to extend further military assistance to South Vietnam. South Korea has also committed substantial forces.*

Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies on 29 April 1965, giving reasons for the decision to send Australian combat troops to Vietnam in a parliamentary speech, *Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates*, House of Representatives, Volume 46

Source 1.40 Public opinion polls on attitudes to the war in Vietnam (rounded numbers)

	We should continue to fight (%)	Bring back the troops (%)	Undecided (%)
Sep 65	56	28	16
Sep 66	61	27	12
May 67	62	24	14
Oct 68	54	38	8
Dec 68	49	37	14
Apr 69	40	55	5
Aug 69	40	55	5
Oct 69	39	51	10
Oct 70	42	50	8

From the Department of Veteran Affairs



Source 1.41 Cartoon by George Molnar, 1966. It reads 'He's complaining to the Army about not getting his Registration Card—he wants to burn it.'

- 1 How reliable and useful is each source in terms of finding out about the extent of the threat to Australia in the 1960s, which was posed by the possibility of North Vietnam winning the war against South Vietnam?
- 2 How reliable and useful is each source in terms of finding out about the viewpoints that existed among Australians about the necessity and morality of Australian participation in the Vietnam War?

## End of the Cold War

Throughout the 1980s, the Soviet Union fought an increasingly frustrating war in Afghanistan. At the same time, their economy was struggling with the continuously increasing costs of the international **arms race**. When reformist Mikhail Gorbachev came to power in 1985, he was determined to end the Cold War and to bring economic and political reform to the Soviet Union. He initiated dramatic agreements with the United States, which involved both nations agreeing to reduce the amount of money and energy they were investing in the arms race. He also took steps to introduce a democratic political process within the Soviet Union.

These initiatives and others rapidly improved relations between the United States and the USSR and brought an end to the Cold War. What Gorbachev had not anticipated, however, was that, without the Communist Party maintaining complete control of all the states in the Soviet Union, it would soon collapse into 16 different national parts. Attempted reforms at home left the Soviet Union unwilling to rebuff challenges to its control in Eastern Europe. During 1989 and 1990, the Berlin Wall came down, borders opened, and free elections ousted communist regimes everywhere in Eastern Europe. In late 1991, the Soviet Union itself dissolved into its component republics. With stunning speed, the Iron Curtain was lifted and the Cold War came to an end.

Since the end of the Cold War, the United States has been left as the last of the 20th-century superpowers. The events of 11 September 2001, with the attacks on the World Trade Center in New York, have led the United States to focus on a new form of conflict, terrorist actions by civilians, and to mount a 'war on terror'. Recent military action has centred around wars in both Iraq and Afghanistan. Australia continues to be a strong ally of the USA and has sent troops to both these conflicts. Australian troops were withdrawn from Iraq in 2008 but they remain in Afghanistan.



Source 1.42 'The end of the Cold War is our common victory'—Mikhail Gorbachev 1992, shown here shaking hands with US President Ronald Reagan



Source 1.43 The fall of the Berlin Wall came to symbolise the triumph of freedom and the end of half a century of conflict between East and West.

### Check your learning

- 1 With which country was the Soviet Union involved in a conflict during the early 1980s?
- 2 Why was Mikhael Gorbachev interested in ending the Cold War? How did he attempt to go about this?
- 3 What else did Mikhael Gorbachev want to achieve when he came to power?
- 4 Describe some of the factors that led to the lifting of the iron curtain in Europe during the 1980s and 1990s.

# The United Nations

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

## Structure of the United Nations

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

The Charter established five separate sections of the United Nations:

- 1 The **GENERAL ASSEMBLY**. The General Assembly discusses and makes decisions about issues of international peace and security. All members of the United Nations are represented in the General Assembly.
- 2 The **SECURITY COUNCIL**. This consists of five permanent members (USA, USSR, Britain, China and France) and six non-permanent members. The Security Council has the task of maintaining peace and security at an international level. The Security Council can recommend the use of a blockade or other financial imposition on any country that decides to break international law. If these do not work, then the Security Council can call on the United Nations to use military force.
- 3 The **ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL**. The main task of this branch is to promote and improve the economic and social wellbeing of those living in the member states.
- 4 The **INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE (ICJ)**. The ICJ is the main judicial body of the United Nations.
- 5 The **SECRETARIAT**. This is the body that runs the United Nations. The Secretary-General is the chief administrative officer of the United Nations, and is appointed by the General Assembly, which receives recommendations from the Security Council.

The main involvement of the UN in modern conflicts has been to supply peacekeeping forces. The UN Peacekeeping Forces may only be employed when both parties to a conflict accept their presence. There are two types of peacekeeping operations—unarmed observer groups and lightly-armed military forces. Military forces are only allowed to use their weapons for self-defence. The observer groups work to gather information for the UN about the actual conditions prevailing in an area, whereas the military forces actually work to keep the parties in a conflict apart, or maintain order in an area.

**Source 1.44** Flags outside the current United Nations building in New York





**Source 1.45** An Australian peacekeeping soldier patrols a street in East Timor.

## Australian involvement in the UN

Australia was a founding member of the UN and played an active role in the drafting of the UN Charter at the San Francisco Conference of 1945. The Australian delegation, led by Dr Herbert Evatt, actively promoted the rights of smaller nations. Since then, Australia has served four terms on the Security Council—in 1946–1947, 1956–1957, 1973–1974 and 1985–1986. During 1946, Labour politician Norman Makin served as the first Australian to act as President of the Security Council. Dr Evatt was also elected President of the General Assembly in 1948.

Australia has played an active role in the UN Commission on Human Rights and has been a strong supporter of the work of the expert UN bodies dealing with the implementation of international human rights conventions. Australia also has a long history of contributions to UN peacekeeping operations. Australia currently has peacekeeping forces in many places around the world, including the Persian Gulf and East Timor (see Source 1.46).

### Australia's involvement in peacekeeping missions, 1947–2011, including military and policing operations

Indonesia	1947–1951
Kashmir	1950–1985
Middle East (Israel and surrounding areas)	1956–present day
Cyprus	1964–present day
Zimbabwe	1979–1980
Iran	1988–1990
Namibia	1989–1990
Pakistan–Afghanistan	1989–1993
Persian Gulf	1990–present day
Iraq	1991–1999
Western Sahara	1991–1994
Cambodia	1991–1998
Somalia	1993–1995
Rwanda	1994–1995
Bougainville (Papua New Guinea)	1994, 1998–2003
East Timor	1999–present day

## Check your learning

- 1 When was the United Nations officially formed?
- 2 What are the key goals of the United Nations?
- 3 What are the five sections of the United Nations?
- 4 What are the rules that govern UN Peacekeeping Forces?
- 5 Explain the difference between UN observer groups and military forces.
- 6 Summarise Australia's role in the United Nations.

**Source 1.46** Australia's peacekeeping missions, 1947–2011

## 1.2 How did the nature of global conflict change during the 20th century?

### Remember

- 1 What does the term 'total war' mean?
- 2 How was weaponry more developed by the time of World War II?
- 3 Why did President Truman decide to use the atomic bomb in 1945?

### Understand

- 4 Why was the conflict between the Soviet Union and the United States known as the Cold War?
- 5 Look at Source 1.23 and explain why Stalin was able to cut Berlin off from the Western powers.

### Apply

- 6 Conduct some extra research to find additional information on some of the conflicts Australia has been involved in, in a peacekeeping role. Copy the chart below into your notebook and complete it to show the different ways Australia has contributed as a peacekeeper.

### Analyse

- 7 Why was the space race so important for the USA and the USSR?
- 8 What other reasons might both countries have had for wanting to explore space?
- 9 Conduct research to find out some of the long-term effects of the Vietnam War on both civilians and veterans.
- 10 What reasons can you give to account for the change in support by 1970 for Australian involvement in the Vietnam War?

### Evaluate

- 11 Do you think the Australian government made the correct decision to become involved in Vietnam? Provide evidence to support your view.
- 12 Many Vietnam War veterans recall being abused upon their return to Australia and labelled as murderers. How do you explain the shift in public opinion about the morality of Australian involvement in the war over the period 1962–1975?

### Create

- 13 Locate a blank map of the world on the Internet and print it out. Then, conduct some research to find out which nations were communist by 1960. Create an appropriate symbol for communism and use it to mark these countries.
- 14 Create an anti-communism poster that might have been created in Australia during the Menzies era.

Year	Conflict (countries involved)	How Australia contributed as a peacekeeper



Source 1.47 A women's liberation protest outside the Sydney Town Hall in 1972

# 1.3 How has Australian society been affected by other significant changes during the 20th century?

*The century saw a major shift in the way that vast numbers of people lived, as a result of major social movements for rights and freedoms, as well as changes in science, technology and medicine. Mass media, telecommunications and information technology have fundamentally changed the way that people interact with each other. Major developments in transportation and other industries were made possible by the large-scale exploitation of fossil-fuel resources, but this has also resulted in widespread concerns about pollution and the long-term impact on the environment.*

## Rights and freedoms

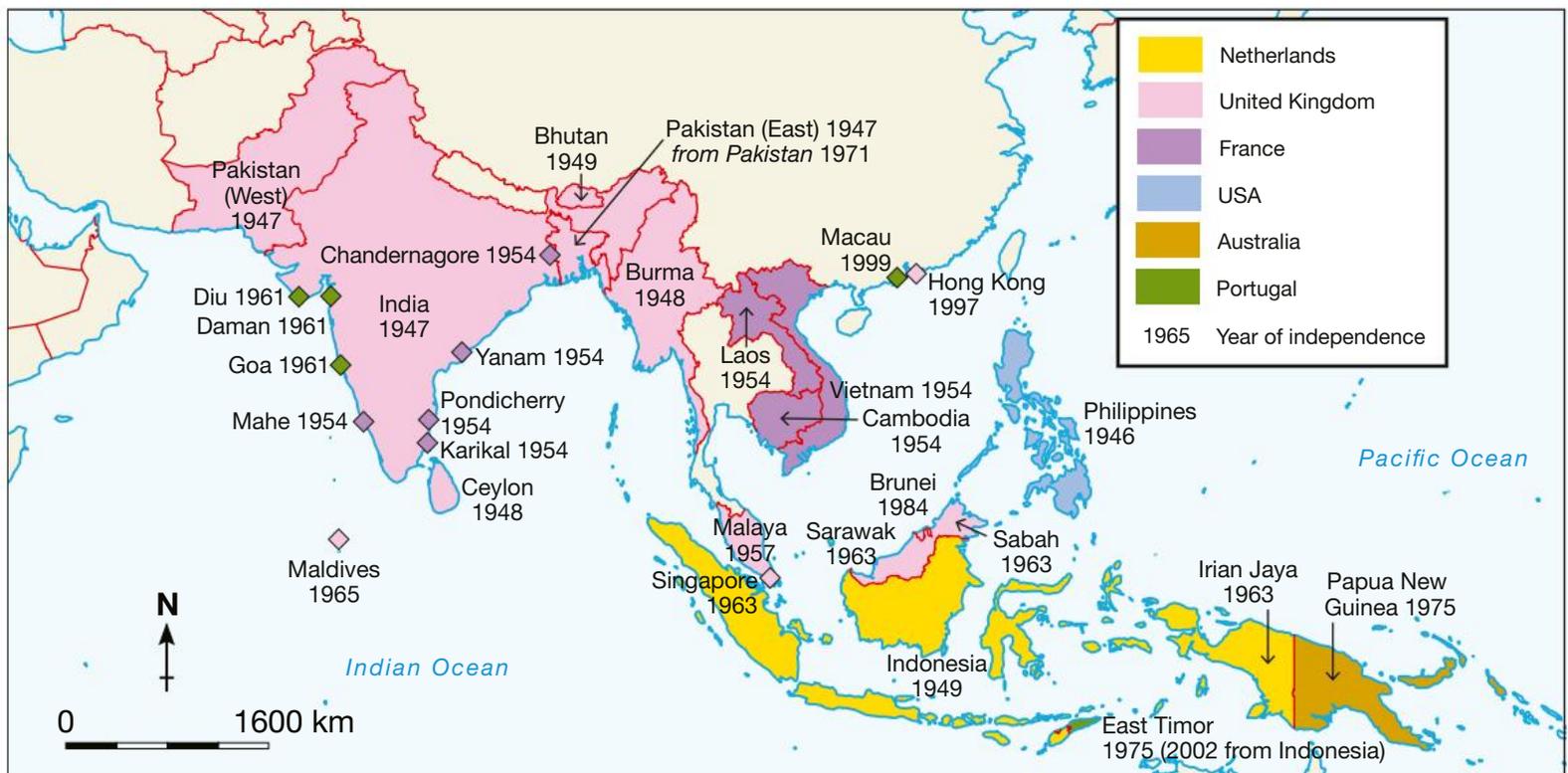
The seven decades since the end of World War II have seen many struggles by people against perceived injustices and in pursuit of new freedoms. Human rights issues have been important in many of these struggles, with participants arguing for recognition of freedom from oppression of various forms and for recognition of their natural human dignity.

The immediate post-war years saw a wave of decolonisation sweep across the world, as the old European powers, weakened by the war, were forced to withdraw from their former colonies (see Source 1.48). India gained independence from British rule in 1947; Indonesians broke away from the Netherlands in 1949; France was forced to give up Vietnam in 1954 and then Algeria in 1962. This desire for self-rule swept through the world, and by the early 1980s the old colonial countries throughout Africa, Asia and the Caribbean had gained their independence.

During this period, people in many Western societies questioned old attitudes, beliefs and ways of doing things. Traditional attitudes to women, to Indigenous peoples and, in the United States, to African Americans, were found by many to be unjust, leading to major civil movements seeking change. These movements changed society and are still active today.

### US civil rights movement

Slavery in the United States had officially been abolished in 1865, after the American Civil War, but African Americans still suffered many forms of discrimination within US society. African Americans throughout the United States were denied the same opportunities in employment, housing, health and education as those enjoyed by 'white' citizens. They also had less access to political representation, as in many states there were obstacles to stop them from voting. Violence against blacks was common and discrimination was particularly acute in the southern states.



Source 1.48 South and South-East Asian colonies, and the dates of their independence

The post-war years saw several important events. In 1948, the US army ended segregation of its forces, and in 1954 the Supreme Court handed down the *Brown vs Board of Education* decision, which made it illegal for states within the USA to have separate schools for blacks and whites.

Many African Americans were frustrated by the slow pace of change, however, and from the 1950s began to find new ways to fight for equality. As well as legal action, activists started to use **civil disobedience** to change attitudes and draw attention to their cause. Civil disobedience was the non-violent use of protests, marches, sit-ins, as well as the active refusal to follow unfair laws.

A famous example of civil disobedience during the American civil rights movement was the action of Rosa Parks and the subsequent Montgomery Bus Boycott. In 1955, in Montgomery, Alabama, Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat at the front of a bus to a white passenger. She was arrested by police and charged with disorderly conduct and breaching local laws. When Rosa Parks was convicted, African-American leaders organised a boycott of the Montgomery bus service. The boycott was immensely successful, lasting for over a year and reducing the bus company's income by as much as four-fifths. In 1956, Montgomery was forced to stop segregating its buses.

Another key figure in the civil rights movement was Dr Martin Luther King. King had been involved in the Montgomery Bus Boycott, and in 1963 he helped organise a march of about 250 000 people in support of civil rights, known as the 'March on Washington'. At the march, on 28 August 1963, King gave his 'I have a dream' speech, urging the American people and their lawmakers to put an end to racial discrimination.



Source 1.49 The No. 2857 bus on which Rosa Parks was riding before she was arrested; it is now a museum exhibit at the Henry Ford Museum.



Source 1.50 Dr Martin Luther King, Jr in 1964



**Source 1.51** Aboriginal children, described as half-caste, under European institutional care, c. 1920s

## Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander movements

Since European settlement, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in Australia have faced many challenges. At the start of the 20th century, Australia did not recognise Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders' rights to their traditional lands. Indigenous peoples were not considered equal members of society and did not have the right to vote in Queensland or Western Australia (though they were entitled to in the other states). They were also not allowed to enrol to vote in Commonwealth elections unless already registered in their own state at the time of Federation, denying many of them the vote at federal level.

Governments across Australia favoured assimilationist policies. **Assimilation** was the idea that Aboriginal people should be made to become as much like European Australians as possible, both culturally and physically. Indigenous culture, language and knowledge were regarded by assimilationists as inferior, and they argued that Aboriginal societies were doomed to die out. A solution proposed by assimilationists was to raise and educate Aboriginal children, where possible, within white households or white-run institutions, in the hope that they would eventually merge into European Australian society. In practice, assimilation meant the break-up of Aboriginal communities, the destruction of culture and the removal of children from their parents (which became known as the **Stolen Generations**). Naturally this caused great suffering for Aboriginal people.

Aboriginal people were often told where to live, what kinds of work to do and even the people they were (and were not) allowed to marry.

In the 1920s and 1930s, new leaders emerged in the struggle for rights and equality for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. In 1937, Indigenous activist William Cooper presented a petition with 2000 signatures to the federal government demanding better political representation for Aborigines, asking that it be given to King George V. The government refused. Then, in 1938, Cooper, together with JT Patten and William Ferguson, organised a protest to coincide with the 150-year anniversary of British colonisation. The 'Day of Mourning' was held in Sydney on 26 January 1938 at the Australia Hall. Cooper, Patten and Ferguson released a public declaration (a **manifesto**) for the protest, entitled *Aborigines Claim Citizenship Rights*.

By the 1960s, Indigenous life expectancy and health outcomes were still much worse than those enjoyed by other Australians. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples still received inferior pay, were not considered citizens and were unable to vote. But attitudes were starting to shift.

In 1962, all Indigenous Australians were granted the right to vote in federal elections. This was followed up, in 1965, by the decision of the Arbitration Commission to award equal pay to Indigenous workers—a decision that led to some Aborigines losing their jobs as their employers claimed they could no longer afford to pay them.

In the same year, a group of student activists led by Charles Perkins, inspired by the ‘freedom rides’ of the US civil rights movement, started freedom rides of their own (see Source 1.52). Travelling in buses around New South Wales, the Australian Freedom Riders sought to highlight everyday practices of racial discrimination against Aborigines in rural Australia. They wanted to show that, in some towns, Aboriginal people were refused entry to pubs, swimming pools and RSL clubs. The **Freedom Riders** encountered violence, were spat upon and encountered abuse. But they did succeed in showing wider Australia the extent of discrimination that still existed.

In 1967, the federal Liberal government led by Harold Holt called a **referendum** asking the Australian people whether the Constitution should be amended to allow Aborigines to be included in the Australian **census**. The referendum also sought authority for the government to make laws for Aboriginal people. The referendum was overwhelmingly passed in all six states with over 90 per cent of voters voting for the changes.



Source 1.52 Charles Perkins and the Freedom Riders



Source 1.53  
The Aboriginal  
Tent Embassy

In spite of these successes, many challenges still remained. The issues of land rights, political representation and the Stolen Generations were still unresolved. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people continued to endure inadequate access to health services and education.

The 1970s saw the creation of the Aboriginal flag, the establishment of the Aboriginal Tent Embassy opposite Parliament House in Canberra (see Source 1.53), and the landmark *Aboriginal Land Rights Act* of 1976, which awarded land title to the Gurindji tribe of the Northern Territory, as well as others. The movement continued to grow during the 1980s, and in 1990 ATSIC (the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission) was created.

Other significant events followed. The Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation was formed in 1991 with the purpose of fostering harmony and reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians. Victories were won in the High Court of Australia by advocates of Indigenous land rights: The Mabo case of 1992 overturned the principle of *terra nullius* (the idea that Indigenous people had not 'owned' the land before European settlement), and the Wik decision of 1996 asserted that native title could exist alongside pastoral leases.

In 1997, the Human Rights and Equal Opportunities Commission released the *Bringing Them Home* report on the separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children from their families, stating that the removal of children had been widespread and continued to have a devastating impact on Indigenous people. In 2008 the new Labor Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, formally apologised on behalf of the nation (see Source 1.54).



Source 1.54 Kevin Rudd giving his 'sorry' speech

## Check your learning

- 1 When did India achieve independence from British rule?
- 2 Who was Rosa Parks and why was she a significant individual in the US civil rights movement?
- 3 What was the assimilation policy favoured by Australian governments during the early 20th century?
- 4 Who was William Cooper and what did he do to try and improve conditions for Indigenous people?
- 5 What was the question put to the Australian people in the 1967 Referendum, and what was the result?

# Contestability

Much of the study of history involves not facts, but interpretations of facts. Historians examine as many relevant sources of evidence as possible to reach a contention about the past. Nevertheless, historians often disagree about conclusions even when looking at the same evidence. This is what is known as **contestability**. Sources themselves may be biased by the viewpoints of their creators, and historians who interpret those sources may be biased by their personal ideologies. Thus, there are often many competing interpretations of events in the past. There is rarely, if ever, a 'right' view; but some views are more warranted than others. Learning to contest viewpoints, based on evidence, is a fundamental concept for the study of history.

## The History Wars

The History Wars refers to the ongoing public debate in Australia about how to interpret Australian history since white settlement, particularly with reference to the impact of colonisation on Indigenous Australians. Historians, media pundits and politicians have debated the interpretation of evidence related to the treatment of Aborigines, and whether the process of separating families during the Stolen Generations was genocide.

### The Great Australian Silence

In 1968, Stanner coined the phrase, 'the Great Australian Silence', to refer to the overly positive presentation of Australian history, which he argued was incomplete. He described what he saw as a deliberate effort to ignore the plight of 'several hundred thousand Aborigines who lived and died between 1788 and 1938 ... (who were) ... in no way consequential for the modern period'. Manning Clark and Henry Reynolds subsequently became leading historians in a new field of Australian history that aimed to correct the selective representation of the past, and present facts about Indigenous Australian history.

### The Black Armband view vs the Three Cheers view

In 1993, historian Geoffrey Blainey described the two strands of the history debate:

#### Source 1.55

*To some extent my generation was reared on the Three Cheers view of history. This patriotic view of our past had a long run. It saw Australian history as largely a success. While the convict era was a source of shame or unease, nearly everything that came after was believed to be pretty good. There is a rival view, which I call the Black Armband view of history. In recent years it has assailed the optimistic view of history. The black armbands were quietly worn in official circles in 1988. The multicultural folk busily preached their message that until they arrived much of Australian history was a disgrace. The past treatment of Aborigines, of Chinese, of Kanakas, of non-British migrants, of women, the very old, the very young, and the poor was singled out, sometimes legitimately, sometimes not ... The Black Armband view of history might well represent the swing of the pendulum from a position that had been too favourable, too self-congratulatory, to an opposite extreme that is even more unreal and decidedly jaundiced.*

Summary of major interpretations of Australian History from Geoffrey Blainey's 1993 Sir John Latham Memorial Lecture

### Source 1.56

*... all Australians—Indigenous and otherwise—need to acknowledge realistically the interaction of our histories. Our purpose in doing so should not be to apportion blame and guilt for past wrongs, but to commit to a practical programme of action that will remove the enduring legacies of disadvantage.*

*At the same time, we need to acknowledge openly that the treatment accorded to many Indigenous Australians over a significant period of European settlement represents the most blemished chapter in our history.*

*Clearly, there were injustices done and no-one should obscure or minimise them. We need to acknowledge as a nation what European settlement has meant for the first Australians, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, and in particular the assault on their traditions and the discrimination and violence they endured over many decades ... However, let me make this clear. Personally, I feel deep sorrow for those of my fellow Australians who suffered injustices under the practices of past generations toward Indigenous people. Equally, I am sorry for the hurt and trauma many people here today may continue to feel as a consequence of those practices.*

*In facing the realities of the past, however, we must not join those who would portray Australia's history since 1788 as little more than a disgraceful record of imperialism, exploitation and racism.*

*Such a portrayal is a gross distortion and deliberately neglects the overall story of great Australian achievement that is there in our history to be told, and such an approach will be repudiated by the overwhelming majority of Australians who are proud of what this country has achieved although inevitably acknowledging the blemishes in its past history.*

*Australians of this generation should not be required to accept guilt and blame for past actions and policies over which they had no control.*

*However, we must acknowledge past wrongs, understand that they still cause a great deal of personal distress and resolve to improve areas of Indigenous disadvantage both now and into the future ...*

Extract from John Howard's speech at the Australian Reconciliation Convention in Melbourne, May 1997



Source 1.57 Former Australian Prime Minister John Howard

## Check your learning

- 1 Which historical interpretation (Black Armband or Three Cheers) do John Howard's opinions most closely align to?
- 2 Why are there competing views about Australian history?
- 3 How might the interpretation of Australian history affect Australia politically, socially and economically today?
- 4 Why do you think politicians such as John Howard have become involved in the History Wars?
- 5 What evidence or sources would you look at to reach an opinion about which historians you agree with in the History Wars?

## key concepts

# Continuity and change

Aspects of society evolve over time, and these changes vary in the speed and intensity with which they occur. For example, natural disasters tend to have an immediate impact, whereas the changes brought about by new technologies will be slower. Some aspects of society will not change at all.

Continuities are features that stay the same over a period of time, while changes are, self-evidently, those things that change, regardless of whether the change is fast or slow.

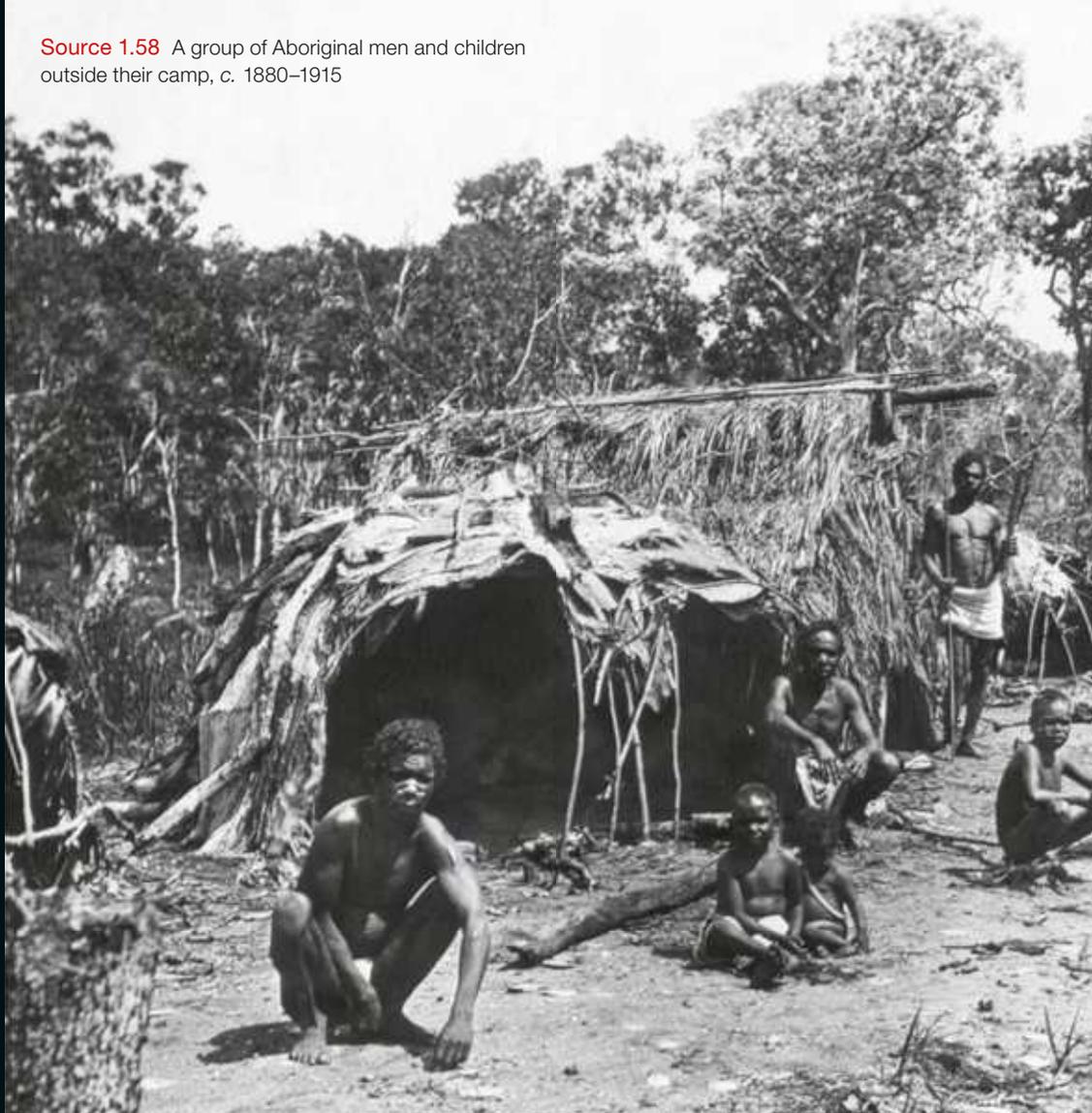
Societies will always have a mix of **continuity and change**. Changes may be more immediately obvious to historians, particularly if they happen fast, but historians can learn a lot about society by also studying aspects of society that have not changed. Examining why continuities have persisted can help us understand the most important underlying features of a society. Likewise, analysis of trends and changing features tells us where a society has come from and where it may be going.

## Indigenous Australians

Indigenous Australians occupied Australia for between 40 000 and 60 000 years before white settlers arrived in 1788. With the arrival of British colonists, many Aborigines were killed, both intentionally and through disease, and those remaining were driven from large parts of their traditional land. Government policies throughout the history of white settlement, such as assimilation and the separation of children from their families, caused changes among Indigenous societies; the effects of which are still being felt today.

Alice Springs is the second largest town in the Northern Territory and is situated on the traditional land of the Arrernte people. Europeans first settled the region in the 1870s, but it remained a remote outpost until the rapid expansion of its population during World War II.

**Source 1.58** A group of Aboriginal men and children outside their camp, c. 1880–1915





Source 1.59 An Aboriginal community, near Alice Springs



## Check your learning

- 1 List the changes you notice among the local Aboriginal people depicted in Sources 1.58 and 1.59, and discuss which changes you think would have been rapid, which slow, and why.
- 2 What continuities can you discover or deduce from these sources?
- 3 What can you infer about Aboriginal people in central Australia from the continuities?
- 4 By examining the changes, what can you infer about the way the Arrernte people have been affected by historical trends and events?

## Women's movements

Australian women (with the exception of Indigenous women) won the right to vote in the early years of the 20th century. By 1923, women were legally able to vote and stand for parliament both federally and in every Australian state. But this did not mean that women enjoyed equal status in Australian society. Even after World War II, which had seen a large number of women enter the workforce in traditionally male roles as part of the war effort, women faced discrimination in the form of unequal employment opportunities and lower pay.

Many people believed that women's proper place was in the home, supporting men as mothers and homemakers (see Source 1.60). Married women were prohibited from holding permanent government positions and women generally were expected to surrender their jobs to men returning from the war.

But rising female participation in the workforce, social changes and technological advances all contributed to rapid change in the roles of women in Australian society. By the late 1950s, women were demanding equal pay as men received for their work, attempting to overturn the argument that it was a man's role to act as financial provider. In 1969, the Conciliation and Arbitration Commission decided that women should be paid equally.

The 1960s and 1970s saw the emergence of women's liberation movements, inspired by figures such as Germaine Greer (see Source 1.63), whose book *The Female Eunuch* asserted that women were enslaved within society by discrimination and commonly accepted values asserting male superiority. Greer argued that women should strive to break free of these conditions and that the male domination of society must be fought. Feminists achieved some notable successes in these years, including the Maternity Leave Act of 1973 and the South Australian Sex Discrimination Act of 1975.

**Source 1.61** A common chant during the Women's Day march:

*Men like birds; birds live in cages,  
They have done for ages; on second-class wages;  
Women's Liberation's going to smash that cage,  
Come join us now and rage, rage, rage.*

The female contraceptive pill was also released in Australia in the 1960s, giving many women greater control over their reproductive lives.

With the introduction of the federal Sex Discrimination Act in 1984, and the appointment of the first Sex Discrimination Commissioner, Pamela O'Neil, sex-based discrimination in many areas of Australian life—including work, provision of services and education—became illegal. Feminists continued, however, to combat sex-based prejudice in Australian society, including sexist language and attitudes, and depictions of women in popular culture and the media that portrayed them as subservient, second-class or as predominantly sexual objects. Activists have also continued to campaign for equal pay and recognition for women in the workforce. Even today, women still do not have the same levels of income as men across many areas of the workforce. Additionally, access to affordable childcare and adequate maternity leave are still issues for many women.



**Source 1.60** An image from the 1950s showing women as homemakers



**Source 1.62** International Women's Day march, Sydney, 1972

## keyconcepts

# Perspectives

Different people will often have different **perspectives** (or points of view) about the same topic or issue. This may be a reflection of the person's age, gender, education, prejudices or fears. It may also just reflect a lack of information. For example, witnesses to an argument between two classmates will probably have different views about what happened. These will depend on how much witnesses saw or heard, what they feel about those involved, and their own opinions about the topic being debated. Understanding the different perspectives of people from the past helps historians to consider what might have motivated these people. The more perspectives historians consider about an event or person, the more likely they are to get closer to the truth.



**Source 1.63** Germaine Greer, author of *The Female Eunuch*, in the 1970s

## Women's liberation

The 1960s and 1970s saw a resurgence of the women's movement, as feminists fought for equal pay for equal work, and attempted to question gender roles in a society that saw women often depicted as weak or merely as sexual objects.

The following quotations represent two different perspectives on women's liberation in the 1970s.

### Source 1.64

*Maybe I couldn't make it. Maybe I don't have a pretty smile, good teeth, nice tits, long legs, a cheeky arse, a sexy voice. Maybe I don't know how to handle men and increase my market value, so that the rewards due to the feminine will accrue to me. Then again, maybe I'm sick of the masquerade. I'm sick of pretending eternal youth. I'm sick of belying my own intelligence, my own will, my own sex. I'm sick of peering at the world through false eyelashes, so everything I see is mixed with a shadow of bought hairs; I'm sick of weighting my head with a dead mane, unable to move my neck freely, terrified of rain, of wind, of dancing too vigorously in case I sweat into my lacquered curls. I'm sick of the Powder Room. I'm sick of pretending that some fatuous male's self-important pronouncements are the objects of my undivided attention, I'm sick of going to films and plays when someone else wants to, and sick of having no opinions of my own about either. I'm sick of being a transvestite. I refuse to be a female impersonator. I am a woman, not a castrate.*

Extract from *The Female Eunuch*, by Germaine Greer, 1970.  
Germaine Greer is an Australian feminist.

### Source 1.65

*The Post Office employs male and female letter-carriers, but quietly issues smaller bags to females. The Bell system agrees under pressure to hire women as repairmen, but must equip them with special carts with which to carry their heavy tool boxes. This may not be outrageous in and of itself, but consider what it does to the slogan of 'equal pay for equal work'. In fact, the slogan has had to be changed. Since on the whole women do not do the work of men, it has quickly become 'equal pay for work of equal value ...' It is tempting to think that feminism in its latest version will collide with human nature once too often and then just go away. A collective cry of 'enough' will arise and, magically, girls will no longer be made to feel foolish about wanting children, men will no longer have to worry about 'offending' their dates, and freedom and rationality will return to the occupational marketplace.*

Extract from a pamphlet entitled *The Feminine Mystique* by Michael Levin, distributed by Women Who Want to be Women, Queensland (est. 1979)

## Check your learning

- 1 What are the major differences between the opinions of the authors of the two sources above?
- 2 What reasons does Source 1.64 provide for Greer's feminist stance and Source 1.65 for Levin's anti-feminist stance?
- 3 What other factors do you think might have influenced both authors' perspectives?



By the 1950s, a wide range of appliances and whitegoods were available. Electric kettles, toasters and mixers transformed the kitchen, but arguably two of the most important inventions were the washing machine and the electric refrigerator (see Source 1.68). Before the washing machine, laundry was either sent out to be washed (if one could afford it) or, more commonly, washed by hand using a copper boiler, soap and a washboard, before being wrung out in a hand-wringer and hung up to dry. The first washing machines had no spin or rinse cycles but still represented enormous savings in time and effort.

Refrigeration of various sorts had existed prior to 1950 but was far less effective than the refrigeration of today. Food could be stored in a Coolgardie safe, kept cool by the evaporation of water from gauze covering, or an ice chest, which relied on daily delivery of slabs of ice from the local ice-works. But the advent of kerosene-powered and then electric refrigerators allowed people to store food for longer and changed their shopping and eating habits. Still later in the century came freezers and microwaves.

### Home entertainment

Entertainment was revolutionised by the radio and television. The first radio station to go to air in Australia was 2SB in Sydney, in November 1923. Others quickly followed. Radio grew increasingly popular through the 1920s to 1940s as the technology improved. Radios became smaller and more portable, and more stations and kinds of shows were added.

Television arrived in Australia in 1956. At first in black and white and then, in 1975, colour became available. In the 1970s and 1980s the VCR (or video cassette recorder) arrived, allowing people to tape TV shows to watch at their leisure. Together, radio, television and video moved mass entertainment into the home and presented serious alternatives to leisure activities outside the home such as the cinema.



Source 1.68 An advertisement for the new Electrolux refrigerator, c. 1930s



Source 1.69 TV revolutionised home entertainment for families.

## Travel and trade

### Growth of the car

The world a century ago was a much less mobile place than it is today. Horse-drawn transport was still in use in Australia at the start of the 20th century, international travel and trade was by sea, and most Australians, when they were able to take holidays, did so locally.

But the motor car was becoming more common. The first traffic lights in Australia were installed in Melbourne in 1928 and the first Australian-produced car, the Holden FX, went on sale in 1948 (see Source 1.70). Roads were sealed to reduce dust from the ever-growing volume of traffic, and highways expanded to connect cities and towns all over the country. By 2010, car registrations exceeded 12 million. While the growth of car ownership has meant greater freedom for many people and a boom to the tourism industry since World War II, many people are now questioning its broader impacts, including pollution and greater congestion in cities (see Source 1.71).



**Source 1.70**  
Holden FX, 1948



**Source 1.72**  
In 1922, Alexander Kennedy, an 84-year-old cattleman, was the first paying passenger on QANTAS.



**Source 1.71** Traffic congestion in Sydney 2011

### Air travel

Passenger aviation arrived in Australia in the 1920s. (see Source 1.72) QANTAS was established in 1921 and by the 1950s other commercial airlines were operating domestically, including Trans Australian Airlines (TAA) and Australian National Airways (ANA). Up until the first jet aeroplane arrived in Australia, aeroplanes were propeller-driven. The jet age, beginning in 1959 with the arrival of QANTAS's first Boeing 707 and expanded in the 1970s with the Boeing 747, allowed larger planes to travel longer distances. Prices became more affordable and both domestic and international travel by air came within the reach of many Australians.

### Trade

Even the nature of shipping has changed dramatically. Ships have become far larger and more powerful, allowing for the bulk transport of vast quantities of resources. Containerisation of freight developed after World War II, allowing goods to be shipped in standard-sized metal containers all over the world. These containers can be loaded and unloaded from ships using heavy machinery, and can be easily transferred to trains or trucks for rail or road transport. Containerisation led to the loss of jobs for stevedores who had traditionally loaded and unloaded ships, but also reduced the costs of transport for many goods, helping to make them cheaper.

## Communications

The way that Australians communicate with each other and the world has transformed entirely since 1900. At the start of the century, Australians often had to wait for significant lengths of time to receive news from interstate friends and relatives or from overseas. Mail was the main form of communication, transported by ship from overseas or rail within the country, though as aviation technology improved the postal services began to use airmail. The other main method of sending messages was the telegraph. Although instantaneous, a telegram still had to be delivered by a messenger to the recipient. Moreover, messages tended to be short, as the technology was expensive.

Several advances contributed to a gradual reduction of Australian isolation. A telegraph line was connected to Britain by 1927, allowing instantaneous overseas news. Cinema newsreels also became more common. Though these had to travel in the same way as letters, people were now able to see what was happening elsewhere. Radio station broadcasts began in 1923 and, by the middle of the century, telephone use became widespread, with direct long-distance (or STD) and overseas telephone services becoming available in the 1970s.

Then, in the last part of the 20th century, another communications revolution began with the invention of the microchip. Mobile phones, computers and the Internet changed personal correspondence and the way people conducted business. Email and SMS messages now far outnumber traditional letters sent, and households are shifting away from fixed 'landlines' in favour of mobile telephone services. Satellite communication allows the transfer of data, voice and images instantaneously around the globe. Together, these technologies have allowed people from all over the world to converse, to see each other on-screen, to transfer money easily and to play games in real time. Important (or trivial) events in one part of the world are instantaneously followed elsewhere.



Source 1.73 Early mobile phones



Source 1.74 Egyptians used their mobile phones to record events as well as to communicate with each other during recent protests against the government.

### Check your learning

- 1 Summarise some of the key developments in household technology that occurred in the first half of the 20th century.
- 2 What do you think was the impact of radio on people's lives?
- 3 What is containerisation and what impact did its introduction have on society?

# Health and population

## World population

In 1900, the world's population was approximately 1.6 billion people and the Australian colonies had an estimated population of 4 million. World population reached 7 billion in 2011 and is expected to top 9 billion by 2050.

World population has increased so rapidly for many reasons, including advances in agriculture (leading to better food supply), better sanitation and improvements in health and medicine. Life expectancy has increased in many parts of the world, though this has not been evenly spread.

While it is possible to regard the growth of human population as a reflection of human success, concerns have also been expressed in recent years that a large human population, coupled with increasing consumption of natural resources, is putting the natural environment at risk.

## Changes in life expectancy across the globe

Australia has one of the highest life expectancies in the world. A non-Indigenous Australian boy born in 2006 can expect to live for 78.7 years, and a girl for 83.5 years. The picture is not so good for Indigenous Australians, however. The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare estimated in 2007 that an Indigenous person born in the period 1996–2001 has a life expectancy that is 16–17 years shorter than that of non-Indigenous Australians. By contrast, the worst life expectancy in the world is estimated by the United Nations to be that of Swaziland, where men, on average, live until they are only 40 years old, and women 39.

Life expectancy is not static, and many areas of the world have seen dramatic increases. Life expectancy in developing countries such as China and Brazil has risen substantially over the past 60 years, almost doubling by some estimates. Sadly, life expectancy has also decreased in some places. The AIDS pandemic has been devastating for sub-Saharan Africa (see Source 1.75). Botswana, Zimbabwe and South Africa all saw life expectancy drop significantly from the late 1980s as infection rates soared. By 2006, life expectancy in Zimbabwe was only 44 years for men and 43 for women.

## Improvements in public health and standards of living

In 1967, the World Health Organization declared its intention to eradicate smallpox, a disease that killed up to a third of all sufferers and disfigured many survivors. Through a vaccination program the target was achieved, with the last case of smallpox recorded in 1977. Other diseases, although not eradicated, have been curbed through widespread vaccination. Polio and measles are two examples, with polio cases in the developed world reduced by 99 per cent.

In spite of these examples, many of the advances in public health have been due to simple factors like improved sanitation, better urban planning and better nutrition. The Green Revolution, beginning in the 1950s, vastly increased the food output of farms in all continents except Africa, leading to improved nutrition and food supply. The Green Revolution involved a combination of methods: increased mechanisation (for example, the use of tractors and irrigation pumps), the development of new, higher-yield crops and the invention of new fertilisers and pesticides.

World trade also intensified in the years after World War II, aided by improved communications and transport systems. By the end of the 20th century, the world had entered the era of **globalisation**, meaning that goods are now being traded more freely across many parts of the world. Commerce and banking has also become globally integrated, as the 2008 Global Financial Crisis (in which losses by banks in the United States led to worldwide shortages of financial credit) has demonstrated.



Source 1.75 A child suffering from AIDS in Africa

Many people believe that increased global trade has led to higher standards of living. Advocates of globalisation argue that poorer countries are able to sell their goods to a much greater market than before, and that people in the developing world have access to more jobs. Critics point out, however, that globalisation does not necessarily mean that any new wealth created will be shared. For Australia, globalisation has seen an increase in exports of mineral resources to overseas markets, but it has also brought with it the collapse of some manufacturing industries as companies have sought cheaper workers in other countries.

## Environmental pressures

The 20th century has seen continued urbanisation and industrialisation. Most urban populations are engaged in industry and in producing goods and services rather than food. Urban populations drain energy resources, and create large amounts of waste and pollution. Industry, previously concentrated in Western countries, has become more global with the emerging economies of China, India and South Korea.

These trends have had major ecological implications and the environment has come into much sharper focus. By the end of the 20th century, there were clear differences between those who saw the planet as a resource to be exploited, and those who saw it as a unique biological system to be preserved. Development and conservation frequently clashed as a range of issues and campaigns made the environment movement a critical part of historical change.

The second half of the 20th century saw the emergence of environmental thinking. A major development in environmental thinking was the Gaia hypothesis. This proposed that life on Earth was interconnected and formed a self-contained system that allowed life to flourish. In other words, the Earth is a single, inter-dependent system. The idea of sustainability has also become increasingly important during the 20th century. It requires a long-term view of environmental impacts and use of resources. It requires exploitation of natural resources to be measured and managed.

Environmental movements developed as a response to the belief that governments were not dealing with environmental threats appropriately. Individuals formed activist groups to focus attention on the exploitation of the Earth's resources. International organisations like Greenpeace have brought a range of environmental issues to the world's attention, from nuclear testing in the Pacific to continued whaling. Local conservation groups in Australia have also fought to protect endangered species and the natural environment against development.

Green politics has gradually made an impact on the international political scene and Green parties now participate at various levels of government in many countries. The environment is increasingly becoming a global issue as world governments recognise the need for coordinated efforts against threats like climate change. The Kyoto Protocol, signed by Australia in 2007, is an international commitment to reduce greenhouse gas emissions in an attempt to limit the potentially devastating effects of global warming.



Source 1.76 'Greenies' in Melbourne protest against the logging of old-growth forests in Tasmania.

## Check your learning

- 1 Give three reasons for the rapid growth in world population at this time.
- 2 What is the estimated life expectancy of an Aboriginal person born in the period 1996–2001?
- 3 Which disease was eradicated by 1977?
- 4 What is the Gaia hypothesis?

## key concepts

# Significance

Billions of people live and have lived on the Earth over the course of history, and each one of those people has their own story, their own biases and interpretations, and their own interactions with other people and institutions. The almost infinite threads of history this creates would be impossible for historians to analyse. As a result, historians mainly focus on particular aspects of the past (for example, events, developments, movements, historical sites) that are significant.

To determine **significance**, historians look at aspects of the past (for example, an event) in terms of:

- who was affected
- how many people were affected
- how long it went on for
- how it changed lives
- importance and relevance today.

## The eradication of smallpox

Smallpox was an infectious disease which is believed to have arisen about 10 000 BCE. It was a devastating disease that killed about 30 per cent of sufferers and left 65–80 per cent of survivors with deep pockmarks (pitted scars) on their face and body. Smallpox could also lead to blindness, and approximately one-third of all blindness in 18th-century Europe was due to the disease. Smallpox was a major killer for many centuries, even taking its toll on numerous monarchs. It is believed that between 300 and 500 million people died from smallpox in the 20th century—more people than the total number that died in all the major wars of that era.

In 1796, Edward Jenner created a successful vaccination against smallpox through vaccination with cowpox. Nevertheless, more than 150 years after the introduction of a vaccine, 60 per cent of the world's population was still threatened by this 'ancient scourge'. In 1967, the World Health Organization (WHO) launched an effort to eradicate smallpox through a mass immunisation campaign. By 1977, the disease had been all but eliminated. There has not been a case of smallpox reported since 1978, when two people caught the virus from a laboratory.



Source 1.77 Smallpox sufferer

### Check your learning

- 1 Why is the eradication of smallpox historically significant? Use the information above to support your answer.
- 2 How do you think the spread of smallpox and its subsequent eradication may have changed the course of history?

## 1.3 How has Australian society been affected by other significant changes during the 20th century?

### Remember

- 1 In which part of the USA was discrimination against African Americans most severe during the first half of the 20th century?
- 2 When did Burma achieve independence from Britain?

### Understand

- 3 Why was the Aboriginal Tent Embassy created?
- 4 List two ways in which there seemed to be greater government support for Indigenous people in the 1970s.
- 5 Explain the beliefs and assumptions that underpinned the assimilationist policies of the early 20th century.

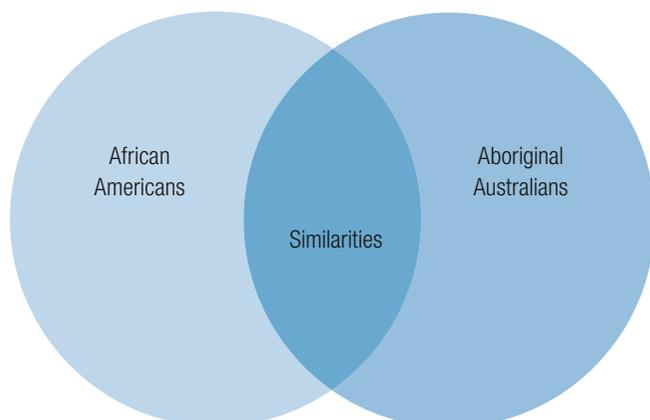
### Apply

- 6 Visit the website of the Australian Conservation Foundation.
  - a What environmental issues does this organisation see as currently important to Australia's future?
  - b What actions have they taken, are they taking, or do they intend to take, in order to address these concerns?

### Analyse

- 7 Using a Venn diagram such as the one below, identify in point form the similarities and differences of problems confronting African Americans and Aboriginal Australians in the 1960s.

Then, expand upon your notes by writing a short essay that compares and contrasts the problems facing these two groups, as well as the protests that occurred in each country around these issues.



### Evaluate

- 8 What do you consider to be the most serious problem raised by technology? Why is it a problem and how do you think it could be best addressed?
- 9 What technological development do you think we should be investing time and money into? How will this technology improve the world?

### Create

- 10 Conduct some extra research to find additional information on Charles Perkin's life and achievements. Create a multimedia presentation that summarises your findings.
- 11 Create a timeline that includes all the important dates in the Australian Aboriginal land-claim and civil rights movements.
- 12 Why was former prime minister Kevin Rudd's decision to say 'sorry' such a momentous moment in Australian history?

depth study

# World War II

*In this depth study, students will investigate wartime experiences through a study of World War II. This includes coverage of the causes, events, outcome and broad impact of the conflict as a part of global history, as well as the nature and extent of Australia's involvement in the conflict.*

*This depth study MUST be completed by all students.*

2.0 World War II (1939–1945)

The explosion of the USS Shaw during the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, 7 December 1941



depth study

# World War II

(1939–1945)

*World War II was one of the defining events of the 20th century. The war was played out all across Europe, the Pacific, the Middle East, Africa and Asia. The war even briefly reached North America and mainland Australia.*

Technology changed greatly throughout World War II. When war broke out, trench warfare, cavalry and World War I-era battleships were still in use. By 1945, weapons introduced during the war included jet aircraft, ballistic missiles, radar-guided anti-aircraft guns and missiles, assault rifles, bazookas, Napalm and the atomic bomb. Advances were also made in medicine, communications, electronics, and industry, all of which had a major impact on the rest of the 20th century.

In World War II, civilians became involved in warfare in new ways. The strategic bombing of cities on both sides probably killed over one million civilians and caused tremendous damage. The **Holocaust** claimed the lives of an estimated six million Jews, as well as around five million people from other persecuted groups (such as Gypsies, communists and homosexuals). The health impacts of the atomic bombings of Japan in 1945 lasted for several generations.

## Key inquiry questions

- 2.1 What were the causes of World War II and what course did it take?
- 2.2 What were some of the most significant events of World War II?
- 2.3 How did the events of World War II affect people around the world and in Australia?
- 2.4 How did the events of World War II shape Australia's international relationships?

Many rows of stone heads now stand in the ground at the Mauthausen war memorial in Austria, the site of a Nazi concentration camp during World War II.



2

# bigpicture

## World War II

*Although World War I had been called the 'war to end all wars', only 20 years after its conclusion the world was once again plunged into war. The Paris Peace Conference paved the way for World War II, and the Great Depression also played a role in destabilising world economies and political systems making them ripe for conflict.*

*Specific ideologies such as **Nazism**, **fascism** and **communism** also shaped the events that led to the outbreak of war in September 1939. As was the case in World War I, Germany was again seen as the main aggressor. Germany's invasion of Poland was the final trigger that brought most of Europe into the war. Italy and Japan were allies of Germany and, for a short time, so was the USSR. France and Britain were again allies, and Australia was involved through its membership in the British Empire. The USA entered the war in December 1941, following the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor.*

### 1 September 1939

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

1910

### 1919

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



Signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919

### 1933

Hitler becomes chancellor of Germany leading the National Socialist German Workers Party (better known as the Nazi Party)

### 9–10 November 1938

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



A Jewish-owned shopfront after *Kristallnacht*

Source 2.1 Timeline of key events of World War II

**19 February 1942**

Darwin bombed and Australia put on 'total war' footing

**July–November 1942**

Kokoda Trail campaign fought between Australia and Japan in New Guinea



Kokoda Trail campaign

**6 June 1944**

D-Day landing of Allied troops in Europe



American troops in landing craft in Normandy, France

**1940**

Fall of France, Belgium, Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands to Germany; Dunkirk evacuation

**30 April 1945**

Hitler commits suicide in Berlin, leading to the surrender of Germany

**8 May 1945**

VE (Victory in Europe) Day—marks the end of the war in Europe

**22 June 1941**

Beginning of Operation Barbarossa (German invasion of the USSR)



The conquest of Kiev in June 1941

**6–9 August 1945**

The USA drops two atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima (6 August) and Nagasaki (9 August) leading to Japan's surrender and end of war in the Pacific



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

**December 1941**

Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor and Singapore—the Pacific war begins



USS Arizona sinking in Pearl Harbor, 7 December 1941; the USA enters the war the next day

**15 August 1945**

VP (Victory in the Pacific) Day—marks the end of the war in the Pacific



Source 2.2 Adolph Hitler salutes a parade of Nazi Brownshirts in Nuremberg, Germany, 1927.

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

*World War II started a generation after 'the war to end all wars'. Certainly the treaties devised at the end of World War I played a role, creating resentment in countries like Germany and Austria. Japan also resented the humiliating abandonment of a racial equality clause at the Paris Peace Conference. Fascism emerged in European countries as a response to economic recession and the rise of communism. National aspirations and imperial ambitions helped ignite a conflict that would eventually erupt in theatres of war across four continents.*

In the case of World War II, there were many short- and long-term factors that contributed to the outbreak of conflict. The terms of the Versailles peace treaty that had ended World War I, and the economic impact of the Great Depression both played a role

in the beginning of World War II. Specific individuals and **ideologies** also shaped the events that led to the outbreak of hostilities in September 1939.

Australia became involved in World War II because of its relationship with Britain. In September 1939, the Second Australian Imperial Force (AIF) was established and recruiting began. Australian troops were dispatched to fight in the Middle East and Europe. However, following the bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941 and the fall of Singapore in February 1942, the theatre of war moved into the Pacific region. The Australian Prime Minister, John Curtin, made Australia's first independent declaration of war, against Japan.

## Causes of World War II

### The Paris Peace Conference

The Paris Peace Conference was held by the victorious Allies in 1919, to negotiate the peace terms of the defeated nations (see Source 2.3). The Treaty of Versailles imposed a series of harsh terms on Germany, which can be seen as contributing to the outbreak of World War II.

The notorious 'war guilt clause' blamed Germany for starting the war, and forced the Germans to pay a massive war **reparations** bill, which was only fully repaid in 2010. German territory was given to neighbouring France, Denmark, Belgium, Poland and the newly formed Czechoslovakia. Germany's colonies were divided between the Allies, including Australia, which claimed German New Guinea and Nauru.

The treaty also limited the German army to just 100 000 men, abolished conscription, disbanded the air force, and limited the production of weapons and munitions in German factories. This created an unstable economy with mass unemployment, as well as a sense of resentment and bitterness.

The conference also alienated some of the Allies. Italy was outraged that it received few benefits for joining the Allies, contributing to the rise of fascism in this disillusioned nation. The conference also laid the seeds of the war in the Pacific.

Japan was permitted to keep Chinese territory it had seized from Germany but unsuccessfully tried to introduce a 'racial equality' clause to the treaty, which was opposed by the British delegation and by Australia in particular. Japan's failure to ensure its equality with the other powers contributed to the breakdown in Japan's relations with the West, and the rise of Japanese nationalism and militarism.



**Source 2.3** British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, French Premier Georges Clemenceau and US President Woodrow Wilson walk together in Paris during negotiations for the Treaty of Versailles.

## significance: the League of Nations

The League of Nations was established as part of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. The League was the brainchild of US President Woodrow Wilson. The idea was that the League would settle disputes between nations by imposing **sanctions**, with the aim of preventing another world war. Only as a last resort would troops be sent in.

One of the major weaknesses of the scheme was that the USA did not join the League. Although the US President had masterminded it, the US Congress refused to join. Wilson's party, the Democrats, were defeated at the 1920 election. It seemed that a majority of Americans wanted to return to their **isolationist** position and not become caught up in world affairs.

The League had no armed forces of its own, and had little power to force members to comply with its directions. It had some minor successes in the 1920s, such as peacefully dividing Upper Silesia between Germany and Poland, but the League failed in its central aim of preventing another world war. By 1939, Japan, Germany, Italy and the USSR had all terminated their membership of the organisation.



Source 2.4 Europe after the Treaty of Versailles



Source 2.5 A Nazi poster featuring Adolf Hitler. The poster reads 'Long live Germany!' and shows the Nazi flag with swastika, the symbol of the Third Reich

## The rise of Hitler and the Nazi Party

At the end of World War I in 1918, Germany was defeated and Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicated (gave up the throne of ruler of Germany). A new democratic government, known as the Weimar Republic, was established instead. Many Germans blamed the new government for agreeing to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, which made it very unpopular.

The new government also had serious economic problems to deal with. Workers went on strike, German currency depreciated in value, and the economy suffered as foreign investors took their money out.



**Source 2.6** A German housewife using millions of Deutschmarks to light her stove. During the hyperinflation of 1923, the heat from burning the currency for cooking was of more value than the currency itself.

In addition to these problems, the government of the Weimar Republic had to deal with the threat of paramilitary groups such as the **Nazi** Brownshirts (*Sturmabteilung* or storm troopers) and the Communist Red Front.

Adolf Hitler took advantage of the conditions created by this political instability and the **Great Depression**. After a failed attempt to seize power in 1923, for which he served eight months in prison, Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany in 1933. He set up a totalitarian government that ensured its popularity by reducing unemployment and inflation, and by promising to restore Germany's national pride.



**Sources 2.7 and 2.8** Nazi propaganda posters showing the swastika and the eagle (both symbols of the Third Reich)

## significance: Nazi ideology

In order to understand the rise of Adolf Hitler and the Nazis in Germany, it is important to examine the extreme right-wing movements that gained widespread popularity in Europe and other parts of the world in the 1920s and 1930s.

### Right-wing paramilitary groups

The start of the Great Depression in 1929 led to widespread global unemployment. Extreme right-wing movements became popular in many parts of the world. Some of these movements developed into paramilitary groups (groups that are armed like the traditional military but are outside the control of the state). These groups generally believed in extreme authoritarian social and economic policies and **totalitarian** forms of government. They were also fiercely opposed to communism. In Italy and Spain, right-wing groups seized power and set up fascist regimes. Almost every nation in the world had extreme right-wing movements, including Australia, Britain, Canada and the USA, but they were far smaller and less popular in countries with strong democratic traditions.

### The Nazi Party

In Germany, one of the extreme right-wing groups that emerged after World War I was the Nazi Party. Nazism was characterised by the strong and charismatic leadership of Adolf Hitler, supported by a small, powerful inner circle of people. Its ideology was built on German nationalism, anti-communism, anti-Semitism, a belief in the 'stab-in-the-back myth' (the idea that Germany was not defeated in World War I, but was betrayed by the socialists and Jews on the home front), and the idea that ethnic Germans were racially superior to all other races. The Nazi Party attempted to seize power in 1923 in Munich in an uprising known as the 'Beer Hall Putsch'. This uprising failed, and the ringleaders, including Hitler, received short prison sentences. After this incident, Hitler was determined to win power legally at the ballot box. In 1933 he was appointed Chancellor of Germany after negotiating a deal with other leaders. In November 1932, the Nazi Party had received 37.3 per cent of votes, more than any other party but not a majority. This was Germany's last free election until the defeat of the Nazis in 1945.



Source 2.9 Nuremberg Rally, 1933

### The Third Reich

In Nazi Germany, also known as the Third Reich, there was little or no personal freedom. People were encouraged to report on friends, neighbours and even family members suspected of disloyalty to the regime. **Propaganda** was used to convince citizens of the beliefs of the regime and to silence critics. Punishments were severe and often involved torture and internment in concentration camps. Jews were the primary targets of Nazi persecution. Writers, artists, playwrights, university professors and others traditionally associated with free thinking were also targets of Nazi persecution.

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

The **Holocaust** was the most extreme consequence of the Nazi ideology. Beginning in 1941, it claimed the lives of six million Jews—one-third of the entire world Jewish population, including 1.5 million children. Another five million people from other groups were also targeted and murdered by the Nazis. These included Roma and Sinti (Gypsy) people, Poles, homosexuals, Jehovah's Witnesses, Freemasons, political dissidents, and those with intellectual and physical disabilities.

When France fell to the German invasion in 1940, much of northern France was occupied by German troops. The southern and eastern regions of France that remained under French control became known as 'Vichy France'. In these areas, the government introduced policies that supported German anti-Semitic initiatives, while in Denmark, the authorities resisted Nazi attempts to exterminate their Jewish communities. With the help of fellow Danes, most Danish Jews managed to escape to neutral Sweden.



Source 2.10 Jews captured during the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising. Nazis are rounding up the people to take them to concentration or extermination camps.

## The Great Depression

Another significant event that contributed to the outbreak of World War II was the Great Depression. The Great Depression was a period of severe economic hardship that began in 1929 and lasted until the late 1930s. Germany was one of the worst affected nations during the Depression, with mass unemployment becoming a major problem (see Source 2.11). The instability this caused made the extreme and rather simplistic policies offered by Hitler and the Nazis attractive to many Germans in desperate economic circumstances. This gave Hitler the opportunity to rise to power.

## Japanese imperialism

At the end of World War I, Japan was a modern industrialised nation and a global power. It had fought with the Allies during the war, and a Japanese delegation attended the Paris Peace conference. Japan was disappointed by the outcomes of the Conference, however. The racial equality proposal was rejected and Japan's territorial gains were limited to small former German colonies like the Marshall and Mariana islands and some territory in China. In 1923, the Anglo-Japanese Treaty ended, while the United States excluded Japanese migrants from 1924. This combination of factors drove Japan away from cooperation with the West. By 1933, Japan had withdrawn from the League of Nations.

Throughout the inter-war period, Japanese politics was dominated by nationalist and militarist movements. Out of these movements came the idea of a 'Greater East Asian Co-prosperity Sphere'. This was the idea that East Asia could exist free of Western colonialism, with Japan as the leaders of a bloc of Asian and Pacific nations. This idea quickly became linked to Japanese imperialism, and provided justification for the invasion of China in 1937. The struggle for dominance in Asia and the Pacific developed into the Pacific theatre (arena) of World War II, especially after the bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941.



**Source 2.11** The queue outside a slaughterhouse, Berlin 1931

### Check your learning

- 1 Identify the main causes of World War II.
- 2 What were the aims of the League of Nations? Why did it fail to achieve them?
- 3 What military restrictions did the Treaty of Versailles impose on Germany?
- 4 Why was the Weimar Republic unpopular in Germany in the 1920s?
- 5 Why did Japan turn away from cooperation with the West in the build-up to World War II?

# significant individuals

## Adolf Hitler

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



**Source 2.12** Hitler held crowds mesmerised for hours with his speeches.

### Early life

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

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

### During World War I

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

### Key influences and ideas

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

Anti-Semitism (hostility towards and persecution of Jews) existed in German society, and in other European countries, long before the Nazi Party came to power in 1933. In fact, anti-Semitism can be traced back as far as the ancient world.

After World War I, Hitler was a strong believer in the 'stab-in-the-back' myth that Germany was not defeated in World War I, but was instead betrayed from within by the working class and 'the Jews'. Hitler was sent to spy on the German Workers' Party (DAP) in 1919, but found that his personal ideology began to blend with that of the DAP. He joined the DAP and in 1920 convinced fellow party members to change the party's name to the National Socialist German Workers' Party, better known as the Nazi Party.

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

The Nazis used anti-Semitic propaganda to influence the German public. Jews everywhere were portrayed as acting as a single unit. Anti-Semitism was emphasised as a 'racial' prejudice rather than a religious one. In order to achieve their 'Aryan' society, other races



**Source 2.13** Hitler is sworn in as the new Chancellor in January 1933 by President Hindenburg (right).

considered by the Nazis to be ‘weak’ or ‘polluting’ were to be removed from society. In addition to the Jews, these groups included Slavs and Sinti/Roma people (Gypsies), as well as non-‘racial’ groups such as those with disabilities, Jehovah’s Witnesses and homosexuals. While Nazi persecution of these groups was widespread, Jews in particular were made a scapegoat for many of Germany’s problems.

## Rise to power

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

On his release from jail, Hitler decided that the Nazis should try to gain power using the political system rather than attacking it. His party gained a small number of seats in the Reichstag (the German legislative assembly) during the 1920s, but it was the Great Depression that gave them their real opportunity. By 1932 the Nazi Party was the largest single party in the Reichstag and Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany in January 1933 by President Hindenburg. After Hindenburg’s death in 1934, Hitler, combined the roles of Chancellor and President, making himself the supreme ruler or *Führer* of Germany. Hitler’s government then began implementing

many of the plans and policies described in *Mein Kampf*. These included the expansion of the military, systematic persecution of the Jewish community, compulsory sterilisation for many Jewish and Sinti/Roma people, as well as those with disabilities and the expansion of Germany’s borders.

## World War II

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

### Check your learning

- 1 What special treatment did Hitler receive when he was tried for treason after the Nazi Party’s first attempt to seize power in 1923? Why do you think that was?
- 2 What were some of the key characteristics of Hitler’s ideology?
- 3 How did the Great Depression help Hitler and the Nazis rise to power?

## The build-up to war in Europe

Under Hitler's government, Nazi Germany violated the terms of the Treaty of Versailles by increasing the size of the military, reintroducing **conscription**, re-establishing an air force, and expanding the production of weapons and ammunition.

One of Hitler's aims in the 1930s was to regain the territories lost by Germany in World War I. In 1936, German troops entered the Rhineland, a region of western Germany that had been demilitarised after the war. In 1938, Germany annexed Austria (a process known as the *Anschluss*) and threatened to invade Czechoslovakia (see Sources 2.14 and 2.15). The British and French response was to largely tolerate these actions in the hope that they could avoid war with Germany. This policy of appeasement merely encouraged Hitler to order further acts of aggression.



Source 2.14 German territorial expansion in Europe, 1936-1939



Source 2.15 Austrian troops salute Hitler as Germans march into Austria after the annexation (known in German as *der Anschluss*).



Source 2.16 German troops march through the centre of Warsaw, Poland, in 1939.

## The failure of appeasement

In the late 1930s, Britain and France were desperate to avoid another war with Germany. Even though the *Anschluss* and the presence of German troops in the Rhineland were violations of the Versailles peace treaty, Britain and France did not react aggressively (see Source 2.17). This helped convince Hitler that these nations would not go to war over German territorial expansion.

The treaty had given the Sudetenland region, which had a population of around three million ethnic Germans, to the new nation of Czechoslovakia. In 1938, Hitler demanded that the region be returned to Germany. Representatives from Britain, France, Italy and Germany met in Munich in September, and agreed to return Sudetenland to Germany (see Source 2.18). In return, Hitler agreed not to make any further claims over disputed territory in Europe. Despite these assurances, Germany invaded the rest of Czechoslovakia in March 1939.

The failure of appeasement resulted in Britain and France adopting a harder line against Germany. When Hitler began demanding the return of territories in Poland, Britain formed an Anglo-Polish alliance to guarantee Poland's security. In September 1939, Germany invaded Poland; and Britain, France and the British Dominions, including Australia, declared war on Germany.



**Source 2.17** British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain arrives back from his meeting with Hitler in 1938, holding the agreement which he said would deliver 'peace for our time'.

### Check your learning

- 1 Identify some of the ways in which Germany violated the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.
- 2 What was the appeasement policy? In what way did it fail?
- 3 Why did Hitler claim to want the Sudetenland returned to Germany?

## The war in Europe

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

### Poland

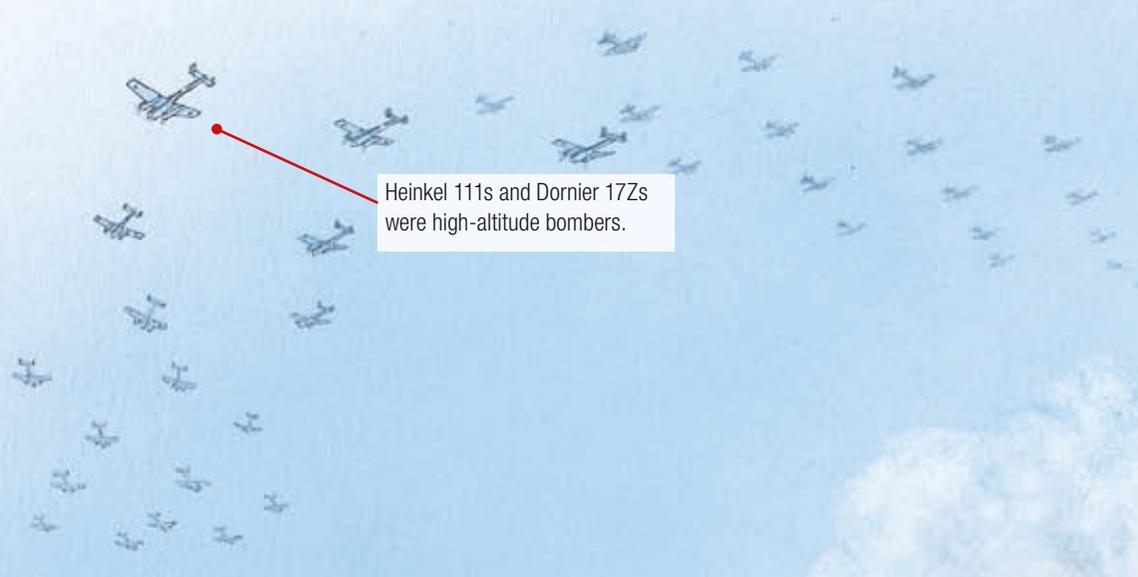
The invasion of Poland, launched on 1 September 1939, was the first example of what became known as *Blitzkrieg* ('lightning war') tactics (see Source 2.19). Despite the British and French commitment to support Poland, the speed of the German advance made it virtually impossible for either power to offer practical military support. By the end of September, Poland was divided between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union with which Hitler had signed a pact in August (see Source 2.16).



**Source 2.18** Sudeten women respond to the entry of Hitler's troops to their territory. What could be the explanation for the response of the woman on the right?

## Blitzkrieg

German attacks such as the one shown here became known as *Blitzkrieg* ('lightning war') tactics. This innovative approach coordinated air and land forces to overrun the enemy. Slower-moving ground forces, often using horse-drawn transport, 'mopped up' the shattered defenders and occupied their territory.



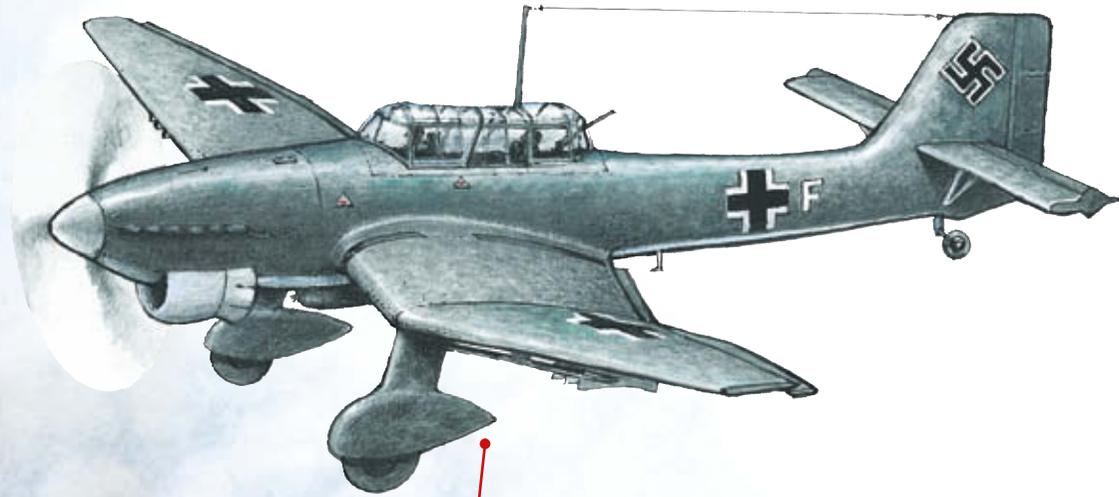
Heinkel 111s and Dornier 17Zs were high-altitude bombers.



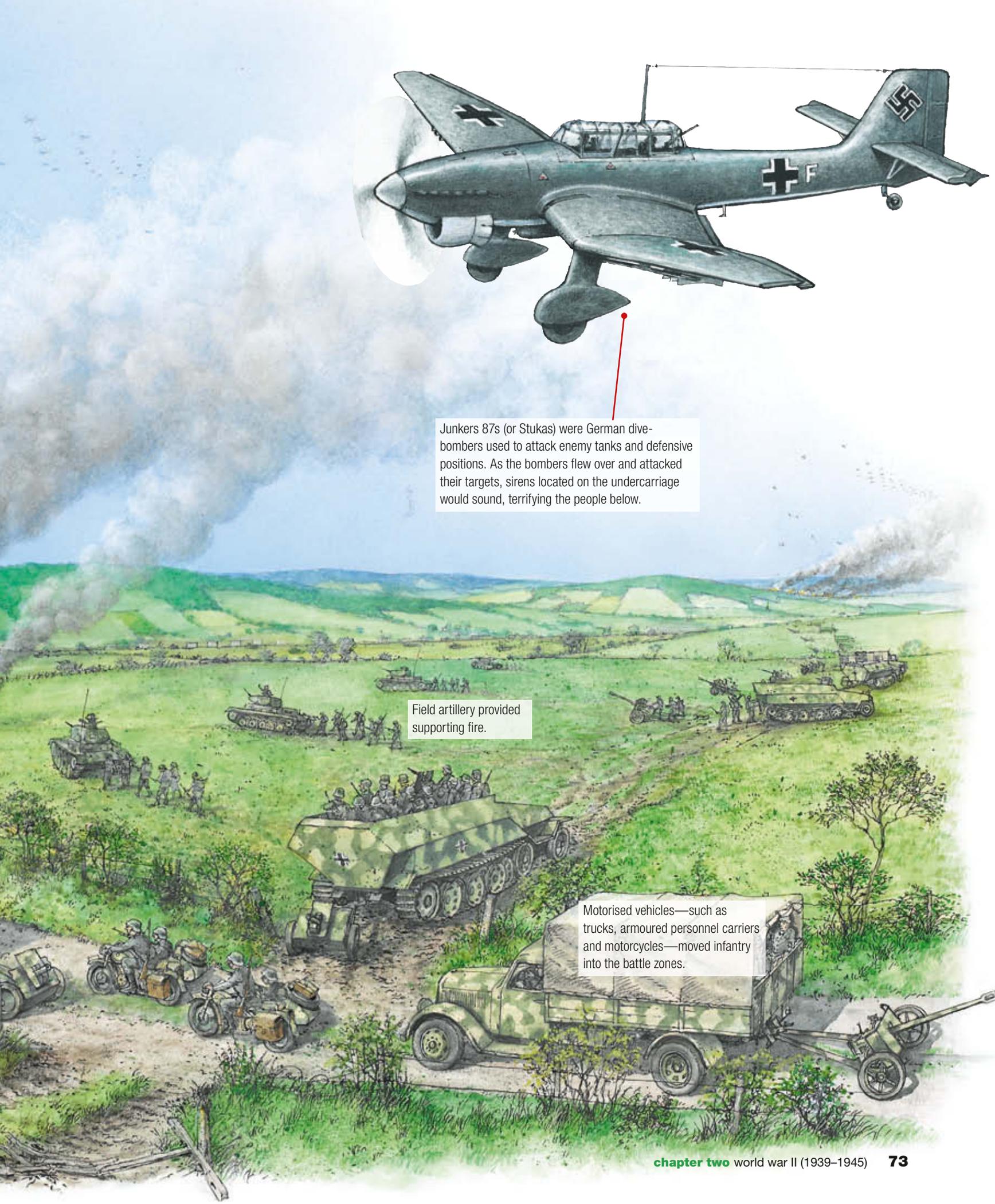
Panzers were German tanks that were used as the major strike force in *Blitzkrieg* actions.

Defenders used barbed wire, tank traps and deep ditches in an attempt to slow the German advance.

Source 2.19 An artist's impression of the *Blitzkrieg*



Junkers 87s (or Stukas) were German dive-bombers used to attack enemy tanks and defensive positions. As the bombers flew over and attacked their targets, sirens located on the undercarriage would sound, terrifying the people below.



Field artillery provided supporting fire.

Motorised vehicles—such as trucks, armoured personnel carriers and motorcycles—moved infantry into the battle zones.

## The Phoney War

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

## The Battle of France

In May 1940, Germany invaded the Low Countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg) and France using *Blitzkrieg* tactics. Despite outnumbering the Germans, the Allied forces were unable to deal with the speed of the German attack. The British government evacuated 338 000 British and French troops from the port of Dunkirk, in northern France (see Source 2.21). On 22 June 1940, France surrendered (see Source 2.22), although some military units outside of France rejected the surrender and continued fighting Germany as the Free French Forces.



Source 2.20 German troops drive into Poland.



Source 2.21 The Dunkirk evacuation



Source 2.22  
Adolf Hitler at the Eiffel  
Tower following the fall  
of France in 1940

## The Battle of Britain

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



Source 2.23 German bombers during the Battle of Britain, 1940

Source 2.24 British propaganda poster with British Prime Minister Winston Churchill's words: 'Never was so much owed by so many to so few'



## significant individuals

# Wartime political and military leaders

In wartime, political and military leaders assume a more prominent role than they do in peacetime. They are often held responsible for the success or failure of wars.

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



### President of the United States—Harry Truman

Truman's predecessor as President of the USA, Franklin D Roosevelt, was President for most of the war. His Vice-President, Harry Truman, however, was left with arguably the most significant decision of the war.

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



### Prime Minister of Great Britain—Winston Churchill

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



## Premier of the Soviet Union—Joseph Stalin

Stalin joined the Bolsheviks (a militant communist organisation) in 1903, and became the organisation's main operative in his home region of Georgia. When the Bolshevik Revolution installed a communist government in Russia in 1917, Stalin became an increasingly important political figure. By World War II, Stalin was the Premier and undisputed leader of the Soviet Union. He signed a non-aggression pact with Nazi Germany in 1939, which also divided Eastern Europe into German and Soviet spheres of influence. In 1941, Germany invaded the Soviet Union, violating the pact and starting the war on the Eastern Front. Stalin was heavily involved in Soviet military planning, in that he personally attempted to organise the defence of Russia. After a series of defeats and retreats, Stalin placed greater trust in his generals, and allowed them to develop plans to defeat Germany. Stalin proved to be a ruthless negotiator at the wartime and post-war conferences, and laid the groundwork for the 'Sovietisation' of Eastern Europe and the Cold War.



## French General—Charles de Gaulle

Unlike the other Allied leaders, Charles de Gaulle held no official government role. When World War II broke out, he was a colonel in the French army. When his unit achieved a rare victory during the Battle of France, the French Prime Minister, Paul Reynaud, appointed de Gaulle to his War Cabinet. In this role, de Gaulle argued against surrendering to Germany. When France surrendered, de Gaulle rejected the decision and fled to Britain to continue fighting. Around 7000 French soldiers, as well as some from other occupied nations like Belgium, had joined de Gaulle's 'Free French Forces' by the end of 1940. De Gaulle frequently clashed with the other Allied leaders. Despite this, he proved a charismatic and intelligent leader. His Free French Forces continued to grow, and eventually merged with the French Army of Africa in 1943. By the time of the D-Day landings, de Gaulle's Free French Forces numbered 400 000 men. They played a significant part in the liberation of France, and de Gaulle assumed the role of Prime Minister of the Provisional Republic of France from 1944 to 1946.

## Check your learning

- 1 Did President Harry Truman regret his decision to authorise the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki? Why did he authorise the bombings?
- 2 What was different about Charles de Gaulle's role as an Allied leader?
- 3 Conduct further research on one of these Allied leaders, covering the following:
  - a Identify how he came to power.
  - b Decide what you think his most significant decision during World War II was.
  - c Analyse his importance after World War II.

## The Rats of Tobruk

Italy entered the war on Germany's side in June 1940. Its leader, Mussolini, planned to conquer Egypt from the Italian territory of Libya. However, Australian troops spearheaded a British counterattack into Libya, capturing Bardia, Tobruk and Benghazi early in 1941. Hitler sent General Rommel with German forces to support the Italians in Libya. Rommel drove the British back into Egypt, although a force of Australian and British troops held on to Tobruk. German propaganda described these men as 'trapped like rats', but the 'Rats of Tobruk' proved very aggressive and successful, despite primitive conditions and a complete lack of air support (see Source 2.25). Royal Australian Navy ships braved enemy air attack to bring in supplies and evacuate wounded. By September 1941 most of the Australians had been replaced by Polish troops. Rommel did capture Tobruk in June 1942.



Source 2.25 Some of the Rats of Tobruk (AWM 041790)



Source 2.26 German troops were defeated as much by the weather as by the Russians on the Eastern Front in 1941–42.

### Check your learning

- 1 Using the text above and the map (Source 2.31) list all of the countries that were controlled by the Axis powers by the end of 1942.
- 2 What were *Blitzkrieg* tactics? Why do you think they were so effective?
- 3 What was the 'Phoney War'? How did it end?
- 4 Who were the 'Rats of Tobruk'? Why do you think they were called that?

## Operation Barbarossa

The peak of the Axis campaign in Europe was the *Blitzkrieg* invasion of the Soviet Union, which began in June 1941. Code-named Operation Barbarossa, it is still the largest military operation—in terms of manpower, area covered and casualties—in human history. The Axis force was made up of over three million troops, 3600 tanks and 4300 aircraft.

In 1939, Germany and the Soviet Union had signed a treaty, agreeing to remain neutral if either was attacked. The invasion in 1941 broke this agreement. There were several reasons for the invasion. The large landmass of Eastern Europe was to provide *Lebensraum* ('living space') for ethnic Germans, and would provide useful resources for the war effort. The motivations were also ideological. The Nazis hated communism and considered Russia's Slavic peoples to be racially inferior to Germans.

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

However, the German forces were unable to capture Moscow. They were unprepared for the harshness of the Soviet winter and were met by stubborn resistance (see Source 2.26). When the winter of 1941–42 ended and the Germans could manoeuvre again, Hitler directed his forces to southern Russia and its oilfields. Their advance eventually came to a halt at Stalingrad (now known as Volgograd) in September 1942, in a battle that would become one of the bloodiest in history. The German army eventually surrendered at Stalingrad in February 1943. Nevertheless, the Nazi forces still occupied a great area of the USSR, and their control extended over most of continental Europe.

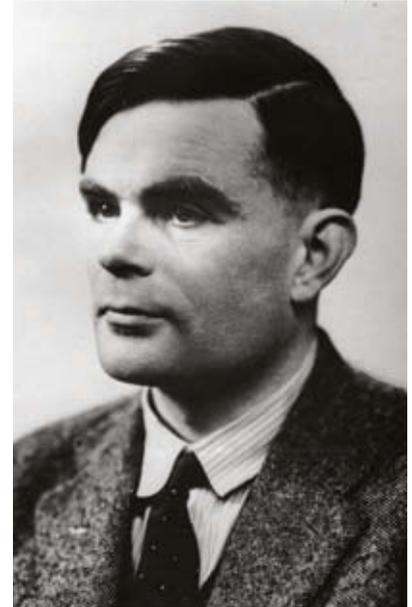
## significance: code-breakers

Throughout the war, many different methods were used to send secret messages and instructions from command headquarters to troops fighting all over the world.

A British team of code-breakers worked to intercept and decrypt secret messages being sent by German forces. The code-breaking centre was based in the Government Code and Cypher School at Bletchley Park in England. One of the most brilliant code-breakers was Alan Turing who after the war played a major role in the development of the computer.

The most common machine used to encrypt and decrypt secret messages being sent back and forth between German military command posts and troops out on the battlefield was the Enigma machine. With the help of earlier encryption technology by Polish mathematicians, Turing worked to develop a machine called the 'bombe', an electromagnetic machine that was used to decipher German Enigma-machine-encrypted signals during the war.

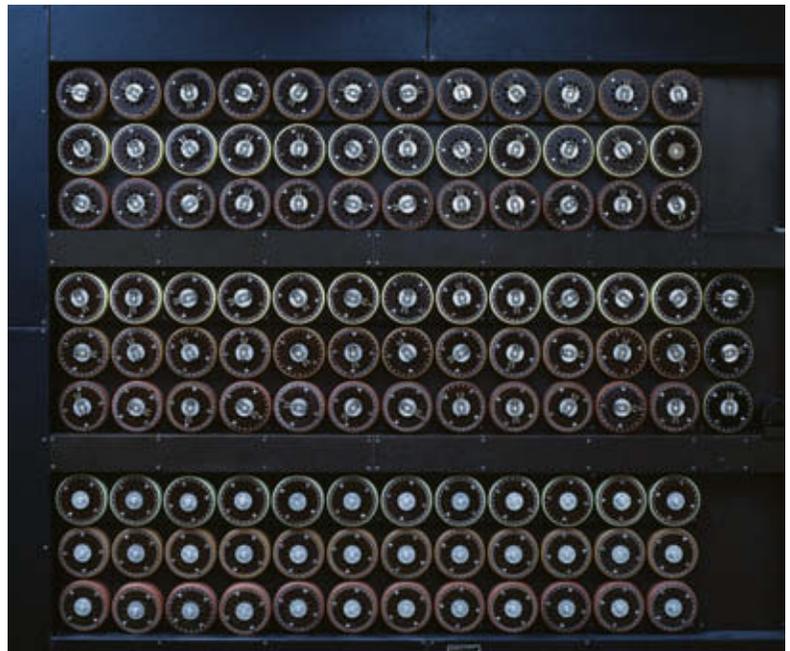
The technology associated with code-breaking during the war was not only significant because it influenced the outcome of battles and events, but also because of the fact that much of this technology went on to be adapted for use in modern-day electronic products like computers.



Source 2.27 Alan Turing



Source 2.28 A German Enigma machine



Source 2.29 A machine called a 'bombe', used to decipher German Enigma machine messages

## The tide of war turns in Europe

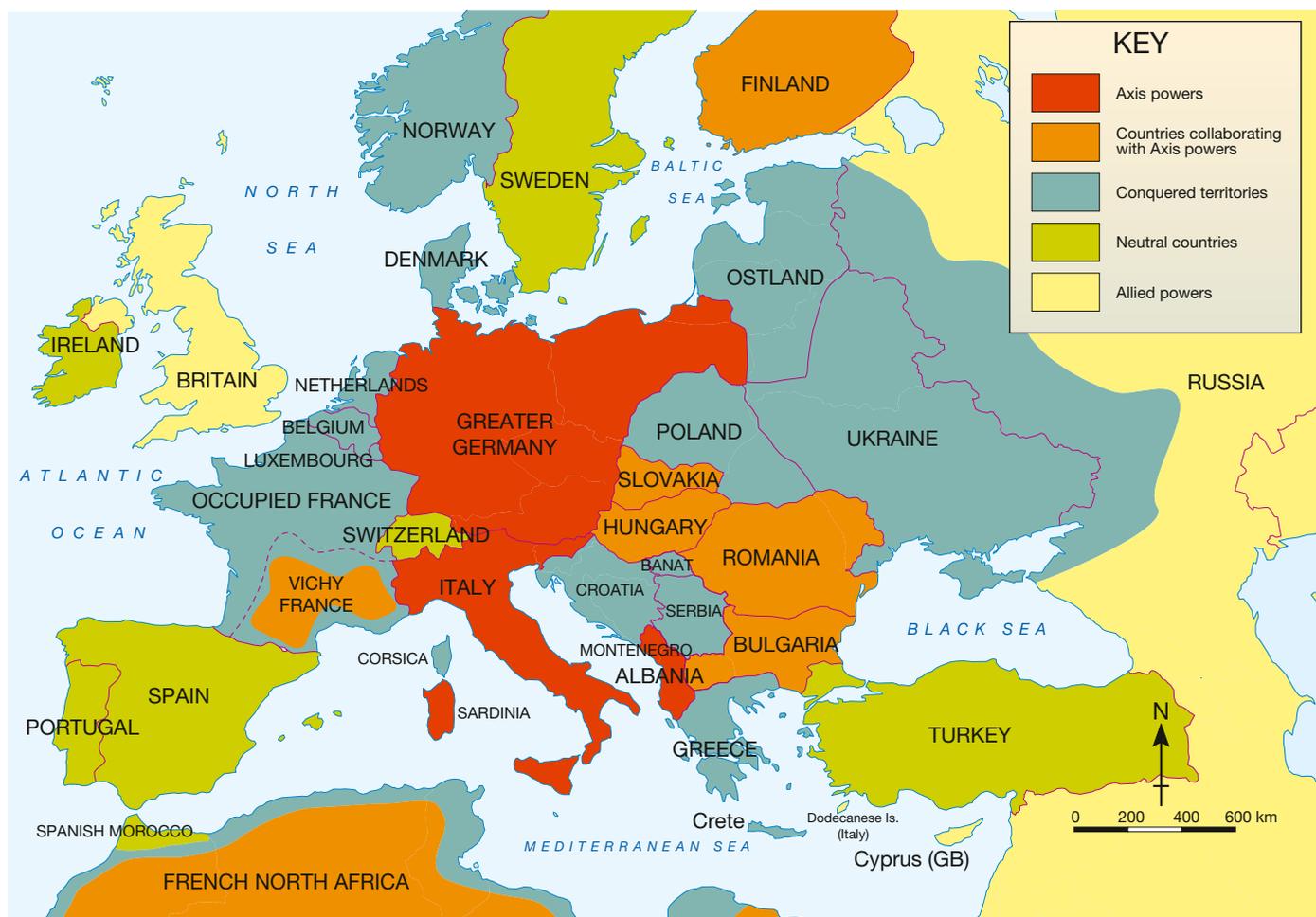
By 1943, the German tactics had lost the element of surprise, and their wartime success had peaked (see Source 2.31). Britain, the British **Dominions**, the USA, the Soviet Union and the Free French Forces formed an alliance to force Germany and its allies into an unconditional surrender.

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

In Western Europe, the Allies began major bombing campaigns on Germany from 1942, initially focusing on destroying airfields but later bombing industrial cities. This campaign failed to significantly affect German morale or industries, and on its own could not win the war. The Allies developed a plan to invade France. On 6 June 1944, around 160 000 Allied troops landed on the beaches of Normandy, in Northern France. This operation, known as 'D-Day', precipitated the Liberation of France in August 1944 (see Source 2.30).



Source 2.30 American troops storming a beach at Normandy, France, on D-Day



Source 2.31 Europe and North Africa at the height of Axis power in 1942



Source 2.32 The crew of a B-17 Flying Fortress bomber, 17 November 1943

## The end of the war in Europe

In September 1944, Allied ground troops invaded Germany from the west. The Allies continued bombing major German cities, including Berlin. In April, the Soviets encircled Berlin and launched a final assault. Hitler remained in Berlin, to direct the defence of the city from his bunker. Although most of the city's population was mobilised, the Soviets seized Berlin after a week of fighting in the streets. Hitler committed suicide on 30 April (see Source 2.33), and Germany officially surrendered on 7 May 1945.



Source 2.33 The front page of the *News Chronicle* (London), 2 May 1945, announces the death of Adolf Hitler.

## Check your learning

- 1 Why were Germany's military tactics less effective after 1943?
- 2 Was the Allied bombing of German cities and airfields a significant factor in the defeat of Germany?
- 3 What military campaign was D-Day the start of? Which countries were involved in this campaign?
- 4 Identify some of the main factors that led to the end of the war in Europe.

focus on ...

### contestability: conflicting reports surrounding Hitler's death

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

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

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

## The war in Asia

In 1936, Japan signed an agreement with Germany known as the Anti-Comintern Pact. This was followed in 1940 by the Tripartite Pact, which cemented the Axis powers' alliance. In 1937 Italy joined the pact.

Despite these alliances, Japan's invasion of China in 1937 is not generally considered to be part of World War II (see Source 2.34). The event that symbolises Japan's entry into World War II was the attack on Pearl Harbor (see Source 2.35).

### The attack on Pearl Harbor

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

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



Source 2.34 Japanese occupation of China at the start of World War II

### Check your learning

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



Source 2.35 A recreation of the attack on Pearl Harbor in the 2001 Hollywood film *Pearl Harbor*

## War in the Pacific

For the first two years, Japan appeared to have the upper hand. Following the attack on Pearl Harbor, Japanese forces quickly occupied Malaya, Singapore, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Guam and Wake Island. They also conquered Burma in the west, and pushed south through French Indochina (Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos) and the Dutch East Indies to reach Australia's doorstep in New Guinea (see Source 2.36). Britain and the USA had seriously underestimated Japan's military ability. This, together with the element of surprise and the imaginative use of combined naval and air forces by the Japanese, gave Japan an early advantage.

### The fall of Singapore

The fall of Singapore was the largest surrender of a British-led force in history. It was a defining moment of the war in the Pacific. It also had major implications for Australia's international relationships. At the time, Singapore was a British colony and the key naval base

in the region. The ‘Singapore Strategy’ was also a key part of Australia’s military defence planning which was based on British assurances that, should Japan ever attack South-East Asia, the main British fleet would be sent to Singapore to tackle the Japanese navy and protect Australia. The Japanese first bombed Singapore on 8 December 1941, the day after the bombing of Pearl Harbor. On the same day, the Japanese landed forces on the north-east coast of Malaya (now Malaysia).

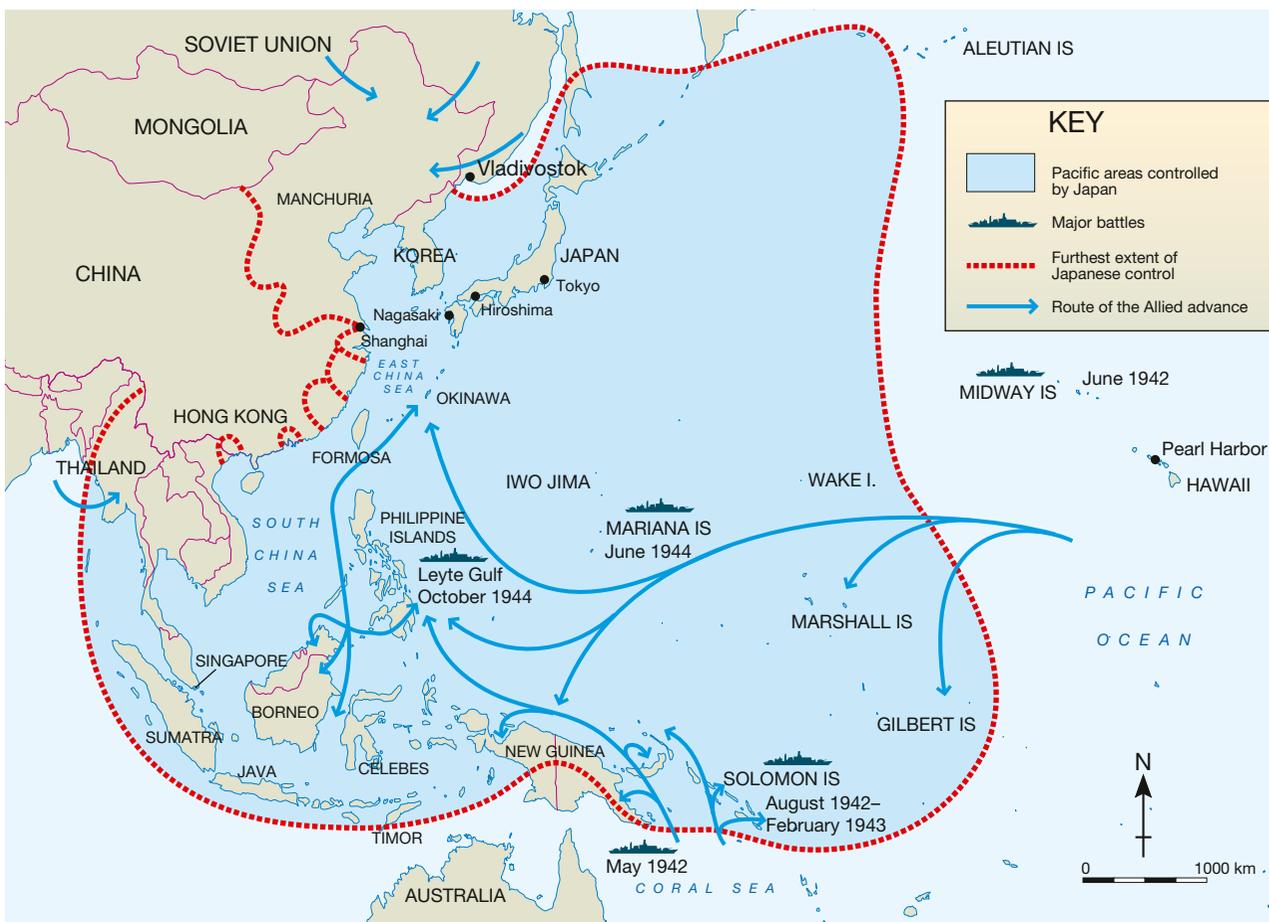
Malaya and Singapore were defended by a force of around 85 000 Allied troops, including the 8th Division of the Second AIF, and the British believed that it could withstand any attack. They also believed that the Japanese were incapable of fighting their way down to Singapore through the rugged terrain of the Malay Peninsula. Convinced that any threat to Singapore would come from the sea, the Allies focused their defences on the coast.

Despite a strong Allied presence in Malaya, the Japanese army won a series of battles over six weeks. After being held in reserve, the Australian 8th Division was deployed to stop the Japanese advance in January 1942. It suffered heavy casualties before being ordered to retreat to Singapore.

The Japanese siege of Singapore lasted for just a week and, despite outnumbering their enemies, the Allies surrendered on 15 February 1942. In the Malaya–Singapore campaign, Australian soldiers made up at least 70 per cent of the Allies’ battle casualties. In addition to the 50 000 Allied soldiers taken prisoner in Malaya, around 80 000 were taken prisoner after the fall of Singapore. Among them were nearly 15 000 Australians. Controversially, a small number of soldiers, including the Australian commander Gordon Bennett, escaped on ships to avoid capture. The vast majority of soldiers could not escape and one-third of them did not survive the Japanese prisoner of war (POW) camps.



Source 2.37 Poster used to rally Australian support following the Japanese attack on Darwin (AWM ARTV09225)



Source 2.36 The extent of the Japanese Empire in Asia and the Pacific in 1942

## The Battle for northern Australia

The fall of Singapore brought the war much closer to Australia than had ever been anticipated. After World War I, Australia's army and air force (the RAAF) had received little funding. While the navy had received roughly double the government funding of the army, battleships were extraordinarily expensive to build, and the Australian fleet was too small to ensure Australia's security against Japan. Australia's defence planning had always assumed that Britain would protect its former colony, but Britain was focused on its own survival in the European war. With Australia dangerously unprepared to face the Japanese threat, Prime Minister John Curtin recalled the 6th and 7th Divisions of the Second AIF, and appealed to the United States for assistance.

From December 1941, women and children began to be evacuated from Darwin and surrounding areas in fear of a Japanese attack. On 19 February 1942, Japan launched an assault on Darwin (see Source 2.38). Officially, around 250 people were killed, although the real death toll continues to be debated. Most other Australians were unaware of the seriousness of the attack. The government played down the bombing and the number of deaths. A Royal Commission into the events surrounding the attack revealed that some people, including members of the defence forces, had panicked under fire. There were also stories that some people had looted bombed buildings or simply fled the city.

By November 1943, Darwin had suffered 64 air raids. Other towns in the Northern Territory, Queensland and Western Australia were also struck. In total, there were 97 airborne attacks on northern Australia and approximately 900 Allied troops and civilians were killed. Several ships and almost 80 aircraft were lost. Many people felt that the bombing of Darwin was the beginning of a full-scale invasion of Australia.

There is still controversy as to whether the Japanese planned a full-scale invasion of Australia.

## War comes to Sydney Harbour

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



**Source 2.38** Bomb damage to the Darwin post office and surrounding buildings as a result of the first Japanese air raid

## Check your learning

- 1 Identify and locate on the map (Source 2.36) the countries and areas taken over by the Japanese between 1937 and 1942.
- 2 Why were the British so convinced that any attack on Singapore would come from the sea?
- 3 Why do you think that official reports of the bombing of Darwin severely underestimated the seriousness of the attack?
- 4 In what way was Australia unprepared to face the threat of a Japanese invasion in 1942?
- 5 What was Prime Minister John Curtin's response to the threat of invasion?

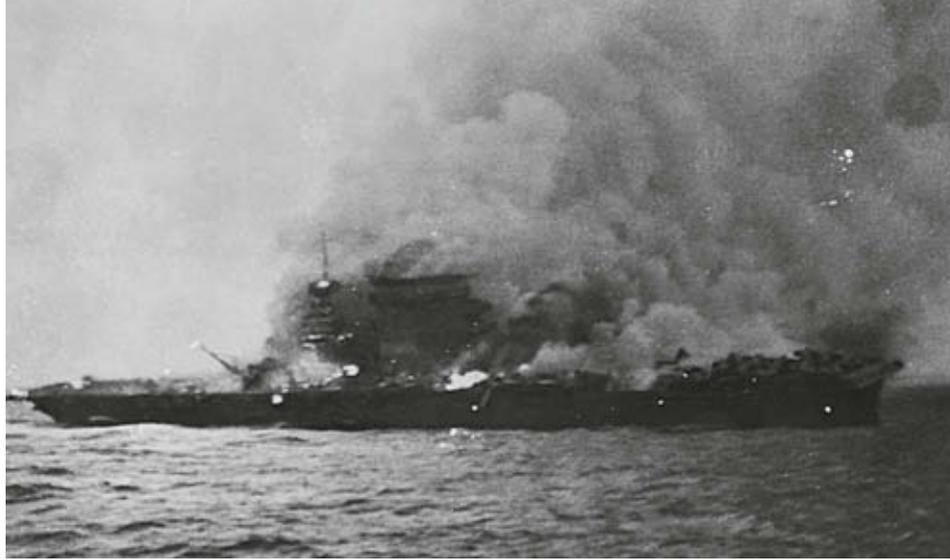
## Turning points

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

Several battles are identified as key turning points in the Asia-Pacific war zone. At sea the most significant were the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Battle of Midway. Both involved the navies of the USA and Australia in cooperative ventures (see Source 2.39).

The Battle of the Coral Sea (4–8 May 1942) was fought off the north-east coast of Queensland and south of New Guinea. It prevented the Japanese from launching a sea-based assault on Port Moresby. This forced them to make a land-based assault via the Kokoda Track.

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



**Source 2.39** The burning of the *USS Lexington* following the Battle of the Coral Sea, 1942

## New Guinea

Japanese forces occupied parts of the north-east of New Guinea in early 1942. As the Japanese navy was halted at the Battle of the Coral Sea, Japan’s only option to seize Port Moresby seemed to be an overland assault along the Kokoda Track. Surrounded by steep mountains and jungle, the track was frequently a river of sticky mud, and it was extremely slippery on the slopes.

The Australian troops defending the track provided stronger resistance than their enemies expected, stalling the Japanese advance until reinforcements arrived (see ‘examining evidence’). At the same time, members of the AIF and CMF (Citizen Military Forces) inflicted Japan’s first decisive defeat of the war at the Battle of Milne Bay. The New Guinea campaign was fought on Australian territory, and the Australians were the first army to halt Japan’s relentless drive through the Pacific. With the USA increasing its involvement in the Pacific Theatre, New Guinea was a major turning point in the war.

## The drive to Japan

With increased US involvement in the Pacific, Japan became drawn into a war of attrition, meaning that both sides attempted to wear each other down to the point of collapse, even though forces and supplies were depleted. Under pressure to replace its depleted forces, particularly after the disastrous Battle of Midway, Japan threw inexperienced recruits into the frontlines. Japan’s war industries could not keep up with the need to replace its ships and aircraft. Japan gradually lost the resources to undertake major offensives. With Japan on the back foot, the Allies made two successful counterattacks in 1943. These campaigns reduced casualties by simply avoiding many Japanese bases in the Pacific. The Australian army was given the job of ‘mopping up’ in the wake of many of the areas retaken by the Allies. This ‘mopping-up’ role was highly controversial. Many people thought the remaining Japanese forces were already isolated and posed little threat, and that the campaign was simply a waste of Australians’ lives.

For the remainder of the war, Australia’s role changed. The size of the military was decreased, and more emphasis was placed on moving Australians into war-related industries. Australia’s task was often seen as providing other nations with the food and resources needed to defeat Japan and Germany. Many Australians continued to be involved overseas, however. The Second AIF had already been deployed in Greece, Crete, North Africa and Syria. Australians of the 9th Division played a leading role in the siege of Tobruk (1941) and the decisive battle of El Alamein (1942). Hundreds of Australians took part in the D-Day landings in Normandy, and small Australian units were deployed to Borneo, Burma and India. Australian nurses continued to have a role to play in the Pacific. Around 45 Australians even volunteered for a secret guerrilla mission against the Japanese in China.

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

## examining **evidence**

# The Kokoda campaign

The Kokoda Trail (also known as the Kokoda Track) is a roughly 96-kilometre-long narrow path in New Guinea, connecting Port Moresby to the village of Kokoda. In 1942, the Japanese navy had been frustrated in its attempts to seize Port Moresby, forcing the army to launch an overland assault on the town via the Kokoda Trail. If Japan had successfully seized Port Moresby, it could have used the town as a base to attack northern and eastern Australia. Prime Minister John Curtin had recalled the AIF to defend Australia, but that was taking time. This meant the Kokoda campaign was initially fought by underequipped militia units dubbed 'Maroubra Force'.

### 'A fighting retreat'

Maroubra Force was assembled as the risk of a Japanese assault on Port Moresby increased. Some units were kept around Port Moresby in reserve, while a smaller force was posted to the village of Kokoda in July 1942, and tasked with defending the airfield there. This force was composed entirely of CMF and local Papuan Infantry units, and was underprepared for frontline combat. The soldiers had received little training in jungle warfare, and were equipped with old, outdated weapons. Many of these young men had only recently turned 18.

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

The Battle of Isurava was a major turning point in the Kokoda campaign. Maroubra Force defended the Trail valiantly, but was outnumbered and suffered heavy casualties on the first day of battle. At Isurava, however, the first substantial reinforcements from the AIF began to arrive, providing a vital boost for the depleted Maroubra Force. The battle lasted four days,

**Source 2.40** A still from the film *Kokoda—39th Battalion*



before the Australians had to retreat further, mounting small-scale delaying actions along the way. Further battles took place at Mission Ridge and Imita Ridge, before the Japanese troops began to run out of supplies and their advance stalled. In October, Australian troops launched a counterattack along the Trail, gradually forcing the Japanese back. By 2 November, Kokoda was back in Allied hands. Months of hard fighting lay ahead before the Allies could shift the Japanese from their bases at Buna and Gona.

## Significance

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

The campaign is made even more incredible by the conditions in which it was fought. Sources 2.41 and 2.42 provide an insight into the experiences of soldiers on the Kokoda Trail.

### Source 2.41

*They'd wish they were down with Satan, instead of this hell on earth,  
Straining, sweating, swearing, climbing the mountain side,  
'Just five minutes to the top'; my God how that fellow lied,  
Splashing through mud and water, stumbling every yard  
One falls by the wayside when the going is extra hard*

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

### Source 2.42

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

Private Laurie Howson, 39th Battalion, diary entry

## Legacy

Approximately 625 Australians were killed fighting along the Trail, while at least 16 000 were wounded and more than 4000 suffered from serious illnesses like malaria. In the immediate aftermath of the campaign, members of Maroubra Force were hailed as 'the men who saved Australia'. It also had an immediate impact on the organisation of both the American and Australian armies. The Australian troops on the Trail had been poorly supplied because of the unreliability of air drops. Both the Australian and American militaries developed new techniques for dropping supplies after their experiences at Kokoda.

Despite the significance of the Kokoda campaign, the Gallipoli campaign during World War I is usually the focus of public commemoration in Australia, and ANZAC Day is Australia's national day of commemoration. Some critics of ANZAC Day argue that Kokoda would be a more appropriate focus of national commemoration than Gallipoli. They suggest that the Kokoda campaign was fought in defence of Australia, whereas Gallipoli was an invasion of a foreign nation that posed no threat to Australia. Some people also argue that the spirit and lessons of Kokoda are more relevant to modern Australia than the 'ANZAC spirit'.

## Check your learning

- 1 What was significant about the units that made up Maroubra Force at the start of the Kokoda campaign?
- 2 Describe the conditions the soldiers fought in along the Kokoda Trail.
- 3 What are the arguments for and against Kokoda and Gallipoli being the focus of Australia's national commemoration of war?
- 4 Research the 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' mentioned by Private Howson in Source 2.42. What role did they play in the Kokoda campaign? Has the contribution of the 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' to the campaign been officially recognised?

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

### Remember

- 1 List the locations where Australian soldiers fought in World War II.
- 2 Explain what is meant by the policy of appeasement.
- 3 Which nations were alienated or angered by the results of the Paris Peace Conference?
- 4 What was the main role of the Australian army after the successful campaign in New Guinea? What was controversial about this role?

### Understand

- 5 Outline some of the ways in which the early years of the war in Europe and the war in the Pacific were similar. How were they different?
- 6 Describe the *Blitzkrieg* tactics used by Germany in World War II. Why do you think these tactics stopped being so effective later in the war?
- 7 Why do you think it was significant that it was Australian militia units that fought at Kokoda? Do you think the battle would be as significant if American units had fought there instead?
- 8 Why do you think there was less public enthusiasm for World War II in Australia than there had been at the start of World War I?

### Apply

- 9 Research the experiences of Australian prisoners of war (POWs) in the Pacific, and the experiences of Soviet POWs in Germany and Eastern Europe. Prepare a PowerPoint presentation that compares and contrasts the experiences of these two groups.
- 10 Explain the perspective of each of the following over the decision to recall the AIF to defend Australia during World War II:
  - a a soldier in the 6th or 7th Division of the Second AIF
  - b the Prime Minister of Australia, John Curtin
  - c the Prime Minister of Britain, Winston Churchill
  - d a family living in far north Queensland.

### Analyse

- 11 Study the two propaganda posters used by the Nazis at the Nuremberg Rallies (Sources 2.7 and 2.8), held between 1927 and 1938 to celebrate the Third Reich.
  - a What impression do they create of the Nazi regime and the Third Reich?
  - b What aspects of the posters (such as signs, symbols, colours) help to create this impression?
- 12 During the fall of Singapore, the Australian commander Gordon Bennett escaped the city and returned to Australia after a difficult two-week journey. Bennett believed that it was his duty to escape, and was initially praised by the Australian Prime Minister John Curtin. The vast majority of the soldiers under Bennett's command became Japanese prisoners of war, and many of them were killed.
  - a As a class, debate whether Bennett's actions were justified.
  - b Research General Douglas MacArthur's escape from the Philippines to Australia. Can you see any similarities between the two escapes? What are the important differences?

### Evaluate

- 13 Conduct a class debate on one of the following topics:
  - Hitler himself was not personally significant. Any dictator could have seized power in Germany at that time.
  - The West pushed Japan into militarism and aggression.
- 14 During the Battle of Britain, British pilots were instructed to shoot down German sea rescue planes if the pilots thought the planes might be being used for surveillance purposes. According to the Geneva Conventions, which outline the conduct of warfare, this was a war crime. Discuss in groups whether shooting down rescue planes is acceptable conduct when your nation is fighting for its survival. Compare your responses with those of other groups.

- 15** The Gallipoli landing is generally regarded as Australia's most significant wartime engagement. However, some argue that Kokoda was more successful and involved similar or even greater heroism and courage. It has even been suggested that Kokoda Day should replace Anzac Day as Australia's national day of commemoration.

Research the arguments for Kokoda being a more significant battle for Australians than Gallipoli. Do you think Kokoda should replace Gallipoli as the focus for Australia's commemoration of war?

You may find it helpful to create a table, such as the one below, in your notebook or on your computer to help you organise your thoughts and develop your argument.

	Kokoda		Gallipoli
Reasons for making this Australia's main focus of commemoration		Reasons for keeping this as Australia's main focus of commemoration	
Reasons against making this Australia's main focus of commemoration		Reasons against keeping this as Australia's main focus of commemoration	

## Create

- 16** Working with a partner or in small groups, research, script and perform a telephone conversation between the Australian Prime Minister, John Curtin, and the British Prime Minister, Winston Churchill, at the time that Curtin recalled the 6th and 7th Divisions of the AIF to defend Australia.
- 17** You have been asked by the Australian Government to design a new war memorial for one of the following groups:
- the 'Fuzzy-Wuzzie Angels'
  - Indigenous Australians who fought in World War II
  - Australian prisoners of war in either Japan or Europe
  - Maroubra Force.
- a** Research the group you have chosen and their role in World War II.
- b** Design a plan for an appropriate memorial to commemorate your chosen group. You should consider appropriate symbols, where your memorial will be built, the materials you would use, and the message you want your memorial to send.



**Source 2.43** The conical-shaped Hall of Names in the Holocaust History Museum in the Yad Vashem Holocaust complex in Israel. The Hall of Names shows around 600 portraits of Jewish Holocaust victims.

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

*World War II was similar to earlier wars in some ways, but it also represented a radical change in the way wars were fought. Genocide—wiping out a religious, racial or ethnic group—had been practised before, but the scale of Hitler’s campaign of persecution against minorities reached unprecedented cruelty. The **Holocaust** was a significant event that has continued to have repercussions in the modern world. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was one global response to the devastation of the Holocaust.*

New technology was highlighted by the emergence of the atomic bomb. It was a weapon so frightening it became a staple of science-fiction and horror stories. The actual dropping of the atomic bombs was a significant event, not only because it ended the war, but because it created a new era. A nuclear shadow would loom over the world throughout the Cold War that followed World War II.

# The Holocaust

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

## Beginnings of the Holocaust

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

In the 1880s, the **eugenics** movement became popular. Eugenics, a pseudoscience that aims to ‘improve’ the human gene pool through state intervention, was taught as a subject at many universities. For a time, it was supported by people like Winston Churchill, and was government policy in countries such as the United States. By the 1930s the eugenics movement’s popularity was declining, but the Nazi Party’s policies were heavily influenced by its ideas.

Hitler had outlined the development of his anti-Semitism and even some of his proposed policies towards Jews in his **manifesto** *Mein Kampf*. He declared that ‘the personification of the devil as the symbol of all evil assumes the living shape of the Jew’. *Mein Kampf* also outlined Hitler’s hatred of communism, and his belief that Germany would have to expand east to provide *Lebensraum* (‘living space’) for ethnic Germans. The seeds of Hitler’s cruel and **genocidal** policies were present in his ideology at least a decade before he became Chancellor of Germany.



**Source 2.44**  
Nazi SA members (storm troopers) outside a Jewish business, directing people to shop elsewhere, 1933



**Source 2.45** A cloth Star of David badge that Jews were required to wear in public. The word 'Jude' means 'Jew' in German.

As early as July 1933, within months of coming to power, Hitler also introduced a law that allowed the compulsory sterilisation of people with mental or physical disabilities. In other words, anyone who was disabled (and a broad definition of 'disabled,' ranging from schizophrenia, to deafness, to alcoholism, was used) could be legally forced to have an operation to ensure they could not have children. Over 400 000 were sterilised and around 5000 people died as a result of these operations. Another 70 000 were killed under the related 'T4' euthanasia program.

Anti-Semitism and eugenics eventually combined in Germany's racial policies. As well as boycotts (see Source 2.44) and violence against Jews, the government denied all Jews German citizenship and sought to remove all Jews from the government, the legal professions and the universities. Laws limited the number of Jewish students allowed in public schools, banned Jews from many public places, expelled Jewish officers from the army, and transferred ownership of many Jewish businesses to non-Jewish Germans. Other groups, like the Romani people, were similarly oppressed by Nazi legislation. From 1936, Romani could be forced into internment camps.

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

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



**Source 2.46** The clearing of the Warsaw ghetto after the uprising of 1943

## Spread of anti-Semitism and formation of ghettos

Soon after the invasion of Poland in 1939, **ghettos** were set up in Nazi-occupied territories, such as Poland, Hungary and the Soviet Union. Ghettos were small areas of larger cities that were used to contain Jews. They were bricked off or encircled with barbed wire to stop people from escaping. Over the course of the war, many Jewish people were rounded up and forced to leave their homes and move into ghettos. One of the largest ghettos was in Warsaw, Poland (see Source 2.46). Conditions inside the ghetto were extremely brutal. It was very crowded and there was often no running water, or toilet facilities. Jews were often not allowed to leave the ghetto and had to depend on the few rations provided by the Nazis. One survivor described the Warsaw ghetto as 'a prison without a roof'. Approximately 800 000 Jews died in the ghettos from malnutrition, disease and forced labour. Others were murdered outright by shooting.

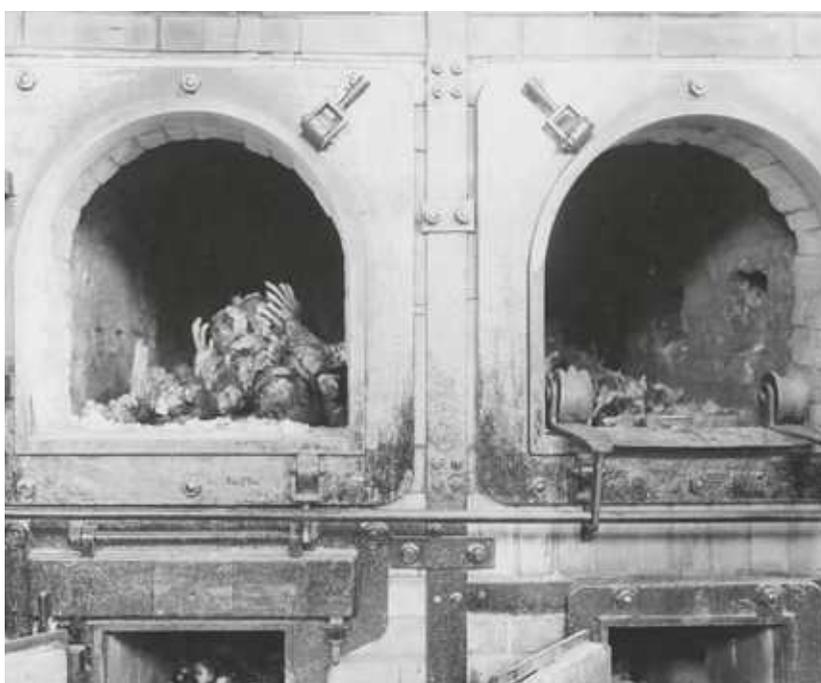
Although the principal victims of the Holocaust were European Jews, Nazi policies also targeted other segments of society, such as Sinta and Romani peoples (often referred to as Gypsies) as well as homosexuals and people with physical or intellectual disabilities. Between 200 000 and 500 000 Sinta and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

## Concentration camps

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



**Source 2.47** Russian, Polish and Dutch slave labourers interned at the Buchenwald concentration camp averaged a weight of 75 kilograms each before entering camp 11 months before this photograph was taken. Their average weight after this time had dropped to 31 kilograms.



**Source 2.48** Crematoria where the remains of people killed at Buchenwald concentration camp were cremated

The camps varied in character. Some were forced labour camps where inmates were compelled to do hard physical labour such as mining and road building under harsh conditions (see Source 2.47), others were prisoner of war camps where Allied soldiers were held and often tortured in order to reveal secret information, still others functioned as extermination camps. Many camps, however, served a combination of these functions. The best known and largest of these camps was Auschwitz–Birkenau, where inmates considered unsuitable for forced labour were gassed and their bodies burnt in crematoria (giant ovens—see Source 2.48). Over one million Jews alone were murdered at Auschwitz.

### Mass shootings

With the invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941, Nazi policy towards the Jews began to move into its most extreme phase. Between the start of the invasion and early 1943, roughly 1.6 million eastern European Jews were executed in mass killing campaigns that were conducted by members of the *Einsatzgruppen* (mobile killing squads). Local collaborators, the SS (Hitler’s elite forces) and some members of the *Wehrmacht* (German armed forces) also participated

in this extermination. The process generally involved rounding up the members of a local Jewish community and executing them in an area close to their homes. On 29–30 September 1941 at Babi Yar, near the city of Kiev, 33 771 Jews were executed. This phase of the Holocaust was the most public, and rumours of executions began to spread in the occupied areas and in Germany itself.

### The ‘Final Solution’

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

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



**Source 2.49**  
Polish prisoners dig graves for their fellow prisoners after a mass execution by the Nazis, 1941.



**Source 2.50** These are the tracks along which trains took people to their death at the Auschwitz-Birkenau concentration camp in Oswiecim, Poland.

## The Holocaust's legacy

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

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

The horrors of the mass murders and other atrocities committed by the Nazis shocked the conscience of people all around the world. After World War II, the nations of the world were determined to prevent such grave crimes from recurring or, at least, to ensure that people committing such crimes would not go unpunished. The facts and lessons of these events are

commemorated in Holocaust museums that have been established in many countries, while memoirs and films communicate the Jewish experience of the *Shoah* to the world. New international treaties on human rights, the humane treatment of civilians in times of war, sanctuary for refugees and the elimination of racial discrimination have come into effect, recognising the inherent dignity and equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family as the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world.

### Check your learning

- 1 What was the eugenics movement? How popular was it?
- 2 What were some of the laws implemented by Nazi Germany to persecute Jews?
- 3 What was the 'Final Solution' and how was it carried out?
- 4 What were some of the other groups persecuted in Nazi Germany?

## examining **evidence**

# Life and death during the Holocaust

Historians are able to develop insights into the thoughts and actions of people in the past through the examination of primary **sources**. These can include letters, diaries, photographs, artworks, legislation, buildings, clothing and artefacts from the period studied. Primary sources can also include reminiscences about an event, even if they were not recorded until many years later. All of this material forms the evidence that historians use to make speculations or draw conclusions about past events.

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

All of this material has contributed to a considerable body of evidence that leaves no doubt as to the nature and complexity of the experiences of anti-Semitism in Nazi Germany, before, during and at the end of World War II.

### Source 2.52a

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

Oskar Schindler, German industrialist who saved many Jews

### Source 2.52b

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

Holocaust survivor Sigmund Boraks

### Source 2.53

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

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

### Source 2.54

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

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



Source 2.51 Buchenwald prisoners liberated by the US army in April 1945



**Source 2.55** A Jewish boy selling Star of David armbands in Warsaw. All Jews were required to wear them.



**Source 2.56** Jews taken to the death camps were told they were being re-housed. They packed their most important possessions, which were confiscated on arrival.



**Source 2.57** Eyeglasses confiscated from prisoners at Auschwitz extermination camp. The glasses were recycled and issued to members of the German army.

## Check your learning

- 1 How do these sources explain the Nazi attitude to Jews?
- 2 Is there any evidence that supports the assertion the Nazis attempted to dehumanise Jews?
- 3 What evidence can you find to suggest that not all Germans supported the Nazis' anti-Semitic policies?
- 4 How could this evidence have influenced the post-war desire to achieve a Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

## The atomic bombings

The development of more sophisticated technology in World War II culminated in the emergence of the atomic bomb. In spite of the horrific bombing raids experienced in Europe during the war, and the huge loss of life, the bombing of Japan by the Allies using these 'nightmare' weapons remains as a symbol of the terrifying power and force of nuclear weapons. The use of the two bombs that effectively ended the war also signalled the beginning of the Cold War and the ever-present threat of imminent destruction.

### The Potsdam Declaration

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



**Source 2.58** Robert Oppenheimer and General Leslie Groves (centre) examine the wreckage of the tower and shack that held the first nuclear weapon, 11 September 1945

### The Manhattan Project

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

Even before the USA entered World War II, it was dedicating huge resources to the Manhattan Project. By 1944, approximately 129 000 people were working on the Manhattan Project, including scientists, construction workers and military personnel. The Project also merged its efforts with the smaller nuclear programs of Britain and Canada.

After three years of using their research to develop an actual weapon, the members of the Manhattan Project tested the first atomic bomb on 16 July 1945, in New Mexico. This test was codenamed 'Trinity'. Before the test, the observers set up a betting pool on what the result would be. The predictions varied from nothing at all happening to the complete destruction of the state of New Mexico. Some observers even bet that the atmosphere would ignite and incinerate the entire planet.

The Trinity test was extremely successful, and at the time was the largest man-made explosion in history. The shock wave made by the explosion was felt up to 160 kilometres away. The observers immediately contacted President Harry Truman, who was at the Potsdam Conference, and told him that the test had been successful. Truman had already authorised his generals' plan to invade Japan, code-named 'Operation Downfall', but now believed he had the chance to prevent millions of soldiers and civilians from being killed. When Japan rejected the Potsdam Declaration, he authorised the use of atomic bombs.

## The Japan campaign

In mid 1945, Japan was losing the war in the Pacific. America had recaptured the Mariana Islands and the Philippines, and Japan was running out of resources. American military planners had developed Operation Downfall, but as the American forces fought their way towards Japan, they encountered increasingly stiff resistance.

The Japan campaign began with a series of minor air raids. These raids soon developed into a major strategic firebombing campaign in late 1944. The change to firebombing tactics resulted in devastating attacks on 67 Japanese cities, killing as many as 500 000 Japanese. Despite the damage and the huge civilian death toll, the Japanese military refused to consider surrendering.

America therefore continued to push towards the Japanese Home Islands (the islands that the Allies had decided would be the extent of Japan's territory after the war). Two major land battles, at Iwo Jima and Okinawa, revealed how fierce Japan's defence of the Home Islands would be. Both islands were heavily fortified and fiercely defended. Around 6800 American troops and approximately 21 000 Japanese soldiers were killed at Iwo Jima. The Battle of Okinawa (see Source 2.59) was the bloodiest in the Pacific, with 62 000 American casualties, including 12 000 killed. Approximately 95 000 Japanese soldiers were killed, including many who committed suicide rather than surrendering. It is unknown how many civilians were killed in the American invasion of Okinawa, but estimates vary from 42 000 to 150 000.

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



**Source 2.59** US marines watch a phosphorous shell attack on the Japanese in the Battle of Okinawa.

## The bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki

On 6 August 1945, an atomic bomb nicknamed 'Little Boy' was dropped on the city of Hiroshima (see Source 2.60). Hiroshima was chosen because it was a large, urban, industrial city that also served as a military storage area and an assembly point for troops. No one knew how much damage the bomb would do, so Hiroshima was one of the few major cities not targeted by the American firebombing campaign, so that the damage caused by the bomb could be more easily observed.

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

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

The bomb's impact in Nagasaki was just as devastating as it was in Hiroshima. Between 40 000 and 75 000 people were killed by the immediate effects of the bomb, and a further 74 000 were injured. By the end of 1945, at least 80 000 were dead because of the bomb's long-term effects. It is often forgotten that the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki also killed at least 2000 Korean forced labourers, and an unknown number of Allied prisoners of war.



**Source 2.60** 'Little Boy'—the atomic bomb that destroyed almost 70 per cent of Hiroshima in August 1945

### empathy: Sadako Sasaki

focus on ...



**Source 2.61** Statue of Sadako Sasaki holding a crane in the Peace Memorial Park in Hiroshima

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

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

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

## Japan surrenders

Japan was shocked and devastated by the twin shocks of the atomic bombings and the Soviet declaration of war. Although the Japanese military wished to continue the war, Emperor Hirohito ordered his cabinet to surrender after the bombing of Nagasaki. On 14 August, the Japanese government notified the Allies that they would accept the terms of the Potsdam Declaration, provided the Emperor retained full sovereignty. That night, the military unsuccessfully attempted a coup to depose Hirohito and continue the war. On 15 August 1945, however, the Emperor's surrender speech was broadcast on Japanese radio, marking the end of World War II. The formal declaration of surrender was signed on 2 September, and the Allies occupied Japan from then until 1952.

## Debate about the bombings

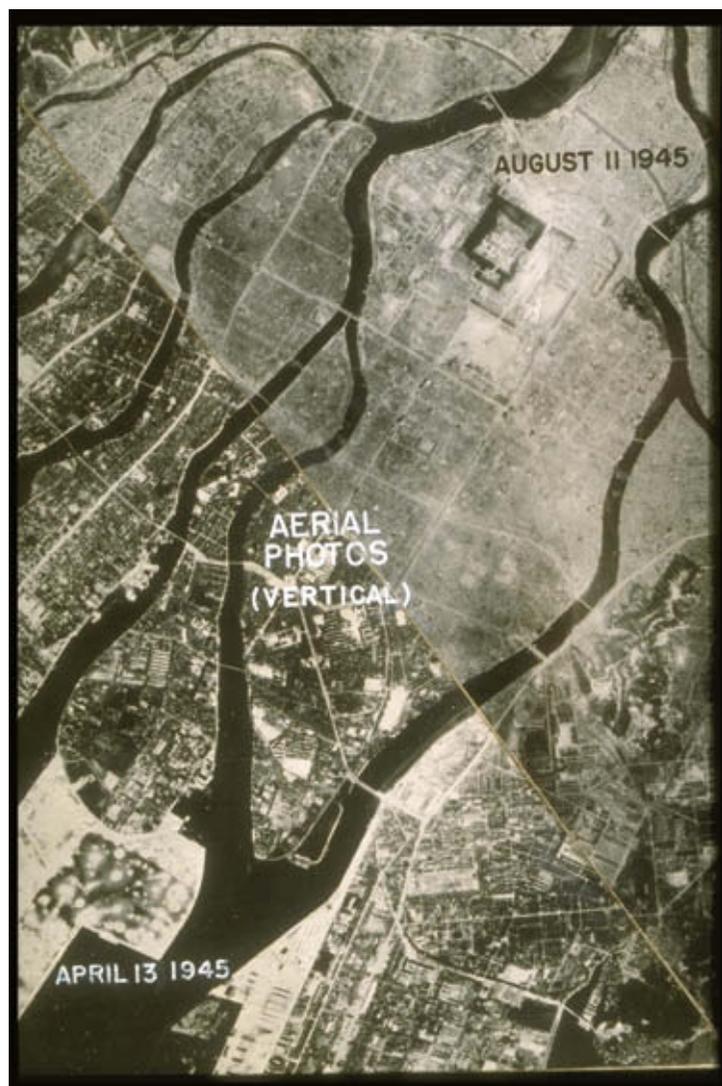
Immediately after World War II ended, most Americans supported the use of the atomic bombs to force Japan to surrender. Disturbing images of maimed survivors were censored in the USA, and many people were so used to anti-Japanese propaganda that they felt little empathy for the victims of the bombings.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

Some argue that the bombings saved millions of lives by preventing the need for an invasion of the Japanese Home Islands. The ferocity with which Japanese soldiers fought at Iwo Jima and Okinawa made this a popular view among American soldiers and their families. Other supporters of the decision to use the atomic bombs say that Japan's 'never surrender' warrior culture meant that, without the bombings, Japan would not have surrendered. Another argument is that the atomic bombings were the inevitable result of both sides engaging in total war. At the time, many people believed that it would be almost impossible to spend \$2 billion on the Manhattan Project, and then not use the atomic bombs it created to save American lives.

Some critics of the bombings argue that the surprise bombing of civilians with atomic weapons was fundamentally and morally wrong. Others argue that the bombings constituted war crimes, or crimes against humanity. In a 2003 interview, Robert McNamara, who was the American Secretary of Defence in the 1960s, recalled General Curtis LeMay, who was involved in planning the bombings, telling him 'if we'd lost the war, we'd all have been prosecuted as war criminals'.



Source 2.62 General Sir Thomas Blamey, the commander of the Australian army, accepts the surrender of the 2nd Japanese Army at Mostai, in September 1945. (AWM 115645)



Source 2.63 Hiroshima before (13 April) and after (11 August) the bombing

## perspectives: the atomic bombings

Some of the earliest criticisms of the use of atomic bombs to end the war came from the scientists who made the Manhattan Project possible. Both Albert Einstein and Leo Szilard, whose letter to President Franklin Roosevelt kick-started the nuclear research program in America, were horrified by the effects of the atomic bombings. Einstein was not involved in the Manhattan Project beyond its conception, but lobbied against the build-up of nuclear arsenals after the war. Szilard was so horrified by his involvement in the Manhattan Project that he abandoned theoretical physics, devoting the rest of his career to molecular biology instead. Robert Oppenheimer, considered by many the 'father of the atomic bomb', was also troubled by the way his invention was used.

By contrast, some of the people actively involved in using the atomic bombs had no regrets. President Harry Truman, the man who authorised the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, never publically regretted his decision. Colonel Paul Tibbets, the pilot who dropped the atomic bomb on Hiroshima, said that he never regretted his involvement in the bombings, and felt only pride and relief when he released the bomb. There has been fierce debate about the atomic bombings since they occurred, and the perspectives of those who were involved in the bombings are split. The following quotations provide an insight into the differing perspectives of two men who were heavily involved at different stages of the chain of events leading up to the bombings.



Source 2.64 The Genbaku Dome in Hiroshima after the bombing

### Source 2.65

*I knew what I was doing when I stopped the war ... I have no regrets and, under the same circumstances, I would do it again.*

Harry S Truman, letter to Irving Kupcinet, 5 August 1963, from the National Archives

### Source 2.66

*I am become Death, the destroyer of worlds.*

J Robert Oppenheimer, 1965, quoting the *Hindu Bhagavad Gita* in 'The Decision to Drop the Bomb'

### Source 2.67

7 August

*The status of medical facilities and personnel dramatically illustrates the difficulties facing authorities. Of more than 200 doctors in Hiroshima before the attack, over 90 percent were casualties and only about 30 physicians were able to perform their normal duties a month after the raid. Out of 1780 nurses, 1654 were killed or injured. Though some stocks of supplies had been dispersed, many were destroyed. Only three out of 45 civilian hospitals could be used, and two large Army hospitals were rendered unusable. Those within 3000 feet of ground zero were totally destroyed, and the mortality rate of the occupants was practically 100 per cent. Two large hospitals of reinforced concrete construction were located 4900 feet from ground zero. The basic structures remained erect but there was such severe interior damage that neither was able to resume operation as a hospital for some time and the casualty rate was approximately 90 percent, due primarily to falling plaster, flying glass, and fire. Hospitals and clinics beyond 7000 feet, though often remaining standing, were badly damaged and contained many casualties from flying glass or other missiles.*

*With such elimination of facilities and personnel, the lack of care and rescue activities at the time of the disaster is understandable ...*

*Effective medical help had to be sent in from the outside, and arrived only after a considerable delay.*

*Firefighting and rescue units were equally stripped of men and equipment. Father Siemes reports that 30 hours elapsed before any organized rescue parties were observed ...*

Extract from *US Strategic Bombing Survey: The Effects of the Atomic Bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki*

## Check your learning

- 1 What were the 'twin shocks' that forced Japan to surrender?
- 2 How did the Japanese military react to Emperor Hirohito's decision to surrender to the Allies?
- 3 Who sent the letter to President Roosevelt that kick-started the Manhattan Project? What were the two main points of the letter?
- 4 What evidence is there that Leo Szilard regretted his involvement in the Manhattan Project?

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

### Remember

- 1 What were some of the reasons for the choice of Hiroshima as the target for the first atomic bombing?
- 2 Which social movement influenced the Nazi Party's racial policies?
- 3 What was the ghetto system?
- 4 What was Operation Downfall? Why was it never carried out?

### Understand

- 5 Why has World War II been described as 'the most terrible war in history'?
- 6 Why do some sources say that there were six million victims of the Holocaust, and some say 11 million?
- 7 Explain the difference between concentration camps and extermination camps.

### Apply

- 8 How would the end of the war in the Pacific have been different if the Japanese military's coup against Emperor Hirohito had succeeded? How do you think the Allies would have reacted to a successful coup?
- 9 Hitler outlined his anti-Semitic attitudes in *Mein Kampf*, and introduced anti-Semitic policies after coming to power in 1933. Why do you think that so few Jews fled Germany before it was too late?

### Analyse

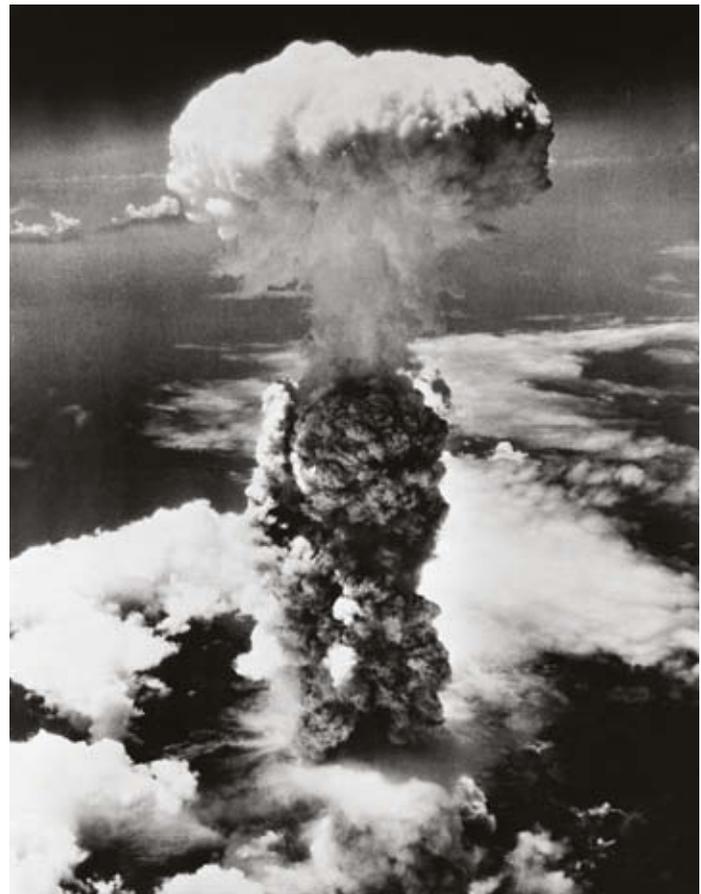
- 10 Consider the various perspectives on the use of the atomic bombs in Japan in 1945 that you have read in this chapter. With a partner, develop a graphic presentation showing the reasons for and against the use of the bomb at the time, and assess those reasons.

### Evaluate

- 11 Outline some of the arguments for and against the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in World War II. Do you believe the bombings were justified?

### Create

- 12 Collect a series of images and quotations to create a PowerPoint presentation showing the impact of the atomic bombings of Hiroshima or Nagasaki. You should consider both the short-term and long-term effects of the bombings.



Source 2.68 The mushroom cloud over Hiroshima



Source 2.69 Members of the Australian Women's Land Army (AWM 4731075)

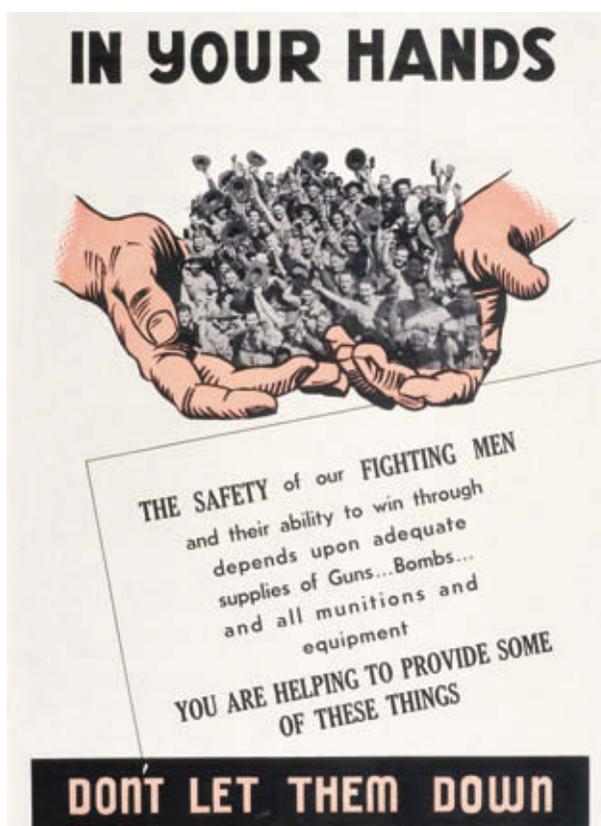
## 2.3 How did the events of World War II affect people around the world and in Australia?

*When World War II broke out, in Australia it was not greeted with the same level of enthusiasm as World War I. Australia's armed forces were poorly funded and underequipped, and the then Prime Minister Robert Menzies was reluctant to mobilise the nation for the war effort. The focus of the Australian home front was 'business as usual'.*

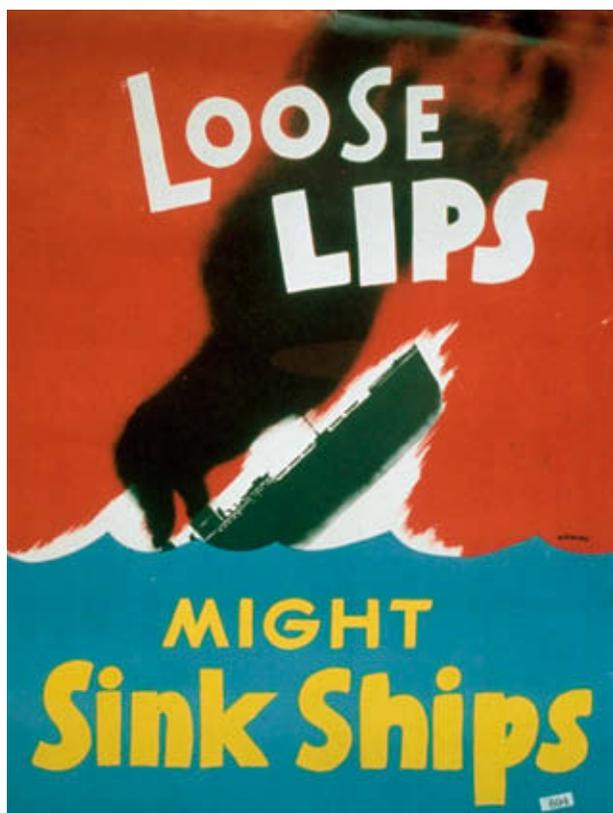
Despite the declaration of war, Menzies was initially reluctant to commit Australian troops to fight in Europe. Australia's military was in a depleted state, and Menzies wanted to ensure that Australia could defend itself. The first Australian Imperial Force (AIF) had been disbanded after World War I.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



Source 2.70 Propaganda poster



Source 2.71 Propaganda poster



Source 2.72 Propaganda poster

## Australia's commitment

When Britain declared war on Germany in September 1939, however, Australia gave its full support to the declaration. Only a few hours after Britain declared war on Germany, the Australian Prime Minister, Robert Menzies, made a radio broadcast to the nation (see Source 2.73).

### Source 2.73

*Fellow Australians,*

*It is my melancholy duty to inform you officially, that in consequence of a persistence by Germany in her invasion of Poland, Great Britain has declared war upon her and that, as a result, Australia is also at war. No harder task can fall to the lot of a democratic leader than to make such an announcement.*

From a speech made by Prime Minister Robert Gordon Menzies, 3 September 1939

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



**Source 2.74** Robert Gordon Menzies (1894–1978), Prime Minister of Australia when World War II was declared

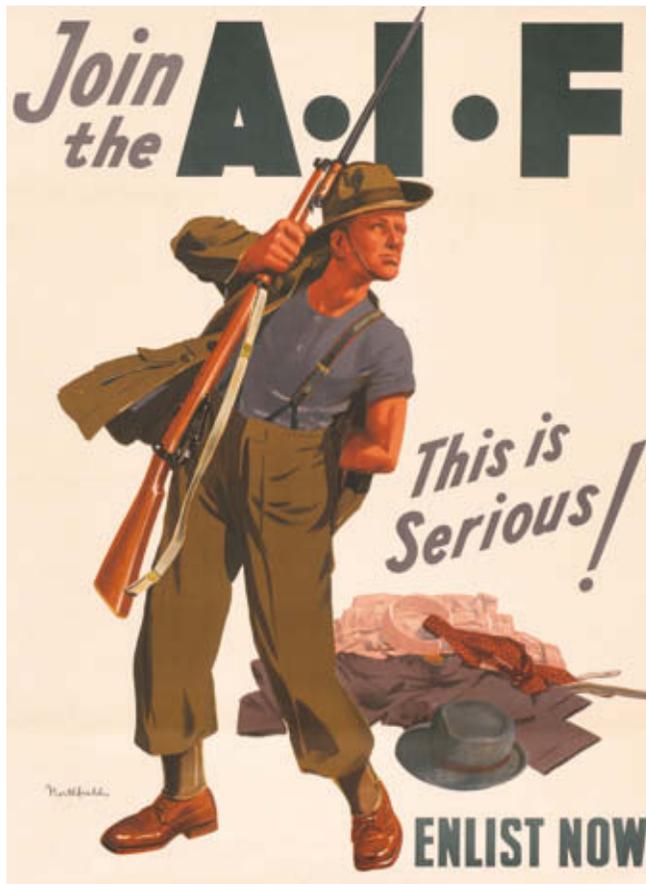
The fall of France in 1940 changed Australia's perception of the war. Recruitment rates surged, three new divisions of the AIF were formed, and the government began to regulate war-related industries. From 1940 to 1942, the AIF served mainly in Libya, Greece, Crete, Syria, Egypt and Malaya. The Australian air force and navy also served in a variety of theatres or arenas during the war.

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

From September 1939 until December 1941, Australia gave full support to the European war but there was little impact in Australia. This changed dramatically with the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the fall of Singapore.

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

On 8 December 1941, the Prime Minister, John Curtin, addressed the nation (see Source 2.77).



**Source 2.75** Second AIF recruitment poster (AWM ARTV06723)



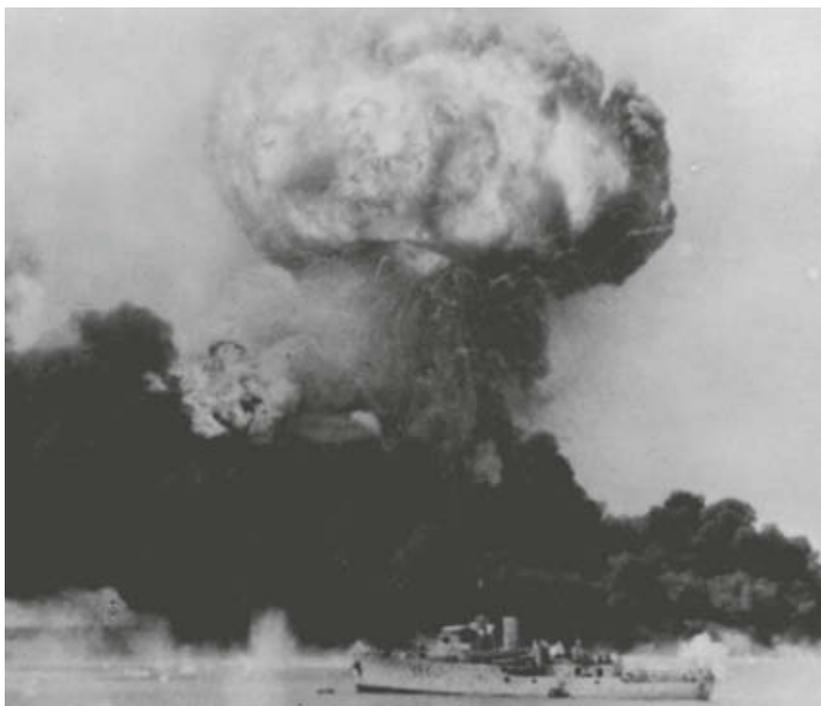
**Source 2.76** Soldiers of the Second AIF leaving Australia to serve in the war, January 1940. Their helmets show their enlistment numbers and the cases on their chests hold their gas masks. (AWM 011141)

**Source 2.77**

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

John Curtin, Declaration of war on Japan; excerpt from ABC radio broadcast of the Prime Minister's address to the nation, 8 December 1941

The war actually reached Australia's shores in February 1942, when Japanese fighter and bomber planes launched a series of bomb attacks across northern Australia. The most serious was the bombing of Darwin on 19 February (see Source 2.78). The Prime Minister declared that Australia was now in a state of 'total war'.



**Source 2.78** The bombing of Darwin in February 1942

...  
: **Check your learning**

- 1 What do Menzies' words (see Source 2.73) tell us about the relationship between Britain and Australia in 1939?
- 2 What were some of the reasons why the AIF initially struggled to fulfil its commitment of 20 000 soldiers? What event boosted recruitment?
- 3 Why were members of the CMF nicknamed 'Chocos'?

## The Australian experience of war— abroad and at home

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

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

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

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



Source 2.79 Australian Army, Rising Sun Badge from 1942



Source 2.80 Australian POWs in a Japanese prison camp at the end of the war (AWM 019199)

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

### Prisoners of war

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

The majority of Australian POWs were captured by the Japanese (see Source 2.80). Between January and March 1942, over 22 000 Australian service personnel were captured by Japanese forces in the region, with 15 000 captured in Malaya and Singapore alone. By 1945, over 8000 had died. The significantly higher rate of deaths among POWs captured by the Japanese can be attributed to Japan's attitude towards prisoners. Japanese military culture, shaped by traditional values, meant that the Japanese regarded prisoners poorly. Japan refused to follow the terms of the **Geneva Convention**, an international agreement on the treatment of captured civilians and military personnel.

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

The Japanese also made use of POWs as forced labour, most notably on the Burma Railway. Along with British, Dutch and American prisoners, 13 000 Australian POWs were used as forced labour to build a railway line from Thailand to Burma to supply the Japanese campaign (see Source 2.81). About 2800 Australians died from malnutrition, mistreatment and disease.



**Source 2.81** Malnourished prisoners on the Thailand–Burma Railway (AWM P00761-011)

focus on ...

### significance: Edward (Weary) Dunlop



**Source 2.82** Sir Edward (Weary) Dunlop, right, in Singapore, 1942

Among Australia's prisoners of war there were many remarkable stories of heroism and resilience. One of the most notable was the story of 'Weary' Dunlop, a Melbourne doctor who was captured by the Japanese in Java in 1942. Dunlop was sent to the Burma Railway where he often put his own life on the line to care for sick and wounded soldiers and to stand up to the Japanese on behalf of those unfit for work.

#### Source 2.83

*... thousands of us starved, scourged, racked with malaria, dysentery, beri beri, pellagra and the stinking tropical ulcers that ate a leg to the bone in a matter of days, and always Weary Dunlop and his fellow MOs [medical officers] stood up for us, were beaten, scorned, derided, and beaten again.*

An ex-prisoner-of-war (from Weary Dunlop page at vicnet)

## Life on the home front

When Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies committed Australia to the war in 1939 the direct threat to the Australian mainland was fairly low. The war was seen as a European conflict. However, when the threat of a Japanese invasion of Australia became a reality in 1941, the Australian war effort had greater consequences for the civilian population.

### National Security Act

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



Source 2.85 Mail being censored (AWM 139316)



Source 2.84 A campaign poster urging civilians in Australia not to gossip (AWM ARTV02497)

### Censorship

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

Similarly, when Australian and US soldiers brawled in the so-called ‘Battle of Brisbane’ on 26 November 1942, the death of one Australian and the injury to others was censored because the event was seen as threatening US–Australian relations (see ‘focus on ... significance: Americans in Australia’).

In addition to this, the Department of Information censored mail (see Source 2.85) and monitored phone calls to ensure that military information relating to troop movements and locations was not communicated to the enemy.

## Propaganda

Closely related to censorship was **propaganda**. Throughout the war, newspapers, radio, posters and other forms of mass communication (like the short newsreels shown before feature films in cinemas) encouraged people to think and act in particular ways. This was viewed as a technique for maintaining morale. The way in which the bombing of Darwin and the 'Battle of Brisbane' were reported might be described as propaganda because of how the government influenced the news. Sometimes propaganda was very much like advertising that encouraged Australians to support the war effort. Posters encouraged people to enlist in the armed forces (see Source 2.86), or reminded them that their everyday efforts were an important part of war. There were also newsreels aimed specifically at women, encouraging them to enlist in the auxiliary forces or to make sacrifices for the war effort.

There was also a more sinister aspect to some forms of propaganda, such as posters that used prejudicial stereotypes of the Germans or Japanese to ensure that Australians remained supportive of the war (see Source 2.88).

## Internment

As in World War I, the Australian government again took steps against people living in Australia who they believed threatened national security. Initially, this included internment (holding in special camps) of Germans and Italians living in Australia who were believed to be pro-Nazi or pro-fascist (see Source 2.87). When war with Japan began, all Japanese who lived in Australia were interned. Approximately 7000 'enemy aliens', many of whom had lived peacefully and innocently in Australia for decades, were interned in various locations around the country.



Source 2.87 Italian POWs at Liverpool Prisoner of War and Internment Camp, New South Wales, during World War II (AWM 123706)



Source 2.86 Propaganda poster encouraging men to join the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) (AWM ARTV04273)



Source 2.88 Propaganda poster featuring an anti-Japanese theme (Beauforts were aircraft) (AWM ARTV09053)

## Everyday life

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

In 1942, the federal government established the Directorate of Manpower to control the workforce. This enabled people to be allocated to particular industries in a form of industrial conscription rather than military service.

Other government policies influenced many aspects of Australian life during the war years. The fear of air raids, for example, led to the introduction of blackouts, which plunged major cities into darkness. Streetlights were switched off, car headlights reduced to narrow beams, and houses were required to have blackout curtains to prevent light showing in the street (see Source 2.89). Failure to comply could result in fines.

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



Source 2.89 Preparing for the night-time blackout



Source 2.90 Ration coupons entitled civilians to certain goods.

## Rationing

As World War II progressed, **trade embargoes** and the need for goods to support the war effort led to shortages of many products that had been considered necessities. This led the Australian government to introduce rationing of a range of consumer items including dairy products, eggs, meat, tea, clothes, shoes and petrol. Alcoholic drinks were also rationed and people were encouraged to restrict travel unless it was absolutely necessary.

The government issued civilians with **ration books** containing coupons, which had to be presented when paying for certain goods (see Source 2.90). Families with young children were given extra rations, as were pregnant women.

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

## Men on the home front

Almost three-quarters of a million Australians (mostly men) enlisted in the Second Australian Imperial Force. However, a great many more men and women were engaged in the war economy. Many men were not allowed to enlist in the armed forces because they worked in reserved occupations, such as farming and manufacturing (see Source 2.91). Men were needed at home to construct vital wartime infrastructure and military buildings, such as ports, aerodromes, bridges and barracks, and also to make war equipment and munitions. The Allied Works Council was set up in 1942 to oversee such projects. As part of this program, the Civil Construction Corps was established. The Corps, while a civilian organisation, was run with military-style discipline. By mid 1943, more than 50000 men served in the corps, which was mostly made up of labourers, carpenters and truck drivers.

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

## Women's role in the war

Australian women had a very broad range of duties and responsibilities during World War II. The needs of the armed forces, the war economy and the deployment of many men overseas created new types of work possibilities. Before World War II, Australian women were not permitted to serve in the military. Most working women were employed in factories, shops or in family businesses. It was expected that women would resign from their employment once they had children. It is important to note that, while there was only an increase of about 5 per cent of women involved in the workforce between 1939 and 1945, what was significant was the types of work they were beginning to perform.

At the start of World War II, women on the home front were encouraged to take the sorts of roles that they had held during World War I. They were not required in the services but were expected to knit and sew, pack parcels, raise money, encourage enlistment and maintain the home.



Source 2.91 Men unable to enlist were recruited into war support occupations. They often faced public criticism.



Source 2.92 Recruitment poster to attract women into the services (AWM ARTV00332)



**Source 2.93** Australian Women's Army Service mechanics carrying out maintenance work on Land Headquarters Signals motor vehicles at Albert Park, Melbourne (AWM 60917)

This changed as the war came closer to Australia. From late 1940, women were not only permitted but were encouraged to join the services (see Source 2.92). Around 35 000 women served in the army, making up around 5 per cent of the entire force. The Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force established in October 1940 was quickly followed by the women's Army and Navy forces. Women were not to be sent overseas to fight, but were trained in many of the home-front tasks so that more servicemen could be freed to join the overseas forces.

By the end of the war, the Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF) was made up of 18 500 women; the Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) had 24 000 women (see Source 2.93); and the Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS) boasted 2000. Most commonly, women's roles in the armed forces were clerical. However, some were involved in traditional men's roles, as signallers, truck and ambulance drivers, intelligence officers, wireless telegraphers or aircraft ground staff (see Source 2.94). Women were still not permitted to take on combat roles or serve outside Australia. The exception to this was the nurses who served in most areas where Australian troops were sent.



**Source 2.94** Female plane-maintenance workers

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

As the war continued, and conscription called up more and more men, many farms were suffering from a shortage of workers. The Women's Land Army was set up to distribute female labour to farms and orchards to keep food production going (see Source 2.95). Around

3000 women were members of the Land Army. Volunteer groups such as the Australian Women's National League continued to take on the more traditional tasks for the war effort, such as knitting socks for the troops, preparing Red Cross food parcels, and raising money for soldiers' families. Other volunteers completed training in emergency services such as first aid and ambulance driving in case of air raids.

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

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



Source 2.95 Members of the Australian Women's Land Army gather flax straw as part of their farm work. (AWM P00784.128)

## significance: Americans in Australia

During World War II, the USA made Australia its main base for the South-West Pacific. In December 1941, Curtin had announced that 'Australia looks to America, free of any pangs as to our traditional links or kinship with the United Kingdom'. American servicemen were based in nearly every city in Australia. Many Australian men were jealous of the attention women showed these troops, who were often better paid and—because they were foreign—perceived as more interesting than local men. There were several recorded accounts of fist fights between US and Australian troops, the most famous of which was the 'Battle of Brisbane' in 1942, which went on for several days. There was also racial tension over the presence of black American soldiers in Australia. The government only reluctantly agreed to black American units being stationed in Australia, and made deliberate efforts to keep them away from white Australian women.

However, it has been suggested that this negative response of Australian soldiers to the Americans has been exaggerated. Many families welcomed the US soldiers into their homes and there are stories of Australian men taking their US counterparts to sporting fixtures, drinking with them in bars and joining them in the illegal gambling game of Two-up. With almost one million Americans based in Australia, the US military was a major employer and introduced new American foods, such as hamburgers. The need to feed up to one million US troops as well as Australian soldiers gave a huge boost to Australia's food-growing and food-processing industries.

After the war, about 15 500 Australian women went to the USA as war brides.



**Source 2.96** American soldiers with their Australian girlfriends, walking by the Yarra River in Melbourne in 1943. (AWM 011543)



**Source 2.97** US soldiers in Australia during World War II

## Indigenous Australians

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

In addition to the regular army, a number of Indigenous Australians served in Special Forces. The Torres Strait Light Infantry was formed in 1941 to defend the strategically important Torres Strait area. In 1941, anthropologist and soldier Donald Thomson was authorised to organise and lead the Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit. This unit contained 51 Aborigines and five white Australians, and lived off the land while they patrolled the coastline of northern Australia. In the event of a Japanese invasion, they were to conduct a guerrilla campaign from behind enemy lines using traditional Aboriginal weapons. The Aboriginal soldiers in these units were not formally enlisted in the army, and received goods like tobacco rather than monetary pay until 1992, when back-pay and medals were awarded.



Source 2.98 Aboriginal soldiers on parade in 1940 (AWM P02140.004)

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

Indigenous Australians made a huge contribution to the war effort. By 1944, almost every able-bodied male Torres Strait Islander had enlisted. This meant that, as a proportion of its population, no other community in the world voluntarily contributed as many men to the war effort. There seems to have been remarkably little racism or tension between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians in the army. When they returned to civilian life, however, many Aboriginal veterans faced the same discrimination they had left behind during the war. Many were banned from Returned and Services League (RSL) Clubs except on ANZAC Day. Most Indigenous Australians were not given the opportunity to use the skills they had learnt during the war when they returned home. Len Waters, who joined the RAAF in 1942 and flew 95 missions, dreamed of becoming a civilian pilot after the war. Waters was forced to return to his pre-war occupation as a shearer.

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



**Source 2.99** Informal group portrait of members of the 2/18th Australian Field Workshop, which included Indigenous and non-Indigenous soldiers. Alick Jackomos (centre front row), a Greek Australian, worked for Aboriginal rights and was one of the founders of the Aboriginal Advancement League after the war. (AWM P00898.001)

## Check your learning

- 1 What kinds of jobs did women do, in the services and the general economy, during World War II?
- 2 Did Indigenous Australians who had served in World War II receive the same benefits as non-Indigenous veterans?
- 3 Who was Len Waters? What does his experience suggest about the treatment of Indigenous Australians after World War II?
- 4 Some men who were unable to enlist still did valuable war work but received little recognition. Why was this the case?
- 5 Why was the death rate for Australian POWs in Japan so much higher than that of those in Europe?
- 6 What is propaganda, and how was it used in wartime Australia?

## 2.3 How did the events of World War II affect people around the world and in Australia?

### Remember

- 1 What were some of the items that were rationed in Australia?
- 2 What evidence is there that there was resentment towards American soldiers in Australia during World War II?
- 3 Which event contributed to Prime Minister Curtin's decision to pursue an alliance with the USA over Britain, and to recall the AIF to Australia?

### Understand

- 4 What was Len Waters' experience of World War II? What can you learn about Australian society at the time from Waters' story?
- 5 Do you think that the changed position of women in Australia during World War II reflected a change in attitudes, or simple necessity? Support your answer.

### Apply

- 6 Why do you think the Australian government was reluctant to allow black American soldiers into Australia?
- 7 Use the Internet to conduct some research on the Coloured Digger Project and the proposed memorial to Aboriginal soldiers. Record some of the opinions on the proposed memorial.

### Analyse

- 8 Examine Sources 2.86, 2.88 and 2.89. They are all photographs and posters used by the Australian government to encourage support for the war and keep morale high.
  - a What sorts of images, words and techniques are used?
  - b How effective do you think they would have been?
- 9 As a class, discuss the effect the Internet would have had on propaganda and censorship on the home front in World War II if it had been invented. Do you think censorship would have been possible with the Internet?

### Evaluate

- 10 Why do you think there was minimal opposition to the introduction of conscription in World War II when the same issue caused such controversy and division during World War I?
- 11 In pairs, discuss how significant you think Reg Saunders' promotion to become the first Aboriginal commissioned officer was. Why do you think it took until 1944 for an Aboriginal soldier to get promoted to officer rank? Compare your responses with other groups.

### Create

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

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

- 13 Imagine Twitter was available during World War II. Write a series of Twitter updates from the perspective of any of the following:
  - a soldier conscripted into the CMF during the Kokoda campaign
  - an Indigenous Australian in the Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit
  - an American soldier on relief in Australia
  - an 'enemy alien' interned in Australia
  - a young woman who has entered the workforce for the first time.



**Source 2.100** An injured man slumps on a bench amid the ruins of Berlin.

## 2.4 How did the events of World War II shape Australia's international relationships?

*World War II completely changed the way Australians viewed their place in the world. The fall of Singapore forced Australia to realise that Britain would always look after itself before its former **colonies**. The USA emerged from the War as an indisputable global **superpower**, and Australia continued to link its interests, its security and its future to the USA. This was a major change in Australian foreign policy. It also ensured that Australia was placed firmly in the American camp as the **Cold War** divided the globe.*

The massive displacement of people in Europe led to a surge in migration to Australia, forever changing the nature of Australian society and its relationship with Europe. The **White Australia policy** remained firmly in place. The Baltic peoples escaping Soviet expansion were the ideal citizens for post-war Australia—white and anti-communist. The United Nations created a new medium for international relations, which gave small countries like Australia a platform to air their grievances. From the outset, Australia was heavily involved in the formation of the United Nations.

## The war shapes Australia

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

### Australia and the USA

In 1939, Australia's Prime Minister Robert Menzies had committed Australia to a war in support of the British Empire.

By 1945, the world had changed markedly. Britain entered the conflict as one of the world's greatest powers. The countries of the empire cooperated to confront Nazi aggression in Europe. However, as the conflict expanded into a global one, the strains of war took their toll. In confronting Nazi Germany, Britain became dependent on the financial, military and economic support of the USA. Stretched in its goals to defend itself and fight Germany and Italy in Europe and North Africa, Britain could only send limited resources to Asia. When Japan struck, Britain experienced its greatest wartime defeat with the fall of Singapore in 1942.

To address this changing situation, Prime Minister John Curtin moved Australian troops from the Middle East to Australia, against the advice of the British government. This was a practical, short-term solution to a major strategic problem. The long-term consequence was the realisation that Australia could no longer rely on Britain to defend it. Australia now focused on a strategic relationship with the USA. As a result of this new arrangement, Curtin placed Australian forces under the control of the broader US military campaign in the Pacific. American General Douglas MacArthur would also establish his base for the South-West Pacific campaign in Australia (see Source 2.101). Until this point, Australia's foreign policy had largely been determined by the needs of the British Empire.

This relationship with the USA was an important step in establishing an independent Australia and continues to have an important bearing on Australian foreign policy decisions.

### Domestic changes

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



Source 2.101 Australian Prime Minister John Curtin welcomes General Douglas MacArthur to Australia, 1942.



Source 2.102 The first production-model Holden rolled off the assembly line in 1948.



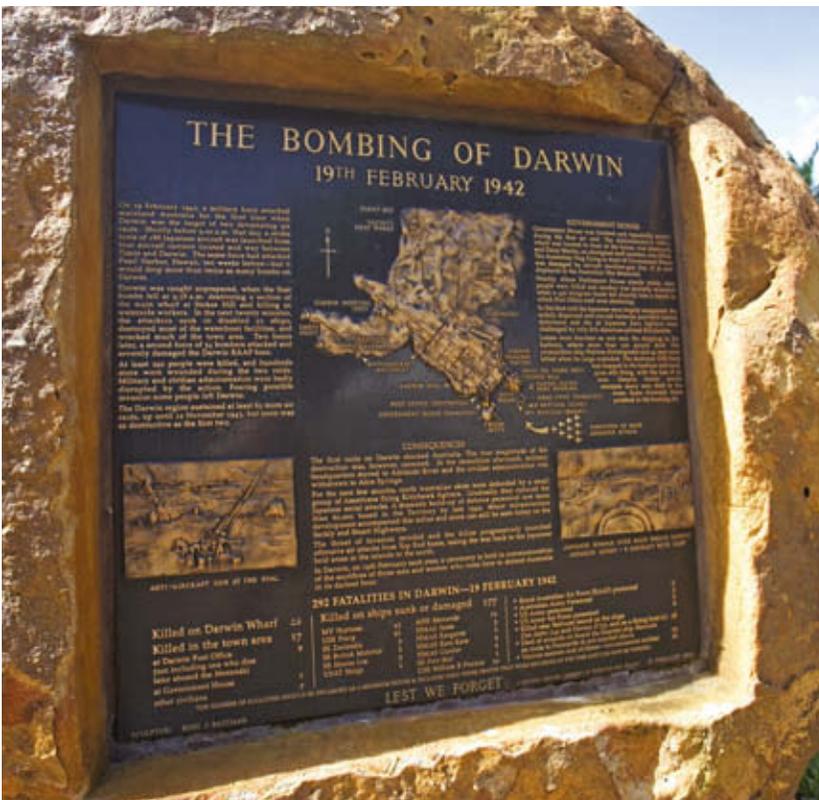
**Source 2.103** US sailors and soldiers on their arrival in Australia quickly made friends wherever they went, and were received with hospitality.

The presence of almost one million American service personnel in Australia during the war also had a significant cultural impact. For some Australian women these men would become boyfriends or husbands. The influence of American cinema, language and culture made its first major inroads in Australia during this period. Australians had mixed feelings about this cultural ‘invasion’. On one level, many feared the loss of Australian culture and traditions.

On the other hand, for many younger Australians there was a fascination with American music, dress and slang.

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

The experience of war and the death of roughly 28000 Australian service personnel and civilians also shaped Australia’s future. The commemoration of the 1939–45 fallen was incorporated into commemorations of World War I. Local communities recognised the sacrifice of the more recent deaths by extending and expanding the monuments originally constructed to remember the dead of the 1914–18 conflict, ironically described as ‘the war to end all wars’.



**Source 2.104** Memorial to those who lost their lives in the bombing of Darwin, February 1942

## Check your learning

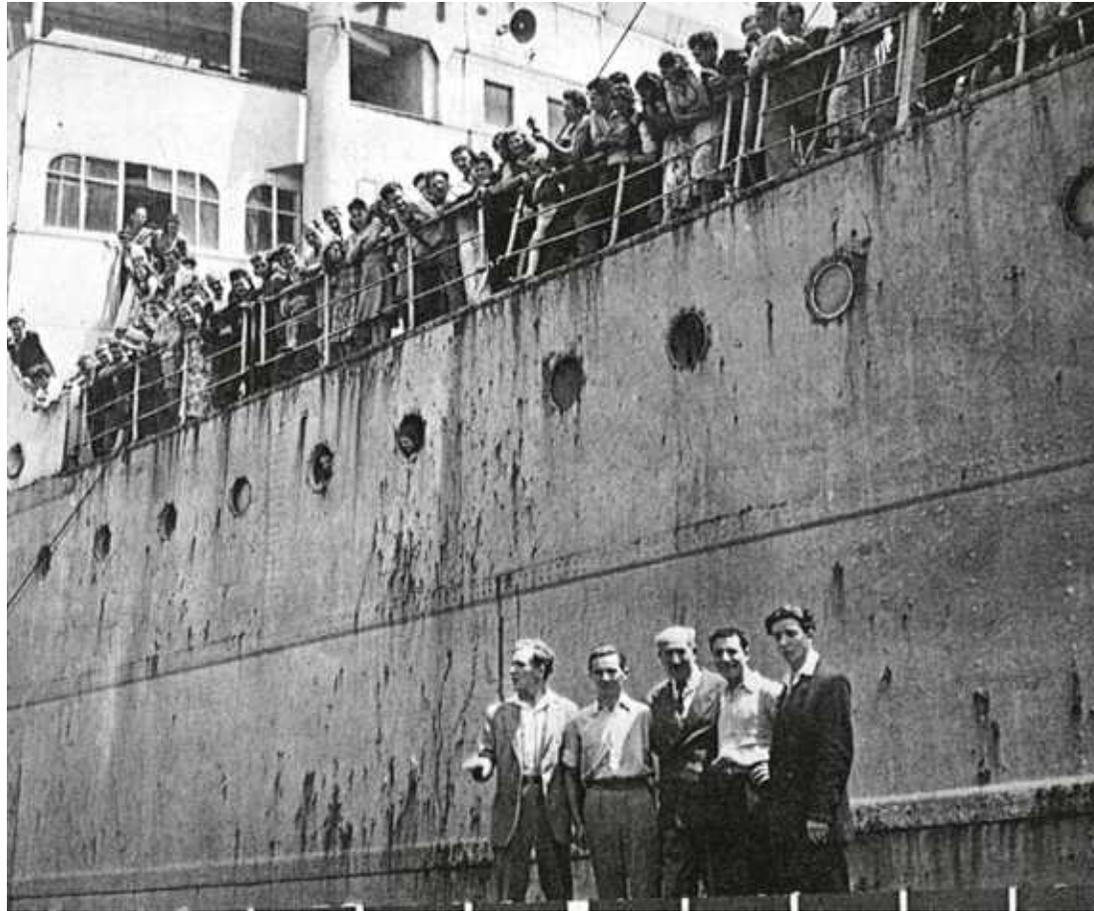
- 1 Why did Prime Minister Curtin turn to the USA for support?
- 2 What moves did Curtin make once war loomed on Australia’s doorstep?
- 3 What had been the major economic activity in Australia before the war and how did this change?

## Post-war migration

After World War II, many Australians felt that they had only narrowly avoided a Japanese invasion. The government, under the new Prime Minister Ben Chifley, decided that Australia needed to increase its population to protect itself from the threat of foreign invasion. The slogan ‘Populate or perish’ was coined by the Immigration Minister, Arthur Calwell, to promote this new immigration policy. The ‘Populate or perish’ campaign initially focused on encouraging British migrants, but this failed to increase the population enough. For the first time, Australia began to actively seek migrants from continental Europe (see Source 2.105).

The war had left somewhere between 11 and 20 million **refugees** in Europe. Many of these refugees, including **Holocaust** survivors and people who had fled the Soviet occupation of Eastern European nations, were housed in Displaced Persons Camps (DP Camps). These camps were initially organised by the armies of various nations, but were gradually taken over by the United Nations. They provided shelter, nutrition and basic health care for the refugees. A more permanent solution had to be found, however. Around six million refugees were returned to their own countries by the end of 1945, but a huge number of refugees still faced persecution in their homelands and remained in the DP Camps. In 1947, around 850 000 refugees were still living in DP Camps in Europe. The International Refugee Organisation (IRO) was founded by the United Nations in 1946 to find homes for these people.

In 1947, desperate to increase its population, Australia reached an agreement with the IRO to resettle 12 000 refugees a year. These ‘new Australians’, as they came to be called, were accepted on the condition that they agreed to work in government-selected jobs. Australia eventually exceeded its commitment to the IRO, and resettled approximately 180 000 refugees.



**Source 2.105** Immigrants arrived from all corners of Europe as part of the ‘Populate or perish’ campaign.

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

### Check your learning

- 1 Who coined the slogan ‘Populate or perish’?
- 2 What was the role of the International Refugee Organisation (IRO)?
- 3 Why were many people forced to remain in Displaced Persons Camps across Europe long after World War II had finished?
- 4 Why did Australia want a larger population after World War II?

# Foundation of the United Nations

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

The United Nations officially came into existence in 1945, with 51 nations as founding members. The first major meeting to prepare the Charter of the United Nations was held in San Francisco in April 1945 (see Source 2.106). Australian delegate Herbert 'Doc' Evatt—the then Minister for External Affairs—played a key role in drafting the charter of the United Nations. The Charter outlined the role of the United Nations as an international organisation to prevent war. It also included provisions for the United Nations to aid refugees, support economic reconstruction after the war, and protect human rights.

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

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

## Check your learning

- 1 Which Australian politician played a key role in the foundation of the United Nations and the drafting of the Declaration of Human Rights?
- 2 What was the overall aim of the United Nations?
- 3 How many nations were founding members of the United Nations?



**Source 2.106** Australia's delegation to the United Nations Conference, San Francisco, 25 April 1945. Herbert 'Doc' Evatt is seated second from the right.

## 2.4 How did the events of World War II shape Australia's international relationships?

### Remember

- 1 What happened in World War II to convince Australia that it needed a larger population to survive?
- 2 How did the war change Australia's foreign policy?
- 3 Which organisation worked to find homes for displaced refugees after World War II?
- 4 As well as the overall aim of preventing future world wars, what were some of the secondary aims of the United Nations?

### Understand

- 5 How did World War II change the composition of Australian society?
- 6 Why do you think the United Nations was formed immediately after World War II?
- 7 In your own words, explain why certain types of people (European anti-communists) were considered to be most suitable for emigration to Australia after World War II.

### Apply

- 8 How do you think Australia would be different today if Robert Menzies had remained prime minister throughout World War II? Give reasons for your response.

### Analyse

- 9 Can the wartime relationship between Australia and the USA be described as a 'love-hate relationship'? Give reasons for your response.
- 10 Look at the photograph of John Curtin with General Douglas MacArthur (Source 2.101). What message can you get from the body language of both men? What does it tell you about the nature of the relationship between Australian and the USA at this time?

### Evaluate

- 11 How do you think Australia's foreign policies would be different today if Japan had not entered the war? Think about Australia's involvement in overseas conflict in recent history and discuss your ideas with a partner.
- 12 In your notebook, create a table such as the one below, and fill in examples of changes that World War II had upon Australia. Note whether those changes were temporary or permanent. As a class, you could discuss whether these changes were, on the whole, good or bad for Australia.

#### Changes to Australia after World War II

Type of change	Permanent or temporary

### Create

- 13 In groups, script and perform a discussion between members of an Eastern European family in a Displaced Persons Camp. The discussion should be about reasons for and against migrating to Australia.

# connecting ideas

## History as tourism

*'Historical tourism' is the term used to describe a sector of the tourism industry that promotes sites based on their historical significance. These popular sites are often museums or memorials, but they also include battlefields, shipwrecks and buildings that are connected to historical events. Historical tourism has existed for a long time, but sites associated with World War II have become increasingly popular in the last decade or so.*



### Sites of historical tourism

Many World War II sites, such as museums and memorials, are now the focus of large-scale historical tourism. Battlefields, former extermination camps, museums and even entire towns have become popular sites for historical tourists. For example, the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum has had approximately 32 million visitors since it opened in 1993. Also, the small French port town of Dunkirk is famous in Britain for its role in the evacuation of British troops after their defeat in the Battle of France. In 2010, to mark the 70th anniversary of the Dunkirk evacuation, tens of thousands of British tourists travelled to the town to celebrate the 'Miracle of Dunkirk'.

- 1 Why is Dunkirk a significant site for British tourists?
- 2 With a partner, brainstorm some of the different types of historical sites that have become important for historical tourism.



**Source 2.107** Visitors peer at suitcases seized from murdered prisoners, exhibited at Auschwitz I, Block 5, in Oswiecim, Poland.





## The Kokoda Track

The Kokoda Track has become an important site for Australian historical tourists. As well as visiting memorials commemorating those who fought in the Kokoda campaign, walking the trail has become increasingly popular since 2001. It has been described as a 'pilgrimage' for many Australians. Some people see experiencing the difficult conditions of the track as a way of honouring the soldiers who fought there. Since 2005, there has even been a 'Kokoda Challenge' race. Other sites, like Gallipoli and the Western Front, also attract large numbers of Australian tourists. The Kokoda Track, however, provides tourists with the unique opportunity to measure their determination and stamina against previous generations as a form of commemoration.

- 1 Why do you think that walking the Kokoda Track has become so much more popular since 2001?
- 2 What other sites associated with World War II do you think might become sites of historical tourism for Australians in the future?

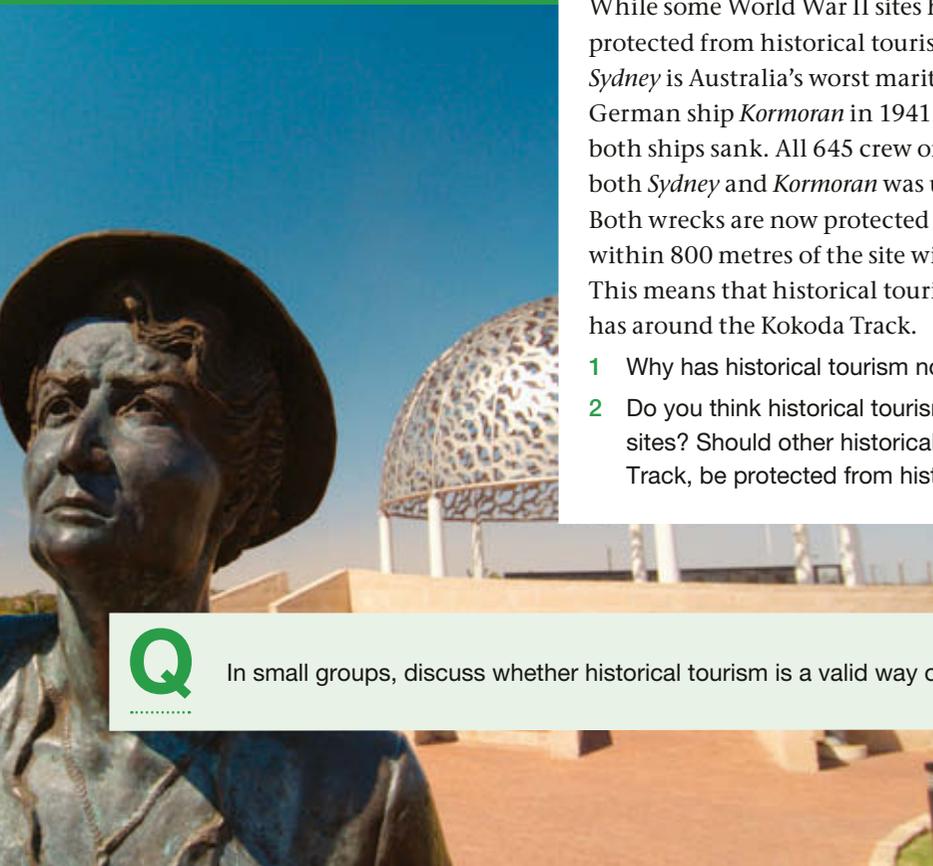
**Source 2.108** A group of trekkers crossing a log bridge along the legendary Kokoda Track

## Keeping sites sacred

While some World War II sites have become popular with tourists, others have been protected from historical tourism by government legislation. The sinking of the *HMAS Sydney* is Australia's worst maritime disaster. It became involved in a battle with the German ship *Kormoran* in 1941 off the coast of Western Australia, which ended when both ships sank. All 645 crew on the *Sydney* were killed. The location of the wrecks of both *Sydney* and *Kormoran* was unknown until 2008, when they were rediscovered. Both wrecks are now protected by an exclusion zone, which makes it illegal to come within 800 metres of the site without a permit issued by the Australian government. This means that historical tourism has not developed around the wreck of *Sydney* like it has around the Kokoda Track.

- 1 Why has historical tourism not developed around the site of *Sydney* and *Kormoran*?
- 2 Do you think historical tourism is a positive or negative thing for history and historical sites? Should other historical sites associated with World War II, such as the Kokoda Track, be protected from historical tourism?

**Source 2.109** The *HMAS Sydney* Memorial on Mount Scott, Geraldton, Western Australia



In small groups, discuss whether historical tourism is a valid way of commemorating World War II.

depth study

# Rights and freedoms

*In this depth study, students will investigate struggles for human rights. This covers how rights and freedoms have been ignored, demanded or achieved in Australia and in the broader world context. This depth study **MUST** be completed by all students.*

3.0 Rights and freedoms (1945–the present)

The Aboriginal Tent Embassy on the lawns of Parliament House, Canberra, celebrated its 40th anniversary in 2012.

# ABORIGINAL EMBASSY

Your  
DONATION  
will help  
Keep  
Australian  
Culture  
Alive

Thank

澳洲永远是澳洲土著的  
洁白的澳洲有个黑暗的历史

TANAH INI SENTIASA MENTADI  
TANAH ABORIGINES

いつまでも原住民の領土

PENJAJAH AUSTRALIA ADA  
SEJARAH HITAM

白人主義は黒人の歴史を持つ  
WHITE AUST. HAS A BLACK  
HISTORY - OUR RIGHTS  
CANNOT BE

20 J  
GREA

CORR

SOV

depth study

# Rights and freedoms

(1945–the present)

*The 20th century was a century of social change. World war and continuing industrialisation, in particular, highlighted the inequalities that existed around the world. The Holocaust was such an extreme example of discrimination and persecution that the horror of this event prompted many individuals around the world to stand up and demand freedom and equal rights for all. The United Nations formed out of the ashes of World War II and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted.*

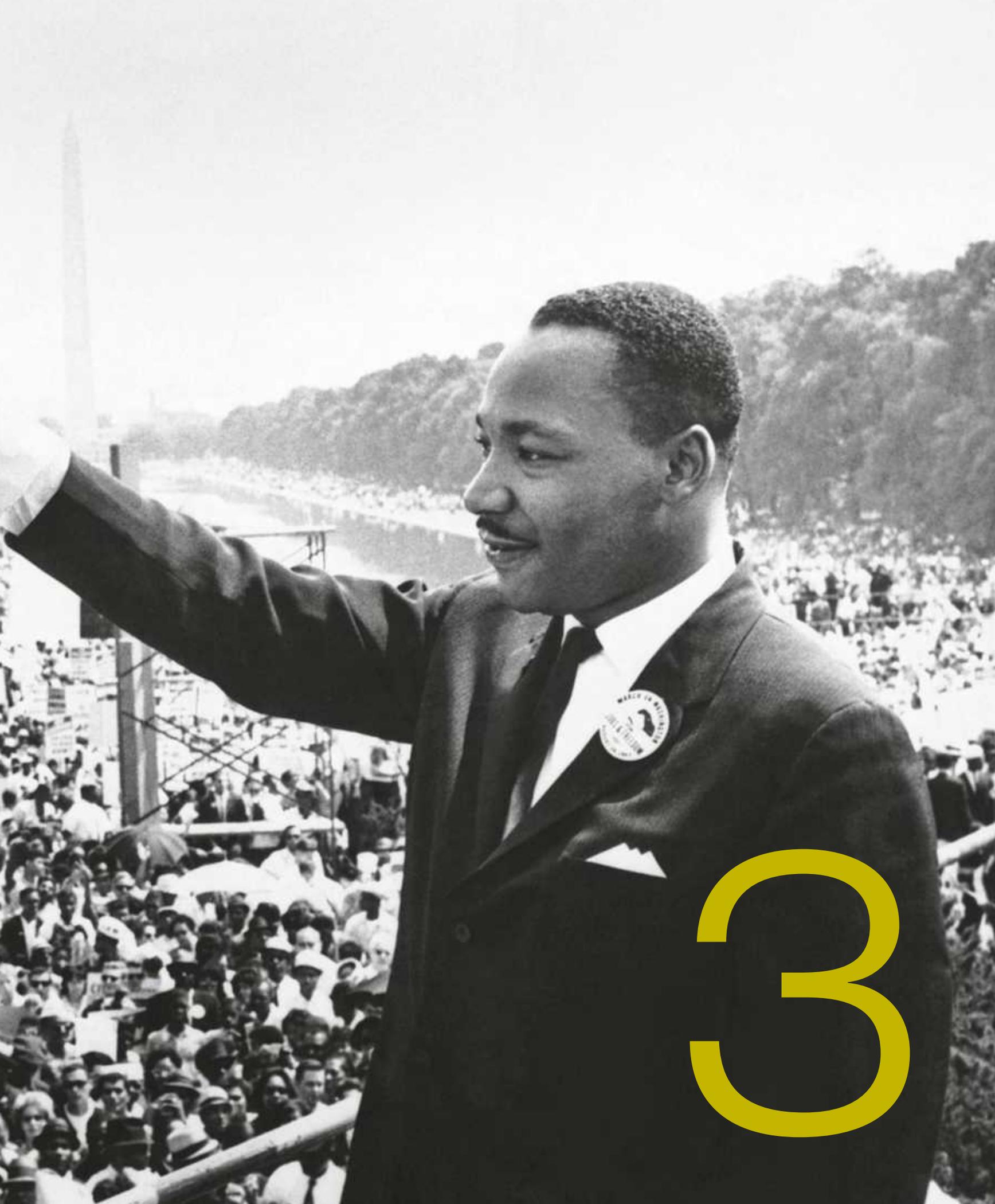
In Australia, an **Aboriginal rights movement** emerged from the 1930s and celebrated major victories in the 1960s, as Aboriginal people achieved equal citizenship and were entitled to vote in federal elections for the first time. This milestone coincided with similar achievements for African Americans.

The 1960s also marked the beginning of a concerted attempt to achieve land rights for Aboriginal people. Some decades later, a new campaign called for an official apology for the **Stolen Generations** of Aboriginal children who were forcibly removed from their families by government authorities.

## Key inquiry questions

- 3.1 How have Indigenous peoples in Australia struggled for rights and freedoms?
- 3.2 How have Indigenous peoples in Australia achieved change and what were some of the significant events that influenced this change?
- 3.3 In what ways do activists continue to struggle for civil rights and freedoms in Australia and around the world?

Martin Luther King waves to the crowd gathered for the March on Washington in 1963 in support of civil rights for African Americans.



3

# bigpicture

## Rights and freedoms

*Aboriginal Australians have lived in Australia for at least 40 000 years. The arrival of Europeans in 1788 resulted in significant changes to traditional Aboriginal customs and ways of life. Until 1901, colonial governments and communities formally and informally discriminated against Aboriginal people. Federation in 1901 made the exclusion of Aboriginal people even more pronounced. By 1938—the 150th anniversary of the settlement of Australia by the British—an organised Aboriginal rights movement had been established. The civil rights movement in the United States proved influential for Indigenous activists in the 1960s. By the 1990s, the **reconciliation** movement was in full swing, culminating in a national walk for reconciliation in 2000. But it would not be until the Rudd Government in 2008 that the formal apology the Stolen Generations sought would finally be delivered.*

**1967**

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

**1961**

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

1930

**1938**

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

**1948**

Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by United Nations



The General Assembly of the United Nations meeting in Paris, 1948

**1963**

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

**1965**

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



Freedom Riders outside their bus

Source 3.1 A timeline of some key events in civil and Indigenous rights

**1972**

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



Supporters at the Aboriginal Tent Embassy

**1992**

The High Court overturns *terra nullius* and acknowledges native title in historical Mabo ruling, and Prime Minister Paul Keating's Redfern Address includes frank admissions about the removal of Aboriginal children from their families

**1997**

The *Bringing Them Home* report is tabled in parliament. The report includes thousands of testimonies from members of the Stolen Generations

**2004**

The Howard Government abolishes ATSIC

**1990**

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

**2008**

Prime Minister Kevin Rudd issues a formal apology to the Stolen Generations

**1975**

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



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

**2000**

Massive numbers join walks for reconciliation across Australia



Crossing the Sydney Harbour Bridge during the reconciliation march



**Source 3.2** The Day of Mourning Protest in 1938 was held in defiance of the national sesquicentenary (150th anniversary) celebrations.

## 3.1

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

*When British explorers and settlers arrived on the east coast of Australia in the 18th century, they did not understand the Indigenous population. The British failed to negotiate treaties. They looked for signs of permanent residence, and could find none. They looked for evidence of farming, and could find none. As a result they established their settlements and took little account of any rights the Indigenous Australians might be entitled to.*

It was New South Wales Governor Sir Richard Bourke in 1835 who established the concept of *terra nullius*, a Latin term that literally translates as ‘nobody’s land’. While the British recognised the existence of Indigenous Australians, they did not recognise Indigenous occupation or use of the land. Bourke’s proclamation meant that Indigenous Australians were not legally able to sell or acquire land. This became the basis of Australian law until 1992.

The *terra nullius* ruling placed Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples at a legal disadvantage that also translated into other aspects of life. By the time Australians celebrated 150 years of British settlement, in 1938, Indigenous Australians were commemorating a 'Day of Mourning' (see Source 3.2). It was difficult for them to point to any positive outcomes from British settlement. It was only after Australia's championing of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 that attention gradually turned towards the situation and status of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

The period since World War II has seen the initial struggle for and gradual acceptance of civil rights for Indigenous Australians. Legal doctrines such as *terra nullius* were challenged and overturned, and recognition was given to the suffering of the Stolen Generations, highlighted in 2008 by a formal apology from the federal government.

## Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Millions of people were massacred during World War II. Many millions more never saw their families or homes again as a result of the destruction. During the war, many world leaders began developing an ambitious, global response to these atrocities. The commitment to form the United Nations, a 'world government' of sorts that could set new parameters and international laws to protect people, came quickly after the war was over (see Source 3.3).

### Australia's role

There was enthusiasm to begin the work of codifying human rights. Leaders of emerging powers, including Australia's Attorney-General, Herbert 'Doc' Evatt (see Source 3.4), convinced traditional powers such as Britain and France that the General Assembly must be seen to lead on human rights. The world could not afford another catastrophe like World War II. Evatt was General Secretary of the United Nations in 1948 and 1949, during which time he led the drafting of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This landmark document has 30 articles and has informed many international and national treaties and covenants (agreements) relating to rights. Most significantly, the declaration held that human rights are inalienable— that is, they cannot be taken away from any of us.



Source 3.3 The United Nations Conference in 1945 met to discuss international organisation.



Source 3.4 Attorney-General Herbert Evatt

### Source 3.5

#### Article 1

*All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.*

#### Article 2

*Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.*

#### Article 3

*Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.*

#### Article 4

*No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.*

#### Article 5

*No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.*

#### Article 6

*Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.*

The first six articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights



**Source 3.6** William Onus, President of the Australian Aborigines League, speaks at a meeting in the Domain, Sydney, 1949.

Evatt was ably supported by many other leaders including Eleanor Roosevelt, a US delegate and the widow of former US President Franklin D Roosevelt. Eleanor Roosevelt's ratification speech to the United Nations General Assembly on 2 December 1948 impressed upon the world the need for action. Eight days later, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was ratified by the United Nations General Assembly.

## The start of civil rights

Many argue that the declaration set the scene for the **civil rights** struggles that would occur around the world in the coming decades. Germany was a developed economy with a functioning democracy before World War I, and yet, in less than a generation, it had become a fascist dictatorship where only certain people were welcome. The fear was that unless assertive action was taken in other places around the world, based on an acceptance of the rights enshrined in the declaration, the same ethnic cleansing could occur again.

## The Australian context

The developments in Australia from the 1960s can be seen as related to this wider context. Although Australia, on the international stage, played a key role in arguing for the declaration through Evatt and others, at home, the White Australia policy was still shaping Australia's development. There was only minimal recognition of the rights of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. The acceptance of the rights contained in the Universal Declaration gave great encouragement to not only Indigenous Australians (see Source 3.6), but many other peoples whose access to basic human rights had been denied through war, conquest and colonisation.

## Check your learning

- 1 Why was it agreed a Universal Declaration of Human Rights was needed?
- 2 Who was General Secretary of the United Nations when the declaration was developed?
- 3 Who spoke in support of the declaration on 2 December 1948?
- 4 Which policy did Australia maintain that was against the spirit of the declaration?

## Background to the struggle for Indigenous rights

The policies of Australian colonial and state governments in the late 19th and early 20th centuries compounded the negative effects of the ongoing European settlement since 1788. For Aboriginal people, the expanding colonial frontiers continued to thwart their attempts to maintain traditional ways of life. They experienced high numbers of premature deaths through causes such as violence and disease. By the time of Federation, European settlement dominated most of the continent.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures were not officially recognised, and public policy was dominated by ideas of segregation and assimilation, both of which assumed that to be Aboriginal was to be inferior.

Aboriginal Protection Boards were established to ‘manage’ Aboriginal populations before Federation and maintained by state governments after Federation—removing children became the core work of these boards. The new Commonwealth took no responsibility for the wellbeing of this significant minority. Chief Protectors were appointed to watch over the Aboriginal people in each state and ‘smooth the dying pillow’—that is, take care of a ‘dying race’ of people.

Aboriginal reserves and missions were established by governments and religious organisations across Australia to support the assimilation policy (see Source 3.7). But most agree that the real reason for these missions was segregation—to keep blacks away from white society. For many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples these institutions meant separation from families and communities, isolation and loss of culture, identity and control.



Source 3.7 Aboriginal children at the Catholic Little Flower Mission in Arltunga, Northern Territory, c. 1946

### The situation at Federation

When the colonies federated, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples remained politically and legally marginalised. Many of the rights extended to the citizens of this new nation were denied to the original inhabitants. A number of Acts passed by the new Commonwealth parliament specifically excluded them. They were not entitled to vote in federal elections unless previously registered to vote in their state. They did not receive the basic wage and they were not eligible for aged and invalid pensions. Travel restrictions were often applied, they were excluded from military training, and Aboriginal mothers did not receive the baby bonus that was given to non-Indigenous mothers. When a census was held, Aborigines were not counted.

Western Australian Senator Alexander Matheson was one of the strongest opponents of Aboriginal people being given the right to vote (see Source 3.8).

After Federation, state governments and religious organisations continued to dominate Aboriginal policy. The new Commonwealth took no responsibility for the wellbeing of this significant minority. The common trend to assimilation underpinned work by authorities in each state; however, insufficient resources meant that often work was simply neglected. Assimilation did guide two key areas of work—the Christian missions and the removal of mixed-race Aboriginal children.

### Source 3.8

*We must take steps to prevent any Aboriginal from acquiring the right to vote. Surely it is absolutely repugnant to the greater number of the people of the Commonwealth that an Aboriginal man or Aboriginal lubra or gin [woman]—a horrible, degraded, dirty creature—should have the same rights that we have decided to give to our wives and daughters ... The honourable gentleman fails to recognise that we have taken this country from the blacks, and made it a white man's country, and intend to keep it a white man's country, so that there is no earthly use in the honourable gentleman saying that 100 years ago this was a black man's country ... We are aware of the fact that it is very regrettable, and the only consolation we have is that they are gradually dying out.*

Western Australian Senator Alexander Matheson,  
Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates,  
Senate, 22 May, 1901

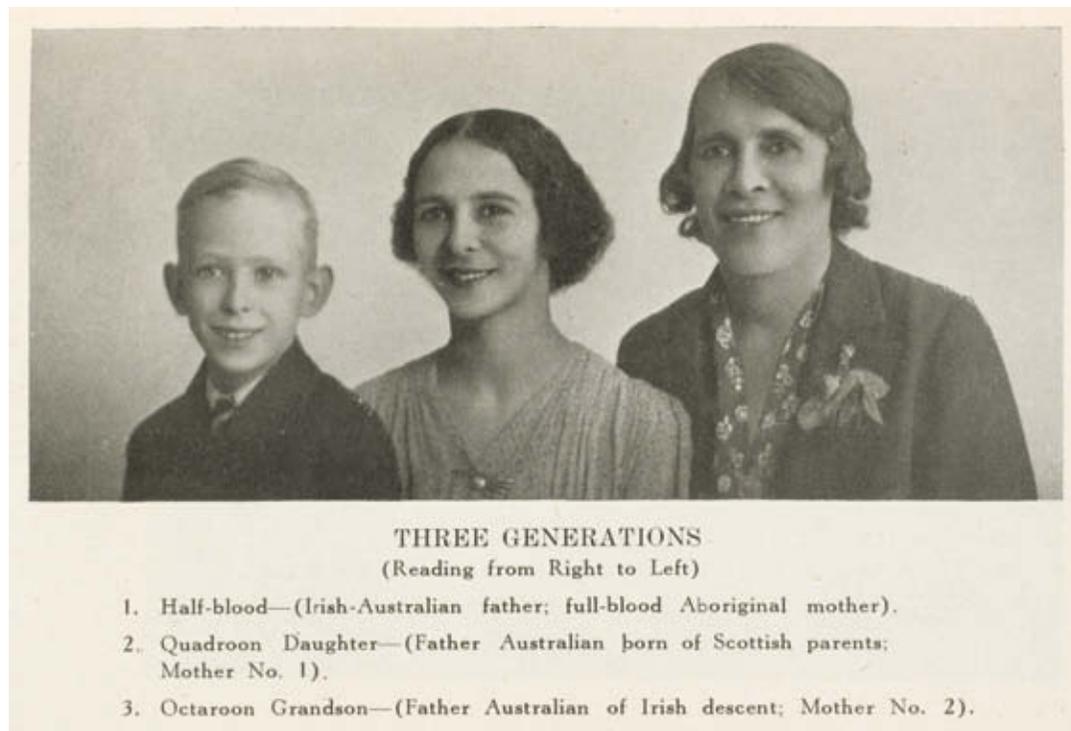
## Controlled by colour

The ‘assimilation policy’ was officially adopted at the Aboriginal Welfare Conference of Commonwealth and State Authorities in 1937. Aboriginal people of mixed race were to be assimilated into white society whether they wanted to be or not. This was a new form of control. If these people were not going to simply ‘die out’ then all efforts should be directed to ensuring that mixed-race Aborigines, in particular, could be integrated (see Sources 3.9 and 3.10). The removal of Aboriginal children continued and new powers were given to ‘Welfare’ officials to judge whether children were ‘progressing’.

### Source 3.9

*The destiny of the natives of aboriginal origin, but not of the full blood, lies in their ultimate absorption ... with a view to their taking their place in the white community on an equal footing with the whites.*

From a conference paper from the Aboriginal Welfare Conference of Commonwealth and State Authorities in 1937



**Source 3.10** This illustration from A O Neville’s 1947 book, *Australia’s Coloured Minority* shows how he believed the ‘Aboriginal blood’ could be bred out.

New government resources were targeted towards changing the ways that Aboriginal people lived. Traditional camps were demolished and additional assistance was given to missions to ‘do the job’. Jackson’s Track in Gippsland, Victoria, was a dry, sawmill settlement occupied by many Aboriginal families—including the family of Lionel Rose, Australia’s first boxing world champion.

Daryl Tonkin, who married an Aboriginal woman and settled at Jackson’s Track, recalls the idyllic life of those living there in his book *Jackson’s Track*. However, from the 1940s, government and church officials began putting pressure on the Aboriginal elders to move their families to somewhere more ‘civilised’. ‘Welfare’ would visit frequently, and in 1961 the community was dismantled (see Sources 3.11 and 3.12).



**Source 3.11** Two dwellings at Jackson’s Track, Victoria, c. 1947–1960.  
Source: Museum Victoria. Photographer: Richard Seeger.

### Source 3.12

*It wasn't long before people at the Track found out what the authorities had decided to do. The church people came around to all the camps and explained how they had the welfare of the blackfellas in mind and that they truly felt this was the best thing for them. They said the good people of the church had worked together to build some housing for the blackfellas and that in one week a truck would be out to fetch them.*

Extract from *Jackson's Track* by Daryl Tonkin, page 254

Tonkin explains a few pages later that the promised 'houses' were actually tents and that a number of previously employed, teetotaler Aboriginal men began drinking for the first time in their lives to escape the boredom and depression of their new lives away from 'the Track'.

## Segregation

Another effective means of controlling Aboriginal people was by excluding them from fully participating in society. 'Colour bars' in clubs, pubs, restaurants, theatres, public swimming pools and public transport resulted in virtual **apartheid**. Aboriginal people were prohibited from working particular jobs—including working in a post office—and expected to work for much less money. For the first 30 years after Federation, this segregation was applied fairly consistently across the states and territories.

Despite assimilation being the official policy of the government, segregationist practices continued until the 1960s with separate sections in theatres, separate wards in hospitals, and schools able to refuse enrolment to Aboriginal children. Rights activists in the 1960s had plenty of evidence of overt discrimination continuing across Australia.

## Check your learning

- 1 What is a 'colour bar'?
- 2 What is the assimilation policy?
- 3 What happened to the Jackson's Track community?

## The Stolen Generations

From the late 19th century to the 1970s many thousands of Aboriginal children were removed from their families. These children, now referred to as the Stolen Generations, faced ongoing emotional and social difficulties because of their removal from their families.

In most states, it was believed that if mixed-race Aboriginal children could be brought up in a 'white' community, their Aboriginality could be overcome and their 'white' attributes could come through. These children were taken from their families and raised in missions or with 'white' families (see Source 3.13). They ended up being part of neither community of people, rejected by both societies as people who did not fit.

Full-blooded Aboriginal children were also removed from their families and put into state-run institutions where they were prepared for unskilled and semi-skilled work. The Cootamundra Girls' Home in New South Wales, for example, trained girls to be domestic servants.

## The Bringing Them Home report

The Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission collated the stories of the Stolen Generations for the Commonwealth Parliament in 1997. Their report, entitled *Bringing Them Home*, revealed the hurt felt by so many Australians who were affected by this policy (see Source 3.14).



Source 3.13 A newspaper article seeking homes for children of mixed race

### Source 3.14

*Most of us girls were thinking white in the head but were feeling black inside. We weren't black or white. We were a very lonely, lost and sad displaced group of people. We were taught to think and act like a white person, but we didn't know how to think and act like an Aboriginal. We didn't know anything about our culture.*

*We were completely brainwashed to think only like a white person. When they went to mix in white society, they found they were not accepted [because] they were Aboriginal. When they went and mixed with Aborigines, some found they couldn't identify with them either, because they had too much white ways in them. So that they were neither black nor white. They were simply a lost generation of children. I know. I was one of them.*

Extract from *Bringing Them Home: Report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families* April 1997, Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission

The extent to which mixed-race Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children were forcibly removed from their families has recently been a subject of debate. Some historians and commentators question whether there is enough common ground in the experiences of the removed children for them to be considered collectively. For example, the removal of children to attend secondary schooling, unavailable in many remote locations, might not be considered in the same way as the removal of whole families of children without justification. Other justifications dominated discussions when *Bringing Them Home* was released. These included 'child protection', beliefs that Australia's Indigenous people would 'die out', and a desire to 'civilise' Indigenous children through their assimilation into white society. However, the report dealt with many of these questions by making comparisons with non-Indigenous children removed from their families:

### Source 3.15

*In contrast with the removal of non-Indigenous children, proof of 'neglect' was not always required before an Indigenous child could be removed. Their Aboriginality would suffice. Therefore, while some removals might be 'justifiable' after the event as being in the child's best interests, they often did not need to be justified at the time.*

Extract from *Bringing Them Home*, p.9



**Source 3.16** Marita Ah Chee was taken away, in 1947, to Garden Point Mission on Melvin Island. After 13 years she came back to work as a nanny in Alice Springs. Her Aboriginal mother, having heard through the nuns that she was in Alice Springs, went 'doorknocking' and they were finally reunited after 15 years.

Proof of neglect was not the motive in the case of most of the forcible removals of Aboriginal children from their families. It was more often motivated by a desire to civilise or 'breed out' Aboriginality. Dr Cecil Cook, Chief Protector of the Northern Territory between the years of 1927–1939, was perhaps the most famous of the government officials. His views were that part-Aboriginal women should be elevated 'to white standard with a view to their absorption by mating into the white population'. This argument was used as motivation to remove thousands of Aboriginal children from their families.

### Check your learning

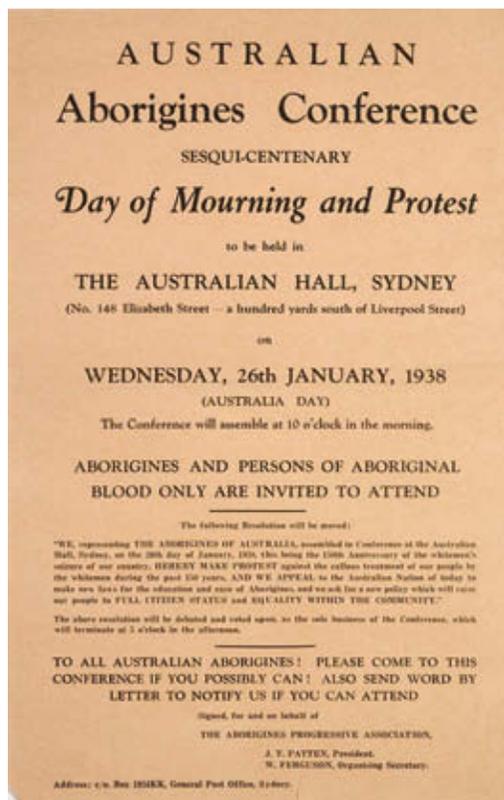
- 1 What are the Stolen Generations?
- 2 Why were they taken?
- 3 What was the *Bringing Them Home* report?

## The Day of Mourning

When the centenary of British colonisation arrived in 1888, little attention was paid to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples during the celebrations. All colonies except South Australia proclaimed 'Anniversary Day' a public holiday and celebrated Australia's 100th birthday, even though Australia as a nation did not exist at that stage.

Indigenous Australians boycotted celebrations, but very few noticed. They were excluded from public life and largely ignored in such considerations of national identity. When the sesquicentenary (150th anniversary) of British settlement took place in 1938, organised groups of Indigenous Australians decided to use it as a chance to make a point.

The Australian Aborigines League (Victoria) and the Aborigines Progressive Association (New South Wales) had been involved in previous petitions seeking civil rights for Indigenous Australians. They refused to participate in the re-enactment of the First Fleet's landing at Farm Cove in Sydney, the focus of white celebrations. Instead, the Indigenous groups planned a march from the Sydney Town Hall.



Source 3.17 Flyer advertising the Day of Mourning protest, 1938

After they had been refused permission to meet at the Town Hall, they decided to march to the Australian Hall in Elizabeth Street (see Source 3.17). Even though this was to be a meeting of only Indigenous Australians, they were refused entry to the Australian Hall through the front door and were forced to enter through a rear door. The meeting was the first really effective all-Indigenous civil rights meeting in Australian history.

focus on ...

### perspectives: the Day of Mourning address

A **manifesto**, *Aborigines Claim Citizen Rights*, was distributed at the meeting. The manifesto opened with a declaration that 'This festival of 150 years of so-called "progress" in Australia commemorates also 150 years of misery and degradation imposed on the original native inhabitants by white invaders of this country.' It was a powerful statement that introduced Australians to an alternative perspective of their history.

#### Source 3.18

*On this day the white people are rejoicing, but we, as Aborigines, have no reason to rejoice on Australia's 150th birthday. Our purpose in meeting today is to bring home to the white people of Australia the frightful conditions in which the native Aborigines of this continent live. This land belonged to our forefathers 150 years ago, but today we are pushed further and further into the background.*

*The Aborigines Progressive Association has been formed to put before the white people the fact that Aborigines throughout Australia are literally being starved to death. We refuse to be pushed into the background. We have decided to make ourselves heard. White men pretend that the Australian Aboriginal is a low type, who cannot be bettered. Our reply to that is, 'Give us the chance!'*

*We do not wish to be left behind in Australia's march to progress. We ask for full citizen rights, including old-age pensions, maternity bonus, relief work when unemployed, and the right to a full Australian education for our children. We do not wish to be herded like cattle and treated as a special class. As regards the Aborigines Protection Board of New South Wales, white people in the cities do not realise the terrible conditions of slavery under which our people live in the outback districts.*

*I have unanswerable evidence that women of our race are forced to work in return for rations, without other payment. Is this not slavery? Do white Australians realise that there is actual slavery in this fair progressive Commonwealth? Yet such is the case. We are looking in vain to white people to help us by charity. We must do something ourselves to draw public attention to our plight. That is why this Conference is held, to discuss ways and means of arousing the conscience of white Australians, who have us in their power but have hitherto refused to help us.*

Address delivered by Jack Patten, the President of the Aborigines Progressive Association, on the Day of Mourning (26 January 1938)

## Check your learning

- 1 What rights were Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders denied at Federation because of their race?
- 2 What was the Day of Mourning?
- 3 What did Jack Patten call for in his Day of Mourning address?

# significant individual

## Jack Patten

Jack Patten was born on 28 March 1905 at Cummeragunja Mission in the Yorta Yorta Nation. As with many of his peers in the Aboriginal rights movement, Cummeragunja would remain an important place for Jack throughout his life.

After he attended high school in West Wyalong, New South Wales, he won a scholarship and tried to join the navy to continue his education. He was rejected because of his race. Jack then took on a number of labouring jobs and joined a boxing troupe that travelled around Australia. On these travels, and on subsequent journeys around Australia, he developed a very clear picture of the issues facing Aboriginal people.

Jack moved with his family to Salt Pan Creek, Sydney, in 1929. At this Depression-era camp he joined a group of dispossessed Aboriginal people who were already beginning to organise themselves into a political movement. Jack would speak about Aboriginal citizenship and equality on Sundays in the Domain and, in 1938, published the first Aboriginal newspaper, *The Australian Abo Call*.

Representing  
**80,000**  
Australian  
Aborigines

# The Australian ABO CALL

THE VOICE OF THE ABORIGINES

EDITED BY J. T. PATTEN

We ask for  
**Education,  
Opportunity,  
and  
Full Citizen  
Rights**

No. 1

MONTHLY, 3d.

APRIL, 1938.

## To all Aborigines!

"The Abo Call" is our own paper.  
It has been established to present the case for aborigines, from the point of view of the Aborigines themselves.  
This paper has nothing to do with missionaries, or anthropologists, or with anybody who looks down on Aborigines as an "inferior" race.  
We are NOT an inferior race, we have merely been refused the chance of education that whites receive. "The Abo Call" will show that we do not want to go back to the stone Age.  
Representing 60,000 Full Bloods and 20,000 Halfcastes in Australia, we raise our voice to ask for education, Equal Opportunity, and Full Citizen Rights.  
"The Abo Call" will be published once a month. Price 3d.  
The Editor asks all Aborigines and Halfcastes to support the paper, by buying it and also by acting as agents for sale to white friends and supporters.  
Please send postal note when ordering copies.  
Address all letters to:—  
J.T. Patten, "The Abo Call", Box 1924 KK,  
General Post Office, Sydney, N.S.W.

### OUR TEN POINTS

**Deputation to the Prime Minister**

The following is a full copy of the statement made to the prime Minister at the Deputation of the Aborigines on 31st January last.

The Prime Minister was accompanied by Dame Eild Lyons and by Mr. McEwan, Minister of the Interior.

The Deputation consisted of twenty Aborigines, men and women, and Mr. Lyons gave a hearing of two hours to the statement of our case.

Please read these "ten points" carefully, as this is the only official statement of our aims and objects that has yet been made.

TO THE RIGHT HON. THE PRIME MINISTER OF AUSTRALIA,  
MR. J.A. LYONS, P.C., C.H., M.H.R.,  
Sic.

In respectfully placing before you the following POLICY FOR ABORIGINES. We wish to state that this policy has been endorsed by a Conference of Aborigines, held in Sydney on 30th January of this year. This policy is the only policy which has the support of the Aborigines themselves.

**URGENT INTERIM POLICY**

Before placing before you a long-range policy for Aborigines, and while the long-range policy is under consideration, we ask as a matter of urgency:

That the Commonwealth Government should make a special financial grant to each of the State Governments, in proportion to the number of Aborigines in each state, to supplement existing grants for Aborigines. We ask that such aid should be applied to increasing the rations and improving the housing conditions of Aborigines at present under State control. We beg that this matter be treated urgently as our people are being starved to death.

The following ten points embraces a LONG RANGE POLICY FOR ABORIGINES, endorsed by our Association.

**1.** - We respectfully request that there should be a National Policy for Aborigines. We advocate Commonwealth Government control of all Aboriginal affairs.

**2.** - We suggest the appointment of a Commonwealth Ministry for Aboriginal Affairs, the Minister to have full Cabinet rank.

**3.** - We suggest the appointment of an Administrative Head of the proposed Department of Aboriginal Affairs, the Administrator to be advised by an Advisory Board, consisting of six persons, three of whom at least should be of Aboriginal blood, to be nominated by the Aborigines Progressive Association.

**4.** - The aim of the Department of Aboriginal Affairs should be to raise all Aborigines throughout the Commonwealth to Full Citizen Status and civil equality with the whites in Australia. In particular, and without delay, all Aborigines should be entitled:

- To receive the same educational opportunities as white people.
- To receive the benefits of labour legislation, including Arbitration Court Awards, on an equality with white workers.
- To receive the full benefits of workers' compensation and insurance.
- To receive the benefits of old-age and invalid pensions, whether living in Aboriginal settlements or not.
- To own land and property, and to be allowed to save money in personal banking accounts, and to come under the same laws regarding intestacy and transmission of property as the white population.
- To receive wages in cash, and not by orders, issue of rations, or apprenticeship systems.

**5.** - We recommend that Aborigines and Halfcastes should come under the same marriage laws as white people, and should be free to marry partners of their choice, irrespective of colour.



Photo by courtesy "Max" Magazine

**AT THE CONFERENCE OF 26th JANUARY.**

T. Foster (La Perouse), J. Kitchela (Coonabarabran), W. Cooper (Melbourne), D. Nichols (Melbourne), J. T. Patten (La Perouse), W. Ferguson (Dubbo).

**6.** - We recommend that Aborigines should be entitled to the same privileges regarding housing as are white workers.

**7.** - We recommend that a special policy of Land Settlement for Aborigines should be put into operation, whereby Aborigines who desire to settle on the land should be given the same encouragement as that given to Immigrants or Soldier Settlers, with expert tuition in agriculture, and financial assistance to enable such settlers to become ultimately self-supporting.

**8.** - In regard to uncivilised and semi-civilised Aborigines, we suggest that patrol officers, nurses and teachers, both men and women, of Aboriginal blood, should be specially trained by the Commonwealth Government as Aboriginal Officers, to bring the wild people into contact with civilisation.

**9.** - We recommend that all Aboriginal and Halfcaste women should be entitled to maternity and free hospital treatment during confinement, and that there should be no discrimination against Aboriginal women, who should be entitled to clinical instruction on baby welfare, similar to that given to white women.

**10.** - While opposing a policy of segregation, we urge that, during a period of transition, the present Aboriginal Reserves should be retained as a sanctuary for aged or incompetent Aborigines who may be unable to take their place in the white community, owing to the past policy of neglect.

**EASTER MEETING**

A general meeting of Aborigines will be held at La Perouse Reserve on Easter Sunday (17th April).

The main purpose of the meeting is to adopt a Constitution and Rules for the Aborigines Progressive Association, also election of officers.

Please make a big effort to attend this important meeting, which will put our fight for Citizen Rights on a proper legal footing.

**SELECT COMMITTEE**

The Select Committee upon the Administration of the Aborigines Protection Board (New South Wales) took a lot of evidence, and then dissolved without making a report.

The Select Committee was a farce, as most of the evidence concerned the dismissal of Manager Brain from Brewarrina, and there was no time to present full evidence about the conditions of the 10,000 Aborigines and Halfcastes of New South Wales.

Parliament was more worried about one white man than about ten thousand blacks.

We call for a Royal Commission to investigate Aboriginal Administration in N.S.W.

We have a big lot of evidence, some of which will be published in "The Abo Call" in future numbers.

**MR. BRUNXNER'S PROMISE**

In his policy speech in the N.S.W. Elections, the leader of the Country Party, Mr. M. F. Brunxner, promised "a new deal for Aborigines."

This is the same Mr. Brunxner who said to the Millions Club, Sydney, a few months ago, that "Jacky-Jacky is not a good advertisement for Australia."

In Mr. Brunxner's own electorate, near Tabulam, N.S.W., the Aborigines are living in dreadful conditions, which are a very bad advertisement for Mr. Brunxner.

We hope that his "New Deal" will be a better deal than we have had for the past 150 years.

**PACKSADDLE**

Our friends in Darwin inform us that a white man also was charged with rape at the same time as Packsaddle, but no mention was made of this in either Darwin or Sydney papers.

**"THE ABO CALL"**

Send us your order for a dozen copies of "The Abo Call" and give or sell them to friends and supporters.

Price to agents  
2/- per dozen  
post free

Send cash with order to:  
"The Abo Call",  
Box 1924 KK,  
G.P.O., Sydney.

Source 3.19 The front cover of the newspaper *The Australian Abo Call—The Voice of the Aborigines*

142 oxford big ideas history 10: australian curriculum

With his political partner, William Ferguson, Jack founded the Aborigines Progressive Association in 1937, and worked with the Australian Aborigines League to coordinate the first Aboriginal Day of Mourning in Sydney on 26 January 1938. Five days later, Jack and the other Aboriginal leaders met with Prime Minister Joseph Lyons and presented their 10-point plan for citizens' rights.

In 1939, Jack heeded the call to support his relatives at Cummeragunja in their struggle against management. Jack and his brother, George, were arrested for inciting the Aborigines to leave the reserve. He was then labelled as a Nazi agent by the Sydney press. Released from jail, Jack won another long battle as he convinced the government to overturn a ban preventing Aborigines from enlisting in the armed forces. Until then, Aborigines needed to lie about their aboriginality to be accepted. Jack was finally able to enlist, and served in the Middle East with the 6th Division. He was wounded in 1942, and retired from active service. He returned to work in Northern Australia, helping construct infrastructure as part of the effort to protect the area from invasion.

After the war, when Jack was clearing land where his family had settled in Northern New South Wales, six of his own children were taken from him by the Aboriginal Protection Board. Jack was unable to secure the release of his five daughters, who were trained as domestic servants in Cootamundra, but he was able to find and release his son, John. Together they fled back to Cummeragunja.

Suffering depression from his war experience, Jack left his family and lived by doing labouring jobs in Melbourne. He continued to be a powerful advocate for Indigenous issues, and spoke out against British atomic weapons testing at Maralinga in South Australia.

Jack was killed in a motor accident in Fitzroy in 1957. Unlike many of his contemporaries, he was not returned to a final resting place at Cummeragunja. He was buried at Fawkner Cemetery in an unmarked grave. That grave remains in much the same condition, today.

## Check your learning

- 1 Which nation did Jack Patten belong to?
- 2 Why could Jack not join the Australian Navy?
- 3 What was the first Aboriginal newspaper in Australia called?
- 4 What happened to Jack's children?
- 5 What was Jack Patten's main contribution to the Indigenous civil rights movement?



Source 3.20 Jack Patten (right) at the Day of Mourning meeting in Sydney, 1938

## Indigenous achievements

Despite the discrimination and control that pervaded most aspects of their lives, Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders participated in inter-war society in many ways. They were employed in cattle stations and on other farms, and in other industries including fishing and timber milling. In between the wars, Aboriginal people also began to excel in public spaces. Doug Nichols, from the Cummeragunja reserve in southern New South Wales, played VFL football for Carlton and Fitzroy and was eventually selected to play for Victoria in State of Origin football. Aboriginal artist Albert Namatjira (see Source 3.22), an Arrernte man living at the Hermannsburg Mission in southern central Northern Territory, held his first exhibition of European-style paintings in Melbourne in 1938. Over the next decade he sold hundreds of paintings (see Source 3.21).



Source 3.21 Painting by Albert Namatjira, *Blue Haze over James Range*



Source 3.22 Albert Namatjira

In Queensland, Indigenous cricketer Eddie Gilbert had been taken from his home as a three-year-old. He grew up on the Barambah Aboriginal Reserve, north of Brisbane, where he learnt to play cricket. With a flexible wrist, he was able to generate a fearsome pace (see source 3.23). He dismissed Don Bradman for a duck in a Sheffield Shield game in 1931. Bradman later described the balls he faced from Gilbert as the quickest of his career.

Living on a reserve, Gilbert had to receive written permission to leave every time he had to play first-class cricket. He ended up playing 23 first-class matches for Queensland, but was never selected for Australia. The one occasion there were calls for his inclusion was when Australia was being defeated by England during the 'Bodyline' series of 1932–1933. Gilbert received belated recognition in 2008 when a statue commemorating him was unveiled at Brisbane's Allan Border Field.

Another key contribution by Aboriginal people was in war. In both world wars, Aboriginal men were active servicemen. This was in spite of the fact that in World War I, Aboriginal men were barred from enlisting until 1917, from which point part-Aboriginals were accepted. At least 500 still managed to serve.

In 1940, after the outbreak of war in Europe and the Pacific, William Cooper, an Aboriginal Rights activist who had lost a son in World War I, wrote to the prime minister urging him to introduce citizenship rights for Aboriginal people. To Cooper, this was a pragmatic request that would support the war effort.

Cooper's attempt was not successful; however, Jack Patten, another activist, successfully lobbied for Aboriginal enlistments and the Commonwealth Electoral (Wartime) Act of 1940 even gave Aboriginal servicemen a vote—but only until six months after hostilities had finished.



Source 3.23 Aboriginal cricketer Eddie Gilbert

## significance: the Cummeragunja mission—birthplace of a movement?

Cummeragunja Aboriginal Station was established in 1881 on the New South Wales side of the Murray River on 1800 acres of land not far from the Maloga Mission, where many of the original inhabitants came from. It was in the heart of the Yorta Yorta Nation, not far from Corowa where colonial leaders would meet 12 years later to plan for a 'new' Australian Commonwealth. Originally, the Aboriginal residents managed Cummeragunja Station with little interference from the government. It was a productive farm and was home to many Aboriginal families when neighbouring Maloga Mission closed down some years later.

For a time, the school at Cummeragunja Station allowed Aboriginal children to continue studying well beyond the legislated three years. The outcome of this was that in the early part of the century, a number of future Aboriginal leaders acquired knowledge and skills that would later support their efforts to bring greater rights and freedoms to their people. Jack Patten (see 'significant individual') attended primary school there, Doug Nicholls attended the school until he turned 14, and William Cooper was one of many leaders to take advantage of adult literacy classes.

William Cooper, who had spent most of his life fighting for justice for the Yorta Yorta people from his home at Cummeragunja, eventually left in 1933. He moved to Footscray in Melbourne at 72 in order to qualify for the aged pension. From his new home in Footscray, he banded with many other Cummeragunja exiles—forming the Australian Aborigines League. Exiles who joined this league included Doug Nicholls, Margaret Tucker and Shadrach James, who had been one of the schoolteachers at Cummeragunja decades before.

In 1939, Cummeragunja was again the focus of the national Aboriginal Rights movement as more than 200 Aboriginal people walked off the mission and crossed the river to Victoria to protest against poor treatment and conditions. This was the first ever mass strike of Aboriginal people in Australia.



Source 3.24 William Cooper and his family in 1936. His cousin, Margaret Tucker, is standing next to him.

While Aboriginal people were not included in the Census until the 1960s, evidence of a demographic 'improvement' began to emerge in the second half of the 20th century. In 1900, the recorded population of Aboriginal Australians was 93 000. In 1930, estimates put the number at around 60 000. By 2006, the Census count was 517 200. Contrary to the expectations of a century before, Aboriginal people were not a dying race, and represented a significant minority of Australia's population.

### Check your learning

- 1 What did Doug Nicholls achieve?
- 2 What is significant about Albert Namatjira's career?
- 3 What barriers did Eddie Gilbert face as an Aboriginal cricketer?

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

### Remember

- 1 Which institution introduced the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?
- 2 How did many Indigenous Australians refer to the sesquicentenary?
- 3 Where did Jack Patten's family come from?
- 4 Who was responsible for allowing Indigenous Australians to enlist in the armed forces?

### Understand

- 5 Did Federation change the way Aboriginal people were governed?
- 6 What evidence is there that there was racial discrimination in Australia during the first half of the 20th century?
- 7 Would Eddie Gilbert be picked to play cricket for Australia today?
- 8 What role did 'Doc' Evatt play in the creation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

### Apply

- 9 Use your school library, local library or the Internet to collect information and recollections from members of the Stolen Generations. You should present these stories in a folder for the class to read, share and discuss.

### Analyse

- 10 What evidence is there to support Senator Alexander Matheson's suggestion (see Source 3.8) that, 'we have taken this country from the blacks, and made it a white man's country'?
- 11 Research the *Bringing Them Home* report. What do you think its contribution to Australian history is?

### Evaluate

- 12 Do Senator Alexander Matheson's comments support the need for the creation of a Universal Declaration of Human Rights?
- 13 Were Indigenous Australians right to protest on 26 January 1938?
- 14 Do the examples of Doug Nicholls, Albert Namatjira and Eddie Gilbert indicate that Australia has missed out on identifying significant talent because of government policies?
- 15 What do you believe was the greatest impact that the European settlers had on Aborigines? Could this impact have been lessened had the policy of *terra nullius* not been applied by the British government when they decided to colonise Australia? Explain.
- 16 Complete the table below in your notebook. In the first column, list the ways in which the lives of Aborigines were controlled in the 1930s and 1940s. Then, in the second column, list examples of how Aborigines responded to, or resisted, these controls. Finally, in the third column, evaluate how successful you feel these responses were for the lives of Aborigines.

Controls on Aborigines	Response to/ resistance from Aborigines	How successful was the response?

### Create

- 17 Create an entry for Jack Patten in a 'Biography of Great Australians'. Think about his achievements that you want to draw attention to.
- 18 Develop a digital folio that explains life and opportunities for Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders in Australia in the first half of the 20th century.



Source 3.25 An Aboriginal march on Canberra, 2008

## 3.2 How have Indigenous peoples in Australia achieved change and what were some of the significant events that influenced this change?

*The Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 focused attention on the civil rights of groups around the world. In the United States, the civil rights movement became influential, as strong personalities, such as Martin Luther King, and unexpected heroes, such as Rosa Parks, emerged as leaders. In 1961, when civil rights activists travelled through the American south in buses, they inspired similarly disadvantaged groups around the world.*

The **Freedom Riders** in the USA challenged segregation and in 1965, a group of Australian activists started their own version. They travelled through northern New South Wales and encountered **segregation**, discrimination and blatant racism. Their actions highlighted conditions for many Indigenous Australians, and helped pave the way for the widespread acceptance of the 1967 **Referendum**.

Civil rights in Australia were linked to land rights for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. Many had lost their links to traditional lands and they turned to the courts for recognition. In 1992, the High Court of Australia recognised that Indigenous rights to land had not been extinguished by European **colonisation**. Named after the Murray Island man who took the case to court, Eddie Mabo, the Mabo case became a landmark in Australian legal history.

The *Bringing Them Home* report on the Stolen Generations also focused attention on Australian history. It forced people to, at last, recognise the personal and cultural destruction that had occurred in many Indigenous communities.

## The American experience

During World War II, considerable numbers of African Americans left the former slave-owning states in the south to work in war industries in California, Michigan, Pennsylvania and other states that offered a better quality of life and more equality. After the war, in 1948, segregation in the US army was officially abolished. Many African-American men had served in the war and many had died for their country. It was felt that they could no longer be denied their rightful place in their country.

In the southern states, segregation of the races had been legally enforced after the American Civil War. Following the action taken in the US army, the US Supreme Court began to rule against segregation generally. In 1954, the Supreme Court ruled that segregation in US schools was unconstitutional. This was the famous *Brown vs the Board of Education* ruling. Although the Supreme Court found that segregation in schools was illegal, state governments, particularly in the south, continued to resist federal intervention.

### The case of Emmett Till

In August 1955, a 14-year-old African-American boy called Emmett Till was murdered near the town of Money in Mississippi. He had been brutally beaten and shot, and his body dumped in the Tallahatchie River, after allegedly insulting a white woman. His mother had his body displayed in his home city of Chicago in an open casket. She wanted the world to see the brutality of his murder. The white men accused of his murder were acquitted in a case conducted before an all-white jury in Mississippi.

The two men charged with the murder later admitted it in a magazine interview, knowing they could not be tried twice for the same crime. The death of Emmett Till became a major turning point for the civil rights movement. The 1957 Civil Rights Act came from the momentum generated by the Emmett Till case. The Act aimed to ensure that all African Americans could exercise their right to vote, as well as ongoing monitoring of civil rights abuses and a report on race relations.

The Emmett Till case became symbolic for the civil rights movement. Authors used the case in books challenging racism and, in 1962, Bob Dylan recorded a song called *The Death of Emmett Till*. Till's death was a tragedy that inspired thousands to change American society.



Source 3.26 A separate waiting area for African Americans at a bus station in the USA



Source 3.27 Emmett Till's mother at his funeral

## Bus boycotts and desegregation

At roughly the same time, African Americans began to assert their demands for equality. In 1955, Rosa Parks was arrested after refusing to give up her seat, at the front of a bus in Montgomery, Alabama, to a white passenger. The arrest resulted in a boycott by African-American passengers of the Montgomery bus service, beginning in December 1955. One year later, the boycott was ended when the city of Montgomery was ordered by the US Supreme Court to stop segregating its bus services. This victory inspired further efforts at desegregation.

Nine African-American students tried to enrol in the all-white Little Rock Central High School, Arkansas, in 1957. Despite the 1954 Supreme Court ruling, the Arkansas governor used the Arkansas National Guard to prevent them from entering the school. The nine students also had to face a white crowd threatening to lynch them. President Dwight Eisenhower intervened, sending in the US Army to allow the African-American students to attend the high school the law said they were entitled to attend (see Source 3.29).

President John F Kennedy's inaugural address in 1961 inspired many African Americans. Among these was Mississippi student James Meredith who exercised his democratic right by attempting to enrol in the Oxford Campus of the University of Mississippi. This action prompted riots at the campus and threats from the **Ku Klux Klan**. Eventually, President Kennedy was forced to bring in the US Marshals and the Mississippi National Guard to control the crowd. Two people were killed and hundreds of soldiers and protesters were injured. James Meredith's enrolment was eventually accepted.



**Source 3.28** Rosa Parks became an icon of the US civil rights movement.

**Source 3.29** The Little Rock Nine entering Little Rock Central High School with the US Army



## The Freedom Riders

The US Freedom Riders were a group of activists who wanted to test the impact of the US Supreme Court's 1960 decision to end racial discrimination on public transport. The first group of Freedom Riders (seven African Americans and six white Americans) boarded public buses from Washington to the southern states of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana. The riders' strategy was a simple one. They would sit side by side, black and white, and at least one black rider would sit in the front section, previously reserved for 'white' passengers. They ate in restaurants together and ignored segregation signs when using toilets and drinking fountains.

The Freedom Riders' journeys were interrupted by frequent mob attacks—usually organised by the Ku Klux Klan—and arrests by southern law enforcement officers on various charges. Once in jail, the Riders would sing freedom songs as a continued protest and, in some cases, were released simply because the police could not stand the singing. When the county jails were full, a number of Freedom Riders were transferred to the Mississippi State Penitentiary; put into maximum-security units and denied many basic rights.

The Riders also faced difficulty seeking medical treatment after their frequent beatings by the mobs and law enforcement officers. This racist brutality was one of the reasons that many other Freedom Riders joined the campaign over the course of the summer of 1961. After pressure from Dr Martin Luther King and other leading activists, Attorney General Robert Kennedy intervened. In September 1961, he insisted that states comply with federal desegregation laws.

These victories resulted largely from the courage of ordinary US citizens, brave enough to participate in the civil rights struggle. They also 'created' leaders like Martin Luther King, who became the acknowledged leader of the American civil rights movement. In 1963, he led the March on Washington, attended by 250 000 people, demanding an end to segregation. King redefined the rights movement. While the US Supreme Court had delivered a legal plan for desegregation, King's 'I have a dream' speech, at the March on Washington, was a moral plan for change.

After President Kennedy's assassination in November 1963, President Lyndon Johnson accepted the challenge that Martin Luther King's success had created. On 2 July 1964, the US Congress enacted the Civil Rights Act that outlawed discrimination based on race or gender. It was landmark legislation, but the challenge of changing racist attitudes still remained.



**Source 3.30** Freedom Riders sitting on board an interstate bus escorted by Mississippi National Guardsmen (a reserve military force of the US army)

## Check your learning

- 1 What was the *Brown vs Board of Education* case?
- 2 What happened to Emmett Till?
- 3 Where did the US Army get called in to help African-American students attend an all-white high school?
- 4 Why did the American Freedom Rides take place?
- 5 When was the Civil Rights Act passed by US Congress?

## significant individual

# Martin Luther King

Martin Luther King Jr was born in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1929. As a student he engaged in civil rights debates and followed the peaceful resistance methods of Mahatma Gandhi with interest. By 1954, King was pastor of the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama.

After Rosa Parks was arrested for not giving up her bus seat to a white man, King became a leader of the Montgomery Bus Boycott, a significant and successful protest against segregation. King was arrested during this protest and his house was attacked. He used his success with the bus boycott to help establish the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, which became one of the most important groups of the growing civil rights movement.

King's book about the Montgomery Bus Boycott, *Stride toward Freedom*, gave direction to the civil rights movement. It inspired protests against segregation across the USA, including the sit-in at the Woolworths restaurant by black students and, more famously, the Freedom Rides. King also lobbied candidates for the 1960 presidential election and achieved significant political influence, despite many trying to accuse him of being a communist. The Director of the FBI, J Edgar Hoover, was particularly opposed to King, and used his influence to try and undermine him.

King's major impact was delivering his 'I have a dream' speech at the March on Washington rally on 28 August 1963. King was awarded the Nobel Peace prize for his work towards ending segregation in 1964, the same year that the US Congress passed the Civil Rights Act.



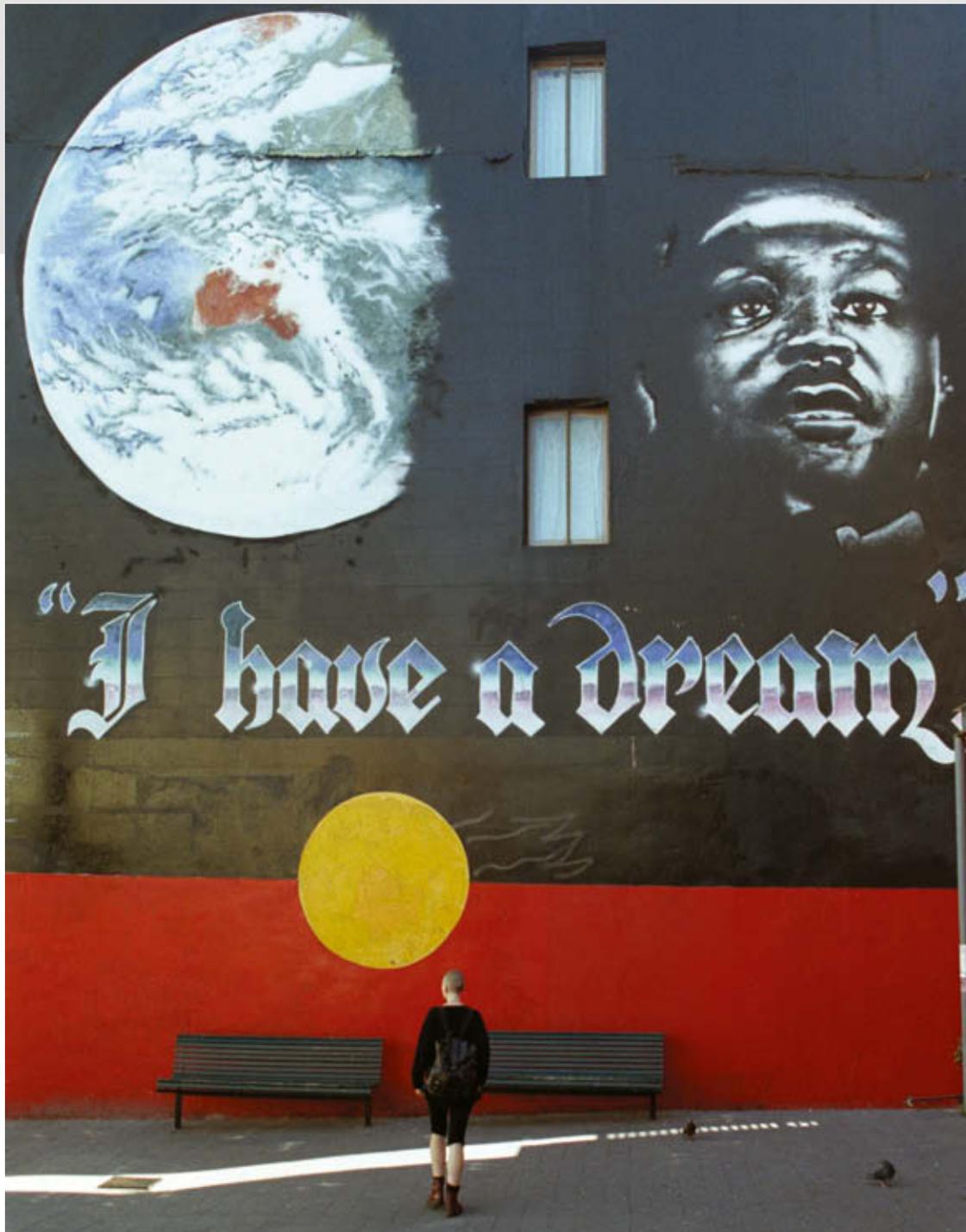
**Source 3.31** Dr Martin Luther King speaks at the March on Washington, 28 August 1963.

The Civil Rights Act was a turning point in race relations in the USA, but King felt there was still much to achieve. He worked to establish support among the poor African Americans in the north. Although equality may have been guaranteed by federal law, social and economic equality still had to be fought for. King also led opposition to the Vietnam War, arguing, 'we have been repeatedly faced with the cruel irony of watching Negro and white boys on TV screens as they kill and die together for a nation that has been unable to seat them in the same schools.'

King was campaigning for striking garbage workers in Memphis, Tennessee, when he was assassinated on 4 April 1968. The assassin was a white man, James Earl Ray, who was arrested in London two months later, on his way to white-dominated Rhodesia (now known as Zimbabwe). King was 39 years old, and President Johnson declared 7 April a national day of mourning.

After campaigning by activists, including singer Stevie Wonder, President Ronald Reagan created a public holiday for King in 1986. By 2000, every American state recognised the third Monday of January as Martin Luther King Day and a public holiday.

King's dream, as he explained in Washington in 1963, was that 'One day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal."' King's legacy of non-violent resistance became an ongoing inspiration, not only for the American civil rights movement, but also Australia's. King's reputation was international, and activists like Charles Perkins and the Australian Freedom Riders looked to him for inspiration.



**Source 3.32** A mural in Newtown, Sydney, shows King alongside the Aboriginal flag. He has influenced civil rights groups worldwide, including here in Australia.

## Check your learning

- 1 Why was Rosa Parks' action in refusing to give up her bus seat to a white person significant in Martin Luther King's career?
- 2 Who was the Director of the FBI that was so opposed to King?
- 3 Where did the famous 'I Have a Dream' speech take place?
- 4 Why was King in Memphis when he was assassinated?
- 5 What actions and beliefs of King would inspire Indigenous Australians and their supporters?
- 6 Why was King a significant figure in the US civil rights movement?
- 7 What is King remembered for today?

## Australia's Aboriginal rights movement

Australia's Aboriginal rights leaders in the 1960s inherited a movement that had evolved from the Day of Mourning activities a generation before. The success of the US civil rights movement also inspired many Australians to seek greater equality for Aborigines.

By the 1960s, Aborigines had a life expectancy almost 20 years less than other Australians. In 1959, the government agreed to provide welfare to Aborigines under the Social Services Act, though it was to be paid to a third party. In 1962, all Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders were given the right to vote in federal elections. In 1968, they achieved equal pay with other Australians. This had some unintended consequences. Many Aboriginal workers had only been receiving half the minimum wage. In some areas, particularly the pastoral communities, some Aborigines were sacked because their bosses could not afford to pay their new wages.

Despite these legislation changes, racist attitudes towards Aborigines were still prominent in society. As in the United States, the small steps of some brave individuals created a momentum for genuine change.

### The Wave Hill walk-off

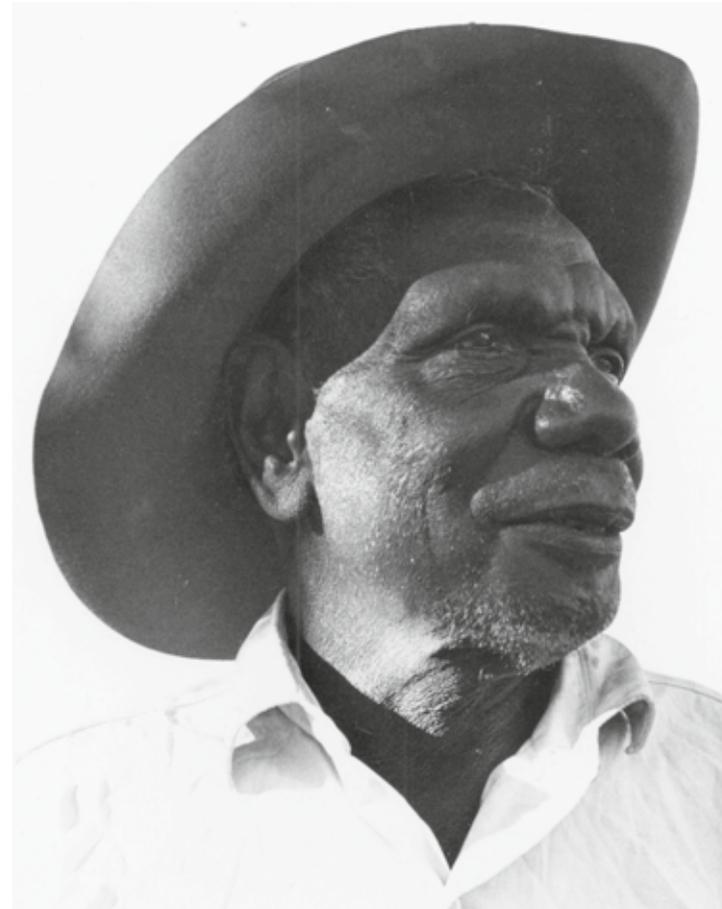
Arguably, one of the most significant turning points in the struggle for Indigenous rights was the Wave Hill Station walk-off. The walk-off on 23 August 1966 was initially in response to the British Vestey Company's refusal to pay the Gurindji pastoral workers wages of \$25.00 per week. The Commonwealth had granted 'equal pay' to Aboriginal workers a year earlier, but there was little evidence that companies were complying, and the Wave Hill workers chose to take a stand.

The walk-off highlighted the entrenched discrimination that existed in Australian society. But it also brought attention to the issue that would become central to Aboriginal claims for the next two generations—land rights.

Vincent Lingiari, who entered public life dramatically when he led the Gurindji people in the walk-off, quickly ensured that this protest had a more fundamental goal—returning traditional lands. Lingiari and other Gurindji leaders petitioned the Governor-General in 1967, arguing that morally the land was theirs and should be returned to them. This claim was refused by the Governor-General.

### The Gurindji Blues

In 1971, a very rare record, written by white folk artist Ted Egan, called *The Gurindji Blues*, was released. The fact that it received little radio play reflected the general racial attitudes of the time. Certainly, it continued the battle for recognition of the rights of the Gurindji. It featured Galarrwuy Yunupingu and is introduced by Vincent Lingiari speaking. Today, it is primary source material, particularly hearing the voice of Vincent Lingiari.



Source 3.33 Vincent Lingiari



Source 3.34 Lingiari and Gough Whitlam, 1975

The walk-off finally ended in 1973, and in 1975 one of the decisive moments in Indigenous Australian history took place. Prime Minister Gough Whitlam symbolically poured earth into Vincent Lingiari's hand as he handed over 3300 square kilometres of land to the Gurindji people (see Source 3.34). The *Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976* (NT) granted the Gurindji and other Aboriginal tribes in the Northern Territory title to some of their traditional land. For the first time, a specific group of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples had recognition of their connection to their land.

The story of the Wave Hill struggle has become a part of Australian popular culture. Indigenous singer Kev Carmody and white singer Paul Kelly wrote the song *From Little Things Big Things Grow* as a tribute to the pioneering campaign of Vincent Lingiari.



**Source 3.35**  
Charles Perkins as a Commonwealth Public Servant in 1974

## The Australian Freedom Rides

The Australian Freedom Riders who toured regional New South Wales in early 1965 had a similar agenda to their American Freedom Ride comrades. The tour began as a fact-finding mission by a group officially known as Student Action for Aborigines, and ended as a genuine protest against segregation across Australia. The students were mostly non-Aboriginal and had been involved in organised protest in Sydney. Many of them probably did not know what to expect.

The Freedom Riders were led by Charles Perkins (see Source 3.35), who became the first Aborigine to graduate from an Australian university when he received a Bachelor of Arts from the University of Sydney in 1965. A former professional soccer player with a charismatic personality, Perkins modelled the Australian Freedom Rides on the 1961 American Freedom Riders. He took a bus into parts of rural New South Wales where racist attitudes were most prominent. They left Sydney on 12 February 1965 and headed initially for Wellington and Gulargambone (see Source 3.36).



**Source 3.36** The route taken by the Australian Freedom Riders

## Walgett and Moree

In Walgett, Aborigines were banned from entering the town's Returned Services League (RSL) Club. This 'home' of the Anzac spirit was a symbolic target for the Freedom Riders who protested outside the club (see Source 3.37). Their actions angered some in the town and, in response, their bus was run off the road as they left.

In Moree, Aborigines were banned from swimming in the council swimming pool. They staged protests at the Town Hall and the local swimming pool—ensuring that Aboriginal children could enter the swimming pool alongside their non-Aboriginal peers. By this stage, the Freedom Riders were being followed closely by journalists (including television reporters), and as a result their protests were known about countrywide. Again, the Freedom Riders were attacked by up to 500 locals and were forced to leave town.

While the Australian Freedom Rides did not stop these racist actions, they highlighted the practice to millions of urban Australians who were not aware of these common practices in Australian country towns. The media coverage they attracted helped develop a movement for further change. As Australians moved towards a referendum to include Aboriginal people in the Census and enable the Commonwealth to deliver direct services to Aboriginal people, the media played an important role in the Indigenous rights campaign.



Source 3.37 Freedom Riders protesting outside the RSL Club in Walgett

## 1967 Referendum

In 1967, the Liberal government of Harold Holt had rejected the land rights claim of the Gurindji people at Wave Hill in the Northern Territory. Recognising that there were inequalities to address, however, Holt called a referendum seeking authority to count Aborigines in the Australian Census that same year. It would also allow the federal government to legislate for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

All major political parties supported the proposals. The referendum was the most successful ever passed, with over 90 per cent of Australians agreeing to the proposal (see Source 3.39). However, the 'Yes' vote was closer to 80 per cent in Western Australia and far lower in some rural areas. In Australian political history, this was an extraordinary result. Between 1901 and 2011 there have been 44 referendums, of which only eight have been carried.

As in all referendums, campaigns were organised and leaders mobilised to explain the reasons for and against change (see Source 3.38). By 1967, 87 per cent of households owned a television, so in addition to the traditional poster and newspaper campaigns of previous referendums, voters could actually watch the debate take place on their televisions.

During the lead-up to the referendum, both major political parties publicly endorsed the ‘Yes’ case and the Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI) arranged a number of public actions in Canberra and the capital cities to promote the cause. The churches were also big supporters.

One of the main issues of contention was the confusion that was created by having different state laws. Indigenous Australians, who regarded themselves as acting legally in New South Wales, might be arrested for doing the same thing in Queensland. Others voted ‘Yes’ because there was a view that resources for Aboriginal people, including welfare, would be more readily available if delivered by the Commonwealth. A more conservative argument related to the inclusion of Aboriginal people in the Census—people simply thought it was fair that Aboriginal people be counted as human beings in the Commonwealth of Australia.

Contrary to popular belief, this referendum did not ‘give Aborigines the vote’. That had been granted by an Act of Parliament in 1962. However, an interesting twist to the events of 1967 was that Indigenous Australians in the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory were not franchised to vote in referendums until after the 1967 vote. Between 8000 and 10000 Aboriginal people voted in the referendum.

Many Indigenous leaders today question the success of the referendum in changing attitudes. Mick Dodson, an Indigenous leader and member of the Yawuru people of north-west Australia, expressed concerns that when native title was being debated in Federal Parliament in the late 1990s, few Aboriginal leaders were even consulted—even after 30 years of public land rights campaigns.



**Source 3.38**  
Campaigning for ‘Yes’ in the 1967 Referendum

### Check your learning

- 1 On which Indigenous peoples’ land was the Wave Hill Station?
- 2 Which prime minister gave the land to its Indigenous inhabitants?
- 3 Who led the Australian Freedom Rides?
- 4 What were the two New South Wales towns where the Freedom Riders met white protests?
- 5 What did the 1967 Referendum achieve?

**Source 3.39** 1967 Referendum results by state

State	Yes		No		Informal
	votes	%	votes	%	
New South Wales	1 949 036	91.46%	182 010	8.54%	3461
Victoria	1 525 026	94.68%	85 611	5.32%	19 957
Queensland	748 612	89.21%	85 611	10.79%	9529
South Australia	473 440	86.26%	75 383	13.74%	12 021
Western Australia	319 823	80.95%	75 282	19.05%	10 561
Tasmania	167 176	90.21%	18 134	9.79%	3935
<b>Total for Commonwealth</b>	<b>5 183 113</b>	<b>90.77%</b>	<b>527 007</b>	<b>9.23%</b>	<b>91 464</b>

## Land rights—a continuing struggle

The issue of land rights has a substantial history in Australia. In the 19th century, the expansion of the ‘frontiers’ continued almost without restriction. The concept of *terra nullius* established at the settlement of Australia, and reinforced by the declaration of Governor Bourke in 1835, ensured that there would be no recognition of Aboriginal rights to land. The pastoralists leased large amounts of land, including traditional Aboriginal land, from the Crown. White occupation of the land equated to ownership.

However, there is some evidence that this equation was challenged from time to time. From the 1840s onwards, the British Colonial Office wanted the Australian colonies to give formal recognition to native title and to grant rights for Aborigines to share pastoral lands. Pastoralists and their allies rejected this. In the 1870s, Indigenous groups in parts of New South Wales petitioned for their right to own farming land.

The challenges that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples faced were immense. The 1970s offered some hope for activists. The Whitlam Government, elected in 1972, announced self-determination as the framework for Aboriginal Affairs policy and a temporary cessation of mining application licences on Commonwealth Aboriginal Reserves. In 1976, after Gough Whitlam had left office, the Fraser Government passed the Aboriginal Land Rights Act, which officially granted land title to the Gurindji and other tribes in the Northern Territory. This represented the beginning of a powerful shift in the rights movement.

While these power shifts provided some hope to Aboriginal people, Indigenous leaders knew how far they still had to go. State governments continued to negotiate directly with mining companies to grant leases. The civil rights movement and land rights campaigns of the 1960s and 1970s laid the basis for great change, but many issues remained unresolved.

### Tent Embassy

An Aboriginal Tent Embassy was established on the lawn in front of the Australian parliament in 1972 (see Source 3.40), before Whitlam’s election, where it has remained in order to keep the issue of Aboriginal rights in the public eye.

The embassy was erected in response to the slow process of land rights. The 1967 Referendum had delivered administrative responsibility for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples to the Commonwealth, but many felt that there still needed to be an acknowledgement of traditional ownership. In particular, radical ‘black’ groups, such as ‘Black Power’, considered militancy to be the next step. For a short time, an Australian branch of the Black Panthers (a militant activist group based in the United States) operated in Melbourne and Sydney.

Key figures of the embassy, including Roberta (Bobbi) Sykes, Gary Foley and Michael Anderson, established the Tent Embassy in the middle of the night on Australia Day in 1972. As well as highlighting significant symbolic goals, the embassy leaders had a list of practical demands that they wanted to negotiate. These included:

- legal and title rights to land currently being mined
- the preservation of all sacred sites
- compensation for lands not returnable—a six billion dollar down payment plus an annual percentage of gross national income.



Source 3.40 The Tent Embassy in 1972

The demands were rejected and the police removed the tents and arrested a number of activists.

Over the next five years, the embassy was erected, demolished and re-erected several times until Charles Perkins negotiated its temporary removal on the promise of action on land rights. In that time, a number of commitments by the Commonwealth led many to believe that progress was being made. Whitlam established a significant bureaucracy to support Aboriginal welfare and land rights claims and Fraser passed the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976*.

The Tent Embassy was re-established on the grounds of Old Parliament House in 1992, where it continues to remind the nation of the ongoing issues relating to reconciliation.



Source 3.41 The Tent Embassy was re-established in 1992 and remains there today.

focus on ..

### significance: the Aboriginal flag

In 1971, Aboriginal artist Harold Thomas designed the Aboriginal flag. The colours of the flag can be interpreted in different ways: the black could represent the Aboriginal people's colour or the night sky; the red can be seen as the red earth or as the blood that was shed when the Europeans arrived; the yellow is usually interpreted as representative of the sun.

The flag was flown when the Tent Embassy was set up in Canberra on 26 January 1972. The embassy sought to draw attention to Aboriginal wrongs and grievances. It did so successfully. One of its placards linked it to land rights, reading: 'White Australia you are living on stolen land.'



Source 3.42 The Aboriginal flag

### Check your learning

- 1 Who was prime minister when the Aboriginal Land Rights Act was introduced in 1976?
- 2 What are the three colours of the Aboriginal flag and what do these colours represent?
- 3 When was the Tent Embassy first established?

### Mabo

In June 1992, a group of Torres Strait Islander people who had been led by Eddie Mabo won a court case in the High Court of Australia. The judgement was that the Islanders had a right to their traditional land because they had been the original owners before European settlement. The Court ruled that **native title** may apply to all claims to land that had not been sold or given away; in other words, **Crown land**. The ruling stated that 'there may be other areas of Australia where an Aboriginal people maintaining their identity and their customs are entitled to enjoy their native title'.

In December 1993, the government passed the Native Title Act to place the Mabo decision in Australian law. The Native Title Act also addressed some concerns of non-Indigenous Australians who felt their ownership of property was threatened. It confirmed land ownership for those who had purchased property. It also declared that future native title claimants must prove that Indigenous people had an unbroken link with the land in question. The federal government established a National Native Title Tribunal and developed a research process that was necessary before a native title application could be made. This was done to reassure groups such as landowners and miners who feared that their titles or claims might be taken from them.

## significance: Eddie Mabo

Eddie Koiki Mabo was a Torres Strait Islander born in 1936 on Mer Island (known as Murray Island in the Torres Strait). His mother died shortly after his birth and he was adopted by his mother's brother, Benny Mabo, and his wife. There were none of the formal adoption processes used in most parts of Australia today.

Mabo learnt from a young age that he would inherit his father Benny's land and he knew exactly where the boundaries were by looking at land features, trees and rocks. After breaking Island law as a teenager, Eddie was exiled and it was many years before he returned to his land.

On the mainland, he worked on pearling boats and on the railways. He became involved in the trade union movement and began speaking out for Aboriginal people. A few years after marrying Bonita Neehow at 23, he secured a job as a gardener at James Cook University in Townsville, where he began to read and attend lectures.

When the 1981 Land Rights Conference was held at James Cook University, Eddie Mabo made an important speech about his ownership of land on Mer Island. He was immediately encouraged to test his ownership claims in the courts. When he told the people of Mer Island they were very supportive, and a ten-year legal battle began with Eddie as the leader. In particular, the Mer Islanders were challenging the legal concept of *terra nullius*.

The case was known as *Mabo vs Queensland* and, in the course of proceedings, officials of the Queensland Supreme Court visited Mer Island to clarify details of Mabo's claim. He was able to show the judges (and the media) exactly where his land started and finished.

The legal battle took a toll on Eddie Mabo's health. In 1991, he became ill and in January 1992, he died of cancer. The High Court of Australia ruled in favour of Mabo five months later. His name has become linked with the most important judgement for Indigenous Australians in the 20th century. When his body was reburied on Mer Island after his grave in Townsville had been vandalised, he was given a chief's ceremony, which had not been seen in the islands for 80 years.



Source 3.43 Eddie Mabo on Mer Island



Source 3.44 Mabo decision—High Court celebrations

## Wik

In 1996, the question of native title on pastoral leases was raised and investigated in the High Court of Australia in the Wik case. Pastoral leases are unique to Australia as they allow publicly owned land to be used by farmers and graziers but do not grant them sole tenure. As these leases account for 42 per cent of the Australian land mass, it was a major issue in the land rights campaigns.

The Wik people of Cape York argued in court that native title could exist alongside a current or defunct pastoral lease. The court agreed but stressed that where pastoralists' rights and Indigenous rights were in conflict, the rights of the pastoralist would prevail. The court pointed out that pastoralists had the exclusive right to pasture but not exclusive rights to the possession of land.

Because of criticism and concern expressed by pastoralists and conservative leaders, the Howard Government introduced a Native Title Amendment Bill in 1997. This legislation effectively extinguished native title, not only on pastoral land but also on most other Crown land. The United Nations Committee for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination demanded that Australia explain its stance. Australia was the first Western nation to have to explain its human rights position to this UN committee.

## Check your learning

- 1 Where was Eddie Mabo's traditional land?
- 2 What was the Mabo decision?
- 3 Who made the Mabo decision?
- 4 What was the High Court's ruling in the Wik case?

### significance: Lowitja O'Donoghue

focus on ...

Lowitja O'Donoghue, who was born in 1932, was taken away from her mother at the age of two and did not see her again for 33 years. She never knew her father, who was white and of Irish descent. O'Donoghue grew up away from her community in Indulkana, South Australia (Granite Downs Station). She struggled to become a nurse after winning admission to the nursing school at the Royal Adelaide Hospital, where she was the first Indigenous Australian to qualify as a nurse. She worked as a public servant in Aboriginal Affairs, first in South Australia and then for the Commonwealth. Since that time, she has been involved in various senior positions, gaining a voice for the Indigenous people of Australia. She was the founding Chairperson of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission and Co-Chairperson of the Australian Citizen's Parliament.

For her work, she was awarded an Order of Australia in 1976, when she became the first Indigenous woman to receive this award. She became a Commander of the Order of the British Empire in 1983. In 1984, she was named Australian of the Year. In 1992, at the launch of the United Nations International Year of Indigenous People, O'Donoghue was the first Australian Aboriginal person to address the UN General Assembly. Since then, she has been further honoured by awards of the Companion of the Order of Australia in 1999 and the Papal Award (Dame of the Order of St Gregory) in 2005. Prime Minister Kevin Rudd stood with Lowitja beside him as he made the nation's apology on Sorry Day, 13 February 2008.



Source 3.45 Lowitja O'Donoghue

## Towards reconciliation

**Reconciliation** is best understood as a continuing process and not a single event. It describes the way that Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians can come together and share common objectives as Australians. The acceptance of the 1967 Referendum, a bipartisan commitment to land rights in the mid 1970s and the passage of the Land Rights Act in 1976 saw the Gurundji people achieve land recognition. These were seen as steps towards genuine reconciliation.

These small successes paved the way for more organised and consistent efforts to acknowledge the wrongs committed by governments and individuals against Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the past.

## ATSIC and Indigenous rights movements

The Hawke Labor Government established the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) in March 1990. ATSIC was an elected body selected by Indigenous Australians. It was seen as a body through which the Indigenous peoples could be formally involved in government processes. It was also seen as a first step towards Aboriginal self-determination.

ATSIC was to have both representative and executive roles, with 35 regional offices and a budget. The Hawke Government saw it as an important vehicle for managing Aboriginal affairs.

The *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission Act 1989* was passed by the parliament in early November 1989. Its objectives were designed to ensure full participation by Aboriginal people in decision-making:

- to ensure maximum participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in government policy formulation and implementation
- to promote Indigenous self-management and self-sufficiency
- to further Indigenous economic, social and cultural development
- to ensure coordination of Commonwealth, state, territory and local government policy affecting Indigenous people.

By the early 2000s, however, criticism was growing in regard to what was seen as a lack of success in what had been achieved by ATSIC for Aboriginal communities. Some felt that there were problems due to the structure of ATSIC and that the Western democratic process did not easily sit with traditional Indigenous values where family group relationships are most important.

Lowitja O'Donoghue, first chairperson of ATSIC, described the problems this way: 'You elect your own mob [and they] vote for funding for their own mob rather than those who have the greater need ... What I've always said is, "We're dealing here with taxpayers' money. This is a whitefella organisation, not a blackfella one. And so we've got to operate in a different way." That's the dilemma.'

But ATSIC was also constrained in regard to its funding. In 2003–04, ATSIC only received 46 per cent of the total budgeted Commonwealth expenditure for Indigenous affairs. ATSIC was not given responsibility for the areas of health care, social security or education. This severely limited what ATSIC could achieve.

In the last few years, the majority of ATSIC's budget was spent on economic development programs, including the Community Development Employment Project (CDEP) scheme. Supporters saw it as providing genuine work for young Indigenous people who chose to live in traditional communities. Others were concerned that it could never deliver the skills training and economic benefit that it set out to.

Following continued concerns over mismanagement and funding discrepancies, ATSIC was abolished in 2004 by the Howard Government. The CDEP continued to operate, although a number of CDEP programs were abolished in 2007 as part of the Howard Government's 'intervention'.



Source 3.46 Aboriginal people protesting against the abolition of ATSIC

### Check your learning

- 1 List some of Lowitja O'Donoghue's main achievements.
- 2 Why is Lowitja O'Donoghue an important figure in the Australian civil rights movement?
- 3 What does reconciliation mean in an Australian political sense?
- 4 What is ATSIC?
- 5 Who abolished ATSIC? Why?

## 3.2 How have Indigenous peoples in Australia achieved change and what were some of the significant events that influenced this change?

### Remember

- 1 Who was Emmett Till?
- 2 Where was Martin Luther King assassinated?
- 3 What do the colours on the Aboriginal flag symbolise?
- 4 Which government introduced a Bill to extinguish native title? What was the Bill called?

### Understand

- 5 Why was the US Army called to Little Rock in 1957?
- 6 How were the Australian Freedom Rides received by rural Australians in 1965?
- 7 Why did Indigenous Australians regard the Tent Embassy as necessary?
- 8 Why was Eddie Mabo given a chief's burial on Mer Island?

### Apply

- 9 Which of the American civil rights tactics were used in Australia? Why?
- 10 Why was Charles Perkins a significant figure in the Australian civil rights movement?
- 11 Research the Torres Strait Islander flag and its history.
- 12 Do you think Indigenous Australians have the same opportunities today as non-Indigenous Australians? Why do you think this is the case? Provide evidence to support your argument.
- 13 Why do you think Kevin Rudd asked Lowitja O'Donoghue to stand next to him at the Sorry Day ceremony?

### Analyse

- 14 Research whether you consider Charles Perkins a significant figure in Australian history. Explain your response with reference to the material you have gathered.
- 15 Should Australia Day include more recognition of the dispossession of traditional lands?
- 16 Explain the extent to which you think Australia changed as a result of the civil rights movement.
- 17 Search for the lyrics to *From Little Things Big Things Grow* by Kev Carmody and Paul Kelly and *Gurindji Blues* by Ted Egan. Looking at the content of the songs, what do the two songs have in common?

### Evaluate

- 18 Did Kevin Rudd's apology in 2008 mean that reconciliation had been achieved in Australia?
- 19 What do you think were the most significant events in helping Indigenous Australians achieve positive change since World War II? What evidence can you use to support your response?

### Create

- 20 Make parallel timelines of the important dates in the US and Australian civil rights movements. You might like to find some relevant images from the Internet to illustrate the timelines.
- 21 Create a speech that recognises the person you feel has made the most significant contribution to Indigenous rights in Australia. Design a suitable monument to recognise their achievements.



Source 3.47 Cathy Freeman at the 2000 Olympics in Sydney

## 3.3 In what ways do activists continue to struggle for civil rights and freedoms in Australia and around the world?

*Civil rights, whether in Australia or other parts of the world, remain important. As we have seen, during World War II, it does not take much for these rights to disappear in the most tragic of circumstances. That experience led to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights to try and guarantee basic rights for all.*

The United Nations has since extended the original principles of human rights to take the lead in securing rights for Indigenous peoples, specifically, with the Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous Peoples in 2007. When the declaration was passed, Australia, under the Howard Government, was one of only four nations to oppose its introduction. Since then Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States have all gone on to ratify it.

### Two speeches, two perspectives

Civil rights remains a divisive issue for some people. The different perspectives are reflected in two key speeches that were made by two different prime ministers in Australia during the 1990s.

## The Redfern Park speech

Six months after the Mabo decision, in December 1992, Prime Minister Paul Keating launched Australia into, what the United Nations had declared, the International Year of the World's Indigenous People. Keating spoke to a mainly Indigenous audience in the Sydney suburb of Redfern (see Source 3.48). Keating's speech is now seen as one of the most significant delivered by an Australian prime minister on Indigenous issues. It challenged Australians to imagine what it would have been like if they had experienced such injustices. It kept the reconciliation debate alive by keeping the issue in the public eye.

It was historic because it was the first time an Australian prime minister had publicly acknowledged the injustices Indigenous people had experienced because of past policies. The speech was written by one of Keating's main speechwriters, Don Watson. In 2007, Radio National listeners voted the Redfern Park speech as the third most unforgettable speech in history, behind those of Martin Luther King and Jesus.

### Official recognition

Perhaps the most powerful moment of the speech was when Keating said:

*Recognition that it was we who did the dispossessing. We took the traditional lands and smashed the traditional way of life. We brought the diseases. The alcohol. We committed the murders. We took the children from their mothers. We practised discrimination and exclusion.*

They were the words many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples never thought they would hear from an Australian prime minister.

It was thought the Redfern Park speech heralded a major breakthrough on the path to reconciliation by honestly recognising the injustices of Australia's past.

### Rejection of an official apology

In 1997, Prime Minister John Howard rejected the idea that an official apology to Indigenous people was needed. During his term as prime minister, John Howard made it clear that no apology would be made to Australia's Indigenous people for the past actions of non-Indigenous people or to groups such as the **Stolen Generations**.

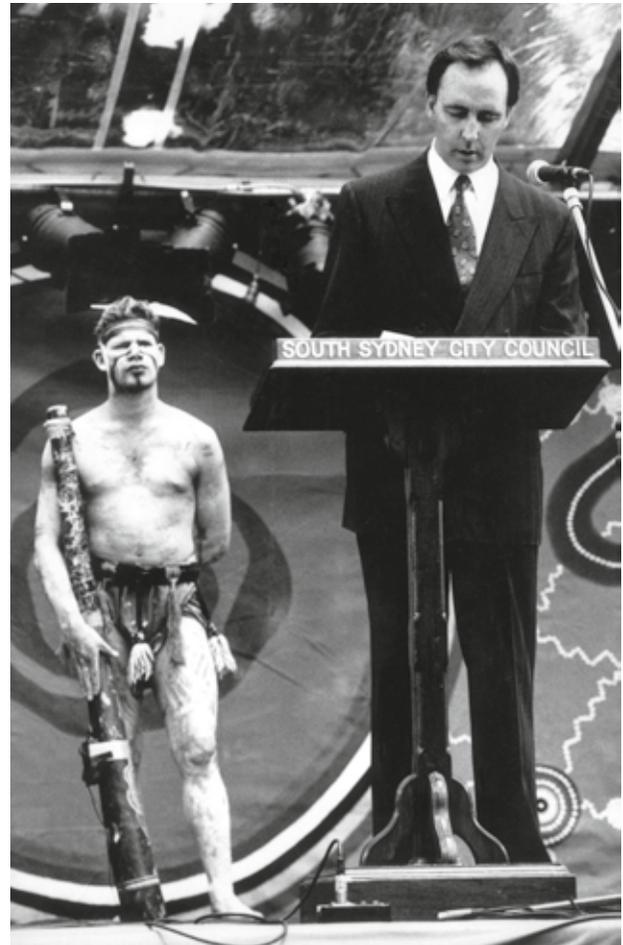
Contrary to this view, a groundswell of opinion saw state premiers offering such apologies. Queensland started the process with a parliamentary apology on 26 May 1997. Western Australia followed on 27 May, South Australia on 28 May, the ACT on 17 June, New South Wales on 18 June, Tasmania on 13 August, Victoria on 17 August and the Northern Territory on 28 October 2001.

The federal government, however, did speak of reconciliation. On 26 August 1999, John Howard said that Parliament expressed:

*its deep and sincere regret that Indigenous Australians suffered injustices under the practices of past generations, and for the hurt and trauma that many Indigenous people continue to feel as a consequence of those practices.*

The leader of the Opposition, Kim Beazley, spoke emotively of the need to 'unreservedly [apologise] to Indigenous Australians for the injustice they have suffered, and for the hurt and trauma that many Indigenous people continue to suffer as a consequence of this injustice'.

Prime Minister Howard and other conservative political and social leaders argued that previous generations were responsible for the experience of Australia's Aboriginal peoples. An apology was therefore not necessary from members of today's society and would place 'blame' on those who were not responsible. They also argued that the intent of those who initiated the actions or events was good even if the result was damaging.



Source 3.48 Paul Keating giving his Redfern Park speech

## The Australian Reconciliation Convention

In May 1997, Howard spoke at the Australian Reconciliation Convention in Melbourne. This was designed to celebrate the 30 years since the famous referendum of 1967. The aim was to achieve **reconciliation** by 2001. As prime minister, Howard was to deliver the keynote address. His stance against a formal apology had angered delegates, and when he spoke some turned their backs on him, while others booed (see source 3.49).

Howard made his position clear when he stated, 'In facing the realities of the past, however, we must not join those who would portray Australia's history since 1788 as little more than a disgraceful record of imperialism, exploitation and racism.' He also made it clear that, 'Australians of this generation should not be required to accept guilt and blame for past actions and policies over which they had no control.'

For those who saw such hope in Keating's Redfern Park speech, Howard's approach seemed a step backwards. As prime minister he controlled the political agenda, and Australia had to wait until he lost his seat in the 2007 election to move towards a formal apology to Indigenous Australians.



**Source 3.49** Howard's speech at the Reconciliation Convention upset some delegates who responded by turning their backs on him.

focus on ...

### perspective: the 'History Wars'

The History Wars probably started not long after the first Aboriginal rights victories of the 1960s and 1970s. Conservative journals such as *Quadrant* and some tabloid newspapers had immediately questioned the validity of Aboriginal Rights campaigns—particularly as they seemed to be mostly supported by communists and the Labor Party. In the 1980s, as Australia prepared for the bicentenary celebrations of 1988, these voices were largely drowned out. However, after the establishment of ATSIC and the Mabo victory, there was new energy in their challenge.

In 1993, historian Geoffrey Blainey delivered the John Latham Memorial Lecture (see Chapter 1), which famously talked about the so-called History Wars. Blainey argued that while there were some regrettable events in Australian history, Australia had become 'rights mad' in the 1970s and 1980s and that a 'black armband view' was obscuring our many achievements. Blainey's speech questioned the extent of harm caused to Aboriginal people and warned that the moralising that accompanied the reconciliation movement was undermining our democracy and way of life.

When John Howard became Prime Minister a few years later, many of his supporters called for an end to the 'political correctness' that had dominated Paul Keating's period in office. Howard himself celebrated publicly that now he was in office, people could say things in the open without fear of being branded racist.

In 2002, Keith Windshuttle released the first volume of his *The Fabrication of Aboriginal History*, which also questioned the extent of the harm caused to Aboriginal people. In this book, and related publications, Windshuttle accused historians of falsifying the level of violence committed towards Aboriginal people, particularly in Tasmania. Others at the time began to question the existence of frontier violence and the Stolen Generations, usually based on the assumption that the sources simply could not be trusted.

These claims were met with immediate rebuttal. Established historians like Henry Reynolds, who had undertaken significant archival and fieldwork in researching their own histories, challenged Windshuttle's methodology and research.

At the same time in 2003, Dawn Casey, the director of Canberra's National Museum of Australia, claimed that she was 'driven out' by Howard Government administrators who wanted to ensure that their version of history was included in the museum. At the heart of these 'wars' was the very work of historians—interpreting the evidence.



**Source 3.50** Historian Keith Windshuttle with his controversial book

## The reconciliation movement

Popular support for the Stolen Generations grew significantly around the end of the 1990s. Central to the claims of many Australians was the view that Australia would be strengthened by a formal acknowledgement of past wrongs. This idea was suggested by the Governor-General, William Deane, in 1996 and featured as recommendation five in the *Bringing Them Home* report.

The first ‘Sorry Day’ was held on 26 May 1998, to mark the anniversary of the handing down of the *Bringing Them Home* report. Each year since then, events have been staged to commemorate the findings and consider the government’s scorecard on responding to the recommendations in the report (see Source 3.51). In 2005, the day was temporarily renamed, the National Day of Healing for All Australians—a gesture of goodwill from the National Sorry Day Committee who frequently acknowledged the support given to their movement by a wide range of Australians.

## Popular culture and the 2000 Olympics

The reconciliation movement stimulated wide-ranging creative expression, from films like *Rabbit-Proof Fence* to songs by Archie Roach and Ruby Hunter, and works by performance artists like the Bangarra Dance Company (see source 3.52). Roach’s award-winning album, *Charcoal Lane*, contained the heartbreaking song, *Took the Children Away*. Roach had been removed from his family as a young child, and the honesty of his songwriting awoke a wide audience to the pain and trauma that would later surface in the *Bringing Them Home* report.

The 2000 Sydney Olympics also provided a stage for popular support of reconciliation. Cathy Freeman became one of the most popular individuals in Australia when she both lit the Olympic flame at the opening ceremony and then won the 400-metres final (see Sources 3.53 and 3.47). Her victory lap, where she draped herself in both the Aboriginal and Australian flags, was seen as a decisive moment in the history of reconciliation.

The closing ceremony of the Sydney Olympics provided one further step towards reconciliation. The rock band Midnight Oil performed as part of the ceremony. They chose their song *Beds Are Burning*, a statement of support for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, to perform. To Prime Minister Howard’s chagrin, they also performed in specially designed ‘Sorry suits’ (see source 3.54).

## Check your learning

- 1 Why did Prime Minister Keating make the Redfern Park speech?
- 2 How was Prime Minister Howard’s Reconciliation Convention speech received?
- 3 Who introduced the term ‘black armband’ into historical debates?
- 4 Who won the women’s 400-metres event at the Sydney Olympics?



Source 3.51 Sorry Day March in Sydney, 2007



Source 3.52 Bangarra Dance Company at Sydney Olympics



Source 3.53 Cathy Freeman lights the Olympic Torch



Source 3.54 Midnight Oil in ‘Sorry suits’

## The international scene

The 2000s saw significant global interest in Indigenous rights. In New Zealand, Maori people had secured more historic rights than Indigenous Australians, yet problems linked to poverty within the Maori population remained significant throughout the 1990s. The film *Once were Warriors* highlighted the degrading influence of alcohol and violence on poor Maori families.

Government efforts over the following decade saw some gains made, particularly with respect to cultural reconciliation and politics. A Maori Party was formed in 2004 and won five seats at the 2005 election. Maori television began broadcasting in Te Reo (Indigenous language) in 2004.

In Canada, formal recognition of First Nations, Inuit and Metis people was marked by a ‘statement of reconciliation’ in 1998 and in 2008, the Canadian government established the Truth and Reconciliation Commission to investigate the impacts and consequences of the ‘Indian Residential Schools’ on Indigenous Canadian children during the 20th century.

The United Nations declared 2007 the International Year of Indigenous People. By 2010, most governments around the world endorsed the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous People.

## The Apology to the Stolen Generations

In his first week of parliament in 2008, the new Labor Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, apologised to Indigenous Australians for poor or unwise treatment from the time of European settlement through to recent years. No offer of compensation was made but a nation recognised that Indigenous Australians had been wronged. This had been one of the key election promises, and a moment that many people had been waiting for. Brendan Nelson, who had replaced John Howard as the leader of the Liberal Party, affirmed Rudd’s sentiment.

The parliament was packed as the apology was made, and many people gathered in public spaces, schools and offices, all over the country, to view the live telecast of the speeches.

### Source 3.56

*We apologise especially for the removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children from their families, their communities and their country.*

*For the pain, suffering and hurt of these Stolen Generations, their descendants and for their families left behind, we say sorry.*

*To the mothers and the fathers, the brothers and the sisters, for the breaking up of families and communities, we say sorry.*

*And for the indignity and degradation thus inflicted on a proud people and a proud culture, we say sorry.*

An extract from Rudd’s speech

These were words that many Indigenous Australians had died without ever hearing. It was a turning point in our national history, and brought Australia into line with other Commonwealth countries, like Canada, who had already dealt with this issue and moved on.

Many prominent Aboriginal Rights leaders were in parliament, including Pat Dodson—sometimes described as the father of the reconciliation movement. Media coverage of the Apology continued for many days, with the word ‘Sorry’ featuring prominently on all major newspapers on 14 February. Opinion polls showed that a significant number of Australians rated Rudd’s apology as ‘good’, ‘great’ or ‘excellent’.

The major criticism of the Apology was the ambiguity over compensation. Many in the community still regarded this as a major challenge that the government would have to overcome. Others saw the symbolism of the Apology as meaningless unless it was immediately accompanied by practical measures to remove Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander disadvantage and facilitate true reconciliation.



Source 3.55 Kevin Rudd giving his apology

## Moving forward

The path to reconciliation is a long one. It requires much effort to deal with the continuing misery, poverty, poor physical and mental health, low life-expectancy, and general social and political marginalisation of Australia's Indigenous peoples.

An official apology is an important step, but as Indigenous leaders noted, following Prime Minister Rudd's address, practical things need to be done as well. They argue that practical measures, rather than symbolic gestures, will be necessary for Aborigines to be in a position where they are on an equal footing with other Australians. Only once health, education and job opportunities are similar to those of non-Aboriginal Australians will it be possible to feel that a true reconciliation has come about and that Indigenous Australians have been recognised fully.



Source 3.56 Public sentiment at the time of the Apology—the word 'sorry' appeared everywhere.

Source 3.57 Life expectancy and infant mortality in Australia (2008)

	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous
Male life expectancy (in years)	56	76.6
Female life expectancy (in years)	63	82
Infant mortality (per 100 births)	14.3	4.7

Data from World Vision Australia

## A sense of urgency

The Apology to the Stolen Generations and the Mabo victory were not accompanied by improvements in social outcomes for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island peoples. In fact, there has been significant worsening of social wellbeing in many communities. Disadvantage is particularly concentrated in rural Aboriginal communities around Australia.

This was certainly not expected by Aboriginal leaders who fought for improved rights from the 1960s onwards. In *The Politics of Suffering*, Peter Sutton chronicles how well-intentioned Aboriginal Affairs policies in Australia from the 1970s, including improved services and welfare, inadvertently resulted in increased child abuse, domestic violence, drugs and alcohol. Sutton's message has been difficult to comprehend by politicians and ordinary Australians. How could self-determination, the opposite of the domineering and dominating assimilation of generations past, not deliver significant improvements?

Obviously the answers to this question are complicated. Fundamentally, while the policies provided some funding and other resources to Aboriginal communities, they did not provide lasting employment, effective education, adequate policing or regulations against the sale of alcohol—the cause of many of the problems.



Source 3.58 Aboriginal Australians at one of the camps in Alice Springs, Northern Territory, 2007

## The Intervention

In 2007, the Northern Territory Government's *Little Children are Sacred* report was released. The report highlighted the extent of disadvantage, particularly among children. The Howard Government quickly intervened in this issue. The result was the Northern Territory National Emergency Response—or 'the Intervention'. This policy package included restrictions on welfare payments to ensure money was spent on food and other necessities and not alcohol; immediate bans on the sale of alcohol and hard-core pornography in many Indigenous townships; medical checks for evidence of sexual abuse; and additional police assigned to investigate claims of sexual abuse of children.

While some people in the community expressed concern about the 'heavy-handed' nature of the Intervention, both sides of parliament and many Indigenous leaders ultimately supported it.

Noel Pearson, founder of the Cape York Land Council, was one of the first to give 'qualified' support for the Intervention, and had already argued for a decade that the so-called 'progressive' policies were failing young Aboriginal people. Pearson's 'Light on the Hill' speech, delivered in 2000 to a Labor Party audience, included a frank and honest assessment of the difference between white and black Australia.

The Intervention was not supported by all Aboriginal leaders. Some raised concerns that it would be a return to the paternalism of old and that it represented an infringement of the human rights of Aboriginal people, as the laws relating to welfare restrictions and the possession on alcohol applied only to Aboriginal people.

## Closing the gap?

Supporters and critics alike have closely observed the progress of the Intervention. In 2010, Mal Brough, the Coalition minister originally responsible for the Intervention, complained bureaucracy and poor leadership had held up key work. Data released by the government at a similar time, in a *Closing the Gap* report, showed that reports of child sex abuse, alcohol-related violence and assault had increased in the three years.

In a more recent, *Closing the Gap* report (2011) law and order data has been replaced by details of government investments and achievements in areas such as health, education and land rights. Many of these achievements are to be celebrated, but do they collectively amount to overall improvements for Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders in Australia?



Source 3.59 Noel Pearson (left) and Mal Brough



Source 3.60 Protesters in Alice Springs march against the Intervention.

## Check your learning

- 1 When was the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous People?
- 2 What was the major criticism of Prime Minister Rudd's Apology?
- 3 What was the federal government Intervention in the Northern Territory?

## 3.3 In what ways do activists continue to struggle for civil rights and freedoms in Australia and around the world?

### Remember

- 1 Who is Keith Windshuttle?
- 2 How did Midnight Oil upset John Howard at the Sydney Olympics?
- 3 What were some of the restrictions imposed by the 2007 federal government Intervention?

### Understand

- 4 What were the main ideas in Paul Keating's Redfern Park and John Howard's National Reconciliation Convention speeches?
- 5 Were the Sydney Olympics a significant landmark on the path to reconciliation? Provide evidence to support your view.
- 6 What is the difference between Indigenous and non-Indigenous life expectancy in Australia?

### Apply

- 7 What are the arguments on both sides of the 'History Wars'?
- 8 Do you think that we should try to record and teach all sides of our history or only the parts we are proud of? Give reasons for your answer.
- 9 Look at Source 3.47. Why do you think Cathy Freeman is carrying both the Australian flag and the Aboriginal flag? How does it make you feel to see Freeman carrying both these flags?

### Analyse

- 10 As a class, debate John Howard's statement that 'Australians of this generation should not be required to accept guilt and blame for past actions and policies over which they had no control.'
- 11 Research the full text of Paul Keating's Redfern Park speech. Is it a significant part of Australian history?
- 12 Look at the data in Source 3.57. What various reasons do you think would account for such a difference in life expectancy and infant mortality?

### Evaluate

- 13 Does the evidence support the existence or otherwise of Stolen Generations of Aboriginal children?
- 14 In recent times we have seen governments introduce and resource the Northern Territory Intervention and the Apology to the Stolen Generations. What evidence is there that either or both delivered improvements in the lives of Indigenous Australians and the process of reconciliation?
- 15 Go back to Source 3.19 and read the 10 points listed under the heading 'Our Ten Points—a long range policy for Aborigines', which was put together by Jack Patten and others at the Day of Mourning meeting in 1938. Which of these points do you think have now been achieved and which do you think have not been achieved?
- 16 Write a new 10-point plan for Aboriginal rights to take to the government. What points would you include in your 10-point plan and why would you include them?

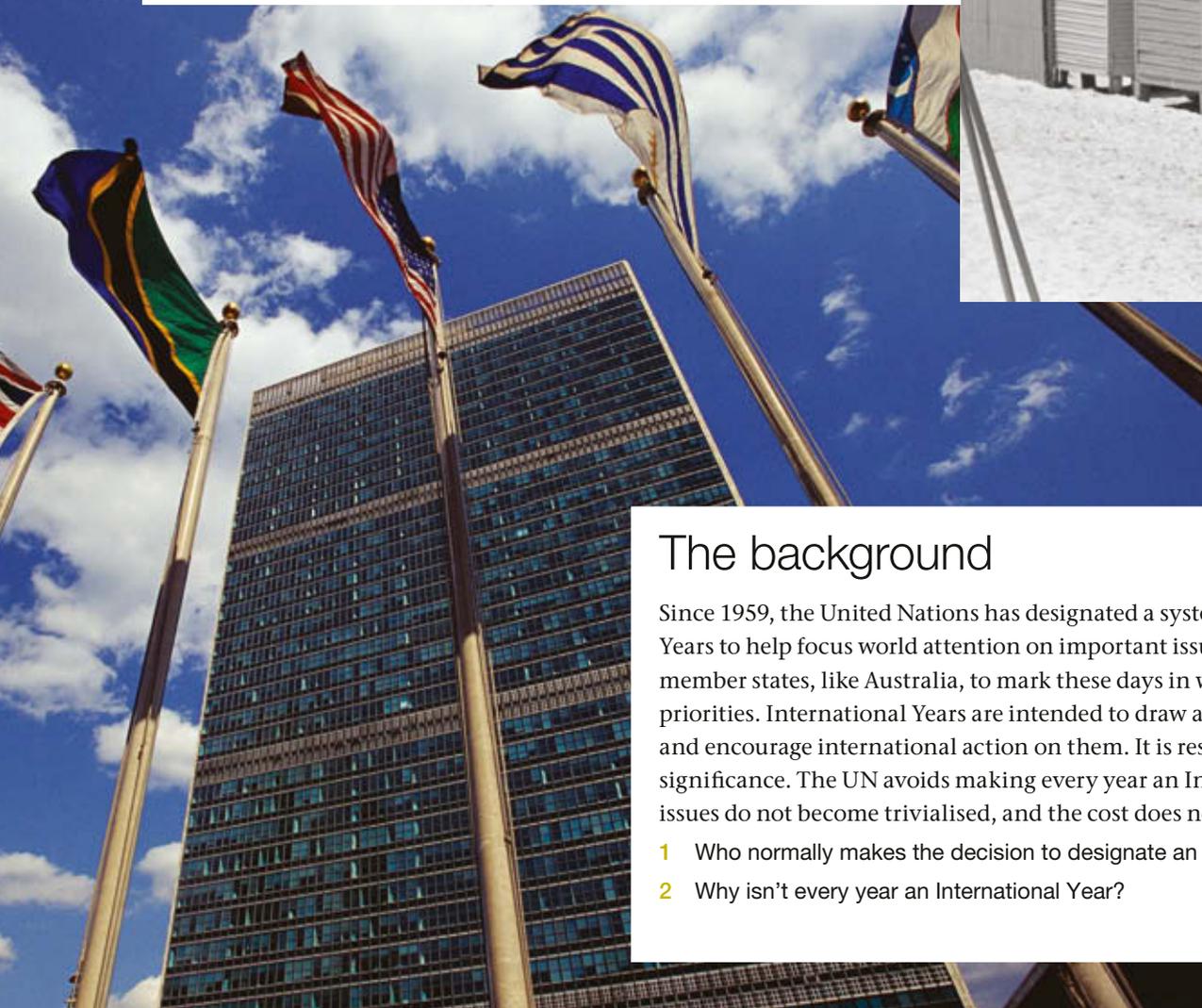
### Create

- 17 Design a poster that reflects the ideas contained in one of the prime ministerial speeches in this chapter. Make sure you research the full text of the speech.
- 18 Create a closing ceremony for an Olympics held in Australia that shows the world the state of reconciliation in Australia as it now stands.

# connecting ideas

## International Years

*In 1992, Paul Keating made a speech introducing 1993 as International Year for the World's Indigenous People. The year was designed to highlight the influence of Indigenous communities throughout the world, and the need to secure their futures. Keating's speech, which acknowledged the past treatment of Australia's Indigenous communities, attracted wide public attention.*

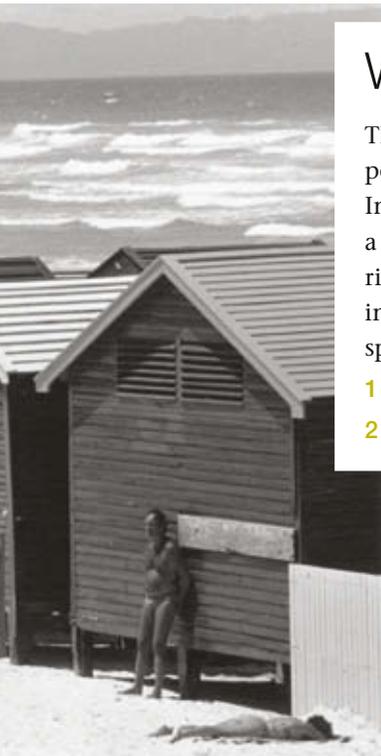


### The background

Since 1959, the United Nations has designated a system of International Years to help focus world attention on important issues. The UN calls on member states, like Australia, to mark these days in ways that reflect their priorities. International Years are intended to draw attention to major issues, and encourage international action on them. It is reserved for issues of major significance. The UN avoids making every year an International Year so the issues do not become trivialised, and the cost does not become too great.

- 1 Who normally makes the decision to designate an International Year?
- 2 Why isn't every year an International Year?

Source 3.61 The UN building in New York



## What do International Years achieve?

The United Nations has used International Years to mount major international campaigns to help people achieve basic rights and freedoms. When the UN General Assembly designated 1968 the International Year for Human Rights, one of the issues they targeted was apartheid. Apartheid was a political and social system in place in South Africa from 1948 until 1994. It denied people basic rights and freedoms based on their skin colour and racial background. Apartheid was targeted again in 1978—International Anti-Apartheid Year. These International Years helped create and support sporting and economic boycotts of South Africa that eventually helped to dismantle apartheid.

- 1 What was the year 1968 designated as?
- 2 What was one of the targets of this year? Was it successful?

**Source 3.62** This 1979 photograph shows a restricted beach near Cape Town, South Africa.



## Other years

The first International Year in 1959 aimed to raise awareness of the plight of refugees. They were recognised, regardless of where they were living, as a group who were being denied basic rights and freedoms. Since then, the United Nations has targeted Racism and Racial Prejudice (1971), Mobilization against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance (2001), and Reconciliation (2009). There have been many other years, but these have been major campaigns to draw international attention to the denial of basic rights and freedoms to people who would otherwise have little opportunity to raise awareness of their plight.

- 1 What rights and freedoms would be targeted in the years listed above?
- 2 Do you think these campaigns have changed conditions for people?

**Source 3.63** In 2009—the International Year of Reconciliation—100 000 people gathered in Durban, South Africa, to celebrate Reconciliation Day.



What rights and freedoms do you think deserve to be recognised in an International Year? How would you promote it in your community?

depth study

# The globalising world

*In this depth study, students investigate one major global influence that has helped to shape Australian society, including the development of this global influence during the 20th century.*

*Students choose **ONE** of the following depth study options:*

4.0 Popular culture (1945–the present)

[📍](#) The environmental movement [o]book only]

5.0 Migration experiences (1945–the present)



depth study option

# Popular culture

(1945–the present)

*Popular culture includes a wide range of activities that a large number of people in a society engage in. Since World War II, Australia has developed strong industries in four key areas of popular culture: music, film, television and sport.*

Australia has changed dramatically since 1945. Television and rock'n'roll music both arrived in 1956 and influenced subsequent generations. Sport has retained an important role in Australian life and our sense of identity. Our film industry emerged to tell Australian stories and show the rest of the world what we were like.

By the start of the 21st century, Australia had emerged as a country able to export popular culture to the world. It has also absorbed an array of influences to create something uniquely Australian.

Foreign influences have been absorbed that reflect a multicultural heritage. British influence has always been important, and American culture has been increasingly popular throughout the 20th century. Since World War II, Asian cultural influences have also started to emerge in a range of areas.

From that array of cultural influences, Australia has developed its own distinct culture. Music, film, television and sport have not only become ways of reflecting who we are, but also enabled Australia to engage with the rest of the world.

## Key inquiry questions

- 4.1 What was the nature of popular culture in Australia at the end of World War II?
- 4.2 What developments in popular culture most affected Australia after World War II?
- 4.3 How have the Australian music, film and television industries changed in Australia?
- 4.4 What has Australia contributed to international popular culture?



4

# bigpicture

## Popular culture

*Popular culture has transformed Australia since World War II. In 1946, Don Bradman, cricket hero of the Depression years, was the nation's best known personality. His fame as captain of a game popular across the British Empire reflected an older Australia that was secure in its cultural links to the 'mother country', Great Britain.*

*In 1956, rock'n'roll, television and the Olympic Games all arrived in Australia, changing it forever. When American rock'n'rollers Bill Haley and the Comets arrived in 1957, popular culture helped Australia connect with the wider world.*

*From the 1960s, Australia has developed a strong, vibrant and increasingly unique range of popular cultures. Australian stories have been celebrated internationally in music, film, television and sport. As a study of popular culture reveals, there are few parts of the globe today that haven't experienced Australian popular culture.*

**1971**

*Walkabout and Wake in Fright released*



A film still from *Walkabout*

**1964**

The Beatles arrive in Australia

**1945**

**1946**

England tours Australia to resume the Ashes cricket tests after World War II

**1955**

The film *Jedda* is released

**1957**

Bill Haley and the Comets headline the first rock'n'roll tour of Australia

**1967**

ABC TV starts the first evening soapie, *Bellbird*

**1972**

The TV serial *Number 96* premieres

**1956**

TV starts in Australia as the Olympic Games open in Melbourne



Australia's Betty Cuthbert (third from left) crosses the finishing line to win the Women's Final 100-metre event in the Melbourne Olympic Games

**1966**

The Easybeats record 'Friday On My Mind' in London



**Source 4.1** A timeline of key events in Australian popular culture



**2009**  
*Neighbours* is the first Australian TV show to have characters with Twitter accounts

**1995**  
Pay TV introduced to Australia

**2010**  
Australian women's national soccer team, the Matildas, win the Asian Cup

**1977**  
The rock band The Go-Betweens forms in Brisbane

**1988**  
BBC moves *Neighbours* to a late afternoon timeslot to counteract school truancy

**1975**  
Colour TV arrives in Australia

**1986**  
*Crocodile Dundee* released



Paul Hogan as Crocodile Dundee

**2011**  
*Angry Boys* premieres



Chris Lilley as identical twins Daniel and Nathan Sims



**Source 4.2** Young men and women in 1950s Sydney—American youth culture became popular in Australia after the end of World War II.

# 4.1

## What was the nature of popular culture in Australia at the end of World War II?

*Culture is the 'glue' that binds any society together. The values, beliefs, ideas and artefacts that give meaning to any society are its culture. Culture can include a wide variety of human activities including the arts, religion, sport and certain values such as a belief in democracy or equal rights. Popular culture has an impact on people in many places across the globe. People can access it easily, and it lasts for a period of time.*

### Defining popular culture

To distinguish popular culture it is important to not simply describe it as 'culture that is popular'. If that simplistic definition is used, it is difficult to differentiate between cultural activities that are popular for a brief historical moment, and those that make a major impact on a society.

Four distinguishing characteristics can be used to recognise an activity as popular culture. Source 4.3 provides examples of these four distinguishing characteristics, using rock'n'roll music as an example.

Source 4.3 Characteristics of popular culture

Characteristic	Example (rock'n'roll)
Moves from local to national to global significance	Rock'n'roll started in local centres such as Memphis, Chicago and Cleveland. National television shows such as the <i>Ed Sullivan Show</i> allowed acts to be viewed across the United States. Films, tours and records gave acts global exposure and impact.
Is associated with commercial products	Rock'n'roll produced a range of commercial products including records (and later CDs), T-shirts, magazines and cosmetics.
Continues to change and evolve over time	The rock'n'roll of the 1950s does not really sound like the rock music of today, but influences can be traced back to the beginning of rock'n'roll.
Allows consumers easy and widespread access	Access to rock'n'roll has traditionally been provided through radio and television, as well as by purchasing records, CDs and MP3s.

## The impact of technology on post-war Australian culture

The link between technology and popular culture was clearly established in the 1920s. In the period before the arrival of television and rock'n'roll, radio and film were the main sources of popular technology. The impact of technology on popular culture becomes a consistent theme throughout the second half of the 20th century. Ongoing developments in technology also help to explain how any popular culture is able to change and evolve.

### Radio

By 1946, radio was established as the most accessible communication medium in Australia. All capital cities and most regional centres boasted radio stations, which helped overcome the great distances involved in communicating across the country. Radio had really taken off during the 1930s, and was the perfect medium for introducing audiences to the recorded music that was coming from the USA.

The increasing popularity and accessibility of radio led to change. Until World War II, pianos and pianolas were the centrepiece of home entertainment. Sales of sheet music boomed, as families gathered to entertain themselves at home. When radio station 2GF in Grafton, New South Wales, came on air in December 1933, it was the 63rd radio station in the country. By the 21st century, radio had split into AM and FM, digital and community broadcasting.



Source 4.4 A group of young friends sunbake at Bondi Beach, Sydney, while listening to the radio in the late 1940s.

## significance: American cultural influence

World War II had a major impact on Australia. The country had been under the direct threat of invasion. The old certainty of relying on Britain for protection had been swept away with the fall of Singapore. Cultural ties tend to be more enduring than political ones. A study of popular culture in Australia in 1946 reveals that, while British influence was still strong, American influence was undoubtedly strengthening.

Technology was the means for American popular culture to take root in Australia. By 1923, 94 per cent of all feature films shown in Australia were from the USA. The radio helped American music reach an Australian audience. It proved popular during World War II, with clubs being established in Australian cities to entertain visiting American troops. Clubs such as the Booker T Washington Club in Sydney and Dr Carver Club in Brisbane catered specifically for African-American troops, and helped popularise jazz. White performers like Frank Sinatra and Bing Crosby also influenced Australian popular taste.

American influence even reached sport. Baseball renewed its interstate clashes in the 1946 Claxton Shield, which was won by

New South Wales. It is thought that baseball arrived in Australia with American goldminers in the Victorian gold rush of the 1850s. It has been most successful as a winter sport, complementing rather than competing with cricket, a summer sport.



Source 4.5 Jazz at the Dr Carver Club, Brisbane, during World War II (AWM 015578)

## Film

Australia had produced the world's first feature film in 1906, with *The Story of the Kelly Gang*. Until governments banned bushranger films in 1912, Australia led the world in feature film production. The federal government set high import **tariffs** on films during World War I. When they lifted them in 1918, the Australian film industry was decimated by American imports. There was a brief revival in Australian films in the 1930s, when the influence of Hollywood and the introduction of 'talkies' began to dominate the film industry.

A Cinesound documentary, *Kokoda Front Line*, won Australia's first Academy Award in 1943, but the Australian film industry struggled in the years after World War II. Although major Australian stars such as Errol Flynn, Peter Finch and Chips Rafferty emerged, their Hollywood counterparts became well known as magazines became a popular medium for transmitting popular culture. Australian actors travelled to Hollywood to further their careers. Although films were made in Australia in the 1940s and 1950s, these were usually co-productions with American and British film companies. The 1955 film *Jedda* stands out as a significant milestone in Australian film because it had two Indigenous leads, and was the first Australian film to be shot in colour (see Source 4.6). By introducing a mainstream audience to Indigenous issues, it also showed the potential of film to create debate and stimulate social change.

The Disney studio became the main source of children's entertainment. The animated films *Dumbo* and *Bambi* had been major hits during the war, and by the 1950s Disney films were clearly established as 'must sees' for Australian children. American serials and cartoons also emerged as staples of Saturday afternoon picture shows, and ensured that the post-war Australian children were introduced to a steady diet of American popular culture. These serials showed the merging of American popular culture influences as they frequently drew on comic strip heroes such as Batman, the Phantom and Green Hornet as their source.

It must be remembered that before television, newsreels at picture theatres were the only way people could actually see major news events. Serials and newsreels were major reasons for keeping people coming back on a weekly basis as post-war prosperity made the local picture theatre a major centre of popular culture. It also explains why, when the Australian film industry went into decline after World War II, newsreel production continued until the advent of television eventually ended it.

## Post-war sport

Sport was very popular in Australia at this time, and played a key role in restoring normality after the traumas of the war. Cricket showed strong connections with England. One of the great sporting traditions was (and still is) the Ashes series with England. These contests had been disrupted by the war. Both England and Australia were keen to see the contest resume as a sign of life returning to normal. An English team toured Australia in the summer of 1946–7 on a goodwill tour. Australia played with a determination to show the 'mother country' how strong they were. The result was a 4–1 series win to Australia, a superiority that was confirmed when Don Bradman led the team to England in 1948, and his 'Invincibles' remained undefeated.

Rugby league was another form of popular culture drawn from Britain. It was popular in New South Wales and Queensland, and the most prestigious competition was the New South Wales rugby league premiership. Unlike many sports, rugby league continued throughout World War II. Balmain won the 1946 grand final against St George in a match marred by refereeing controversies.

Rugby league was matched in the southern states by Australian Rules, a truly indigenous sport that was limited as popular culture by the fact that it had failed to develop at a global level. Like rugby league, it had been played throughout the war, providing some sense of normality, as many young men went off to fight.



Source 4.6 *Jedda* was the first Australian film to star Aboriginal actors.



Source 4.7 The first Australia versus England Rugby League test, 12 June 1950

## continuity and change: sport

Sport provides a strong cultural continuity in Australian society. Cricket, the football codes, tennis, golf and horse racing are all easily recognisable as cultural activities that have continued. Cricketers still play regularly for the Ashes, the MCG is still the venue for Australian rules grand finals, and the Melbourne Cup remains the race that ‘stops a nation’.

Beneath those continuities are changes that reflect a more modern society. Professionalism has been a major change. In most sports today, playing at the top level is a full-time job. Time required for training and rehabilitation means that other full-time work is no longer practical. As television has emerged as a major factor affecting professional sport, players have also been required to compete more often than in the past to fill space for television networks.

The scope of the sports has also changed. India was still a British colony at the end of World War II. Its first cricket tour to Australia was not until 1947–48, and its second tour was 20 years later. Now, cricket is a major sporting industry in India, an established cricket world power. The Indian team has a huge following at home and its key players are regarded as national heroes.

Domestically, Australian rules and rugby league have moved towards national competitions that are financed by lucrative television deals. Rugby union was the last football code to go fully professional, and has focused on international competition. In 2005, football (soccer) created a true national competition, and Australia has participated in World Cups for both women and men.



**Source 4.8** Quarter-final match of the FIFA women's football World Cup, Sweden versus Australia, on 10 July 2011

## Check your learning

- 1 Which two countries made the most significant contributions to Australian popular culture immediately after World War II? List examples of their contributions.
- 2 Why did England send a cricket team to tour Australia so soon after the end of World War II?
- 3 What form of music did American troops help make popular in Australia during World War II?
- 4 What did the radio replace in many Australian homes?
- 5 Why was *Jedda* such a significant film?
- 6 How did weekly serials shown in movie theatres open the way for American influence in popular culture?
- 7 How did Australians see news items before the arrival of television?

# bigideas

## 4.1 What was the nature of popular culture in Australia at the end of World War II?

### Remember

- 1 What are the four characteristics that make something popular culture?
- 2 What are the cricket tests between Australia and England called?
- 3 What did the radio replace in terms of home entertainment?

### Understand

- 4 Explain the significance of radio for Australian popular culture in the 1940s.
- 5 Why would older Australians worry about Disney films and serials becoming so popular with Australian children?

### Apply

- 6 Research the case that could be made to name Don Bradman as the most important Australian of the immediate post-war period.
- 7 Examine the career of Errol Flynn, Peter Finch or Chips Rafferty. What contribution do you think they made to Australian popular culture?

### Analyse

- 8 What does Source 4.9 reveal about Australia in the 1950s?
- 9 How popular has baseball been in Australia?

### Evaluate

- 10 As a class, discuss the suggestion that Australia was a British cultural colony in the 1940s.
- 11 What evidence is there that Australian popular culture showed more continuity than change in the decade after World War II?

### Create

- 12 Create a folio of sources that provides evidence about the appearance of and activities associated with a 1940s picture theatre. It should include illustrations, the location of the theatre, posters of films it showed, and any memorabilia you may be able to locate. If it is local, see if you can interview anyone who remembers it in operation. Use the folios to create a museum exhibition called 'Australian picture theatres of the 1940s'.



Source 4.9 A film poster for the 1955 film *Jedda*



**Source 4.10** Saxophonist Len Austin of the Recaps band, at a rock'n'roll dance in the Manly RSL Hall organised by teenagers. This dance was arranged at a meeting of Wynnum-Manly teenagers organised by the Salvation Army.

## 4.2 What developments in popular culture most affected Australia after World War II?

*The first decade after World War II was about re-establishing a normal peacetime life. Most cultural activity showed continuity. Sport, music and films maintained popularity, but change was coming. Two things were introduced to Australia in 1956 that were to change Australian culture forever: rock'n'roll and television.*

### How does a culture change?

On the surface, Australia in 1956 would not appear to be too different from Australia in 1946. Cricket, rugby league, Australian rules, tennis and horse racing were all popular sports that showed cultural continuity with a largely British cultural heritage. Radio continued to be a vital medium for communication, and most suburbs and country towns had a picture theatre showing American and British films along with newsreels and serials. Then rock'n'roll and television arrived in Australia.

It is difficult to imagine life today without rock music and television. History helps us to understand just what an impact these two things had on Australian life, and how they helped change culture.

## Rock'n'roll arrives

*The Sun*, a Sydney-based newspaper, was able to report on 21 June 1956 that in Australia, 'rock and roll raised no more than a flutter'. Three weeks later Elvis Presley's 'Heartbreak Hotel' was released locally, and the same newspaper published the first rumour that Elvis was to tour Australia. By December, Bill Haley's 'Rock Around the Clock' had established an Australian sales record of 175 000 45s and 78s, and 12 000 LPs (types of vinyl records). On 20 December a 'rock dance' was held at Sydney's Redfern Oval, and in six months rock'n'roll had become

focus on ...

### significance: Bill Haley's tour

Rock'n'roll became one of the most distinct products designed specifically for teenagers. Radio, television and film all helped spread the music, and tours by live acts were the next step. Although Australia was geographically isolated in the 1950s, an expatriate American promoter called Lee Gordon realised the potential of rock'n'roll. He organised the first rock'n'roll tour outside North America when he booked Bill Haley and the Comets, Big Joe Turner, The Platters, LaVern Baker and Freddie Bell and the Bell Boys on a package tour of Australia.

As an indication of just what a major undertaking this first tour was, it took Bill Haley six days to travel from the east coast of the United States to Sydney in January 1957. There were three stops on the trans-Pacific flight for this first ever tour that included mixed races and genders, both certain to attract controversy in a 'white' Australia where women were yet to achieve any kind of equality.

The tour was a huge success, playing to 330 000 people at a time when Australia's population was under 10 million. Teenagers danced in the aisles, before ushers made them sit down. A reviewer called it 'the noisiest show to ever hit Sydney'. It was reported that 'plates rattled half a block away, dogs cringed in their kennels and the boxing stadium at Rushcutters Bay loosened its nails'.

A second tour including Little Richard, Eddie Cochran, Gene Vincent and Alis Lesley arrived in October 1957, and it was clear that rock'n'roll was creating a wide generation gap.

part of the cultural environment.

There is no doubt rock'n'roll was the catalyst for change in 1950s Australia. Teenagers had a different outlook from the generation that had experienced the **Great Depression** and World War II. Attendance at rock'n'roll concerts became a symbol of the enthusiastic adoption of American popular culture. It also signalled a break with their parents' generation. As artists like John Manners and Johnny O'Keefe absorbed these influences, they also started practising this new form of popular culture. Eventually this would contribute to original Australian culture, but in 1957 it was the start of social change in Australia.



Source 4.11 Poster for the Bill Haley tour of 1957

# Personal memories of the Bill Haley tour of 1957

John Manners was 15 when he attended a Bill Haley concert at Sydney Stadium in January 1957 (see Source 4.12). Within five years of seeing this first rock'n'roll tour, John Manners was a member of rock'n'roll bands. With The Nocturnes, he played early surf music, and after The Beatles' tour of Australia in 1964, the band changed its name to The Whispers, took on Ray Brown as lead singer, and saw their first three singles reach number one. A decade after this tour, Manners was regarded as one of Australia's greatest and most innovative bass players.



Source 4.14 Bill Haley on tour in 1957

## Source 4.12

*The show opened with Freddie Bell and the Bellboys. They opened with a song, 'We're Gonna Teach You to Rock', then 'Shake a Hand' and their current hit, 'Giddy Up Ding Dong'. The guys came on dressed in red coats—they looked great. From their first number they brought the house down. The sound was something else—the likes of which I had not heard before. Their stage act was superb, with dance moves, comedy routines, all just too much. This was the first time I had seen or heard a bass guitar, and from that moment I knew what instrument I wanted to play. I was hooked on bass. The crowd reaction was sensational, no one had ever seen or heard anything like it before ...*

*The whole show was great and I'm glad I was there and, I suppose, part of it.*

John Manners in a private letter written in 2008 sharing his memories of the 1957 Bill Haley tour of Australia

Source 4.13 is another kind of memoir: a letter to the editor that appeared in Sydney's *The Sun* newspaper in January 1957, while Bill Haley was touring Australia. It was printed under the heading 'Menace of rock and roll'.

## Source 4.13

*It will be interesting to note the effects of the visit to Sydney of a band of American entertainers. Reports of the way 'rock and roll' has been received by overseas audiences, coupled with the almost unanimous acceptance of Elvis Presley who, despite his repulsive antics, is now the current idol of the younger set, lead one to believe that the arrival of Mr Haley could be regretted for years to come.*

*We have only to glance through the daily papers to read the shocking manner in which teenagers of today, throughout the world, carry on.*

*The morals of the modern generation, with the exception of a small minority, have nearly reached an all time low, and 'rock and roll' has done nothing to improve them.*

*Already the general outlook of the Australian teenager has begun to deteriorate rapidly and to such an extent that something must be done to prevent the low level which they are gradually approaching, being attained.*

*Strongly opposed by most leading musicians, both modern and classical, 'rock and roll' represents a serious threat to the community.*

*In both Britain and the United States riots are prevalent where this form of entertainment is played. We must see that it is not given the same opportunity to take a grip on our own youth.*

Letter to the editor by John J Sutton, *The Sun*, Sydney, January 1957.  
Reprinted in *My Generation. Growing up in Australia 1950s to 1980s*, Bernie Howitt, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne, 1992, pp. 25–6

- 1 John Manners and John J Sutton hold very different views. Identify each viewpoint or perspective.
- 2 List the words used that help you identify each perspective.
- 3 John Sutton's age is not given. Is there any evidence to indicate his approximate age?
- 4 Is one perspective more accurate than the other?
- 5 How would you use these two sources as evidence to argue that rock'n'roll music created a generation gap in Australia in 1957?

## Television arrives

Television had proven critical in the United States in allowing rock'n'roll to progress from local to national acceptance. Regardless of distance, it meant that teenagers across the country could turn on their televisions and see Elvis Presley on nationally broadcast shows such as *The Ed Sullivan Show* (originally called *Toast of the Town*) and *The Milton Berle Show*.

Certainly television had the same potential in a country the size of Australia, in spite of its small population and physical isolation. Political disputes about the model to be used delayed introduction here. It was finally decided that Australia would have a joint government (following the British model) and private (following the American model) television station ownership. This compromise between British and American influences was typical of Australia in the 1950s.

The Melbourne Olympic Games in November 1956 were the catalyst for the introduction of television. Government and commercial stations were operating in Sydney and Melbourne in time to televise the Games, and by 1960 Brisbane, Adelaide and Perth also had stations. Like many new technologies, television sets were initially expensive. In 1956, a new set would cost over \$400, at a time when the average weekly wage was just over \$30 a week. As a result it is estimated that only about 5 per cent of Melbourne and 1 per cent of Sydney households had a television by 1960.

To encourage investment in television stations, the Menzies Government had decided not to have a local content **quota** for programming. Therefore programming in the early years of television in Australia was dominated by American programs. There were few facilities to produce local programs and, technically, there was no equipment to record and broadcast material. As a result, local content had to be done live, and consisted mainly of quiz and game shows that had been popular on radio. When a Senate Committee reported on Australian television content in 1963, it estimated that 97 per cent of all television drama shown between 1956 and 1963 was American. This became a powerful agent of cultural change.

With rock'n'roll and television established in Australia by the end of 1956, they became major vehicles for social and cultural change in the country. Both enabled the transmission of American popular culture in a more direct way than film and the visits of American troops during World War II had been able to achieve.



**Source 4.15** A family watches a television in the television lounge at Grace Brothers, Broadway, Sydney, on 24 November 1956.



**Source 4.16** At the Melbourne Olympics in 1956, Ireland's Ron Delaney wins the final of the 1500 metres in a new Olympic record time of 3:41.2. Second is Germany's Walter Richtzenhain (No. 134); third is John Landy of Australia (No. 156).

### contestability: 'Welcome to television'?

For historians, one of the difficulties in studying the early years of Australian television is that so little primary source material survives. With no videotape or equipment to record television shows, live broadcasts were unique events. There is even debate regarding the famous footage of Bruce Gyngell saying 'Welcome to television' on TCN 9 in Sydney. According to Gerald Stone, the original kinescope film was lost, and Gyngell recreated the event a year later.



**Source 4.17** Bruce Gyngell re-enacted his introduction to the first regular television broadcast service.

## Check your learning

- 1 List the continuities and changes you can identify in Australian popular culture between 1946 and 1956.
- 2 What evidence is there that rock'n'roll arrived in Australia very rapidly?
- 3 What contribution did the 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games make to popular culture in Australia?
- 4 Which Menzies Government decision allowed television to introduce American culture into Australia?
- 5 How did technology assist in allowing popular culture to contribute to changes to Australian society in the 1950s?

## Major developments in popular culture

Once rock'n'roll and television became established as part of Australian life, they became significant contributors to popular culture. From the 1960s, developments in popular culture started to have a major impact on Australian society and national identity.

### The Beatles arrive

On 11 June 1964, The Beatles arrived in Australia for their only visit. The tour had been arranged before the start of Beatlemania. By June 1964, The Beatles were the most famous people on the planet. Concerts in Adelaide had been added because of public demand, and 350 000 people lined the entire drive from the airport to the centre of Adelaide. The crowds were repeated wherever The Beatles went. For two weeks, Australia was the centre of the popular culture universe.

The Beatles' tour had a direct impact on Australian society. Teenagers disobeyed authority for the first time in their lives, ignoring police instructions as they massed anywhere that The Beatles might appear. The mobilisation of so many teenagers was an early sign of the mass movement that would protest against the Vietnam War.

The tour also showed that Australia retained very strong cultural links with Britain. The Beatles entered the Australian charts six months before the American charts. British migrants arriving in Australia would bring their records out with them, ensuring that Australia was kept up to date with the pop boom that was exploding in England.

The Beatles' tour changed the face of Australian music. Groups replaced singers almost instantly, and pop music became the quickest way for many migrants to assimilate into Australian culture. The Easybeats in Sydney and The Twilights in Adelaide were two bands who formed in the aftermath of The Beatles tour and both consisted mainly of migrants. These bands would go on to create original Australian music, as well as tour England.



**Source 4.18** Police hold back Beatles fans at Sydney airport in June 1964, as Ringo Starr and Brian Epstein (the manager) arrive. The pair missed the early part of the Australian tour because Ringo had his tonsils out.

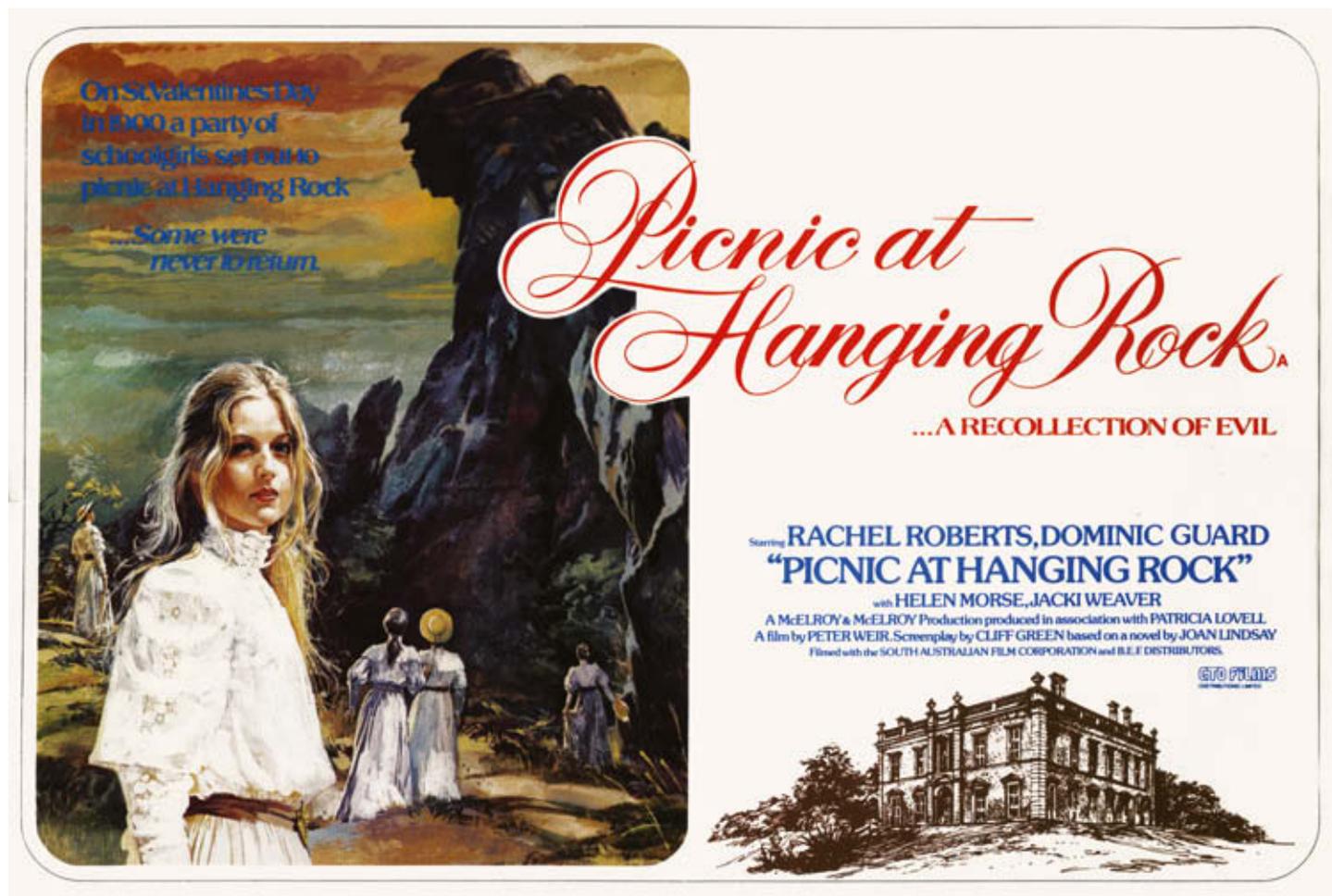
## The great film revival

Australia has had a vibrant film industry at various times in its history, and film has become a significant way for Australians to reflect on their national identity and confront aspects of Australian life. The early 1970s saw the emergence of what has been called the 'new wave' of Australian film.

The timing of the new wave reflected a growing interest in Australian culture and had the political support of two Australian prime ministers. The Liberal John Gorton was prime minister from 1968 until 1971, and Labor's Gough Whitlam from 1972 until 1975. These two politicians laid the groundwork for Australian film to emerge as a major contributor to a national popular culture in the early 1970s.

Gorton established the Australian Council for the Arts, the Australian Film Development Corporation, and the National Film and Television Training School. Whitlam continued the support by creating the Australian Film Commission to help finance and produce films that could reach an international market. This was the first time film had received such specific government support and the result was a boom in Australian films.

The 1970s saw films as diverse as *Walkabout* and *Wake in Fright* in 1971, *Alvin Purple* in 1973, *Picnic at Hanging Rock* in 1975 and *Mad Max* in 1979. Directors such as Peter Weir, Gillian Armstrong, George Miller and Bruce Beresford got their start in this period. Actors also thrived under the system. Future international stars such as Mel Gibson, Sam Neill, Jacki Weaver and Judy Morris all got their start in the 1970s new wave.



Source 4.19 Film Poster for *Picnic at Hanging Rock*, 1975

The themes the films in this period covered also signalled a new confidence in Australian culture. *Stork*, *The Adventures of Barry McKenzie* and *Alvin Purple* celebrated the larrikin Australian spirit. Uniquely Australian stories such as *Picnic at Hanging Rock*, *Caddie* and *Sunday Too Far Away* all received overseas attention; and the vastness of the Australian outback was captured in *Walkabout*, which introduced Australians to the Indigenous actor David Gulpilil. *Wake in Fright* focused on the darker side of country life. This theme was taken to apocalyptic lengths in the *Mad Max* series, which led to international success for the *Mad Max* films, actor Mel Gibson and director George Miller. The sinister depiction of the Australian countryside was a recurrent theme throughout the 1970s, and paved the way for 21st-century successes such as *Wolf Creek*.

Australian literature also became a rich source for film makers, and showed the capacity of Australian culture to change and evolve. *Walkabout*, *Picnic at Hanging Rock*, *The Chant of Jimmie Blacksmith* and *My Brilliant Career* were all 1970s films that were based on great Australian novels. Playwright David Williamson had two plays turned into successful 1970s films, *Don's Party* and *The Removalists*, and continued that trend into the 1980s with *The Club*, *Travelling North* and *Emerald City*.

Australian film has built on the 1970s 'new wave'. *Crocodile Dundee* in 1986 became Australia's most successful film internationally. The ten highest grossing Australian films have all been made since 1982 and have told distinctly Australian stories, such as the fictional *Man From Snowy River* and *Red Dog*, through to film versions of historical events like *The Dish* and *Australia*.



Source 4.20 *Red Dog* was a hit with Australian audiences in 2011.

### perspectives: images of Australia

focus on ...

Two films from 1971, *Walkabout* and *Wake in Fright*, were at the very start of the new wave of Australian film. Both were filmed in the Australian outback and shown at the prestigious Cannes Film Festival in 1971. The filmmakers' focus on the countryside and life in the outback maintained the view of Australia as a wild, untamed place, despite the reality of Australia as an increasingly urbanised society.



Sources 4.21 and 4.22 Two 1971 Australian films from the start of the 1970s new wave: *Wake in Fright* (left) and *Walkabout* (right)

## The soopies take off

The term 'soap opera' originally referred to ongoing radio serials. They were called soap operas (in Australia, this was characteristically shortened to simply 'soopies') because they were usually sponsored by soap companies. These serials were aired during the day when housewives were the main audience. The idea transferred to television originally in the United States in the early 1950s. Television soopies are characterised by an ongoing storyline that can go across a number of episodes. They often try and depict 'real life', but require viewers to suspend reality. Cliffhanger endings are frequently used to end individual episodes, or at the end of a season.

Australia's first television soapie was *Autumn Affair*, which ran on Channel 7 for 15 minutes a day in 1958 and 1959. In 1967, the ABC launched the first early evening soapie, *Bellbird*, dealing with life in a fictional rural town of the same name (see Source 4.23). The 15-minute episodes were the lead-in to the ABC news, and *Bellbird* drew a large and loyal following at a time when the ABC was the only network to broadcast nationally. It lasted until 1977 when viewers were left shattered by its abrupt end after it became a victim of the Fraser Government's budget cuts.



**Source 4.23** The locals gather in a pub in *Bellbird*. From 1967, Australians were glued to their television sets for a decade watching *Bellbird*, the first early evening soapie.

## Soopies in the 1970s

The 1970s can be seen as a time of social, political and cultural change. There had been 23 years of largely conservative government by the Liberal–Country Party coalition. Australia at the end of the decade was largely unrecognisable from the country that had black-and-white television, refused to recognise China, conscripted young people to fight in Vietnam, and refused to allow most Asians to immigrate.

The sense of excitement and social change in early 1970s Australia was picked by television programmers. *Number 96* was launched in 1972, and caused a sensation with its depiction of topics that had previously been taboo on television. These included nudity and acknowledgement of sexual activity, homosexuality and drugs. The liberation of television from previous conservatism is often perceived as being part of the Whitlam years, but the premiere of *Number 96* was in March 1972, well and truly in the McMahon prime ministership.

*Number 96* brought previous cultural barriers crashing down (see Source 4.24), and it was followed in 1974 by *The Box*. Set in a television station, *The Box* tried to take the sexual themes and nudity of *Number 96* a step further. The first soapie aimed at teenagers, *The Class of '74*, was launched in the same year, and attracted considerable attention. Set in a high school, it suggested that teenagers had an interest more in social activities than schoolwork. This meant it was subject to intense institutional scrutiny. The Broadcasting Control Board would often demand script changes to make it more 'acceptable' for early evening viewing.

*Bellbird* had produced a film version as early as 1971, and *Number 96* and *The Box* followed. Film versions of television soapies had the advantage of being able to be filmed in colour, as well as being able to show more nudity than was allowed on television at the time. The arrival of colour television to Australia in 1975 removed some of the advantage the big screen held.

A new style of soapie was introduced in 1976 when *The Sullivans* was launched. Set in World War II-era Melbourne, it ran until 1982, and drew viewers into following the lives of its fictional family. *The Sullivans* echoed the success of Australian films in the 1970s, and reflected an interest in Australians exploring their own culture. Its success was echoed in the 1980s by *A Country Practice*, which revived a *Bellbird* style of storytelling set in a country town. *Prisoner* and *Sons and Daughters* also found long-running success in the 1980s, as the television emerged as a major focus of Australian popular culture.



Source 4.24 Actors Abigail and Joe Hasham in a scene from the TV Show *Number 96*

## Miniseries in the 1980s

The election of Bob Hawke in 1983 returned the Labor Party to power, and heralded a period of consensus in Australian politics. Hawke portrayed a down-to-earth Australian image. He had won a beer-drinking competition while a student at Oxford University, and was able to draw a wide following in the community. He still holds the record for the highest approval rating of any prime minister. He was re-elected in 1984, 1987 and 1990.

The Hawke years were characterised by economic reform and a confidence in Australian popular culture. Television launched a number of miniseries that depicted aspects of Australian life. Miniseries were longer than a traditional film, but limited to a single, self-contained story rather than an open-ended narrative that would be found in long-running television series.

Miniseries boomed in the Hawke era as Australian history and culture became favoured topics for exploration. These included *Bodyline*, which looked at the events behind the 1932–33 cricket series between Australia and England; *The Dismissal*, which examined the sacking of the Whitlam government; *The Cowra Breakout*, a famous incident from World War II; and *Vietnam*, which was a major examination of a war that was still a hotly debated topic in Australian society.

Australian novels such as Ruth Park's *The Harp in The South* and *Poor Man's Orange*, memoirs like Albert Facey's *A Fortunate Life*, and novels about Australia such as *A Town Like Alice* (see Source 4.25) all provided material for successful miniseries. Indigenous issues were firmly placed on the television agenda with the acclaimed *Women of the Sun*, while *Bangkok Hilton* fictionalised the experience of young Australians caught smuggling drugs from Asia.



Source 4.25 A still from the film *A Town Like Alice*

### ***Neighbours and Home and Away***

Australia's interest in gathering around the television to share the lives of fictional soap characters culminated in two extraordinarily long-running shows—*Neighbours* and *Home and Away* (see Sources 4.26 and 4.27). When *Neighbours* was first shown in 1985, Ronald Reagan was president of the United States, the Cold War still pitted the United States and Soviet Union against each other, and Bruce Springsteen and Neil Young were touring Australia for the first time. A 15-year-old who watched the debut episode of *Neighbours* turned 40 in 2010. *Home and Away* followed, premiering in January 1988 as Australia celebrated its bicentennial of British settlement.

These two television soapies have, between them, aired nearly 12000 episodes. As with the miniseries boom, they emerged from an Australia that was becoming increasingly confident in using popular culture to explore its own stories. As the bicentennial of Captain's Cook's landing in Australia approached, there was a focus on national reflection, and a questioning



Source 4.26 Cornelia Francis, Ray Meagher and Mark Furze in the long-running Channel 7 soap opera *Home and Away*

of what being Australian meant. The lives of ‘ordinary’ Australians, in fictionalised settings such as Erinsborough (*Neighbours*), filmed at Melbourne’s Vermont South, and Summer Bay (*Home and Away*), filmed at Sydney’s Palm Beach, became seen as a valid source of entertainment. Teen audiences emerged as a major target for advertisers, and this helped cement the emergence of the two soaps that dominated the 1990s and early 2000s.

They have proved a rich training ground for aspiring actors and musicians. Among the talent to have emerged from *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* are Guy Pearce, Kylie Minogue, Jason Donovan, Natalie Imbruglia, Delta Goodrem, Melissa George and Julian McMahon. All played recurring roles in the soaps before moving on to major international success.

Although celebrating the life of average Australians, both shows have been criticised for focusing on a ‘white’ view of Australia. And while both series have dealt with controversial social issues such as drugs, sexuality and teen pregnancy, race and ethnicity have rarely featured. Token attempts at introducing minor characters have failed to challenge criticism that the racial composition of Erinsborough and Summer Bay fails to reflect that of modern Australia.

Both series project a vision of Australia that has proven extremely attractive to overseas viewers. *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* have had extraordinary success being sold internationally. The image of Australia as a country of sunshine, surf and white faces proved irresistible in many markets. *Neighbours* was so successful in Britain that, in 1988, programmers were forced to move it from early to late afternoon because so many school students were failing to return to school after going home at lunch. *Neighbours* has been shown in countries as diverse as Kenya, Barbados, Iceland and Ireland. In the 1990s it was even shown in the prized United States market. *Home and Away* has been popular throughout Europe, as well as Israel and Canada.

Each show has enthusiastically embraced social media as a way of interacting with a new audience, necessary to sustain such longevity. In 2009, *Neighbours* became the first Australian television show to establish Twitter accounts for its characters and, in 2011, was the first television show to be available on an iPhone app for an increasingly tech-savvy young audience. Both shows offer viewers the opportunity to catch up on missed episodes and preview forthcoming stories through their websites.



Source 4.27 Jason Donovan and Kylie Minogue in a wedding scene from *Neighbours*, 1987

## 4.2 What developments in popular culture most affected Australia after World War II?

### Remember

- 1 Outline the major developments in Australian popular culture since World War II.
- 2 Who was on the first rock'n'roll tour of Australia and when was it?
- 3 Explain why Bill Haley's and The Beatles' tours of Australia were important developments in Australian popular culture.
- 4 When did television arrive in Australia?

### Understand

- 5 Why were the prime ministerships of John Gorton and Gough Whitlam significant in promoting Australian popular culture?
- 6 What image of Australia do Sources 4.21 and 4.22 convey?
- 7 Watch an episode of an Australian soap, and create a series of tweets for one of the characters as they explain the situation they find themselves in.

### Apply

- 8 As a class, discuss what life would be like if Australia had successfully resisted the arrival of British and American popular culture since the 1940s.
- 9 Reread Source 4.13. Write a response from the perspective of a teenager in the 1950s.
- 10 In pairs, taking opposing sides, argue the case that Britain or the United States has been more influential on Australia's popular culture.

### Analyse

- 11 Look at the film stills in Sources 4.21 and 4.22 (*Walkabout*; *Wake in Fright*). How are films such as these useful for Australian historians?
- 12 Select an Australian film that has been released since World War II. Analyse it to explain the image of Australia it portrays, and its contribution to Australian popular culture.

### Evaluate

- 13 In pairs, discuss what you regard as the most significant events in the development of Australian popular culture since World War II. Use the discussion to create a list of the ten most important developments. Compare your list with other pairs in the class. Discuss differences and see if you can agree on a 'Top 10' as a class.
- 14 As a class, debate the suggestion that 'Australia is now a cultural colony of the United States'.
- 15 Debate as a class the argument that Indigenous Australians have been underrepresented in Australian popular culture. Brainstorm solutions that could change the situation.

### Create

- 16 As a class, create an illustrated guide to Australian popular culture since World War II. Use illustrations to show the changing nature of popular culture in this time. You could divide the guide into sections such as music, film, television and sport.
- 17 Design a poster to advertise an Australian film, television show or live concert you have enjoyed.
- 18 Listen to the music of some of the artists who toured Australia in the 1950s. Create a line-up for a concert by some of these artists. Design a poster to advertise a concert, and write two reviews of the imaginary concert, one for a daily newspaper and one for a teenage magazine.



**Source 4.28** Rock icon Ian 'Molly' Meldrum, host of the influential television music show, *Countdown* which screened from 1974 to 1987

## 4.3 How have the Australian music, film and television industries changed in Australia?

*Just as Australian music, film and television shows have helped to change Australian society, so too have they themselves changed. In 1956, recording facilities in Australia were primitive, and rock'n'roll and television were in their infancy. The film industry was dominated by American imports, and very few Australian films were made until the 1970s. By the 21st century, all three industries have helped reflect a distinct Australian identity.*

### Music

Rock'n'roll was identified as rebellious music for teenagers from its earliest days in Australia. The first rock'n'roll exploitation film *Rock Around the Clock* was released in Sydney on 14 September 1956. Ten days later two youths were fined for dancing in Pitt Street after viewing the film. The link between rock'n'roll and teenage misbehaviour was established, even before there were any rock'n'roll bands in Australia.

## The origins of Australian rock

Typical of the early Australian rock industry, most songs were covers of American acts. The first original Australian song was probably 'Rock'n'Roll Washboard' by the Schneider Sisters, written in November 1956, when they needed a fourth track to complete an EP. The Schneiders came from a country music background, and this was also typical of the early Australian industry, with established artists from other genres attracted to rock'n'roll because of its novelty value and links to the emerging teenage market.

focus on ...

### contestability: George Assang

There is considerable debate about what was Australia's first rock'n'roll record. The unlikely pioneer of Australian rock'n'roll was an Indigenous Australian called George Assang. He was born on Thursday Island, and his smooth singing voice got him regular work fronting jazz and swing bands on the Australian circuit. On 12 July 1956, under his stage name of Vic Sabrino, he released a version of 'Heartbreak Hotel' simultaneously with Elvis Presley's version. There is still some debate about when he recorded an earlier cover, that of Bill Haley's 'Rock Around the Clock'. Whether it was 1955 or 1956, the Vic Sabrino jazz/swing version of 'Rock Around the Clock' could make a case for being Australia's earliest attempt at rock'n'roll.

### Johnny O'Keefe

Rock'n'roll really took off in Australia with the excitement of Bill Haley's January 1957 tour. The most significant recipient of that excitement was Johnny O'Keefe, who led what was regarded as Australia's only working rock'n'roll band. Haley left O'Keefe a song, 'You Hit the Wrong Note Billy Goat', which was released in 1957 on Festival Records.

The early Australian rock music industry was centered on O'Keefe and Festival Records. O'Keefe pioneered a live rock'n'roll circuit of suburban dances, while Festival gave local artists the opportunity to record in their studios. Local dances were often wild affairs as teenagers found this the perfect opportunity to cut loose from the straightjacket conservatism of the Menzies years. One riotous night was the origin of O'Keefe's trailblazing 1958 release, 'The Wild One'. This was the first genuine Australian rock'n'roll hit record. Its significance in Australian popular culture is even greater, when Buddy Holly and the Crickets took it back to the United States after touring with O'Keefe, and drummer Jerry Allison released it as 'Real Wild Child' in the United States. It has subsequently been recorded by artists as diverse as Jerry Lee Lewis, Joan Jett, Status Quo and, most famously, Iggy Pop, whose version has been used as the theme to ABC TV's *Rage* for 20 years.

### Surf music

The international surf music boom from 1962 launched the next phase of Australian music. Sydney band The Atlantics created a huge local hit, 'Bombora', which was released internationally, even receiving the US *Cashbox Magazine's* Record of the Week accolade. Suddenly surf bands were everywhere, playing suburban dances, imitating Britain's Shadows, and having teenage boys clamouring for guitars so they could be cool.

The classic rock line-up of guitars, bass and drums emerged at this point, and major international labels such as CBS and HMV began investing in the local industry. As The Beach Boys started to make the charts, vocals started to influence surf music, and 14-year-old Little Pattie entered the charts with 'He's My Blonde Headed Stompie Wompie Real Gone Surfer Boy' late in 1963. The summer of 1963–4 was the highpoint of the surf music craze in Australia, as British popular culture reasserted itself.



Source 4.29 Johnny O'Keefe performs on stage, 1963.

## Singles charts

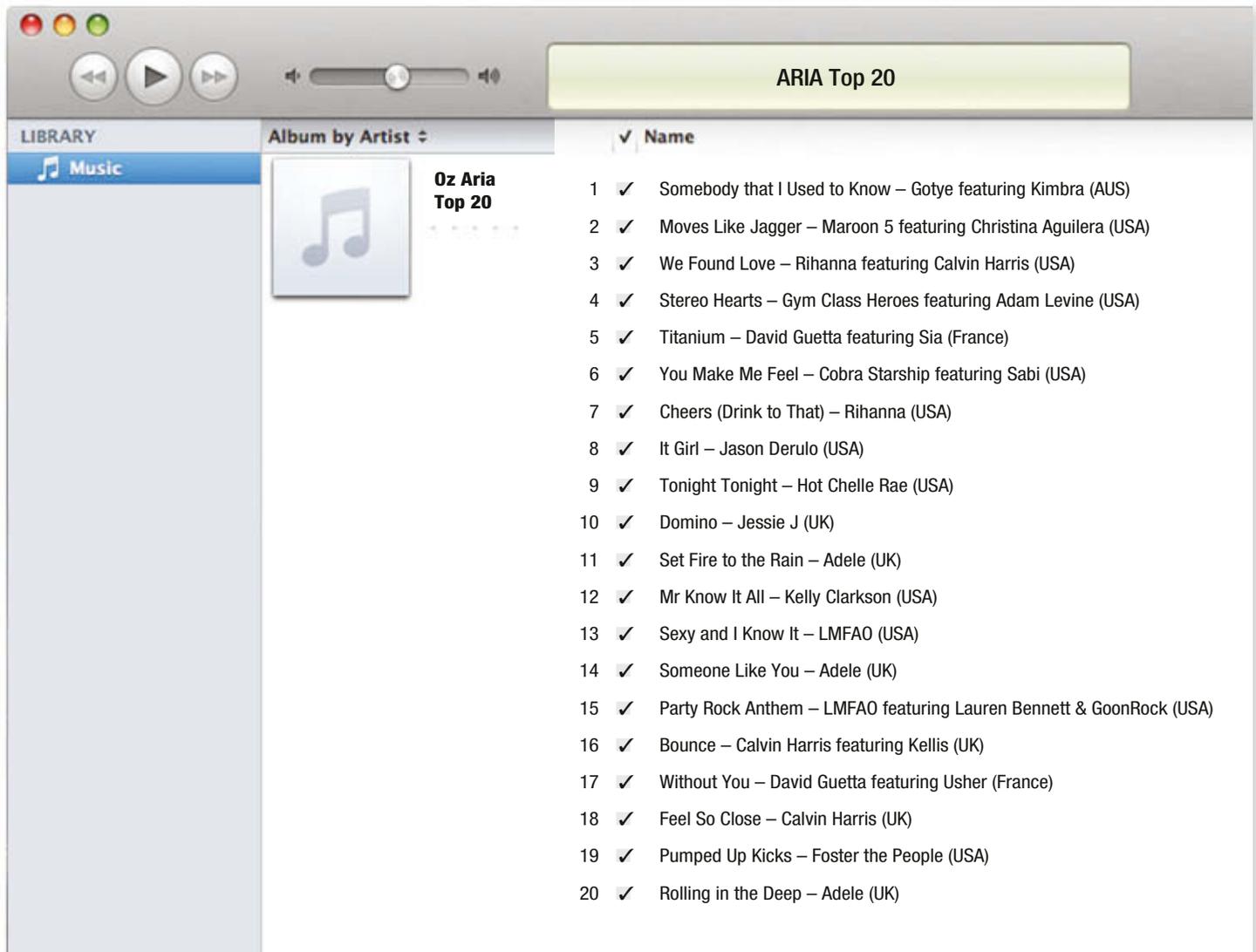
Singles charts have been around as long as there has been recorded music. Rock'n'roll record charts are a valuable primary source for historians. They can give a valuable insight into what was popular at a particular time, the origin of popular culture influences, and names significant individuals and groups that had an impact in a specific time and place. Like all sources, they then have to be interpreted.

Charts are an accurate reminder of what actually sold well, as opposed to what later became significant.



- 1 **Billy Don't Be A Hero – Paper Lace (UK)**
- 2 **Evie – Stevie Wright (AUS)**
- 3 **Would You Lay With Me In A Field of Stone? – Judy Stone (AUS)**
- 4 **The Streak – Ray Stevens (USA)**
- 5 **The Loco-motion – Grand Funk (USA)**
- 6 **The Entertainer – Marvin Hamlisch (USA)**
- 7 **Slipstream – Sherbet (AUS)**
- 8 **My Girl Bill – Jim Stafford (USA)/Cash Backman (AUS)**
- 9 **Sugar Baby Love – The Rubettes (UK)**
- 10 **Devil Gate Drive – Suzie Quatro (USA)**
- 11 **Waterloo – Abba (Sweden)**
- 12 **You Make Me Feel Brand New – The Stylistics (USA)**
- 13 **Candle In the Wind/Benny and the Jets – Elton John (UK)**
- 14 **Emma – Hot Chocolate (UK)**
- 15 **Sundown – Gordon Lightfoot (Canada)**
- 16 **Hooked on a Feeling – Blue Swede (Sweden)**
- 17 **Can't Stop Myself From Loving You – William Shakespeare (AUS)**
- 18 **I Get A Little Sentimental Over You – The New Seekers (UK)**
- 19 **I'll Take You Home Again Kathleen – Lieutenant Pigeon (UK)**
- 20 **Long Live Love – Olivia Newton John (AUS)**

Source 4.30 Go-Set Australian Top 20, 17 August 1974



Source 4.31 ARIA Australian Top 20, 3 March 2011

## Check your learning

- 1 Why are these Top 20 charts primary sources?
- 2 How could a historian investigating the impact of American and British popular culture on Australia use these sources?
- 3 What evidence is there that Australia was able to absorb and respond to overseas popular culture in the 1970s?
- 4 Identify the elements of continuity and the elements of change between the two charts.

## The beat boom

The Beatles tour of June 1964 revolutionised the Australian music industry. It seemed as if overnight instrumental groups and solo singers were out, and rock'n'roll bands were in. Smaller, independent companies such as W&G in Melbourne, Clarion in Perth and Alberts in Sydney prospered in the wake of Beatlemania. Teenagers across the country demanded records and live concerts, and the music industry boomed from 1964.

A vibrant national scene with suburban dances and concerts in country towns, gave acts such as The Easybeats, and Ray Brown and the Whispers (Sydney); The Twilights and Masters Apprentices (Adelaide); Bobby and Laurie, The Loved Ones, and Normie Rowe and The Playboys (Melbourne); Tony Worsley and The Blue Jays, and The Five (Brisbane); and Johnny Young Kompany (Perth) the opportunity to make a career in music.

By 1966, The Easybeats and Normie Rowe, two of the biggest names on the local scene, had moved to England to try and crack the international market. They were followed by The Twilights, who won a trip to the UK as inaugural winners of the Hoadley's Battle of the Sounds band competition. The Easybeats recorded 'Friday on My Mind', the song that was voted best Australian song of all time in 2001, in London in 1966. It reached the Top 20 in the US and Top 10 in the UK. Normie Rowe recorded a number of songs in London that were huge hits back in Australia, while The Twilights were recording at the famous Abbey Road studios at the same time The Beatles were recording 'Penny Lane'.

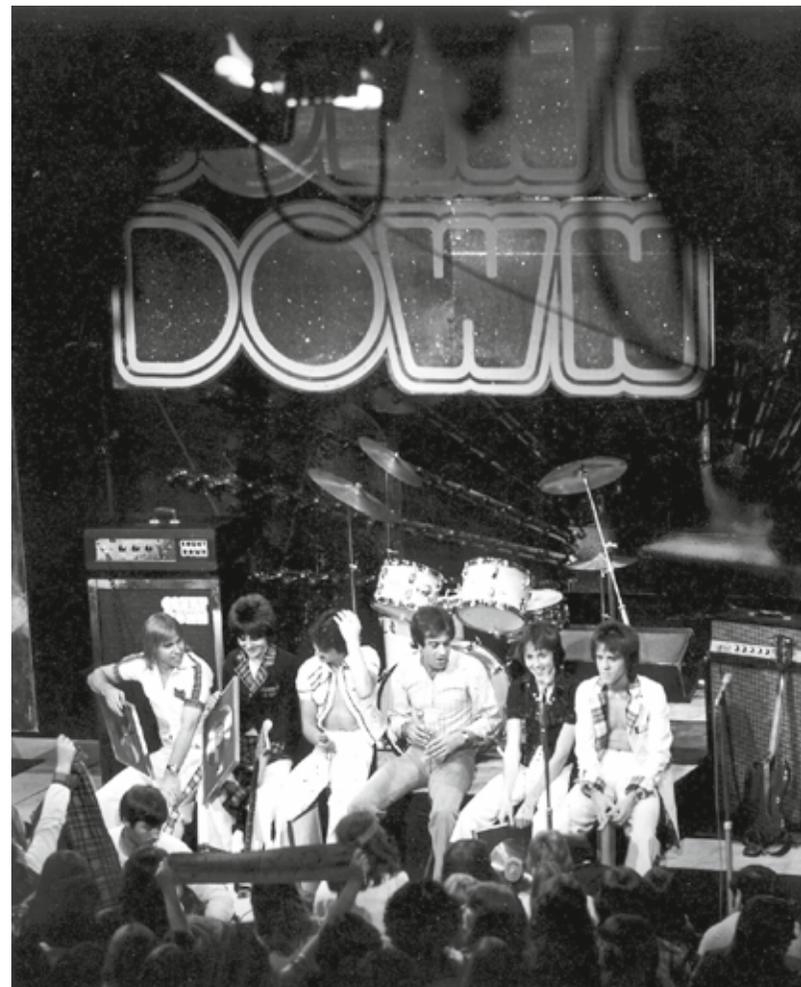
## The 1970s: *Countdown* and Double J

Australian music diversified in the 1970s as a new range of acts replaced the beat boom veterans. Experimental acts such as Tully, Tamam Shud and Levi Smith's Clefs reflected changes in society as drug use and alternative lifestyles mirrored overseas trends. Festivals such as Ourimbah and Sunbury became gatherings of the young. Music was growing with the **baby boomer** generation, until the ABC launched a television show that brought young people back to music.

Television had played a significant role in allowing access to rock music since Johnny O'Keefe was given a show called *Six O'Clock Rock* in 1959. Because the ABC was the only national broadcaster at the time, any show on ABC was critical in bringing information to the more remote areas of Australia. When *Countdown* started on 8 November 1974, it created a critical venue for new Australian acts. Sunday evenings became compulsory viewing if you wanted to know what was happening in Australian music. The show made stars of acts such as Skyhooks, Sherbet and John Paul Young, while alternative bands such as Cold Chisel and Midnight Oil made careers from resisting *Countdown's* star making.



Source 4.32 The Beatles arrived in Adelaide on 12 June 1964.



Source 4.33 Molly Meldrum with the Bay City Rollers on *Countdown* in 1975

The Whitlam Government granted the first new radio licence in an Australian capital city since 1932 to the ABC. They created the first non-commercial rock radio station when Double J started broadcasting in January 1975. Committed to alternative music and challenging the commercial monopoly on rock, they started broadcasting with Skyhooks' 'You Just Like Me 'Cos I'm Good in Bed', which had been banned by commercial radio.

Double J became Triple J in 1980 when the FM band was finally opened for radio broadcasting. The Whitlam dream of a national youth radio network was finally realised in 1989, when Triple J became a national network. It has played a crucial role in championing Australian music, often playing music that commercial radio programmers deemed unsuitable. The Triple J annual Hottest 100 has become a staple of Australian music. It gives Australian bands the opportunity to compete with international acts. The 2010 Hottest100, for example, was topped by Australian acts Angus and Julia Stone and Little Red. Perhaps the greatest indicator of Triple J's contribution to the Australian music industry is its support for emerging independent Australian bands. Sydney band The Jezabels reached number 16 with 'Mace Spray' and number 49 with 'Easy to Love' in the 2010 Hottest 100. This was despite being totally independent and only releasing three independent EPs. Providing opportunities for bands like The Jezabels and literally thousands of others over the years indicates why the Whitlam Government's support for a youth radio network was such a critical decision for the development of the Australian music industry.

By harnessing new technological developments like colour television (*Countdown*) and FM broadcasting (Triple J), Australian music was able to enter an era of genuine international acceptance.

## Australian music goes global

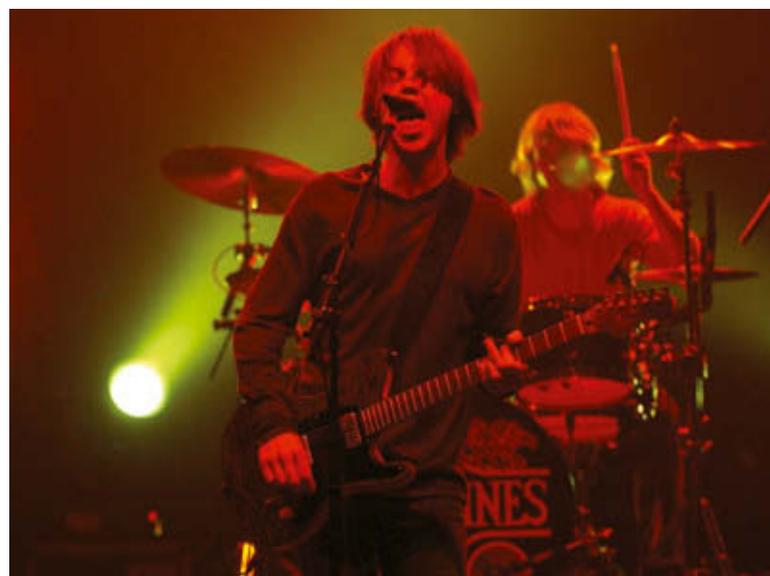
From Johnny O'Keefe's attempt to crack the American market in 1959 to The Jezabels' independent assault on Europe and North America in 2011, Australian acts have always attempted to test themselves against the rest of the world. The 1980s saw an exodus of Australian music that had a genuine global impact. From the early 1980s, bands like Brisbane's The Go-Betweens developed a cult following across Europe and North America. Following their blazing path, bands such as INXS, Midnight Oil, Jet, The Vines and Savage Garden have achieved global recognition representing a diversity of sounds.

Australian popular music is critical for Australia's cultural life. It allows for a range of Australians to express views and opinions, and establishes an understanding of modern Australia on a global scale. It has also grown from a cultural form that was despised by an older generation into a major contributor to the Australian economy. It was estimated that music-related activities added \$1.55 billion value to the Australian economy in 1984–5, and \$6.82 billion in 2005–6. That is enormous change from the days when Vic Sabrino recorded a cover of 'Rock Around the Clock'.

The next step in securing the future of rock music as an Australian popular culture came on 5 October 2011, when Triple J launched Triple J Unearthed, a station devoted entirely to unsigned Australian bands. The digital and online station was set up to help the next generation of musicians prepare to follow in the footsteps of artists ranging from Johnny O'Keefe to The Jezabels.



Source 4.34 Radio presenters Adam Spencer and Helen Razer in the Triple J studio in Ultimo, 1998



Source 4.35 The Vines perform in Los Angeles as part of their 'Aussie Invasion' tour of the USA, 2004.

## Check your learning

- 1 What are the main contenders to be recognised as Australia's first rock'n'roll record?
- 2 When was surf music popular in Australia?
- 3 What impact did The Beatles' tour of Australia have on the local music industry?
- 4 How did the Whitlam Government help the Australian music industry?
- 5 How do The Jezabels highlight the importance of Triple J to Australian music?

## Film

By the 1950s most Australian cities and suburbs had access to a picture theatre. Going to the 'flicks' was a popular pastime for people of all ages or generations. Signs of change were apparent in 1954 when the first drive-in cinema opened in Melbourne. This reflected the emergence of the private car as the main means of transport, as suburbs expanded in the post-war baby boom. The most significant change for the Australian film industry at this stage was the emergence of television from 1956. With families able to stay at home to watch entertainment, many suburban theatres had closed by the end of the decade.

Liberal Prime Minister John Gorton was responsible for saving the Australian film industry. His introduction of a Film Development Corporation and National Film and Television Training School encouraged a new wave of film makers. The Whitlam Government built on Gorton's work with the Australian Film Commission, and these two prime ministers ensured that the 1970s would be a boom period of Australian film.

The 1970s generation of Australian film makers and actors repaid the government's investment in culture many times over by making a major impact on the international film industry. Directors such as Peter Weir, Gillian Armstrong and Bruce Beresford, and actors such as Mel Gibson, Judy Davis, David Gulpilil and Jack Thompson have gone on to win awards and attain international success.

### The *Crocodile Dundee* phenomenon

On 30 April 1986, the film *Crocodile Dundee* premiered in Australia and was produced on a budget of about \$10 million. It starred the Australian comic actor Paul Hogan, who had risen to prominence after winning a *New Faces* contest. *Crocodile Dundee* was released in both an Australian version and an international version that replaced Australian slang with more easily understood terms.

#### Source 4.36

Paul Hogan as Mick Dundee in *Crocodile Dundee*, 1986



Hogan's Mick Dundee became a huge hit in Australia with his laconic humour and 'no worries' attitude. The international appeal of such an obviously Australian character was put to the test when *Crocodile Dundee* was released in the USA on 26 September 1986. It proved a sensation, eventually becoming the second highest grossing film of the year in the United States, netting over \$174 million. Hogan also won a Golden Globe award for his performance, and the film was shown worldwide, from Argentina to Zimbabwe.

It placed Australian film firmly on the world's agenda, and was arguably the greatest boost to the Australian tourist industry ever. Hogan became the face of Australian tourism with his 'put another shrimp on the barbie' campaign. *Crocodile Dundee* remains the highest grossing Australian film of all time. And even though the two sequels, *Crocodile Dundee II* and *Crocodile Dundee in Los Angeles*, failed to go close to the original's success, it is unquestionably the most popular Australian film of all time on a global level.



Source 4.37 A still from Bollywood movie *Love Story 2050*, shot in Australia in 2008

## Towards a global film industry

The American film industry (often referred to simply as 'Hollywood' after the Los Angeles suburb where their modern film industry started) is the most dominant force in world film. Its sheer financial power and deals with distributors mean that independent theatre owners in Australia are often penalised financially if they do not show major Hollywood films. The power exerted by Hollywood has meant that government support has become essential for the Australian film industry to survive.

The success of small-scale films such as *Animal Kingdom*, which won the 2010 AFI award as best film, and saw Jacki Weaver win an Academy Award nomination, vindicates ongoing support for the Australian film industry. Government support has allowed Australia to retain a viable and valid film industry, essential for genuine cultural expression in the 21st century.

An alternative to Hollywood domination has emerged in the 21st century with the development of Australian links with India's thriving Bollywood film industry. India produces a guide to working with Australian film and media, and has started using Australia as an exotic backdrop for its films. By late 2006, major Indian films such as *Love Story 2050*, *Heyy Babyy* and *Chak De India* were being filmed in Australia, and crews were routinely moving between Australia and India.

The development of major film production studios in Sydney and Queensland has meant that Australian studios have developed a high skill level, and major blockbusters such as *The Matrix* series and *Star Wars* episodes 2 and 3 have been made in Australian studios.

Australia's increasing cultural links with Asia has also seen *anime* (Japanese animated cartoons) emerge as an important element of the film scene. The Japanese *anime* film *Akira* (1988), became a cult hit in Australia, and was the predecessor of an art form that has gained increasing attraction in popular culture through the rise of video and computer games.

## Check your learning

- 1 What caused the slump in the Australian film industry from the 1950s?
- 2 What role did John Gorton and Gough Whitlam play in changing the Australian film industry?
- 3 What is Australia's most successful film? How successful was it?
- 4 Why has government support been so important for Australian film makers?
- 5 What evidence is there from the film industry that Australia is moving closer to Asia?

## Television

The arrival of television in Australia in 1956 was a major catalyst for change. It ensured easy access to American popular culture, and the Menzies Government's decision to not apply any local content requirements meant that early television was dominated by American shows. Australian kids grew up with the *Mickey Mouse Club* and *Disneyland*, while cowboys like Roy Rogers and Hopalong Cassidy meant Australians became more familiar with the Wild West than the outback. Crime-based shows such as *Perry Mason* and *Dragnet* were popular adult fare, along with **sitcoms** (situation comedies) like *Father Knows Best* and *I Love Lucy* also attracting large audiences.



Source 4.38 From *Father Knows Best*, a 1950s TV program shown in Australia



Source 4.39 Graham Kennedy hosting the TV show *In Melbourne Tonight*, 1973

### Television expands

The early 1960s saw the expansion of television into more markets with the introduction of regional stations such as Gippsland in Victoria in 1961, and Newcastle in New South Wales the following year. The ABC also continued to expand nationally, and in 1964 a new commercial station 0 (Melbourne) and 10 (Sydney) commenced broadcasting. The introduction of a coaxial cable between Sydney and Melbourne paved the way for closer networking between stations in the two major Australian markets. This allowed for such innovations as a split screen that would allow Graham Kennedy in Melbourne and Don Lane in Sydney to appear simultaneously on the Nine network's *In Melbourne Tonight* (see Source 4.39).

The other major change to television in the 1960s was the development of satellite broadcasts. Perhaps more than any other technological development, this helped bring the world to Australia. In 1964, *Everybody's Magazine* had boldly predicted that Australians would be able to watch the 2000 Ashes series live on television from England. By 1967, they were watching The Beatles recording 'All You Need is Love' live from Abbey Road studios as part of the historic *Our World* broadcast. Broadcast to the largest worldwide audience of the time (400 million) on 25 June, it linked the world by satellite, with contributing countries showing the world an aspect of life in their country. While Britain gave The Beatles, and Italy had Franco Zeffirelli directing his groundbreaking film version of *Romeo and Juliet*, Australia's contribution was a shot of trams leaving their Melbourne depot in the pre-dawn.

### Sport

The 1967 Sydney Rugby League Grand Final between South Sydney and Canterbury Bankstown was the first sporting event to be broadcast live in Australia. Channel Nine paid \$5000 for the rights to a game that was won by Bobby McCarthy's famous intercept try. This telecast proved that sport was the perfect product for television.

By the 1970s, major sports events were regularly televised. The importance of the link between television and sport was shown in 1977 when Kerry Packer launched a raid on the sport of cricket, creating a private World Series competition in a successful bid to force the Australian Cricket Board to allow him the right to broadcast test matches. The 1976 Olympic Games from Montreal had its opening and closing ceremonies broadcast live, and by the 1984 Los Angeles Games, a wide range of popular events were being broadcast live into Australian homes. The 1977 VFL grand final between Collingwood and North Melbourne was the first shown live in Melbourne. The exciting draw showed that all football codes could be major drawcards in attracting viewers.

## Multicultural programming

The composition of the Australian population had changed significantly since World War II, and the establishment of the Special Broadcasting Services (SBS) in Melbourne and Sydney in 1980 under the Fraser Government was the first real mainstream media recognition of this. Broadcasting in a wide range of languages, it played a crucial role in helping immigrants adjust to Australian life. By the mid 1980s, SBS had expanded throughout most of the country.

Children growing up in 1960s Australia had been watching *multicultural* television without the term ever being used. Channel Nine had started showing a Japanese series called *The Samurai* in 1964 to cash in on the interest the forthcoming Olympic Games in Tokyo was generating. They invited viewers to write in if they wished to see more episodes and were deluged with positive replies. *The Samurai* became a massive hit in Australia.

The sight of children jumping from trees while flinging imaginary star knives became commonplace, as Australian viewers were introduced to the intricacies of medieval Japanese society. The success of *The Samurai* revealed the generation gap as vividly as had rock music. To the older generations, World War II had finished less than 20 years earlier, and inviting Japanese culture onto Australian television was unimaginable. For children brought up in the *Cold War*, the communist Russians were a more logical enemy than the Japanese; and Shintaro, hero of *The Samurai*, became a major popular culture figure in Australia.

Japanese *anime* was also introduced to Australian television viewers in the 1960s. *Astro Boy* was a mid-sixties favourite, and the Japanese-style drawing marked it as significantly different to the traditional American cartoons that were the staple of most afternoon television (see Source 4.40). Its futuristic plot where robots and humans coexist peacefully had resonance with the post-Cuba Cold War influenced world Australian children were growing up in. The cooperation theme was echoed in the other Japanese cartoon series to be a 1960s hit in Australia, *The Adventures of Kimba the White Lion*. By the time *Sailor Moon* arrived on Australian television screens in the 1990s, Australian viewers had long accepted *anime* as a form of television popular culture.

## Pay TV

The early 1990s saw two major changes to the Australian television landscape. The Hawke government's policy of aggregation meant that regional areas suddenly had access to three commercial channels rather than one. This meant that regional Australia was seeing virtually the same programs as its city counterparts for the first time ever.

The other major change was the introduction of subscription (pay) television. The idea of paying for extra services was a major change to the way Australians viewed television. Paying for something that had always been free (except for television licenses, which had been stopped in 1974 by the Whitlam Government), went against the general Australian understanding of media.



Source 4.40 A scene from *Astro Boy* (*Tetsuwan Atomu* or 'Iron Arm Atom'), 1963



**Source 4.41** Ken Cowly, chairman and chief executive of News Limited, with Mark Booth of United International Holdings, and Telstra's Frank Blount at the launch of Foxtel Cable TV at the Museum of Contemporary Art in Sydney, 1995

The first pay TV provider was Galaxy, which commenced operation in 1995. Foxtel, Optus and Austar were introduced to the market in 1995, and by 1998 Foxtel had absorbed Galaxy. The first major impact of pay TV was the Super League rugby league war. Rugby league had proven a popular sport on television, and Rupert Murdoch's News Ltd realised it would be a key to their investment in Foxtel being profitable. In an echo of Kerry Packer's raid on cricket in the 1970s to gain broadcast rights, News Ltd secretly signed clubs and players to create a breakaway competition. Court action during 1995 and 1996 failed to resolve the dispute, and two competitions existed in 1997. The warring parties came together in 1998, with News Ltd gaining a 50 per cent partnership in the running of rugby league as well as broadcasting rights for most games for their Foxtel network.

Sport has been the main driver in encouraging people to sign up for pay TV, but numbers have stabilised. By the end of 2010, of the two main companies, Foxtel had 1.63 million subscribers and Austar 761 000. The desire of pay TV companies to monopolise sports broadcasting to drive up the purchase of subscriptions has led to heated debate over which sporting events should be guaranteed access to free-to-air television.

### The digital revolution

The Australian government committed the country to a digital-only television platform by the mid 2010s. Free-to-air stations were given the opportunity to broadcast smaller niche channels, and each commercial network has developed spinoff channels. The Ten network for example, launched a sports channel, One, while the Seven network launched 7mate aimed at males aged from 16 to 49. The ABC launched a 24-hour news channel, and a channel aimed purely at children. The impact of the multiplicity of free-to-air options on pay TV is one of the big questions facing Australian television.



**Source 4.42** The late Kerry Packer

### Check your learning

- 1 Why was the development of communication satellites so important for Australian television?
- 2 What was the first sporting event broadcast live in Australia?
- 3 Why is sport so important to Australian television? What examples could you use to prove that it is?
- 4 How did 1960s Australian children's television show there was a generation gap in Australian society?
- 5 Which events do you think should be guaranteed to free-to-air television broadcasting?

## 4.3 How have the Australian music, film and television industries changed in Australia?

### Remember

- 1 Name at least three Australian acts that have achieved musical success overseas.
- 2 What is the most successful Australian film of all time?
- 3 What was the 1960s television show that looked at Japanese medieval history?
- 4 Name the two sports that had major splits over the purchase of television rights.

### Understand

- 5 Research one of the independent Australian music labels of the 1960s. How successful was it?
- 6 How does the 2010 Triple J Hottest 100 show the success the radio network has had in promoting independent Australian music?
- 7 How important is film to promote Australia as a tourist destination? What films would you show overseas to promote Australia?
- 8 How has technology changed the Australian television industry?
- 9 Read Source 4.43. Develop a playlist that you would use to show someone the music you feel best represents Australia and its popular culture.

#### Source 4.43

*As the lead singer with politically edged Aussie rock band Midnight Oil, Peter Garrett railed against 'US forces'.*

*Now the Oils—whose singer is a minister in the federal Labor government—feature on US President Barack Obama's iPod.*

*The music player, chock-full of Australian pop and rock music, was a gift to the American leader from Julia Gillard on her first visit to Washington as Prime Minister.*

Extract from 'Gillard gives Obama iPod with Aussie music',  
*Sydney Morning Herald*, 9 March 2011

### Apply

- 10 Write a letter to the federal Department of Broadband, Communications and the Digital Economy outlining future directions the government should consider to support Australian music, film and television production.
- 11 Explain what you think would have been the most appropriate scene for Australia to contribute to the 1967 *Our World* satellite broadcast.

### Analyse

- 12 Select one Australian song, film or television program, and explain its role in Australian popular culture.
- 13 What evidence can you find that Australian popular culture is starting to be influenced by Asia?
- 14 Compare Australian popular culture in 1946, 1956, 1966, 1976, 1986, 1996 and 2006. What are the continuities and changes? How could you explain the changes that have taken place over that period?

### Evaluate

- 15 How has technology changed the way Australians access popular culture?
- 16 As a class, discuss what you think are the best Australian song, film and television show of all time. Create promotional posters for the ones you decide as the winners.

### Create

- 17 Create a digital museum exhibition that highlights the changing nature of the Australian music, film and television industries since World War II.
- 18 Design and program a free-to-air digital channel that you think would appeal to your peers. What does your programming say about the popular culture that influences you?



**Source 4.44** The Jezabels at the Great Escape Festival, Brighton, England, taking Australian rock'n'roll to the world

## 4.4

### What has Australia contributed to international popular culture?

*At the end of World War II, Australia's major contribution to **popular culture** was probably Sir Donald Bradman. Outside sport, only a handful of musicians and actors had made any real impact internationally. Sixty years later, a young Australian band like The Jezabels can sell out the venue for their London show weeks before they take to the stage. Australia's contribution to popular culture has expanded as the country has absorbed international influences. Whether it is in music, film and television or sport, Australia has used popular culture to create a strong and unique vision of itself that has changed across time.*

#### Australian music reaches the world

Rock'n'roll established itself as a genuine popular culture in Australia by the late 1950s. It was quickly associated with teenagers, and the challenge would be whether it could change and adapt as teenagers grew up.

The first wave of Australian rock'n'rollers, who followed Johnny O'Keefe's example in the 1957–63 period, stayed in Australia. Rock'n'roll was still considered a novelty, and many musicians were amazed they could get paid for having such fun. The Beatles made rock'n'roll an international business and broke the American monopoly on originality. The explosion of Australian acts after The Beatles' tour of Australia in 1964 developed a uniquely Australian take on rock'n'roll.

## significance: The Easybeats

The Easybeats originated in Sydney's immigration centre at Villawood. After becoming the biggest band in Australia in 1965, they travelled to England. They recorded 'Friday On My Mind' in London in 1966. Not only did the song reach the Top 10 in England and Top 20 in the USA, but it made The Easybeats major European stars. The song is still played regularly on oldies radio stations in America, and was a feature of the 2009 British film about pirate radio, *The Boat that Rocked*. Arguably the greatest recognition of the song's impact was found on Bruce Springsteen's 1980 album *The River*. At the end of the second verse of 'Out In The Street', Springsteen sings, 'I've already got Friday on my mind'. For an artist with Springsteen's deep understanding of rock'n'roll history, this showed just what a major contribution The Easybeats made to international popular culture.

Australian pioneers such as The Easybeats, The Twilights and Normie Rowe travelled to England, which in 1966 was regarded as the centre of the rock'n'roll universe. To crack that market was an outrageous idea, but each of these pioneers created a niche. The Twilights had a song written for them by The Hollies, 'What's Wrong With The Way I Live', at a time when The Hollies were one of Britain's top bands. Normie Rowe recorded 'Ooh La La' and 'It's Not Easy' in London, and toured with bands such as The Troggs.



**Source 4.45** 17 November 1966: guitarists Harry Vanda and George Young, singer Little Stevie Wright, bassist Dick Dimonde and drummer Gordon Fleet make up the Australian rockband The Easybeats.

## Little River Band break through

Having tried to crack England with The Twilights, Glenn Shorrock turned to the USA in the 1970s with Little River Band. Once again an Australian band achieved major international success, with songs like 'Reminiscing' being played throughout North America on high rotation. In 2011, a version of the Little River Band, with no original members, was still touring the United States, using a platypus as its logo.

## Widespread success

Australian music's contribution to international popular culture could not always be measured in record sales. Brisbane's The Go-Betweens became the favourite band of music lovers across three continents without ever having a major hit record. Bands such as Men at Work, INXS and Midnight Oil certainly sold more records internationally, but The Go-Betweens, whose music was described as 'striped sunlight sound', took Brisbane to the world.

The desire to achieve overseas success has continued to drive Australian acts. It can be measured in record sales, as was the case with Savage Garden, who dominated late-1990s charts in the USA and Britain. A sell-out concert at an iconic venue is another measure of cultural achievement. INXS at Wembley Stadium in London in 1991 and the John Butler Trio in 2010 at Red Rocks in Colorado are two examples. It has been a continuity in Australian cultural life that overseas success is widely regarded as the measure of 'making it'. A study of the tour itinerary of Sydney's The Jezabels to launch their independent debut album *Prisoner* in 2011, reveals how strongly that desire still burns. Between September and November 2011 they played concerts in six European countries, every Australian state, the USA and Canada. Australian music continues to make a significant international contribution to the popular culture of rock'n'roll.



**Source 4.46** Little River Band in the 1970s



**Source 4.47** Daniel Jones and Darren Hayes of Savage Garden perform on stage at the Melbourne Glasshouse in 1998.

## Check your learning

- 1 What evidence is there that Australian musicians achieved international success in the 1960s?
- 2 With which two bands did Glenn Shorrock achieve international success?
- 3 How was The Go-Betweens' music described?
- 4 What continuity do The Jezabels show in Australian music?

## significant individuals

# The Go-Betweens

The Go-Betweens' story started in Brisbane when university students Robert Forster and Grant McLennan met in 1977. A shared interest in popular culture, particularly American music and film, led to the formation of a band in 1978. Brisbane at this time was incredibly conservative and oppressive, and this atmosphere motivated their move overseas.



Source 4.48 The Go-Betweens in 1988

The Queensland government of Joh Bjelke-Petersen (Premier 1968–1987) was infamous for suppressing opposition political activity, and granted police unlimited power at times, to deal with dissent. Police and government ministers were later found to be corrupt in the Fitzgerald Inquiry. Youth and Indigenous Australians were specific targets, and creative artists such as The Go-Betweens found it easier and safer to leave Brisbane.

As a trio, after adding drummer Lindy Morrison, The Go-Betweens moved initially to Melbourne, and then England, where their second album, *Before Hollywood*, was recorded in 1983. A series of critically acclaimed albums followed in the 1980s. Based in London for most of the decade, the band toured constantly, expanding their base of supporters from Europe to include North America. The final album of the original band was *16 Lovers Lane*, released in 1988, which saw their greatest commercial success with the single 'Streets Of Your Town'.

The band disbanded in 1989, but Forster and McLennan continued to occasionally perform together throughout the world. A new line-up of The Go-Betweens emerged in 2000, and released a further three albums. *Oceans Apart* finally won mainstream recognition with an ARIA award in 2005. The band formally disbanded after Grant McLennan died in 2006 in Brisbane.

In terms of record sales, The Go-Betweens had minimal impact on world popular culture. There were messages from 18 different countries on the band's website after the death of McLennan. That alone shows the impact they had on the lives of individuals on a global scale.

To understand the true impact of The Go-Betweens, however, it is important to consider their impact on artists. Obvious tributes included a Swedish rock band called Kent playing 'Quiet Heart' as a tribute to McLennan at a Swedish festival, the Splendour in the Grass Festival naming one



**Source 4.49** The Go-Betweens' second single, 'People Say', released in 1979

of its performance sites the GW McLennan tent, and a new bridge opened in 2010 across the Brisbane River being named the Go-Between Bridge after a public competition.

All those examples show a band that had a major impact. However, Robert Christgau's proclamation in New York's influential *Village Voice* that 'Robert Forster and Grant McLennan are the greatest songwriting partnership working today' indicated their ongoing contribution at the highest level. Christgau is widely regarded as an important rock critic, and no Australian musical act had ever received such extravagant praise in such an important publication. Even the American television show *24* included a company called McLennan-Forster as a tribute to the band. When U2 started the final leg of their *Vertigo* tour in Brisbane in 2006, they dedicated the show to Grant McLennan. Bono sang 'Streets of Your Town' twice during their



**Source 4.50** The Go-Betweens with Brisbane Mayor Campbell Newman (second left) in 2010 walking across the Go-Between bridge, named in their honour

concert, moving smoothly into the song during both 'Elevation' and 'Where the Streets Have No Name'. U2 have also named The Go-Betweens' 1982 song 'Cattle and Cane' on their list of the greatest rock'n'roll songs of all time. As a popular culture, rock'n'roll has to change and evolve to survive. U2 have been able to do that, and the contribution of bands like The Go-Betweens to inspiring U2 is part of the global evolution of rock'n'roll as a popular culture.

## Check your learning

- 1 What made The Go-Betweens leave Brisbane?
- 2 What evidence is there of The Go-Betweens' impact around the world?
- 3 What makes The Go-Betweens significant?

## Australians on film

Australian film since the new wave of the 1970s has helped establish a vision of Australia for many people overseas. The use of *Crocodile Dundee*'s Paul Hogan in tourism ads ensured the connection between film and a national image.

*Crocodile Dundee* in 1986 was the highest grossing Australian film of all time because of its international success. Its celebration of Australia as a laid-back, 'ocker' culture with a vast outback full of strange wildlife and laconic characters became a highly marketable vision of Australia. This was followed up with 1994's *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert* (see Source 4.52). Although also bringing Australia's outback scenery onto the screen, the film has been both praised and condemned for its presentation of a variety of sexual preferences and approaches. Its positive depiction of cross-dressing entertainers certainly helped to make it a significant film, and contributed to its international success.

focus on ...

### contestability: *Gallipoli* (1981)

The 1981 film *Gallipoli* was a major example of the revival of the Australian film industry. Directed by Peter Weir, and starring Mark Lee and Mel Gibson, it not only dramatised the role of Australian troops at Gallipoli, but also linked the Australian soldiers to revered Australian cultural values such as mateship, larrikinism and a disdain of authority.

The film focused on Western Australian members of the Australian Light Horse enlisting, training in Egypt and finally participating in the attempt to capture The Nek on the Gallipoli Peninsula from the Turks. Written by playwright David Williamson, it placed the blame for the needless slaughter of Australian troops firmly on the shoulders of the British leadership. Criticisms of the factual content of the film have been made, including that The Nek was a diversion for New Zealand troops, not the British; that other groups such as the Royal Welsh Fusiliers also suffered losses trying to support the Australians at The Nek, and that the failure to call off the attack was an Australian, not a British decision.

The film has proven just how influential popular culture can be. Historical inaccuracies have been shrugged off, and it has become a staple of high school history lessons since its release. It has contributed to the elevation of Gallipoli to almost mythical status in Australian history. Since 1981, successive curriculums have focused on Gallipoli as the most significant campaign of World War I for Australia, despite its unsuccessful outcome and the far greater losses and higher stakes on the Western Front in France.

By linking the Gallipoli campaign so closely to Australian identity, and values such as 'mateship', the film also fostered the politicisation of the Gallipoli campaign. Before 1981, it was an important part of Australia's historical story, but was not politicised or mythologised. In 1990, Prime Minister Bob Hawke travelled to Gallipoli for a Dawn Service with veterans and called the site 'a part of Australia'. John Howard visited there in 2000 and 2005, although his 2005 visit attracted criticism because of his decision

to attend a barbecue with Australian soldiers on the beach rather than the New Zealand service. The downplaying of the New Zealand contribution to the ANZAC legend and the vilification of British leaders have been two aspects of the politicisation of the Gallipoli campaign since the release of the film in 1981. Former Prime Minister Paul Keating ignited further controversy in 2008 when he said, 'the truth is that Gallipoli was shocking for us. Dragged into service by the imperial government in an ill-conceived and poorly executed campaign, we were cut to ribbons and dispatched—and none of it in the defence of Australia'. Keating was roundly condemned for expressing a sentiment that was common in the 1970s.

Perhaps the best evidence of the lasting impact of the film is that it was denied government funding because it was seen as 'uncommercial'. A decade later the Australian government started the process of linking Gallipoli, Anzac Day and Australian identity tightly together with the 1990 ceremony.



Source 4.51 A still from *Gallipoli*, 1981, starring Mel Gibson

The film gave rise to a musical version, *Priscilla Queen of the Desert* in 2006. This was another example of popular culture changing and evolving over time, and marked a further Australian contribution to international popular culture. The show, based on the film, has mounted successful productions in London, Toronto and New York, with plans for an American and Italian tour. The film won an Academy Award for costume design, and the stage versions won a further award on New York's Broadway in 2011.

### Check your learning

- 1 What do you think is meant by the term 'ocker' culture?
- 2 What image of Australia have the films mentioned here portrayed?
- 3 What do you think the film *Gallipoli* has contributed to popular culture?
- 4 Is historical accuracy important for a film like *Gallipoli*?



Source 4.52 A still from *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert*, 1994, starring Hugo Weaving, Terence Stamp and Guy Pearce

## Australian TV

Australian television suffered initially because of the Menzies Government's decision to not require a quota of locally produced shows when television was launched in 1956. As a result, Australian television was colonised by American, and to a lesser extent, British popular culture. Despite occasional hit shows, and moments of real originality like *The Mavis Bramston Show*, it is difficult to talk about an Australian industry with the potential to contribute globally until the 1980s.

### *Skippy*

Australians had finally accepted Australian stories on television with the success of *Bellbird* from 1967, and the great soapie boom of the 1970s with *Number 96*, *The Box*, *The Sullivans* and *The Restless Years*. *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo*, which had been made in Sydney between 1966 and 1968, went international. The stories of the adventures of an incredibly perceptive kangaroo that guided his human friends to safety and captured baddies with ease presented a distinctly Australian vision to the world.

*Skippy's* international success was unprecedented at the time. It was sold to the United States and Canada, was translated into Spanish and sold throughout Latin America, where it gave many people their only knowledge of Australia. It has sold in countries as culturally diverse as Spain and Iran. The one country *Skippy* could not crack was Sweden, where authorities refused to show it because they were afraid it would give children false ideas about the capabilities of animals.



Source 4.53 Actor Garry Pankhurst as Sonny Hammond with Skippy in a scene from the 1970s TV show *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo*

## Prisoner to Wilfred

While Australian music and film had made inroads into the American market, Australian television had traditionally been more closely linked to Britain. Culturally the links to Britain had always been strong, and a shared sense of humour often ruled British and Australian shows that was incomprehensible to American audiences.

The premiere of *Prisoner* in 1979 was the start of Australia producing shows that had some potential to influence the global marketplace. *Prisoner* ran from 1979 to 1986 in Australia, but developed strong audiences in Britain and Sweden particularly. By being set in a women's prison it often dealt with controversial social topics such as sexuality, drugs and domestic violence. Despite its often grim content, *Prisoner* generated at least two different stage productions in Britain, and provided employment for many of its actors on the British theatre circuit.

The success of *Prisoner* paved the way for the *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* phenomenon that began in the 1980s. The attractiveness of the Australian lifestyle depicted in these two shows helped boost their popularity in the gloomier climates of northern Europe.

At the start of the 21st century, the hit comedy *Kath and Kim* was remade for American audiences. The show's success in European markets had alerted the Americans to its potential, but they felt the Australian slang and humour would make it incomprehensible in the United States. The American version lasted only a season, and was a failure both in the USA and when shown on Australian television.

The latest Australian export to the United States is *Wilfred* (see Source 4.55). An American version of the SBS comedy series premiered on American television in June 2011. Unusually, its Australian creator, Jason Gann, also starred in the American version, which debuted to strong ratings on the cable channel FX. *Wilfred* had a successful first season in the USA, exporting Australian humour to the most important television market in the world.



Source 4.54 A still from *Kath and Kim*



Source 4.55 A still from the TV program *Wilfred*

## significance: Chris Lilley

Chris Lilley started parodying Australian life in 2005 when *We Can Be Heroes* appeared on Australian television. It was followed in 2007 with *Summer Heights High*. Both shows created controversial but memorable characters that reflected aspects of the Australian character. Both shows were also sold to overseas markets, including in the USA and UK, and *Summer Heights High* reached markets as far afield as Togo and Kenya.

The internationally financed third program was *Angry Boys* that premiered in Australia in 2011. The Sims twins from *We Can Be Heroes* returned along with new characters such as their Gran, a warden in a young men's correctional institution, testicle-less surfer Blake Oakfield, scheming Japanese mother Jen Okazaki and LA-based rapper S.mouse. With guaranteed airplay in the major markets of the United States and Britain, as well as New Zealand, *Angry Boys* was an important contributor to international popular culture.

Never one to shy away from controversy, Lilley tackled race, localism, sexuality, exploitation and juvenile incarceration in the 12-part series. Even the size of the viewing audience was controversial, with ABC arguing that new technologies such as iView and ABC2 meant that repeat showing should be included in ratings figures. The sense of anticipation for the show was highlighted by the emergence of *Angry Boys* and 'Gran' as worldwide trending topics on social media network Twitter as the first episode went to air. The rich characterisations ensured that Lilley will continue to be a pivotal figure in the contribution of Australian television at an international level.



Source 4.56 Actor comedian Chris Lilley as character Ja'mie King from the TV program *We Can Be Heroes*

## Check your learning

- 1 What was the first Australian television show to have any real impact internationally?
- 2 Which two Australian shows have been remade in the United States in the 21st century?
- 3 How have the settings of Chris Lilley's series changed as he has moved from *We Can Be Heroes* to *Angry Boys*?
- 4 What has Chris Lilley contributed to international popular culture?

## Australian sport in a global environment

Sport has often been seen as one way Australia can 'make a splash' on the world stage. It has been suggested that Australians are much more interested in sport than politics, and Indigenous sportsmen such as Doug Nicholls (Australian Rules) and Charlie Perkins (soccer) used sport as an entry into broader public life.

The Australian cricket team dominated the sport internationally for much of the 1990s and 2000s, and contributed a lot to the sport in terms of preparation, professionalism and harnessing technology. After the television-driven split of the late 1970s, Australia has led the world in presenting cricket as a television sport to a mass audience. These innovations had a particular impact in South Asia, where the broadcasting of cricket is a highly valued marketing opportunity.

The major football codes have all struggled to establish a strong national foothold in Australia. State rivalries have seen different codes have stronger appeal in specific states. Australian rules has its heartland in the southern and western states, while the two rugby codes have traditionally been strongest in New South Wales and Queensland. Australian Rules has proven particularly popular with Indigenous Australians, with such illustrious names as Doug Nicholls, Graham 'Polly' Farmer, Adam Goodes and Lance 'Buddy' Franklin establishing outstanding reputations as footballers.



Source 4.57 Australian cricketers with captain Michael Clarke (front right) celebrate their victory following the fifth and final One Day International (ODI) match against Sri Lanka in Colombo in August 2011.

## significant individuals

### The Matildas

The Matildas is the name given to the Australian women's soccer team. Formed in 1978, they were named after the famous Banjo Patterson lyric 'Waltzing Matilda'. Like many women's sporting teams, they have struggled for mainstream media attention. The limits and struggles for women's sport in Australia were highlighted by the decision of the 1998 Matildas to compile a nude calendar as an attempt to raise funds and their profile. Although it did generate media coverage to support their qualification for the 1999 World Cup, in some circles it was seen as demeaning and a setback for women's sport.



Source 4.58 Servet Uzunlar of Australia in action during the FIFA Women's World Cup 2011



Source 4.59 The Matildas, 2011



The World Cup has been a much more achievable target for the Matildas than it has for the Socceroos. They have qualified for each World Cup since 1995, and in 2011 played arguably the best football played by any Australian team in reaching the last eight in the world. This followed their success in winning Australia's first major international football trophy, when they won the 2010 Asian Cup. In the one genuine world team sport, the Matildas were the first Australian team to make such a significant impact by winning a major trophy.

Like their male counterparts, the Matildas reflect a modern, multicultural Australia. With exciting young players such as Servet Unzular, Leena Khamis and Samantha Kerr taking Australia onto the world stage in the world's game, it is a very different Australia to the one commonly portrayed in soapies. The heritage of these players represents the Australian story of migration, opportunity and achievement that our commitment to migration and multiculturalism has produced.

When Kyah Simon scored two goals against Norway in the Women's World Cup in 2011, she was the first Indigenous Australian to score in a World Cup. This was followed by Ellyse Perry's stunning goal against Sweden in the quarter finals of the same tournament. Perry became the first Australian to represent the country in both cricket and football World Cups. With both being aged 20 at the 2011 World Cup, they represent the future of Australian sport.

The Matildas greatest contribution to Australian society may be the huge strides they have taken in being recognised for their ability and achievements rather than their gender. If they are able to achieve this in the one sport that is truly a global



**Source 4.60** Kyah Simon of Australia scores the winning goal during the FIFA Women's World Cup 2011 match between Australia and Norway, in Leverkusen, Germany.

popular culture, and make a genuine impact internationally, they will have both challenged and changed Australian society. They may become the one Australian sports team that actually changes that most cherished of Australian beliefs and values, the dominance of a monocultural white male view of the world.

## Check your learning

- 1 What did the Matildas achieve in 2010?
- 2 What unique records have Kyah Simon and Ellyse Perry achieved?

## Football

Football (traditionally known in Australia as soccer) is often referred to as ‘the world game’, and for good reason. The Fédération Internationale de Football (FIFA), has over 200 member associations. Football’s World Cup is only rivalled by the Olympics for global interest, and estimates of over three billion followers worldwide allow it to claim the title of the world game.

Football in Australia has a long history, with the first recorded game being played in 1879. This was only 20 years after Australian rules football became organised in Melbourne, and 15 years after Sydney University established the first rugby union club in Australia. Rugby league, in contrast, did not start until 1908.

Football spent the 20th century being largely regarded as a ‘migrant sport’, meaning that only people from overseas played it. Former Australian football captain Johnny Warren, who played in Australia’s first World Cup finals team in 1974, called his memoir *Sheilas, Wogs and Poofers*. This reflected the way many mainstream Australians derided football for most of the 20th century.

The irony of football being perceived as mainly a game for migrants in the 20th century was that the composition of the various football leagues was a much more accurate reflection of post-World War II Australia than any other sport. As a nation built on migration, football represented the greatest opportunity for any single sport to truly represent modern Australia.

World Cup finals qualification has traditionally been the greatest prize in world football, and Australia qualified only once in the 20th century, in 1974 in West Germany. They failed to score a goal during those finals, with a draw against Chile gaining their only point. Subsequent campaigns promised much, but ultimately failed as Australia was drawn to play against teams in Europe, Asia and South America in the final stages of qualifying.

In 2005, a new national competition, the A-League, was launched as part of a rebranding of Australian football. ‘Old soccer’ became ‘new football’, and even the term ‘Socceroos’, was briefly abandoned. The public refused to relinquish the term and it was as the Socceroos that Australia attempted qualification for the 2006 World Cup finals, to again be held in Germany.

To reach the World Cup finals, Australia had to defeat Uruguay in a two-legged qualification final. As two-time World Cup winners, Uruguay had a proud footballing heritage, and had knocked Australia out at the same stage of qualification in 2001.

Australia lost the first leg in Montevideo 1–0, and flew back to Australia to play the game that would decide the final qualification spot for the 2006 World Cup. In front of over 82 000 fans at Sydney’s Olympic Stadium, Australia took an early lead with a goal to Mark Bresciano. After extra time, a penalty shootout saw John Aloisi score the most famous goal in Australian football history, and secure Australia a spot in the World Cup finals.

The squad that represented Australia against Uruguay mirrored the audience that cheered them on in the stadium and on television. Although all proudly Australian, the team represented the post-war Australian migration boom. There were Australians of Croatian, German, Slovenian, Italian, Samoan, English, Greek and New Zealand heritage.

The joy that greeted Australia’s qualification represented recognition of the unique role football plays in Australian society. As the most popular sport to play, it also captured the aspirations of a multicultural Australia in a way no other component of Australian society has.



Source 4.61 The Socceroos in 2011

### Check your learning

- 1 What has Australian cricket contributed to the sport internationally?
- 2 When did Australia first qualify for football’s World Cup?  
How long did it take to qualify again?
- 3 Name some of the national backgrounds represented in the Socceroos team that defeated Uruguay in 2005.

## 4.4 What has Australia contributed to international popular culture?

### Remember

- 1 Which Bruce Springsteen song is linked to The Easybeats' 'Friday On My Mind'?
- 2 Which city did The Go-Betweens come from?
- 3 Who directed *Gallipoli*?
- 4 What were Chris Lilley's first three major television series?
- 5 Who was the first Indigenous Australian to score a goal in a football World Cup?
- 6 List Australian songs, TV shows, films and sports that have helped the country to be recognised internationally.

### Understand

- 7 Explain why U2 dedicated their 2006 show in Brisbane to Grant McLennan.
- 8 Research the battle for The Nek on Gallipoli in 1915. Do your findings have any effect on the value of *Gallipoli* as a film?
- 9 Why does the American television industry remake successful overseas shows for an American audience?
- 10 In what way do the Socceroos and Matildas represent a modern Australia?

### Apply

- 11 What evidence is there to support the view that The Go-Betweens had a major impact on popular culture on an international level?
- 12 Develop an advertising campaign to attract visitors to Australia using images from *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert* or the 2003 version of *Ned Kelly*.
- 13 Select one of Chris Lilley's characters and prepare a Facebook page for them.
- 14 Design a publicity campaign for a specific media outlet that would recognise the achievements of the Matildas.

### Analyse

- 15 Research the career of The Easybeats, The Twilights or Normie Rowe. How important do you think they are in Australian cultural history?
- 16 Argue whether you think the film *Gallipoli* did or did not change attitudes to the Gallipoli campaign.
- 17 Why would *Summer Heights High* sell in Togo and Kenya?
- 18 Explain why Johnny Warren would call his memoir *Sheilas, Wogs and Poofers*.

### Evaluate

- 19 As a class, debate the suggestion that music is Australia's most significant cultural export since World War II.
- 20 How many people in the class have seen the film *Gallipoli*? In groups, discuss the suggestion that every Australian should visit Gallipoli. How influential do you think the film has been in the answers to that question?
- 21 What impact has Australian popular culture had internationally since World War II? What would you argue were the best examples of success?

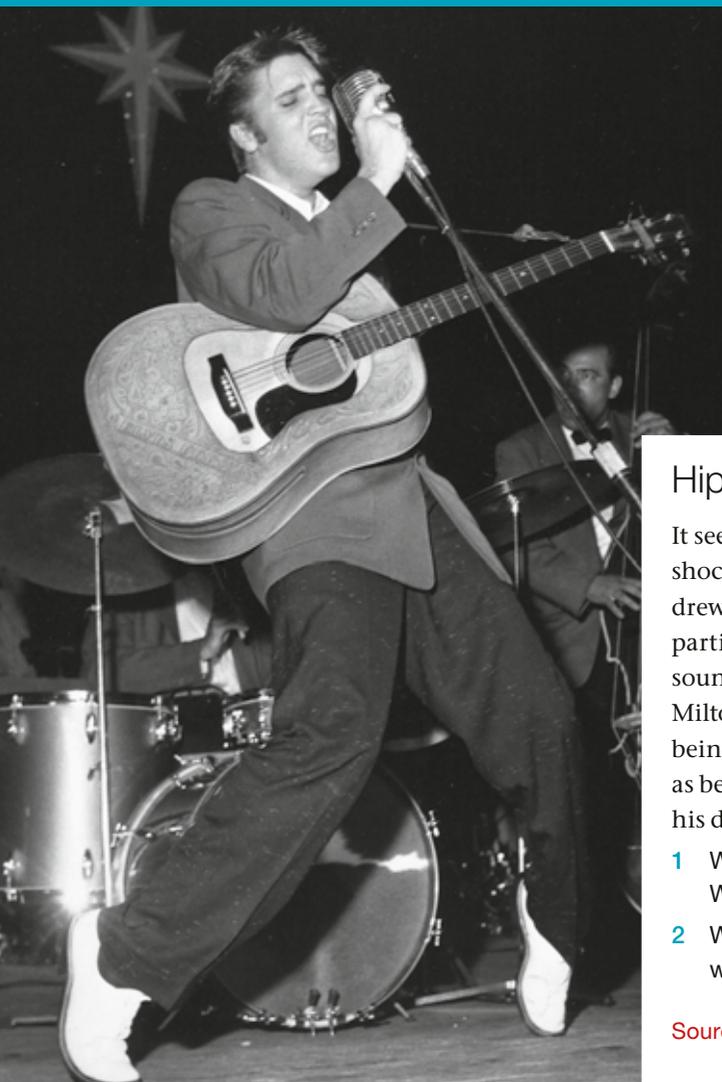
### Create

- 22 Create a series of Twitter posts that could advertise the best of Australian popular culture to friends living overseas.
- 23 Design a promotional video, poster or campaign for The Jezabels' *Prisoner* tour that reflects not only their Australian origins, but also their independence from the major record companies.
- 24 Design a campaign that could convince FIFA to award a future Women's or Men's World Cup to Australia to host.

# connecting ideas

## Does popular culture really shock?

*Popular culture thrives on being able to shock. Being outrageous means being noticed, and for popular culture, being noticed usually means an opportunity to sell those products associated with a particular popular culture. Shock value also highlights different generations. Read Source 4.13 again and think about how rock'n'roll managed to shock the older generation.*



### Hips

It seems that since rock'n'roll arrived on the scene, it has consistently shocked the older generation. Initially it was the fact that the music drew different races together. In 1950s America that was regarded as particularly shocking. Then along came Elvis Presley, a white boy who sounded African American. After performing 'Hound Dog' on the Milton Berle Show in 1956, network executives decided to ban him from being televised from the waist down. His pelvic thrusts were regarded as being too dangerous for young girls to see. There was concern that his dancing was so shocking, young girls might lose control.

- 1 Who were some of the early rock'n'rollers who shocked society? Which races did they represent?
- 2 What does the banning of television images of Elvis Presley 'from the waist down' tell you about society at the time?

**Source 4.62** Elvis shocking adults and 'causing young girls to lose control'!

## Haircuts

After Elvis it would take a lot to shock society. In the early 1960s, countries like Australia were socially conservative. It was a male-dominated society, and males knew that they wore 'short back and sides' haircuts. That was until The Beatles exploded on the scene. When The Beatles toured Australia in 1964, people were shocked that young men could wear such long hair. Any male who copied them was in danger of being accused of being effeminate.

- 1 What's a 'short back and sides'? How popular is it today?
- 2 Why was society so outraged by The Beatles' long hair?

**Source 4.63** The 'truly shocking' haircuts of The Beatles as they arrive in London after their 1964 Australian tour



## High fashion?

Like rock music, fashion thrives on challenging established values. Jean Shrimpton outraged Melbourne society in 1965 when she arrived at Flemington Racecourse on Derby Day with a dress five inches above the knee. Compare that with the reaction to Lady Gaga's 'meat dress' that she wore at the 2010 MTV Awards. It was one of three outfits Lady Gaga wore during the ceremony where she won eight awards. It was the meat dress, however, that displayed the capacity to shock. In June 2011 the dress was displayed at the Rock'n'Roll Hall of Fame in Cleveland as part of their Women Who Rock exhibition.

- 1 Research the reaction to the dress Jean Shrimpton wore to Derby Day in Melbourne in 1965. What did she wear to the Melbourne Cup after this? What does it tell you about Australia at the time?
- 2 Use the Rock'n'Roll Hall of Fame's website to investigate the process that was undertaken to preserve Lady Gaga's meat dress. Does the meat dress deserve to be in a museum exhibition?

**Source 4.64** Lady Gaga and a recent attempt to shock—the 2010 'meat dress'



How would Elvis Presley, The Beatles and Lady Gaga have been treated if they turned up together to the 1956 Melbourne Cup? What will shock Australians in 2050?



depth study option

# Migration experiences (1945–the present)

*Because of its location, Australia has always been a country that has relied on **migration**. Indeed historians argue that the very first Australians arrived by boat tens of thousands of years ago. More recently, convicts and goldminers arrived by sea. Migrants to post-World War II Australia often had their tickets paid for by the government to encourage them to relocate here. **Refugees** from the Vietnam War risked everything to reach Australia on boats. As turmoil has affected neighbouring regions, people seeking **asylum** and safety have drifted here, often on dangerous boats. As an island nation at the junction of two of the world's major oceans, Australia is full of 'boat people' and their descendants.*

Migration has been essential to build a **colonial** outpost into the modern nation that is of Australia. Through migration, Australia has developed its population and economy. Migration has helped introduce new ideas, values and beliefs into the country.

Government policies on migration have changed during the 20th century. In the 21st century they continue to attract debate. World events such as wars and disasters have played a role in shaping immigration policy, and this policy has reflected Australia's relationships with the rest of the world.

## Key inquiry questions

- 5.1 How have key events influenced migration to Australia since World War II?
- 5.2 How have government immigration policies changed?
- 5.3 How did the Vietnam War affect migration to Australia?
- 5.4 How has migration shaped Australia's identity and global relationships?

Vietnamese refugees, travelling on cargo boats, often had to wait at sea before disembarking and being sent to refugee camps.



# bigpicture

## Migration experiences



*Over the second half of the 20th century, Australian immigration policies have changed considerably, and the face of Australian society has changed with them.*

*From government policies that actively discriminated against 'non-white' immigrants, to post-World War II moves to 'populate or perish', through to today's system based on skills and eligibility, Australia has become a culturally and ethnically diverse nation.*

*Attitudes to immigration changed in response to the internal needs of Australia to grow and prosper but Australia also responded to the needs of refugees displaced by conflict in others parts of the world.*

*This depth study option will explore some of the most significant events and developments in Australia's immigration policy over this period.*

**1975**  
Racial Discrimination Act passed in Australia; North Vietnam defeats South Vietnam

1900

**1901**

Australia federates and passes the Immigration (Restriction) Act

**1945**

First federal Minister of Immigration, Arthur Calwell, appointed



**1958**

Migration Act abolishes the Dictation Test

**1966**

Hubert Oppermann changes the criteria for migration from 'race' to 'suitability'

**1974**

Al Grassby appointed Australia's first Commissioner for Community Relations



Al Grassby being presented with a handwoven plaque of friendship from Greek and Albanian people



**1976**

First Vietnamese boat people arrive in Darwin

Vietnamese refugees on the fishing vessel *Song Saigon* after landing on a beach in Darwin, 1979.



**1998**

Tan Le named Young Australian of the Year

**2011**

The Gillard Government's 'Malaysia solution' is defeated in the High Court

**2001**

*Tampa* and 'Children overboard' incidents, leading to the Howard Government's 'Pacific solution'

**1984**

Historian Geoffrey Blainey claims rates of Asian immigration are too high

**1980**

SBS starts broadcasting

**1979**

Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs established

**1977**

Ethnic Affairs Commission established

**2005**

Cronulla riots



The crowds at North Cronulla on the day of the riots

Source 5.1 A timeline of key events in Australia's post-war immigration history



Source 5.2 Lunch on the liner *Otranto* on assisted passage to Australia from the Netherlands

# 5.1

## How have key events influenced migration to Australia since World War II?

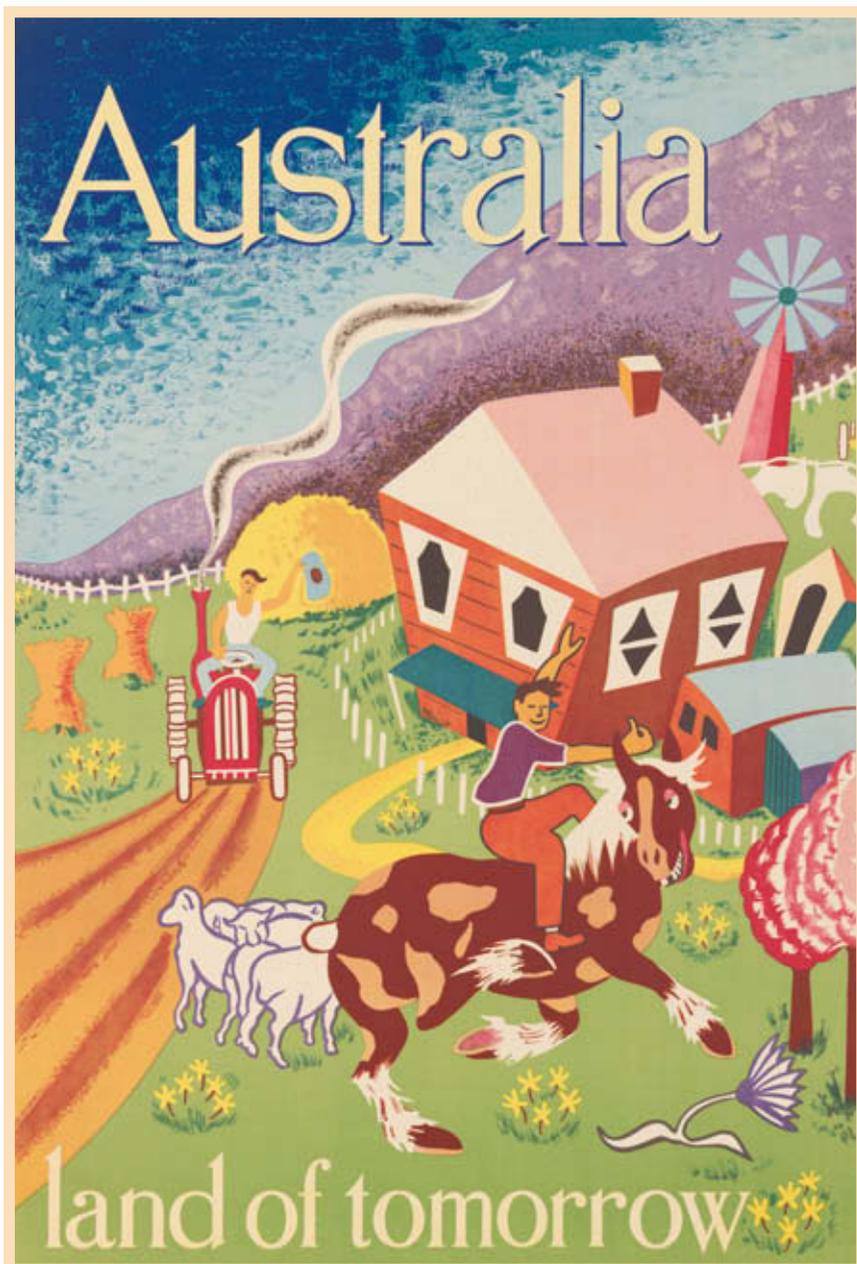
*By the end of World War II, the world was a chaotic place. Populations had been displaced, and there was a need for normality to be restored. For Australia, World War II had been a significant event. The Japanese military had reached our shores and, although the attack was unsuccessful, it had made people aware of our vulnerability. In order to develop as a modern nation that could protect its borders effectively, Australia needed a larger population.*

The large numbers of **displaced persons**, in Europe and Britain in particular, after the war provided the intake of people Australia needed. These Europeans were also suitable immigrants for Australia's **White Australia Policy** that had been in place since **Federation**. Later world events such as the Vietnam War, the East Timorese fight for independence, and conflicts in Afghanistan and Iraq have not only challenged the **White Australia policy**, but also made a significant contribution to Australian **immigration** policy.

## Australia after World War II

World War II and the threat of invasion had been a shock to Australia. Since Federation, Australia had rigidly enforced a White Australia Policy which favoured immigrants from a European background and severely restricted entry of non-Europeans. The Immigration (Restriction) Act was one of the first Acts passed by federal parliament after Federation in 1901, and was designed to restrict immigration to white races.

Ben Chifley was the Labor prime minister who led Australia's post-war recovery. His government developed a slogan to describe their new immigration policy—'populate or perish'. It was decided that Australia should dramatically increase its population through immigration. When combined with the post-war **baby boom**, Australia's population was projected to rise from 7.39 million at the end of World War II to 9.43 million in 1956.



focus on ...

### evidence: *Hansard*

*Hansard* is the name of the official transcripts of the Australian parliament. It records everything that is said in parliament, and is a valuable source for historians. It is regarded as a primary source because it contains the parliamentary record. This evidence is valuable to historians because it allows them to investigate the official public viewpoint of politicians. It can be balanced by private diaries.

It can give us evidence about the Australian Labor Party's thinking on immigration at a time when the Pacific War was just ending. It allows us to see how our immigration policy was being influenced by a fear of invasion. It led to the call to 'populate or perish'.

Source 5.4 is an extract from *Hansard* from the House of Representatives on 2 August 1945.

These are the words of the Minister for Immigration, Arthur Calwell.

#### Source 5.4

*If Australians have learned one lesson from the Pacific War, now moving to a successful conclusion, it is surely that we cannot continue to hold our island continent for ourselves and our descendants unless we greatly increase our numbers.*

Minister for Immigration Arthur Calwell; extract from *Hansard House of Representatives*, 2 August 1945, pp. 4911–4915

Source 5.3 A poster encouraging European emigration to Australia—a 'land of tomorrow'



**Source 5.5** Snowy Mountains Scheme labourers in 1968. Many of these workers had escaped from war-torn Europe.

## The post-war boom

The Chifley Labor Government created the Department of Immigration in 1945, with Arthur Calwell as the first minister. Europe was full of displaced persons who had lost their homes and livelihoods after the turmoil of World War II. Reconstruction in Europe was a massive task and, in Britain, many felt a new start in Australia was the most favourable option.

Ambitious post-war projects proposed by the Australian government required a much larger workforce that would be made available with a bigger population. The much publicised Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme, which involved diverting the east-flowing Snowy River to generate hydro-electricity was going to require 100 000 new workers on its own. Many of those workers were to come from war-torn Europe.

### A new source of migrants

Calwell turned to the Baltic Republics of Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, which had all been invaded by Russia. The main appeal of these peoples was that they were fiercely anti-communist, and according to Calwell, ‘were red-headed and blue-eyed. There were also a number of natural platinum blondes of both sexes.’ Thus the two main ingredients of Australia’s immigrant policy in the immediate post-war period were established; immigrants had to be anti-**communist** and white. If they conformed to these requirements they were welcome.

focus on ...

### **perspective:** the Snowy Mountains Scheme

As part of the post-war development of Australia, the nation’s most ambitious infrastructure project was proposed. The Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme proposed the development of a complex series of tunnels and dams to divert the Snowy River in southern New South Wales. It would provide electricity from the water flow, and the water would then be used to irrigate inland Australia. The huge amount of labour required for the project would mainly come from the wave of European immigrants the government was proposing to bring to Australia.

In Source 5.6, music historian Glenn A Baker gives his perspective on why the scheme, and the people who worked on it, were so important in shaping post-war Australia.

#### **Source 5.6**

*Not that many years ago we marked the 50th anniversary of what was the largest engineering project in the world—the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme—which, in ways that had nothing at all to do with power generation, changed the face of this country.*

*The almost exclusively white Anglo-Saxon character of society was opened up to new ideas, customs, cuisines and celebrations by the men and their families who came from all over the world.*

*I am, I suppose, a baby boomer and, for my generation, the post-war migration surge provided a defining dimension.*

Extract from Australia Day ambassador Glenn A Baker, speech given at Lithgow, 2010

## Refugees

In 1947, the British and Australian governments decided to subsidise the cost of British migrants' voyages to Australia. The fare was reduced to ten pounds (£10), giving rise to the label 'ten-pound Pom', which became an accepted way of describing British migrants in this period. In the same year, Australia came to an agreement with the International Refugee Organization to be able to select displaced persons from camps in Europe. The main groups were Poles, Yugoslavs, Latvians, Ukrainians, Hungarians, Lithuanians, Czechs and Estonians. The fact that they were white and from countries that had become communist, made them the perfect candidates for Calwell's 'new Australia'. They were required to work for a period of two years wherever the Australian government decided. This was the source of much of the labour for the Snowy Mountains Scheme.

## Keeping Australia white

The 1947 census showed an Australian population on the verge of major change. The population recorded in the census was 7 579 358. Ten per cent of this population were born overseas—with people from England being the largest group, followed by Scots, Irish and New Zealanders.

As Source 5.7 indicates, the government made it clear that this was their desired racial mix for Australia's future.

### Source 5.7

*The government has decided that all persons who came to Australia as evacuees or refugees during the war and who, under our immigration laws, are not eligible to become permanent residents of this country, must leave. We have been very tolerant of these people. We could have asked them all to go immediately the war ended, but we have allowed them to stay for a certain period, in some cases so that they may wind up their affairs here and in other cases so that they might get decent shipping facilities to take them back to their own countries. In all 15 000 evacuees of all nationalities came to Australia during the war. Of that number, 4400 were Asiatics. Most of the evacuees, including the Asiatics, have gone. There are about 500 Chinese, mostly seamen, and about fifty Malays left. All of these people will have to leave Australia ... What this government proposes to do is not unusual. I am carrying out the policy of every Australian government since Federation, and, as far as I am concerned, it will not be altered ...*

Arthur Calwell, Minister for Immigration, in a speech on immigration policy in the House of Representatives, 2 December 1947; cited in *Well May We Say ... The Speeches That Made Australia*, Sally Warhaft (ed.), Black Inc., Melbourne, 2004, pp. 245–6

## Check your learning

- 1 Who was Australia's first Minister for Immigration? Which party did he represent?
- 2 What were the two main requirements to be accepted as a migrant to Australia in the period after World War II?
- 3 Why did Glenn A Baker (Source 5.6) say the Snowy Mountains Scheme 'changed the face of this country'?
- 4 Where did most migrants come from in the immediate post-war period?
- 5 What does Arthur Calwell's speech (Source 5.7) tell you about immigration policy after World War II?



Source 5.8 A British family of 17 disembark from their ship as they arrive in Australia, 2 July 1957.



Source 5.9 Arthur Calwell, Minister for Immigration (1945–49), welcoming the 100 000th British immigrant, Isobel Savery, 1949

## The census

A census collects evidence about the population of a country. Governments have used censuses since ancient times. The Australian government conducts a census every five years. A census can reveal the origins of a population, occupations, beliefs, age and gender. The following evidence allows us to look for continuities and changes in the birthplace of the Australian population during the 20th century.

For historians, a census provides a wealth of information. As an official record collected at a specific time, a census is a primary source. It contains a wealth of detailed information, but historians are required to interpret the statistical information. There is always a challenge in doing this, as two historians can examine the same statistics and come to very different conclusions. The statistical data found in a census also needs to be placed in its historical context. For example, the 1901 census (see right) indicates that 3.5 per cent of the Australian population was born in China. A historian using only those figures could argue that this shows there was no White Australia policy in place. It would require an understanding of the Federation of Australia and emergence of new federal laws to place that particular statistic in its proper context.

The tables below and opposite give statistics on the birthplace of people living in Australia at three distinct points in 20th-century Australian history: at Federation, post-World War II and at the end of the 20th century. There were other censuses between these ones, so immediately a historian would have to verify their conclusions by checking those other census documents for consistency. The material shown here would only be a starting point for a historian. Nevertheless it provides an interesting opportunity to take a brief look at the changes in immigration to Australia over the 20th century.

### Top ten countries of birth at selected Australian censuses of the 20th century

1901 Census			
Ranking	Birthplace	Number	Percentage
1	United Kingdom	495 074	57.7
2	Ireland	184 085	21.5
3	Germany	38 352	4.5
4	China	29 907	3.5
5	New Zealand	25 788	3.0
6	Sweden and Norway	9863	1.2
7	India	7637	0.9
8	USA	7448	0.9
9	Denmark	6281	0.7
10	Italy	5678	0.7
Top Ten Total		810 113	94.5
Other		47 463	5.5
Total overseas born		857 576	100.00



**Source 5.10**  
English migrants on their way to Australia



**Source 5.12** Young Scottish migrants arrive in Australia, c. 1947



**Source 5.13** A Vietnamese family who arrived in Australia in 1996

1947 Census			
Ranking	Birthplace	Number	Percentage
1	United Kingdom	496 454	66.7
2	Ireland	44 813	6.0
3	New Zealand	43 610	5.9
4	Italy	33 632	4.5
5	Germany	12 291	1.7
6	Greece	9863	1.2
7	India and Sri Lanka (Ceylon)	8160	1.1
8	Poland	6573	0.9
9	China	6404	0.9
10	USA	6232	0.8
	Top Ten Total	672 736	90.4
	Other	71 451	9.6
	Total overseas born	744 187	100.00
1996 Census			
Ranking	Birthplace	Number	Percentage
1	United Kingdom	1 072 562	27.4
2	New Zealand	291 388	7.2
3	Italy	238 246	5.9
4	Vietnam	151 053	4.5
5	Greece	126 520	3.2
6	China	111 009	2.8
7	Germany	110 331	2.8
8	Philippines	92 949	2.4
9	Netherlands	87 898	2.2
10	India	77 551	2.0
	Top Ten Total	2 359 507	60.4
	Other	1 548 875	39.6
	Total overseas born	3 908 382	100.00

**Source 5.11** 1901, 1947 and 1996 census statistics, from the Australian Government, Department of Immigration and Citizenship website

## Check your learning

- 1 What is a census? How often does Australia conduct one?
- 2 Which world events can you see reflected in these tables?
- 3 What are the continuities these tables reveal about 20th-century migration to Australia?
- 4 What are the major changes in 20th-century migration to Australia?

## Dealing with Asia 1945–1975

The original Immigration (Restriction) Act of 1901 became the basis of a federal White Australia policy. The original Act did not specifically ban people based on race, although that was the intent of the legislation. Under Section 3(a), immigration officials could ask any immigrant to take a dictation test, which could be set in any European language of the official's choice. This was often a language the official knew was unfamiliar to the applicant, guaranteeing failure. This approach was mainly used against Chinese trying to enter the country, but other Asians and Africans were also targeted. More than 6000 Asians were granted permission to live and work in Australia during World War II, but the Chifley Government was determined to eject them as soon as possible after the war. By 1947 the message was very clear: Australia did not want anyone from Asia living here.



### Western fear of China

Australia has had a long, and at times painful, relationship with China. The gold rushes of the 19th century were the first time there were large numbers of Chinese arriving in Australia.

### Lambing Flat

Anti-Asian sentiments had their origin during the gold rushes of the 19th century. European miners were resentful of the Chinese who looked different and had different customs (see Source 5.14). That difference was sufficient to create riots. In 1861 at Lambing Flat in New South Wales, the wholesale destruction of a Chinese mining camp by European miners was accompanied by a brass band playing 'Rule Britannia'.



Source 5.14 'Might versus Right' by ST Gill—a cartoon about disputes between European and Chinese miners

### China becomes communist

Fear of China grew in 1949, when the Chinese Communist Party under Mao Zedong triumphed in a civil war. This

was of serious concern to Australia—a large country in its region that was both Asian and communist. The Menzies Government came to power in December 1949; two months after Mao had founded the People's Republic of China. Robert Menzies' response was simple, and followed the lead of the American government. He refused to recognise the existence of China, a situation that continued until Richard Nixon in the United States and Gough Whitlam in Australia gave formal recognition to China.

Australia continued to follow the US policy directions, and the tensions in the region boiled over in 1950 in the Korean War (1950–1953). Australia supported the United Nations forces that opposed the Chinese-backed North Korean invasion of the South. The result politically was the division of the Korean peninsula into a communist North and capitalist South.



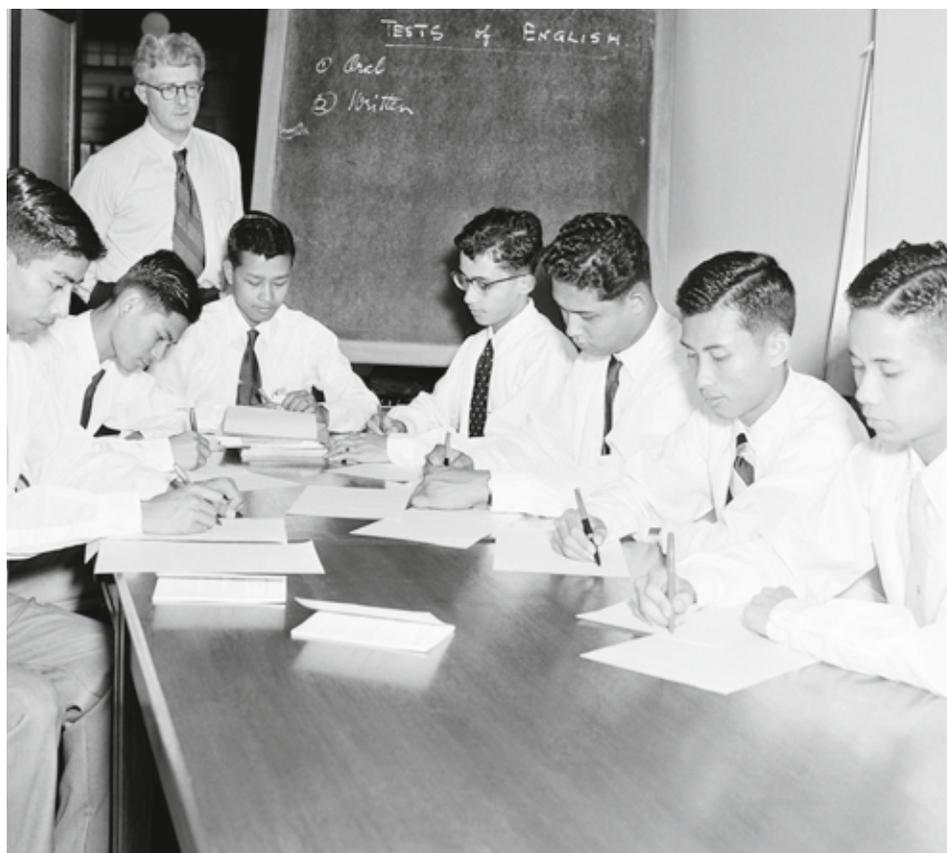
**Source 5.15** The Australian Prime Minister, Gough Whitlam (centre) meets the Chinese Premier, Chairman Mao Zedong, 3 November 1973.

## The Malayan Emergency

A post-war pattern of Australian military involvement in the Asian region was established during the Malayan Emergency. Australian military forces were sent to Malaya to support the British in opposing communist guerrillas there. Australian troops were stationed in Malaya from 1950 until 1963. They were then deployed in Vietnam supporting the USA's anti-communist drive against the North Vietnamese. That conflict lasted from 1962 until 1975. A confrontation between Malaya and Indonesia that ran from 1963 until 1966 also saw Australian troops used during 1965 and 1966.

## The Colombo Plan opens the door

Australia's ongoing involvement in conflicts in Asia aligned with an immigration policy that continued to favour European migrants under the Menzies Government (1949–66). In 1955, Australia joined the Southeast Asian Treaty Organization (SEATO), an anti-communist alignment of Western powers with some Asian countries in an alliance that achieved very little in practical terms. The major non-military engagement with Asia was the Colombo Plan. Established in 1950, it started with a group of Commonwealth countries and grew to become a regional grouping that encouraged education. For students from Asian countries they regarded as secure (non-communist) such as India, Ceylon and Pakistan, this was the gateway to an Australian education. Places were made available to some Asian students in Australian universities, but the understanding was they would return to their home country as soon as their course was completed.



**Source 5.16** The 100th student to come to Australia under the Colombo Plan

## Check your learning

- 1 What was the technique used to exclude Asians and Africans from migrating to Australia?
- 2 Do you think 'White Australia Policy' is an accurate description of Australia's immigration policy in the period up to the 1970s? Give reasons for your response.
- 3 Name Asian conflicts Australia has been involved in up to 1966.
- 4 What was the Colombo Plan? How did it challenge the White Australia Policy?

## The end of the White Australia policy

Maintaining Calwell's racist approach to immigration grew more difficult during the second half of the 20th century. As a result, the White Australia policy was slowly dismantled over the period from around 1945 to 1973.

### The Menzies Government

Harold Holt 'opened the first crack' in the discriminatory policy in 1949 as Calwell's successor under the new Menzies Government. Holt allowed 800 non-European refugees to stay, as well as allowing Japanese war brides to be admitted. This was the first step towards dismantling the White Australia policy.

In 1957, non-Europeans with 15 years' residence were allowed to become Australian citizens, and the following year the Migration Act of 1958 finally abolished the dictation test as a means of keeping non-Europeans out. The revised Act removed questions of race, and instead focused on qualifications as a primary criteria for selection. This opened the door to highly educated Asian migrants.

The next major step came in the form of a 1966 review of non-European immigration policy by the minister, Hubert Opperman. The criteria for migration became suitability as settlers, ability to **integrate** into Australian life, and possession of qualifications useful to Australia. This was a critical breakthrough because it finally removed race as a determinant when assessing the suitability of migrants to enter Australia. Non-European settler arrivals rose from 746 in 1966 to 2696 in 1971.

### The Whitlam impact

The Whitlam Government removed the final remains of the White Australia policy in 1973 when it issued instructions to overseas embassies to totally disregard race as a factor in selecting migrants. This was supported with legislation that all migrants, regardless of origin, could apply for citizenship after three years' permanent residence, and ratification of all international agreements relating to race and immigration.

#### Check your learning

- 1 Who was the immigration minister that allowed the first non-Asian immigrants to stay after World War II?
- 2 What did the 1958 Migration Act do?
- 3 How did Hubert Opperman change Australia's migration policy?
- 4 What did the Whitlam Government do to formally end the White Australia policy?

**Source 5.18** Mitsuru and Keiko Maeda and their son were among the first Japanese to migrate to Australia after changes to immigration laws.



Source 5.17 Robert Menzies c. 1950





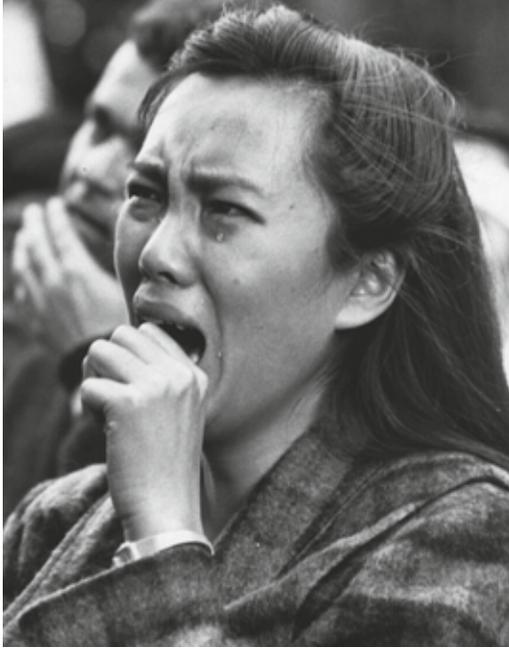
Source 5.19 Children and women on a boat from Vietnam—Darwin, November 1977

## World unrest

The fall of Saigon in 1975 at the end of the Vietnam War was the trigger for a dramatic change in Australian immigration policy. The Fraser Government allowed a significant number of Indo-Chinese refugees to resettle in Australia, pursuing a new approach to immigration policy that was also supported by the Opposition of the time. Australia opened its doors to refugees from war and persecution. A humane refugee policy, linked with a sense of moral obligation to those who had supported Australia during the Vietnam War, saw Australia emerge as a genuinely multicultural country.

### The first waves

The resettlement of Indo-Chinese refugees in the Australian community was accompanied by the opening of the country to those fleeing from the Indonesian takeover of East Timor in 1975. This was the same year that civil war in Lebanon also saw a dramatic rise in migration to Australia from that war-torn country.



**Source 5.20** A Chinese student in Sydney in tears on hearing of the pro-democracy uprising of Tiananmen Square, 1989

## African refugees

The election of Robert Mugabe in the newly independent Zimbabwe in 1980 and the end of apartheid in South Africa led to an influx of white economic refugees from southern Africa.

New waves of refugees started to arrive in the 1990s from Sierra Leone and Somalia. Civil war in these countries has seen hundreds of thousands of people displaced from their homes, taking refuge in refugee camps set up in bordering countries.

## Tiananmen Square

In 1989, Prime Minister Hawke gave 2000 Chinese students, who were in Australia on temporary student visas at the time of the brutal suppression of pro-democracy demonstrators in June 1989 (often referred to as the Tiananmen Square protests), permanent residency in Australia. Despite the growing strength of Australia's relationship with China, Hawke refused China's requests to force the students to return home.

## Conflict in Europe

Ongoing territorial disputes in the former Yugoslavia between 1991 and 1995 also influenced Australia's migrant intake. The origins of these wars were complex, often involving bitter ethnic and religious conflicts between Serbian and Croatian forces, and several ethnic groups in Bosnia and Herzegovina. This brutal conflict resulted in an influx of refugees from this area seeking to settle in Australia.

## The wars on terror

Australia was involved in the **'coalition of the willing'** against al-Qaeda in Afghanistan in 2001. Referred to as the **'war on terror'**, it led to the displacement of large numbers of people. As the American-led coalition fought the Taliban, people fled the country. Many took boats to Australia, but the Howard Government responded in a very different fashion to that of the Fraser Government when confronted by this situation. The **'closed door'** policy of the Howard Government continued when refugees from the American-led invasion of Iraq in 2003 led another surge in refugees. The killing of Tamils in Sri Lanka's bitter civil war during this period also saw Australia rejecting attempted refugees.



**Source 5.21** Refugees fleeing Afghanistan and attempting to find refuge in Australia c. 2001

## Check your learning

- 1 The Fraser Government was in power from 1975 until 1983. Which world events created refugees in this period? How did the government respond?
- 2 How did Prime Minister Hawke upset the Chinese government?
- 3 The Howard Government was in power from 1996 until 2007. Which world events created refugees in this period? How did the government respond?

# bigideas

## 5.1 How have key events influenced migration to Australia since World War II?

### Remember

- 1 What was the Labor government's slogan to promote immigration after World War II?
- 2 Which event in 1949 confirmed Australia's fear of Asia and communism?
- 3 Which world events in 1975 had an impact on migration to Australia?

### Understand

- 4 Describe the White Australia policy. Does it reflect a racist Australia?
- 5 How does Source 5.4 help you understand the Labor Party's immigration policy immediately after World War II?
- 6 The three main groups that Australia has rejected as refugees in the late 20th and early 21st centuries have been from Afghanistan, Sri Lanka and Iraq. What happened in those countries that forced people to flee?
- 7 Outline the key events that led to the abolition of the White Australia Policy.
- 8 In pairs, create a discussion between Liberal prime ministers Malcolm Fraser and John Howard about their respective immigration policies. Focus on Australia's involvement in specific conflicts during their periods in office, and the justifications each man could give for accepting or rejecting refugees from those conflicts.

### Apply

- 9 Examine the tables in Source 5.11. What trends can you see across the 20th century?
- 10 Develop arguments for and against the White Australia policy from the perspectives of each of the following people:
  - a a trade unionist and a Chinese-born Australian in 1901
  - b Arthur Calwell and an Asian refugee from World War II living in Australia in 1947.

### Analyse

- 11 Examine Source 5.4. What was happening in the war at this time? How does that help you understand why Calwell would make this statement?
- 12 There have been a number of world events that have had a significant impact on Australian immigration policies. Select one event, outline what happened, and explain how it affected Australian immigration policies.
- 13 Analyse the arguments for and against a bipartisan policy on immigration in Australia. What do you think it would take for a bipartisan policy to exist in Australia today?

### Evaluate

- 14 Discuss the suggestion that the Australian population is a product of world events beyond its control.
- 15 Debate the topic 'Australia's immigration policy has responded fairly to world events'.

### Create

- 16 Prepare a speech for an Australian representative to the United Nations justifying Australia's current stance on immigration.
- 17 Create a flow chart that conveys the impact world events have had on migration to Australia since World War II.



Source 5.22 A Nicholson cartoon reflecting on the Howard Government's immigration policies, *The Australian*, 11 June 2000

## 5.2 How have government immigration policies changed?

*At the end of World War II, there was very little open debate questioning the **White Australia policy**. The re-election of the Chifley Government in the 1946 federal election is evidence that the government's goal of 'populate or perish' had resonated with the Australian voting public.*

The Menzies Coalition Government was elected in 1949, and the Liberal/Country Party retained power until 1972. They started the process of dismantling the White Australia Policy, and attempted to assimilate **immigrants** into the Australian way of life.

Gough Whitlam and Malcolm Fraser, although bitter political enemies, both made major contributions to the emergence of a multicultural Australia. By the end of the 20th century, immigration policy had become a major election issue as people seeking asylum arrived in Australia by boat.

### From White Australia to the High Court

The post-war Chifley Labor Government had a very clear policy on immigration when it created the first immigration ministry under Arthur Calwell. It was dominated by the maintenance of the White Australia Policy. By the time Chifley lost government

in 1949, cracks were starting to appear in that policy, but immigration continued to be seen as necessary for Australia.

As we have seen, Calwell's period as minister was dominated by the slogan 'Populate or perish'. This summed up the urgency with which Australia approached post-war immigration. Calwell argued that Australia had a limited amount of time to populate the country or it would be overrun by the Asian countries to our north. He coined the phrase 'new Australian' to describe the new migrants, trying to avoid the derogatory racial terms that were in common use at the time.

The threat of a Japanese invasion during World War II showed the disadvantages of a small population. The desire to develop Australia beyond the major capital cities also demanded a larger labour force than was available. An indication of both scope and success of Australia's post-war immigration program is the fact that approximately a million new migrants have arrived in Australia in each of the decades since 1945.

## Assimilation

The Menzies Government continued Chifley's push for both development and European migrants. The key element of immigration policy in the 1950s was **assimilation**. Broadly, this meant that immigrants were expected to give up their old culture and adopt Australian culture and customs. They would assimilate into Australia and effectively become the same as those who were born here.

Author Philip Knightley (see Source 5.24) provides a fascinating glimpse of the Australia into which immigrants were expected to assimilate.

### Source 5.24

*Who were these strange people? They looked like Europeans and they spoke a European language, but they were very different. They had peculiar eating habits. They ate spaghetti out of a tin. They loved cold spaghetti sandwiches. They had their main meal of the day not at 1 p.m. or 8 p.m. but at 6 p.m. and they called it 'tea'. But tea was what they also drank, not coffee. They knew what coffee was but they had no idea how to make it. They had no knowledge of croissants or pastries and certainly would not consider eating them for breakfast. For breakfast they liked chops or whatever was left over from the previous night's tea, all mixed together and then fried in dripping and called—for reasons no one could explain— 'bubble and squeak' ... they had restaurants but the food was bad, the service was appalling and many of them closed at the very time people wanted to use them—at weekends. In some parts of the country you could eat in a restaurant or drink alcohol in a pub, but you could not do both on the same premises without breaking the law.*

*The men drank large quantities of beer during the day but stopped promptly at 6 p.m. Many were then sick in the gutter ... At parties and dances, the men stood at one end of the room and drank beer out of a barrel—the only time they were allowed to do so after 6 p.m.—and talked about sport. The women stood or sat at the other end of the room, talked about babies and only spoke to the men to tell them it was time to go home. A woman who joined the men's group was considered to have loose morals. A man who joined the women's group was considered to be effeminate, probably a homosexual, or a 'poofter', whatever that was.*

Philip Knightley, *Australia: Biography of a Nation*, London, 2001; cited in F Welsh, *Great Southern Land*, Allen Lane, London, 2004, pp. 443–4



**Source 5.23** These European immigrants were a welcome boost to Australia's population when they arrived in 1950.

## Facing difficulties

Even though the White Australia policy was gradually whittled away during the 1950s and 1960s, the emphasis remained firmly on European migrants, with the British providing the bulk of the new arrivals. Even for the British arrivals, there was the significant **culture shock** of arriving in a country on the other side of the world. The language may have been the same, but the social dislocation involved in starting afresh after leaving closeknit communities was considerable. When language and cultural difficulties were added to the mix, it is easy to understand why many migrants struggled to assimilate.

Another view of assimilation was provided by musician Mario Millo. In an interview, he remembered some of the difficulties of being a migrant in the school playground in the early 1960s.

### Source 5.25

*For me, growing up with the name 'Mario' was a hassle most of the time. I remember my first horrific day at school barely knowing how to speak English, I only knew a few words here and there taught to me by my older sister Rosanna, who must have been through the same ordeal. I was in fourth class primary school (guess I was about 9 years old)—we lived very close to the public school and one day I invited one of my best friends home for some lunch. It was my mum's day off and she prepared spaghetti and also an Italian native lettuce (radiccio) which looks like leaves. He thoroughly enjoyed the food but a few days later the gossip in the playground was, 'Mario Ovaltine eats worms and grass'. From that point on we were no longer friends.*

From an interview with musician Mario Millo, whose family emigrated from Italy in 1954

The Snowy Mountains Scheme became a major destination for migrants, who would often find their education, skills and qualifications were not officially recognised in Australia. Instead, they had to work in physically demanding labouring jobs in order to earn money. Mario Millo remembered the experience of his northern Italian father, who had emigrated to Australia after border changes in Europe after World War II had meant that his home town was no longer in Italy but had become part of Yugoslavia. 'My father was a qualified diesel mechanic, but as a result of not being able to read or write English, spent his working years in Australia as a factory hand, on the lowest of wages.' This was the reality of assimilation for many migrants in the 1950s and 1960s.



Source 5.26 Mario Millo

## Check your learning

- 1 Why did Arthur Calwell think it was vital that Australia introduce large-scale European migration to Australia?
- 2 What was the assimilation policy?
- 3 Examine Source 5.24. What are the main aspects of Australian life Knightley portrays here? What difficulties would migrants find in assimilating those aspects into their lives if they arrived in an area like this?
- 4 How do Mario Millo's recollections help you understand the difficulties many migrants faced in assimilating into Australia?

## From monoculturalism to multiculturalism

The biggest problem with assimilation as a policy, for both migrants and Indigenous Australians, was that it demanded the denial of **culture** that people have grown up with. Culture is very much a component of an individual's identity, and changing culture is not a simple matter of government action. The Australia of the 1950s has been described as monocultural, as government policies had actively discouraged cultural and ethnic diversity in the population.

Source 5.27 gives us a brief insight into the monocultural lifestyle that was typical of most working-class Australian families in the 1950s.



Source 5.28 Preparing the evening meal; a typical family scene in the 1950s

### Source 5.27

*Dad usually gets home about half-past six at night. He says it's important for him to have a couple of drinks at the pub on the way home, so he can unwind and not bring his work problems home with him ... Mum always has tea ready for him, though. At 6:30 it's there on the table when Dad comes in through the door.*

*We have meat and vegetables every night. Mostly the vegies are what we grow in the backyard, or swap with Mr Kirby next door. Unfortunately he grows cabbage, which is really horrible. I don't like sausages when Mum boils them, either, because they always go so fat and grey, and when you stick your fork in them all this fatty stuff comes oozing out. Mum says they are good for you, but they taste horrible. We have a lot of minced steak and chops and steak, and potatoes with every meal. It's just as well Mum's such a good cook, because she can always make the leftovers into something good for the next night.*

*Every Sunday we have a baked dinner for lunch, and usually it's a leg of lamb. Mum puts it in lots of dripping so that the vegetables will all get cooked properly. She gets this huge block of dripping and cuts big slices to put on top of the meat, so it's really moist. Then she puts the rest of the dripping in the tray. I love it when it's just come out of the oven and all the fat just drips off the meat and potatoes. We have our best pudding on a Sunday too. Mum makes ice cream with condensed milk, and sago pudding.*

'Lizzie Baker's Story', in *My Generation*, Bernie Howitt Longman Cheshire, Melbourne, 1992, pp. 8–9

### 1950s Australia

Australian cultural life in the 1950s would be unrecognisable to modern Australians. Shops were strictly open from 9 to 5 on weekdays, and 9 to midday on a Saturday. After that, everything was closed, and Sunday was literally a day of rest. Drives to visit relatives and a large family lunch were typical components of Sunday life for many people. 'God Save the Queen' was played at all public events, including picture theatres and concerts, and everyone would dutifully stand. Overseas travel was far less common so for lots of families holidays were spent camping at a beachside location in Australia. Children were seen but not heard and, until television and rock'n'roll arrived in the late 1950s, they mainly entertained themselves playing outside.

### Towards multiculturalism

Early migrants to Australia were often expected to assimilate into this environment, and some missed the more vibrant parts of the cultures they had left behind. By the mid 1960s there was an increasing awareness of the difficulties migrants found in adjusting to a new life, new language and new culture. This awareness was confirmed in 1973 when the Whitlam Government's Minister for Immigration, Al Grassby (see Source 5.29), issued a reference paper called 'A multi-cultural society for the future'. It was the first recognition of the policy that would replace assimilation and change Australia permanently.



Source 5.29 Al Grassby speaking at the Griffith Wine Festival in 1973



Source 5.30 Prime Minister Gough Whitlam and Liberal leader Malcolm Fraser at an ethnic affairs meeting, 29 July 1975

**Multiculturalism** involved officially accepting and embracing the cultural practices and traditions that migrants brought with them to Australia. Prime Minister Whitlam referred to Australia as a multicultural nation in 1975 when passing the Racial Discrimination Act; and the Opposition leader Malcolm Fraser also embraced the vision of a multicultural Australia. Given the divisions that existed between Whitlam and Fraser, it is a tribute to both men that immigration was always approached in a **bipartisan** manner during one of the most divisive periods in Australian politics (see Source 5.30).

In 1977 the move towards the adoption of the policy of multiculturalism was formalised when the Ethnic Affairs Council, which had been set up by the Fraser Government to provide advice, recommended a public policy of multiculturalism. The first official government policies were implemented the following year, and in 1979 the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs was established by an act of parliament to raise awareness of cultural diversity and promote social cohesion, understanding and tolerance.

During the 1980s, after widespread acceptance of multiculturalism, Australia continued to develop economically and culturally. In 1989, Prime Minister Hawke produced the National Agenda for Multicultural Australia, and it continued to have bipartisan support.

All governments since Whitlam's have acknowledged the multicultural nature of Australian society. In 2011 a document was produced that was called 'The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy' (see Source 5.31). It contained official recognition of the multicultural nature of the Australian population.

**Source 5.31**

*Australia's multicultural policy embraces our shared values and cultural traditions. It also allows those who choose to call Australia home the right to practise and share in their cultural traditions and languages within the law and free from discrimination.*

*Australia is a multicultural nation. In all, since 1945, seven million people have migrated to Australia. Today, one in four of Australia's 22 million people were born overseas, 44 per cent were born overseas or have a parent who was, and four million speak a language other than English. We speak over 260 languages and identify with more than 270 ancestries. Australia is and will remain a multicultural society.*

From *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, Australian Government, 2011

## Check your learning

- 1 What is the difference between monoculturalism and multiculturalism?
- 2 How many of the foods mentioned in Source 5.27 are still eaten regularly in your family?
- 3 Who was Al Grassby? What role did he play in developing a multicultural Australia?
- 4 Which government adopted and developed the multicultural policy towards immigration?

## Discord and debate

Although there had been hostile receptions for some ‘New Australians’ in the 1950s and 1960s and for ‘boat people’ in the 1970s, multiculturalism had largely become accepted in Australian life. The first major sign of discord in Australia’s approach to multiculturalism came in 1984. During a speech to members of a Rotary group, historian Geoffrey Blainey (see Source 5.32) complained that the rates of Asian immigration to Australia were too high, and threatened the social cohesion of Australian society. This made migration a priority issue in the media, and started a debate that broke the bipartisan approach that had characterised so much of the previous decade.

### One Australia

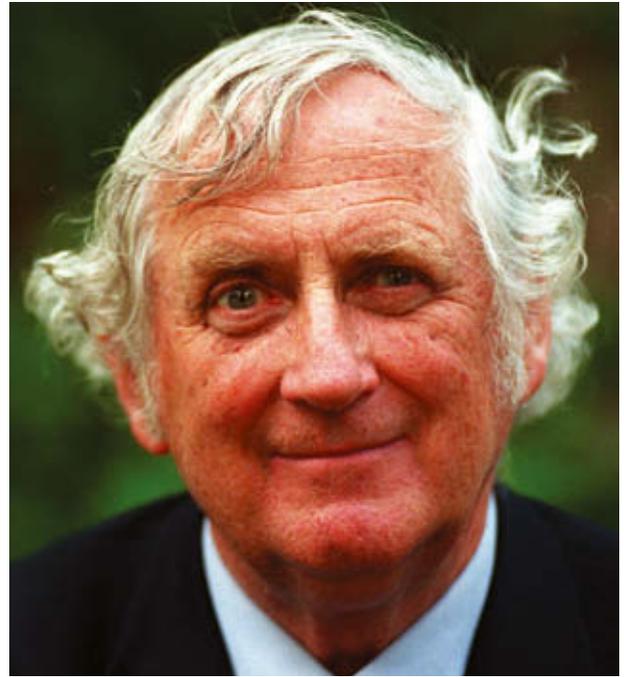
Since Blainey’s 1984 speech, immigration policy has become a major political issue. In 1988, then Opposition leader John Howard developed the Liberal Party’s policy on immigration and ethnic affairs (see Source 5.33). The party called it ‘One Australia’, and when discussing the policy on radio on 1 August 1988, Howard commented that he thought the rate of Asian immigration needed to be slowed. For the first time since the ending of the White Australia policy, race and immigration was being presented as a political issue.

The Labor government sought to score political points from these remarks. They introduced a motion into parliament that rejected the use of race to select immigrants. Howard opposed the motion, though three members of the Liberal opposition crossed the floor to vote for it and it was passed. Howard also questioned multiculturalism arguing that it showed that it was impossible to have an Australian ethos or common Australian culture.

The ‘One Australia’ policy was never put into practice; however, race had been identified as a potentially divisive issue in Australian life.

### Mandatory detention

Paul Keating replaced Bob Hawke as Prime Minister in 1991. He was responsible for the next major policy direction with regard to immigration to Australia. In 1992, he introduced mandatory detention of asylum seekers. This policy was developed as a response to the increasing number of Vietnamese, Chinese and Cambodian refugees seeking asylum in Australia. It was introduced with bipartisan support. In 1994, the Keating Government removed the 273-day limit on detention, meaning asylum seekers could be detained indefinitely.



Source 5.32 Geoffrey Blainey



Source 5.33 John Howard in 1988, as Leader of the Opposition



**Source 5.34** This cartoon by Bill Leak represents John Howard as Captain Cook arriving in Australia.

Once elected, the Howard Government continued the Keating policy of **mandatory detention**, and it became politically controversial in 2001 during the *Tampa* and 'Children overboard' affairs (see also 'Examining evidence: The Tampa Crisis' later in this chapter). By using an election slogan of 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come', Howard appealed to more conservative members of the Australian public. In doing so, he had effectively politicised immigration.

### The Pacific and Malaysia solutions

Howard's approach was called the '**Pacific solution**'. This meant that any asylum seekers would have their claims assessed away from Australia so that they could not have access to Australian courts and the Australian legal system. Since 2001, most of the **asylum seekers** have come from conflicts in Afghanistan, Iraq and Sri Lanka.

The Rudd and Gillard governments have maintained mandatory detention, and in 2011 the Gillard Government negotiated a deal with Malaysia. Malaysia was to accept refugees attempting to enter Australia. In return, Australia would accept refugees who had been living in Malaysia. This was to be called the '**Malaysia solution**'.

The 'Malaysia solution' was the first immigration policy of the 21st century to be challenged in the High Court. On 31 August 2011, the High Court effectively rejected the 'Malaysia solution' by a vote of 6-1. This was a blow for a government narrowly holding onto power. The High Court decision ensured that immigration would remain a political issue into the future.

Year	Number of boats	Number of people
1976	*	111
1977	*	868
1978	*	746

Year	Number of boats	Number of people (excludes crew)
1998	17	200
1999	86	3721
2000	51	2939
2001	43	5516
2002	1	1
2008	7	161
2009	61	2849
2010	134	6879
2011 (to 30 June)	28	1675

\*Figures not available

**Source 5.35** Boat arrivals in selected years since 1976 (adapted from information at the Australian Parliamentary Library)

## One Nation

In the 1996 federal election, Pauline Hanson was elected as the member for Oxley in Queensland. She had been selected as the Liberal candidate, but lost her endorsement shortly before the election for criticising the 'special treatment' given to Aborigines by the federal government. Although no longer endorsed, she still appeared on ballot papers as a Liberal candidate. She was regarded as an Independent when she entered Parliament.

In her maiden speech, Hanson said, 'I and most Australians want our immigration policy radically reviewed and that of multiculturalism abolished. I believe we are in danger of being swamped by Asians.' She also went on to say that, 'Arthur Calwell was a great Australian and Labor leader', in a clear reference to his support of the White Australia policy.

Hanson formed her own political party, One Nation, which attracted some support in the late 1990s in her native Queensland. She failed to be re-elected to federal parliament in 1998. She unsuccessfully stood for the Senate in 2001. After missing a seat in the Senate she said, 'It has been widely recognised by all, including the media, that John Howard sailed home on One Nation's policies.' Hanson has continued to unsuccessfully stand for election in federal and state elections.

Hanson is yet to be returned to any parliament since 1998. However, her policies on immigration and Indigenous affairs have had an impact on the Australian political landscape. Immigration became a divisive issue in society, and politicians were able to play on the fears and jealousies of some voters.

### Check your learning

- 1 What was John Howard's immigration policy when Opposition leader in 1988 called? What did it stand for?
- 2 What was Paul Keating's major contribution to immigration policy?
- 3 Which later governments have supported Keating's policy?
- 4 What was the topic of Pauline Hanson's maiden speech to parliament?
- 5 What did Pauline Hanson claim allowed John Howard to win the 2001 federal election?
- 6 Who overturned the 'Malaysia solution'?



Source 5.36 Pauline Hanson and One Nation, 1996

## examining **evidence**

# The *Tampa* crisis

On 23 August 2001, two vessels set sail from different ports. The *Palapa* left Java, heading towards Australia with 438 asylum seekers on board. The *Tampa* was a Norwegian freighter that left Fremantle headed towards Singapore. Their paths would cross in the Indian Ocean, creating an incident that would see Australia attract international criticism for the way it was handled.

### The incident

The context of the incident was an impending federal election in Australia. Prime Minister Howard, to show firm leadership, made a show of strength against asylum seekers arriving by boat. The asylum seekers on the *Palapa* were fleeing the Taliban regime in Afghanistan. Many were escaping direct threats on their lives. The Taliban would shortly be major news because of their support of al-Qaeda, which was allowed to flourish in Taliban-controlled Afghanistan.

On 25 August, an Australian reconnaissance plane spotted the *Palapa*, which appeared to be drifting without power. After a violent storm, the Australian Coastwatch called for shipping to help rescue those aboard the *Palapa*. On 26 August, Captain Arne Rinnan on board the *Tampa* diverted his ship to assist the *Palapa*. Australian authorities told Rinnan to take those he had rescued to Indonesia. They informed him he would be prosecuted if he attempted to take the asylum seekers to any Australian territory.



Source 5.37 The Norwegian container ship *Tampa*

Rinnan attempted to turn towards Indonesia, despite Christmas Island being the closest land. The asylum seekers on board the *Tampa* became increasingly distressed and demanded to be taken to Australia. Responsible for ensuring the safety of his vessel, and with several asylum seekers becoming increasingly ill, Rinnan turned for Christmas Island.

Arriving near Christmas Island on 27 August, Rinnan sought permission to land the refugees, whose health was deteriorating. Prime Minister Howard refused permission and stated that the *Tampa* could not land in any Australian territory. Rinnan refused to leave, and sailed close to the island. Howard ordered SAS (Special Air Services Regiment of the Australian Army) troops onto the *Tampa*, and Norway condemned Australia in the United Nations as, 'inhumane and contravening international law'.

After frantic negotiations, Howard organised a \$16.5 million deal to allow the asylum seekers to land on the tiny Pacific island of Nauru, his 'Pacific solution'. New Zealand

offered to take all the families and children. On 3 September, the asylum seekers were transferred onto a windowless lower deck on HMAS *Manoora* for the two-week voyage to Nauru. A Nielsen poll showed that 74 per cent of Australians approved of Howard's handling of the *Tampa* affair. On 11 September 2001, al-Qaeda launched their attack on the United States, leading to widespread condemnation of Muslims. On 5 October, Howard called an election for 10 November, and ran on the slogan, 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come' (see Source 5.34).

### The aftermath

From Nauru, New Zealand took 208 asylum seekers. Sweden, Canada and Norway each took ten. One hundred and seventy-nine Afghans, four Sri Lankans and three Pakistanis were convinced to return home. Australia ended up accepting just 28 of the 438 asylum seekers who boarded the *Palapa*.



**Source 5.38** SAS soldiers boarded the *Tampa* after Captain Rinnan took asylum seekers on board.

In 2004, the New Zealand government, having given the asylum seekers access to social security and support, commenced reuniting families.

Mohammed Ali and Mohammed Hussain were two of the men on board the *Palapa* that were rescued by the *Tampa*. After spending their time on Nauru, they were returned to Afghanistan in 2003, told that their country was now safe and under foreign control. This was despite the fact that Australian troops were still involved in fighting there, and would be for the rest of the decade. Within weeks, Ali's 17-year-old brother was killed after stepping on a Taliban bomb, and the Taliban returned, threatening those who remained. People who had tried to flee to countries like Australia were particular targets because they had shown their disloyalty to the Taliban.

Ali and Hussain fled Afghanistan again, but this time in different directions. Ali reached the capital of Kabul, and went into hiding. Hussain reached Pakistan, and then Turkey.

From there he entered another boat, desperate to reach Greece and the hope of a future. In echoes of the *Palapa*, Hussain's boat sank and everyone on board, all asylum seekers, drowned.

Another asylum seeker on board the *Palapa*, Mohammad Zahir Rasouli is still trying to pay off his failed attempt to reach Australia. On his return to Afghanistan from Nauru he said, 'I went back to my village but the Taliban, they came and burned our houses, they took our lands and they took our cattle with them. Afghanistan is worse now. I cannot go to my own village. I have my wife and three sons, my father, and two children of my brother, who was killed.' When Mohammad Naim Akbari sums up his experiences of trying to reach Australia, he simply says, 'I personally think that I have been in hell ... I was forced to, what can I do?'



**Source 5.39** Many of the asylum seekers on board the *Tampa* feared returning to Afghanistan.

## Check your learning

- 1 Why is it important to know the context of an event? What was the context of the *Tampa* incident?
- 2 Why is it significant that the Australian Coastwatch called for shipping to rescue the people on board the *Palapa*?
- 3 What evidence is there that John Howard did not want asylum seekers to enter Australia?
- 4 Is there evidence that the asylum seekers on board the *Palapa* were genuine?
- 5 What does the evidence tell us about conditions for asylum seekers who were convinced to return to Afghanistan?

## contestability: children overboard

On 6 October 2001, the HMAS *Adelaide* intercepted a boat, the *Olong*, carrying Iraqi asylum seekers towards Australia. This event took place the day after Prime Minister Howard had called a federal election in which the question of asylum seekers was to be a key issue.

Two days later the *Olong* started to sink, and some of the *Adelaide*'s crew dived into the water to help rescue the passengers. Confused reports meant that Canberra was originally told that parents on the *Olong* had threatened to throw or actually thrown their children overboard so they would be rescued by the *Adelaide*.

Prime Minister Howard, Minister for Immigration Ruddock and Minister for Defence Reith all condemned the asylum seekers for such cruel treatment, and used this as a reason to be harsh on all asylum seekers. Investigations indicated that there was real doubt about whether children had been thrown overboard, but the government continued to insist they had. The government also refused to release most photos from the *Adelaide*, other than those that showed the crew of the *Adelaide* in the water with children.

In 2004, the sailor shown in Source 5.40 had her aunt tell ABC News, 'at no stage was anybody throwing anyone overboard'.



**Source 5.40** This picture, taken with a mobile phone, shows Able Seaman Laura Whittle rescuing a mother and son from the *Olong* on 8 October 2001.



**Source 5.41** Photograph taken by a naval officer of rescued asylum seekers on board the HMAS *Adelaide* after the so-called 'children overboard' incident. West Australian-based Project SafeCom acquired this and other photographs anonymously several weeks after the sinking of the *Siev 4* on 8 October 2001, and the rescue of the vessel's 219 passengers. (AAP Image/SafeCom)

## 5.2 How have government immigration policies changed?

### Remember

- 1 Approximately how many migrants arrived in Australia in each of the decades since World War II?
- 2 Using Source 5.27 as a guide, what did Australians eat in the 1950s?
- 3 Which Institute was established by an Act of Parliament in 1979?
- 4 Who made the first major public complaint about multiculturalism in 1984?
- 5 What was the name of the political party Pauline Hanson established in 1998?

### Understand

- 6 How do you think you would have experienced daily life in Australia in the 1950s? How would your life be different from today?
- 7 Compare Sources 5.24 and 5.27. What do the two descriptions have in common?
- 8 Do you think Source 5.31 is an accurate description of the Australia you live in?
- 9 How does the Australia described in Source 5.31 compare with the Australia of 1945?

### Apply

- 10 In groups, develop a list of positive outcomes from Australia's multicultural policy. Use these as a basis for a class discussion on the topic.
- 11 Do you think Source 5.25 refers to Australia under the assimilation or multicultural policy? Explain your answer.
- 12 Read Source 5.25 carefully. How could Mario explain to his mother that he was no longer friends with the student he had brought home for lunch?
- 13 Think about the two scenarios below. Hypothesise about what may or may not have happened in Australia as a result.
  - a Australia maintains its strict White Australia Policy through to the current day.
  - b Paul Keating introduces a policy welcoming refugees into Australia.

What can you conclude?

### Analyse

- 14 What was the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric scheme? Research the Scheme, and decide what impact it had on Australia.
- 15 Why do you think the Whitlam and Fraser governments introduced and supported a multicultural policy for Australia?
- 16 Look at Source 5.35.
  - a How does your study of history help you explain the variations in boat arrivals in Australia between 1976 and 2010?
  - b On an average how many people were on a boat in 2000 and 2010? What does that indicate about conditions on the boats?

### Evaluate

- 17 What was the significance of John Howard using 'We will choose who comes to this country and we will choose the circumstances in which they come' as a slogan during the 2001 election?
- 18 What impact have Australian government policies had on patterns of migration to Australia?

### Create

- 19 Create a 'typical Australian' meal of the 1950s. How does it compare with the sorts of meals you eat today?
- 20 Divide into groups and create election pamphlets for the 2001 election campaign that represent the following groups:
  - a the Liberal/National coalition government
  - b the Australian Labor Party
  - c a refugee action group
  - d Pauline Hanson's One Nation.
- 21 Reread Source 5.24. This represents one perspective on Australia in the 1950s. Construct a questionnaire and try to gather a range of perspectives. Why would they be different?



Source 5.42 Refugees from Vietnam land safely at Darwin Harbour, November 1977.

## 5.3 How did the Vietnam War affect migration to Australia?

*The Vietnam War took place during the **Cold War**, and became part of the American effort to prevent the spread of communism in Asia. Australia strongly supported this anti-communist stance. In the Vietnam War—referred to in Vietnam as the American War—Australia fought alongside the United States, intervening in what was an internal conflict in Vietnam.*

The final result of the conflict was the collapse of the anti-communist South Vietnamese government after allies such as the United States and Australia withdrew their military support. In 1975 Vietnam was reunified. Both the United States and Australia opened their doors to refugees from the conflict. As a result, the Vietnam War changed the nature of migration to Australia.

### Background to war

Historians have traced the beginnings of Vietnamese society back to as early as 2879 BCE. Since then, the Vietnamese have fought to preserve their independence. A failure to understand this fundamental element of Vietnamese society was at the root of the Vietnam War. The Vietnamese had fought lengthy wars against the Chinese and French, helped defeat the Japanese in World War II, and saw the Americans as simply another enemy to be overcome.



Source 5.43 Australian troops during the Vietnamese War

The Vietnamese Communist Party had originally sided with the Americans in World War II, and expected American support for their declaration of independence at the war's end. Worried that any support for Vietnam would encourage communism in the region, the United States supported the return of France as the colonial power. France was finally defeated at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu in 1954, but the United States demanded a division of Vietnam into a communist North and American-backed South. That artificial division was at the heart of what later became the Vietnam War.

The United States refused to allow elections to reunify the country in 1956, and as a result the North began a **guerrilla** war to reunify their country. The infiltration of the South began in 1959, and the United States, under President Kennedy, started sending American advisers to support the South. An alleged North Vietnamese provocation, referred to as the Gulf of Tonkin incident, in 1964, provided the legislative support for the United States to escalate their commitment.

### Australian involvement

The Menzies Government fully supported the United States' anti-communist policy, and were steadfast allies throughout the Cold War. Menzies was a strong believer in the '**domino theory**', which included the belief that, if Vietnam was allowed to fall to communism, the rest of South-East Asia would quickly follow, like dominoes falling one after the other. In 1962, the Australian government committed its first military advisers to South Vietnam. That initial commitment of 30 would grow to 60000 over the next decade, lead to the reintroduction of conscription for overseas military service and divide Australian society.

Until the deployment of Australian soldiers to Afghanistan in 2001,



Source 5.44 Images like this, showing the coffins of young soldiers, made many Americans less supportive of the war.

Vietnam had been Australia's longest war. Five hundred Australians died during the conflict, including 185 National Servicemen who had been **conscripted** to fight. By fighting for the South Vietnamese, the Australian military worked closely with many Vietnamese.

## How the war ended

The Vietnam War became increasingly drawn out. It became characterised as a guerrilla war (that is, a war fought by small, independent groups of fighters), but all areas of the armed forces were involved. The conflict is referred to as the first television war because television news crews accompanied soldiers into the field. News bulletins reported ever-increasing death tolls. Politicians continued to speak of 'light at the end of the tunnel', while television viewers were becoming depressingly familiar with the sight of body bags and coffins.

The Tet Offensive by the North Vietnamese in 1968 carried them to Saigon, the capital of South Vietnam. Although the offensive was eventually repelled, it shattered any illusions that the war effort was going well for the West. With public confidence and support dwindling in both the United States and Australia, politicians looked for ways to exit the conflict that looked to have no end.

Australia pulled out of the war in 1972, and the United States followed in 1973. All foreign support personnel and advisers pulled out in 1975 as the North Vietnamese approached Saigon (see Source 5.45). As the tanks rolled into the former Presidential Palace in Saigon, the USA calculated the cost of involvement in the conflict. Just over 58 000 Americans had died. The final result was that Vietnam was again a unified country.

## Moral obligation

While fighting in Vietnam, the American and Australian troops had relied on South Vietnamese support. They required translators, administrative support staff and guides simply to function as an armed force. There were also a range of support services used to support the army in the field, such as shopkeepers, bar owners, taxi drivers and owners of accommodation used by soldiers.

## Re-education camps

Anyone who had worked with the West was regarded as suspect when the North unified the country in 1975. The communists introduced re-education camps to force those influenced by the West to change their previous loyalties. There are many debates about the actual statistics. Investigations in the USA have concluded that about one million Vietnamese were imprisoned in re-education camps after the end of the war in April 1975. It is thought that about 165 000 people died in these camps, and that torture and ill treatment did take place. Most terms in the camp ranged from three to ten years, but some people were incarcerated for up to 17 years. About 150 camps were built, and one in three Vietnamese families had a relative in a prison.



**Source 5.45** This famous photograph, taken on 29 April 1975 during the evacuation of Saigon, shows the desperation of American civilians and military personnel—as well as thousands of South Vietnamese civilians—trying to leave.

## Check your learning

- 1 What do the Vietnamese call the Vietnam War?
- 2 Who did the Vietnamese side with during World War II?
- 3 What is a guerrilla war?
- 4 When did Australia pull out of Vietnam?
- 5 In what year did the North finally overtake the South?



As the re-education camps were set up, it appeared to many in the former South Vietnam that the West had simply abandoned them. The lucky ones had managed to secure passage with the Americans during the frantic final hours of the evacuation of Saigon. It was the million left behind who were to be the greatest test of moral obligation for the West.

## Vietnamese emigration

With families disrupted by both the war and the camps that followed reunification, many Vietnamese became desperate to leave the country. Some chose to leave because they feared political persecution because of their pro-American beliefs. Others felt their opportunities to prosper in a communist Vietnam would be limited by the new political system.

The United Nations Human Rights Commission (UNHCR) places people who flee from their country in various categories. Internally **displaced persons** are those who have been forced to flee their residence because of armed conflicts while they were still living within their country. Stateless people are those who are not considered a member of a particular state. Vietnam in the late 1970s contained people in both these situations.

The greatest number who fled, however, were in the categories of **refugees** (see Source 5.47) and **asylum seekers** (see Source 5.48). The UNHCR is regarded as the authority in determining status. These are the two terms that have continued to be used in the media as victims of conflicts throughout the world continue to seek a safer life and a more secure future for their families.

**Source 5.46** This boat containing Vietnamese refugees was moored in Darwin Harbour on 5 October 1981.



**Source 5.47**

*[A refugee is someone who] owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.*

UNHCR guidelines

**Source 5.48**

*[An asylum seeker is] an individual who is seeking international protection. In countries with individualized refugee status determination procedures, an asylum-seeker is someone whose claim has not yet been finally decided on by the country in which he or she has submitted it. Not every asylum-seeker will ultimately be recognized as a refugee, but every refugee is initially an asylum-seeker.*

UNHCR guidelines

## Boat people

Since the 1970s, the term '**boat people**' has become highly politicised in Australian society. Border security has long been a concern for an island nation with a relatively small population. Boats have been arriving in Australia since first settlement, but the arrival of Vietnamese refugees heralded a new form of migration.

The first boat refugees from Vietnam to arrive in Australia landed in Darwin in April 1976. This was a year after the end of the Vietnam War, and these new arrivals were driven by fear and desperation. According to government figures, the initial boat was followed by a further 2058 boats from Vietnam, with the final boat arriving in August 1981. Their acceptance showed that the White Australia policy had finally been abolished. The composition of the Australian population started to change, and the stereotype of a 'real Australian' began to be challenged.

## significant individuals

# The contribution of immigrants to Australia

One of the great achievements of Australia's acceptance of Vietnamese boat people has been the number of outstanding young Australians of Vietnamese heritage that have gone on to contribute to Australian life in a variety of areas. Two Young Australians of the Year have been former Vietnamese refugees, and Vietnamese Australians have started making a major impact on Australian culture. The Vietnamese have also spread throughout Australia, enriching local communities when they start businesses, and introducing new flavours and ideas. The Vietnamese immigrants have established a reputation for hard work and an enthusiasm for community life.

## Young Australians of the Year

Two Vietnamese refugees have already been recognised as Young Australian of the Year. A study of the significant contributions talented young Australians of Vietnamese background have made reveal the true value Australia has gained from accepting those first 'boat people'.

### Tan Le

Tan Le was named Young Australian of the Year in 1998 for her work in the community as well as outstanding contributions to telecommunications and business. Born in Vietnam in 1977, she arrived in Australia as a refugee in 1982. By the time she was 18 she was president of the Vietnamese Community of Footscray, finding jobs for Vietnamese Australians. In 2000 she was admitted as a barrister and lawyer, and in 2003 co-founded Emotiv, the neuroengineering company that developed a breakthrough interface technology for digital media, taking inputs directly from the brain. It is regarded as technology that utterly transforms the way we interact with computers. By 2011 Tan Le was named by *Forbes Magazine* as one of 50 names to watch because of her work on a headset that takes orders directly from the brain.

### Khoa Do

Khoa Do was born in Ho Chi Minh City in 1979, and arrived in Australia in 1980 after leaving Vietnam on a fishing boat and reaching a refugee camp in Malaysia. He has a passion for drama, and this was the vehicle he used to reach other Vietnamese youths in Sydney's western suburbs. His first short film, *Delivery Day*, looked at the problems for a Vietnamese girl of balancing demands in Australian society. It was nominated for an AFI award in 2001. He was named Young Australian of the Year in 2005 for showing 'leadership, compassion, a will to inspire and inform Australians on issues that affect our communities'. In 2006, his film *Footy Legends* used his experience of Rugby League as a comedic bridge across cultures. He has continued to use film to focus on Australian life, and his 2011 film *Falling for Sahara* details the lives of Ethiopian and Somali refugees in Melbourne.



Source 5.49 Tan Le was named Young Australian of the Year in 1998.

## Anh Do

Anh Do is Khoa Do's older brother, and was born in Vietnam in 1977. Do chronicled the family's journey from Vietnam to Malaysia crammed aboard a fishing boat in his award-winning memoir *The Happiest Refugee*. After a degree in Business/Law, Anh Do decided that life as a stand-up comedian was preferable to the corporate world, and he developed a reputation on Sydney's comedy circuit as a witty observer of life as an immigrant. In 2006, he was the star of his brother's breakthrough film *Footy Legends*. His acceptance into mainstream Australia is reflected by his popularity. He has made appearances on television shows such as *Dancing with the Stars* and *The Footy Show*. The popular and critical success of *The Happiest Refugee* showed the Australian public's willingness to engage with refugee stories.



Source 5.50 Anh Do and Khoa Do



Source 5.51 Nam Le at the Melbourne Writer's Festival, 24 August 2008

## Nam Le

Nam Le was born in Vietnam in 1977, and came to Australia by boat as a refugee when he was less than a year old. He grew up in Melbourne, graduating from the University of Melbourne with Honours in Arts and Law. He worked briefly in law, but discovered his passion for writing. In 2004, he attended a writing workshop in Iowa, and completed a Masters degree in Creative Writing. His first book, *The Boat*, dominated literary awards in 2008. It is a collection of short stories, ranging from material that echoes his memories of Vietnam to stories of a Hiroshima orphan and a 14-year-old Colombian assassin. Among the host of international awards Le received was the Dylan Thomas Award for writers under 30. It confirmed his arrival as one of the most exciting writers of his generation.

## Check your learning

- 1 How did each of these four people reach Australia?
- 2 What contribution has each made to Australia?
- 3 What would happen to each of these people if they arrived in Australia the same way today?
- 4 Do you think these successes justify the post-Vietnam War immigration policy?



Source 5.52 A refugee camp in Asia for Vietnamese refugees

## The journey to Australia

For most Vietnamese boat people the journey was horrendous. After bribing local officials, they took to dangerous seas, often on makeshift boats and rafts. The main hope was to drift into open sea lanes, and be picked up by a vessel that could take them to a safe destination. Sturdier vessels did make it as far as Australia, but many only made it as far as neighbouring countries such as Thailand.

Before leaving Vietnam, families had to sell all their belongings, and any money was usually converted to gold, which was easier to carry. Unfortunately, that made the boats a prime target for pirates, particularly along the coast of Thailand. Pirates became a major risk for potential refugees, and added further danger to a voyage that was already risky with storms and rough seas.

There are no clear statistics, but estimates suggest 250 000 to 500 000 attempted refugees perished in their attempts to leave Vietnam. There are graphic accounts by survivors of robbery, rape and murder by Thai pirates. Families were typically split before leaving Vietnam in the hope that at least one would survive and reach safety. They survived on very little food and water, and with a voyage to Darwin lasting four weeks, many arrived in Australia in an emaciated condition.

## Refugee camps

The UNHCR recognised the scope of the tragedy that was unfolding and established refugee camps in Malaysia, Hong Kong, Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia to try and process the claims of the Vietnamese fleeing the country. Their work won the UNHCR the Nobel Peace Prize for 1981. From these camps, refugees were processed and resettled in countries willing to accept them.

The main countries to accept Vietnamese refugees were the United States (823 000), Australia and Canada (137 000 each), France (96 000), Germany (40 000), the United Kingdom (19 000) and Japan (11 000).

### Check your learning

- 1 What were some of the jobs that supported Australian and American soldiers in South Vietnam?
- 2 Approximately how many Vietnamese were thought to have been held in re-education camps?
- 3 Why were the boats leaving Vietnam a target for pirates? Where did most of the pirates come from?
- 4 How many Vietnamese refugees did Australia accept?

# bigideas

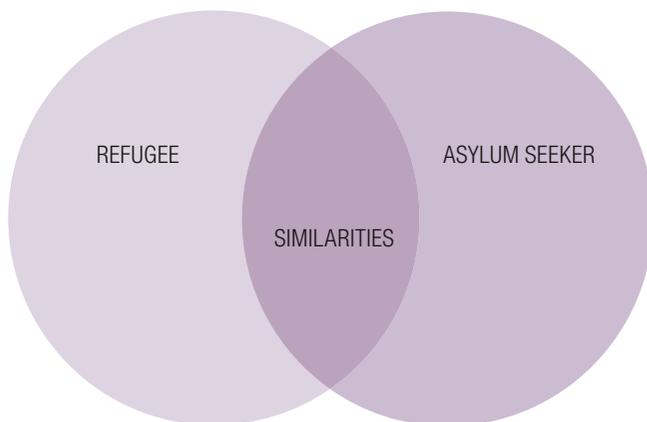
## 5.3 How did the Vietnam War affect migration to Australia?

### Remember

- 1 Which side did the United States and Australia support in the Vietnam War?
- 2 Who led the Australian government that involved Australia in the Vietnam War?
- 3 In which Australian port did Vietnamese boats first arrive in 1976?
- 4 What is Anh Do's memoir called?

### Understand

- 5 Why was the Tet Offensive of 1968 so important in the Vietnam War?
- 6 Why might it be so difficult to get accurate historical information on the 're-education' period in Vietnamese history?
- 7 Explain why Australia had a moral obligation to accept Vietnamese refugees at the end of the war.
- 8 What is the difference between a refugee and an asylum seeker? How are they similar? How are they different? Use a Venn diagram to organise your ideas.



### Apply

- 9 What impact would one in three Vietnamese families having someone in a re-education camp have on Vietnamese society?
- 10 Research and compare the economies of Australia, Pakistan, Iran and Syria. Which one do you think is in the best position to absorb refugees?

### Analyse

- 11 Were the Vietnamese entering Australia in the period 1976–1981 refugees according to the UNHRC definition?
- 12 Why do you think the United States, Canada and France receive so many more applications for asylum than Australia?
- 13 Watch Khao Do's film *Footy Legends*. How does it help you understand the experiences of migrant groups when they come to Australia?

### Evaluate

- 14 Do you think the poll figures from 1979 and 2001 reflect a change in Australia? Is Australia becoming a less tolerant country?
- 15 Does Australia have a moral obligation towards refugees who are fleeing countries where Australians are fighting?

### Create

- 16 Develop and administer a questionnaire designed to discover the attitude of people to refugees. What do your results show? Are they consistent across the class? What were the strengths and weaknesses of your methodology?
- 17 Create a poster, pamphlet or multimedia advertisement that argues the case for supporting asylum seekers arriving in Australia.



**Source 5.53** Australian cricketer Usman Khawaja—one of many Australian sporting personalities born overseas

## 5.4 How has migration shaped Australia's identity and global relationships?

*If you follow any Australian sport you will have cheered on **migrants**. Cricketer Usman Khawaja was born in Pakistan; Petero Civeoniceva, a Rugby League legend, was born in Fiji; and Rugby Union star Quade Cooper, in New Zealand. In 2009, Majak Daw, a **refugee** from the Sudanese civil war, made headlines when he was drafted by North Melbourne in the AFL. Two of Australian football's brightest stars, Bernie Ibini-Isei and Kofi Danning, are from Nigeria and Ghana, respectively. Sport has helped many migrant families enter Australian life.*

The contribution of migration to Australia extends well beyond sport. Migration has made the country stronger economically and culturally. Frank Lowy escaped Nazi Europe to found Westfield shopping centres, now a thriving international business. Hong Kong-born heart surgeon Victor Chang, and New Zealand-born eye surgeon Fred Hollows transformed people's lives with their work.

## The government view

On 16 February 2011, the Labor Minister for Immigration and Citizenship, Chris Bowen, launched *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*. This policy was designed to reaffirm the importance of a culturally diverse and socially cohesive nation. As an indication of the changes in Australia since 1945, it was released in 11 different languages: Arabic, Chinese (simplified and traditional scripts), Dinka, French, German, Greek, Hindi, Italian, Spanish and Vietnamese. The geographical and cultural spread of these languages represents the history of Australian post-war immigration.

Julia Gillard has acknowledged her own immigrant roots, and became the sixth Australian prime minister to have been born overseas. She is the first since more than six million people immigrated to Australia after World War II.

This has been the story of our nation since 1945, a land of opportunity for new lives. Some have come here to rebuild lives shattered by war, some to rejoin families, some to build businesses or pursue job opportunities, and some simply to follow an adventurous spirit. They have permanently changed the composition of the Australian population, and helped to create a prosperous, culturally diverse Australia. Australia is not the same place it was in 1945, and never can be again.



**Source 5.55** Prime Minister Julia Gillard came to Australia from Wales with her family as a young girl.

### Source 5.54

*Australia is a multicultural country. We sing 'Australians all' because we are. Our country's story is the story of our people in this place. Australia has provided a new home and a chance at a better life for millions of people. I am a migrant. My family embraced the sense of opportunity and community that they found in Australia and the possibilities for their children that this multicultural country offered them. I remember the debates in the family home as my parents decided to become citizens of this nation. And having chosen this country, my family have loved it with a fierce determination and passion ever since.*

Prime Minister Julia Gillard in the foreword to *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, Australian Government, 2011

## The waves of migration

The one consistent element of Australian migration has been the arrival of migrants from Britain. Regardless of policies or political stances, Australia has always welcomed British citizens. In 2006, 24 per cent of the Australian population had been born outside Australia, and over 1.1 million were from the United Kingdom. They formed the backbone of the 'Populate or perish' policy of Arthur Calwell that was underpinned by a strict adherence to the White Australia policy. The other significant nation of origin was New Zealand, which has provided nearly half a million immigrants.

The initial post-World War II wave of immigration was boosted by the addition of Europeans escaping war-torn countries such as the Baltic States, Germany and the Netherlands. In 1951 and 1952, Italy and Greece were included in the scheme. The massive wave of European migration continued until the dismantling of the White Australia policy in the 1970s.

The next wave came after the end of the Vietnam War, and really marked the beginning of a genuinely **multicultural** country. Also at this time was a smaller wave of Timorese who had resisted Indonesia's invasion in 1975. Chinese and Indian immigrants also took advantage of the ending of the **White Australia policy**. Since the 1990s, world trouble spots have been the catalyst for smaller waves of migration from countries such as Lebanon, Somalia, Ethiopia, Sudan, Iraq and Afghanistan.

## A multicultural Australia

The move towards **multiculturalism** was a specific rejection of the previous assimilation policy. The policy of assimilation had encouraged migrants to reject their original culture in order to become 'Australian'. It ignored the depth and significance of culture as a defining feature of a person's identity. Multiculturalism allowed new Australians to celebrate their cultural origins while embracing the values of their adopted country. For Australia, multiculturalism meant increasing diversity in all aspects of life.



Source 5.56 People from all over the world have chosen to become Australian citizens.

### Check your learning

- 1 How many Australian prime ministers have migrated to this country?
- 2 How many migrants have arrived in Australia since 1945?
- 3 Which two countries have provided the most migrants to Australia?
- 4 What have been the main waves of migration to Australia since World War II?

## Development of multicultural policies

Immigration is a continuity in Australian politics. As each wave of migration to Australia has settled, they have jealously guarded their lifestyle from the next wave. This has been a continuity in Australian history. While some governments have argued strongly for a multicultural Australia, others have used immigration to split public opinion.

### Whitlam and Fraser

The two great political rivals of the 1970s, Gough Whitlam and Malcolm Fraser, were the political architects of multiculturalism. Whitlam's appointment of Al Grassby as Minister for Immigration was the catalyst for rapid change. Although the White Australia policy had effectively finished, Grassby formalised its removal. He called for increased migration from non-English speaking countries, banned racially selected sporting teams from competing in Australia, taking a stand against the policy of apartheid practised in South Africa, and removed the legal requirement for Indigenous Australians to seek permission before they travelled overseas.

Grassby lost the 1974 election after his seat was targeted by anti-immigration groups. Whitlam responded by appointing him the first federal Commissioner for Community Relations, responsible for administering the Racial Discrimination Act. It was a clear signal that despite the lobbying of conservative, race-based groups, the government was not going to deviate from a policy of multiculturalism.

When Fraser replaced Whitlam in 1975, the **bipartisan** approach towards immigration policy continued. It was a characteristic of politics until late in the 20th century that immigration was rarely an election issue. Fraser continued to advance multiculturalism, through legislation such as the Ethnic Affairs Commission, and the acceptance of Vietnamese refugees after the Vietnam War.

The creation of a National Multicultural Festival in Canberra in 1980 was the start of official community celebration of multiculturalism. It promoted the status and identity of the cultures that now reflected the diverse cultures that had combined to form the basis of Australian society.

## Hawke and Keating

The combination of legislative and political support for multiculturalism as an integral component of Australian society was maintained by both the Hawke and Keating governments.

In 1989, the Hawke Government released its multicultural policy statement, the *National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia*. It defined the principles of multiculturalism based on three rights and three obligations:

### Source 5.57

*The right to cultural identity (expressing and sharing one's individual cultural heritage, including their language and religion); social justice (equality of treatment and opportunity, and the removal of barriers of race, ethnicity, culture, religion, language, gender or place of birth); and economic efficiency (the need to maintain, develop and utilise effectively the skills and talents of all Australians).*

*The obligation to have an overriding and unifying commitment to Australia, to its interests and future first and foremost; to accept the basic structures and principles of Australia; and to accept that the right to express one's own culture and beliefs involves a reciprocal responsibility to accept the right of others to express their views and values.*

Australian Government (Office of Multicultural Affairs), *National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia*, Australian Government Publishing Service, July 1989

The initiatives announced by the Hawke Government as part of the new policy included the establishment of a National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition, improved access to government services for all groups, greater support for English language teaching and second language learning. It also included developing stronger relationships between government and ethnic communities through a community relations campaign.

## Howard

The first real sign of disagreement, followed by abandonment of a bipartisan approach to **migration**, came in 1988. The opposition leader, John Howard, called for a limit on Asian immigration for the sake of social cohesion. He produced a policy on migration called 'One Australia', and made his thoughts on multiculturalism clear in September 1988. He stated that, to him 'multiculturalism suggests that we can't make up our minds who we are or what we believe in'. Howard also linked multiculturalism to Indigenous issues, continuing to say, 'I abhor the notion of an Aboriginal treaty because it is repugnant to the ideals of One Australia.'

When he came to power in 1996, Howard changed the Department of Immigration, Multiculturalism and Indigenous Affairs to the Department of Immigration and Citizenship. Perhaps more controversially, he failed to challenge Pauline Hanson's maiden speech to Parliament. Hanson had been a Liberal candidate until shortly before the election and, in her speech, criticised multiculturalism. Howard simply responded by saying this was an example of the new freedom of expression in the country.

Howard, a firm assimilationist, saw an ongoing Australian tradition at the centre of national identity, and expected migrants to embrace that. It was reflected in his attempts to create a citizenship test that required knowledge of Australian history and sport, and an attempted preamble to the Constitution that celebrated 'mateship'. He summed up his ideas in his 2006 Australia Day address to the National Press Club (see Source 5.58).

## Rudd and Gillard

In December 2008, just over a year after coming into office, the Rudd Government announced the creation of the Australian Multicultural Advisory Council (AMAC). The Council was to advise the government on 'practical approaches' to overcoming racism and intolerance and promoting diversity. The release of the Gillard Government's multicultural policy in 2011 has reaffirmed the government's commitment to multiculturalism, and the need to respect diversity within the Australian community.

### Source 5.58

*Most nations experience some level of cultural diversity while also having a dominant cultural pattern running through them. In Australia's case, that dominant pattern comprises Judeo-Christian ethics, the progressive spirit of the Enlightenment and the institutions and values of British political culture. Its democratic and egalitarian temper also bears the imprint of distinct Irish and non-conformist traditions.*

John Howard, excerpt from address to the National Press Club, 26 January 2006

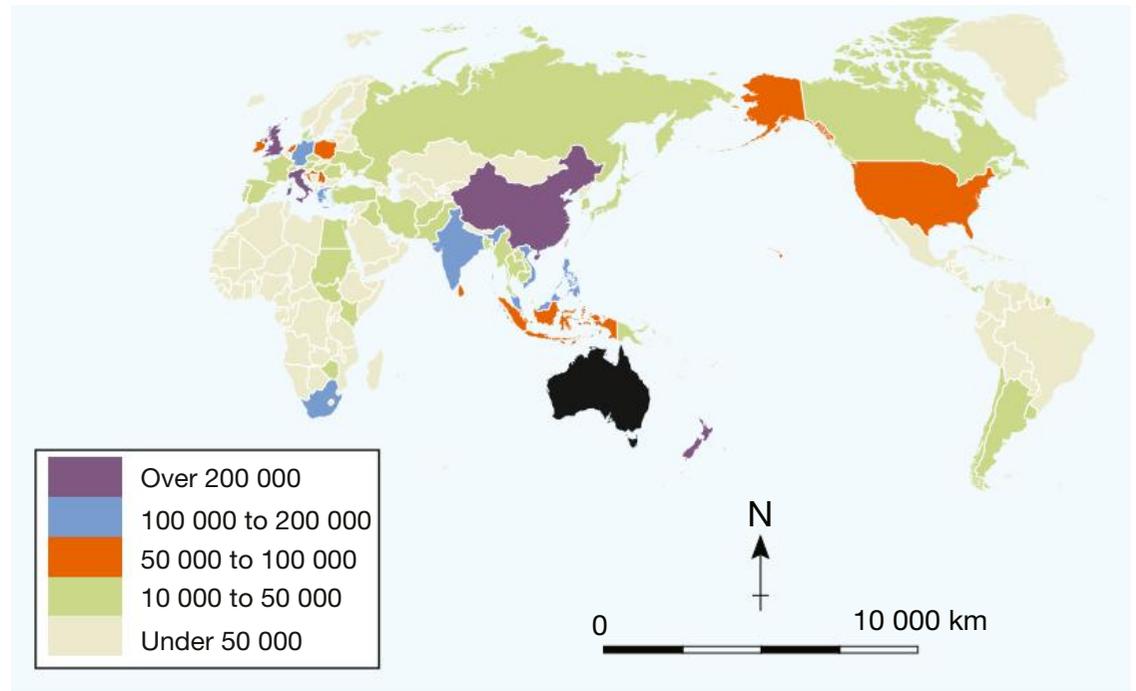
## Check your learning

- 1 When and where did a National Multicultural Festival start?
- 2 What did John Howard call for a limit on in 1988, while leader of the Opposition?
- 3 How did John Howard respond to Pauline Hanson's maiden speech in Parliament?

## Multiculturalism at work

The continent of Australia has always been culturally diverse. Before the arrival of the British, it is estimated that there were around 700 Indigenous cultural groups speaking more than 250 different languages. When the First Fleet arrived in Sydney Cove in 1788, there were around 60 different nationalities among the crew and convicts.

Over the last 40 years there has been a significant shift in the location of countries from which they come. During the 1960s, 45 per cent of all immigrants to Australia were born in Great Britain and Ireland. By 2006, this had fallen to 17 per cent, with settlers from countries in the Asia-Pacific region, Africa and the Middle East increasing. More than 10 per cent of permanent residents in 2006 came from China, and since 1995, more than 200 000 people have come from Africa and the Middle East. Today, almost one in every four Australians was born overseas.

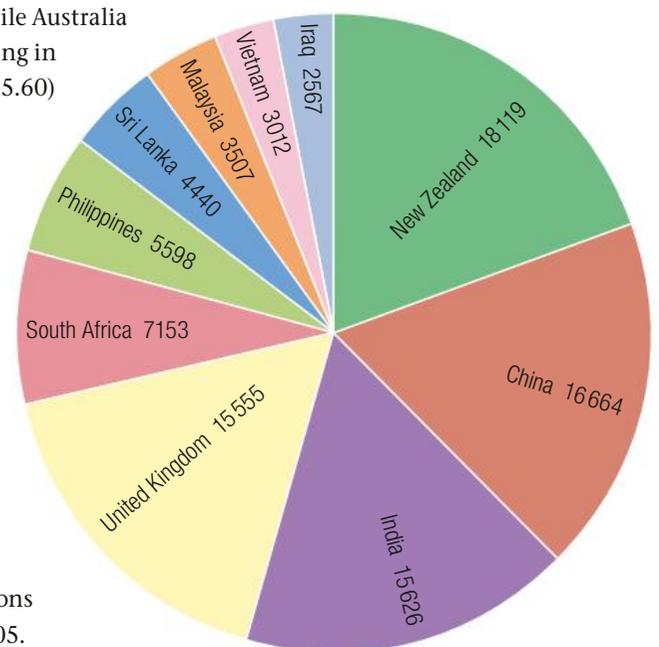


As new waves of immigrants arrive and make their home in Australia the cultural make-up of the country continues to change. Source 5.59 shows the effect that past immigration has had on Australia and where the largest numbers of immigrants have come from. While Australia still takes in large numbers from Britain and New Zealand, new groups are arriving in increasing numbers, for example new arrivals from India and China (see Source 5.60) and are having an impact on Australian culture and institutions.

### Challenges for a multicultural Australia

The constantly changing nature of Australian society has not been without its difficulties. Historically, as each new wave of immigrants has settled in their new home, they have initially been treated with suspicion by those who came before them. This has often led to cultural misunderstandings and tension within the community. This is as true today and it was with the first wave of post-war migration. On occasion this has also led to isolated outbreaks of violence. While some see this tension as a sign of failure on the part of multicultural policy, others see these problems as an opportunity to look closely at ourselves and draw strength from our differences.

One event that drew widespread media attention and polarised certain sections of the community took place in the Sydney suburb of Cronulla in December 2005.



Source 5.60 Top 10 countries of origin for arrivals settling in Australia, 2009–2010

## significance: the Cronulla riots

In December 2005, Australia was shocked by a series of riots that erupted in the Sydney beachside suburb of Cronulla.

Conflict broke out on 4 December mainly as a result of the large influx of visitors to Cronulla beach. The riots first began as the result of a dispute between a group of young men of 'Middle Eastern appearance' and volunteer lifesavers patrolling Cronulla Beach. The week after the 4 December incident saw increasing tensions, partially fuelled by talkback radio programs in Sydney.

A series of SMS texts were widely circulated during the week calling on 'Aussie Pride' to come to a 'Leb and wog bashing day' at North Cronulla on Sunday 11 December. A crowd of about 5000 had assembled at North Cronulla Beach wearing clothing and chanting slogans that were racially offensive. A number of people were injured in violent attacks and beer bottles smashed, as police moved to restore order.



Source 5.61 A police officer trying to separate two men fighting at Cronulla

## Embracing diversity

The ability of Australia to openly discuss issues and adapt to the changing cultural mix of its citizens is a sign of its success as a multicultural nation. The following examples show how a couple of Australia's well-known institutions are making concerted efforts to be inclusive of other cultures and more representative of their communities.

After the Cronulla riots a program called 'On the same wave' was established to encourage Muslims to train as lifesavers. It was run by Surf Life Saving Australia in partnership with Sutherland Council and the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs. Lifesavers are an iconic part of Australian beach culture and this program was designed to make surf lifesaving clubs more inclusive and multicultural.

Surf Life Saving Australia has over 300 clubs and around 115 000 lifesavers patrolling the country's beaches. Young volunteers from the Muslim community were asked to complete a three-month training course in summer before obtaining bronze medallions and commencing patrols.

But for Muslim girls, there was an additional barrier. The outfits worn by female lifesavers were too revealing and go against traditional Muslim beliefs. So a local designer of Lebanese background came up with the 'burqini'. It is a full-length lycra suit, which is loose enough to fulfil Muslim dress requirements and light enough to enable Muslim lifesavers to swim. It comes with a built-in hijab (headscarf).

Mecca Laalaa is one of the female volunteers who completed her two-month training to qualify as a lifesaver. Like many others, she grew up hanging out at the beach with her friends and wanted to contribute by becoming a lifesaver. She received worldwide attention when she went on patrol in her burqini.



Source 5.62 Mecca Laalaa on Cronulla Beach



Source 5.63 Constable Singh in his adapted police uniform



Source 5.64 The SBS sign on the broadcaster's offices in Federation Square, Melbourne

Victoria Police are also actively looking at ways to attract recruits from a range of cultural backgrounds into the police force. The state of Victoria is one of Australia's most multicultural, and Victoria Police are keen for their recruits to reflect the mix of groups in the community. In 2011, the first officer of the Sikh faith was inducted into Victoria Police.

Constable Amitoj Singh will wear a newly designed police-issue turban, featuring the service's checkerboard pattern (see Source 5.63).

## Multicultural broadcasting

In 1975, the government launched two multilingual radio stations (2EA in Sydney and 3EA in Melbourne). Following their success, the government announced a new television channel that would provide programs aimed specifically at the growing number of Australian citizens for whom English was not their first or native language. This new television channel operated by the Special Broadcasting Service (SBS) would also be a reflection of Australia's multicultural society.

The new television service made its first broadcast in April 1979 with a test transmission broadcasting a compilation of special multicultural programs on the ABC. On 24 October 1980, SBS (then called Network 0/28), as its own channel, made its debut with its first program, a documentary called *Who are we?*

SBS's charter is to 'provide multilingual and multicultural radio and television services that inform, educate and entertain all Australians and, in doing so, reflect Australia's multicultural society'. Since its launch, SBS has provided news programs and other shows in many different languages as well as special interest programs, including sports telecasts, for cultural minority groups.

SBS now broadcasts in more languages than any other broadcaster in the world—in more than 68 languages on radio, more than 60 on television and more than 50 online.

## Check your learning

- 1 How has the cultural and ethnic make-up of Australia changed over the last 40 years?
- 2 What events led to an outbreak of violence in Cronulla in 2005?
- 3 What program was started after the Cronulla riots to promote multiculturalism on Cronulla beach?
- 4 In what year did SBS start broadcasting?

# bigideas

## 5.4 How has migration shaped Australia's identity and global relationships?

### Remember

- 1 When was the Gillard Government's multicultural policy launched?
- 2 What are some of the reasons people have migrated to Australia?
- 3 Where are some of the world trouble spots that have provided migrants to Australia in the last three decades?
- 4 Who were the two political rivals of the 1970s who both supported the introduction of a multicultural policy for Australia?
- 5 Is there any evidence that there was a racial element in the Cronulla riots?

### Understand

- 6 What did Prime Minister Julia Gillard mean when she wrote, 'We sing "Australians all" because we are'?
- 7 Why did Prime Minister Gough Whitlam appoint Al Grassby as the first federal Commissioner for Community Relations?
- 8 Why did Prime Minister John Howard defend rather than attack Pauline Hanson's maiden speech to federal parliament?

### Apply

- 9 Research the background of one of the waves of migration bringing people to Australia since 1975. What were the reasons these people were leaving their homeland? How were they received in Australia?
- 10 What impact do you think tweeting would have had on the Cronulla riots if it had been available at the time?
- 11 'The contribution of migrants to Australian popular culture has been immense, and reflects the strength of Australia's migration policies in attracting talented, ambitious and dynamic people to enrich the country.' Do you agree? Research the achievements of one migrant to Australia and argue how they have enriched the country.

### Analyse

- 12 What conclusions can you draw from looking at Source 5.59? Which regions are underrepresented?
- 13 Which countries have dominated migration to Australia according to Source 5.59?
- 14 Research John Howard's 'One Australia' immigration policy from 1988. What do you think Australia would be like if he had stayed as Opposition leader, won the 1990 federal election and implemented 'One Australia'?

### Evaluate

- 15 What contribution has immigration made to Australia's national identity? How has immigration policy impacted on Australia's international relations?
- 16 What evidence is there that technology played a role in the Cronulla riots? What problems does this pose for future historians researching the riots?

### Create

- 17 Create a poster of a 'typical Australian' representing Australia today. Analyse your poster and explain its historical origins. Compare your poster with those of the rest of the class. What do the posters have in common? Develop a composite 'typical Australian' from the images presented.
- 18 Create an immigration policy for modern Australia that you believe upholds Australian values.

# connecting ideas

## Cameleers in Australia

*In the middle of the 19th century, Australia's vast, dry interior presented a big problem for explorers and settlers—how could people get there if horses and donkeys could not survive the harsh environment? The solution came in the form of camels!*

*Explorer John Horrocks brought in the first camels to Australia in the mid 19th century. After that, camels became a regular part of central Australian exploration and settlement. Not surprisingly, most people living in Australia in the 19th century had little knowledge of camels, so experienced cameleers were essential to manage and care for them.*



## The 'Afghans' in Australia

In the second half of the 19th century, around 3000 cameleers were brought to Australia. These men were mainly Muslim and came from countries such as Afghanistan, Pakistan, India and the Ottoman Empire. Even though they came from different countries and cultures, they became collectively known as 'Afghans'.

The importance of the cameleers to Australia is demonstrated by certificates they received after 1901. These certificates made them exempt from the dictation test that was central to the White Australia policy (used to prevent foreigners from settling in Australia).

Despite this, the lives of early 'Afghan' migrants were difficult. There is evidence that they were subject to racism, and those who decided to stay in Australia usually married Indigenous women as they were not accepted by mainstream 'white' Australians.

- 1 What does Source 5.65 tell you about the implementation of the White Australia policy?
- 2 Why do you think the cameleers were referred to as 'Afghans'?

**Source 5.65** A certificate exempting an 'Afghan' cameleer, Shah Kail, from the dictation test in 1913



Book No. 96  
Form No. 21. COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA. No. 100  
DUPLICATE. Immigration Restriction Acts 1901-1905 and Regulations 7/8/1913  
CERTIFICATE EXEMPTING FROM DICTATION TEST.

I, Walter Septimus Haddock Collector of Customs for the State of Western Australia in the said Commonwealth, hereby certify that Shah Kail hereinafter described, who is leaving the Commonwealth temporarily, will be exempted from the provisions of paragraph (f) of Section 5 of the Act if he returns to the Commonwealth within a period of 2 months from this date.

Date 28 3 1913  
S. K. Kail  
Collector of Customs.

DESCRIPTION

Nationality	<u>Afghan</u>	Birthplace	<u>Peshawar</u>
Age	<u>47 years</u>	Complexion	<u>Dark</u>
Height	<u>5 feet 5 1/2</u>	Hair	<u>Black</u>
Build	<u>Medium</u>	Eyes	<u>Dark brown</u>

Particular marks Scar on left cheek  
(For impression of hand see back of this document.)

PHOTOGRAPHS

Full Face	Profile
	

Date of departure 29 3 13 Destination Colombo  
Ship Frederick de Groot  
Date of return \_\_\_\_\_ Ship \_\_\_\_\_  
Port \_\_\_\_\_

Customs Officer



## Key contributions of the cameleers

The cameleers and their hardy animals allowed for the successful exploration and development of Australia's harsh interior. Key projects were completed thanks to them, including the Overland Telegraph Line between Adelaide and Darwin, the transcontinental railway line, the Canning Stock Route, and the supply of food and goods to Alice Springs (and other remote farming communities). Today, a train called *The Ghan* runs between Adelaide and Darwin. This name is an abbreviated form of *The Afghan Express*, chosen to honour the contribution made by these foreign-born men and their animals.

- 1 Why do you think the cameleers and their animals were suited to work in the interior of Australia?
- 2 How important do you think the cameleers were in the opening up of central Australia?

Source 5.66 *The Ghan* train runs between Adelaide and Darwin.

## The legacy of the cameleers

Although the original cameleers are long gone, their legacy remains. Some cameleers found life in Australia too difficult, and chose to return to their original homelands. Others settled in Australia permanently. The 'Afghans' built Australia's first mosque in South Australia in 1861, with many later mosques becoming part of the Australian landscape. The descendants of the original camels are also an important part of Australia today, playing a vital role in tourism in central Australia. The Alice Springs 'Camel Cup' race and the Northern Territory's 'National Hump Day' are both reminders of the cameleers and their animals.

- 1 Why were Australia's first mosques in central Australia?
- 2 Do you think camels play an important role in Australia today? Give reasons for your answer.

Source 5.67 Ian Rowan, 2009 world champion camel jockey, promoting 'Hump Day' in Sydney in 2011



As a class discuss the following: What other significant contributions have migrant groups made to Australia over the years?

# glossary

## A

**Aboriginal rights movement** the civil rights movement led by Australia's Aboriginal population

**Allies** the combatants against the **Axis** powers in World War II (the USA, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, China and France, along with their smaller allied forces)

**apartheid** a political system in which people are **segregated** according to race or ethnicity

**arms race** the competition between two powers (such as the USA and the USSR) for the development and maintenance of the best weapons systems

**assembly line** machinery that is arranged in sequence so that something can be assembled quickly and efficiently

**assimilation** the **integration** of one social or ethnic group into another, usually entailing the loss of the minority **culture**

**asylum** a place to go for safety or security

**asylum seeker** someone who attempts to move to a secure country in order to avoid persecution

**Axis** the combatants against the **Allies** in World War II (Germany, Italy and Japan, as well as their smaller allied forces)

## B

**baby boomer** someone born between 1946 and 1964; this was the time when there was a spike in birth rates after World War II

**bipartisan** in a two-party system, an action or vote involving both parties

**Blitz** the bombing of Britain's industrial centres by the Germans in World War II

**Blitzkrieg** literally, a 'lightning war'; the sudden and intense war on land and in the air waged by the Germans against European countries in World War II

**boat people** **asylum seekers** or **refugees** who arrive by boat (usually from places like Vietnam to places like Australia and Canada)

## C

**cause and effect** a key concept in history: the link between what causes an action, or what motivates someone to act a certain way, and the outcome of that action

**censor** to delete, black out or alter printed or visual materials for political or moral reasons

**census** a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can often include age, occupation, income, etc.

**civil disobedience** non-violent protest against perceived wrongs (such as racial discrimination)

**civil rights** the rights of citizens to political and social freedom

**coalition of the willing** the countries who backed the US-led invasion of Iraq in 2002 and provided support during that invasion

**Cold War** the political conflict and tensions (without outright hostility), as well as technological rivalry, between the USSR and the USA from about 1946 to 1991

**colony** a settlement established and maintained by an **empire** for economic or strategic reasons

**communism** a political ideology and an economic system in which all property is publicly owned and each person works in accordance with what he or she can do, and all goods are distributed according to need

**conscription** compulsory military service

**consumer** someone who buys products or services

**contestability** a key concept in history; certain aspects of history may be contested (challenged) or left open to debate due to a lack of evidence or different perspectives

**continuity and change** a key concept in history: the recognition that while many things (customs, language, etc.) change over time, others continue, even if in modified forms

**Crown land** land belonging to the monarch or to the state in a **dominion**

**culture** the customs, behaviours, etc., of a particular group of people

**culture shock** the feeling of being in an unfamiliar **cultural** environment

## D

**democracy** a political system characterised by the rule of the people

**displaced person** a person forced to leave his or her country because of war or persecution

**dominion** a self-governing territory of the British Commonwealth

**domino theory** the theory put forward by US President Eisenhower that if one nation in South-East Asia adopted **communism**, others would follow, just as a row of dominoes fall once one is pushed over

## E

**emigrate** to move to a new country to live (*see migrate*)

**empathy** a key concept in history: the ability to understand what happened in the past from the **perspective** of the people living at the time

**empire** a group of countries and/or areas, probably having different languages and **cultures**, ruled by a central power or leader

**eugenics** a popular movement that attempted to 'improve' the human race through selective breeding and sterilisation programs

**evidence** a key concept in history: the information obtained from sources that is valuable for a particular historical inquiry; can be used to help construct a historical narrative, to support a hypothesis or to prove or disprove a conclusion

## F

**fascism** an authoritarian and nationalistic political system

**Federation** the formation of the Commonwealth of Australia in 1901

**Freedom Riders** in the USA, protesters against racist and **segregationist** policies who toured the southern US in buses to bring their cause to public notice; in Australia, Aboriginal protesters and their supporters who toured the Australian states to highlight racism and discrimination against Aborigines

## G

**Geneva Convention** the international agreement about the treatment of **POWs** and captured civilians during wartime

**genocide** the systematic destruction of a racial or ethnic group

**ghetto** part of a city or town in which a specific ethnic or racial group is segregated

**globalisation** the internationalisation of business

**Great Depression** the severe economic downturn between 1929 to 1934, which affected many countries around the world

**guerrilla** a member of a small and independent group fighting against a larger and more formal army

## H

**Holocaust** the term given to the extermination of Jews and other 'undesirables' by **Nazis** in World War II

## I

**ideology** the intellectual basis or philosophy behind a political, social or economic system

**immigrate** to come to a new country to live

**imperialism** the process of acquiring and maintaining control over other countries/territories for economic or strategic purposes

**integration** to become like others in a group; to become part of a social or cultural group (*see assimilation*)

**isolationism** the policy of not getting involved with other countries' politics or wars

## K

**Ku Klux Klan** a right-wing hate group in the USA who originally formed in the 19th century to protest against rights for newly freed black slaves; after being banned in the 1870s, they became more powerful in the 1920s and still exist today, with Catholics, Jews, trade unionists and communists as their targets, as well as African Americans

## M

**mandatory detention** the process of keeping people such as **asylum seekers** in custody until they are either accepted for immigration or sent back to their place of origin

**manifesto** a public declaration of aims (such as political aims)

**migrant** a person who moves from one location to another, for settlement or for work

**migrate** to move from one place to another

**militia** a military force created from the general population to supplement the regular army

**mission** a religious school or community agency with the goal of religious instruction and conversion

**multiculturalism** the policy of accepting and welcoming many **cultures** into a country or region without expecting full **integration** into the dominant culture

## N

**nationalisation** the taking over of major industries (banking, manufacturing, transportation, etc.) by the state from private individuals and companies

**native title** land rights of Indigenous groups

**Nazis** the National Socialist party of Germany (post World War I to end of World War II), which was authoritarian and racist, and was committed to the extermination of the Jews, as well as other 'undesirable' groups

## P

**Pacific solution** the Australian policy from 2001–2007 of keeping **asylum seekers** in detention centres offshore on small island nations in the Pacific Ocean, rather than allowing them to land on the Australian mainland

**pandemic** the spread of an infectious disease across an entire country, a large region, or even worldwide; an epidemic on a much larger scale

**perspectives** a key concept in history: the way that a person or particular people view some aspect of the past; a person's perspective will often be influenced by their age, gender, level of education, personal prejudices and/or fears

**popular culture** film, television, music, sport, etc., that has broad appeal and is international in scope

**POW** prisoner of war (captured and imprisoned military personnel)

**propaganda** information or disinformation intended to promote a particular political cause and/or damage a specific group or **ideology**

## Q

**quota** a number of goods, people, etc., allowed or expected in a given time period

## R

**ration book** a book issued to civilians, allocating (rationing) a certain amount of food, clothing, etc. according to need and availability

**reconciliation** to come to agreement after a time of quarrelling or hostility

**referendum** a vote on a particular matter (usually a question answered either Yes or No)

**refugee** a person seeking refuge from war or persecution in one country, by moving to another country (*see* **asylum seeker**)

**reparation** the act of making amends for wrongs during a war; after World War I, the burden of compensation imposed on Germany for its role in World War I

**reserve/reservation** an area of land set aside for a group of people, usually Indigenous people who have been dispossessed of their own land

## S

**sanction** a penalty for disobeying a law

**segregation** the act of separating people on the basis of race or ethnicity

**Shoah** Hebrew word, meaning 'catastrophe', used to refer to the extermination of Jews by Nazis in World War II (*see* Holocaust)

**significance** a key concept in history: the importance that is assigned to particular aspects of the past (such as events, developments, movements and historical sites)

**sitcom** situation comedy; a television show with set characters who, every episode, find themselves in a humorous situation

**source** an item of historical evidence of any sort; sources can be primary or secondary sources

**Stolen Generations** children of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander descent who were taken from their families in the hope of **assimilating** them into white Australia

**superpower** a nation that has dominance in world politics; the USA and the USSR were the first superpowers after World War II

## T

**tariff** a charge or tax for particular goods, such as imported items

**ten-pound Pom** an English migrant who was given assisted passage to Australia for only 10 pounds

**terra nullius** a Latin phrase meaning 'land belonging to no one'; used by the British to justify the settlement of Australia; the belief that the Indigenous inhabitants did not own the land and therefore the British could occupy and own it

**totalitarianism** a centralised and dictatorial form of government

**trade embargo** an official order by government forbidding the importation of certain products from another country

**treason** an action taken against one's own country

**trench warfare** warfare that takes place in deep, long, narrow ditches that provide shelter from enemy fire, as experienced in World War I

## W

**White Australia policy** a term used to describe a number of government policies adopted from 1901 in order to prevent 'non-whites' from settling in Australia

# index

## A

- Aboriginal camp, Alice Springs 169
- Aboriginal camp (period 1880–1915) 44–45
- Aboriginal children (Arltunga, N.T., c. 1946) 137
- Aboriginal flag 159
- The Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976* (NT), enactment as result of Wave Hill walk-off 41, 155
- Aboriginal Protection Board take Patten's children 143
- Aboriginal rights movement 154–157
- Aboriginal soldiers in WWII 117–118
- Aboriginal Tent Embassy (1972) and land rights 40, 128–129, 133, 158–159
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission Act 1989* 162
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) (1990–2004) 41, 162
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders
  - in armed forces 117–118
  - civil rights movements by 39–41
  - inadequacy of access to health services and education 41
- Aboriginal war veterans, discrimination against 118
- Aboriginal Welfare Conference of Commonwealth and State Authorities (1937), adopts assimilation policy 138
- Aborigines Claim Citizenship Rights manifesto (1938)* 39, 141
- Aborigines Progressive Association, founded by Patten and Ferguson (1937) 141
- The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert* (1994 film) 214, 215
- Afghanistan, refugees from 238
- 'Afghans' in Australia 268–269
- Agent Orange, use in Vietnam 28–29
- Ah Chee, Maria (a stolen child) 140
- AIDS pandemic and life expectancy 52
- air travel, beginnings in Australia 50
- Alice Springs
  - camp at 169
  - family and shack at 45
- Allied Works Council (1942) 113
- Allies in WWII 17
- Alvin Purple* (1973 film) 191, 192
- American influences on Australian life 122, 182
- American servicemen in Australia 116
- Anderson, Michael 158
- Angry Boys* (TV series), Chris Lilley 179, 217
- Anh Do (Vietnamese refugee) 257
- der Anschluss* 70
- anti-Semitism
  - and the Holocaust 91–92
  - spread of 93
- appeasement policy
  - of Britain and France 70–71
  - Churchill opposes 76
- Arbitration Commission awards equal pay to Indigenous workers (1965) 40
- Arltunga, N.T., Aboriginal children at (c. 1946) 137
- Asia, WWII in 82, 83
- Assang, George (Vic Sabrino), 'Heartbreak Hotel' recording 199
- assimilation
  - ideal of Australian governments 39, 140
  - as key element of migration policy 241
  - policy adopted (1937) 138
- assisted passage schemes for European migrants 228
- Astro Boy* (1963 anime TV film) 207
- atomic bomb
  - debates about use on Japan 101, 102
  - invention and use on Japan 18
  - Manhattan Project 98
- Aung San Suu Kyi, Burma 48
- Auschwitz-Birkenau concentration camp, Poland 95
- Australia: Biography of a Nation*, Philip Knightley 241
- Australia, New Zealand and USA (ANZUS) Pact formation 26
- The Australian Abo Call – The Voice of the Aborigines* newspaper 142
- Australian Aboriginal League 136, 146
- Australian governments, effect of WWII on role of 122
- Australian Imperial Forces (AIF) 105–106
- Australian music, global appeal of 203
- Australian National Airways (ANA) 50
- Australian popular culture, timeline of key events 178–179
- Australian Reconciliation Convention (1997), Howard's speech at 43, 166
- Australian Rules, post-war 183, 184
- Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) 114
  - Aboriginal women in 118
  - numbers at war's end 114
- Australian Women's National League 115
- Australia's post-war immigration history, timeline of key events in 226–227
- Austria annexed by Germany (1933) 70
- Axis powers in WWII 17

## B

B-17 Flying Fortress bomber and crew (1943) 81  
Babi Yar massacre (1941) 94  
*Bambi* (cartoon film) 183  
Bangarra Dance Company at Sydney Olympics 167  
Bao Dai (Vietnamese emperor) 27  
Barbarossa, Operation, German invasion of Soviet Union (1941) 78  
'Battle of Brisbane' (1942) 110, 116  
beat boom 202  
The Beatles in Australia 190, 202  
Beaufort anti-waste campaign poster 111  
'Beer Hall Putsch' by Nazis (1923), failure of 66  
*Bellbird* (TV soapie) 193  
Belsen concentration camp, corpses at 18  
Berlin, division and blockade 20–23  
Berlin Wall  
    construction 21, 22–23  
    fall of 32  
Bill Haley and the Comets (c. 1955 and 1957) 174–175, 187, 188  
Black Armband view of Australian history (1993) 42–43  
blackouts 112  
Blainey, Geoffrey (Prof.)  
    Black Armband view of Australian history 42–43  
    and 'history wars' 166  
    and rates of Asian immigration 245  
Blamey, Sir Thomas (General) accepts Japanese surrender (1945)  
    101  
'the Blitz' of London (1940–1941) 75  
*Blitzkrieg*, actions in 72–73  
boat arrivals since 1976 246  
boat people from Vietnam  
    dangers of journey 258  
    numbers of 255  
Bollywood movies shot in Australia 205  
bombe used to decipher German Enigma code 79  
Borneo, troops as deterrent to Indonesian invasion 27  
Bowen, Chris, *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*  
    (2011) 261  
*Bringing Them Home* report (1997) 41, 139–140  
Britain, Battle of (1940) 75  
Brough, Mal and the Intervention 170  
*Brown vs Board of Education* (1954), US Supreme Court decision 38,  
    149  
Brownshirts, Hitler saluting in Nuremberg (1927) 62  
Buchenwald concentration camp, prisoners and crematoria at 93,  
    96  
Burma, struggle for rights in 48  
Burma railway, forced labour by POWs on 109  
'burqini', Muslim swimming costume 265  
bus boycott, Montgomery (US) 38, 150

## C

Calwell, Arthur (Immigration Minister) 123, 226, 231, 240–241  
cameleers in Australia 268–269  
campaign posters for Adolf Hitler 11  
capitalist ideology, key features 19  
Carmody, Kev, *From Little Things Big Things Grow* 155  
cars  
    growth of 50  
    mass-production in 1920s 9  
censorship of mail, media and phone calls 110  
census (Australian)  
    inclusion of Aborigines in 40, 156–157  
    statistics from 1901, 1947 and 1996 232–233  
central Europe, refugees from 238  
Chamberlain, Neville, and agreement with Hitler 71  
Chancellor of Germany, Hitler appointed as (1933) 65, 69  
Chaplin, Charlie (film star) 9  
'children overboard' affair 250  
China, Japanese occupation at start WWII 82  
Chinese, fear of 234–235  
'Chocos' in WWII 106  
Churchill, Winston (British Prime Minister)  
    as significant individual 76  
    words of 75  
cinema  
    in 1920s 9  
    newsreels 51  
Citizen Military Force (CMF) in WWII 105–106  
Civil Construction Corps (1942) 113  
civil defence in the USA 19  
civil disobedience as protest method 38  
*Civil Rights Act 1957* (US)  
    and Emmett Till case 149  
    enacted by Johnson 151  
civil rights movement in Australia 136  
civil rights movement in US  
    actions of 37–38  
    *Brown vs Board of Education* ruling 38, 149  
    Emmett Till case 149  
Clark, Manning (historian) 42  
Clemenceau, Georges, in Paris 63  
*Closing the Gap* reports (2010 and 2011) 170  
code breakers 79  
Cold War  
    effects of 19–26  
    end of 32  
Collette, Aubrey, cartoon in *The Australian* about Registration Card  
    burning 31  
Cologne, bombing in WWII 17  
Colombo Plan, assisting Asian students with education 235  
*Commonwealth Electoral (Wartime) Act 1940*, gives temporary vote  
    to Aboriginal servicemen 145  
communications, methods and changes in 51

communism, effect on Australia during Cold War 26–27  
 communist China, fear of 234  
 communist ideology, key features of 19  
 Community Development Employment Project (CDEP) scheme 162  
 computer games, early 5  
 concentration camps, uses of 93–94  
 concepts, key, cause and effect 10–11  
 connecting ideas, history as tourism 126–127  
 conscription  
   for Vietnam war 27  
   for WWII 106, 108  
 consumerism in 1920s 9  
 contestability as key concept 42–43  
 continuities as key concept 44–45  
 Cook, Cecil (Dr) (Chief Protector of N. T. 1937–1939) 140  
 Coolgardie safes 49  
 Cooper, William, Indigenous Australian activist 39, 145, 146  
 Coral Sea, Battle of (1942) 84, 85  
 Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation, formation (1991) 41  
*Countdown* (TV pop music show) and Ian ‘Molly’ Meldrum 198, 202  
 country of birth of permanent residents (2006) 264  
 cricket, post-war 183, 184  
 cricketers, Australian 217, 260  
*Crocodile Dundee* (1986 film) 179, 192, 204–205, 214  
 Cronulla riots 227, 265  
 Crown land 159  
 Cuban Missile Crisis 25  
 Cumeragunja Station, Aboriginal reserve 143, 146  
 Curtin, John (Prime Minister), declares war on Japan (1941) 106–107  
 Cuthbert, Betty in Melbourne Olympic Games (1956) 178  
 Czechoslovakia, invasion by Germany (1939) 71

## D

D-Day landing, Normandy (1944) 61, 80–81  
 Darwin  
   bombing memorial 122  
   Japanese air raids on 84, 107  
 ‘Day of Mourning’ (Australian Hall, Sydney, 1938) 39, 134, 141  
 de Gaulle, Charles (General), as significant individual 77  
*The Death of Emmett Till*, Bob Dylan (1962) 149  
 Department of Information, censorship function 110  
 Deutschmarks, worthlessness of 10, 65  
 dictation test abolished by *Migration Act 1958* 236  
 dignity, struggle for 48  
 Directorate of Manpower (1942), for workforce control 112  
 Displaced Persons (DPs)  
   camps for 123  
   immigrants from 231  
 dispossession, recognition of 165

diversity, embracing 265–266  
 Dodson, Mick  
   at Sorry Day speech 168  
   on native title 157  
 ‘domino theory’ of Eisenhower 27  
 Double J radio station 202  
 Dr Carver Club, Brisbane (in WWII) 182  
 ‘duck and cover’ disaster drill (Florida school, USA) 5  
*Dumbo* (cartoon film) 183  
 Dunkirk evacuation (1940) 74  
 Dunlop, Sir Edward (Weary) in Singapore (1942) 109  
 Dylan, Bob, *The Death of Emmett Till* (1962) 149

## E

East Berlin (1960s and 1970s) 23  
 East Timor, street patrol in 34  
 Eastern Front, German defeat on 78  
 The Easybeats  
   formation 190  
   international influence of 211  
   recording ‘Friday On My Mind’ 178, 202  
 Economic and Social Council of UN 33  
 Egan, Ted, *The Gurindji Blues* 154  
 Einstein, Albert, and atomic bomb 98, 102  
 el Alamein, Battle of (1942) 85  
 election posters, German National People’s Party 11  
 Electrolux refrigerator advertisement (1930s) 49  
 empathy, as key concept 28–29  
 ‘enemy aliens’, internment of 111  
 English immigrants 231, 232  
 Enigma machine, German 79  
 environmental pressures 53  
 eugenics, contribution to anti-Semitism 91–92  
 Europe at height of Axis power (1942) 80  
 Evatt, Herbert ‘Doc’ (Attorney-General), role in Universal Declaration of Human Rights 135–136  
   (Minister for External Affairs), role in drafting UN Charter 124  
 Everage, Dame Edna 176–177  
 examining evidence  
   the census 232–233  
   Kokoda campaign 86–87  
   life and death during the Holocaust 96–97  
   record charts 200–201  
   the *Tampa* crisis 248–249

## F

*The Fabrication of Aboriginal History*, Keith Windshuttle (2002) 166  
 Fechter, Peter, escapee shot at Berlin Wall (1962) 23  
 Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI) 157  
 Federal German Republic (West Germany), creation 21

*The Female Eunuch*, Germaine Greer (1970) 46, 47  
*The Feminine Mystique*, Michael Levin 47  
 Ferguson, William  
   co-founder of Aborigines Progressive Association (1937) 143  
   Indigenous Australian activist (1938) 39  
 film  
   Australians on 214–215  
   expansion in Australia 204–205  
   revival in Australia 191–192  
 ‘final solution’ to ‘Jewish problem’, Hitler’s Holocaust 18  
 financial terms imposed on Germany by Treaty of Versailles 7  
 ‘flappers’ in Roaring Twenties 8  
 Foley, Gary 158  
 football (soccer)  
   post-war 184  
   The Matildas 218–219  
   The Socceroos 220  
 Ford factory assembly line in 1920s 9  
 France, liberation (1944) 80  
 France, Battle of, and fall to Germans (1940) 74  
 Fraser, Malcolm (Prime Minister), contribution to multiculturalism 262  
 Freddie Bell and The Bellboys 187  
 Freedom Riders  
   and Charles Perkins 132, 155  
   route taken by (Australia) 155  
   (USA) 151  
 Freeman, Cathy, at Sydney Olympics 167  
*From Little Things Big Things Grow*, Kev Carmody and Paul Kelly 155

## G

Gaia hypothesis 53  
 Galarrwuy Yunupingu, on *The Guringji Blues* 154  
*Gallipoli* (1981 film) 214  
 General Assembly of UN 33  
 Geneva Convention for POWs rejected by Japan 108  
 German Democratic Republic (East Germany) creation 21  
 Germany  
   Berlin blockade 20–23  
   terms imposed by Treaty of Versailles 7  
   territorial losses after Treaty of Versailles 7  
   territorial expansion in Europe (1936–1939) 70  
 ghettos, formation of 93  
 Gibson, Mel  
   in *Gallipoli* 214  
   in *Mad Max* 192  
 Gilbert, Eddie, Aboriginal cricketer 145  
 Gill, S.T., ‘Might versus Right’ cartoon 234  
 Gillard, Julia (Prime Minister)  
   contribution to multiculturalism 263  
   as immigrant 261  
 globalisation, potential benefits 53

The Go-Betweens  
   international success of 211  
   as significant individuals 212–213  
 Gorbachev, Mikhail (Soviet leader) 32  
 Grassby, Al (Commissioner for Community Relations) 226, 262  
   (Minister for Immigration), ‘A multi-cultural society for the future’ 243, 262  
 ‘Great Australian Silence’ concept of Australian history presentation (1968) 42  
 Great Depression  
   Australian houses and families 6, 14  
   contribution to outbreak of WWII 67  
   effects in Australia 14  
 Green political parties 53  
 Green Revolution, effect on food production 52  
 Greenpeace 53  
 Greer, Germaine, and Women’s Liberation in Australia 46–47  
*The Guringji Blues*, Ted Egan (1971) 154  
 Gyngell, Bruce, ‘Welcome to television’ speech 189

## H

haircuts in rock’n’roll 222–223  
 Haley, Bill and the Comets (c. 1955 and 1957) 174–175, 187, 188  
 half-caste Aboriginal children (1920s) 39  
 hands of reconciliation (Bondi Beach, 1998) 2–3  
*Hansard* on immigration 229  
 Hanson, Pauline, and One Nation political party 247  
 Hawk missile battery 16  
 Hawke, Robert (Prime Minister), contribution to multiculturalism 263  
 hips in rock’n’roll 222  
 Hiroshima, Japan  
   after atomic bombing 61, 101  
   atomic bombing of 100, 103  
 historical tourism sites 126–127  
 ‘History Wars’  
   conduct of 166  
   introduction to 42–43  
 Hitler, Adolf  
   death of (1945) 81  
   in Paris (1940) 74–75  
   and rise of Nazi party 10–11, 64–65  
   saluting Brownshirts in Nuremberg (1927) 62  
   as significant individual 68–69  
*HMAS Sydney* wreck as sacred site 127  
 Ho Chi Minh, Vietnamese independence leader 27  
 Hogan, Paul, as Crocodile Dundee 204–205  
 Holden FX (1948) 50  
 Holden motor car production 121  
 Holocaust  
   beginnings of 91–92  
   Hitler’s ‘final solution’ to the ‘Jewish problem’ 18  
   life and death during 96–97  
   peoples exterminated in 66

Holocaust History Museum, Israel 90  
 Holt, Harold, and referendum on Aboriginal right to vote (1967) 40, 156  
*Home and Away* (TV series) 195–196  
 home entertainment, innovations in 49  
 Hoover vacuum cleaner advertisement (1940s) 48  
 household technological innovations 48–49  
 Howard, John, as Captain Cook arriving in Australia (cartoon) 246  
 Howard, John (leader of Opposition), and ‘One Australia’ policy (1988) 245  
 Howard, John (Prime Minister)  
   Nicholson cartoon about immigration policies 240  
   opposition to multiculturalism 263  
   speech at Australian Reconciliation Convention (1997) 43  
 Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, *Bringing Them Home* report (1997) 41, 139–140  
 Humphries, Barry 176–177  
 hyperinflation in Germany (1923), Deutschmarks as waste paper 10, 65

## I

‘I have a dream’ speech, by Martin Luther King (1963) 38, 152–153  
 ice chests 49  
 ideologies, capitalist and communist 19  
 immigrants, contributions to Australia 256–257  
 immigration  
   Australia’s need of post-war 229–230  
   poster encouraging 229  
   waves of 261  
 immigration history, post-war, key events in 226–227  
*In Melbourne Tonight* (TV series) 206  
 independence, dates for South and South-East Asian colonies 37  
 Indigenous Australians  
   achievements of 144–145  
   in armed forces 117–118  
   awarded equal pay (1965) 40  
   life expectancy 52  
   right to vote granted (1962) 40  
   struggle for rights 136–141  
 Indigenous rights, international progress in 168  
 infant mortality in Australia (2008) 169  
 International Court of Justice of UN 33  
 international order, changes after WWII 19  
 International Refugee Organisation (IRO) 123  
 International Women’s Day, march in Sydney (1972) 46  
 International Years, value of 172–173  
 internment of ‘enemy aliens’ 111  
 iron curtain, in Europe at end of WWII 20  
 isolationist policy of USA 64  
 Israel, establishment 95  
 Isurava, Battle of, in Kokoda campaign 86  
 Italian POWs, Liverpool, NSW 111  
 Italy, resentment after Paris Peace Conference 63  
 Iwo Jima, Battle of 99

## J

*Jackson’s Track*, Darryl Tonkin 138–139  
 James, Shadrach, from Cummeragunja Station 146  
 Japan  
   campaign by Allies towards end WWII 99  
   capture of Singapore 82–83  
   Curtin declares war on 107  
   debate over use of atom bombs 101  
   drive to by Allies 85  
   extent of empire in Asia and Pacific (1942) 83  
   immigrants accepted from 236  
   imperialism as contribution to WWII 67  
   occupation of China at start of WWII 82  
   rejects Geneva Convention for POWs 109  
   resentment after Paris Peace Conference 63, 67  
   surrender of 101  
 Jazz Age (1920s) 9  
*The Jazz Singer* (film) 9  
*Jedda* (1955 film), Indigenous lead actors in 182, 183, 185  
 Jenner, Edward, smallpox vaccination pioneer 54  
 Jewish businesses picketed by Nazi Stormtroopers 91  
 ‘Jewish problem’, Hitler’s ‘final solution’ to 18  
 Jews, laws against in Germany 92  
 Joe Turner 187  
 John Latham Memorial Lecture, Geoffrey Blainey (1993) 166  
 Jolson, Al (singer and film star) 9

## K

kamikaze missions by Japanese pilots 85  
*Kath and Kim* (TV series), international success of 216  
 Keating, Paul (Australian Prime Minister)  
   contribution to multiculturalism 263  
   introduces mandatory detention policy 245  
   Redfern Park speech (1992) 165  
 Kelly, Paul, *From Little Things Big Things Grow* 155  
 Kennedy, Alexander, first paying passenger on QANTAS 50  
 Kennedy, Graham, on *In Melbourne Tonight* 206  
 Kennedy, John F. (US President), and Cuban Missile Crisis 25  
 key concepts  
   cause and effect 10–11  
   contestability 42–43  
   continuities 44–45  
   empathy 28–29  
   perspectives 47  
   significance 54  
 key events timelines  
   Australian popular culture 178–179  
   Australia’s post-war immigration history 226–227  
   civil and Indigenous rights 132–133  
   modern world (1918–2011) 4–5  
   World War II 60–61  
 Khoa Do (Vietnamese refugee) 256  
 Kiev, conquest of 61

King, Martin Luther (Dr.)  
and 'March on Washington' (1963) 38, 130–131  
as significant individual 152–153  
Knightley, Philip, *Australia: Biography of a Nation* 241  
*Kokoda Front Line* (1943 documentary film) 182  
Kokoda Track, walking 127  
Kokoda Track campaign  
battles in 86–87  
conditions in 85  
significance and legacy 87  
troops on 61  
Korea, division and war 24  
*Kristallnacht*  
events of 92  
Jewish-owned shop after 60  
Kruschev, Nikita (Soviet Premier), and Cuban Missile Crisis 25  
Kyoto Protocol (2007) 53

## L

Lady Gaga's meat dress 223  
Lambing Flat anti-Chinese riots (1861) 234  
land rights 158–159  
land rights for Aborigines  
beginning 133  
continuing struggle for 158  
Land Rights Conference, James Cook University (1981) 160  
Lane, Don, on *In Melbourne Tonight* 206  
Lavern Baker 187  
League of Nations  
formation and early history 8  
ideals and limitations 64  
Leak, Bill, cartoon of John Howard as Captain Cook 246  
Levin, Michael, *The Feminine Mystique* 47  
life expectancy  
and infant mortality in Australia 169  
worldwide changes 52  
Lilley, Chris, TV parodies of Australian life 217  
Lingari, Vincent, and Wave Hill walk-off 154–155  
literature, as source for films and TV 192, 194  
*Little Children are Sacred* report (NT government, 2007) 170  
Little Pattie, in surf music craze 199  
Little River Band (LRB), international breakthrough of 211  
Little Rock Central High School, Arkansas, desegregation at 150  
Lloyd George, David, in Paris 63  
logging in old growth forests, protest against 53  
Lyons, Tommy (Aboriginal soldier), post-war treatment of 118

## M

Mabo, Eddie, land ownership on Mer Island 41, 159–160  
*Mabo vs Queensland* 1992 case 41, 160  
MacArthur, Douglas (General), commands Australian troops 121  
*Mad Max* (1979 film) 191, 192  
mail communication 51

'Malayan Emergency', Australian troops in 26, 234  
'Malaysia solution'  
of Gillard government 227  
to asylum seeker problem 246  
mandatory detention of asylum seekers  
Howard's continuation 246  
Keating's policy 245  
Manhattan Project 76, 98  
manifestos, *Mein Kampf* as example 91  
manufacturing growth during WWII 121  
'March on Washington' (1963) 38, 130–131, 152  
Marshall Plan, initiation of 24  
mass shootings by Nazis 94  
*Maternity Leave Act* (1973, Commonwealth) 46  
Matheson, Alexander (Senator), opposes Aboriginal voting 137  
The Matildas, as significant individuals 218–219  
Mauthausen war memorial 58–59  
measles, reduction due to vaccination 52  
meat dress, Lady Gaga's 223  
Mecca Laalaa, Muslim lifesaver at Cronulla 265  
*Mein Kampf*, Adolf Hitler 69, 78, 91  
Melbourne Olympic Games (1956), 1500m final 189  
Meldrum, Ian 'Molly', and *Countdown* TV series 198, 202  
Menzies, Robert (Prime Minister)  
declares war on Germany 105, 106  
ends White Australia policy 236  
Mer Island, Mabo's ownership of land on 160  
Meredith, James, enrolment attempt at University of Mississippi 150  
Midway, Battle of (1942) 85  
'Might versus Right', S. T. Gill (cartoon) 234  
migrants, new sources post-war 230  
migration, post-war 123  
*Migration Act 1958*, dictation test abolished by 236  
military terms imposed on Germany by Treaty of Versailles 7  
militias, CMF as example 105  
Millo, Mario, experiences of assimilation 242  
miniseries on TV (1980s) 194  
missions, Aboriginal 137  
mobile phones 51  
Model T Ford cars 9  
monocultural life in 1950s Australia 243  
Montgomery Bus Boycott, Rosa Parks' role in 38, 150  
moral obligations to anti-communist Vietnamese 254–255  
Moree (NSW), swimming pool banned to Aborigines 156  
multicultural Australia, moving towards 262  
multicultural policies, development by governments 262–263  
multicultural programming on TV 207  
multiculturalism in Australia, transition to 243–244  
multilingual radio stations 266  
Munyarrrun, Djakapurra and hands of reconciliation 2–3  
Myanmar, struggle for rights in 48

## N

Nagasaki, Japan, atomic bombing of 100  
Nam Le (Vietnamese refugee) 257  
Namatjira, Albert, painter 144, 145  
Napalm, use in Vietnam 28–29  
National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), formation 26  
national identity cards (1942) 112  
National Liberation Front (NLF) of Vietnam, formation 27  
National Native Title Tribunal 159  
*National Security Act (1939)*, results of 110–111  
National Service registration card, cartoon about 31  
National Socialist party (Nazis), rise of 10–11  
native title 159  
Native Title Amendment Bill (1997) 161  
native title on pastoral leases, Wik case (1996) 161  
Nazi ideology 66  
Nazi party  
    characteristics and actions 66  
    rise of 10–11  
Nazi propaganda posters 64, 65  
*Neighbours* (TV series) 179, 195–196  
New Guinea  
    Japanese bases on 84  
    Japanese defeat on 85  
Ngo Dinh Diem (Vietnamese leader) 27  
Nicholls, Doug, Aboriginal footballer 144, 146  
Nicholson, Peter, cartoon about Howard's immigration policies 240  
'night of the long knives' 10  
Normandy landings on D-Day (1944) 61, 80–81  
North Africa at height of Axis power (1942) 80  
northern Australia, Battle for 84  
Northern Territory National Emergency Response (2007) 170  
Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit 117  
novels as sources for TV miniseries 194  
nuclear weapons, countries possessing 18  
*Number 96* (TV soapie) 193–194  
Nuremberg Rally (1933) 66

## O

O'Donoghue, Lowitja 161, 162  
official apology to Indigenous people rejected by Howard 165  
O'Keefe, Johnny 199  
Okinawa, Battle of 99  
'On the same wave' program for training Muslim surf lifesavers 265  
'One Australia', Liberal party policy on immigration and ethnic affairs 245  
One Nation political party 247  
O'Neil, Pamela, first Sex Discrimination Commissioner (1984) 46  
Onus, William (President, Australian Aborigines League) 136

Operation Barbarossa, German invasion of Soviet Union (1941) 78  
'Operation Downfall' plan to invade Japan 98, 99  
Oppenheimer, Robert, and atomic bomb 102

## P

Pacific Ocean, war in 82–84  
'Pacific solution' to asylum seeker problem 246  
paramilitary groups, right-wing 66  
Paris Peace Conference  
    imposition of reparations at 63  
    Treaty of Versailles signed at (1919) 7–8  
Parks, Rosa, and Montgomery Bus Boycott 38  
Patten, J. T. 'Jack'  
    delivers address on Day of Mourning 141  
    Indigenous Australian activist (1938) 39, 145  
    as significant individual 142–143  
pay TV, introduction 207–208  
'peace for our time' agreement with Hitler 71  
Pearl Harbor  
    Japanese attack on (1941) 82  
    USS Arizona sinking in 61  
Pearson, Noel, and the Intervention 170  
*The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, Chris Bowen (2011) 261  
Perkins, Charles, and Freedom Riders 40, 155  
permanent residents by country of birth (2006) 264  
perspectives, as key concept 47  
'Phoney War' (1939–1940) 74  
Pickford, Mary (film actress) 9  
*Picnic at Hanging Rock* (1975 film) 191, 192  
Poland  
    invasion by Germany (1939) 71, 74  
    mass shootings in 94  
polio, reduction due to vaccination 52  
*The Politics of Suffering*, Peter Sutton 169  
popular culture  
    and the 2000 Olympic games 167  
    characteristics 180–181  
'populate or perish' slogan in post-war Australia 123  
population, world, increases in 52  
post-war Australian culture  
    American influence 182  
    effect of film 182–183  
    effect of radio 181  
posters  
    of Australian propaganda 105  
    encouraging immigration to Australia 229  
    of Nazi propaganda 64, 65  
    rallying Australian support after Japanese attack on Darwin 83  
    recruitment of women 113  
Potsdam Declaration to Japan (1945) 98  
poverty, houses and families in Great Depression 6, 14  
Presley, Elvis 5, 187, 222

*Prisoner* (TV series), international success of 216  
prisoners of war (POWs), in Japan 108–109  
propaganda  
  Australian WWII posters 110, 111  
  British poster 75  
  Nazi posters 64, 65  
  uses in Germany 66  
public health, improvements in 52

## Q

Queensland and Northern Territory Air Services (QANTAS) 50

## R

racial discrimination  
  against Aboriginal ex-servicemen 118  
  under Nazis 92, 93  
  in Walgett and Moree 156  
racial theories in Nazism 68–69  
radio  
  in 1920s 9  
  broadcasts 51  
  effect on post-war Australian culture 181  
  as home entertainment in Australia 49  
rationing 112  
Rats of Tobruk 78  
Razer, Helen (DJ on Triple J radio) 203  
re-education camps in Vietnam 254–255  
Reagan, Ronald (US President) 32  
recent arrivals and countries of origin (2009–2010) 264  
recognition of dispossession 165  
reconciliation  
  movement for 167  
  progress towards 161–162  
  walks for 133  
record charts (1974 and 2011) 200–201  
recruitment poster, 2nd AIF 106  
*Red Dog* (2011 film) 192  
Redfern Park speech (1992), Paul Keating 165  
referendum on Aboriginal inclusion in census (1967) 40, 156–157  
refugee boats, arrivals since 1976 246  
refugee camps 258  
refugees  
  on boats from Vietnam 237, 252, 254–255  
  coming to Australia post-war 231  
  from Africa 238  
  from China 238  
  from Europe 238  
  from Indo-China 237  
  from Middle East 238  
Registration Card (conscription), Collette cartoon about burning 31  
reparations, Germany to pay after WWI 63  
reserves, Aboriginal 137

Reynolds, Henry (historian) 42  
right-wing political movements in Europe (1920s and 1930s) 66  
rights, struggle for 48, 168  
Rising Sun Badge of Australian Army 108  
Roaring Twenties 8–9, 14  
*Rock Around the Clock* (1956 film) 198  
rock'n'roll in post-war Australia 186–187  
Rowe, Normie, international success of 202, 211  
Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF)  
  creation 106  
  recruitment poster 111  
Rudd, Kevin (former Prime Minister)  
  contribution to multiculturalism 263  
  formally apologises to Aboriginal people (2008) 41, 168  
Rugby League, post-war 183, 184  
Rugby Union, post-war 184

## S

Sabrino, Vic (stage name of George Assang) 199  
Sadako Sasaki, atom bomb survivor 100  
sanctions, imposition by League of Nations 64  
Saunders, Reg, Aboriginal commissioned officer 117  
Savage Garden, international success of 211  
Scottish immigrants 233  
second AIF, creation of by Menzies 106, 107  
2/18th Australian Field Workshop members 118  
Secretariat of UN 33  
Security Council of UN 33  
segregation  
  of Aborigines 137, 139  
  in US schools 149  
*Sex Discrimination Act* (1975, South Australia) 46  
*Sex Discrimination Act* (1984, Commonwealth) 46  
Sex Discrimination Commissioner, appointment (1984) 46  
shipping, rise of containerisation 50  
significance as key concept 54  
significant individuals  
  Adolf Hitler 68–69  
  Charles de Gaulle 77  
  Harry Truman 76  
  Jack Patten 142–143  
  Joseph Stalin 77  
  Martin Luther King 152–153  
  The Go-Betweens 212–213  
  The Matildas 218–219  
  Vietnamese immigrants 256–257  
  Winston Churchill 76  
Singapore falls to Japan 82–83  
*Six O'Clock Rock* (TV pop music show), with Johnny O'Keefe 202  
*Skippy the Bush Kangaroo* (TV series), international success of 215  
smallpox eradication 52, 54  
Snowy Mountains Scheme, contribution of immigrants to 230  
soap operas in the 1970s 193–194

The Socceroos football team 220  
 Sorry Day 167  
 South-East Asian Treaty Organisation (SEATO)  
   Australia joins (1955) 235  
   formation (1954) 26  
 space race between USA and USSR 26  
 Special Broadcasting Services (SBS)  
   extra channel for 266  
   for multicultural TV broadcasting 207  
 Special Forces, Indigenous Australians in 117  
 spectacles confiscated at Auschwitz 97  
 Spencer, Adam (DJ on Triple J radio) 203  
 sport  
   post-war 183  
   on TV 206–207  
*Sputnik* (Russian satellite) 26  
 ‘stab-in-the-back’ myth in post-WWI Germany 66, 68  
 Stalin, Joseph (Premier, Soviet Union), as significant individual 77  
 standards of living, improvements in 52–53  
 Stanner, W. E. H. (‘Bill’), coins ‘Great Australian Silence’ (1968) 42  
 Star of David badges and armbands 92, 97  
 stock market crash, triggering Great Depression 4, 14  
 Stolen Generations (Stolen Children)  
   apology to 168  
   reasons for 139–140  
*The Story of the Kelly Gang* (1906 film) 182  
 Student Action for Aborigines, and Freedom Riders 155  
 Sudetenland, removal from and return to Germany 71  
*The Sullivans* (TV soapie) 194  
*Summer Heights High* (TV series), Chris Lilley 217  
 surf lifesavers, Muslim training program for 265  
 surf music 199  
 ‘susso’ 14  
 sustenance payments 14  
 Sutton, Peter, *The Politics of Suffering* 169  
 Sydney Harbour, Japanese submarines in 84  
 Sykes, Roberta (Bobbi) 158  
 Szilard, Leo, and atomic bomb 98, 102

## T

T Model Ford cars 9  
*Tampa* crisis (2001) 248–249  
 Tan Le (Vietnamese immigrant) 256  
 technological innovations, household 48–49  
 telegraph communication (telegrams) 51  
 telephones 51  
 television  
   arrival in Australia 189  
   as home entertainment in Australia 49  
 television (TV), expansion in Australia 206  
 ‘ten-pound Poms’ as immigrants 231  
 Tent Embassy, Aboriginal 40, 128–129, 133, 158–159

*terra nullius* principle  
   ‘Day of Mourning’ for 135  
   establishment 134, 158  
   overturned in Mabo case (1992) 41  
 territorial terms imposed on Germany by Treaty of Versailles 7  
 Thailand-Burma railway, forced labour by POWs on 109  
 ‘the Intervention’ (2007) in NT 170  
 Third Reich, symbols of and persecution under 66  
 Thompson, Donald (anthropologist) 117  
 Three Cheers View of Australian history (1993) 42–43  
 Tiananmen Square massacre, refugees from 238  
 Tibbets, Paul (Col.), pilot of Hiroshima bomber 102  
 timelines of key events  
   Australian popular culture 178–179  
   Australia’s post-war immigration history 226–227  
   civil and indigenous rights 132–133  
   modern world (1918–2011) 4–5  
   World War II 60–61  
 Tobruk, Rats of 78  
 Torres Strait Islanders in US army 117  
 Torres Strait Light Infantry (1941) 117  
 totalitarian governments 66  
 tourism, history as 126–127  
 Trabant (East German car) 23  
 Trans Australian Airlines (TAA) 50  
 ‘Trinity’ atom bomb test 98  
 Triple J radio station 203  
 Truman Doctrine, statement of 24  
 Truman, Harry (US President), as significant individual 76  
 Tucker, Margaret, from Cumberagunja Station 146  
 Turing, Alan, code breaking by 79  
 TV miniseries in the 1980s 194  
 The Twilights  
   formation 190  
   international success of 202, 211

## U

UN Committee for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, and  
   Wik case 161  
 United Nations (UN)  
   Australian involvement in 34  
   formation (1945) and structure 33, 124  
 United States of America (USA), Australian strategic relationship  
   with 121  
 Universal Declaration of Human Rights  
   adoption by UN (1948) 132  
   Australian role in 135–136  
 US soldiers in Australia 116

## V

- Valentino, Rudolf (film actor) 9
- Versailles, Treaty of
  - map of Europe after 64
  - signing 60
  - terms imposed on Germany 7
- 'Vichy France' 66
- Victoria Police, attracting recruits from range of backgrounds 266
- Viet Cong, formation 27
- Viet Minh, formed (1941) 27
- Vietnam
  - attitudes to war in 31
  - emigration from 255
  - re-education camps in 254–255
- Vietnam war
  - Australian involvement 27, 253–254
  - background to 252–253
  - beginnings 27
  - ending of 254
  - evacuation of Saigon 254
- Vietnamese
  - boat people 226–227, 237, 252, 254–255
  - immigrants 233
  - refugees on boats 224–225
- The Vines in Los Angeles 203
- Volunteer Air Observers Corps 113
- Volunteer Defence Force 113

## W

- Wake in Fright* (1971 film) 191, 192
- Walgett (NSW), RSL Club ban on Aborigines 156
- Walkabout* (1971 film) 178, 191, 192
- war brides, Australian 116
- Warsaw Ghetto uprising, Jews captured in 66, 92
- Warsaw, Poland, German troops in 70
- washing machines 49
- Waters, Len (Aboriginal RAAF pilot), post-war experience 118
- Wave Hill station walk-off 154–155
- Weimar Republic, problems of 64–65

- West Berlin in 1950s 22
- White Australia policy
  - Calwell's speech 231
  - end of 236
- Whitlam, Gough (Australian Prime Minister)
  - contribution to multiculturalism 262
  - meets Mao Zedong (Chinese Premier) 234–235
  - removes race as immigrant selection factor 236
- Whittle, Laura (AB) rescuing refugees from sinking boat 250
- Wik case on native title on pastoral leases (1996) 161
- Wilfred* (TV series), international success of 216
- Wilson, Woodrow, in Paris 63
- women
  - in armed services 113–115
  - changes of status in 1920s 12–13
  - as homemakers 46
- women in sport
  - Cathy Freeman 167
  - The Matildas 218–219
- Women's Army Service, Australian 114
- Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force 114
- Women's Land Army 115
- Women's Liberation
  - in 1960s and 1970s 46–47
  - protest in Sydney (1972) 36
- women's movements, rise of 46
- Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS) 114
- World Health Organisation (WHO)
  - formation 52
  - smallpox eradication campaign 54
- world population, increases in 52
- World War I (WWI), aftermath of 6–8
- World War II (WWII)
  - differences from WWI 17–18
  - end of in Europe (1945) 81

## Y

- Yalta Conference (1945), and division of Germany 20
- Young Australians of the Year, Vietnamese refugees as 256

# acknowledgements

Oxford University Press would like to acknowledge the contributions of the following individuals and organisations who assisted with the development of *Oxford Big Ideas History 10 Australian Curriculum*:

Lynda Ben-Menashe and the NSW Jewish Board of Deputies

Mark Johnston, Scotch College

Mailie Ross and Luke Matthews, Hume Secondary College.

The author and the publisher wish to thank the following copyright holders for reproduction of their material.

AAP, Sources 1.66, 1.70, 4.20 /ABC TV, Source 4.1 (2011) /AP/David Longstreath, Source 5.1 (1998) /AP/David Longstreath, Source 5.21 /ARIA, Source 4.1 (1966) /Kym Agius, Source 4.50 /Mary Evans, Source 4.21 /Mary Evans, Source 4.6 /Paul Miller, Source 5.61 /SafeCom, Source 5.41 /Seven, Source 4.26; **Advertising Archive**, Sources 1.67, 1.68; **AKG Images**, Sources 1.8, 2.7, 2.55; **Alamy**, Sources 1.4, 1.26, 1.9, 1.27, 4.40 / Art Directors & TRIP, pp. 56-57 /Interfoto, Source 2.11 /Malcolm Fairman, Source 2.61 /Pictorial Press Ltd, Source 2.2 /Simon Grosset, Source 1.59; **Australian War Memorial, Canberra**, Sources 2.25, 2.37, 2.38, 2.62, 2.69, 2.70, 2.71, 2.75, 2.76, 2.80, 2.81, 2.85, 2.86, 2.87, 2.88, 2.92, 2.93, 2.95, 2.96, 2.98, 2.99, 2.103, 4.5; **Corbis**, Sources 1.1 (1945-1948), 1.1 (1970-1980), 1.7, 1.5, 1.17, 1.19, 1.21, 1.30, 1.31, 1.34, 1.36, 1.38, 1.43, 1.44, 1.45, 1.58, 1.60, 1.63, 1.71, 1.73, 1.74, 1.75, 1.77, 2.1 (1919), 2.1 (1938), 2.1 (June 1941), 2.1 (1944), 2.1 (1945), 2.3, 2.17, 2.20, 2.22, 2.39, 2.72, 2.52, 3.13, 3.21, 2.63, 2.68, 2.58, pp. 77 (de Gaulle), 58-59 /Bettmann, Source 4.16 /Araluen Arts Center, Source 3.22 /Benjamin Lowy, Source 2.56 /Berliner Verlag/Archiv/dpa, Source 2.26 /Bettmann, Sources 1.1 (1929), 1.1 (1956), 1.28, 2.6, 2.13, 2.18, 2.46, 2.74, 3.3, 3.31, 4.1 (1956), 5.44, 5.45, pp. 76 (Truman & Churchill), 77 (Stalin) /David Pollack, Source 2.24 /Derge Attal/Sygma, Source 5.52 /DK Images, Source 2.109 /Gary Leonard, Source 1.25 /Heritage Images, Source 1.18 /Hulton Deutsch, Sources 2.44, 2.10, 2.12, 2.15, 2.23, 2.32, 2.49, 2.59, 2.94, pp. 130-31 /Jacques Pavlovsky, pp. 224-25 /Jim Hollander/EPA, Source 2.43 /Jim Zuckerman, Source 2.50 /John Van Hasselt/Sygma, Source 3.16 /Keystone, Source 2.100 /Maciek Nabrdalik, Source 2.107 /Peace Memorial Museum/EPA, Source 2.64 /Sygma, Source 2.35 /Walter McBride/Retna Ltd., pp. 176-77; **Paul Cox**, Source 4.48; **Fairfax Syndication**, Sources 1.14, 1.16, 1.33, 1.53, 1.54, 2.101, 3.37, 3.38, 4.2, 5.18, 5.12, 5.28 /Andrew De La Rue, Sources 3.56, 5.51 /Craig Abraham, Source 5.55 /Eddie Jim, Source 5.56 /F J Halmarick, Source 4.4 /Frank Burke, Source 4.18 /Gabriele Charlotte, Source 5.64 /Green, Source 3.1 (1972), Source 3.40 /Jacky Ghossein, Source 3.51 /K Redshaw, Source 4.15 /Kate Geraghty, Source 5.39 /Kenneth Issitt, Source 5.23 /Kylie Pickett, Source 3.48 /McPhedran, Source 1.47 /Michael O'Sullivan, Source 1.57 /Mike Bowers, Source 3.41, 5.38 /Penny Bradfield, Source 3.46 /Rick Stevens, Source 3.49 /Robert Pearce, pp. 2-3 /Stuart MacGladrie, Sources 3.6, 5.43 /Wade Laube, Source 5.1 (2005); **Getty Images**, Sources 1.6, 1.42, 1.49, 1.50, 1.69, 2.1 (Dec. 1941), 3.27, 5.67 /AFP, Sources 3.1 (1948), 4.8 /AFP/Lawrence Bartlett, Source 5.66, pp. vi-vii top /Al Bello /Allsport, Source 3.47 /

Bradley Kanaris, Sources 3.23, 4.61 /Caroline Gillies, Source 4.45 /Christopher Lee, Source 4.58 /eff Kravitz/FilmMagic, Inc, Source 4.35 /Fox Photos, p. 268 top /Galerie Bilderwelt, Source 2.5 /Hamish Blair, Source 5.53 /Hulton Archive, Sources 2.9, 3.62, 5.2 /Ishara S. Kodikara, Source 4.57 /Kazuhiro Nogi, Source 3.53 /Kevin Winter, Source 4.64 /Keystone, Sources 4.32, 5.15, pp. 174-75 /Life Magazine/Life Magazine/Time & Life Pictures, Source 2.27 /Martin Philbey, Sources 3.54, 4.47 /Mike Flokis, Source 5.50 /OSF, Source 2.57 /photodisc, Source 3.61 /Popperfoto, Source 2.33 /Rajesh Jantilal, Source 3.63 /Ryan Pierse, Source 4.59 /SPL, Source 2.29 /SSPL, Sources 2.21, 4.7 /Stuart Franklin, Source 4.60 /Tabatha Fireman, Source 4.44 /Time Life Pictures, Sources 4.62, 4.63, 3.4, 3.26, 3.29, 3.20 /Torsten Blackwood, Sources 3.32, 3.52 /William Philpott, Source 3.28; **Jüdisches Museum Westfalen**, Source 2.45; **Kobal Collection**, Source 2.40 /Adlabs Film/Baweja Film, Source 4.37 /ASSOC R&R FILMS/PARAMOUNT, Source 4.51 /CHARLES CHAUVEL PRODUCTIONS, Source 4.9 /Max Raab/Si Litvanoff Films, Source 4.1 (1971) /MAX RAAB/SI LITVANOFF FILMS, Source 4.22 /Paramount, Source 4.1 (1986), Source 4.36 /PBS, Source 4.25 /PICNIC/BEF/AUST.FILM COMMISSION, Source 4.19 /POLYGRAM/AUSTRALIAN FILM FINANCE/LOCKWOOD, ELISE, Source 4.52 /SCREEN GEMS, Source 4.38 /Wilfred Production, Source 4.55; **Mario Millo**, Source 5.26; **Museum Victoria**, Source 3.11; **NASA**, Source 1.32, p. iii; **National Library of Australia**, Sources 1.41, 2.106, 3.10, 3.7, 4.29, 5.3, 5.9, 5.16, 5.19, 5.29, 5.42; **Newspix**, Sources 1.2, 1.29, 1.51, 1.52, 1.62, 1.72, 1.76, 2.1 (1942), 2.82, 2.91, 2.102, 3.1 (1965), 3.1 (1975), 3.2, 3.24, 3.33, 3.34, 3.35, 3.43, 3.44, 4.1 (2009), 4.17, 4.23, 4.24, 4.27, 4.33, 4.34, 4.39, 4.53, 4.54, 5.5, 5.17, 5.30, 5.40, 5.49, 2.78, 2.105, 2.108, 5.1 (1945), 5.1 (1974), 5.1 (1976) /Andy Drewitt, Source 2.79 /Alan Pryke, Source 3.42 /Anoek DE GROOT, Source 3.58 /Barry McKinnon, Source 5.20 /Bill Leak, Source 5.34 /Bob Millar jnr, Source 4.14 /Chris Pavlich, Source 3.1 (2000) /Chris Pavlich, Sources 3.50, 4.42 /David Caird, Source 4.28 /Erica Harrison, Source 5.37 /Gary Ramage, Source 3.55 /Jim Fenwick, Source 4.10, p. xi /Kelly Barnes, Source 3.45 /Michael Amendolia , Source 4.41 /Michael Ochs Archives, Source 4.46 /News Ltd, Source 2.90 /Nick Cubbin, Source 5.36 /Norm Oorloff, Source 5.63 /Pieter Naessens, Source 3.60 /Pip Blackwood, Source 5.13 /Ray Strange, Source 3.59 /Saad Lisa , Source 4.56 /Sarah Rhodes, Source 5.62 /Simon Bullard, Source 5.33 /Simon Schluter, Source 5.32; **Cartoon by Nicholson** from *The Australian* www.nicholsoncartoons.com.au, Source 5.22; **photolibrary**, Source 2.8 /Sylvain Grandadam, Source 2.104; **Shutterstock**, Source 2.28; **Kym Smith**, Source 3.25; **State Library of NSW**, Sources 3.20, 5.14, 5.10; **State Library of Victoria**, Sources 2.97, 2.89; **Superstock**, Source 2.16; **U.S. Army**, Sources 2.47, 2.60; **Wildlight**/Bill Bachman, pp. 128-29.

Every effort has been made to trace the original source of copyright material contained in this book. The publisher would be pleased to hear from copyright holders to rectify any errors or omissions.



oxford  
big ideas  
australian curriculum

history 10

depth study option

o The environment movement  
1960s–present

bernie howitt

OXFORD  
UNIVERSITY PRESS  
AUSTRALIA & NEW ZEALAND

depth study option

# The environment movement

(1960s–present)



This photograph of an 'earthrise', taken by the Apollo 8 crew from the Moon, changed the way people perceived planet Earth.

*On Christmas Eve, 1968, the three-man crew of Apollo 8 became the first people to lose sight of Earth as they orbited the Moon. When they came around the Moon, they saw Earth as a single, fragile ball in space and William Anders took this photograph of an 'earthrise'. Since then, humans have become increasingly aware of the need to preserve Earth's fragile environment.*

*This awareness, and desire to preserve natural areas for future generations, has been part of human thought since ancient times, and was behind the late 19th-century movement to establish national parks. The period after Apollo 8, however, saw a significant growth in broad-based, political movements for the protection of the environment.*

*In the 20th century, two world wars create widespread environmental destruction. The world's increasing dependence on fossil fuels also contributed to a phenomenon called 'global warming'. As threats to the planet's delicate environmental balance have increased, so too has a movement that we now know as environmentalism.*

## Key inquiry questions

- 1 How and why did the environment movement develop?
- 2 Why did the events of the 20th century lead to growing environmental awareness?
- 3 How did events and campaigns contribute to the growth of the environment movement in Australia and overseas?
- 4 How have governments and international organisations responded to environmental threats?

## The environment movement

*The 20th century saw growing tension between the natural environment and economic development. Pollution, development, the threat of extinction of species, and nuclear testing and power became issues for the growing environment movement. Popular culture reflected this new awareness and promoted the significance of environmental issues.*

*By the 21st century, governments were being pressured to become active in preserving the environment. Green politics became entrenched in many countries, and it became increasingly difficult for politicians to ignore environmental issues.*

Source 1 Timeline of key events in the environment movement

**1858**

John Tyndall, a British physicist, proves existence of the Greenhouse Effect.

**1945**

The first atomic bombs are dropped on Japan at the end of World War II.

**1968**

Photographs from Apollo 8 show the Earth as it is seen from the moon and changes people's perceptions of their planet.

**1972**

The world's first political party contest state elections in Tasmania.

**1971**

Greenpeace nuclear test

1858

**1872**

Yellowstone National Park is established in the United States – the world's first national park.

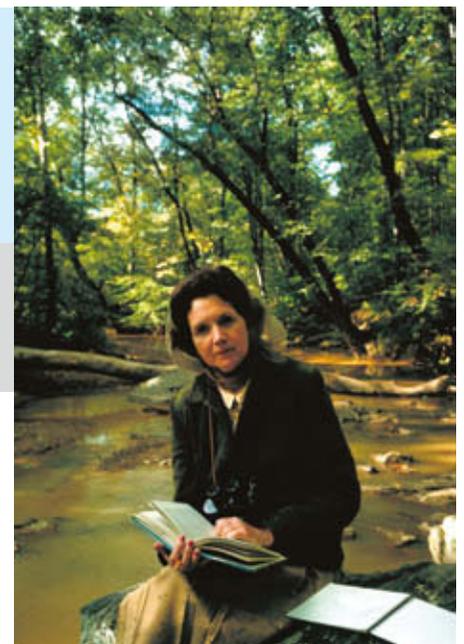
Sunset Lake is one of the unique thermal features of Yellowstone National Park



**1962**

The influential book, *Silent Spring* is published, highlighting the damaging effects of pesticides in the environment.

Marine biologist, Rachel Carson, the author of *Silent Spring*





...ce established to protest against ...sting in Alaska.

A group of Greenpeace activists protesting against the nuclear testing in Amchitka, Alaska



Pelicans covered in oil after the spill

**2010**  
Deepwater Horizon oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico.

...t 'green' ...ontests ...in

**1985**  
French government agents sink Greenpeace's ship the *Rainbow Warrior* in Auckland Harbour.

**1989**  
*Exxon Valdez* spills 11 million gallons of oil into the ocean in Alaska destroying local wildlife populations.

**1997**  
The Kyoto Protocol developed at a UN Framework Convention on Climate Change

**2011**  
Meltdown at Japan's Fukushima nuclear power plant after area is hit by a tsunami

**1986**  
The Chernobyl nuclear power plant goes into meltdown in the Ukraine. The world's worst nuclear accident contaminating 24 000 square kilometres around the plant.

The wreck of the Chernobyl nuclear power plant after the accident



**1983**  
People power saves the Lower Franklin River in Tasmania.

Protesters on the Murray River form a blockade to stop machinery getting to the proposed dam site on the Franklin River.



# 1 How and why did the environment movement develop?



**Source 2** The sun sets over a large industrial plant in Northumberland, England

*Concerns about the state of the environment are not new. Throughout history, there have been individuals and groups determined to protect it. As early as 6000BCE, there is evidence that deforestation was contributing to the collapse of societies in the Middle East. In 200BCE, the ancient Greek physician Galen observed copper miners and noted the danger of acid mists.*

*During the time Europe was in its period of rapid industrialisation, starting in the mid 18th century, a decline in air quality was becoming obvious. By the end of the 19th century, the greenhouse effect had been recognised by scientists and the call to preserve areas of wilderness had resulted in the formation of national parks. It was hoped that these national parks would preserve glimpses of the unspoilt natural world for future generations.*

# Impact of the Industrial Revolution



**Source 3** The Industrial Revolution saw working people move off the land and into factories.

From the mid 18th century, the world underwent dramatic changes. The Industrial Revolution changed methods of production, using new machinery and steam power for agriculture and minerals. For the first time, products could be mass produced in newly emerging factories. Living patterns were transformed as people moved to cities in search of jobs at these factories. Energy use grew rapidly as steam power changed the way people worked, and the demand for coal increased as it became the fuel driving the revolution.

Many people at the time, and many to this day, believed that the Industrial Revolution showed human mastery and control of nature. Historians argue over the impact of these changes, but it has become clear that major environmental degradation began in this period. The burning of coal had clear environmental effects – the air in cities became thick with air pollution. With the growth of cities, the disposal of waste also became a problem. Advanced farming techniques contributed to the rapid degradation of soil, and deforestation started taking place in many parts of the world.

The demand for resources meant mining expanded rapidly, as did international trade and travel. Steam ships required massive amounts of coal. The *Titanic*, for example, was carrying 5982 tons of coal on her maiden voyage. This would have been burned on every transatlantic crossing. For the first time in history, large scale burning of coal, and later oil, was pouring pollutants into the atmosphere.

## Charles Dickens and 19th-century city life



**Source 4** In his novels, Dickens wrote about the impact that the growth in industry had on people's lives, including the growth of urban slums. This engraving of a slum is by one of his contemporaries, C. A. Ferrier

Charles Dickens is regarded as one of the great novelists of the Victorian (1837–1901) era. Dickens became an acute observer of 19th-century city life. His rich descriptions of London life, in particular, have become a valuable primary source for historians examining the impact of the Industrial Revolution on the environment. From Dickens' descriptions in his novels, it is clear that air pollution from factories at this time was having a major impact on the environment.

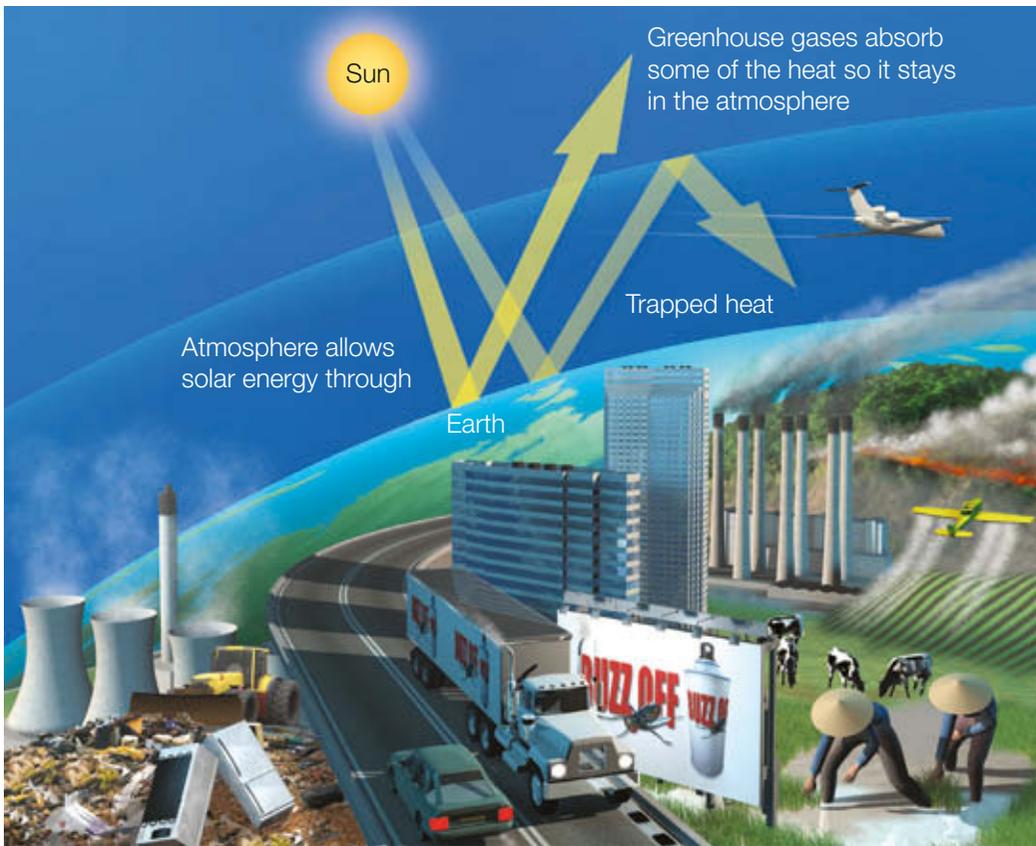
*Smoke lowering down from chimney-pots, making a soft black drizzle, with flakes of soot in it as big as full-grown snow flakes – gone into mourning, one might imagine, for the death of the sun.*

**Excerpt from Bleak House (1852–1853)**

*Time went on in Coketown like its own machinery: so much material wrought up, so much fuel consumed, so many powers worn out, so much money made. But, less inexorable than iron, steel, and brass, it brought its varying seasons even into that wilderness of smoke and brick...*

**Excerpt from Hard Times (1854)**

## The 19th-century greenhouse effect



Source 5 The greenhouse effect

The greenhouse effect is a term that came into common usage at the end of the 20th century. It refers to gases in the Earth's atmosphere retaining and redirecting infrared thermal radiation from the sun back to Earth, creating a heating effect similar to what happens in a greenhouse. In its natural state, the greenhouse effect makes life on Earth possible because it allows the sun's warmth to be retained, heating the planet.

It was the French mathematician and physicist Joseph Fourier who first theorised about a greenhouse effect. In 1824, he calculated that the Earth should be significantly colder than it is because of its distance from the sun. His research suggested that the Earth's atmosphere may act as an insulator, helping it retain warmth.

Fourier's work was built on by British physicist John Tyndall in 1858. He developed technology that measured various gases' ability to absorb infrared heat. His experiments proved that water vapour absorbed large amounts of infrared radiation and was the major controller of air temperature. He was the first to accurately measure the capacity of gases such as nitrogen, oxygen, carbon dioxide and ozone to absorb infrared radiation. This work proved the existence of the greenhouse effect.

Since the Industrial Revolution, however, the burning of fossil fuels and clearing of forests has made the greenhouse effect more acute. Scientists argue that increased carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, caused by burning fossil fuels, has resulted in more infrared radiation being directed back to Earth, warming the planet. This has resulted in higher sea levels and the destruction of many island and coastal habitats.

Arguments currently rage among scientists and politicians. They debate the human contribution to the changes in the atmosphere, and whether it is human action that has caused global warming.

## Check your learning

- 1 What impact did the Industrial Revolution have on the environment?
- 2 What does Charles Dickens tell us about the environment of 19th-century London?
- 3 Who first developed a theory about the greenhouse effect?

# significant **individual**

## Henry David Thoreau

Henry David Thoreau was an early advocate of what would today be called environmentalism. Thoreau wrote about living a life closer to nature from his experiences in the woods of Walden Pond in Massachusetts in 1845–1847. His writings from this period of his life became the inspiration for many who followed. In the 1960s and 1970s, as people started to create alternative communities, Thoreau was often cited as the inspiration. He helped people to realise how important it was to preserve nature.



**Source 6** Henry David Thoreau has been a source of inspiration for environmentalists.

### Early life

Thoreau was born in Concord, Massachusetts, in 1817. He attended Harvard University, and afterwards started teaching, but resigned as a protest over having to inflict corporal punishment.

He then lived with the author Ralph Waldo Emerson, tutoring his children. Emerson encouraged him to write but after leaving the Emerson household, Thoreau returned to Concord to work in his father's pencil factory. Restless and wanting to write, he went to Walden Woods in 1845 to build a hut and live with nature, on land owned by Emerson.

### In Walden Woods

Thoreau wrote that he entered the woods, 'because I wished to live deliberately, to front only the essential facts of life...' His first attempt at writing was a book about an 1839 trip with his brother into the White Mountains. Unable to find a publisher, he paid for 1000 copies to be published, but only sold 300. He left Walden Pond in 1847 and returned to live with Emerson. In 1854, he published his account of his time at Walden Pond as *Walden; or Life in the Woods*. He compressed his time into a single year and described the four seasons. Although not initially successful, it has become regarded as not only an American classic, but also a key text of early environmental thought.



**Source 7** The cabin in Walden Woods in Massachusetts

## Thoreau's beliefs

Thoreau believed in humans and nature working together. He advocated the wilderness as a source of recreation, supporting modern pursuits such as hiking and canoeing. He also fought for the preservation of wilderness as public land. He called for each town to have an area of about 500 or 1000 acres to be preserved in a completely natural state.

## Thoreau's legacy

In 1872, a decade after Thoreau's death in 1862, President Grant declared the world's first National Park at Yellowstone in Wyoming. His writings have underpinned a lot of modern environmentalism.

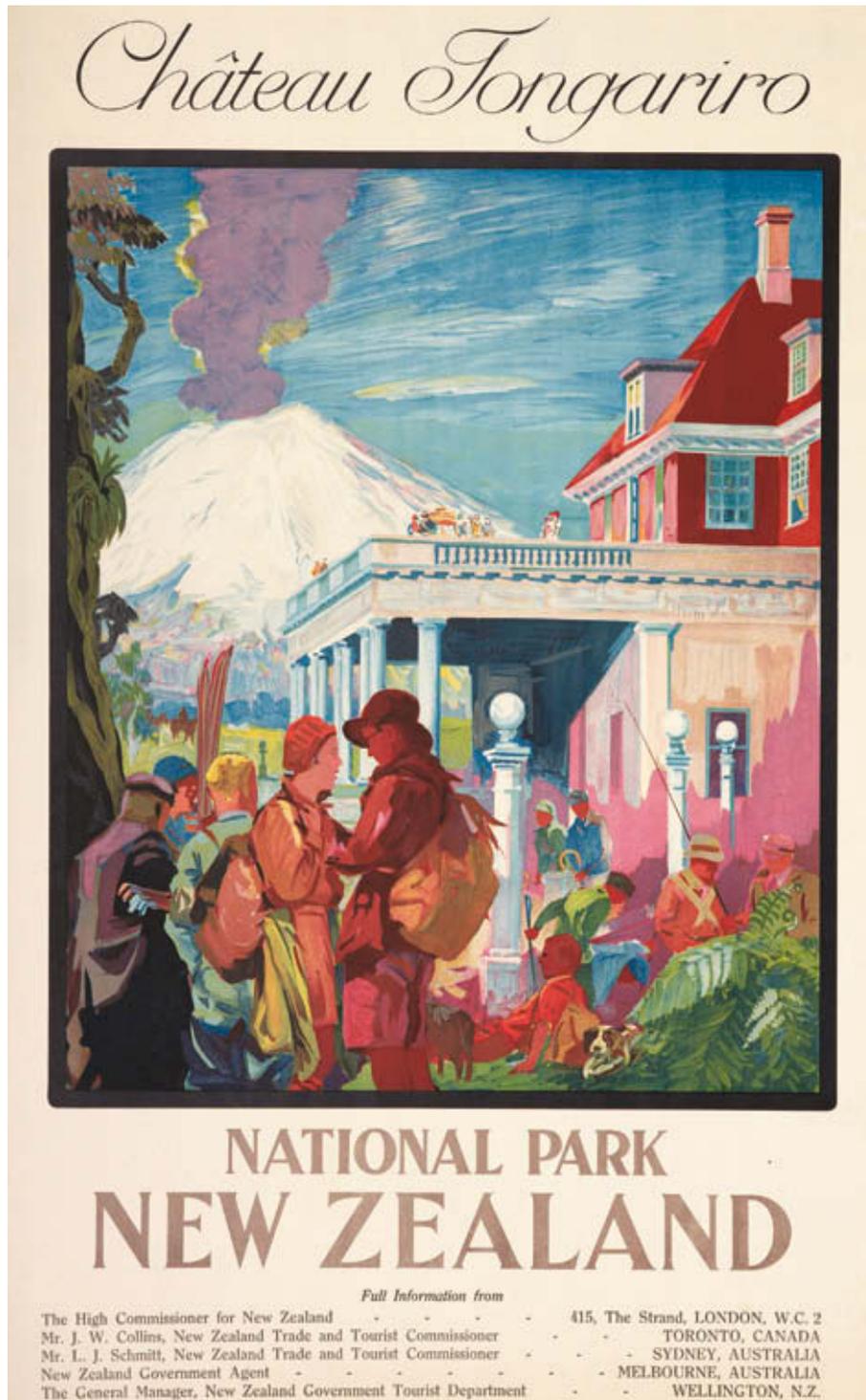
It was this stance and his personal connection to Walden Pond that saw the area around Walden Pond come under the care of the Walden Woods Project in 2006. The project has been set up to preserve both the land and legacy of Thoreau. Located 29 kilometres west of Boston, it is unlikely it would've survived without the connection to Thoreau and his work.

## Check your learning

- 1 Why did Thoreau refuse to pay his taxes?
- 2 Where is Walden Wood? What is it like today?
- 3 What did Thoreau propose for preserving the environment?

## Development of national parks in the 19th century

The world's first national park was Yellowstone in the United States, created in 1872. It was followed by the Royal National Park on the southern boundary of Sydney in 1879. In 1885, Banff National Park in Canada was set up and, in 1894 Tongariro National Park was established in New Zealand. The National Parks movement reflected an emerging awareness of the need to preserve natural landscapes for future generations. At the same time, an American journalist established Arbor Day, encouraging the planting of trees in human environments. At a time when the Industrial Revolution was changing the world forever, national parks and Arbor Day represented positive visions for the future.



Source 8 Tourism poster showing some of the activities to be enjoyed at Tongariro National Park

## Yellowstone National Park

When President Ulysses S. Grant signed into law the creation of Yellowstone National Park in 1872, he protected nearly 9000 square kilometres of wilderness for future generations. The landscape of the Yellowstone National Park is unique. Having been formed by volcanic activity, it features lava flows, geysers and volcanic lakes. This farsighted decision created a tourist attraction that has continued to attract visitors from around the world. Initially control was given to the United States Army but, in 1917, control was transferred to the National Parks Service which had been established in 1916.



**Source 9** Members of the Hayden survey team, Yellowstone National Park, 1871

Early explorers had given reports of steam coming from the ground, but these had largely been dismissed as fanciful. The first proper exploration came in 1869, followed by a group of Montana residents in 1870. It was one of these, a writer and lawyer named Cornelius Hedges, who called for the area to be preserved. This call echoed earlier comments by the Acting Montana Governor Thomas Meagher. Hedges had numerous articles published calling for the protection of an area of such spectacular beauty.

A geological survey in 1871 included photographs and artwork that helped to convince Congress of the value of preserving the area. The leader of the geological expedition, Ferdinand Hayden, an expert on natural history, became the leading advocate for the protection of the area. As well as preserving the area for future generations, Hayden envisaged the area becoming a place people could travel to for recreation.

After the national park had been created, Nathaniel Langford was appointed the first superintendent. No funds were allocated for either a wage or for supporting the park, and during Langford's five-year tenure, the poaching of fish and game such as bison and elk was a major problem. Locals resented government telling them what they could do with the land and, as well as poaching, cut down trees for timber. It was not until Philetus Norris replaced Langford that Congress voted funds for the park. This led to access roads and facilities. In the early 1880s, a railway line was put in, making the park much more easily accessible and increasing visitor numbers.

The United States Army built permanent quarters at Fort Yellowstone and this did much to discourage the poaching and destruction of resources that had been such a problem in the park's early days. By the time the National Parks Service took control, Yellowstone was firmly established as a popular wilderness attraction.

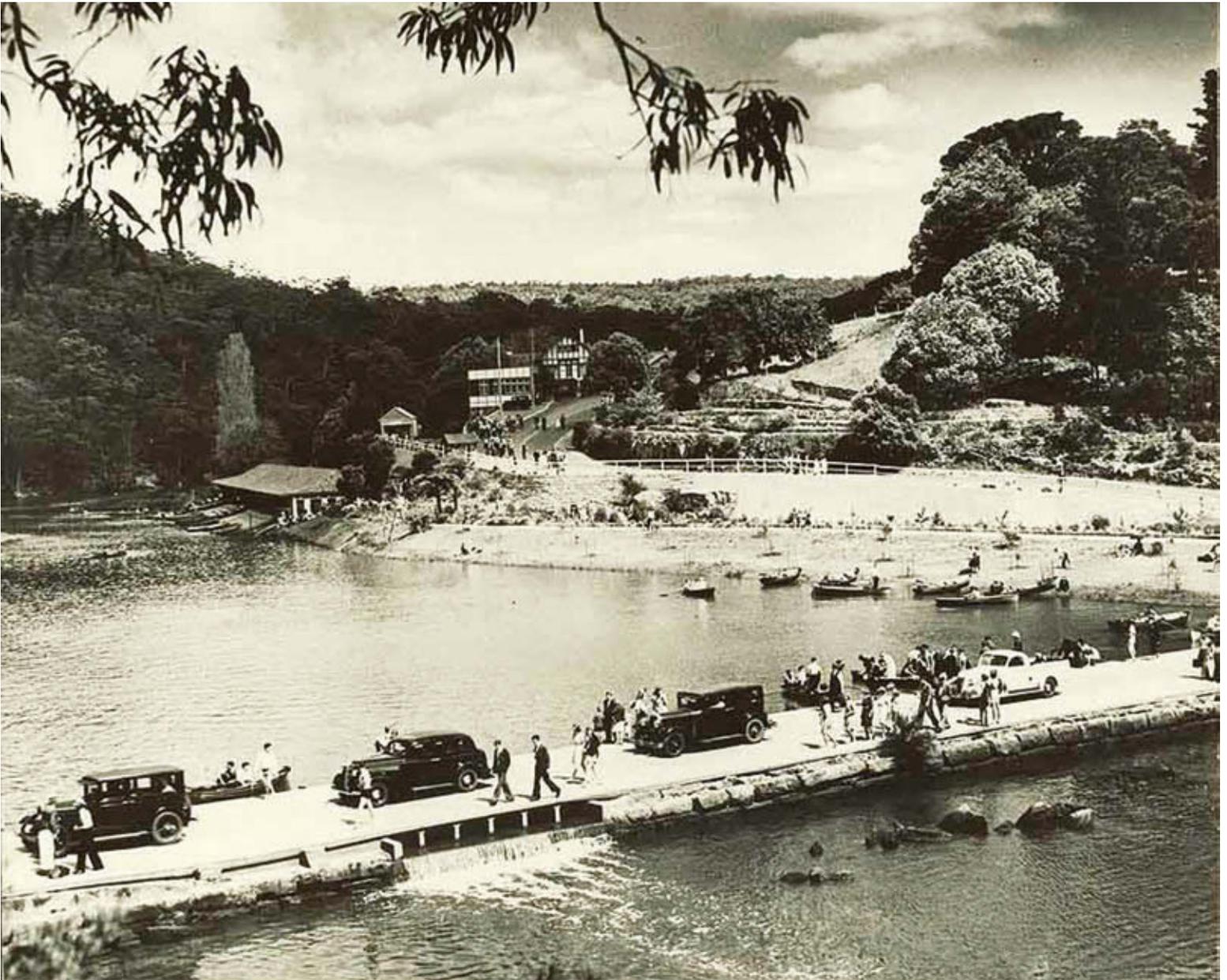
In 1978, Yellowstone was included on UNESCO's World Heritage list. Its particular significance is that it contains one-half of the world's known geothermal features. It contains two-thirds of the world's known geysers. It represents a storehouse of information about the history and functioning of the planet, and has been preserved rather than commercialised. The foresight of those early pioneers ensured scientists and tourist alike could continue to gain from Yellowstone National Park.



Source 10 Hikers enjoying Yellowstone National Park today

## Royal National Park

The first urbanised area of Australia, Sydney, was also where the pressure to preserve land for future generations first arose. In Victorian-era Sydney, the emphasis was on providing an area that could function as 'lungs' for city dwellers. Initially, it was this role rather than preservation for future generations that drove the formation of Australia's first national park.



**Source 11** Cars crossing the causeway at Audley, a popular boating and picnicking spot in the Royal National Park in southern Sydney c. 1904

The National Park became more popular when, in 1886, a branch line from the Illawarra railway, originally built to supply an army camp that was established in the park, made direct access from Sydney easier.

It became the Royal National Park in 1955, after a brief visit from Queen Elizabeth. In 1967, its management was taken over by the newly formed National Parks and Wildlife Service, as recognition of its increasing importance as an area of conservation and preservation.

## Arbor Day

The National Parks movement reflected the emergence of a struggle between the interests of development and preservation. As populations grew in many countries during the 19th century, areas for natural recreation became increasingly valued. National parks were a government response to this, but Arbor Day showed the role individuals could play.

Arbor Day was started by a journalist, Julius Morton, in Nebraska in the United States. The first one was held on 10 April 1872. He felt that Nebraska's environment would benefit from more trees. As well as modelling tree planting, he decided to involve the public. He advertised a day where everyone should plant a tree, and on the first Arbor Day, a million trees were planted.

From that simple idea, an appreciation of the key role trees play in the ecosystem has developed. Arbor Day spread to Japan in 1883 and, since then, has become a global institution. Today, a diverse range of countries including Australia, Costa Rica, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, China, Sri Lanka and Venezuela all celebrate Arbor Day. Millions of trees have been planted across the planet as a result of a simple idea started in Nebraska in 1872.



Source 12 Planting a tree for Arbor Day

## Check your learning

- 1 What was the first national park in the world?
- 2 What were some of the early problems faced by the management of Yellowstone National Park when it was first established?
- 3 What animals were introduced into the Royal National Park in its early days?
- 4 What is Arbor Day?

# bigideas

## 1 How and why did the environment movement develop?

### Remember

- 1 How much coal did the Titanic carry on its maiden voyage?
- 2 What were the first four national parks in the world?

### Understand

- 3 Why is the work of Joseph Fourier and John Tyndall so important?
- 4 Why is Henry Thoreau's legacy important?

### Apply

- 5 How did Apollo 8 change environmental perceptions?
- 6 Why did the movement for national parks start in the 19th century?

### Analyse

- 7 How useful are the novels of Charles Dickens for environmental historians?
- 8 In pairs, discuss whether Arbor Day represents a model for direct action on the environment.

### Evaluate

- 9 As a class, debate the suggestion that 'the Industrial Revolution was a step backwards for the planet'.
- 10 Do some research on national parks around the world and on the role of World Heritage listings. Is World Heritage listing a better safeguard for the protection of the environment than being a national park? Give reasons for your answer.

### Create

- 11 Create a photo montage that shows the effects that the Industrial Revolution had on the environment.
- 12 Create a guide to a national park that highlights why it is significant and what it is about the park that is worth preserving.

## 2 Why did the events of the 20th century lead to growing environmental awareness?



**Source 13** The world's growing dependence on oil throughout the 20th century has led to some disastrous consequences for the environment. These oil covered pelicans were found off the Louisiana coast after the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill in 2010.

*In the period after World War II, the world underwent a technological revolution. Rapid urbanisation along with the mass production of goods such as cars and radios led to an increasing reliance on fossil fuels and nuclear power, along with a growing use of substances such as fluorocarbons and pesticides.*

*By the 1960s, these changes were increasingly threatening and damaging the natural environment. Protection for the environment became part of the social agenda for change that was sweeping many Western countries. Popular culture became an important tool for spreading environmental awareness. The work of writers and musicians became influential in supporting calls for social action on environmental issues. Demands for clean air, green spaces and sustainable energy became increasingly urgent from the 1960s on, as the evidence mounted that the environment could be permanently damaged by human actions.*

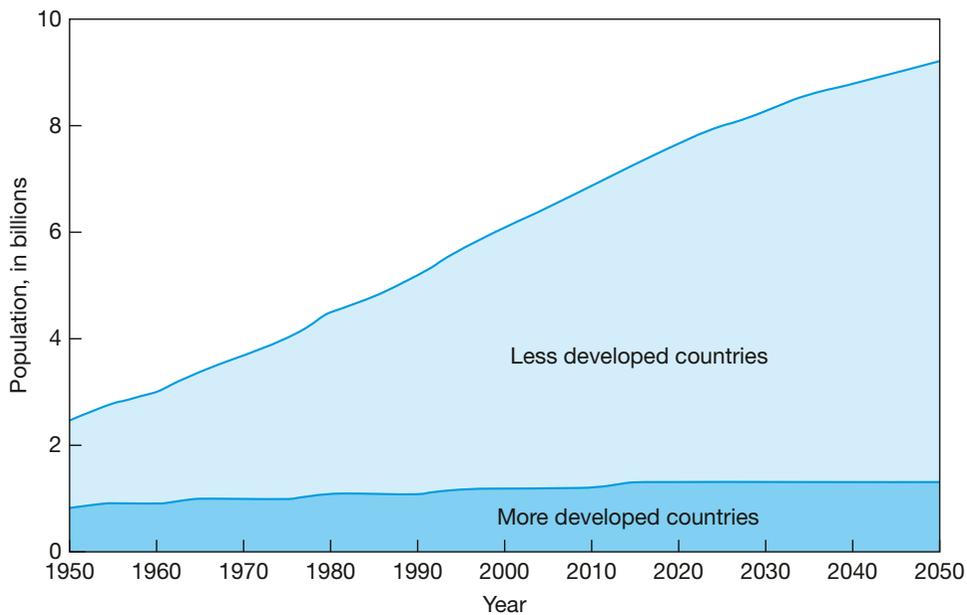
# Rapid population increase

The 20th century witnessed extraordinary population growth. In 1901, the world's population was 1.6 billion people, by 1999, this number had increased to six billion people.



Source 14 Huge population growth in the 20th century has put pressure on the Earth's resources

## Future predictions



Source 15 The United Nations' predicted world population growth to 2050

According to the United Nations, the world is expected to be home to 8.9 billion people, by 2050 – an increase of nearly 50 per cent on the population in the year 2000. The greatest increases in population are expected to be in the less developed regions of Asia, Africa and Latin America. In 1900 the population of Europe was three times that of Africa; by 2050 it is predicted that the population of Africa will be nearly three times that of Europe.

These trends in population growth have the potential to have a severe impact on the environment. More resources in these regions will be needed to provide for the bigger populations. Parts of Asia and Africa already have recurring famines, and could struggle to support these larger populations. As more land is needed for farming and industry, there could be further destruction of natural habitats. A greater population in Latin America, for example, could lead to further losses of Amazonian rainforest, commonly referred to as the world's lungs.

This population growth is also likely to lead to even further urbanisation and industrialisation, which in turn could lead to further increases in greenhouse gases, adding to the risks of climate change.

Although the United Nations' statistics are only predictions, they are official and carry a level of authority. If the UN figures turn out to be accurate, major decisions will need to be made regarding how resources are distributed and the environment is allowed to be impacted.

## Check your learning

- 1 How big was the world's population in 1900?
- 2 What does the United Nations predict will be the world's population in 2050?
- 3 What is the potential impact on the environment on this predicted population growth?

# Urbanisation

The United Nations' report on world urbanisation, released in 2011, showed that the world's urban population had increased from 13 per cent in 1900 to 49 per cent in 2005. In 2007, a tipping point was reached – for the first time in human history, more people were living in urban areas than rural areas.

The drift from rural to urban areas accelerated rapidly after World War II, as cities became the major source of employment in most countries.



**Source 16** High-density living in large apartment buildings like these in Hong Kong is becoming an increasingly common urban experience.

The growth of cities has major environmental implications. As cities increase in size, they gobble up surrounding land. Most urban populations are engaged in producing goods and services rather than food. They are a major drain on energy resources, compared with rural populations, and concentrate problems such as waste disposal. Producing goods in a factory setting creates pollution, and further energy is used to process and transport food to urban areas. Increasingly, city buildings create their own artificial environments with heating, lighting and air-conditioning being used 24 hours a day.

In 2010, Karachi in Pakistan was the world's largest city (excluding the wider metropolitan area) with 15.5 million people. It was followed by Shanghai, China (14.9 million) and Mumbai, India (13.9 million). It is predicted that cities could be home to 5 billion people by 2030, with the greatest urban growth rates in Asia and Africa.



**Source 17** View of the Dharavi slums in Mumbai. In 2010, Mumbai was officially the world's third largest city.

## Check your learning

- 1 What are some of the environmental problems associated with cities?
- 2 What was the largest city in the world in 2010?

## Increases in industrial production and trade

At the start of the 20th century, Great Britain dominated industrial production. It had been the first country to expand and embrace the changes of the Industrial Revolution. Historically, the British Empire had been built on its industrial and military strength – this strength came with a need for ever-increasing amounts of raw materials.

The United States emerged from World War II as the world's strongest economy. The war had helped the United States recover from the economic impact of the Great Depression, and the United States boomed economically in the 1950s and 1960s. Oil was the major commodity of the post-World War II world. Oil provided cheap fuel for transportation, and became an essential ingredient in the development of modern materials such as rubber and plastics.

By the start of the 21st century, the Asian economies, in particular China, had undergone rapid industrialisation. The emerging economies of China, India and South Korea joined Japan to create a regional powerhouse. In 2010, China officially became the world's largest manufacturer with an output of 19.8 per cent of the worldwide total – surpassing the United States, with an output of 19.4, for the first time.



Source 18 An assembly line at an electronics factory in Dongguan, Guangdong Province, China

### China's industrialisation

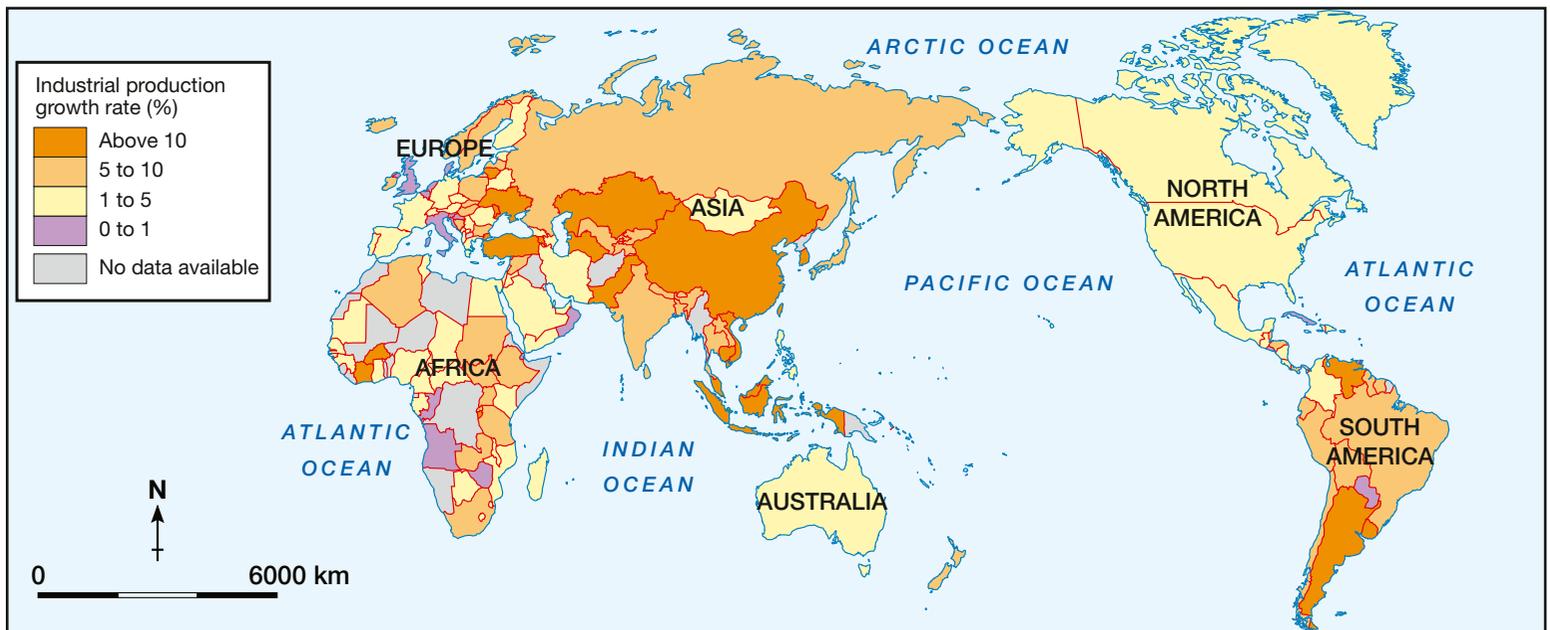
One of the implications of increasing industrial production, and the associated trade that goes with it, is the related rises in energy consumption. The huge industrial output of China, which is largely fuelled by coal, is causing major environmental problems. Already, large clouds of pollutants from northern China's industrial belt blow into Korean airspace and beyond. It is estimated that the increase in global-warming gases from China's coal use will probably exceed that for all industrialised countries combined over the next 25 years.

## Effect of increasing global transportation

Shipping increased throughout the 20th century as the major means of transporting products around the globe. Shipping brings with it a range of environmental issues. Ballast water involves taking water into the ship in one port and discharging it in another. This has led to the transfer of bacteria and species from one ecosystem to another.

In 2009, Britain's *Guardian* newspaper published a report that estimated that the 15 largest ships on Earth emit as much pollution as all of the cars combined – 760 million. It was estimated that one giant container ship can emit almost the same amount of cancer and asthma-causing chemicals as 50 million cars. Other research indicated that pollution from the world's 90 000 cargo ships lead to 60 000 deaths a year in the United States alone, and costs up to \$330 billion a year from lung and heart diseases.

Additional risks include the transporting of oil by sea. Oil spills have had devastating impacts on wildlife and natural environments.



Source 19 The growth of global industrial production

## Check your learning

- 1 Which country is now the world's largest manufacturer?
- 2 How much pollution do the world's 15 largest ships produce each year?

# The influence of popular culture

As has been shown, environmental concerns aren't new. During the 20th century, however, awareness rapidly grew. Science was important, but popular culture played a critical role in boosting both awareness and understanding of environmental concerns. Books, magazines and music all helped to bring people together and provide a focus for shared ideas. This, in turn, helped spur the mass movements that have pressured governments over environmental concerns in the 20th and 21st centuries.

## Silent Spring



Source 20 Rachel Carson examining a marine specimen, 1961

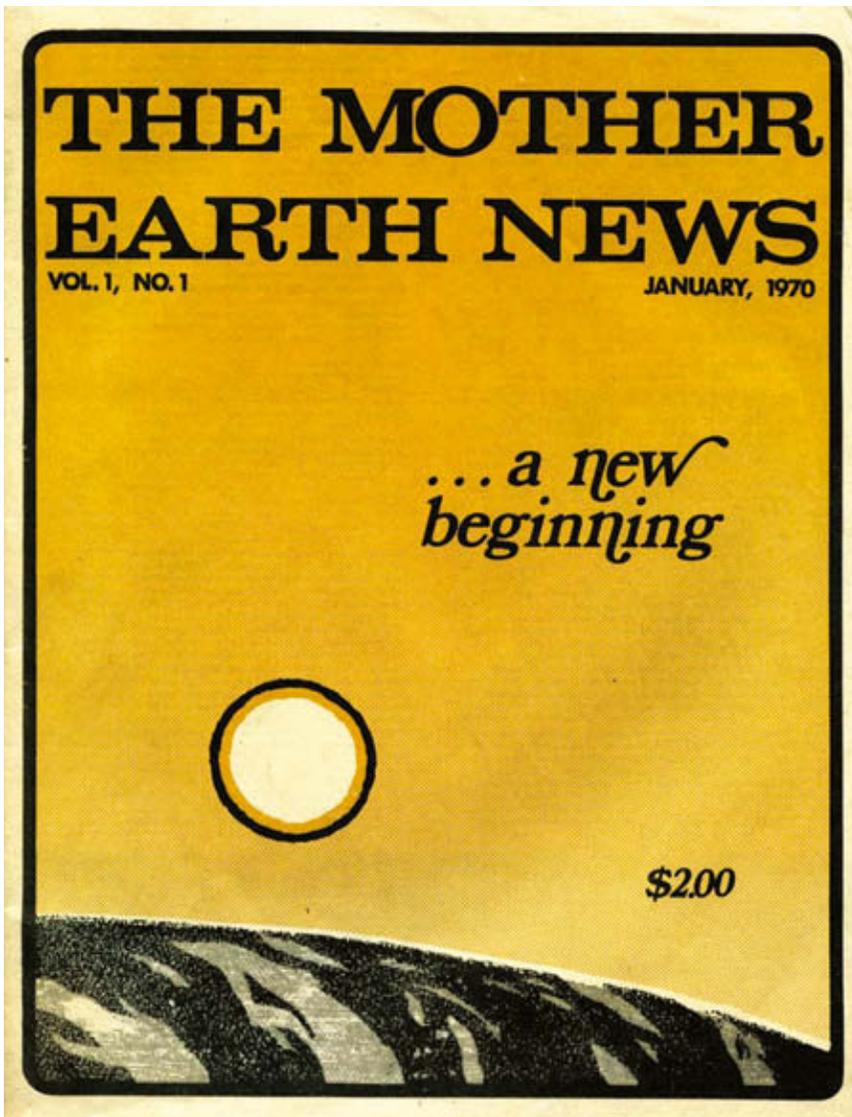
One of the most influential books to be written in terms of increasing awareness of the environment was *Silent Spring* by Rachel Carson, published in 1962. The book argued that uncontrolled and unexamined pesticide use was harming and even killing not only animals and birds, but also humans. It is often given credit for helping to launch the modern environmental movement.

Carson, a marine biologist, focused specifically on the devastating impact of pesticides on wildlife and the environment. Her willingness to challenge the chemical industry was also controversial, accusing it of spreading disinformation. Her accusations that public officials often failed to critically and objectively analyse chemical industry claims became a blueprint for environmentalists who followed.

A year after the book appeared, President Kennedy asked his Science Advisory Committee to investigate Carson's claims. This led to greater regulation of the use of pesticides. The banning of the pesticide DDT – a chemical sprayed on crops to kill insects that is toxic to birds and fish and is thought to cause cancer in humans – in the United States, in 1972, was hailed as a vindication of Carson's work in *Silent Spring*. Despite these acknowledgements relating to the danger of DDT, it wasn't banned in Britain until 1984, and is still used today in countries such as India and North Korea.

The legacy of *Silent Spring* has been its use of scientific evidence to challenge official complacency. By using evidence, Rachel Carson created a strong argument that reached a mass audience and was able to force politicians and public officials to take action. The book also encouraged the public to question the claims of companies who profited from products that impacted on the environment.

## The Mother Earth News



Source 21 The first issue of the magazine *The Mother Earth News*

By 1970, a countercultural movement (a group whose values run counter to those held by the mainstream) had developed internationally. Often referred to simply as 'hippies', the movement incorporated a wide range of values and beliefs. One of the most enduring beliefs has been the necessity of caring for the environment and living in harmony with nature. One of the earliest advocates of this belief was the American magazine *The Mother Earth News*.

First published in January 1970 by John and Jane Shuttleworth, from the outset, it contained practical advice about 'getting back to nature'. It gave advice on how to build sustainable housing, self-supporting gardens and effective methods of recycling. Although many of these approaches have been incorporated into mainstream thinking since then, at the time *The Mother Earth News* was revolutionary.

Although changing hands throughout the years, *The Mother Earth News* continues to this day. One of its greatest contributions to environmental thought was its ability to put basic environmentally friendly practices and sustainable living within the reach of ordinary people. The magazine's survival is evidence of the ongoing desire of people to live more closely with their environment.

## The influence of music



Source 22 Soul artist Marvin Gaye at the time of the release of *What's Going On*

In 1971, Marvin Gaye released his soul album, *What's Going On*. The album dealt with issues such as racism, urban poverty, and the destruction of the environment. The song 'Mercy, Mercy Me (The Ecology)' brought environmental issues to a new audience. Gaye catalogued some of the problems facing the Earth in such powerful lines as, 'Where did all the blue sky go? Poison is the wind that blows... Oil wasted on the oceans and upon our seas, Fish full of mercury'.

Marvin Gaye wasn't the only artist to sing about the environment. In 1970, both Joni Mitchell and Cat Stevens released songs about the damaging effects of increasing urbanisation. These, and other, artists played a major role in raising awareness among a generation who were just beginning to find their political voice.

## Check your learning

- 1 What did the publication of *Silent Spring* achieve in terms of the environment?
- 2 What was *The Mother Earth News* about?
- 3 What were some of the environmental problems Marvin Gaye wrote about in the song *Mercy, Mercy Me (The Ecology)*?

# The influence of ideas about environment

There is no doubt that the environment came into much sharper focus as the 20th century progressed. The emergence of theories about the interconnectedness of life and the importance of nature clashed with mainstream beliefs about the necessity of growth and development.

The journey of Apollo 8 was a moment of great significance for environmental awareness. The famous 'earthrise' photo and astronaut Frank Borman's comment, 'maybe this really is one world' resonated with many people. Apollo 8 changed people's perspectives and helped consolidate ideas about the environment.

## Gaia hypothesis



**Source 24** The Gaia hypothesis sees Earth as a self-regulating organism, supporting life.

One of the more significant developments in environmental thinking over this time was the Gaia hypothesis. Gaia proposed that life on Earth was interconnected and formed a self-contained system that allowed life to flourish. In other words, that Earth is a single, inter-dependent system.

A simple way of imagining this is to think of Earth's rainforests as the lungs of the planet, Earth's atmosphere as its respiratory system, and its streams and rivers as its circulatory system. All of these systems need to be working in harmony for the body to be healthy. Another important aspect to Gaia theory is that the Earth is self-healing – when left to its own devices, the Earth will work to create the necessary balance for health. The Earth will automatically control global temperature, the atmosphere, ocean salinity and other factors, to maintain its own liveability.

The original theory was developed by chemist James Lovelock and microbiologist Lynn Margulis. Their research suggested that Earth was self-regulating and that organisms adapted the environment in their favour. It has further inspired scientific investigation and is winning acceptance as more evidence is assembled. In the past 15–20 years, more of the ways by which the Earth regulates itself have been discovered. For example, it has been shown that cloud formation over the open ocean is caused by algae in the ocean that emit sulphur (as a waste gas) that becomes the condensation nuclei for raindrops. Previously, it was thought that cloud formation over the ocean was an independent occurrence. The cloud formation, then, not only helps regulate Earth's temperature, it is a way of returning sulphur to land ecosystems.

## Limits to Growth

In 1972, a book titled *Limits to Growth* was published. It was written by a group of economists who used computer modelling to predict the effects of unchecked economic and population growth on the Earth's finite resources. They looked at five variables for their modelling: world population, industrialisation, pollution, food production and resource depletion.

The authors came to the conclusion that if the average rate of consumption growth continued, virtually all major minerals and energy resources would be used up by 2070.

Critics of the book at the time argued that the authors could not make any accurate predictions as there was no way of knowing the amount of resource supplies available or what new technologies might become available. They also argued that restricting growth levels to conserve resources, as the authors suggested, would create new problems and keep millions in poverty.

In 2008, however, Graham Turner at the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO) in Australia published a paper comparing figures from the past 30 years with the predictions made in 1972. He found that the actual changes in industrial production, food production and pollution matched the predictions made by the authors.

## Sustainability

At the end of the 20th century, sustainability was embraced by governments and businesses alike, as the need for checking the use of natural resources became apparent. The idea of sustainability is that resources are managed so that they are only used at a level where they can be sustained or replenished, keeping them available for use by future generations.



**Source 25** Recycling bottles, papers and cans has become common practice in Australia. The symbol for recycling is shown on the right.

The tensions between unrestricted development and environmental sustainability are a characteristic of modern life. Sustainability requires a long term view of human occupation of the planet. Increased emphasis on recycling is an example of sustainability. The planting of forests specifically to provide paper, rather than exploiting older, natural forests, is another. Water restrictions in many Australian cities have become part of life, as governments seek ways to make our use of water more sustainable. Calls for 'paperless' offices tap into a similar demand for more sustainable practices in business. The annual 'Earth Hour' campaign, requiring lights to be turned off for an hour, highlights another possible way forward.

The challenge for contemporary society is to balance sustainability with economic demands. The emergence of a green economy involving sustainable practices is an indication that change is occurring in the balance between sustainability and development.

## The rights of nature

Since the mid 20th century, there has been a growing acceptance in many circles of the idea that nature has rights. This idea recognises that forests, oceans and mountain ecosystems are important and deserve greater recognition. In many ways, this reflects the ancient beliefs of Australia's Indigenous populations and their relationships with the earth.

The key idea underpinning the rights of nature is that all forms of nature have the right to exist, persist, maintain and regenerate their vital cycles. An acceptance of this idea is regarded as essential to the continuation of life on the planet.

The rights of nature are a direct challenge to development and the view that land is simply property owned by groups or individuals, as it is currently seen under most legal systems. In 2008, Ecuador was the first country to recognise the rights of nature within its constitution. Additionally, the constitution gave people the authority to petition on the behalf of nature and requires the government to remedy violations of these rights.

## Check your learning

- 1 Who developed the Gaia hypothesis?
- 2 What is the key idea behind the rights of nature?
- 3 Give some examples of how Australians now live in a more sustainable way.

## 2 Why did the events of the 20th century lead to growing environmental awareness?

### Remember

- 1 When did the world's population reach six billion?
- 2 What was the biggest city in the world at the start of the 20th century?

### Understand

- 3 What was *Silent Spring* about?
- 4 Explain the Gaia hypothesis in your own words.

### Apply

- 5 Research the history of Easter Island. Find out why it is considered as an environmental warning for the world?

### Analyse

- 6 Are songs such as 'Mercy, Mercy Me (The Ecology)' useful and reliable sources for a historian? Justify your response.

### Evaluate

- 7 Research one of the world's biggest cities – Karachi, Shanghai or Mumbai. How can you explain the huge growths in their populations in recent years?
- 8 As a class, discuss the concept of the rights of nature. Can you agree on rights that should be recognised?

### Create

- 9 Create a digital scrapbook that contains images that convey what it is like to live in cities in the 21st century.
- 10 In 1945, the United Nations released a Universal Declaration of Human Rights in order to protect the rights of humans all over the world. In recent times, a number of environmental groups have lobbied for a similar declaration to protect the rights of the environment. Conduct some research into this idea and then create your own illustrated Universal Declaration of the Rights of Nature.
- 11 Design a guide to sustainability that could improve environmental outcomes at your school.

### 3 How did events and campaigns contribute to the growth of the environment movement in Australia and overseas?



**Source 26** The Greenpeace flagship the *Rainbow Warrior* has become a symbol of environmental protest around the world. The original *Rainbow Warrior* was destroyed in 1985 but its legacy continues with Greenpeace launching its latest ship, *Rainbow Warrior 3*, in 2011.

*Over the past 50 years, environment groups in different parts of the world have developed a number of different responses to government inaction on many environmental threats. As the world recovered from World War II, economic development became the main priority for many countries – often at the expense of the environment. As many former colonies of imperial powers (particularly across Africa and Asia) gained their independence, they found the exploitation of their natural resources was the key to economic and social progress.*

*In Australia, Tasmania became a significant battleground between developers and environmentalists. The development of areas such as Lake Pedder and the Franklin River became important issues that ultimately affected the outcomes of federal elections.*

*During the 1970s and 1980s, the environment became a major political issue, as environmental groups such as Greenpeace and Sea Shepherd attracted media attention. In recent times, environmental disasters such as the Deepwater Horizon explosion and the Exxon Valdez oil spill have ensured that the environment has remained a key issue of modern life.*

# Nuclear disasters

Since the first commercial nuclear power plant was built in the Soviet Union in 1954, nuclear power has been championed by supporters as a cleaner and more sustainable source than coal-generated power, but it comes with significant risks. In 2012, 30 countries around the world were using commercially produced nuclear power despite these risks.

Since the late 1970s, three nuclear disasters, in particular, have had a significant impact on the way people view nuclear power, highlighting the dangers inherently involved with its production. These were Three Mile Island in the USA, Chernobyl in the Ukraine and most recently – and arguably most environmentally damaging – the Fukushima Nuclear Power Plant in 2011.

## Three Mile Island accident

On 28 March 1979, the Three Mile Island power plant in the state of Pennsylvania (north of New York) experienced a core meltdown. What followed revealed a lack of knowledge and experience in dealing with nuclear disasters. Mistakes made by operators reflected a lack of training and preparation. Prior to this event, fears about the safety of nuclear power plants were largely dismissed as alarmist. Three Mile Island changed that complacency forever.



Source 27 The cooling towers of the Three Mile Island nuclear plant

Leading up to the accident, a stuck open valve in one of the reactors released a significant amount of coolant from the reactor. An operator, unable to see a hidden indicator light, misread the situation and thought there was too much coolant in the reactor. He overrode the automatic system and released more steam into the reactor, raising the temperature and causing a partial nuclear core meltdown. A couple of days after this initial accident, an amount of radioactive gas was released into the atmosphere.

A state of emergency was declared and contradictory reports from officials at the plant about the amount of radiation released had locals hiding in their houses for fear of contamination. The Nuclear Regulatory Commission then authorised the release of 40 000 gallons of radioactive waste water into the Susquehanna River. The event was a public relations disaster for the industry.

A clean-up of the area commenced in August 1979 and public enquiries were held to try understand the causes of the disaster. By 1993, after a cost of one billion US dollars, the clean-up was complete. Although studies have found that residents have not reported increased levels of cancer as a result of any exposure to radiation from the Three Mile Island meltdown, the incident affected public trust in the nuclear power industry.

## significant **individual**

### Karen Silkwood

Karen Silkwood was a chemical technician who worked at the Cimarron Fuel Fabrication Site (a nuclear fuel production plant) in Oklahoma, in the United States. She was also an active member of the Oil, Chemical and Atomic Workers Union. In 1974, she died in mysterious circumstances. Silkwood's job was to produce plutonium pellets for nuclear reactor fuel rods. At the time of her death, she was suffering from abnormally large doses of plutonium contamination.



Source 28 Undated photograph of Karen Silkwood and her children

### Kerr-McGee

Kerr-McGee owned and operated the Cimarron Fuel Fabrication Site that Karen Silkwood worked for in Oklahoma. The plutonium plant was the major employer in the region, which gave it significant influence. As part of Silkwood's union activities, she was given responsibility for investigating health and safety issues at the Oklahoma plant.

Her investigations revealed the possibility that Kerr-McGee was risking employee safety at the plant. Among the accusations that she made to an Atomic Energy Commission hearing in the middle of 1974 was that Kerr-McGee violated health regulations and pushed their staff to work too quickly. She listed exposure of workers to contamination, faulty respiratory equipment and improper storage of samples. She also suggested shower facilities were insufficient and risked employee contamination.

### Contamination

Karen Silkwood tested herself for contamination on 5 November 1974 and found she was 400 times over the safe limit for exposure to plutonium. By 7 November, her body was dangerously contaminated. A team from the company also tested her home at this time and found high levels of contamination within her house. There has been considerable debate over how Silkwood became so contaminated at this time. Kerr-McGee later suggested she was deliberately poisoning herself to make the company look dangerous.

## Death

On 13 November, Silkwood decided to go public with her investigations of safety breaches at Kerr-McGee. According to a witness, she left a union meeting with a folder of documents, on her way to meet a *New York Times* reporter and a union official.

On the way to that meeting, Silkwood's car ran off the road and she was killed. Local police investigations called it a single car accident in which Silkwood went to sleep at the wheel. Subsequent investigations have raised doubts about the circumstances of her death. Any documents she was carrying to her meeting were never found in the car. There was evidence that her car may have been rammed from the back and forced off the road.

## The aftermath



**Source 29** Meryl Streep played Karen in the 1982 movie called *Silkwood*.

An autopsy on Karen Silkwood's body indicated that the largest amounts of plutonium were in her lungs and gastrointestinal tract. This result suggested that she had eaten something contaminated with plutonium as well as breathed in plutonium. Her family filed a law suit against Kerr-McGee, who ultimately paid out-of-court damages for US \$1.38 million as compensation for her contamination. Kerr-McGee made no admission of liability regarding her death.

Karen Silkwood's death prompted a number of inquiries into the nuclear fuel industry in the United States. One of the revelations was that over 40 pounds of plutonium was missing from the plant where Karen Silkwood worked. In 1975, Kerr-McGee closed all its nuclear plants. Twenty-five years later, the plant Silkwood worked at was still being decontaminated.

A film was made about Silkwood's life and death. She became a symbol of the struggle for regulation of the nuclear power industry.

## Check your learning

- 1 Outline Karen Silkwood's concerns over the safety measures at the Kerr-McGee plant.
- 2 How did Kerr-McGee suggest Karen Silkwood had become contaminated?
- 3 Where was Karen Silkwood headed at the time of her death?
- 4 How did Karen Silkwood die?

## Chernobyl disaster

On 26 April 1986, a reactor at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant in the Ukraine (then a member state of the Soviet Union) exploded. A significant quantity of the radioactive reactor core was released into the atmosphere at the time of the explosion. For several weeks after the disaster, weather reports predicted the location and size of the radioactive cloud as it made its way across Europe, eventually reaching the United States.



**Source 30** Cleaning up after Chernobyl's nuclear accident – clearing radioactive material off the roof of reactor 3.

Chernobyl is considered the world's worst nuclear accident. Chernobyl and the Fukushima Daiichi disaster, in 2011, are the only two nuclear accidents that have been officially recorded as level 7 nuclear disasters. Level 7 is considered a major accident and is the highest level on the International Nuclear and Radiological Event Scale. Between 1986 and 2000, over 350 000 people were evacuated from contaminated areas surrounding the Chernobyl plant. An exclusion zone of 2600 kilometres still exists around the plant site today. The safety of the entire Soviet nuclear industry was questioned, and the disaster led to a series of inquiries into the industry. After initially attempting to cover up the incident, Soviet authorities realised that it was simply too large to hide.

The number of deaths attributed to the Chernobyl disaster varies widely according to the organisation or official agency making the assessment. There is consensus that 31 workers died as a direct result of the explosion. Estimates of later deaths from radiation and related cancers ranged from between 4000 to 200 000. In 2009, the New York Academy of Sciences published a translation of a Russian report on this issue, that concluded that 985 000 people worldwide had died prematurely from exposure to radioactive fallout from Chernobyl.

Regardless of the number of direct and indirect victims, Chernobyl exposed a range of serious issues relating to the safety of nuclear power. In the wake of Chernobyl, worldwide demand for the construction of new nuclear reactors declined. Supporters of nuclear power still argue that it is the most environmentally friendly option for power generation, but as Chernobyl showed, when things go wrong, the consequences can be catastrophic.

## Fukushima Daiichi nuclear disaster



**Source 31** A resident within the Fukushima Exclusion Zone being tested for radiation exposure after the 2011 meltdown at the nuclear power plant.

The Fukushima nuclear power plant suffered major damage when an earthquake and subsequent tsunami hit Japan on 11 March 2011. The earthquake disabled the reactor cooling systems, leading to nuclear radiation leaks and closing the plant. A 30 kilometre evacuation zone was put in place around the plant and 100 000 people were evacuated from their homes. This has since been reduced to 20 kilometres but some areas are expected to stay within an exclusion zone for decades. The accident is the second biggest nuclear accident after the Chernobyl disaster.

It is still too early to assess the full environmental impact of this disaster. One thing is clear, the Japanese people no longer feel safe with nuclear power. All but two nuclear reactors across the country have been closed down since the accident because of local opposition to them. Japan currently looks to be moving away from reliance on nuclear power and towards alternative renewable power sources for the future.

### Check your learning

- 1 What was significant about the nuclear accident at Three Mile Island?
- 2 What happened at Chernobyl?
- 3 What are the negative long-term consequences of nuclear accidents?
- 4 Why is it hard to count the number of victims in a nuclear accident?

# Nuclear weapons testing

In addition to serious accidents at nuclear power plants, damaging radiation was also being released on the environment with the development and testing of nuclear weapons. The first test of a nuclear weapon came within a month of its use in World War II. On 16 July 1945, the United States tested a nuclear weapon in New Mexico. The test released radioactive material into the atmosphere. Weapons were also tested above ground in Nevada during the 1950s, and became a tourist attraction when the mushroom cloud became visible from Las Vegas hotels.



**Source 32** A view of the 'Baker' atomic bomb explosion at Bikini Atoll on 25 July 1946

As the Soviet Union, Britain, France and later China, India and Pakistan acquired nuclear weapons, testing increased. The United States conducted tests in the Marshall Islands, in the Pacific, between 1946 and 1958. This included the testing of the first hydrogen bomb on Bikini Atoll in 1954. Its blast was more powerful than expected, contaminating the entire area. The residents were moved and, in 1956, the Marshall Islands were declared the most contaminated place on Earth by the Atomic Energy Commission.

Britain tested its nuclear weapons in Australia. Weapons were exploded at the Monte Bello Islands just off the Western Australian coast, Christmas Island in the Central Pacific, and Maralinga in South Australia. The British broke assurances about the limit of the radiation released by the tests, and there is clear scientific evidence of radioactive material entering the food chain in Australia in the 1950s. Australian newspapers reported air-force pilots flying through the aftermath of the nuclear cloud to gather information.

The impact of nuclear testing in the South Pacific is still being felt. Nuclear contamination remains for an undetermined number of years. France continued to carry out above-ground testing in the Pacific until 1974, and China tested above ground until 1980. A ban on nuclear weapons testing was signed by most nuclear countries in 1996. India and Pakistan, neither of whom have signed the ban, last tested weapons in 1998. The most recent country to carry out a nuclear weapons test was North Korea in 2009.

# significant **individuals**

## Greenpeace



**Source 33** Activists from Greenpeace Africa place lookalike radioactive barrels on the beach in Cape Town, South Africa in 2012 to highlight the risks associated with nuclear power.

### Early beginnings

The formation of Greenpeace as an environment activist group, by Bob Hunter and friends, reflects the events and emerging environmental concerns of the 20th century. In the late 1960s, the United States government was conducting nuclear weapons testing below ground at Amchitka Island, off the coast of Alaska.

A group of concerned citizens called the 'Don't Make a Wave Committee' decided to try to stop what they regarded as a particularly dangerous event. In 1971, they organised a fundraising concert in Vancouver to raise the money needed to hire a ship and sail into the testing zone, in order to stop the testing. The United States Navy forced them to turn back, but the publicity and public exposure of the dangers of the weapons testing meant that this was the last weapon tested at Amchitka.

This became the model for the next wave of environment activism. Volunteers took direct action to focus public attention on key issues. The ensuing publicity became a powerful weapon in forcing governments to change their policies.

### The formation of Greenpeace

Since 1971, Greenpeace, as the organisation became known, has mounted a wide range of campaigns. From humble beginnings, it has now become an international organisation. Since its formation, Greenpeace has successfully campaigned against many environmental abuses, including French testing of nuclear weapons in the Pacific, whaling, mining in the Antarctic and the illegal dumping of nuclear waste.

## Sinking of the *Rainbow Warrior*



**Source 34** The Greenpeace boat the *Rainbow Warrior* after it had been bombed in Auckland Harbour

*Rainbow Warrior* was the name given to Greenpeace's flagship ship. In July 1985, *Rainbow Warrior* was berthed in Auckland Harbour on its way to another protest against French nuclear testing at Mururoa Atoll in the South Pacific. Greenpeace had been sailing into the French nuclear testing zone since 1972, and had embarrassed the French government by exposing the massive environmental degradation the tests had caused in the region.

France's reputation in the Pacific was suffering as protests increased against their nuclear tests. French Intelligence developed a plan to prevent the *Rainbow Warrior* reaching Mururoa Atoll. On 10 July 1985, an explosion rocked the *Rainbow Warrior*. It was designed to blow a hole in the ship and start it sinking, giving people on board time to leave. A second explosion was triggered to complete the sinking. A Greenpeace cameraman, Fernando Pereira, had gone back into his quarters to retrieve camera gear when the second explosion occurred. He was killed instantly.

Investigations in New Zealand ultimately revealed the involvement of the French secret agents Alain Mafart and Dominique Prieur. They were arrested and jailed but were later released into French custody, after France had instigated an economic boycott of New Zealand.



Source 35 The *Rainbow Warrior* memorial at Matauri Bay, New Zealand

Many have called the sinking of the protest vessel and the murder of a person on board in the harbour of an ally an act of terrorism. It was designed to deflect attention away from France's nuclear testing in the Pacific. Instead, it highlighted the narrow self-interest governments acted with, and further consolidated a determination to achieve change in many ordinary citizens across the world.

In 2011, Greenpeace celebrated its 40th anniversary. It remains one of the most significant environment activist groups, with branches in 40 countries around the world. On the official Greenpeace website, they describe themselves as, 'ordinary people willing to do extraordinary things to protect the environment'. They also acknowledge that after forty years of activism, 'there is still a lot to do'.

## Check your learning

- 1 Why was Greenpeace established?
- 2 What sort of activities have Greenpeace protested against?
- 3 Where was the *Rainbow Warrior* headed before it was sunk?
- 4 Who sank the *Rainbow Warrior*?

# Oil spills

Fossil fuels (oil, coal and natural gas) have been the most important fuels of the 20th century. Oil, in particular, has underpinned a transport revolution that took the world from steam trains to space shuttles in less than a century. The world has developed an ever expanding appetite for oil, while at the same time coming to terms with the fact that it is a finite resource.

Oil is transported by ship in massive quantities to supply the needs of industry around the world. But this bulk shipping of oil carries serious environmental risks. When spilt, oil can have devastating effects on both flora and fauna.

In 1907, the *Thomas W. Lawson*, a steel hulled schooner, was sunk in a storm off the Scilly Isles. The ship was carrying 8.5 million litres of paraffin oil from the United States. This became the first major oil spill in history. Since then, there have been many oil spills on sea and land, with the same result always guaranteed; severe environmental impacts.

## The *Exxon Valdez* oil spill



**Source 36** Recovery crews collecting dead sea otters along Green Island, Alaska, following the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill. The oil spill had a devastating effect on local wildlife.

On 24 March 1989, the American oil tanker the *Exxon Valdez* struck a reef off the Alaskan coast. Although the actual figure is still disputed, it is estimated that around 41.6 million litres of oil spilt into the pristine waters surrounding Prince William Sound. It had a major impact on the environment.

A wide range of wildlife populations including seabirds, otters, seals, eagles and orcas were all devastated. Long-term monitoring of the area has indicated that some species have still not fully recovered, 30 years later.

The *Exxon Valdez* oil spill sparked concern about the dangers of transporting oil by sea. As an example of the political activism the spill stimulated, in 1990, Australian band Midnight Oil performed an impromptu concert in front of Exxon's New York offices under the banner, 'Midnight Oil makes you dance, Exxon Oil makes you sick'.

## The *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill



Source 37 Graffiti art in Louisiana in response to the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill expresses the devastating effects the spill had on the local community.

Oil is such a valuable commodity that wars have been fought over it, and exploration for new sources is ongoing. Oil companies are now drilling in locations that would have been considered too dangerous or unprofitable only a few years ago. Drilling for oil has moved from land sites to drilling platforms in the middle of the ocean, drilling down beneath the ocean bed (the *Deepwater Horizon* drilling platform, for example, could drill in waters 2400 metres deep and 9100 metres down beneath the seabed). Deep sea oil drilling has become profitable as demand for crude oil continues to increase.

The increased risks associated with deep sea oil drilling mean that when accidents (such as leaks) take place, they are difficult and dangerous to stop, placing pristine marine environments and local industries at serious risk of destruction. One such accident took place at BP's *Deepwater Horizon* drilling site in the Gulf of Mexico (off the coast of Louisiana) on 20 April 2010.

The *Deepwater Horizon* spill became the largest accidental marine oil spill in history, releasing about 4.9 million barrels (roughly equivalent to 776 million litres) of crude oil into the Gulf of Mexico. Similar to the *Exxon Valdez* tanker accident in 1989, the impact on the environment was horrific. There were delays as experts attempted to devise strategies that could cope with environmental damage on such a massive scale.

In communities reliant almost exclusively on fishing and tourism for survival, the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill was catastrophic. Marine and wildlife habitats were destroyed as the oil spread through the area. In the American state of Louisiana alone, 510 kilometres of coastline were affected. Despite the clean-up, in July 2010, there were 790 kilometres of coastline across Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama and Florida still contaminated.

A variety of methods were employed to not only stop the oil leak but also clean up what was spilled. It took until September 2010 – around 5 months – for the well to be completely capped. In the meantime, skimmers, booms and chemical dispersants were all used to try and clean up the mess. By June, BP had set up a compensation fund worth US \$20 billion. A US government inquiry concluded, in early 2011, that the accident was a result of cost cutting by various companies involved in the building and running of the well.

## Check your learning

- 1 What was the *Exxon Valdez*?
- 2 List the wildlife most affected by the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill.
- 3 How much did BP put aside to compensate victims of the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill?
- 4 How many kilometres of coastline were affected by the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill?

## Critical events and campaigns in Australia

Throughout the latter part of the 20th century, Australia was witness to a number of significant events and campaigns that focused the spotlight on the seriousness of environmental issues. International events highlighted the need for Australians to become more aware of the risks facing their own environment. Although the Australian public made it clear that nuclear power generation was not welcome on our shores, the generation of cheap power in Tasmania would become a major political issue in the 1970s and 1980s. The mining of uranium for the nuclear industry was also a controversial topic, and people power helped end Australia's involvement in the whaling industry.

### Lake Pedder



**Source 38** Lake Pedder protests were the start of a continued campaign to save Australia's natural environment.

The south-western area of Tasmania is a region of rare natural beauty. It is so significant that in 1982, UNESCO added over one million hectares of the region to the register of World Heritage sites.

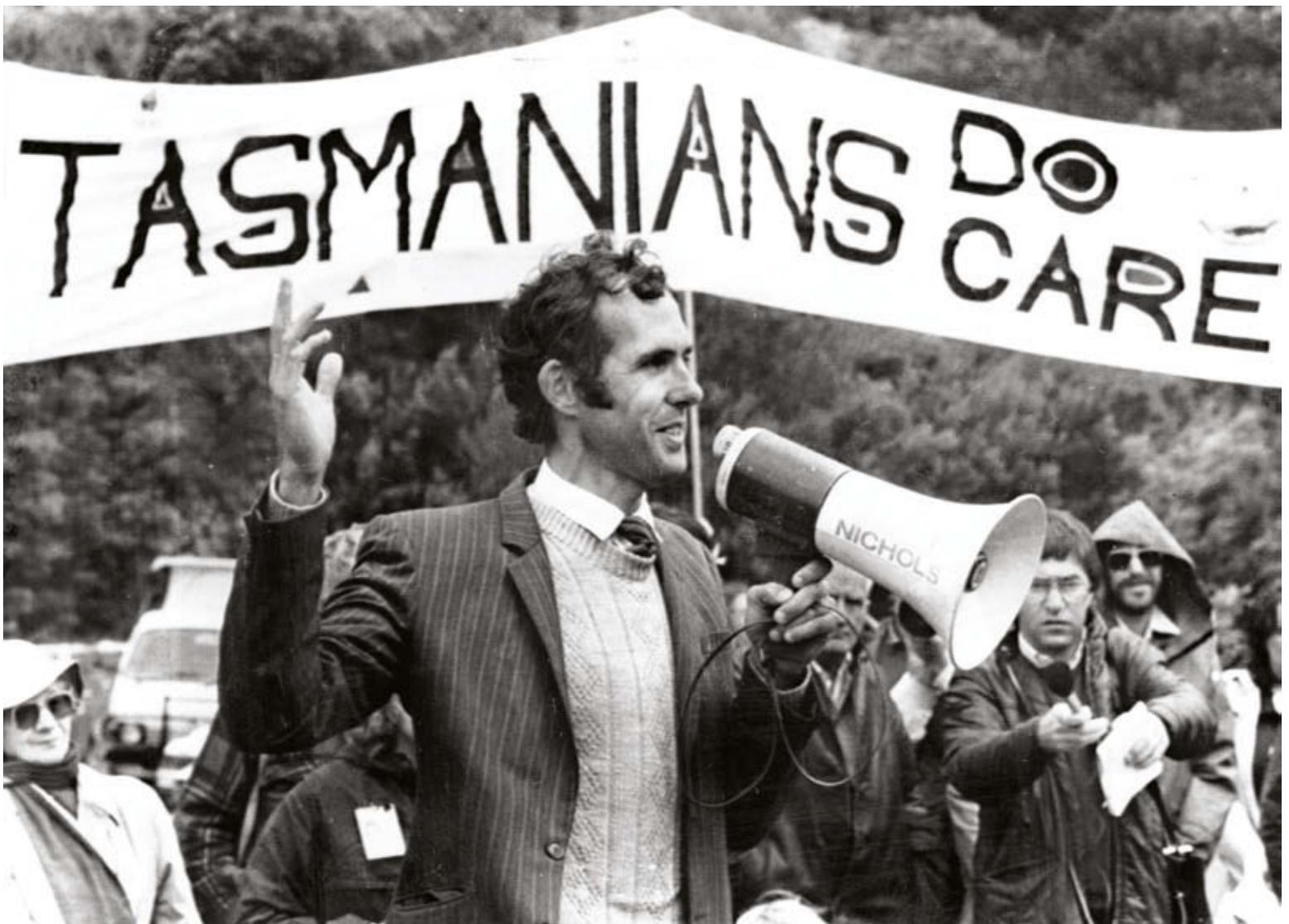
The area around Lake Pedder had been turned into a National Park in 1955 but, in 1967, the Tasmanian government revoked the national park listing so that they could dam the lake. The damming was regarded as necessary because Tasmania planned to attract industry to the island with the lure of cheap, renewable electricity. South-west Tasmania was to be dammed by the Hydro Electric Commission (HEC) to provide that cheap electricity.

There was a close alliance between the government and the HEC that dismissed opposition to the planning. Opposition to the proposal became widespread as awareness of the ecological significance of the region started to grow. Advocates came from around the world to see such unique features as the pink quartzite beach and demand recognition of the precious nature of the region.

The then Tasmanian premier, Eric Reece, and HEC commissioner, Allan Knight, proved completely immovable and dismissed any environmental issues. The damming took place in 1972, and the original Lake Pedder was completely submerged under a 24-square-kilometre man-made lake. The unique features of the original Lake Pedder were destroyed by the flooding and scientists believe three species were made extinct in the process – an earthworm, an invertebrate and a fish species.

Although the Lake Pedder campaign was a significant loss by the emerging environmental movement, it was a catalyst for further resistance. Proper political organisation developed to fight future plans for destruction of the south-western wilderness. In many ways, the loss of Lake Pedder paved the way for the formation of the modern Greens movement.

## The Franklin Dam



Source 38 Bob Brown leading protests against the Franklin Dam in the early 1980s

The Lake Pedder campaign had been a failure for the Tasmanian environment movement but they were determined to learn from that failure. When the Tasmanian Hydro Electricity Commission (HEC) announced plans to dam the Franklin River, in 1978, they assembled in opposition once more. The Tasmanian Wilderness Society was established as a protest group to campaign against plans for dams around Tasmania. They joined with the United Tasmania Party, the world's first Green party, and under the leadership of activist Bob Brown, together they emerged as a significant political force.

The proposed Franklin Dam would destroy even more of the pristine south-western wilderness. Tasmania already had 39 dams and 26 hydroelectricity stations in 1980. The area was being considered for listing as a World Heritage Area, so the proposal to build a dam while that process was underway was seen as particularly provocative.

The Tasmanian Labor government tried to negotiate compromises, but a referendum to give people the choice of voting for one of two dam locations or for no dam at all was changed so that people only had the option to vote for which dam location they preferred. The option to vote against the dam had been removed. Opponents were so outraged that 45 per cent of the Tasmanian electorate voted informally (incorrectly completed their ballot papers) as a protest. After the resignation of a couple of Labor MPs, Labor lost its majority and was replaced by a Liberal government that continued to try to implement the dam plan.

The Franklin Dam protesters were supported by a publicity campaign that made the events taking place in the south-west of Tasmania a national issue. Campaigners came from across the country to support a direct action campaign that would physically impede attempts to build the dam by forming a human blockade around the dam site. Arrests became common as a wide range of people decided that the Franklin Dam was the issue where they would make a stand.

In January 1983, Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser tried to negotiate a compromise by offering the Tasmanian Government \$500 million compensation for the loss of the dam. After Fraser called an election in February 1983, the Labor opposition led by Bob Hawke promised to stop the dam. Labor was elected to power and the Commonwealth government went to the High Court against the Tasmanian government in its attempt to stop the dam. It was the decision of the Australian High Court (by four votes to three) on 1 July 1983 that the federal government had the power to stop the dam that finally resolved the issue.

The Australian environment movement took a huge step forward in the Franklin Dam campaign. The lessons of Lake Pedder had been learned. The combination of political activism, non-violent direct action and massive publicity created a massive groundswell of support. For the first time in Australian politics, the environment had been a major political issue. Green power had arrived.

## Jabiluka



Source 40 The Jabiluka mine protests in the late 1990s

Jabiluka is a uranium deposit in the Northern Territory. As uranium is a key ingredient in the nuclear industry, any mining of it has significant moral implications. Should a country that has decided to remain nuclear-free be supporting the expansion of the nuclear industry worldwide by selling uranium? The mining of uranium at Jabiluka was also controversial because the site was on land belonging to the Indigenous Mirrar people and bordered the Kakadu National Park.

Uranium was first discovered in the Northern Territory in the 1960s, and there was a move to mine it at the time of the 1983 federal election. The Hawke Government had made it clear it would resist the granting of export licences for uranium, so work on the lease stopped.

Interest in the project was rekindled in 1996, when the Howard Government was elected. In 1998, the Mirrar people called for volunteers to join a blockade to prevent the mine's development. Over 500 people were arrested as part of the blockade but Indigenous concerns were largely disregarded as preliminary work for the mine was undertaken.

A fall in the price of uranium, however, saw the mining project shelved. The Mirrar people have been given the right of veto on any future project, and have successfully campaigned for work to begin on restoring the site.

## Save the Whale



**Source 41** Since 2007, the issue of whale conservation has re-emerged in a new campaign called 'Save the Whales Again'.

During the 1970s, science and popular culture combined to create a movement against large-scale commercial whaling in countries such as Australia, Norway, Iceland and Japan. A combination of factors contributed to the establishment of the movement globally. Most important was new scientific evidence suggesting that whale populations worldwide were in rapid decline, but growing awareness about the close family relationships of whales, recordings of them communicating, and graphic footage showing the method of slaughter provided the necessary momentum to keep the movement going.

During the 1800s, commercial whaling was a huge industry in America, Europe and Britain's colonies, including Australia. Whales were hunted for their oil, which was used in oil lamps, soap, candles, perfume, pencils and crayons, leather-making, waterproofing and as a lubricant on machinery, and their bone, which was used in corsets.

Whaling was one of Australia's earliest export industries. For the first 40 years of the colony, whale oil and whale bone generated more income than land produce. Whaling stations spread from New South Wales to Tasmania and all the way across to Western Australia. Eventually, the demand for whale oil fell away as petroleum became increasingly available in the early 20th century.

At first whales were caught by whalers in small boats throwing handheld harpoons. As technology improved, cannon-launched exploding harpoons and faster ships meant that the whaling industry worldwide hunted many whale species almost to extinction.

Between 1952 and 1962, a whaling station operated on Moreton Island in Queensland, processing over 6000 humpback whales in that period. At the same time, over 1000 more were processed in a whaling station at Byron Bay in New South Wales.

Greenpeace started a major campaign in the 1970s to draw attention to the nature of the whaling industry. The formation of the activist group Project Jonah gave a specific focus to moves to ban whaling in Australia. In 1977, Australia still had a whaling station at Cheynes Beach in Western Australia. Through direct action and publicity campaigns, Project Jonah made whaling an important environmental issue in Australia.

Even Phoebe Fraser, daughter of the then Australian Prime Minister, Malcolm Fraser, promoted the cause when she wore a 'Save the Whale' badge during the 1977 federal election campaign. After Fraser won the election, he instigated an inquiry into the whaling industry. The inquiry recommended the end of whaling and a ban on the sale of all whale associated products in Australia. The success of the campaign was reflected in Australia's move from being a supporter of whaling to a major opponent in the deliberations of the International Whaling Commission.

### focus on...

---

## contestability: Sea Shepherd

The Sea Shepherd Conservation Society (originally called the Earth Force Society) was founded by Paul Watson in 1977. The organisation was formed as a result of Watson's frustrations with Greenpeace – of whom he was an influential early member. Watson parted ways with Greenpeace because he disagreed with them on tactics and felt that they weren't taking an active enough role in protecting marine life. Sea Shepherd has always promoted a direct action agenda, particularly targeting whaling, over-fishing and seal culls as its core activities.

By 1978, the Earth Force Society had gained funding for its first vessel, the *Sea Shepherd*, and in 1979, started campaigning against the Canadian seal hunt. In that same year, the *Sea Shepherd* vessel rammed its first whaling ship. This strategy of direct engagement, which involves other controversial and provocative tactics such as boarding whaling ships, disabling vessels, and destroying nets, has become their signature.



Source 41 The Japanese whaling fleet vessel *Yushin Maru* No 3 clashes with Sea Shepherd activists.

The Sea Shepherd Conservation Society has gone on to cause great controversy. It has been involved in violent confrontations with sealers and whalers that have seen it accused of 'eco-terrorism'. Greenpeace has been a vocal critic of the activities of Sea Shepherd, accusing it of alienating the mainstream support necessary to achieve lasting change on environmental matters.

While countries like Australia were scaling back or ending whaling, Japan continued to protect its whaling industry. In the 1980s, the Japanese issued themselves licences to hunt whales for 'scientific purposes', despite increasing opposition. The then Australian Minister for the Environment, Peter Garrett, summarised Australia's opposition to 'scientific whaling' in 2008, when he stated, 'you do not have to kill a whale in the Southern Ocean to gain a deeper understanding of it'. Japan's history of exploiting whales and continued refusal to meet international obligations on whaling has made it the target of many Sea Shepherd campaigns.

Sea Shepherd advocates direct action to confront 'illegal activities on the high seas'. They point to the success they have had in focusing media and public attention on activities that threaten the sustainability of marine life as justification for their direct action approach.

When the 2012 Japanese whale hunt returned from Antarctic waters with less than one-third of their expected catch, they blamed sabotage campaigns by activists such as Sea Shepherd. Activists had used tactics such as hurling stink bombs at the whalers and using ropes to tangle their propellers. Sea Shepherd claimed the drastic cut in the harpooners' haul was a victory.

Captain Paul Watson said, 'It's been a very successful campaign for us. We chased them for three months, 17 000 miles (27 000 kilometres). They really didn't have much time to catch whales in all that time.' Sea Shepherd also vowed to continue the campaign if the Japanese returned to southern waters in the future.

---

## Check your learning

- 1 What did the Tasmanian government do to Lake Pedder in 1967?
- 2 In what year did whaling eventually end in Australia?
- 3 Why was the Tasmanian Wilderness Society established?
- 4 Who are the traditional owners of the land where the Jabiluka mine is located?

## 3 How did events and campaigns contribute to the growth of the environment movement in Australia and overseas?

### Remember

- 1 What was the issue that led to the formation of Greenpeace?
- 2 How many barrels of oil did the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill release into the Gulf of Mexico?
- 3 Name the world's first Green party.
- 4 What stopped the development of the Jabiluka uranium mine?

### Understand

- 5 Why do you think environmental groups became more active from the 1970s onwards?
- 6 What effects did the Chernobyl nuclear disaster have on the rest of the world?
- 7 Many groups object to the name Lake Pedder being used for the new body of water that was created by the damming and want to see the original lake restored. Do you believe that the new lake should have retained the name Lake Pedder? Why/why not?

### Apply

- 8 Research one of the environmental groups mentioned in this section. Do you think it has made a lasting contribution to the environment? What evidence can you produce to support your position?
- 9 Should Australia export uranium? Give reasons for your answer.

### Analyse

- 10 Why do environment groups consider it important to protect whale populations?

### Evaluate

- 11 Compare the different approaches of Greenpeace and Sea Shepherd to protecting the environment. Do you think one approach is more morally correct than the other? Is one more successful than the other? Discuss your answers with the class.
- 12 Conduct some research and compile a list of arguments for and against having Green political parties in Australia. Then, as a class, debate whether we need Green political parties in our society.
- 13 There are two very different views on the activities and tactics of Sea Shepherd. Build a list of arguments to support the idea that the group are 'activists' and another to support the idea that they are eco-terrorists. Which argument do you find more convincing? Why?

### Create

- 14 The world moved from steam trains to the space shuttle during the 20th century. Create a display that portrays what you regard as the most significant moments in that transport revolution. Justify your choices, and investigate the role oil played in each of these innovations.
- 15 Develop a song, film, short story, magazine article or blog entry that conveys your thoughts on an environmental issue that matters to you.

# 4 How have governments and international organisations responded to environmental threats?



Source 43 Climate change activists protest on the final day of the UN climate summit in Copenhagen, Denmark.

*As the environment movement grew in size and influence, it was able to lobby governments to bring about change. This led to Green activists moving into the political arena. The end of the 20th century saw a growth in Green parties that placed the environment at the centre of their political platforms. Mainstream parties have been less keen to put the environment first, and continue to juggle the needs of the environment with the needs of business and the economy.*

*Environmental issues often cross national borders, and the beginning of the 21st century has seen widespread recognition that the environment is a global concern. This has led to some international responses to environmental protection. The United Nations has played an active role in protecting important natural sites with its World Heritage listings and has most recently attempted to coordinate a global response to climate change.*

# Australian government responses

## The first minister for the environment

In 1971, Liberal Prime Minister William McMahon appointed Australia's first environment minister, Peter Howson. McMahon created the Department of the Environment, Aborigines and the Arts. During his time in office, Howson made a number of derogatory comments about his portfolio, and regularly joked about being 'minister for trees'.

Unsurprisingly, very little was achieved in Howson's time as minister but the creation of the Department of the Environment, Aborigines and the Arts did reflect broader changes that were occurring in Australia and acknowledged that the Australian public were starting to consider environmental issues.

## From Whitlam to Howard

When a Labor government came to power in December 1972, newly elected Prime Minister Gough Whitlam appointed Moss Cass as Minister for the Environment and Conservation. By allowing his minister to focus completely on environmental issues, Whitlam gave much greater importance to environmental issues.



Source 44 Senior Economic Adviser to the UN Environment program with Dr Moss Cass

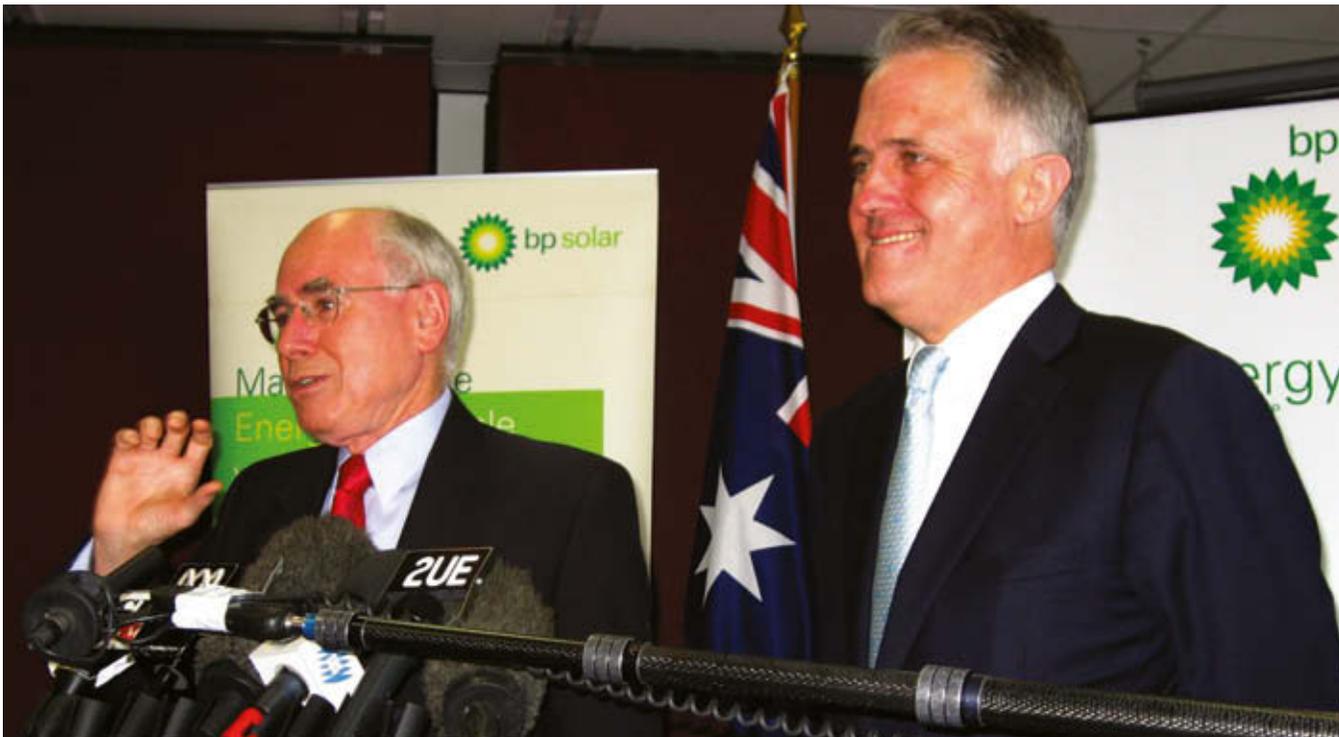
Although Cass was unable to prevent the flooding of Lake Pedder, he did recommend ending sand mining on Fraser Island, off the Queensland coast, and helped protect and preserve the Great Barrier Reef. His actions ensured that two significant natural attractions are still available for the current and future generations of Australians to visit. Cass went on to work in environmental areas after his retirement from parliament in 1983.

A Liberal government under Malcolm Fraser replaced Whitlam's in 1975 and built on some of Moss Cass' achievements. They implemented the recommendation to end sand mining on Fraser Island and prohibited oil exploration and drilling on the Great Barrier Reef. Fraser also banned whaling and trading in endangered species.

Despite these environmental victories, the Fraser Government also allowed the development of limited uranium mining in the Northern Territory, and Fraser's conviction about states' rights meant that he refused to intervene meaningfully in the Franklin Dam issue.

When Bob Hawke became the prime minister in 1983, he brought with him a clear understanding of the importance of environmental issues. At least in part, he owed his election to a promise to stop the Franklin Dam in Tasmania. He used legislation and the courts to ensure the Franklin was saved. He also introduced the World Heritage Properties Conservation Act 1983 to give the Commonwealth government responsibility for World Heritage areas across Australia. This gave the federal government power over state governments when it came to heritage areas. It was a powerful tool for the federal government in battles with pro-development state governments like the Bjelke-Petersen Government in Queensland in the 1980s. He also prioritised the selection of Kakadu National Park as a World Heritage site. His successor, Paul Keating, ratified an act to protect Antarctica's environment.

## The Howard years



Source 45 Prime Minister John Howard and Environment Minister Malcolm Turnbull in 2007 announce their new national Clean Energy Target

In 1996, a Liberal government under Prime Minister John Howard was elected. Over its time in office (1996–2007), Howard established a reputation for conservatism on environmental matters. He supported increased levels of uranium mining and refused to sign the Kyoto Protocol to act against climate change. Howard did, however, introduce the Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999. It was the centrepiece of Howard's environmental legislation. The Act outlined the following aims:

- provide for the protection of the environment, especially matters of national environmental significance
- conserve Australia's biodiversity
- protect biodiversity internationally by controlling the international movement of wildlife
- provide a streamlined environmental assessment and approvals process where matters of national environmental significance are involved
- protect our world and national heritage
- promote ecologically sustainable development.

In achieving these aims, it ensured that the Howard government was keeping step with the major demands of the environment movement. The biggest stumbling block to environmental progress under Howard was his own often repeated refusal to compromise on Australia's economic development. For Howard, this was always the priority, and meant that environmental matters could only be considered if they didn't compromise economic development.

## Climate change policies and the 21st century

While leader of the opposition in 2007, Kevin Rudd commissioned a study by Professor Ross Garnaut into the impact of climate change on the Australian economy. It was recognition that environmental decisions were becoming more pressing. The link between climate change and the economy was controversial and the Garnaut Climate Change Review was an attempt to actually examine the evidence.



**Source 46** Professor Ross Garnaut presents his landmark final climate change report, June 2011.

By the time the report was delivered, in 2008, Rudd was prime minister. The basis of the report was that Australia should commit to reducing greenhouse gases, and implement an emissions trading scheme. It was suggested that this scheme should require major polluters to pay for the emissions they were producing. Garnaut also found that the Australian economy could manage the cost of adjusting to dealing with climate change and, perhaps most crucially, that the cost of doing nothing would be higher than any action.

A separate report, the 2009 *Outlook Report into the future of the Great Barrier Reef*, concluded that the long term outlook for the reef was poor due to the impacts of climate change. This gave another reason for taking action.

The Gillard Government introduced carbon pricing legislation into parliament in 2011. The legislation placed a price (or tax) on carbon emissions. The Leader of the Opposition, Tony Abbott, opposed the tax and it became a divisive political issue. Abbott's view has been that Australia should not act on its own because it risks losing jobs to overseas countries that don't place a price on carbon.

Carbon pricing came into effect in July 2012. The idea behind it is that polluters will pay a price for the amount of carbon they release into the atmosphere. This cost will initially be set at AUD \$23 per tonne, and will gradually be increased until 2015, when the tax will shift to being a trading scheme that will let the market set the cost. Abbott has pledged to revoke the tax if he comes to power.

Other issues involving climate change and the development and exploitation of resources ensure that the environment will stay at the forefront of political debate in the 21st century.

## Check your learning

- 1 Who was Australia's first Minister for the Environment, Aborigines and the Arts and how did he refer to his position?
- 2 What were the Hawke Government's main environmental achievements?
- 3 Why did the Howard Government introduce the Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act?
- 4 What were the main findings of the Garnaut Climate Change Review and the subsequent reports that were released?

## International responses

In a similar way to the Australian context, environmental issues have slowly risen to prominence in countries and governments around the world. Environmental issues have become an international concern. Established political parties have often been reluctant to embrace environmental concerns, preferring not to damage strong historical links with influential and wealthy industrial sectors such as the mining, oil and car industries. New political parties, such as Green parties, have emerged, however, to challenge these values.

### Growth in Green politics



**Source 47** Green politics has been on the rise since the 1970s. The Green Party in Australia (above) and Chairwoman Claudia Roth at the Green Party convention in Germany, 2011 (below)

Green politics has gradually made an impact on the international political scene. Green political parties put a high importance on environmental goals and support policies for an ecologically sustainable society.

Western Europe has been a major centre of green politics. Germany's Green party (Bündnis 90/Die Grünen) has been particularly successful and was part of a governing coalition between 1998 and 2005. Today Green participation in various levels of government throughout Europe has become a regular part of political life.

A similar trend can be seen in this part of the world. In Australia, the Australian Greens now hold seats in both the Senate and the House of Representatives. In New Zealand, the Green Party of Aotearoa, gained 14 seats in parliament at the last election.

### New Zealand's anti-nuclear policy



**Source 48** Prime Minister David Lange was instrumental in creating a nuclear-free New Zealand

New Zealand's Prime Minister David Lange made international news in 1984, when he barred nuclear-powered or armed ships from entering New Zealand's waters. Lange effectively created a nuclear-free zone around New Zealand that became enshrined in legislation in 1987.

The decision was rooted in New Zealand's vulnerability as a Pacific island nation to environmental damage while risky nuclear tests continued to be carried out by Britain, France and the United States in the region. The ongoing French testing on Mururoa Atoll caused widespread resentment in New Zealand. France was never able to explain why, if nuclear testing was as safe as it maintained, the tests weren't carried out in mainland Europe. New Zealand became the champion of the French South Pacific territories in the South Pacific.

One implication of banning nuclear vessels and weapons was the fact that the United States freed itself from any mutual obligations under the ANZUS Treaty. The *Rainbow Warrior* affair in 1985, discussed earlier, hardened New Zealand attitudes, particularly against the French. The United States' refusal to condemn the bombing further alienated New Zealanders. The formalisation of the anti-nuclear stance into legislation in 1987 was extremely popular with the New Zealand people. It confirmed their independent foreign policy and refusal to blindly follow the foreign policy agendas of other countries.

## Check your learning

- 1 Which country had a Green political party as part of a governing coalition between 1998 and 2005?
- 2 Which New Zealand Prime Minister introduced their nuclear-free policy?

# Global initiatives

## World Heritage listings

The United Nations and its associated bodies have been responsible for many international environmental initiatives. The role of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) through its World Heritage listings has raised the status of many national parks and other special natural areas to international importance, worthy of preservation for future generations.

## United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

In 1992, member countries of the United Nations met at a conference, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, to agree on an international treaty for the environment. The aim of the conference was to encourage members to cooperatively consider what they could do to limit average global temperature increases and restrict the effects of climate change. It was also to consider the potential impacts of climate change.

By 1995, countries realised that emission reduction provisions agreed at the convention were inadequate. They launched negotiations to strengthen the global response to climate change and, two years later, adopted the Kyoto Protocol.



Source 49 Delegates from all over the world came together in Kyoto to look at ways to limit climate change.

## Kyoto

The signing of the Kyoto Protocol became a major political issue in Australia during the 2000s. The protocol was developed at the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in 1997, in Kyoto, Japan. It was an international meeting to develop an environmental treaty that would attempt to limit the continuing production of greenhouse gases. It was argued that these greenhouse gases were damaging the ozone layer that surrounded the Earth and contributing to global warming.

The main goal of the protocol was for signatory nations to commit themselves to reducing greenhouse gas emissions by 5.2 per cent from 1990 levels. Arguments highlighted the tension between unrestricted economic development and environmental protection. While Kyoto allowed a number of flexible approaches, the Howard Government refused to sign the protocol, consistently arguing that it would not reduce greenhouse gas emissions at the risk of compromising economic growth. The Howard Government lost the 2007 election, and it is thought that this reluctance to sign the Kyoto Protocol was a contributing factor in their defeat.

Signing the protocol became one of the first actions of the Labor Rudd Government after they won power in November 2007. The United States remains the only major country to refuse to sign the protocol.

## Copenhagen

Twelve years after Kyoto, in 2009, a United Nations Climate Change Conference was held in the city of Copenhagen, Denmark. It is often referred to as the Copenhagen summit. The major aim of the summit was to develop a plan for action on climate change beyond 2012.

Copenhagen reflected all the challenges involved in dealing with environmental issues at a global level. Countries find it very difficult to move beyond their own narrow interests. Disputes about the validity of scientific evidence give governments an excuse to do very little.

After reports that the summit was in disarray, a Copenhagen Accord was drafted by the United States, China, India, Brazil and South Africa. The accord was never officially adopted but was taken note of. It simply recognised that climate change was one of the greatest challenges of the present day and that actions should be taken to keep any temperature increases to below 2° Celsius. The document did not make any legally binding commitments for reducing carbon dioxide emissions.

As a way forward for the world, it provided very little positive action. Despite the fact that climate change and global warming continue to dominate headlines around the world, very little has been achieved at a global level to guarantee a healthy planet for future generations.

## Check your learning

- 1 When was the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in Kyoto held and what was the conference hoping to achieve?
- 2 Which countries drafted the Copenhagen Accord and what was the major limit of the accord?

## 4 How have governments and international organisations responded to environmental threats?

### Remember

- 1 Which organisation is responsible for World Heritage listings and why is a place chosen for heritage listing?
- 2 Which environmental issue did then Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser refuse to intervene in? Why did he make this decision?
- 3 What was the Howard Government's priority in environmental policy?
- 4 Which prime minister introduced the carbon pricing scheme and when?

### Understand

- 5 How do you think the anti-nuclear policy of New Zealand helped it in defining itself as an independent nation?
- 6 What do you think motivated William McMahon to create the position of Minister for the Environment, Aborigines and the Arts?
- 7 Should the government use outside experts, such as Ross Garnaut, to report on major issues, such as climate change, before making a decision? Give reasons for your answer.

### Apply

- 9 Find out about the follow-up meeting to the 2009 Copenhagen conference that took place in Cancun, Mexico, in 2010. What did it achieve and do you think it was more successful?
- 10 Use the Internet to find out about the potential risks to the Great Barrier Reef if the climate gets warmer. Describe the long-term outlook for the Great Barrier Reef.

### Analyse

- 11 In your opinion, was the 2009 Copenhagen conference a success in reaching an agreement to limit climate change?
- 12 Do some research on carbon emissions trading as a way to tackle climate change. As a class, discuss the arguments for and against the introduction of an emissions trading scheme.

### Evaluate

- 13 Use this chapter and conduct your own research to compile a fact file on a range of Australian ministers for the environment. Overall, how effective do you think their contributions have been? Support your position with examples from your research.

### Create

- 14 Do you think your views and opinions on a range of environment issues have been considered by politicians? Draft two separate emails – one to the Prime Minister and another to the Leader of the Opposition – outlining the direction you think Australian environmental policies should take. Pick out one issue that you believe is of particular importance and argue your case for why you believe it is essential for the government to act on this issue.
- 15 Create a folio of evidence that shows a range of projects that have taken place in your local area over the past 50 years and how these have positively or negatively affected the environment. Based on your research, what do you think your area will look like in another 50 years? Why? Present your findings to the class as a PowerPoint or poster.

# acknowledgements

The author and the publisher wish to thank the following copyright holders for reproduction of their material.

Images: Chapter opener: Getty Images/Time Life Pictures/NASA; Source 1: Getty Images/ AFP, Getty Images/Time Life Pictures/Alfred Eisenstaedt, Corbis/dpa/Ho/Greenpeace/Robert Keziere/Fairfax, Getty Images/Gamma-Rapho via Getty Images, Getty Images/AFP/Saul Loeb; Source 2: Getty Images/Design Pics/John Short; Source 3: Iron Works, Coalbrookdale, engraved by William Pickett, c.1805 (coloured aquatint), Loutherboung, Philippe de (1740-1812) (after)/Private Collection/The Bridgeman Art Library; Source 4: Getty Images/C.A Ferrier; Source 7: Rhythmic Quietude at en.wikipedia, licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license; Source 8: Chateau Tongariro (colour litho), New Zealand School, (20th Century)/Museum of New Zealand Te Papa Tongarewa / Purchased 2001 / The Bridgeman Art Library; Source 9: Corbis; Source 10: Getty Images/CORDIER Sylvain; Source 11: Courtesy State Records NSW; Source 12: Alamy/Frances Roberts; Source 13: Getty Images/AFP/Saul Loeb; Source 14: Shutterstock.com/TonyV3112; Source 16: Shutterstock.com; Source 17: Getty Images/Bloomberg; Source 18: Corbis/Imaginechina; Source 20: Getty Images/Time Life Pictures/Alfred Eisenstaedt; Source 21: Courtesy Mother Earth News; Source 22: Getty Images/Michael Ochs Archives; Source 24: Shutterstock.com; Source 25 (left): Shutterstock.com; Source 25 (right): Newspix/Matthew Poon; Source 26: Getty Images/AFP; Source 27: Corbis/Bettmann; Source 28: Corbis/Mark Peterson; Source 29: Corbis/Sygma/Christian Simonpietri; Source 30: Corbis/Sygma/Igor Kostin; Source 31: Getty Images/Athit Perawongmetha; Source 32: Corbis/Bettmann; Source 33: Getty Images/Gallo Images/Foto24; Source 34: Getty Images/Patrick Riviere; Source 35: Getty Images/Paul Kay; Source 36: Getty Images/AFP; Source 37: Getty Images; Source 38: Newpax/Kim Eisele; Source 39: Newpax/Andrew de la Rue; Source 40: Newpax/Clive Hyde; Source 41: AAP Image/Icon Images, Peter Carrette; Source 42: AAP Image/AP Photo/Sea Shepherd, Billy Danger, File; Source 43: AAP Image/AP Photo/Polfoto, Jens Dige; Source 44: National Archives of Australia A6180/6; Source 45: AAP Image/Andrew Drummond; Source 46: AAP Image/Alan Porritt; Source 47 (left): Fairfax/Joe Castro; Source 47 (right): Corbis/dpa/Angelika Warmuth; Source 48: AAP Image/AFP Photo; Source 49: Getty Images/AFP

Every effort has been made to trace the original source of copyright material contained in this book. The publisher will be pleased to hear from copyright holders to rectify any errors or omissions.





Astronaut Edwin 'Buzz' Aldrin pictured walking on the Moon during the first lunar landing of the Apollo 11 space mission on 20 July 1969. Manned missions into space, such as Apollo 11, formed part of the Space Race during the Cold War. To this day, Apollo 11 is considered to be the most significant accomplishment in the history of space exploration.

– NASA

**OXFORD**  
**UNIVERSITY PRESS**  
AUSTRALIA & NEW ZEALAND

ISBN 978-0-19-557234-6



visit us at: [oup.com.au](http://oup.com.au) or  
contact customer service: [cs.au@oup.com](mailto:cs.au@oup.com)