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geography | history

10

WRITTEN TO THE FINAL AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM

mark easton | geraldine carrodus
tim delany | richard smith

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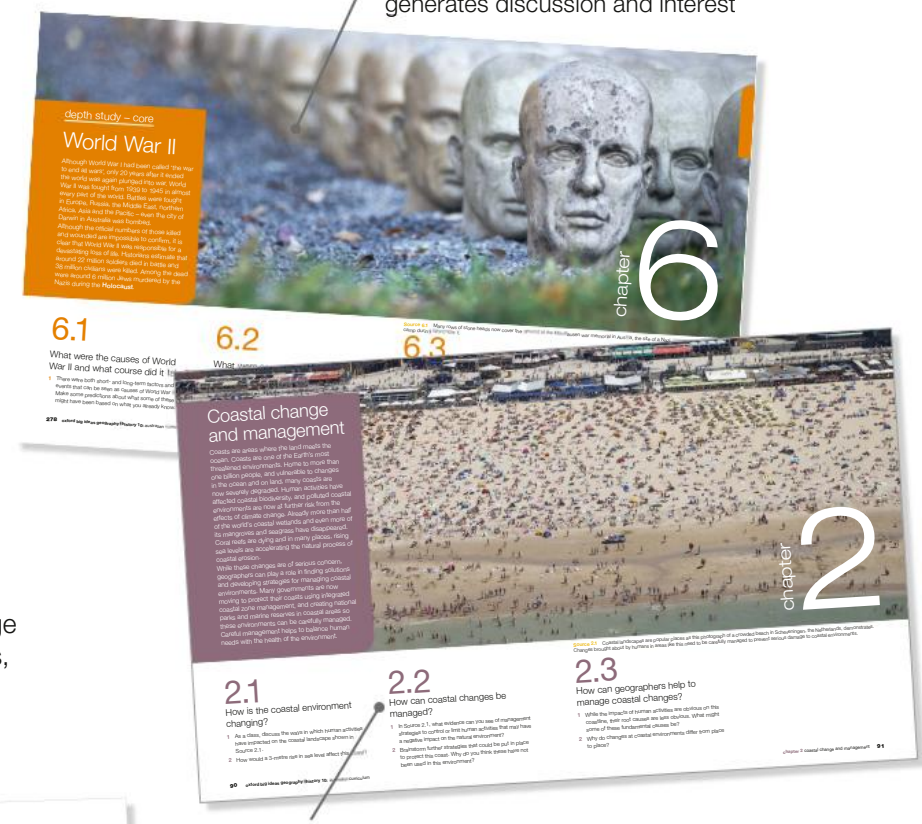
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Using Oxford Big Ideas Geography | History

Oxford Big Ideas Geography | History is a brand-new series developed and written to meet the requirements of both the *Australian Curriculum: Geography* and the *Australian Curriculum: History* across Years 7–10. Based on the big ideas framework, it follows an inquiry-based approach that encourages students to develop deep, transferable skills and understanding in Geography and History.

Big questions

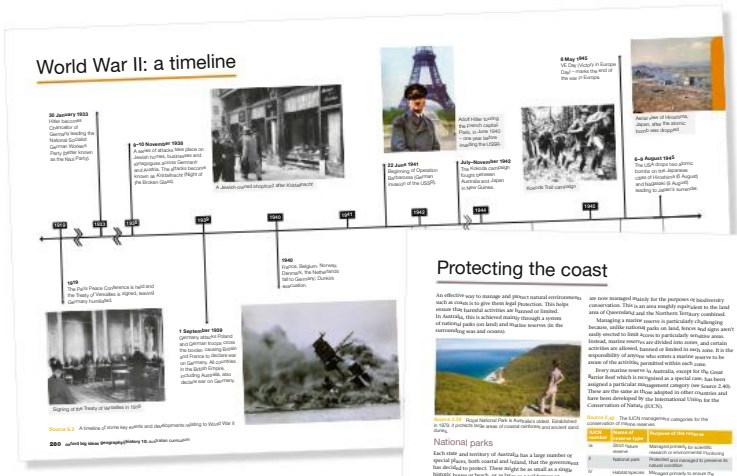
Each chapter of *Oxford Big Ideas Geography|History* is structured around key inquiry questions from the *Australian Curriculum: Geography* and the *Australian Curriculum: History* – supporting teachers and students as they implement an inquiry-based approach to Geography and History.

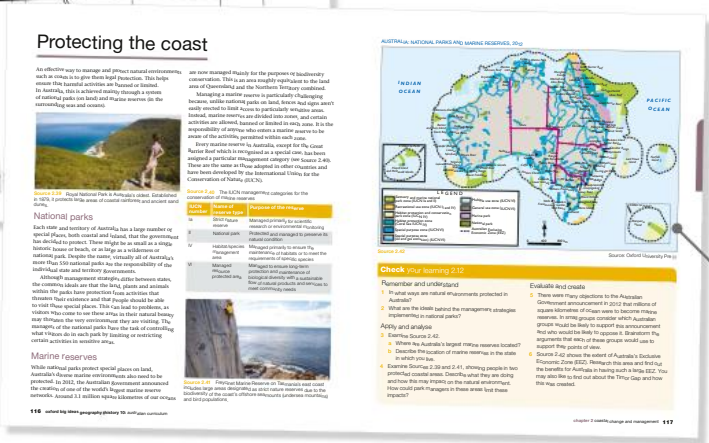


Stunning full-colour photography generates discussion and interest

Engaging learning

Each chapter of the student book combines a range of engaging source materials – maps, photographs, timelines, data tables, satellite imagery, graphs and illustrations – all with supporting questions and activities.





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

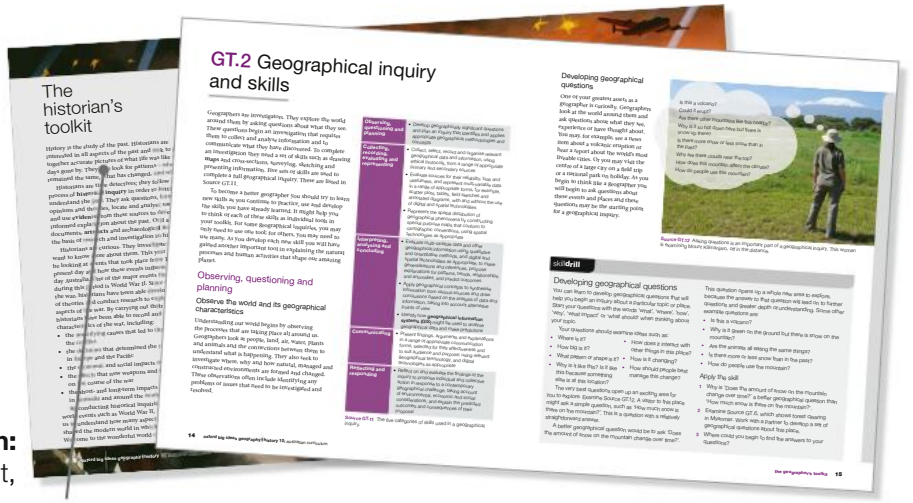
Stunning full-colour source materials inspire a sense of wonder about the world and encourage even the most reluctant learners to engage in geographical and historical inquiry.

Deep understanding

Geography and History syllabus content is covered in full and sequenced for depth of learning.

Focus on skills

The process of geographical and historical inquiry, including all key concepts and skills, is clearly outlined in two stand-alone reference sections – **The geographer's toolkit** and **The historian's toolkit**. These sections have been purpose-written to support the **Australian Curriculum: Geography** and the **Australian Curriculum: History**. It can be used flexibly as an introductory skills unit, or used for reference throughout the year.

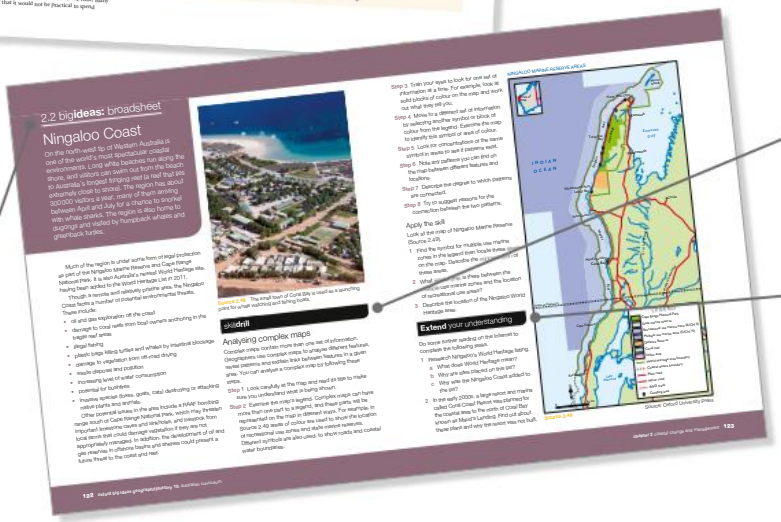


Every concept and skill required by students to take part in geographical and historical inquiries is introduced clearly and supported by question and activity blocks.



Key concepts are explicitly taught in both the geographer's toolkit and historian's toolkit, and are revisited throughout each chapter.

Check your learning question and activity blocks appear at regular intervals throughout each chapter, allowing students to consolidate and extend their understanding. These are graded according to Bloom's Taxonomy – catering for a range of abilities and learning styles.



Broadsheet activities (in Geography chapters) and **Rich task** activities (in History chapters) encourage students to apply the knowledge and skills they have learned in each chapter to a new and interesting case study, event or issue.

Skilldrill blocks support an explicit focus on geographical and historical skills.

Extend your understanding blocks present a challenge by asking students to conduct further research, or complete group work, to deepen their understanding on an issue being investigated.

Integrated teaching and learning support

obook assess

obook assess provides an interactive electronic version of the student book in an easy-to-read format. It features multimedia links, interactive learning objects, note-taking, highlighting and bookmarking tools and question blocks. **obook** compatible with laptops, iPads, tablets and IWBs, and also offers page view (in flipbook format) that can be used offline. **assess** provides 24/7 online assessment designed to support student progression and understanding.

obook assess TEACHER

Professional support is offered in digital format via **obook assess TEACHER**. Teaching strategies, additional worksheets, lesson ideas, planning tips, assessment advice and suggested solutions to all activities in the Student Book support the implementation of the Australian Curriculum and cater for ongoing professional development.

obook assess TEACHER also allows teachers to manage their classes by assigning work, tracking progress and planning assessment.

Australian Curriculum: Geography 10—Scope and sequence

	Level description and key inquiry questions
Level description	There are two units of study in Year 9: **Environmental change and management** and **Geographies of human wellbeing**. *Environmental change and management* focuses on investigating environmental geography through an in-depth study of a specific environment. The unit begins with an overview of the environmental functions that support all life, the major challenges to their sustainability, and the environmental worldviews - including those of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples – that influence how people perceive and respond to these challenges. Students investigate a specific type of environment and environmental change in Australia and one other country. They apply human-environment systems thinking to understand the causes and consequences of the change and geographical concepts and methods to evaluate and select strategies to manage the change. *Geographies of human wellbeing* focuses on investigating global, national and local differences in human wellbeing between places. This unit examines the different concepts and measures of human wellbeing, and the causes of global differences in these measures between countries. Students explore spatial differences in wellbeing within and between countries, and evaluate the differences from a variety of perspectives. They explore programs designed to reduce the gap between differences in wellbeing. These distinctive aspects of human wellbeing are investigated using studies drawn from Australia, India and across the world as appropriate.
Key inquiry questions	• How can the spatial variation between places and changes in environments be explained? • What management options exist for sustaining human and natural systems into the future? • How do worldviews influence decisions on how to manage environmental and social change?

	Geographical knowledge and understanding
Unit 1 – Environmental change and management	• How do worldviews influence decisions on how to manage environmental and social change? • The environmental worldviews of people and their implications for environmental management (ACHGK071) • The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples' approaches to custodial responsibility and environmental management in different regions of Australia (ACHGK072) **Select ONE of the following types of environment as the context for study: land, inland water, coast, marine or urban. A comparative study of examples selected from Australia and at least one other country should be included.** • The application of human-environment systems thinking to understanding the causes and likely consequences of the environmental change being investigated (ACHGK073) • The application of geographical concepts and methods to the management of the environmental change being investigated (ACHGK074) • The application of environmental economic and social criteria in evaluating management responses to the change (ACHGK075)
Unit 2 – Geographies of human wellbeing	• The different ways of measuring and mapping human wellbeing and development, and how these can be applied to measure differences between places (ACHGK076) • The reasons for spatial variations between countries in selected indicators of human wellbeing (ACHGK077) • The issues affecting the development of places and their impact on human wellbeing, drawing on a study from a developing country or region in Africa, South America or the Pacific Islands (ACHGK078) • The reasons for and consequences of spatial variations in human wellbeing on a regional scale within India or another country of the Asia region (ACHGK079) • The reasons for and consequences of spatial variations in human wellbeing in Australia at the local scale (ACHGK080) • The role of international and national government and non-government organisations' initiatives in improving human wellbeing in Australia and other countries (ACHGK081)

	Geographical inquiry and skills
Observing, questioning and planning	• Develop geographically significant questions and plan an inquiry that identifies and applies appropriate geographical methodologies and concepts (ACHGS072)
Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing	• Collect, select, record and organise relevant geographical data and information, using ethical protocols, from a range of appropriate primary and secondary sources (ACHGS073) • Evaluate sources for their reliability, bias and usefulness, and represent multi-variable data in a range of appropriate forms, for example, scatter plots, tables, field sketches and annotated diagrams, with and without the use of digital and spatial technologies (ACHGS074) • Represent the spatial distribution of geographical phenomena by constructing special purpose maps that conform to cartographic conventions, using spatial technologies as appropriate (ACHGS075)
Interpreting, analysing and concluding	• Evaluate multi-variable data and other geographical information using qualitative and quantitative methods, and digital and spatial technologies as appropriate, to make generalisations and inferences, propose explanations for patterns, trends, relationships and anomalies, and predict outcomes (ACHGS076) • Apply geographical concepts to synthesise information from various sources and draw conclusions based on the analysis of data and information, taking into account alternative points of view (ACHGS077) • Identify how geographical information systems (GIS) might be used to analyse geographical data and make predictions (ACHGS078)
Communicating	• Present findings, arguments and explanations in a range of appropriate communication forms, selected for their effectiveness and to suit audience and purpose; using relevant geographical terminology, and digital technologies as appropriate (ACHGS079)
Reflecting and responding	• Reflect on and evaluate the findings of the inquiry to propose individual and collective action in response to a contemporary geographical challenge, taking account of environmental, economic and social considerations; and explain the predicted outcomes and consequences of their proposal (ACHGS080)

Year 10 achievement standard

By the end of Year 10, students explain how the interaction between geographical processes at different scales change the characteristics of places. They predict changes in the characteristics of places and environments over time, across space and at different scales and explain the predicted consequences of change. Students identify, analyse and explain significant interconnections between people, places and environments and explain changes that result from these interconnections and their consequences. They propose explanations for distributions, patterns and spatial variations over time, across space and at different scales, and identify and describe significant associations between distribution patterns. They evaluate alternative views on a geographical challenge and alternative strategies to address this challenge using environmental, social and economic criteria and propose and justify a response.

Students use initial research to develop and modify geographically significant questions to frame an inquiry. They collect and critically evaluate a range of primary and secondary sources and select relevant geographical data and information to answer inquiry questions. Students accurately represent multi-variable data in a range of appropriate graphic forms, including special purpose maps that use a suitable scale and comply with cartographic conventions. They evaluate data to make generalisations and inferences, propose explanations for significant patterns, trends, relationships and anomalies, and predict outcomes. They synthesise data and information to draw reasoned conclusions, taking into account alternative points of view. Students present findings, arguments and explanations using relevant geographical terminology and graphic representations in a range of appropriate communication forms. They evaluate their findings and propose action in response to a contemporary geographical challenge taking account of environmental, economic and social considerations. They explain the predicted outcomes and consequences of their proposal.

Australian Curriculum: History 10—Scope and sequence

	Level description and key inquiry questions
Level description	**The modern world and Australia** 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 twentieth 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.
Key inquiry questions	• How did the nature of global conflict change during the twentieth century? • What were the consequences of World War II? How did these consequences shape the modern world? • How was Australian society affected by other significant global events and changes in this period?

	Historical knowledge and understanding
Overview	The following content is taught as part of an overview for the historical period. It is not intended to be taught in depth. An overview will constitute approximately 10% of the total teaching time for the year. Overview content identifies important features of the period (1918 to the present) as part of an expansive chronology that helps students understand broad patterns of historical change. As such, the overview provides the broader context for the teaching of depth study content and can be built into various parts of a teaching and learning program. This means that overview content can be used to give students an introduction to the historical period; to make the links to and between the depth studies, and to consolidate understanding through a review of the period. Overview content for the Modern World and Australia includes the following: • the inter-war years between World War I and World War II, including the Treaty of Versailles, the Roaring Twenties and the Great Depression • continuing efforts post-World War II to achieve lasting peace and security in the world, including Australia's involvement in UN peacekeeping • the major movements for rights and freedom in the world and the achievement of independence by former colonies • the nature of the Cold War and Australia's involvement in Cold War and post-Cold War conflicts (Korea, Vietnam, The Gulf Wars, Afghanistan), including the rising influence of Asian nations since the end of the Cold War • developments in technology, public health, longevity and standard of living during the twentieth century, and concern for the environment and sustainability
Depth studies	**The depth studies for this year level include:** **1 World War II** This depth study MUST be completed by all students • World War II (1939–45) **2 Rights and freedoms** This depth study MUST be completed by all students • Rights and freedoms (1945–the present) **3 The globalising world** Choose ONE of the following depth study options • Popular culture (1945–the present) • Migration experiences (1945–the present) • The environment movement (1945–the present)



	Historical inquiry and skills
Chronology, terms and concepts	• Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events and developments in different periods and places (ACHHS182) • Use historical terms and concepts (ACHHS183)
Historical questions and research	• Identify and select different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry (ACHHS184) • Evaluate and enhance these questions (ACHHS185) • Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods (ACHHS186)
Analysis and use of sources	• Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS187) • Process and synthesise information from a range of sources for use as evidence in an historical argument (ACHHS188) • Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS189)
Perspectives and interpretations	• Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past (ACHHS190) • Identify and analyse different historical interpretations (including their own) (ACHHS191)
Explanation and communication	• Develop texts, particularly descriptions and discussions that use evidence from a range of sources that are referenced (ACHHS192) • Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies (ACHHS193)

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 an 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.



oxford big ideas australian curriculum

geography 10



Environmental change and management

Geographies of human wellbeing

The geographer's toolkit

Geography is the study of the places that make up the world around us. Geographers are interested in how human activities and natural processes change the Earth's places, as well as the links between these places. More than ever before, geographers help other people understand how change affects people and places and how this change can be managed.

Geographers have a sense of wonder and curiosity about the world and this leads them to ask questions about what they see and experience. When looking at this photograph of Mount Kilimanjaro in Africa, for example, a geographer would ask questions like these:

- What process formed this mountain peak?
- How can there be snow so close to the equator?
- How does this mountain affect the surrounding region?
- Are Mount Kilimanjaro's glaciers becoming smaller or larger?
- Is this a hazardous place? Could this mountain erupt?
- What impact are people having on the forests and soils of this place?
- Why is the ground so dry?

Geographers use a range of key concepts and skills to answer such questions. Each of these concepts and skills is a tool that you can use to better understand your world. As you master each of these concepts and skills you will gradually fill your toolkit with a range of useful geographical tools. These will help you better understand this amazing planet.

Welcome to the wonderful world of geography!

GT.1

Concepts for developing geographical understanding

GT.2

Geographical inquiry and skills



Source GT.1 Mount Kilimanjaro, Africa's highest peak

GT.3
Fieldwork in geography

GT.4
Careers in geography

GT.1 Concepts for developing geographical understanding

Geographers use seven key concepts to help investigate and understand the world. These concepts provide a framework to thinking geographically and will help guide you through every geographic inquiry. At times you will use several of these concepts at once, while at other times you may focus on just one. The seven key concepts in geography are:

- place
- space
- environment
- interconnection
- sustainability
- scale
- change.

Place

A **place** is a part of the Earth's surface that is identified and given meaning by people. For example, the Serengeti – which is a vast ecosystem in Africa – is a place. It is famous for its enormous plains filled with a range of wildlife. Places aren't defined by size, however. They can be very large, like a whole continent, or small, like a corner of a library. Your home and school are important places for you, because they are places where you live and spend a lot of time.

Places can be natural (that is, shaped by the environment and largely unchanged by humans), or built (that is, constructed by humans). Each place is unique, with its own set of characteristics.

The life of every person and animal on Earth is influenced by place. Places determine our relationships with one another. Our closest relationships are likely to be with people in places that are physically near. The environmental and social qualities of a place all influence the way we live. Climate, landscapes, types of plants and resources, transport networks, entertainment venues and workplaces all have a major impact on our daily lives.

Geographers use the concept of place when they investigate what a place is like, and when they look for explanations for what they see. For example, a geographer visiting Namche Bazaar near Mount Everest (see Source GT.2) would be interested in the forces that have shaped these mountains.

They would look for clues and begin to ask questions, much like a detective. Why are the sides of the mountains so steep? Why are the highest mountain peaks in a line? Why are there stripes in the mountain peaks? By seeking answers to these questions the geographer is aiming to explain, not just describe, a place.



Source GT.2 The town of Namche Bazaar at the base of Mount Everest

Geographers use the concept of place when conducting any geographical inquiry. For example, a geographer visiting Namche Bazaar would use the concept of place to help understand why people choose to live in this challenging environment and how they overcome these challenges. They would also investigate the ways people have altered this environment, and assess the environmental and social impacts of these changes.

Space

To most people, **space** means the empty universe, but to a geographer it has a different meaning. Geographers use the key concept of space when investigating the way that things are arranged on the Earth's surface. They also investigate the ways people use and change the spaces in which they live.

Geographers look for patterns in the way features and structures are arranged, and the concept of space helps them to do this. It has three main elements:

- location – where things are located on the Earth's surface
- organisation – how and why things are arranged and managed on the Earth's surface by people
- spatial distribution – the shapes and patterns in which things are arranged on the Earth's surface.

At first, you may find you confuse the concepts of place and space, as people often use the words interchangeably. To a geographer, however, the concepts of place and space are quite separate. It may help you to remember that places can be divided and organised into spaces. Spaces also are assigned with different purposes.

For example, a place like your school is organised into different spaces, each with its own purpose. There are spaces for learning, spaces for sports and spaces to eat. Larger places, such as your suburb, town or city, are also organised into different spaces. There are spaces for housing, spaces for businesses, and spaces for sports and entertainment – all with their own function.

Understanding of the location, patterns and planning of spaces helps geographers to make sense of our world. Geographers would look at a photograph like this one of New York City (see Source GT.3) and might examine it by using the key concept of space in the following terms:

- location – they would observe that Manhattan Island is located in the mouth of the Hudson river and that land is limited. Clearly, there is an open space in the centre of the city. Geographers might identify that it has been designated as a space for recreation and enjoying nature. They may ask questions like, How big is the park? When was it established?
- organisation – they would conclude that there are many tall buildings in a confined area. Were the buildings constructed around a set perimeter, after the park was established? Are the buildings mainly used for business or housing purposes?
- spatial distribution – geographers may investigate how many buildings there are per square kilometre, how sparsely or densely they are situated from each other, and how sparsely or densely they are populated.

Further investigation would reveal that there is a complex network of bridges, ferries, subways and walkways that link the island to surrounding areas. In fact, Manhattan Island in New York is one of the most densely populated places on Earth, with more than 26 000 people living in every square kilometre! New Yorkers would perceive and use the space around them in quite a different way from someone living on a huge block in an outer suburban area.

Geographers also investigate the ways that people use and change the space in which they live. They recognise that different groups of people use space in different ways and that this changes over time. By examining, researching and describing how spaces are used, geographers can further our understanding of the world and help manage it into the future.



Source GT.3 Manhattan Island in New York is one of the most densely populated places on Earth.

Environment

You will have heard people talk about 'the **environment**' and probably studied aspects of the environment before. In geographical terms, the key concept of environment means the living and non-living components and elements that make up an area, and the ways they are organised into a system.

Geographers are interested in investigating and describing the relationships between people and the environment. In particular they examine:

- the ways in which different groups of people perceive and use the natural environment and why these perceptions differ
- the ways in which people change the environment and how these changes can be managed
- the impact of environmental hazards on people and how the impacts of these hazards can be reduced.

The world in which we live is made up of many different environments. Some environments are natural (or physical) such as deserts, **grasslands**, mountains, coral reefs, forests, oceans and ice caps. The natural environment provides us with basic resources for living such as food, water and clean air. Natural processes such as tectonic plate movement, **erosion** and weathering have formed these environments over millions of years. In order for an environment to be considered natural its soils, rocks, climate, plants and animals must remain largely untouched by humans. Today there are very few natural environments left on Earth. The Australian World Heritage listed Heard Island and McDonald Islands are an outstanding example of pristine natural environments with no introduced animals or plant species, and no human impact.

Other environments have been so changed by humans – largely for settlement and economic activity – that very few natural features remain. These are known as built (or human) environments and include large cities, towns, suburbs and areas of farmland. For example, mountainous land in the Philippines has been transformed into terraced pond fields for rice farming by skilfully following the natural contours of the land.

Researching an environment also allows geographers to evaluate how people can best interconnect with that environment, and identify potential risks for people interacting with that environment. For example, examining the landscape and height, as well as the ascent routes of Mount Kilimanjaro (see Source GT.4) in Tanzania allows prospective travellers to know that, unlike with Mount Everest, they don't need to bring additional oxygen for their climb, but they do need to follow one of six official routes.

The study of different environments helps geographers to better understand and appreciate natural processes, such as how weather works, how mountains are formed and how rainforests and coral reefs grow. The concept helps geographers to analyse the changes humans make to natural environments and better appreciate their impact so that they can be managed more wisely.



Source GT.4 Mount Kilimanjaro is a popular place for climbers to interact with the natural environment.

Interconnection

Nothing on Earth exists in isolation. All environments and every living and non-living thing are connected. Geographers use this concept of **interconnection** to better understand the links between places and people, and how these interconnections affect the environment and the way we live. These connections can be on a local level or a global level.

Natural processes link places and people. For example, the water cycle links the water in the oceans with the land. When it brings rain to inland areas, water flows across the land and into rivers and streams. Farmers rely on this natural link to provide the water they need to grow food.

Links between places and people can affect the way people live. In turn, the way people live can affect places. A relatively small change in one area can have a great impact on another it is connected with. The melting of ice from a glacier at the top of a mountain, for example, will affect the land at the bottom of the mountain. The extra water could potentially damage crops that are being grown there, or the changed conditions may benefit farmers.

Human activities such as the movement of people, the production and trade of goods, and the flow of money within and between different countries also link places and people. Interconnection through electronic means such as mobile phone and Internet is now a part of everyday life for many of us.

Being consumers in a global marketplace also means we are connected to many places via international trade. More than 3000 ships carrying 2 million containers pass through the Port of Melbourne (see Source GT.5) each year. These ships and the goods they carry link dozens of countries around the world.



Source GT.5 A container ship prepares to berth at the Port of Melbourne.

Sustainability

The concept of **sustainability** relates to the ongoing capacity of the Earth to maintain all life. This means developing ways to ensure the Earth's resources be used and managed responsibly so they can be maintained for future generations.

Sustainable patterns of living meet the needs of the current generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Many of the world's resources (such as oil, coal and natural gas) are non-renewable. This means that if we continue to use them they will one day run out. Other resources (such as wind, forests, solar and water) are renewable. This means that they replace themselves naturally, or can be replaced to meet the needs of society. Sustainability encourages us to think more carefully about these different types of resources – the ways in which they are formed and the speed at which they are being used. It also encourages us to look more closely at renewable options and take greater care of the Earth. Actions to improve sustainability can operate at a number of levels:

- local – recycling of paper by individuals, schools and households reduces the number of trees that need to be cut down
- national – in Australia, the government has begun to encourage sustainable use of energy by offering incentives to promote the use of solar panels
- international – organisations such as the Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) are working with fisheries and retailers to promote responsible and environmentally viable fishing practices around the world.

There can be debate surrounding the sustainability of an environment, as people or organisations with different interests may put forward different points of view. A tree-logging company may protest that their practices are sustainable because they re-plant as much as they cut down. On the other hand, a conservation group may be equally convinced that a forest cannot be sustained when its trees are cut down. New trees may take decades to grow, in which time the ecosystem will have been altered. Many underdeveloped countries, such as Myanmar (Burma) (see Source GT.6), face enormous challenges controlling and monitoring forest clearance.

Sustainability is an important concept for geographers. They use it to investigate how natural and human systems work, and understand how resources can be managed in such a way that they will be sustained into the future.



Source GT.6 Logging in Myanmar gives local communities a source of income but leaves hillsides bare and easily eroded by heavy rain.

Scale

The concept of **scale** is used to guide geographical inquiries. Geographers study things that take place on many different spatial levels – meaning from small areas (such as a local park) to very large areas (such as the use of oil and gas all over the world). They use the concept of scale to look for explanations and outcomes at different levels. For example, a geographic inquiry on climate change may be carried out at a range of scales (from smallest to largest) (see Source GT.7):

- local – such as an inquiry into increased electricity use (for air conditioning) in your neighbourhood due to higher than average temperatures. Increased energy consumption may result in power outages.
- regional – such as inquiry into coral bleaching on the Great Barrier Reef (see Source GT.8). Warming ocean temperatures can trigger coral bleaching often resulting in coral death.
- national – such as an inquiry into changing weather patterns and increased frequency of extreme weather events in Australia. This affects government allocation of resources across many sectors (water security, agriculture, emergency services, coastal communities and infrastructure).
- international – such as inquiry into drought in Africa. Rains have become less reliable in many places as the climate has changed and many African nations have been hit by a series of devastating droughts that have brought widespread hunger and starvation.
- global – such as an inquiry into the reduction in Arctic sea ice due to global warming. This reduction in white ice means that less of the Sun's energy is reflected back into space and more is absorbed into the earth and sea, resulting in further increases in temperatures globally.

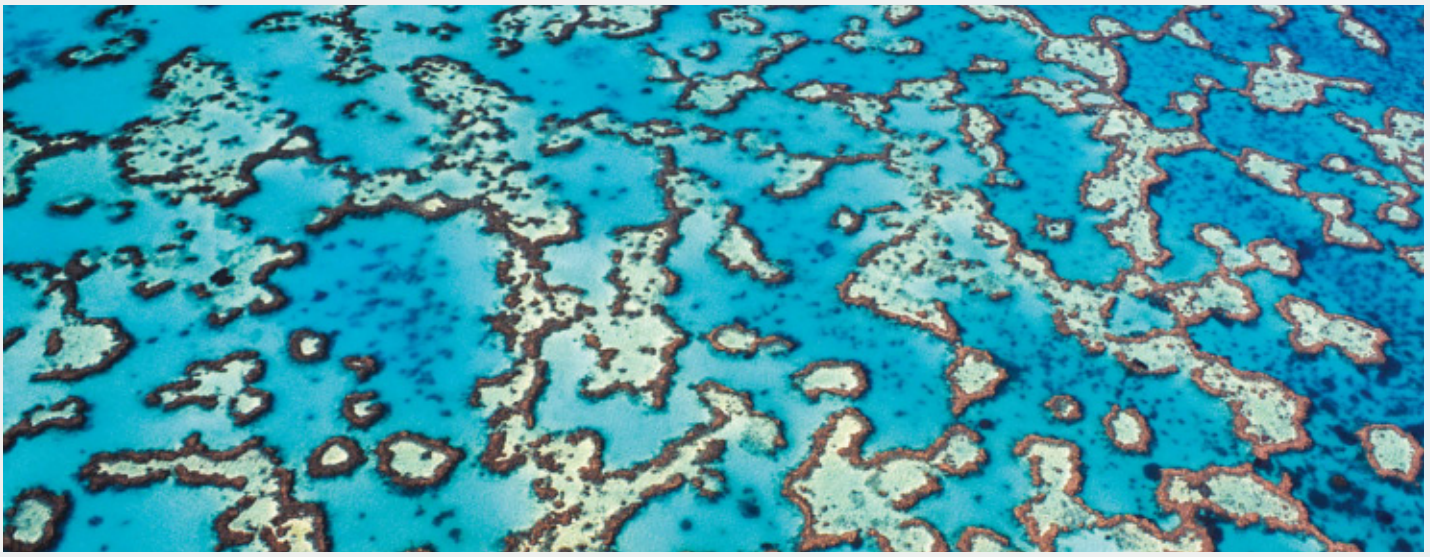
Some geographic studies investigate a large area. For example, something that affects a whole country, such as a severe drought, would involve a study at the national scale. If an event or phenomenon affects the whole world, such as climate change and rising sea levels, it would be examined at the global scale.

It may be necessary to use different scales when studying the same thing. For example, as mentioned above, climate change is occurring globally and should be examined at the global scale.

However, it can be examined at other scales too.

Source GT.7 Geographical inquiries can be carried out on a number of different scale levels.

Scale	Example of climate change inquiry
Local scale	Electricity consumption in your neighbourhood (increased use of air conditioning)
Regional scale	Coral bleaching on the Great Barrier Reef
National scale	Frequency of extreme weather events across Australia
Global scale	Reduction in Arctic sea ice; rising temperatures throughout the world



Source GT.8 The Great Barrier Reef off the coast of Queensland is the world's largest coral reef system. A geographical inquiry of the reef could be undertaken at a range of scales.

Change

The Earth is constantly changing. Some changes occur very rapidly and are easy to observe, while others take place over millions of years and are almost undetectable to us.

The concept of **change** is important in geography because it helps us to understand what is happening around us and to see the world as a dynamic place. Change in both time and space allows geographers to examine how environments develop, transform or disappear.

Change can be the result of natural forces. For example, the Earth has been shaped and changed by climate, earthquakes, volcanoes and running water over millions of years. It can also be the result of human activity, such as the building of a new bridge or clearing of forest for farmland.

Changes also take place on many levels, from local through to global. Local changes that happen quickly, such as storm damage in your street, are easy to observe and explain. Regional or national changes resulting from a bushfire or an earthquake can also happen quickly and their effects can be widespread, with devastating impacts on places and people.

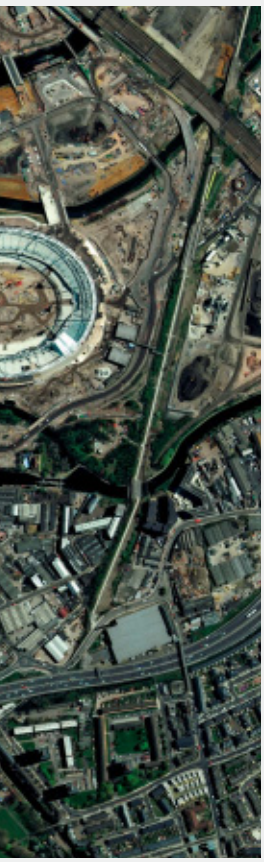
Changes that take place on a global scale can take much longer. Global warming, for example, is a long-term change that happens slowly. Global warming has widespread and long-term effects that are not easily explained.

Observing and understanding changes that are natural and have occurred over time or changes that have been made by humans over time, is an important part of any geographical inquiry. Geographers need to look at different types of changes, why they have occurred, over what time period they have occurred and what further changes may take place as a result.

Sometimes changes can be positive, such as the regeneration of vegetation, while other changes can have negative consequences, such as the pollution of waterways from industry. Geographers play an important role in ensuring that change is managed in a sustainable way.







Source GT.9 In preparation for the 2012 Summer Olympic Games, Newham, in East London was transformed from a suburb of derelict buildings and polluted rivers into a vast sporting complex.



Source GT.10 The resources and buildings for the London 2012 Olympic Games were planned with sustainability as a primary concern, adopting a Zero Waste Games Vision. The Velodrome in this photo was built using 100% sustainably sourced timber.

Check your learning GT.1

Remember and understand

1 Is Namche Bazaar part of the natural or built environment?

2 List three natural environments and three built environments. Your answers can draw from the photographs in this section, or you can use your own observations.

3 At what scale would a study of Mount Kilimanjaro's glaciers take place?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source GT.6.
   - a What evidence of change can you identify in this picture?
   - b How might this change have an impact on the natural environment in this place?
   - c How might it affect the people in the nearby village?

5 Examine GT.9 and GT.10.
   - a Describe the arrangement of the sporting facilities. Using the key concept of sustainability, what factors do you think would need to be considered when planning the development of the area?
   - b What examples of interconnection can you identify in these satellite images?

6 Examine Source GT.3. With a partner, construct four questions you could ask to investigate why so many people live in such a small space. Share your questions with your classmates.

7 Examine Source GT.5. Use three geographic concepts to describe the Port of Melbourne. Jot down a couple of points for each concept.

8 The geographic concepts are closely linked to each other. For example, a geographer examining the changes at Newham in preparation for the 2012 Olympic Games would be interested in assessing the impacts and sustainability of these changes at the local scale. Describe some possible links between:
   - a environment and sustainability
   - b space and interconnection
   - c place and space
   - d scale and environment.

Evaluate and create

9 Research the host city for the next summer or winter Olympics. What changes are being made to natural and human environments in preparation for these games?

10 Choose one of the key geographical concepts outlined in this section. Find a photograph in a magazine or on the Internet that illustrates this concept. Explain your choice of photograph and how you think it describes the concept for you.

GT.2 Geographical inquiry and skills

Geographers are investigators. They explore the world around them by asking questions about what they see. These questions begin an investigation that requires them to collect and analyse information and to communicate what they have discovered. To complete an investigation they need a set of skills such as drawing **maps** and cross-sections, surveying, sketching and presenting information. Five sets of skills are used to complete a full geographical inquiry. These are listed in Source GT.11.

To become a better geographer you should try to learn new skills as you continue to practice, use and develop the skills you have already learned. It might help you to think of each of these skills as individual tools in your toolkit. For some geographical inquiries, you may only need to use one tool; for others, you may need to use many. As you develop each new skill you will have gained another important tool in explaining the natural processes and human activities that shape our amazing planet.

Observing, questioning and planning	• Develop geographically significant questions and plan an inquiry that identifies and applies appropriate geographical methodologies and concepts
Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing	• Collect, select, record and organise relevant geographical data and information, using ethical protocols, from a range of appropriate primary and secondary sources • Evaluate sources for their reliability, bias and usefulness, and represent multi-variable data in a range of appropriate forms, for example, scatter plots, tables, field sketches and annotated diagrams, with and without the use of digital and spatial technologies • Represent the spatial distribution of geographical phenomena by constructing special purpose maps that conform to cartographic conventions, using spatial technologies as appropriate
Interpreting, analysing and concluding	• Evaluate multi-variable data and other geographical information using qualitative and quantitative methods, and digital and spatial technologies as appropriate, to make generalisations and inferences, propose explanations for patterns, trends, relationships and anomalies, and predict outcomes • Apply geographical concepts to synthesise information from various sources and draw conclusions based on the analysis of data and information, taking into account alternative points of view • Identify how **geographical information systems (GIS)** might be used to analyse geographical data and make predictions
Communicating	• Present findings, arguments and explanations in a range of appropriate communication forms, selected for their effectiveness and to suit audience and purpose; using relevant geographical terminology, and digital technologies as appropriate
Reflecting and responding	• Reflect on and evaluate the findings of the inquiry to propose individual and collective action in response to a contemporary geographical challenge, taking account of environmental, economic and social considerations; and explain the predicted outcomes and consequences of their proposal

Source GT.11 The five categories of skills used in a geographical inquiry.

Observing, questioning and planning

Observe the world and its geographical characteristics

Understanding our world begins by observing the processes that are taking place all around us. Geographers look at people, land, air, water, plants and animals and the connections between them to understand what is happening. They also seek to investigate where, why and how natural, managed and constructed environments are formed and changed. These observations often include identifying any problems or issues that need to be investigated and resolved.

Developing geographical questions

One of your greatest assets as a geographer is curiosity. Geographers look at the world around them and ask questions about what they see, experience or have thought about. You may, for example, see a news item about a volcanic eruption or hear a report about the world's most liveable cities. Or you may visit the centre of a large city on a field trip or a national park on holiday. As you begin to think like a geographer you will begin to ask questions about these events and places and these questions may be the starting point for a geographical inquiry.



Source GT.12 Asking questions is an important part of a geographical inquiry. This woman is examining Mount Kilimanjaro, off in the distance.

skilldrill

Developing geographical questions

You can learn to develop geographical questions that will help you begin an inquiry about a particular topic or place. Start your questions with the words 'what', 'where', 'how', 'why', 'what impact' or 'what should' when thinking about your topic.

Your questions should examine ideas such as:

- Where is it?
- How big is it?
- What pattern or shape is it?
- Why is it like this? Is it like this because something else is at this location?
- How does it interact with other things in this place?
- How is it changing?
- How should people best manage this change?

The very best questions open up an exciting area for you to explore. Examine Source GT.12. A visitor to this place might ask a simple question, such as 'How much snow is there on the mountain?'. This is a question with a relatively straightforward answer.

A better geographical question would be to ask 'Does the amount of snow on the mountain change over time?'.

This question opens up a whole new area to explore, because the answer to that question will lead on to further questions and greater depth of understanding. Some other example questions are:

- Is this a volcano?
- Why is it green on the ground but there is snow on the mountain?
- Are the animals all eating the same things?
- Is there more or less snow than in the past?
- How do people use the mountain?

Apply the skill

1 Why is 'Does the amount of snow on the mountain change over time?' a better geographical question than 'How much snow is there on the mountain?'.

2 Examine Source GT.6, which shows forest clearing in Myanmar. Work with a partner to develop a set of geographical questions about this place.

3 Where could you begin to find the answers to your questions?

Plan a geographical inquiry

Asking geographical questions is a good way to develop a range of possibilities for further research and investigation. It is usually best to narrow your investigation by selecting one of the geographical questions you have written as the basis for your inquiry. You should select a question in which you are interested and helps you to better understand the environment you are investigating.

Planning an inquiry about Mount Kilimanjaro

Having chosen to investigate the key geographical question 'How does this mountain affect the climate?', it is time to consider what information you need to answer this question and where you are going to locate the information. A good way to this is to use a planning table like the one below.

Source GT.13 Planning is a key stage in conducting a geographical inquiry.

Key inquiry question	Information needed	Possible sources of this information
How does this mountain affect the climate?	Climate data, particularly temperature and rainfall for places at various distances from Kilimanjaro including the summit	Atlas map to locate towns and cities at various distances from Kilimanjaro Encyclopaedia entry for the climates of Kenya and Tanzania Online search for climate data for selected towns and cities
	Observation of photographs and satellite images of the region	Photographs and satellite images of Kilimanjaro from throughout this chapter Google Earth, including historic imagery
	An understanding of the impact of landforms on temperature and rainfall	Printed resources such as geography textbooks, encyclopaedias and Bureau of Meteorology (BOM) books and leaflets BOM website

Check your learning GT.2

Remember and understand

1 What are the five stages of a full geographical inquiry?

2 Imagine that while watching the news on television this evening you see an item about a large earthquake in China.
   a How could this news item be the beginning of a geographical inquiry?
   b Develop a series of geographical questions about this earthquake to guide a geographical inquiry.

Apply and analyse

3 Use the geographical questions that you have written to develop a planning table similar to the one shown here for Mount Kilimanjaro (see Source GT.13).

Evaluate and create

4 Bring a copy of your local newspaper to class. Search through the newspaper, or think about your local area, and identify examples of stories or issues that could be investigated as part of a geographical inquiry. Examples may include a shopping centre extension, or a proposal for a new set of traffic lights or a pedestrian crossing. Choose one local issue and work with a partner to develop a series of geographical questions about it. Then complete a planning table to guide a possible geographical inquiry.

Source GT.14 Mount Kilimanjaro in Africa



Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing

Collect, record and evaluate primary and secondary data

Good planning and preparation will ensure that your geographical inquiry will run smoothly, be relevant and give you the answers you are looking for. Once you have identified the issue, formulate your key inquiry question. You can conduct a sound, useful inquiry by following these steps:

- collect and record the information you think you will need to answer your key inquiry question
- evaluate this information and data to determine that it is accurate and relevant
- represent your findings in an interesting and appropriate way (such as tables, graphs, maps and sketches).

Geographers find answers to their questions in many places. They may collect information themselves by interviewing people, taking photographs, making sketches out in the field or conducting surveys and questionnaires. This kind of information will generally only be relevant to a particular inquiry and is called **primary data**.

Often a geographer collects information that supports his or her inquiry but has not been specifically collected or designed by the geographer for the inquiry. This type of information is called **secondary data**. Secondary data sources include maps, graphs, statistics, and websites that someone else has developed. One of the best secondary sources of information may be photographs from newspapers and magazines, and satellite images from Google Earth. It is important to always evaluate any secondary sources for reliability, relevance and bias. This is particularly true for information obtained through the Internet. Unlike a printed source such as a book or atlas it can be very difficult to establish who has written and published information online.

Reliability

When undertaking an inquiry, geographers need to evaluate the sources they use for reliability and potential bias, as well as usefulness. In the case of collecting data from primary sources, such as interviewing subjects directly on a topic, the information gathered will be reliable because it is gathered first-hand. It is therefore important for the geographer to keep in mind any potential bias that may be influencing an interview subject's response. An interview that a geographer is conducting on the potential effects of turning local parkland into an industrial park, for instance, would have very different responses from a representative of the industrial developer than from a member of a local wildlife conservation group. It is important for a geographer to evaluate this kind of bias, and remember to ask questions about the motivation behind it.

When selecting secondary sources, such as maps, graphs, photographs or other data, the geographer also needs to ensure the data is reliable and unbiased. This includes evaluating the creator of the data – is the data from a recognised source like a government body, such as the Bureau of Meteorology or a research agency like the CSIRO? Is the data provided without bias? Or is it presented on a website for a company that might have a vested interest in influencing public opinion?

Ethics in geography

When conducting research and obtaining data for an inquiry, it is important for a geographer to be mindful of issues that are likely to raise ethical concerns. This may include being aware of privacy concerns, ensuring anonymity if required, and obtaining informed consent from research participants. Geographers may also need to outline where and how the information obtained will be used or published, and special attention may need to be given for relational data where geographical references or co-ordinates might disclose a participant's location or identity.

If geographers undertake an inquiry that involves consulting with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities, they should be aware that there are guidelines and protocols that should be followed. While these are not necessarily rules, it is important to know that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people have distinctive regional and cultural identities that require respectful consideration for meaningful consultation. This may involve preferred terminology, cues for cultural communication, and other means for making consultation harmonious and productive. If conducting such an inquiry, it is advisable to do further reading, such as of the *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples Engagement Toolkit*, which can be found online.

Evaluating the reliability of websites

There is an enormous amount of material available online, but it is important to keep in mind that not all websites provide reliable information. You must be careful not to naively accept that all information published online is from a reliable source. Websites should be critically evaluated for reliability by following these steps:

Step 1 Find out how old the information is. When was it first published? This will help you decide whether it is useful for your inquiry or not.

Step 2 Find out who published the information. Is it possible they have a bias? You can often find out more about the organisation publishing information by going to their 'home' page or 'about us' page.

Step 3 Look at the extension at the end of the website address, as this gives you an important clue about the origin of the information. For example .com is used by commercial organisations such as online stores, .org is used by non-commercial organisations such as NGOs and welfare groups, .gov by government departments, .edu refers to schools and universities, .biz by businesses and .mil by military groups.

Step 4 If you cannot find out when the information was published or who published it, it is probably too unreliable to use in a geographical inquiry. Look for a more reliable source of information.

Apply the skill

1 Common websites used for reference information include the CIA World Factbook, the Australian Bureau of Statistics, National Geographic and the United Nations Development Programme. Using the steps listed above, assess the reliability of the data found on these websites.



Source GT.15 This web page offers data about Tanzania. How can you determine if it contains reliable information?

Evaluating and representing geographical data visually

Geographers present the information they gather during their inquiries in a number of different ways. They make maps, create graphs and tables or even draw diagrams to help them look for patterns in the data they have gathered. These tools help geographers analyse and interpret the information they have gathered, and also present the information to other people (the general public, the government, the media) and help them understand the geographer's findings.

Maps

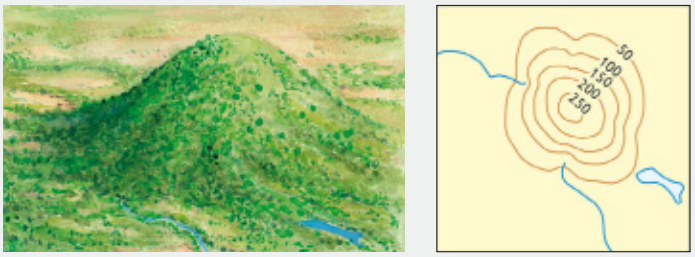
One of the most useful tools that geographers use to process information is a map. A map is a simplified plan of an area. Maps are drawn in the plan view (directly from above) because this ensures the scale will be the same across the entire area. If maps were drawn from an angle, some parts of the mapped area would look distorted and so it would not be an accurate representation of the area. When properly used, maps can reveal a great deal about our planet and the ways in which we use it.

Topographic maps

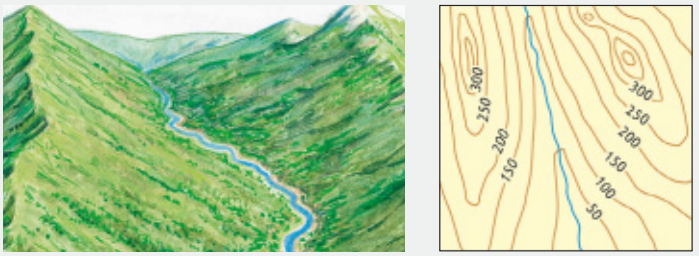
A piece of paper only shows two dimensions: width and length. The Earth's surface, however, has a third dimension: height. Cartographers (map makers) use a variety of methods to show this third dimension.

Topographic maps are one of a geographer's most useful tools. Because most topographic maps are drawn of a small region they can show that region in great detail, right down to individual buildings and rocks. They also show the height of the land above sea level through the use of **contour lines**, which join together all places of an equal height. By learning to interpret the contour patterns made by these lines you can work out the shape and height of the land that has been mapped (see Source GT.16).

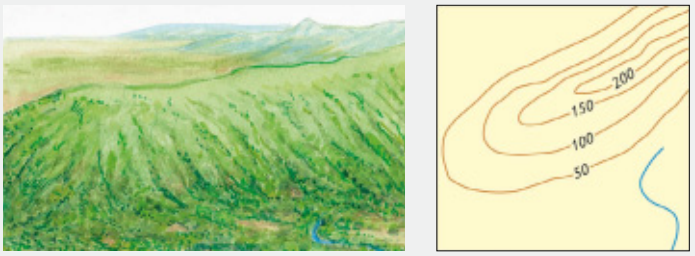
ROUND HILL OR VOLCANO



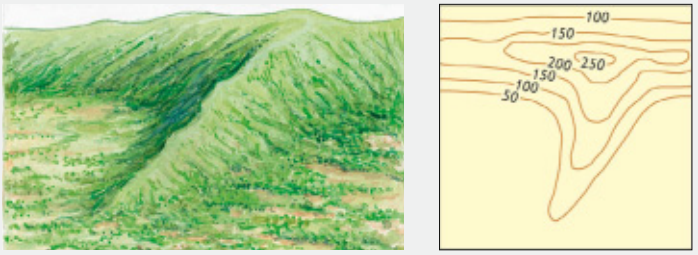
VALLEY



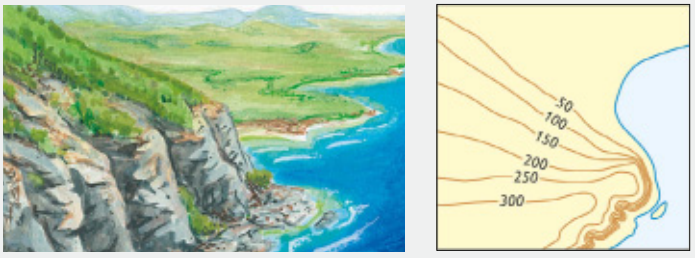
RIDGE



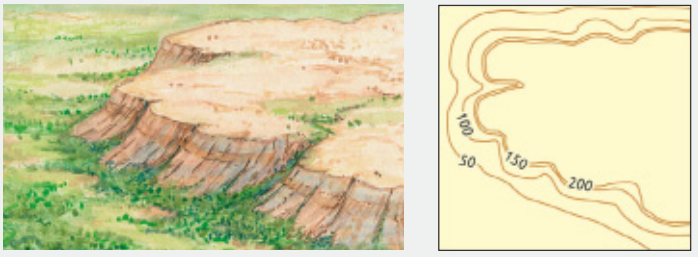
SPUR



CLIFF



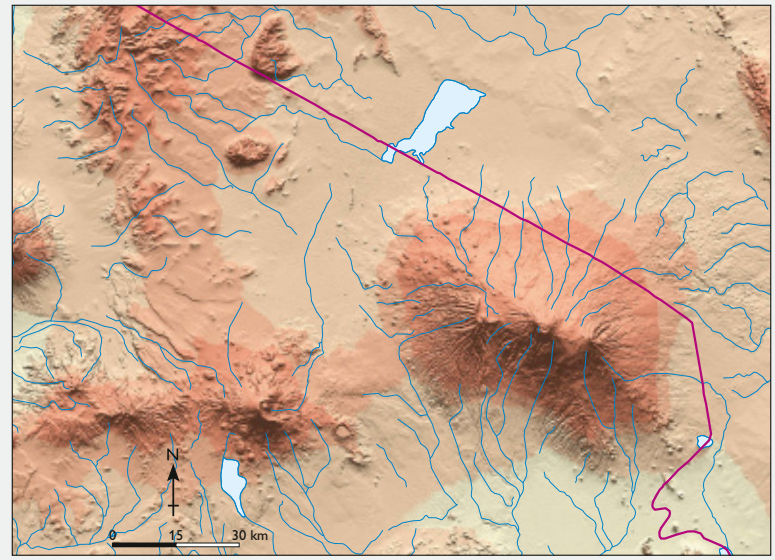
PLATEAU



Source GT.16 Common contour patterns

Digital maps and terrain models

There are about 6000 man-made satellites orbiting the Earth. Many of these collect digital data about the shape and height of the land and transmit it back to computers on the ground. This data is then interpreted and can be used to draw maps. Cartographers can use computer programs to add colours to these digital maps to highlight certain aspects of the environment. In Source GT.17, for example, the land has been shaded according to its height. The data can also be manipulated in other ways. In Source GT.18 it has been used to create a side view of the landform being mapped. This type of illustration is known as a digital terrain model.



Source GT.17 In this digital map of the Mount Kilimanjaro region land has been shaded according to its height above sea level. Shadows have also been added to help map users understand the shape and height of the land.

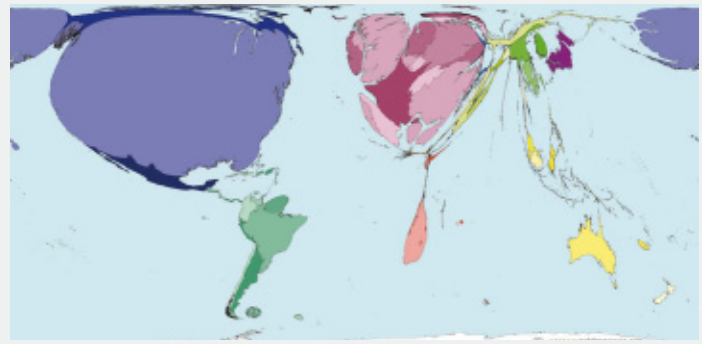


Source GT.18 This is a digital terrain model of Mount Kilimanjaro and the surrounding area. The data was collected by a NASA space shuttle and an orbiting satellite. Cartographers have exaggerated the height of the landform so that it appears twice as high as it actually is.

Cartograms

You will have already seen cartograms in the course of your geography studies. These are the maps that look distorted and have areas that appear thinner or more enlarged than they would normally be, depending on what they are showing. Cartograms are sometimes called 'value by area' maps, which means the spaces on the maps are distorted to show a representation of a value rather than land area.

For example, while Vietnam is a relatively small country in terms of land area, it is the fifth largest rice growing country, so it would be exaggerated to a much greater relative size. The United States of America, which actually has a much larger land mass than Vietnam, is the 10th largest rice producer, so would appear much smaller than actual size on a cartogram.



Source GT.19 This cartogram shows the percentage of the population living on more than US$200 a day. The distortion shows that the United States has many more people living on this amount than Asia does.

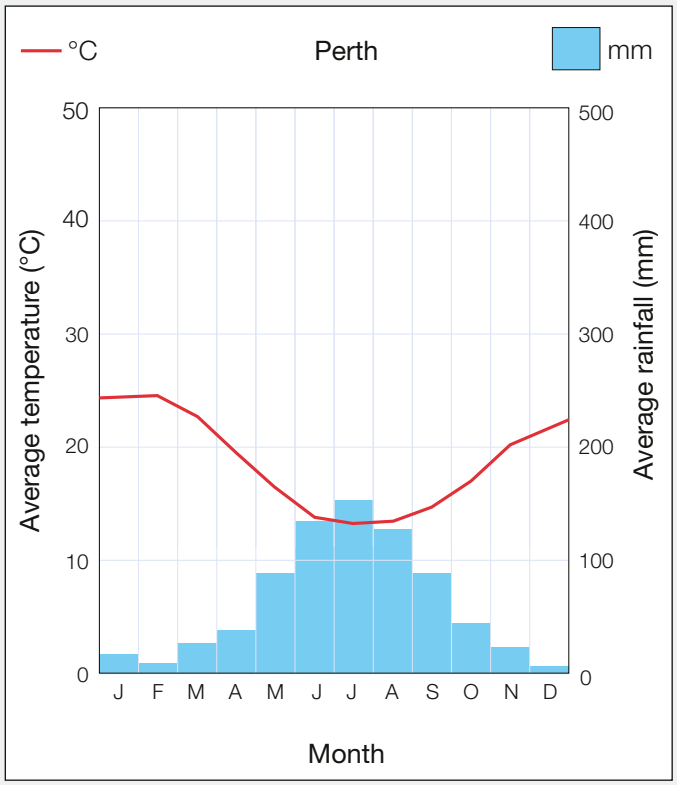
There are various software programs available that can generate cartograms.

Graphs

In Years 7 and 8 you will have learned how to create and interpret simple graphs, such as **bar graphs**, column graphs and pie charts. In Years 9 and 10 you will be working with more complex graphs. You won't necessarily be creating these kinds of graphs yourself, but you will be learning how to interpret them and make sense of the information they provide. Some of these styles of complex graphs are described below.

Climate graphs

Climate graphs show the general climate of a place – what the weather is like overall in a certain location, graphing the average monthly temperature and rainfall over the course of a year (or other set period of time) (see Source GT.20). Climate graphs combine line and column graphs. Temperature is recorded as a **line graph** and rainfall is recorded as a bar graph.

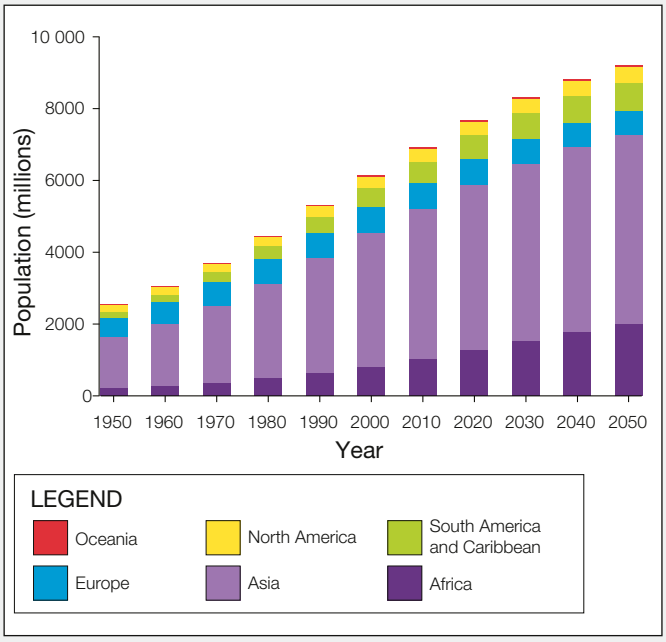


Source GT.20 A climate graph showing the average monthly temperature and rainfall in Perth

Compound column graphs

A **compound column graph**, sometimes called a stacked column graph or stacked bar graph, is used by geographers to compare the parts of something to the whole. They are a more complex type of column graph in which each column is split into sections. The results are then stacked on top of each other, in different colours or different shades of a colour, so that results can be easily compared (see Source GT.21).

Each column in a compound column graph represents a total, and each different coloured segment represents a part that makes up that total. The graph in Source GT.21, for example, shows the total increase in world population, from 1950 projected up to 2050. Of the total increase in population, it is immediately clear that Asia, coloured light purple, has experienced and will continue to experience the greatest growth. It is also immediately clear that Oceania, coloured red, has experienced very small population growth in comparison. Presenting the information in this way means we can quickly see and compare a number of figures that contribute to a total.

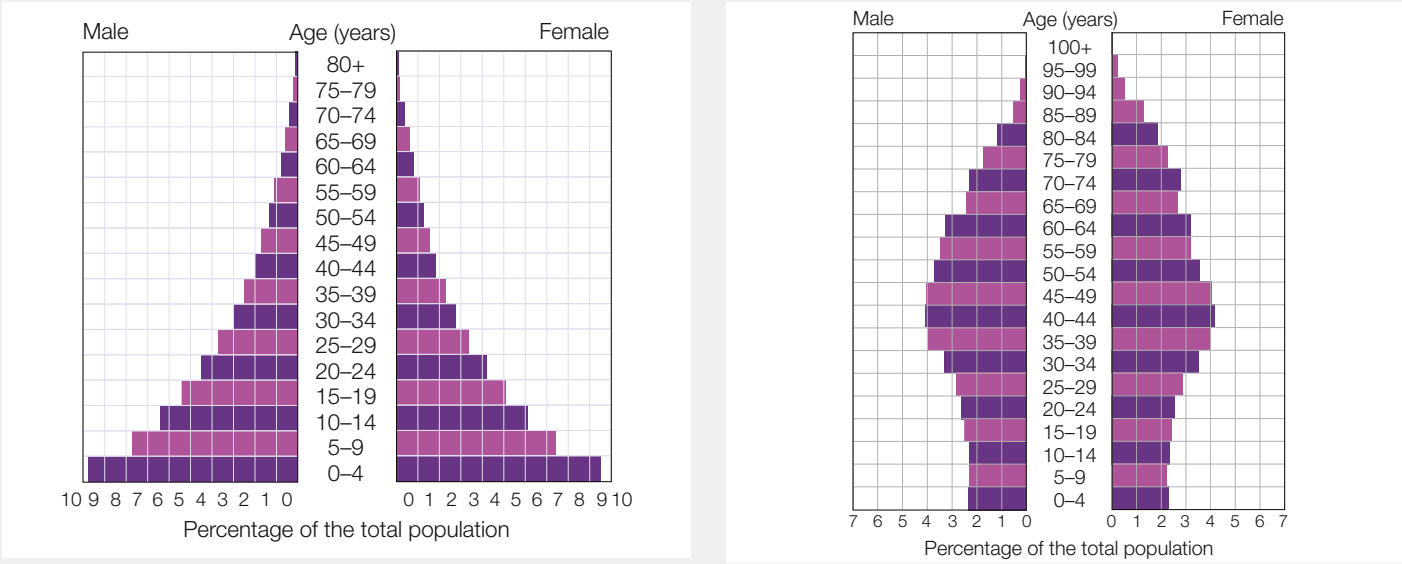


Source GT.21 A compound column graph showing the increase in world population by region, 1950–2050 (columns on the right provide projections)

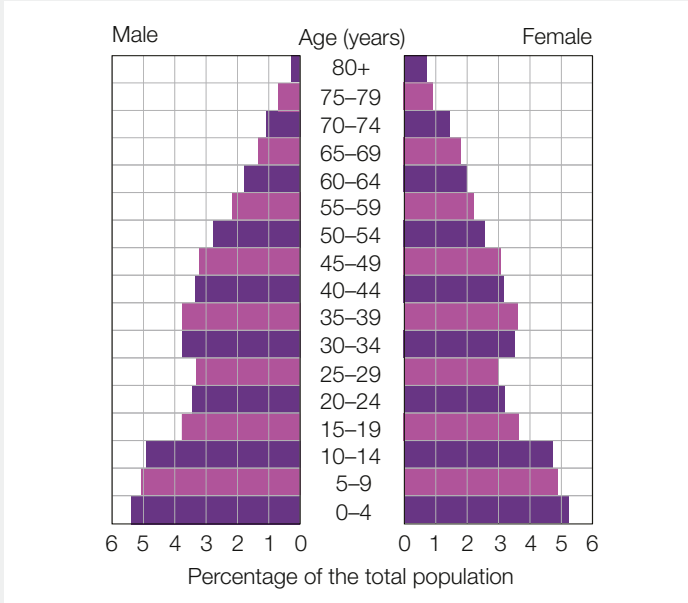
Population pyramids

Population pyramids are horizontal bar graphs that show the proportion of males and females in different age groups in a population. They can be used in a number of ways. Most commonly, they are used to compare the population structures and growth rates of different countries. A triangular-shaped graph shows a population with a high birth rate – that is, the population in that country is growing – while a graph that tapers in (is narrower) at the younger ages indicates a population that is contracting or declining (see Source GT.22).

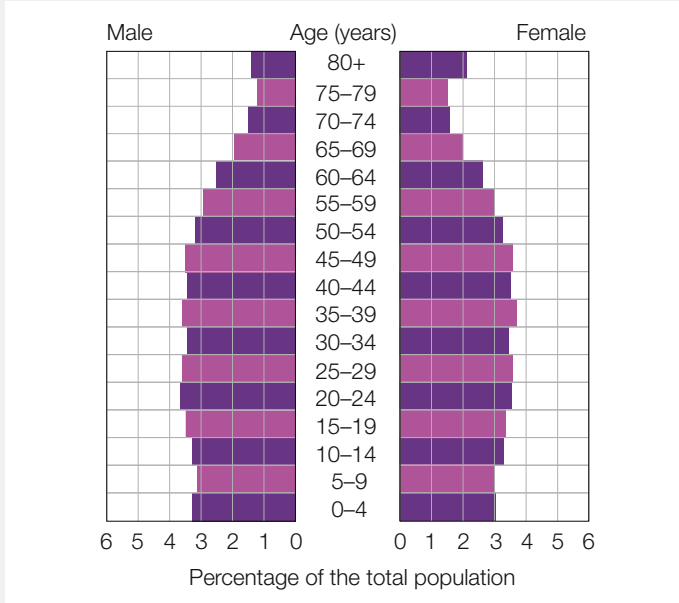
Population pyramids can also help geographers to identify the ways in which the population in a single country is changing over time. In these population pyramids of Australia's population, for example, it is clear that the percentage of Australia's population over the age of 65 increased between 1960 (see Source GT.23) and 2009 (see Source GT.24). Geographers describe this change as the ageing of the population.



Source GT.22 Population pyramids showing growing (left) and contracting (declining) (right) populations



Source GT.23 Population pyramid for Australia, 1960

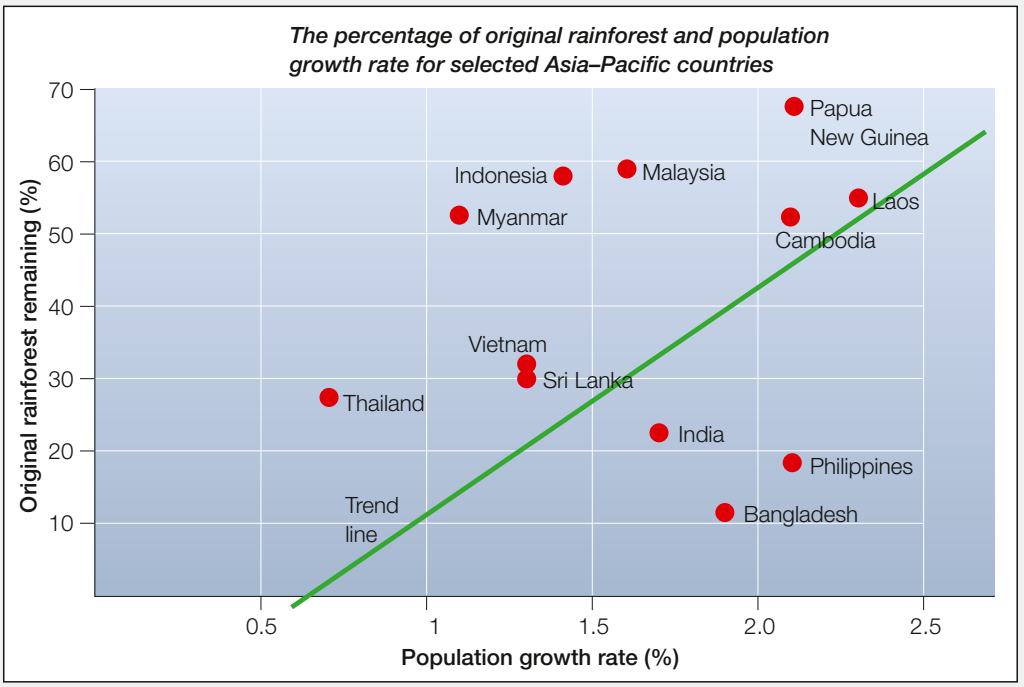


Source GT.24 Population pyramid for Australia, 2009

Scatter plots

Maps can be useful for showing a pattern but they don't really explain that pattern. A special type of graph, called a **scatter plot**, (or scatter graph) is a better way of doing this. A scatter plot compares two sets of data in a visual way so that connections between them can be easily seen. Scatter plots are called scattergrams. The following scatter plot compares the amount of original forest cover remaining in selected Asian countries with their population growth rates. It is essentially testing the theory that forests are more endangered in countries where the population is growing rapidly.

Because most of the countries lie close to the trend line in this graph it is possible to say that there is a relationship between the amount of forest in a country and the rate at which its population is growing. Countries with the fastest growing populations have the most rainforest remaining. Those countries that lie apart from the general trend such as Bangladesh are called outliers. A geographer studying this graph might use it as the beginning of a geographical inquiry into deforestation in Bangladesh.



Source GT.25 A scatter plot showing remaining forest and the population growth rate

Check your learning GT.3

Remember and understand

1. Why is a website that ends with .edu more reliable than one that ends with .com?
2. What advantages do scatter plots have over maps?
3. What do population pyramids show? Why are they a useful tool for geographers?
4. Examine Source GT.25. In which of these countries is the population increasing most rapidly? How much original forest cover remains in this country?

Apply and analyse

5. What is the difference between primary sources and secondary sources of information? Is the CIA Factbook (see Source GT.15) an example of a primary or secondary source?
6. Using Source GT.17, describe the terrain of the region surrounding Mount Kilimanjaro. Do you think Source GT.17 is more useful for this task than Source GT.18? Why?
7. Describe the differences between the population pyramids in Sources GT.23 and GT.24. What do these differences reveal about the populations at these points in time?

Evaluate and create

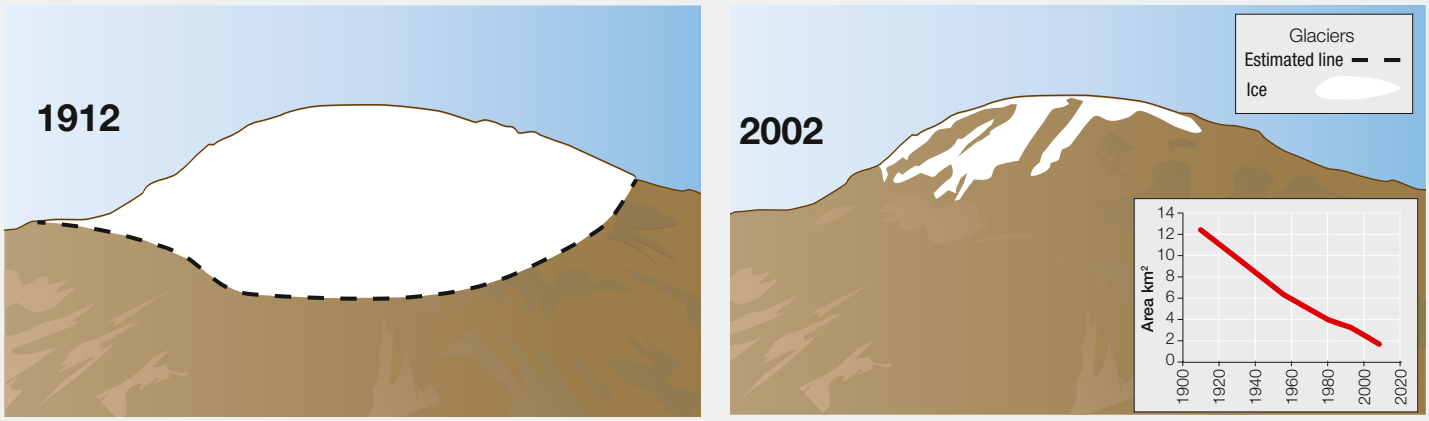
8. Examine Source GT.18. Sketch the probable contour pattern of the landscape shown. Use Source GT.16 as a guide to common contour patterns.
9. Research the size of the population of a country other than Australia over a 10-year period. Create a graph or graphs to present your findings.

Other graphic representations

In addition to maps and graphs, geographers use a range of other visual representations to communicate information they have collected. These include geographic diagrams, sketches, tables, geographic photographs and geographic information systems (GIS). These ways of presenting information allow geographers to communicate their findings in the most clear and appropriate manner.

Geographical diagrams

Geographical diagrams are simplified drawings of the real world. They allow geographers to show the features or characteristics of places or things much more directly than describing them in words. Certain interesting or complex processes can also be easily explained and demonstrated in a diagram, and communicated quickly and effectively by simple visual representation (see Source GT.26).



Source GT.26 This diagram shows the dramatic rate at which snows have melted on Mount Kilimanjaro.

Tables

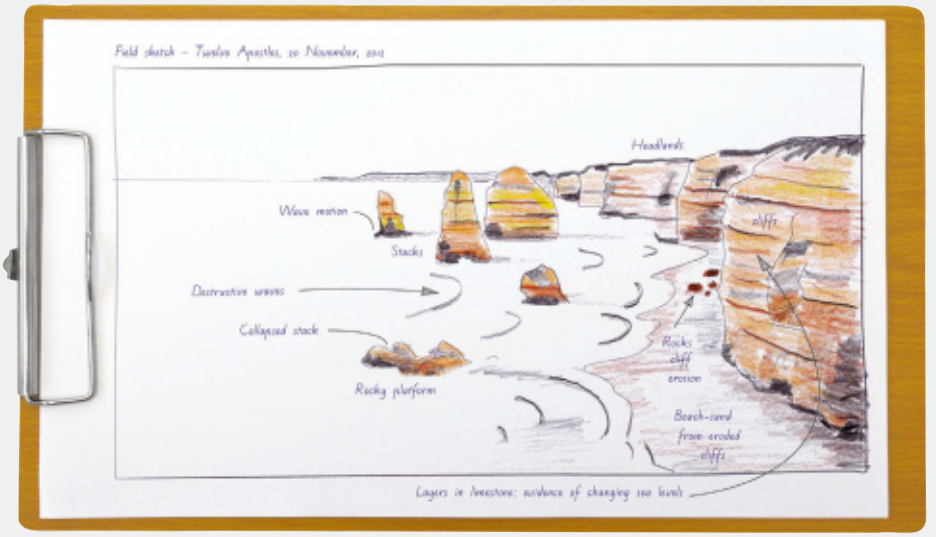
Tables allow geographers to present and compare data by organising it under different headings. Tables can be useful for presenting information over a range of time periods or locations.

Source GT.27 This table, based on data gathered by geographers in 2006, shows the change in area of seven glaciers (A–G) on Mount Kilimanjaro, 1912–2003.

Areas (10^3 m^2)	Glacier Area A	Glacier Area B	Glacier Area C	Glacier Area D	Glacier Area E	Glacier Area F	Glacier Area G	Total
1912	5676	3	27	5011	811	372	158	12058
1953	3829	0	16	2156	493	181	0	6675
1976	2440	0	0	1409	209	113	0	4171
1989	1900	0	0	1168	147	90	0	3305
2003	1304	0	0	1025	132	49	0	2510

Geographical sketches

A geographical sketch can be an extremely useful way of collecting information and presenting it in a straightforward and immediate way. They are often completed in the field (and are known as field sketches) or are sketched from photographs. The aim of a geographical sketch is to focus on those parts of the environment that are relevant to the current geographical inquiry. For example, a geographer studying the role of waves in the erosion of a coastline would sketch the rocks and landforms of a beach while another geographer studying tourism at the coast would sketch the buildings and roads at the same beach. Sketches allow the geographer to simplify information to make it easier to understand.



Source GT.28 Field sketches are useful for capturing information quickly and directly.

Geographical information systems (GIS)

A geographical information system (GIS) is a way of collecting, storing, presenting and using geographical data. GIS encompasses collecting geospatial data – real-world distance between landmarks, water depth, height and width of buildings, layout of streets and suburbs – and presenting it through digital means. A car's GPS uses GIS data to allow you to navigate through the real world, using data that has been gathered using computer technology. GIS has many different applications and is used for planning, telecommunications, transport and logistics, to name just a few.



Source GT.29 Geographical information systems gather and present real-world geographical data using computer technology.

Geographic photographs

Geographic photographs differ from other types of photographs in that they are taken to depict and present a place or particular feature of the landscape for the purpose of demonstrating an aspect that you are studying. This is quite different from taking photos of you and your friends for fun, or even from taking an attractive picture of a landscape. Geographic photographs are used as a source of data.



Source GT.30 A geographic photograph demonstrates a particular aspect of a place or environment, like this one of the Mount Kilimanjaro glacier area.

skill**drill**

Collecting and evaluating geographic photographs

Geographers take photographs with the purpose of capturing a specific visual reference. This skill in geography is learning to capture a scene on camera that shows exactly what you want it to. You will not necessarily be taking the prettiest picture – you will be taking the picture that is relevant to your inquiry. Then, you can show the key features by adding notes or labels to your photograph. This is known as annotating the photograph. Annotating your photograph will help with your evaluation of the subject, too.

Step 1 Prepare for your session. Read the manual for your camera and get to know what your camera is capable of doing. Learn about exposure and how to frame your subject – there are plenty of tips online to help you with this. It is important to hold your camera steady, or you can practice using a tripod. This is especially useful when collecting photographs of the same place over a period of time.

Step 2 Decide on your subject and ensure you are photographing the relevant parts you want to feature. Select the features of the landscape that show important aspects of your geographical inquiry. Remember your key inquiry question. It could be something like, 'How does tourism affect this environment?' If so, ensure you include evidence of any impact, like rubbish left along a shoreline. In the case of the photo shown here, the key inquiry question was, 'Are the glaciers becoming smaller because of natural or human factors?'

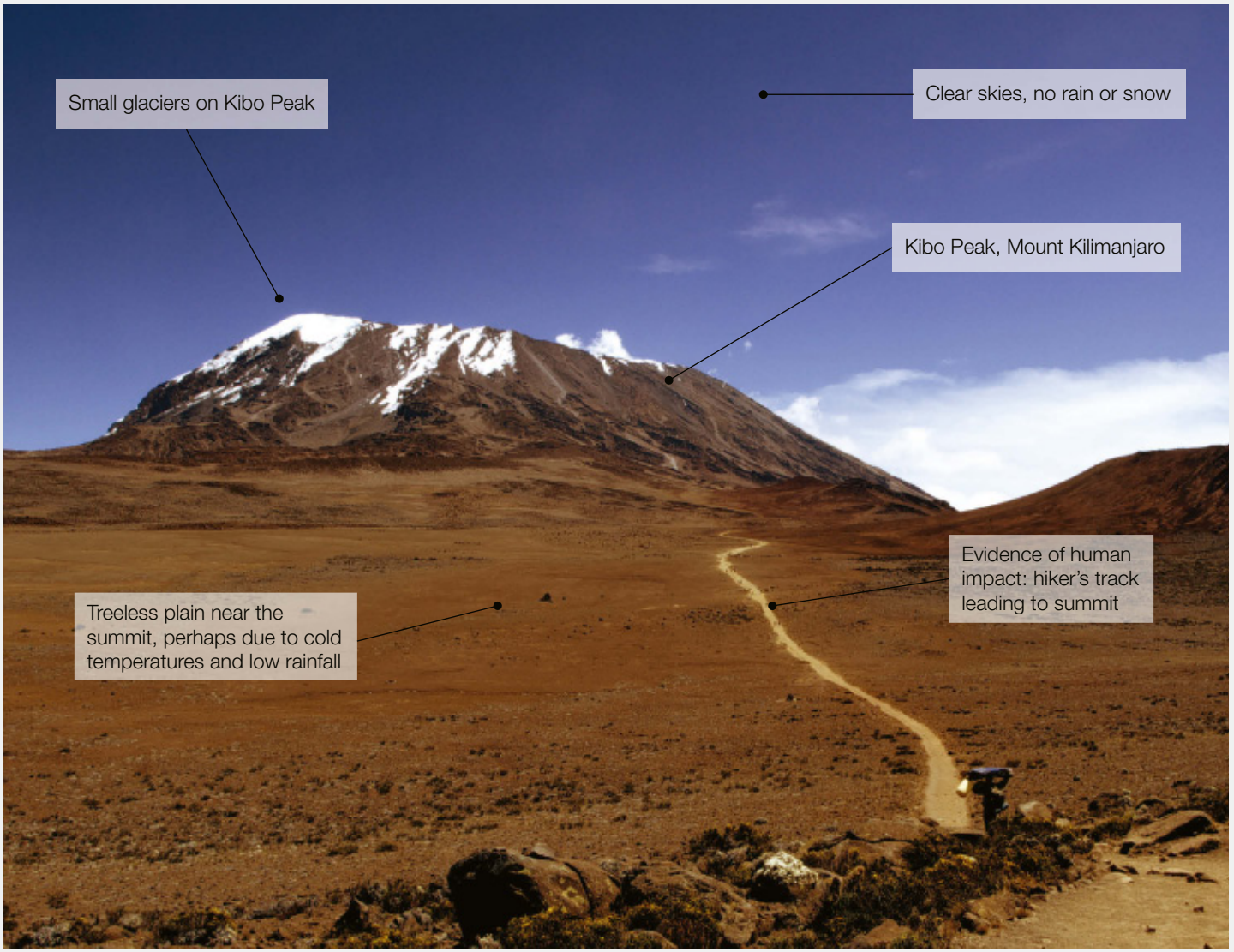
Step 3 Evaluate photo drafts as you go. Remember that your photograph is part of your geography **fieldwork** or study, and ensure that your photographs include the aspects you want to show. You might need to try photographing your subject from different angles, or from above or below it to capture what you are after.

Step 4 **Annotate** your photographs, remembering to focus on the topic of the inquiry. Write short labels that include the key features of the landscape. Keep your labels neat, relatively short and relevant to your inquiry. Note any observations you have and possible causes for changes or damage you note in the environment.

Step 5 Place your labels, taking care not to obscure important parts of the photograph. Space the labels around the photograph without making them too cluttered. Avoid having the lines from the labels crossing each other. If you think you have too many labels, go over them again and delete any you think aren't really relevant to your inquiry question.

Apply the skill

1. Prepare for a geographic photo session. Decide on a subject and head out to a natural environment such as a forest, stream or coastline with your camera. Evaluate your photographs as you go to ensure you are collecting the information you are seeking.
2. Annotate your photographs following the steps listed above. Choose your best three photos and set up a digital display on the school computer network or print them out and set up a wall in your classroom as a photo gallery.



Source GT.31 An annotated image of Mount Kilimanjaro

Interpreting, analysing and concluding

Once you have collected, recorded, evaluated and represented your information, it is time to make sense of it all so that you can reach some conclusions about the geographical questions that began your inquiry. Geographers look for order, diversity, trends, patterns, anomalies and relationships in their information. It can often help to classify information by sorting it into groups.

Using models to identify trends, patterns and relationships in geographical data

There are a number of methods and models that geographers use to help them during this stage of their inquiries. These include the:

- PQE method
- SHEEPT method.

Using the PQE method

PQE is a tool used by geographers to describe the data they have gathered (particularly on maps) and to look for patterns in this data. The letters PQE stand for pattern, quantify and exceptions.

P – Pattern

In this step, you need to give a general overview of any patterns you may identify.

When looking at any form of data, look for things that stand out or form patterns. A pattern may be a group of similar features on a diagram, a concentration of a particular colour or feature on a map, or a particular shape that is created by data on a column graph. For example, when looking at a map of Africa (see Source GT.32) you might say, 'the forests seem to be located mainly in Central Africa and Southern Africa'.

Q – Quantify

In this step, you need to add specific and accurate information to define and explain the patterns.

Quantifying involves using statistics, amounts, sizes and locations to give specific details. For example, rather than just saying, 'The most forest is located in the centre of the continent', you would need to quantify this statement. You might say instead, '240.3 million hectares of forest has been recorded in Central Africa, compared to 35.4 million hectares in East Africa'.

E – Exceptions

In this step, you need to identify everything that does not fit your patterns.

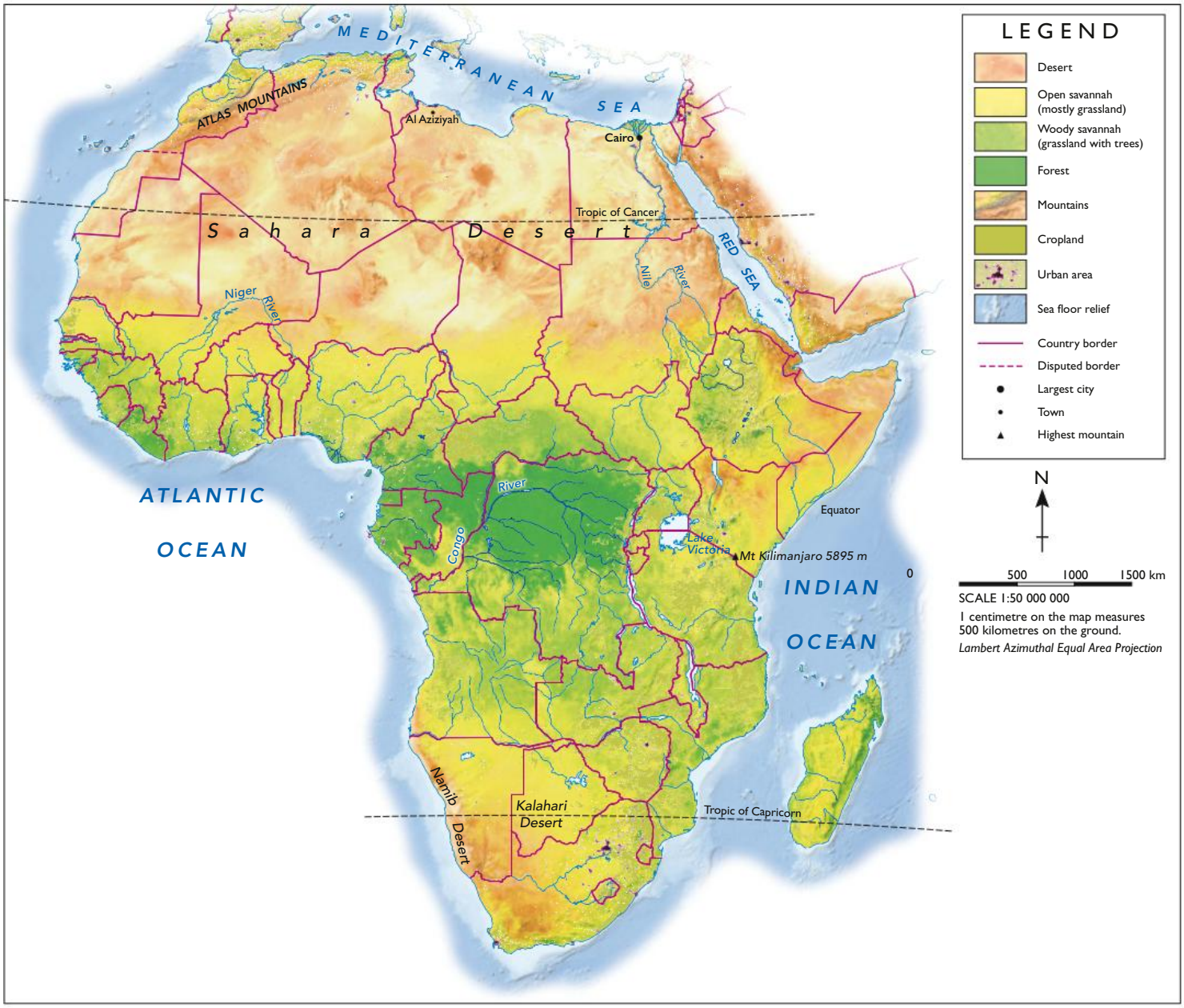
Often, you may find that there are things in your data that do not fit into a pattern you have identified. These are called exceptions. They also need to be identified and quantified. For example, you might say 'There are also forest regions located in North Africa and West Africa'.

Using the SHEEPT method

SHEEPT is a tool used by geographers to help them consider the many factors that may contribute to the patterns identified in their data. When you are examining issues related to your inquiry, it is useful to think about them in terms of these six factors and rank them in order of importance. This will help you reach your conclusions. The letters SHEEPT stand for:

- social (S) – factors relating to culture and people
- historical (H) – factors relating to past events
- environmental (E) – factors relating to the natural environment (including climate, landforms and vegetation)
- economic (E) – factors relating to the earning or spending of money (including income earned from industry and tourism and the cost of building a dam or highway)
- political (P) – factors relating to governments (including laws, regulations and policies)
- technological (T) – factors relating to the availability and use of different types of technology (including the development of greener technologies, alternative energy sources and **GIS**).

AFRICA: ENVIRONMENTS



Source GT.32 Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning GT.4

Remember and understand

1 What do the letters PQE stand for?

2 What do the letters in SHEEPT stand for?

Apply and analyse

3 Look at Source GT.32. Use the PQE method to think about Africa's deserts.
   - a Can you identify a pattern?
   - b Can you quantify this pattern?
   - c Are there any exceptions in this pattern?

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct your own Internet research on the way in which Mount Kilimanjaro is managed and use the SHEEPT method to think more closely about the factors that impact on it.
   - a List at least one point for each of the SHEEPT factors.
   - b What conclusion(s) can you make about the way in which Mount Kilimanjaro is managed?

5 Create a colourful and informative pictogram to help you remember what SHEEPT stands for using an image or picture for each of the 'SHEEPT' letters.

Distinguishing between quantitative and qualitative data

Primary and secondary data provide either **quantitative data** or **qualitative data**. Quantitative data includes anything that can be recorded as numbers (for example, Uluru is 3.6 kilometres long and 1.9 kilometres wide and has a circumference of 9.4 kilometres). Qualitative data, on the other hand, includes anything that can be recorded in words (for example, Uluru, one of Australia's best-known natural landmarks, is very large).

The PQE method uses mainly quantitative data. Examples of quantitative data include:

- climate and temperature statistics
- tourist numbers
- population figures (including birth and death rates)
- types and amounts of food grown
- plant and animal species and wildlife in certain areas
- forest clearance rates
- numbers of people killed in natural disasters
- numbers of volcanic eruptions and earthquakes.

The SHEEPT method uses mainly qualitative data. Examples of qualitative data include:

- opinions
- points of view
- personal stories
- likes and dislikes
- feelings.

Good geographical inquiries will always be based on a combination of primary and secondary data that is both quantitative and qualitative. Even though qualitative data is an important part of any geographical inquiry, quantitative data is considered to be more valuable because it is less open to personal interpretations and can be more accurately represented in graphs and charts.

Before you move to the next stage of your inquiry, it is important to check that you have recorded all your data without errors and that it is balanced and fair. Your data should not reflect your personal opinions, emotions or attitudes; instead it should present the facts in a clear and concise way.

Using other methods to interpret geographical data

Analysing geographic photographs

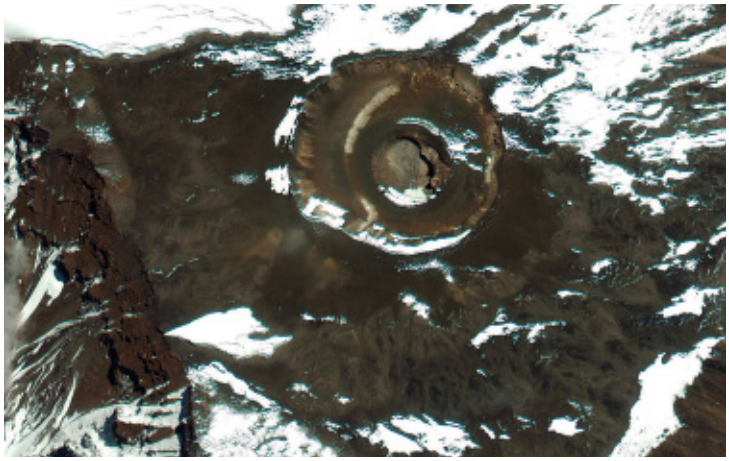
Landscapes can be photographed from several different angles depending on the position of the camera at the time the photograph was taken. Each angle makes some features of the landscape easier to see and interpret than other features, and so you need to carefully consider at which angle the photograph has been taken.



Source GT.33 In this **ground level photograph** of Mount Kilimanjaro, the camera is being held by someone at the same level as the landscape being photographed. This angle allows you to clearly see the height of any object and the detail in vertical surfaces. However, objects such as the mountain and the tent hide the landscape behind them.



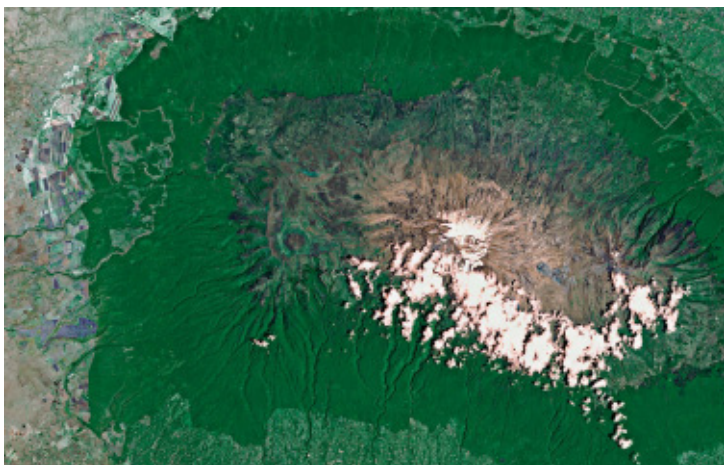
Source GT.34 In this **oblique aerial photograph** the camera is positioned above the landscape, but is angled towards the scene being photographed (oblique means 'at an angle'). This allows you to see both the foreground and the background of the scene. You can also see both the height of an object and its width or area. Objects in the background, however, seem much smaller than those in the foreground.



Source GT.35 In this **vertical aerial photograph**, the camera is positioned directly above the landscape. This vertical (or plan) view allows you to see the extent of any feature such as Kilimanjaro's crater. It is very difficult, however, to judge the steepness of the mountainside or the depth of the crater. Plan views are used for making maps, as the scale is the same over the area shown and similar objects look the same size.

Analysing satellite images

A satellite image is taken from space. It allows us to see large areas of the Earth's surface. These images are often used to investigate patterns such as the streams and rivers that radiate from Mount Kilimanjaro. It is difficult, however, to see smaller features of the environment.



Source GT.36 In this **satellite image** of Mount Kilimanjaro the camera was located on a satellite orbiting 830 km above the Earth's surface.

Analysing false colour images

You may have heard the terms 'false colour image' or 'false colour map' before. The term 'false colour' does not mean the colours used in an image are incorrect, it just means different colours have been used to make the image or map easier to interpret. The cartographer or person working on the image has chosen colours that some make aspects easier to see or understand than a normal 'natural' photograph or map would be.

The colours used in a false colour image can be quite exaggerated and unnatural-looking. This is because the colours of the natural features are too similar to demonstrate a particular point or aspect. If someone is trying to show where a muddy brown river meets a brown-coloured riverbank where there are brown rocks and some brownish shrubs, they might decide to use false colour to clearly show where the different elements are. In that case, they may decide to make the shrub areas bright green, the river neon yellow and the rocks bright red, leaving just the river bank brown.

You should examine the accompanying legend to interpret the colours used in a false colour map.

Check your learning GT.5

Remember and understand

1 What is an oblique aerial photograph?
2 What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of using a vertical aerial photograph?

Apply and analyse

3 Which type of photograph would you take on a field trip?
4 Some geographers are very interested in the amount of snow and ice on Mount Kilimanjaro, as it has been gradually declining for several decades. Which type of photograph do you think would be most useful to show the decline of the total area of the mountain's snow and ice?

Evaluate and create

5 The oblique aerial photograph (Source GT.34) was taken in 1991 and the ground level photograph (Source GT.33) was taken in 2009.
   a How has the mountain top changed in this time?
   b With a partner, discuss some geographical questions you could ask to investigate why the mountain has changed in this time. Don't worry about the answers; just concentrate on writing some good questions.
   c Share your questions with the class. List three questions from the class discussion that you think could be the beginning of a geographical inquiry.
   d Where could you find information to help you investigate these questions?

Communicating

During a geographic inquiry you may discover something new that other people should know about. It is important that you be able to communicate your findings clearly and effectively. There are several ways of doing this and you should select the method that best suits your audience and purpose:

- oral methods, such as reports, discussions and debates
- audio methods, such as radio reports
- graphical methods, such as graphs, annotated photographs, sketches and satellite images
- pictorial methods, such as annotated visual displays or PowerPoint displays
- maps
- written methods, such as essays or other text-based presentations.

skilldrill

Planning, creating and delivering a PowerPoint presentation

Geographers often present their findings to an audience in order to share the results of an inquiry and help others understand how this impacts on their world. Using PowerPoint is a good way of organising and presenting your findings.

You may have found doing oral presentations a little daunting in the past, but following these steps will prepare you to give a PowerPoint presentation with confidence. PowerPoint allows you to embed images and provides a structure for outlining your key points in a clear and concise way. You can then talk through your presentation using the slides to both prompt and support you – using visual aids captures your audience's attention and makes your presentation a lot more informative, too.



Source GT.37 A PowerPoint presentation can be a very effective way of presenting the findings of your geographical inquiry.

Follow these simple steps and tips when planning, creating and delivering the findings of a geographical inquiry:

Plan your presentation

Step 1 Gather the findings of the research you have carried out as part of your geographical inquiry. This should include any written research materials you have collected, the sources you have used, the results of any surveys or interviews, and a range of relevant images, graphs, maps or photographs.

Step 2 Plan your presentation carefully so it has a clear beginning, middle and end. It's likely that you will have a lot of information, so it's important that you present only the most relevant parts and that these are structured logically for the audience.

Step 3 Know the requirements of your presentation. Your teacher will tell you how long your presentation is expected to be and what key points need to be covered. It is important that you plan you presentation in line with these requirements. For example, if you are required to talk for 10 minutes, you might like to present around 10 PowerPoint slides and talk to each one for around a minute. Before you start creating your PowerPoint presentation, it is really useful to sketch out a rough plan of what you want to cover on each slide. Have a practice on your own following your plan. Time how long it takes you to cover the information you plan to fit on one slide. Plan the rest of your presentation using this as a guide.

Create your presentation

Step 4 Once you have worked out the length of your presentation and the content you need to cover, it is time to create your slides. If you are not familiar with PowerPoint, there are plenty of online guides to assist you. Here are some tips to help you create a clear and visually engaging PowerPoint presentation:

- Be sure you present the content in clear, concise dot-point form, not huge slabs of information in paragraph form. You do not need to put all your findings up on the screen.
- Do not fill up your slides with a lot of random pictures that only loosely relate to the content. Include visuals that relate to the content on that particular slide.
- A common mistake is to have objects and text moving on the screen in a way that just distracts the audience. Use graphics, sound, video, animations and transitions only if it adds value to the point being made.
- Use a design that ensures your audience can clearly see and read the slides. You need enough contrast between the text colour and the background colour on the slide, and make sure your font size is large enough.

Step 5 Prepare a set of cue cards. When delivering an audiovisual presentation to an audience do not just stand up and read out the text on each slide. Rather, you should be talking in a way that develops and expands the points on each slide. Carefully plan in advance what you are going to talk about during each slide. Record this plan on cue cards, and refer to these cue cards during your speech to remind you of what to say. Cue cards are also a great support to have if you are prone to nerves!

Step 6 Practise your presentation. You can do this on your own, or in front of a friend or family member. You might feel a bit silly at first, but practising will help you perfect your timing and get you used to talking through the key points of your presentation using your cue cards and slides to support you.

Deliver your presentation

Step 7 Before delivering your presentation, be sure that you're confident that the technology you're using is in good working order. Prior to class, check that everything is working as it should and that the screen you are projecting onto is ready and clearly visible to the audience. If your PowerPoint presentation contains any audio or video footage, check that your speakers are working and audible to the audience.

Step 8 Deliver your presentation by working through the slides in the same way you practised. Here are some tips to help you deliver the best PowerPoint you can:

- Speak clearly – not too fast, not too slow. Vary your tone and pitch to make your presentation more interesting.
- One thing at a time – what is on the screen should be the thing you are talking about. Your audience will quickly read every slide as soon as it is displayed. If there are four points on the slide, they will have read all four points while you are still talking about the first point. Plan your presentation so just one new point is displayed at any given moment. Click to go to the next point only when you are ready to talk about that next point.
- Make eye contact with different members of your audience. Do not just look down at your cue cards!

Step 9 Invite the audience to ask questions and do your best to answer them correctly. If you do not know the answer, or are unsure, don't just make something up on the spot. You are better off being honest and offering to answer any questions at a later stage once you've researched the answer.

Apply the skill

1 Prepare and deliver a PowerPoint presentation on an issue of geography that you find interesting. It could be the local issue that you researched in the previous section, or something you have noticed in the news. Ensure you include some interesting visual elements, such as photographs or graphs, as well as your key points.

Check your learning GT.6

Remember and understand

1 Why is communicating an important part of a geographical inquiry?

2 List three ways you could communicate the findings of your geographical inquiry.

Apply and analyse

3 What do you most enjoy about other students' oral presentations? What do you least enjoy?

Evaluate and create

4 Imagine that you are preparing a PowerPoint presentation for your class on the decline of the glaciers on Mount Kilimanjaro. What are some of the main points you would raise in your presentation? What images from this toolkit would you use to illustrate these points?

Reflecting and responding

Reflecting

The final steps in completing a geographical inquiry are to reflect on the results of your inquiry and the methods that you used. This is an essential step as it allows you to learn important lessons from any mistakes that you have made and apply these lessons in your next geographical inquiry. There are several ways to reflect on your geographical inquiry. Reflecting involves looking at what you have learned, thinking about how it was learned, and asking critical questions about the way your geographical inquiry was conducted. One of the best methods to help you reflect is to complete a self-evaluation checklist (see Source GT.38).

The title of my geographical inquiry is:

My geographical inquiry set out to investigate:

GENERAL POINTS	My rating 1	2	3	4	5	Comments
I was able to complete all stages of my geographical inquiry						
I was able to answer all my key inquiry questions						
I was able to plan my inquiry effectively						
My maps, graphs, tables and diagrams were clear and accurate						
I was able to analyse my data and reach a conclusion						
I was able to communicate my findings in an interesting and appropriate way						

AREAS OF STRENGTH	Comments
My areas of strength are:	
I'm getting much better at:	

AREAS NEEDING IMPROVEMENT	Comments
The part I found most difficult was:	
I need the most help with:	

IMPORTANT ISSUES HIGHLIGHTED BY MY INQUIRY	Comments
The most important thing I learned from my inquiry was:	
This issue is important to me because:	
This issue is important to my community /country/world because:	

Source GT.38 A self-evaluation checklist is a very useful way of reflecting on the findings of your geographical inquiry.

Responding

As well as reflecting on the ways in which you conducted your inquiry, you also need to respond to what you found out. You may even decide that you need to recommend some action based what you found.

Geographers often use the information gathered and analysed in their inquiry for a specific purpose. This could be to report on an issue and educate people, to raise awareness of a potential problem, or to lobby local, state or federal government about a particular concern. This can be done via various means, from presenting official reports or studies, to using social media and starting an online petition. The work you do as a geographer can contribute to your environment, and responding and acting is an important part of this work.

If the results of your geographical inquiry lead you to recommend a plan of action, there are some important things to consider.

- Is it environmentally sustainable? Does the plan impact in a negative way on the natural environment and natural processes?



Source GT.39 Children at school near Mount Kilimanjaro using newly installed taps to wash their hands before preparing food.

- Does it bring more economic benefits than it costs? Is it affordable in both the short term and the long term?
- Does everyone affected by this plan of action benefit from its outcomes or just a few people?

Case study

A geographical inquiry conducted on the lower slopes of Mount Kilimanjaro found that many schools lacked a reliable supply of clean water for sanitation. Based on this inquiry, the members of several non-government organisations along with the local villagers laid hundreds of metres of new pipes and installed tanks and taps so that children at the schools could wash their hands before preparing food (see Source GT.39).

Check your learning GT.7

Remember and understand

1 A self-evaluation checklist is one way to reflect on a geographical inquiry. What are two other ways?

2 Why are the findings of a geographical inquiry often useful to the community?

Apply and analyse

3 What geographical questions do you think began the inquiry that resulted in the new taps in the Tanzanian school shown in Source GT.39?

4 Why is it important that an action plan for change consider the issue of sustainability?

Evaluate and create

5 Create a checklist to assess your map-drawing skills.

GT.3 Fieldwork in geography

Why is fieldwork important?

A historian studying a period in the past will try to find primary sources of information such as letters or diaries to better understand that period. For geographers, the field is an essential primary source of data. Books, websites and maps can give you some information about a particular place but they are usually secondary sources of information. To really understand a landscape or issue you need to go and see it for yourself.

A field trip can be a fun and exciting experience as you spend time with your classmates in an interesting place. As well as being fun, field trips are an essential part of your geography course. This is because fieldwork:

- helps you to better understand how the world 'works' as it builds a bridge between what you learn in a classroom and the world outside that classroom.
- teaches you new skills, particularly in collecting information. Many of these skills, such as surveying and digital mapping, are in demand in the workplace.
- allows you to learn about the world in a new and different way. Not everyone learns well by reading books or answering questions in the classroom. Many students learn more by completing practical, hands-on activities such as fieldwork.
- gives you the opportunity to discover how other people feel about their environment and to compare this to your own values and ideas about your world.
- requires you to be organised and to work cooperatively with other people.



Source GT.40 You never know where fieldwork will take you! These geographers are using a drill to examine the age of the glaciers on Mount Kilimanjaro.

The skills associated with fieldwork

The aim of all fieldwork is to enable you to develop the skills of observation, information gathering, analysis and interpretation of different forms of data and communication of your results. The types of fieldwork you conduct will differ according to your chosen topic and the fieldwork site. All fieldwork is activity-based and inquiry-based. You will be:

- identifying different types of environments and the features within them
- describing what you see around you in geographic terms
- recording data from different sources
- sampling things like water quality and wind speed
- investigating why things are where they are
- comparing different features to see if there is a pattern
- calculating amounts such as water flow, number of different species of plants and animals, visitor numbers
- analysing different forms of data
- forming a more complete picture of the area you are studying
- communicating your findings.

All these activities are aimed at developing and improving your geographic skills and understanding.

Fieldwork locations and inquiry questions

Fieldwork can take place in many locations and for a wide variety of purposes. The best locations tend to be where change is happening before your eyes. Rivers and coasts are popular fieldwork locations because the constant movement of water in these places changes the natural environment, often resulting in a response from people. Shopping centres, parks and city streets are also popular because the constant movement of people creates patterns, flows and changes. Source GT.41 provides examples of fieldwork locations and inquiry questions that can be the beginning of an investigation at some of these locations.

Source GT.41 Examples of fieldwork locations and inquiry questions for a range of topics

Unit	Fieldwork locations	Inquiry questions
Biomes and food security	Local farm	What crops or animals are grown on this farm? What makes this place suitable for this type of farming? How has the farmer changed the natural environment? What new technologies is the farmer using? How does this impact on the farm's productivity?
	Rural urban fringe	Is the city growing in this region? What are the main drivers of this growth? How has this impacted on food and fibre production in the past? What evidence is there for changing land use patterns?
Geographies of interconnections	Local business	How is this business connected to people in other places? How have new communication and information technologies changed this business? What is the size and shape of the region served by this business?
	Major shopping centre	How many businesses in this centre are foreign owned? Where are the goods offered in the shops in this centre manufactured? Where do the customers who use this centre come from? How is this shopping centre connected to people in other places?
Environmental change and management	River or stream Coast	What natural processes are shaping this riverine or coastal environment? How do these natural processes impact on human activities? What human activities have changed the natural processes and environment in this place? How have these environmental changes been managed? How effective has this management been? What further management strategies could be used to better manage change in this place?
Geographies of human wellbeing	Two contrasting suburbs	What are living conditions like in these two suburbs? What are the similarities and differences? How can these differences be mapped? Why do these differences occur? How can wellbeing be improved in these places?
	Program to improve wellbeing	What are the aims of this program? Why does this program exist? How successful is the program in reducing inequalities in wellbeing? How could it become more successful? Could this program be applied in other regions and places?

Conducting successful fieldwork

Fieldwork is a type of geographical inquiry, so whenever you take part in fieldwork you will need to follow the stages that are outlined in this toolkit, namely:

Stage 1 Observing, questioning and planning

Begin by looking at an issue or location and compile a set of related inquiry questions that you would like to answer. There are some suggestions in the previous table to get you started. Plan what information you will need to answer your key questions, how you will collect it and what equipment and skills you will need.

Stage 2 Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing

Plan your fieldwork so that you can collect the evidence and data that you will need. There is a range of geographic skills that are well suited to field work. These include taking photos, drawing field sketches, conducting surveys and collecting data such as stream and pedestrian flows. You need to consider ethical principles such as people's right to confidentiality and the right to refuse to take part in a survey. If your class is planning a field trip to a natural environment such as a forest or beach, you will need to ensure you do not damage the environment by trampling on plants or animals, or by dropping litter.

Stage 3 Interpreting, analysing and concluding

Analyse the evidence you have collected and look for patterns or clues that will help you to answer your inquiry questions. This is usually done in the classroom where you can more easily draw maps and graphs to interpret your information and reach some conclusions.

Stage 4 Communicating

Communicate what you have found to an audience in the form of a written report, an oral presentation or an annotated visual display (AVD).

Stage 5 Reflecting and responding

Think about your fieldwork findings and reflect on ways to improve your investigation process. Finally, decide on a course of action, if this is appropriate. This should take into account environmental, economic and social factors.

A fieldwork example: Inner city renewal

In the following example, the Year 10 geography class at Gumtree College are investigating an urban renewal project near the central business district (CBD) in their capital city. Fifteen years ago the area was a vast neglected industrial site of old docks, cranes, sheds and railway lines. It has now been transformed into a residential and commercial hub with apartment blocks, office buildings, parks, shops, theatres, television studios and a major sporting arena. The Gumtree College students are investigating this area as part of their studies of environmental change and management of an urban environment.

Stage 1 Observing, questioning and planning

Prior to their fieldtrip, the students used the Internet and a promotional DVD to learn more about the area. Based on these observations they brainstormed a series of geographical questions that could form the basis of their inquiry. These included:

- How has this region changed over time?
- What are the causes of change in this region?
- What are the consequences of change on the built environment and on the natural environment?
- How are environmental changes in this region managed at present?
- How can environmental changes in this region be better managed in the future?

After some discussion, the students decided on the third question, but decided to modify it slightly to make it easier to study and measure. Their inquiry question became 'What are the consequences of change in this region on the built environment?'

It was decided that the class would spend one full day in the region after travelling into the inner city by train. Following the field trip they would then spend time in class preparing a field report.

The students spent some time before the field trip planning what information they could collect and observe for their inquiry. They decided that they could investigate previous land uses in the area by accessing old photographs and maps. Then, while on the field trip, they would look for examples of changing land uses. This could include old buildings being demolished, or the appearance of new buildings, roads, bridges or other structures that were not in the old photographs and maps.

Stage 2 Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing

The students researched the region and collected a series of photographs that showed the ways in which the region was used in the past and how these uses have changed over time. They found the National Library of Australia website (http://trove.nla.gov.au/) particularly useful. They printed some of these photographs and took them to the area when they visited on their field trip. Activities they completed on the field trip included:

- completing a field sketch of new housing developments in a part of the area (see Source GT.42).
- taking geographic photographs and comparing these to old photographs (see Source GT.43). The photographs they took included images of a new train station, new sports stadium, new roads and new apartment buildings. Some students also photographed an old goods shed and old wharf facilities.
- mapping examples of land use changes on an outline map of the region. Included on the map were examples of buildings that have retained their original use, old buildings that have changed use, new buildings and areas cleared for new buildings.
- selecting examples of change as case studies. Some groups of students chose a new train station that had replaced an old one, some chose a new sports stadium that had been built on an area previously used for rail yards, and another group selected a goods shed that had been converted into restaurants. At each site students listed the changes they observed and the impacts of these changes on surrounding areas. They also discussed the possible reasons for these changes. Some completed a field sketch of their case study.



Source GT.42 Students completing a field sketch of an inner city renewal project

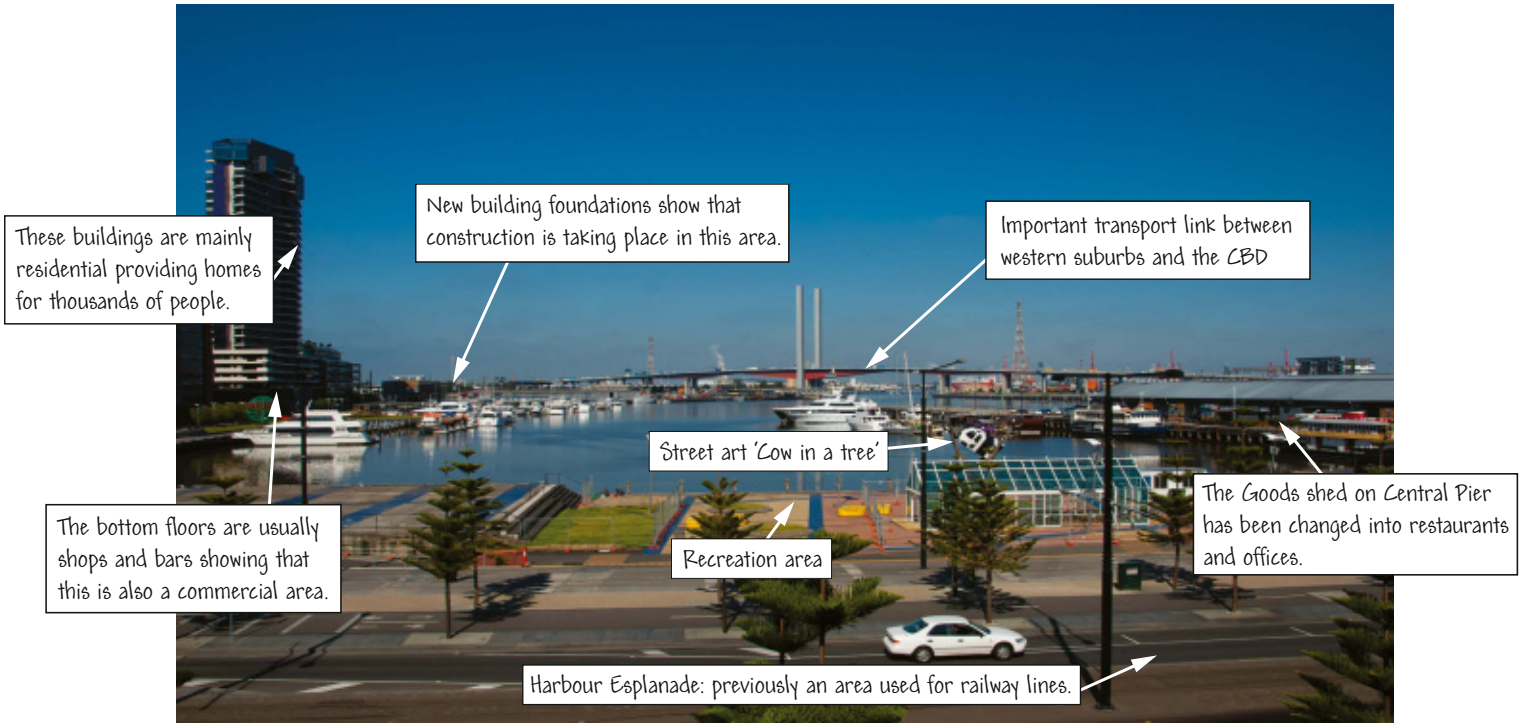


Source GT.43 Students using old photographs of the region to observe change over time

Stage 3 Interpreting, analysing and concluding

After completing their fieldwork, students returned to the classroom to make sense of the information they had collected and recorded. They used this information to make a series of conclusions about changes to the built environments that have occurred over time. In order to do this, they:

- constructed an overlay map to compare an old map of the region with the map they drew while on the fieldtrip. They discovered that the shape of the river banks had changed little and that previous land reclamation areas had remained the same over the last 50 years. The rail yards had been moved to make way for the new sports stadium and the footprint of the new train station was slightly larger than the previous station. Many goods-handling areas and buildings from the previous industrial land use had been replaced with new apartment buildings and a large park. Roads from the CBD had been extended into the new precinct and new tram lines had been added.
- annotated their photographs of their case study sites to show how these sites had changed over time and the impacts of these changes on other areas (see Source GT. 44). Students concluded that change had been uneven, with some areas changing little, while others had undergone large-scale and dramatic changes. They also concluded that one of the driving forces for these changes has been the growth of the population of the city, increasing the demand for inner-city housing.
- concluded that the changes in this area have been largely positive as the area had become an unattractive wasteland prior to the urban renewal project. Some students felt that the area could be improved to make it more attractive for people to live there. They suggested that a school would be an asset in the area, as would more open spaces and recreation facilities like a water park or skate park.



Source GT.44 An annotated geographic photograph completed as part of a geographical inquiry by students at Gumtree College.

Stage 4 Communicating

Students completed field reports based on their geographical inquiry. Each student was required to complete a sketch book that included a range of visual and written material. Examples of visual material included an overlay map to show change over time and a range of annotated photographs. Written material included reports on the ways in which the area has changed over time and a description of the ways in which it is expected to change over the next twenty years.

Groups of students delivered presentations on their selected case studies. Most used ICT programs such as PowerPoint and Prezi to present photographs of their site. These were posted on the school website and discussion forum, and several parents from the school community added their own memories about the region as it was in the past. The class discussed the differences and similarities between each of the case studies.

Stage 5 Reflecting and responding

Following the submission of their field reports students reflected on their findings and the methods they used to reach their conclusions. They decided that the key inquiry question they had chosen was a good one although several students commented that it was difficult to work out why change had occurred in this place over time. They completed a self-evaluation checklist to reflect on the findings of their fieldwork (see Source GT.38) and the ways in which they could improve.

Many students felt that the overlay map was a very good way to demonstrate how an area has changed over time and suggested that this technique could also be used on old photographs. The fieldwork was used as the basis for a class discussion about the positive and negative impacts of the observed changes on the natural environment.

Check your learning GT.8

Remember and understand

1 Why is it important to plan ahead for fieldwork?

2 What are some of the key advantages of fieldwork for geography students?

Apply and analyse

3 Name a place you are familiar with that could be investigated using some of the techniques used by the Gumtree College students. Work with a partner to decide on a variety of inquiry questions that could be used to guide a fieldtrip to this location.

4 Gumtree College students worked in groups to study individual sites. What are some of the advantages of working in this way rather than as a whole class?

5 Examine Source GT.44. How might this annotated photograph help the students to answer their inquiry question?

6 What other information could the students have collected on their field trip to help them answer their inquiry question?

Evaluate and create

7 Year 10 students at another school studied change in rivers as part of a geographical inquiry into environmental change and management. They planned a field trip to a local river (see Source GT.45).

- a What inquiry questions could they generate to guide their inquiry at this site?
- b Work in a small group to describe the steps you would undertake to explore one of these questions using fieldwork.



Source GT.45 This site is the planned location for a fieldwork trip to investigate environmental change and management of a river.

GT.4 Careers in geography

In recent years there has been a marked increase in the number and range of jobs and careers that are linked to geography. This is likely to continue well into the future, due to a growing awareness of how important it is to understand our fragile environment. Many employers are also becoming more aware of the many skills that geographers have and the usefulness of these skills in a wide range of careers.

Many geographers find that their skills and expertise are in such demand that they can easily find employment all around the world. There are many jobs and careers that are linked to your study of geography at school. Some of these are listed in Source GT.46.

Source GT.46 Studying geography can lead to many interesting and exciting careers.

Working indoors	Sharing knowledge	Related opportunities
Urban planner	Cartographer: both printed and digital maps	Studying hazards and disasters
Meteorologist and climatologist	Teacher	Studying climate change
GIS specialist	Environmental educator	Archaeologist
Transport planner	Map editor and librarian	Agricultural scientist
Working with statistics such as census data	Tour guide	Researcher
Geomatic /geospatial engineer	Writer/editor	Medical geographer/ health services planner
Regional planner	Journalist	Social data analyst
Geography analyst/ strategy consultant	Travel consultant	Developing new GIS applications

Working indoors

Not all geography jobs involve working outside. New information and communication technologies (ICT) have increased the number and range of geography careers that are completed indoors. Many of these are involved with planning future strategies and changes to the built environment. Planners are concerned about the ways in which different parts of a suburb or city fit together and the links between them. Like many geographers, planners increasingly use GIS systems and other ICT applications. A relatively new geography career is using geomatic engineering. This uses GPS, GIS, 3-D computer images, surveying, satellite images and photos in the field of engineering. It is one of Australia's fastest growing ICT fields.

Career profile: Lucy Johnson – Urban planner

Lucy Johnson uses her geographic skills to help create and manage liveable spaces in a city council planning department. Residents and developers who wish to change the ways in which their properties are used must apply to Lucy and her fellow planners for permission. She assesses every proposal carefully to ensure that it does not adversely affect the natural environment or other local residents. 'Some proposals are met with great opposition from residents, who are extremely passionate about preserving their streetscapes and the character of their neighbourhood,' says Lucy. It is part of her job to find a balance between development and the protection of the character of the neighbourhood.

Lucy believes that, '…town planning is crucial, not just in creating physical environments, but in sustainably changing the way in which we use land and accommodate population growth. Our resources are finite and we must ensure that future generations can



Source GT.47 Lucy Johnson is an urban planner who helps to create liveable spaces in Melbourne.

live and prosper just as we do.' She also believes career opportunities in her chosen field are vast, varied and increasingly more important.

Sharing knowledge

Geographers are good communicators who are used to working in teams to solve problems and propose solutions. Many geographers have used these and other skills to share their knowledge with the community. There are many career opportunities in education, including teaching in schools and universities – even overseas. Other geographers work in publishing, as writers, journalists, editors or cartographers.



Source GT.48 This Australian geography teacher is educating Fijian kindergarten children about the importance of better nutrition and increased physical activity.

Exploring new ideas

The inquiry and research skills that are part of your geography course (including observing, questioning, interpreting, analysing and communicating) are in great demand in many industries. Many geographers are also researchers who explore new ideas and propose new ways of thinking about the world in which we live. These geographers are making new and exciting discoveries in areas such as climate change, reducing the impacts of disasters, the spread of diseases and food security. They are also in demand with mining and oil companies around the world (see Source GT.49)



Source GT.49 These geographers are using a 3D visualisation and GIS to predict the most productive locations for oil drilling.

Check your learning GT.9

Remember and understand

1 Why is the number of careers in geography likely to increase in the future?

2 List three jobs you could do as a geographer if you wanted a job where you could explore new ideas.

Apply and analyse

3 What geography careers in Source GT.46 are connected to the concept of sustainability?

4 What skills do geographers have that make them useful in helping communities recover from natural disasters?

5 Why do you think a background in geography would be useful for an archaeologist?

Evaluate and create

6 Select one of the careers from Source GT.46 that interests you. Research this career and prepare a one-page fact sheet that includes at least one picture. Include answers to the following questions in your career fact sheet.

- a What qualifications are needed in this career?
- b How does someone working this career use geographic skills and concepts?
- c What aspect of this career do you think is most attractive?



Environmental change and management

unit 1

Changing and managing the environment



Biosphere 2, one of the world's largest scientific experiments, sits in the Arizona desert. It is a miniature replica of the world's **biomes** (an **environment** with distinctive climate, plants and animal species). It was built to explore the possibility of sustaining human life on other planets. Eight people were sealed inside for two years with the aim of surviving without outside help. Despite a cost of US$200 million, Biosphere 2 could not generate sufficient breathable air, drinkable water or adequate food for the eight people inside, and after 18 months oxygen had to be pumped in from outside.

The Earth supports 7 billion people every day, supplying us with the water, air and food we need to survive. This is done through a multitude of systems – some tiny, others as large as the Earth itself. Without these systems, life as we know it would not exist. Despite this, many human activities are threatening these systems through climate change, species extinction, land and water degradation and pollution.

1.1

How do human activities affect the environment?

1 One of the biggest problems faced by the inhabitants of Biosphere 2 was a build-up of carbon dioxide and falling oxygen levels. How are these levels maintained on Earth?

2 How do you think the inhabitants dealt with their waste?

1.2

How do people change and manage the land?

1 Biosphere 2, built north of the expanding city of Tucson, came under threat in 2007 when the land on which it sits was going to be used for a new housing estate. Apart from housing, what are some other ways in which people change the land?

2 How would the building of Biosphere 2 have changed the surrounding land?



Source 1.1 Biosphere 2 was built in 1987 with the aim of creating an artificial environment on Earth that could sustain human life and be transferred to other planets.

1.3

How do people change and manage fresh water?

1 How do the Earth's systems provide us with a supply of fresh water?

2 Brainstorm some of the ways in which the supply of fresh water on Earth is threatened.

1.1 How do human activities affect the environment?

Our environment: The key to sustaining life

As far as we know, planet Earth is the only place in the universe capable of supporting human life. This is because the environment here provides organisms such as plants and animals with everything they need to survive: food, light, water and air. Humans, of course, are one of these organisms, and our survival on Earth is largely due to the services provided by the natural environment around us (see Source 1.2).

Unlike most other organisms, however, humans have the ability to degrade the environment to such an extent that the **ecosystem services** on which we rely become threatened. This is now happening around the world in many different places and in many different ways.

A working environment

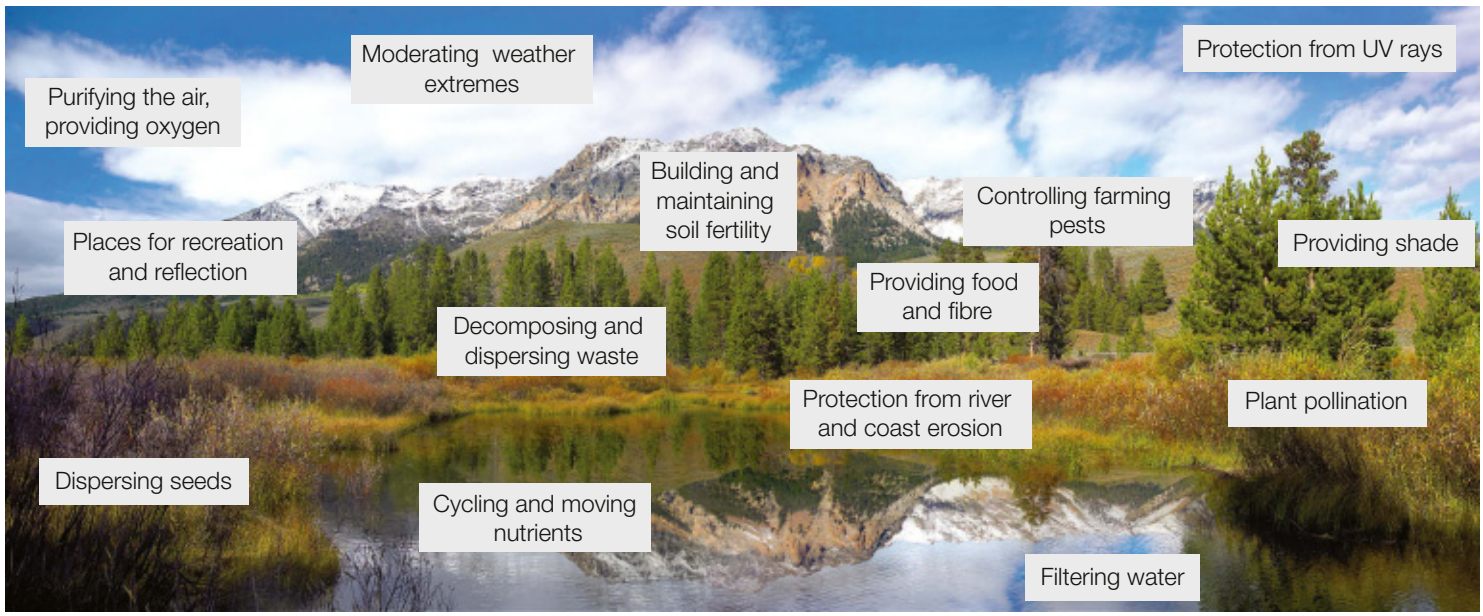
The way in which we think about our environment has changed dramatically over the last few decades. Once seen as a bottomless pit of resources providing everything we need, it is now viewed as a fragile system threatened by human actions. The ecosystem services it provides (like clean air, plant pollination and fertile soil) have long been ignored or taken for granted. This is partly because, unlike products we can touch such as food, water and timber, humans have been unable to put a monetary value on these ecosystem services. However, as the environment becomes degraded, the true value of these services is beginning to be recognised.

The four S's of ecosystem services

Ecosystem services can be classified according to the products they provide and the functions they perform. There are four main classifications: **sources**, **sinks**, **services** and **spirituality**.

Sources

Sources (also called provisioning services) are those natural products that can be used or converted by humans for our use. For example, mineral deposits such as coal which we turn into fuel, iron ore which we use in manufacturing, timber from natural forests, and food sources – from plant crops to deep sea fish.



Source 1.2 Some of the ecosystem services provided by the environment

Sinks

Sinks (also called regulating services) are those processes in the natural environment that absorb our waste.

For example, micro-organisms in oceans break down oil spills. In a similar way, bacteria in the soil breaks down human waste.

Services

Services (also called supporting services) are things that are done for us by the natural environment that don't produce consumable resources. For example, wetlands filter water and slow floodwaters. Forests absorb carbon dioxide and produce oxygen.

Spirituality

The environment also has a spiritual function for many people. For some, this is a deep connection to the land formed over many generations. For example, the connection that Indigenous Australians have with their tribal lands. For others, it is the experience of spending time in the natural environment and the sense of wellbeing that this brings. For example, people taking part in activities such as surfing and bushwalking often feel a deep connection with the environment. This can also be referred to as cultural services.



Source 1.3 The Walgal and Ngarigo people have lived in the Australian Alps for thousands of years and many have a deep, spiritual connection to the place.

Check your learning 1.1

Remember and understand

1. What are ecosystem services?
2. Why do we often take them for granted?

Apply and analyse

3. Classify each of the ecosystem services shown in Source 1.2 as source, sink, service or spirituality.
4. Can you think of one more example of each?
5. Examine the image of the Australian Alps (Source 1.3) and give an example of a source, sink, service and spirituality function of this environment.

Evaluate and create

6. Which of the ecosystem services shown in Source 1.2 do you consider to be the most valuable to humans? Justify your choice.
7. Which ecosystem service do you think is most threatened by human activities? What would change if this service could no longer be provided by the environment?
8. The designers of Biosphere 2 attempted to provide all of the ecosystem services shown in Source 1.2. Conduct some research to find out which services they were able to provide easily and which were the most difficult to provide.

One world, many views

In December 2011, Miranda Gibson, a 30-year-old school teacher, built a platform in a tree 60 metres above the forest floor in Tasmania's Styx Valley. She then set up home on the platform and vowed not to leave it until the tree and the surrounding forest had been granted protection from logging companies. Armed with a laptop and wireless Internet connection, she wrote a daily blog which was viewed by tens of thousands of supporters. She also made the news around the world. Despite freezing cold, snow and rain, she remained up the tree for 449 days, an Australian record, and was forced down only when a nearby bushfire threatened her safety. While she had many supporters around the world, she also had many critics. At one stage, a pro-logging group camped at the base of the tree to protest against Gibson's protest.



Source 1.4 Miranda Gibson made her home high in the branches of this tree for 449 days.

Why is it that some people become so passionate about preserving the natural environment while others do not? For example, one person can look at a rainforest and see the beauty of nature, whereas the person standing beside them can only see the money to be made by turning the tree into timber. We can see these differences all over the world, wherever the natural environment is changing.

Studies show that different people view the environment in different ways because of the fundamental beliefs they hold about human beings and our place in the natural world. The reasons for holding these beliefs are very complex, but it appears that where we live, our standard of living, our education and our religion all play important roles. Although each person's view of the world is unique, researchers have managed to classify them into four major groups (see Source 1.5). It is important to understand that one view is not necessarily 'better' or 'worse' than another, it is simply different.

World views

Human-centred

Egocentric
I am the most important creature on Earth. Everything and everyone else is important to the extent that they support me and my lifestyle.

Anthropocentric
Humans are the most important species. We are in charge of the Earth and the natural world. We can use nature to support us and our lifestyle.

Earth-centred

Ecocentric
We should do whatever we can to minimise our impact and preserve the Earth's biodiversity. We are no more important than any other organism.

Biocentric
We have a responsibility to use the Earth's resources in a sustainable way. Other species may be useful to us but they also have as much right to exist as we do.

Source 1.5 World views about the environment

What is your world view?

In order to evaluate the different ways in which people view the world, US environmental social researchers have developed a set of 15 statements called the New Ecological Paradigm (NEP) scale. People are asked to read each of the statements and decide whether they agree or disagree with them on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is 'strongly disagree' and 5 is 'strongly agree'. This allows researchers to compare the world views of different groups of people within and between countries.

Source 1.6 The New Ecological Paradigm (NEP) scale

1. We are approaching the limit of the number of people the Earth can support.
2. Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs.
3. When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences.
4. Human ingenuity will ensure that we do not make the Earth unliveable.
5. Humans are seriously abusing the environment.
6. The Earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them.
7. Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist.
8. The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations.
9. Despite our special abilities, humans are still subject to the laws of nature.
10. The so-called 'ecological crisis' facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated.
11. The Earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources.
12. Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature.
13. The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset.
14. Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it.
15. If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe.

Source: Dunlap, Riley E.; et al. (2000). Measuring endorsement of the new ecological paradigm: A revised NEP scale. *Journal of Social Issues, 56* (3), 425–442

Check your learning 1.2

Remember and understand

1. What is the main difference between human-centred and Earth-centred world views?
2. Use Source 1.5 to classify Miranda Gibson's world view.

Apply and analyse

3. Read the 15 statements in Source 1.6. In a table, record the numbers of the statements you agree with in one column and the numbers of the statements you disagree with in another. (If you agreed with all or most of the seven even-numbered statements, researchers would classify you as having a human-centred world view. If you agreed with all or most of the odd-numbered statements, they would classify you as having an Earth-centred world view.)
   a. Describe your world view based on your responses to this test. Did you find your results surprising?
   b. Find a classmate with a similar world view to you and discuss with them their views of Miranda Gibson's anti-logging protest.
   c. Find a classmate with a very different world view to yours and find out what they think about the anti-logging protest.
   d. Ask an older person such as one of your parents to respond to the 15 statements and compare their responses to yours.

Evaluate and create

4. Do you think the NEP scale is an accurate way to evaluate people's world views? Can you suggest any ways in which this method could be improved?
5. Using the Internet, do some further research on the issue of logging in Tasmania's Styx Valley. Identify the individuals and groups who believe the area should be logged and the individuals and groups who believe the area should be protected from logging.
   a. For each of the individuals or groups, summarise their point of view in regard to logging in the Styx Valley.
   b. Give some possible reasons why these different points of view exist in relation to this issue.

Challenges to sustainability

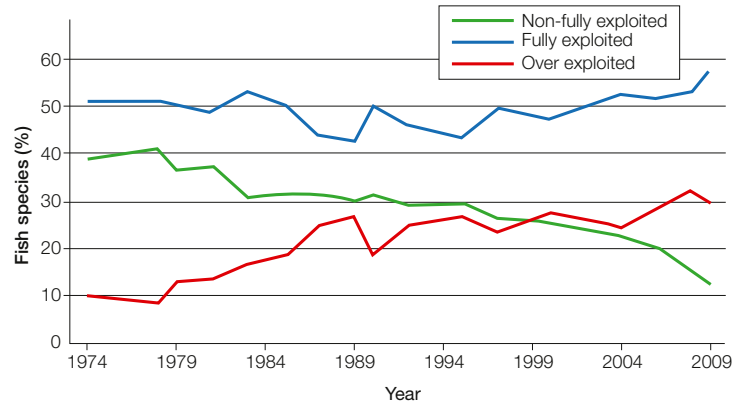
Virtually all human activities impact on the natural environment in some way, but humans can reduce these impacts by using the Earth's resources sustainably. The concept of **sustainability** relates to the ongoing capacity of the environment to support the lives of all living things into the future. The sustainable use of resources such as **fossil fuels**, forests and oceans is about carefully managing these resources so that they meet the needs of today without compromising the ability of future generations to do the same – put simply, it is about using the Earth's resources at levels that allow the planet to replace or replenish them naturally. This is a particularly important concept when we consider our use of natural resources that supply us with food and water, such as forests, rivers, the oceans and farmland. If resources are used sustainably, the quality of the environment is maintained and the resources will continue to provide for future generations.

Case study: The fishing industry and world fish production

Fish are a vital food resource, providing over 15 per cent of the animal protein eaten each day by three billion people. Currently, about 540 million people are employed in the fishing (fish catching) or aquaculture (fish farming) industries.

Many of the world's fish species, however, have been fished beyond sustainable levels and their numbers are now in serious decline (see Source 1.7). More than half of the species investigated by the United Nations are described as being 'fully exploited' and have no potential for increased production in the future. Another third of fish species are described as being 'over exploited'. This means that they are currently being fished at an unsustainable level. However, if effective management plans are put in place now to reduce the numbers taken from the sea, these species may recover.

Unsustainable levels of fishing are being driven by the food demands of an increasing world population and by modern fishing techniques. These techniques include using spotter planes and GPS to locate large schools of fish, fishing in deeper waters and dragging huge nets along the ocean floor. Fewer and fewer fish are now surviving to adulthood, because they are being caught and eaten as juveniles, before they have had a chance to breed and produce more fish. This means that the fish being caught are not being replaced.



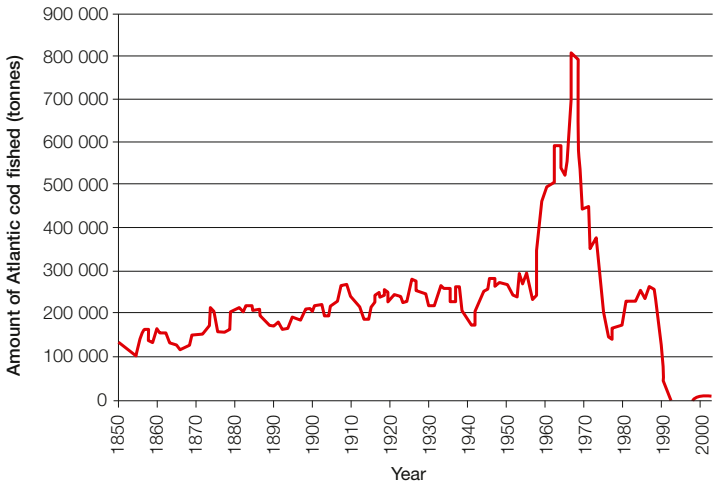
Source 1.7 Global trends in world marine fish species supplies since 1974 Source: FAO



Source 1.8 These Bluefin tuna are caught in the Mediterranean Sea then fattened in cages before being shot, frozen and shipped to Japan to become sushi. Remaining stocks of wild tuna are listed as endangered species but little is being done to protect them.

A warning from the past: The disappearing Atlantic cod

The people of the north-western United States and Canada have fished the coastal waters of the Atlantic Ocean for hundreds of years. The most prized fish of their catch is the Atlantic cod which once existed in vast numbers. Up until the mid-1950s, around 300000 tonnes of Atlantic cod were caught each year in the region's waters. By the middle of the 1960s, large-scale fishing trawlers, using vast nets and mechanical winches, were catching 100 tonnes of Atlantic cod an hour. By 1968, the amount caught peaked at more than 800000 tonnes before the Atlantic cod population collapsed. Despite attempts to protect the remaining cod in the last few decades, the population has never recovered (see Source 1.9).



Source 1.9 Amount of Atlantic cod fished off the East Coast of Newfoundland, 1850–2000



Source 1.10 Large-scale fishing practices implemented from the 1960s onwards devastated the population of Atlantic cod in the United States and Canada.

Making fishing sustainable

In more recent times, countries such as Australia, New Zealand and the USA have put in place fisheries management plans to make their fishing industries sustainable and to ensure good numbers of fish stock in the ocean in the future. These plans monitor fish populations and place quotas on the fishing industry, limiting the numbers of fish that can be caught. These management plans have proven very effective at increasing and maintaining fish numbers.

Consumers can also play a part in ensuring the sustainability of fish supplies by choosing to only eat fish that have been farmed or caught in sustainable ways. Organisations such as the Australian Marine Conservation Society provide lists of fish that are safe to eat and fish that you should avoid because they are endangered.

Check your learning 1.3

Remember and understand

1 In your own words, define sustainability.

2 Explain why the history of Atlantic cod fishing is an example of unsustainable resource use.

Apply and analyse

3 Copy and annotate Source 1.9 to describe the important trends and changes in the numbers of Atlantic cod caught off the coast of Newfoundland, 1850–2000.

Evaluate and create

4 Aquaculture is seen by many as the best way of providing fish for human consumption in the future. Research this booming industry. Do you see this as a sustainable alternative to traditional fishing?

5 Construct your own line graph to explore global trends in fish supplies into the future.

- a Draw up a set of axes: the vertical axis (*y*-axis) should show the percentage of fish species from 0 to 100 per cent. The horizontal axis (*x*-axis) should show the year from 1974 to 2050.
- b Copy the line showing fish species that are 'over exploited' from Source 1.7 onto your graph.
- c Based on the trend from 1974–2009, continue this line in a different colour to show the likely trend until 2050.
- d Describe the trend shown on your completed graph. If your prediction turns out to be true, what will this mean for the fishing industry and consumers around the world?

Loss of biodiversity

Biodiversity refers to the variety of living organisms on the planet. Biodiversity is measured by the number of species present in a particular ecosystem or region. The Earth's biodiversity is currently under threat, decreasing at a rate that rivals the mass **extinction** of the dinosaurs. It is difficult to give an exact figure on the number of species reaching extinction each year but it has been estimated at between 17 000 and 100 000 species annually. The world's most famous fossil hunter, Dr Richard Leakey, believes that this represents 'a rate comparable with the impact of a giant asteroid slamming into the planet'.

This loss of biodiversity not only impacts the natural environment but also has serious consequences for all human beings on Earth. Ecosystem services such as food, fibre and fresh water supplies, crop pollination by insects and birds, and protection against natural disasters are in decline.



Source 1.11 Much of the world's land surface is no longer in its natural state. Farmland and cities have replaced areas once covered by forests and grasslands. Farming, as with this beef cattle farm in Brazil, tends to replace hundreds of species with just one. This greatly reduces biodiversity.

What's causing the loss of biodiversity?

This loss of biodiversity is due almost entirely to the impact of just one species – humans. Our use of the Earth's resources and the changes this use brings to the natural environment are pushing many species to extinction. The five main causes of this are:

- habitat change such as deforestation
- over exploitation of resources such as fresh water
- pollution of land, water and air
- the spread of **invasive species**
- **climate change** brought about by human activity.

Species facing extinction

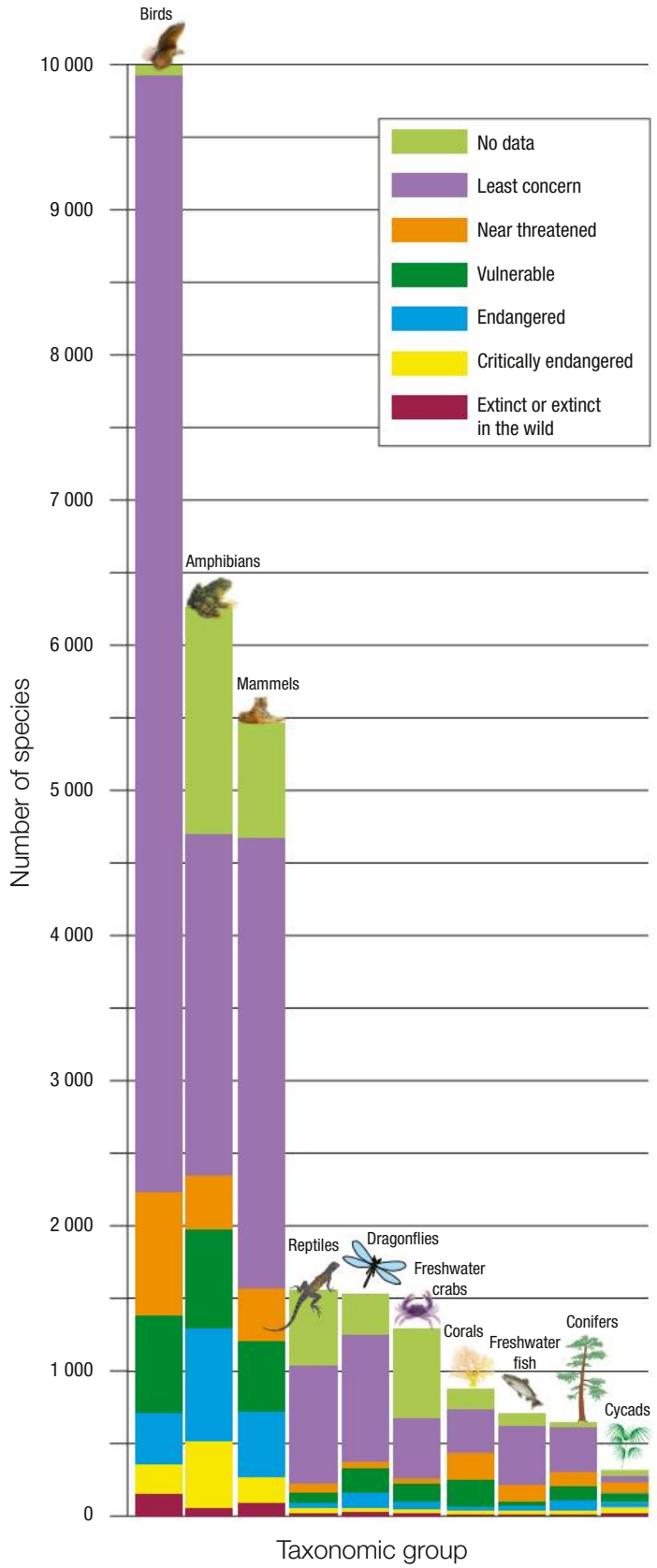
The International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) is an organisation that assesses the likelihood that species will become extinct. Of the almost 50 000 species they have studied, 36 per cent can be considered threatened with extinction. Birds and amphibians (such as frogs) are particularly under threat (see Source 1.13).

A world without frogs?

The number of frog species in the world is in dramatic decline and many researchers are linking this to climate change. The skin of frogs is particularly thin and permeable, meaning that moisture is able to pass through it easily. With the drier, warmer climate, many frogs are losing more water through their skin than they are taking in.



Source 1.12 The last golden toad was seen in 1989, and like 33 other amphibian species since then, it is now considered extinct.



Source 1.13 IUCN data on the levels of threat faced by the major life groups (known as taxonomic groups)

They are also losing their breeding grounds, as small ponds and water collected in the hollows of trees are drying up and disappearing.

The greatest threat, however, is from disease. A parasitic fungus from Africa, known as amphibian chytrid, has spread across the planet in the last few decades. Warmer temperatures associated with climate change have created favourable conditions for the spread of this parasite which was previously held back by cooler night-time temperatures.

After studying the spread of this disease in Central America, a leading researcher in this field stated that 'disease is the bullet killing frogs, but climate change is pulling the trigger.' He found that two-thirds of all of the region's species of harlequin frogs were already extinct from this combination of factors. He and other scientists believe that frogs may be the planet's early warning system on climate change.

Check your learning 1.4

Remember and understand

1 What is biodiversity?
2 Why is biodiversity important?

Apply and analyse

3 How would a person with a human-centred world view (see Source 1.5) feel about the environmental change shown in Source 1.11?
4 Examine Source 1.13.
   a Which taxonomic group has suffered the most extinctions? Which of the five main causes of biodiversity loss do you think is most responsible for this?
   b Use the graph to describe the levels of threat faced by amphibians.
   c What is the level of threat facing the world's corals? Find out what ecosystem services would be threatened by a loss of coral species.

Evaluate and create

5 Describe the change in biodiversity shown in Source 1.11. Which of the five main causes of the loss of biodiversity does this illustrate?
6 Find an image which illustrates another of the causes and give it a suitable title and caption.
7 Search for the IUCN red list on the Internet. Use this list to investigate Australia's Southern Corroboree Frog. How many of these frogs remain in the wild and what dangers do they face?

Climate change

Although the world's climate has been changing for millions of years, in more recent times there has been an increase in the concentration of certain gases in the atmosphere. Many of these gases – known as greenhouse gases – are found naturally in the environment, but human activities have increased the levels of these gases to a point where they are influencing global climate. The four main greenhouse gases include:

- carbon dioxide from burning fossil fuels such as coal
- methane from the large-scale farming of livestock
- nitrous oxide from the use of fertilisers
- fluorinated gases from refrigerators and solvents.

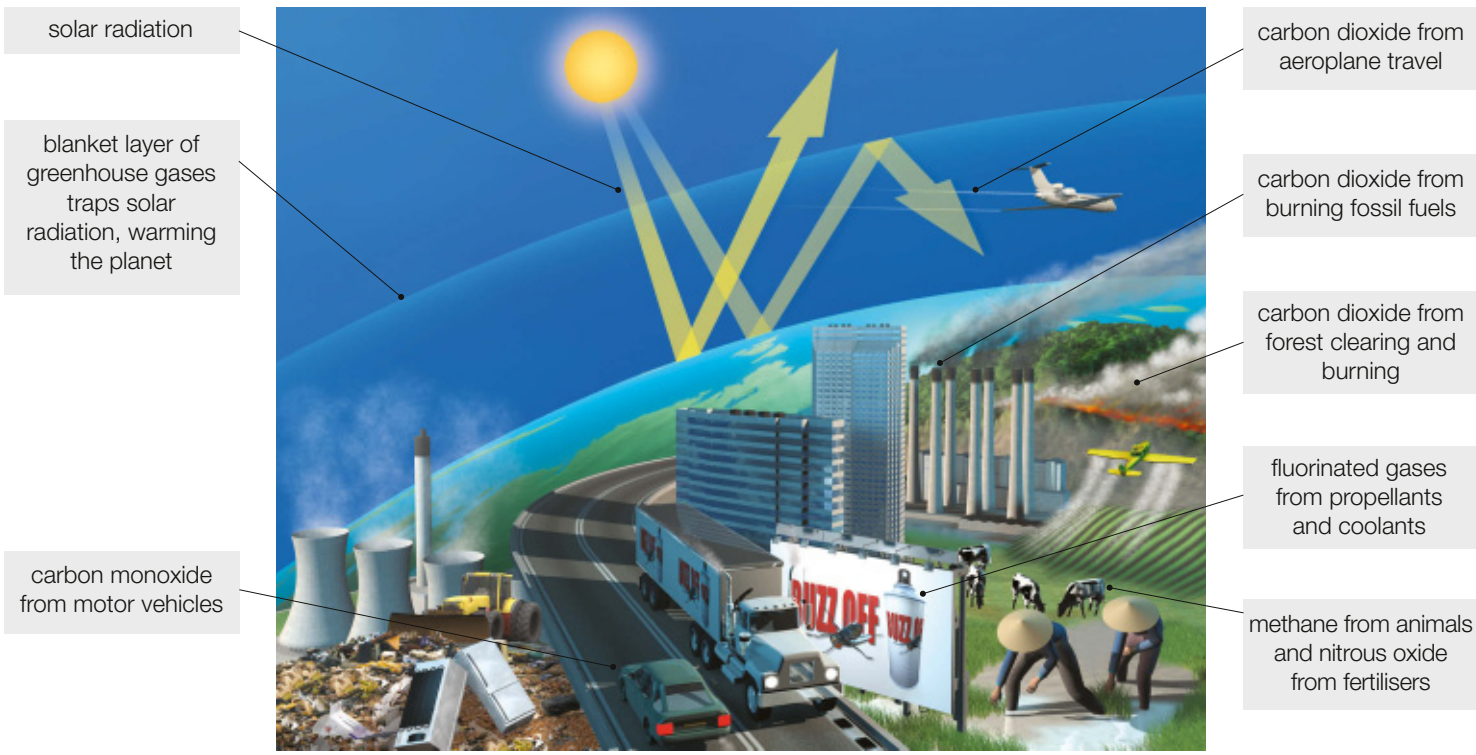
Greenhouse gases trap some of the Sun's energy within the atmosphere causing temperatures to rise. This is known as **global warming**.

When temperatures rise, other changes take place in the world's ecosystems. Rainfall patterns change, as some places become drier and others become wetter. Ice melts and less snow falls in both the polar regions. Sea levels rise and droughts, floods, cyclones and bushfires become more severe and more frequent. These, and other changes associated with increased greenhouse gases, are changing the world's ecosystems and the services they provide.

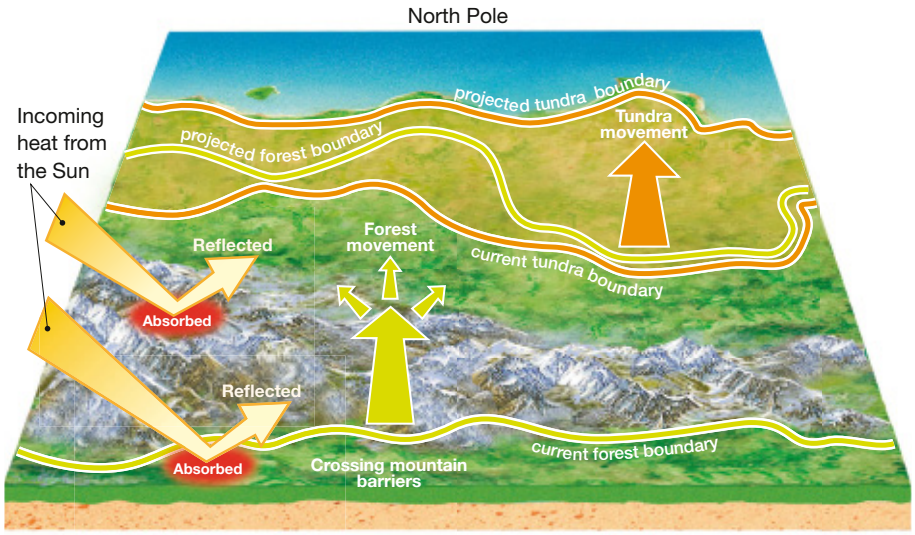
Environmental responses to climate change

Ecosystems develop and flourish under specific environmental conditions. As climate change alters these conditions, the plants and animals within the ecosystems respond in one of four ways:

- they change their basic biology – certain animals may reproduce less often or lay smaller eggs.
- they change the timing of certain events such as flowering – certain plants may flower earlier or later depending on the conditions. This can impact on birds that rely on these plants for food.
- they die out – when a species dies out it can have serious impacts on the entire ecosystem.
- they move – in general, many plants and animals are moving towards the poles and into higher altitudes (Source 1.15), as temperatures in these places are similar to those in their previous habitats. This affects plants and animals already living in these places.



Source 1.14 Some of the causes of human-induced climate change



Source 1.15 The movement of tundra (frozen, treeless land) and forests towards the North Pole in the Arctic. As mountain slopes become forested they absorb more heat from the Sun rather than reflecting it, further increasing temperatures.



Source 1.16 A Saami man moves his reindeer herd north in spring.

Case study: Climate change and the Saami

One of the largest Indigenous groups in the Arctic region is the Saami people of northern Scandinavia. Numbering around 70 000 people and living in one of the world's harshest environments, many Saami groups rely on traditional reindeer herding for their livelihood. They migrate north in spring and summer and south in winter to find sufficient food, such as grass and small shrubs, for their herds. A typical herd is made up of several thousand reindeer. Typically, Saami herders will travel hundreds of kilometres a year with their herds.

While it would seem that warmer temperatures would bring better grazing conditions to the frozen Saami lands, the reverse is actually true. Warmer winter temperatures melt the snow, turning it to water. It then refreezes as a layer of ice which the reindeer cannot penetrate to reach the lichen below. This ice is known as *cuokke* to the Saami people and can result in their herds starving to death. The Saami respond by keeping their herds in pens and feeding them hay and straw but this food is expensive and difficult to find. These changing conditions may bring an end to the Saami's nomadic way of life which has existed for thousands of years.

Check your learning 1.5

Remember and understand

1 What are some of the main causes of climate change?
2 How might climate change bring an end to the traditional Saami way of life?

Apply and analyse

3 Discuss with a partner how climate change affects ecosystem services (see Source 1.2). Brainstorm these ideas as a class.
4 Describe the impact of climate change on plants and animals in the Arctic region.
5 Why is more solar radiation absorbed as forests move northwards?

Evaluate and create

6 Construct a flow diagram that shows how plants and animals respond to environmental changes. Add examples of these responses to your diagram.
7 The Saami people are not the only Indigenous people whose way of life is threatened by climate change. Research the impact of climate change on Indigenous people in the Pacific Islands and compare their situation to the Saami.

Pollution

Pollution is any substance released into the environment that has harmful or poisonous effects. Polluting substances reduce the ability of the natural environment to provide ecosystem services. Pollution is often a side-effect of a process intended to benefit human beings. Pesticides, for example, are designed to kill harmful insects that damage crops but they can also pollute our water and kill beneficial organisms such as bees. The loss of bees then reduces the amount of pollination that occurs, setting off a chain of negative effects in the environment. Here we look at some common forms of air, water and land pollution.

Air pollution

Air pollution is the contamination of the atmosphere through the release of harmful gases and small particles. Air pollution can happen on a variety of scales. Sometimes it is local (for example, a factory releases smoke and gases through a smokestack affecting the surrounding area). In urban environments such as Santiago, however, factories, vehicles, houses and other sources of pollution combine to produce large-scale pollution which affects the air quality right across the city (see Source 1.17). When this large-scale pollution causes changes to the atmosphere, for example pollutants such as carbon dioxide and methane trapping the Sun's heat in the atmosphere and causing **global warming**, we have pollution on a global scale.



Source 1.17 Air pollution in Santiago, Chile, is trapped by the Andes Mountains and can remain over the city for days, even weeks.

Water pollution

Water pollution is the contamination of rivers, lakes, wetlands, estuaries, seas and oceans through the release of harmful substances. Water pollution can be caused by human activities on or near the water such as shipping and deep-sea oil drilling. Ships, for example, release waste water and oil into the sea causing pollution. Land activities, sometimes a long way from water, can also lead to pollution entering our waterways. These land activities include farming (especially when using fertilisers and pesticides), littering, land clearing, creating tips and **landfill**, processing sewage and industrial activities. Industrial or farming waste released into a river can travel the length of that river and enter waterways, causing water pollution over a widespread area. Likewise, litter washed down stormwater drains during a storm can end up polluting the ocean.

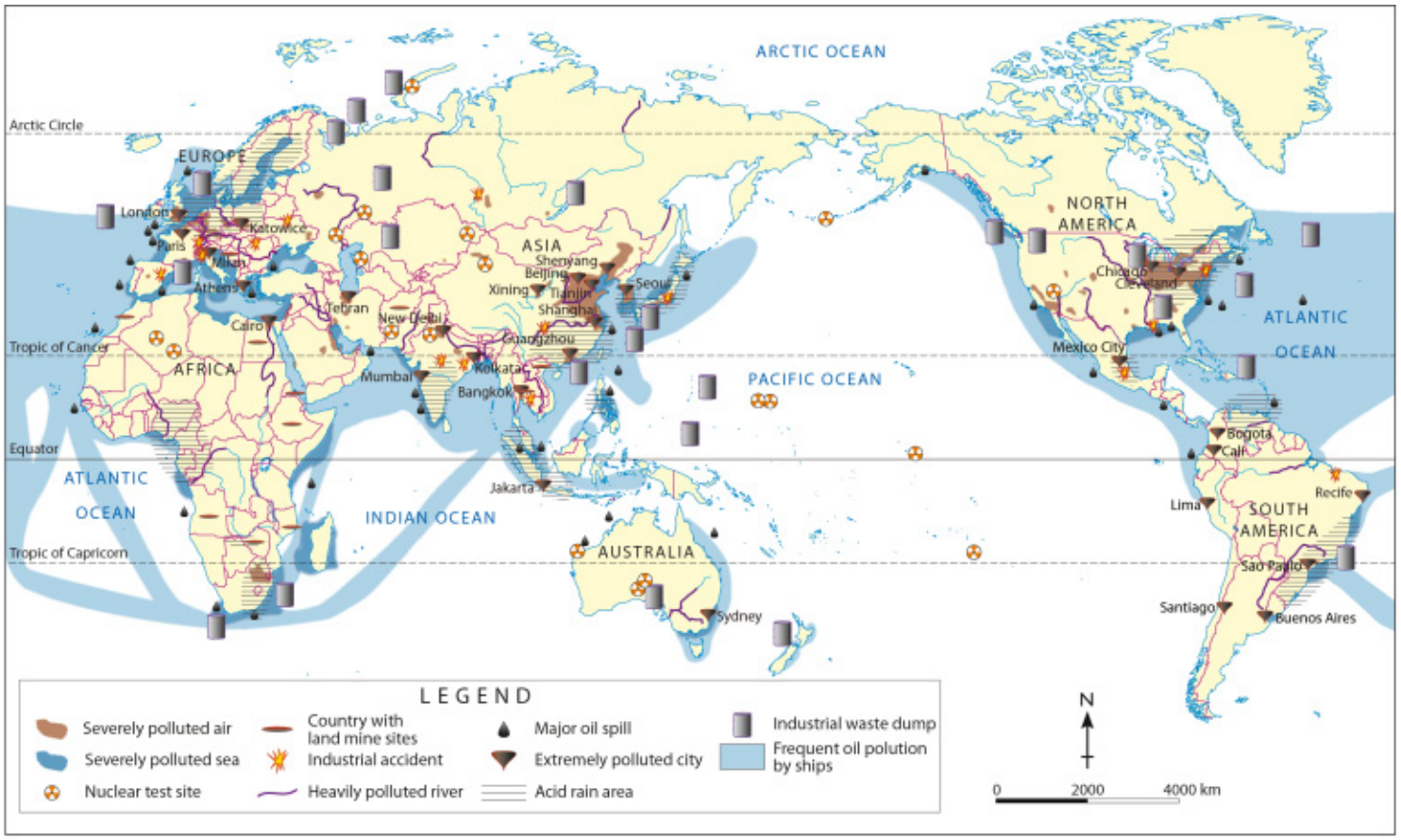


Source 1.18 When an offshore oil platform exploded in the Gulf of Mexico in 2010, it caused one of the largest oil spills in history.

Land pollution

Land pollution is the contamination of areas of land through the release of harmful substances. Soil contamination is often localised, such as at the sites of old petrol stations, mines, sewage treatment facilities or landfill. Soil contamination can also occur on a much larger scale, such as increasing **salinity** (salt levels) in the soil resulting from rising water tables in Australia's Murray–Darling Basin. Land pollution can cause the contamination of groundwater, which is often an important source of drinking water.

WORLD: GLOBAL DISTRIBUTION OF POLLUTION



Source 1.19

Source: *Oxford Atlas*



Source 1.20 Landfill can cause soil contamination.

Check your learning 1.6

Remember and understand

1 Define and give examples of the main forms of pollution.

Apply and analyse

2 Examine Source 1.19.
- a Describe the distribution of severe air pollution.
- b Use an atlas to list those countries with landmine sites. Are landmines an example of pollution? Why/why not?
- c Which countries experience three or more types of pollution? What may be the underlying causes of pollution there?

3 In what ways would the explosion of an offshore oil platform (see Source 1.18) pollute the environment?

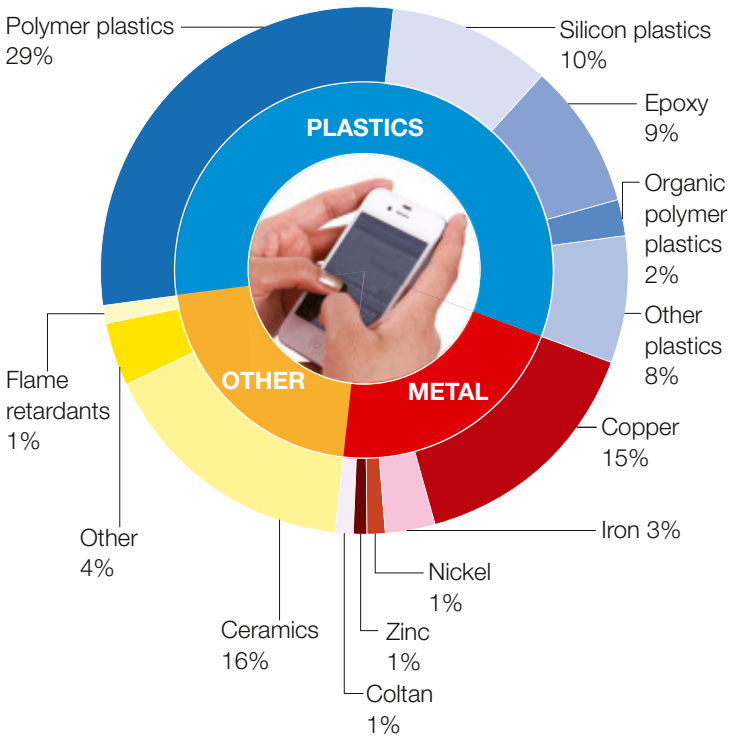
Evaluate and create

4 Source 1.19 shows acid rain as a form of pollution. Research acid rain and report on its causes, distribution and effects on ecosystem services.

5 Which type of pollution do you consider has the greatest impact on ecosystem services?

The real cost of your mobile phone

When exploring the ways in which the environment is changing, it is important to look not only at the effects of these changes but also their causes. For example, when investigating declines in fish populations, geographers look for causes such as increases in world population, pollution levels and changing consumption patterns. Similarly, when looking at the environmental changes brought about by industry and mining around the world, geographers need to explore a range of possible causes. One of the main factors driving the growth in mining and production is increased demand for electronic consumer goods such as mobile phones. Current estimates put the number of mobile phone subscribers around the world at about 6 billion. This number has increased significantly over the past decade (see Source 1.25). The **raw materials** used in the production of mobile phones come from different locations around the world. Dramatic increases in demand for these materials has created serious environmental problems in a number of locations.



Source 1.21 The raw components of a mobile phone

Plastics

Plastics are a by-product of refining oil. Oil is usually found in the Earth's crust and is accessed by drilling into the crust, either on land or on the seabed. There are significant environmental risks associated with mining and using oil. These range from the potential for oil spills at the mine site to the greenhouse gases produced when oil is used for fuel. Many plastics are hard to dispose of and take thousands of years to break down. Since the 1950s, more than a billion tonnes of plastic has been discarded around the world.



Source 1.22 This bird has died from eating plastic which it mistook for brightly coloured fish. Thousands of sea birds and other marine animals die each year in this way.

Metals

Copper

Because copper conducts electrical signals, it is used a great deal in electronic devices. Copper is mined in many places around the world. Chile's Escondida copper mine is the world's largest. The mine is essentially two giant pits dug into the desert floor. Waste rock is left in piles called tailings and copper is transported in pipes 180 kilometres to the coast. Like many large mines, Escondida is located in the desert. This creates problems for the mining operators who need water for their mining operation and their workers. A desalination plant is being built on the coast to provide this water. The water will be piped to the mine.



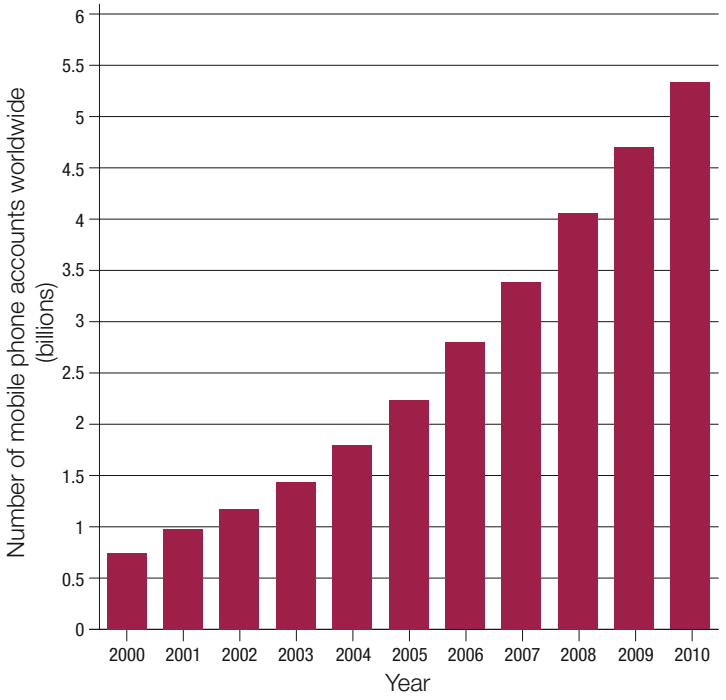
Source 1.23 The Escondida copper mine in the Chilean desert

Coltan

Coltan is a mineral ore, high in iron, that is used in mobile phones as well as video-game players and some computers. Australia is the world's largest supplier of coltan. The Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) in Africa is another large supplier. To reach the coltan in the DRC, miners have stripped away rainforest, including the rainforest in national parks. The roads they cut through the rainforest to reach the mines are then used by local people hunting wild animals for food. One of the animals hunted by locals for meat in the rainforest is the gorilla. The western lowland gorilla is now a critically endangered animal and has all but vanished from the rainforests of the DRC.



Source 1.24 A coltan mine in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. As well as causing environmental change there is also evidence that profits from coltan mining are being used by armies in the region to fund long-running and bloody conflicts.



Source 1.25 Growth in the number of mobile phones worldwide

Check your learning 1.7

Remember and understand

1 How does the production and use of plastic change the environment?

2 What is coltan? How has the mining of coltan changed the environment in the Democratic Republic of the Congo?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 1.25 carefully.
   a Describe the global trend in mobile phone use over the period.
   b Conduct research to determine the five countries around the world that have experienced the largest growth over this period. Why might this be the case?

4 The bird in Source 1.22 was found on the Midway Islands. Use an atlas to locate these islands and explain where you think the plastic that caused the death of this and many other birds originated.

Evaluate and create

5 Select another popular consumer item of your choice and research the environmental changes brought about by its production and use.

1.1 big**ideas:** broadsheet

Easter Island

Easter Island is one of the world's most remote places. It lies in the Pacific Ocean, over 2000 kilometres from the nearest inhabited country. When European explorers first visited the island in the 16th century, they found the local people living in primitive conditions and engaged in almost continual warfare. Most baffling of all were the more than 600 stone statues weighing hundreds of tonnes that dotted the island.



Source 1.26 A selection of stone moai statues on Easter Island

The statues were built by the ancient Polynesians who lived on the island, probably as a tribute to tribal chiefs. To move them from the quarry to prominent sites, islanders used the trunks of large trees to create tracks and rollers. Over time, the population of the island reached about 7000 and there was increased pressure on timber resources for statue transport as well as for housing, boats, fuel and agriculture. The trees, however, were not being replaced by new growth, because rats brought by the original Polynesian sailors as a food source ate all the seeds.

The destruction of the island's trees and shrubs led to a decline in living conditions for the people. Statue building ceased, the population declined, soils became less fertile and more easily eroded, water quality declined and, as competition for scarce resources increased, tribal warfare broke out.

In many ways, the history of Easter Island serves as a warning to the rest of the world about the dangers of extreme environmental change.

skill**drill**

Interpreting topographic maps

Topographic maps show a small region of the Earth's surface in great detail. This includes the height and shape of the land (known as the topography) which is shown through the use of contour lines or relief shading. By examining topographic maps, geographers can better understand the natural environment and the ways in which human activities bring about environmental change. Follow these steps when interpreting a topographic map:

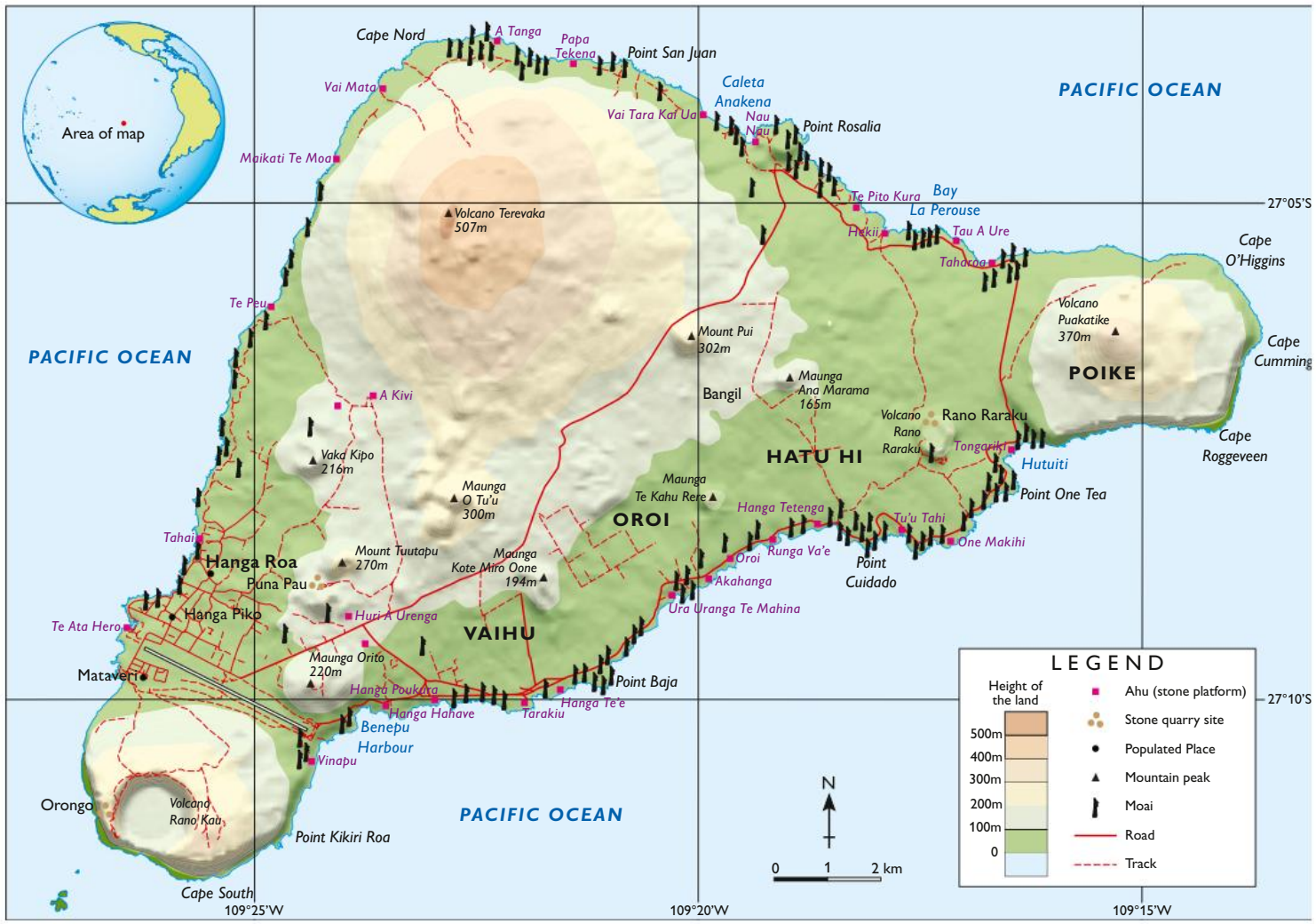
Step 1 Read the title of the map so that you know what the map is showing. You may like to find it in an atlas so that you understand its location relative to other places.

Step 2 Look closely at the legend and find an example of each feature shown in the legend on the map. Take note of those features which often appear together and those that occupy large areas on the map.

Step 3 Use the line scale to roughly estimate the overall size of features on the map. For example, the length of an island or the distance between two cities.

Step 4 Look closely at the legend showing the colours used to represent the height of the land. Look at the patterns of these colours on the map and try to picture the landforms that are shown. Remember that the closer together these colours appear the steeper the land.

EASTER ISLAND: TOPOGRAPHIC MAP



Source 1.27

Source: Oxford University Press

Apply the skill

1 Examine Source 1.27.
   - a Use the legend to describe the relief (shape of the land) of Easter Island. In your description use the names of specific places such as mountains.
   - b How has the relief affected the distribution of roads and populated places?

2 Examine the distribution of the moai in Source 1.27.
   - a Use the line scale to estimate the distance from the quarry site at Puna Pau to the Vai Mata ahu (stone platform).
   - b Describe the distribution of the statues on the island.
   - c How does the relief affect this distribution?

Extend your understanding

1 How did statue building contribute to environmental change on Easter Island?

2 The reasons for the decline of the Easter Islanders are still widely debated. Use the Internet to find out about two or more conflicting theories. Why is there often disagreement about historical events?

3 Did the Easter Islanders use their resources sustainably? Give three reasons for your answer.

4 What lessons are there from Easter Island for the ways in which we use ecosystem services today?

1.2 How do people change and manage the land?

Degrading the land

The loss of productivity and decline in fertility of land-based environments as a result of human activities is referred to as land degradation. Land degradation currently affects about one-quarter of the world's total land area and about 38 per cent of the world's farmed areas. About 1.5 billion people, including many Australians, are directly affected by land degradation. It is also contributing to climate change, as cleared, degraded land stores much less carbon than natural land cover such as rainforest. The three main types of land degradation are soil degradation, soil erosion and ecosystem decline.

Soil degradation

Soil degradation refers to the loss of fertility of the soil, often due to a chemical change. Soil can degrade by becoming compacted by large machinery and hard-hooved animals such as cattle and sheep, or becoming acidic due to a build-up of fertiliser or a loss of soil nutrients caused by farming the land too intensively. One of the greatest problems for Australia is the build-up of salt in the topsoil (called **salinity**).

Soil erosion

Soil **erosion** is when soil is gradually worn away by natural phenomena such as rivers, rain, waves, glaciers and the wind. Human activities, particularly clearing trees for farming, accelerate erosion in many places. Cleared land is more vulnerable to wind erosion, gully erosion (water scouring away the land) and sheet erosion (the loss of topsoil over a large area). Much of Australia is at risk from one or more of these types of erosion (see Source 1.30).

Ecosystem decline

As well as soils, the natural ecosystems of an area, such as forests and streams, can become degraded. This may be through a loss of vegetation, the invasion of alien plant and animal pests or a decline in the quality of streams and rivers. When coupled with a decline in soil quality, a degradation of ecosystems can lead to **desertification**, particularly in areas close to existing deserts.

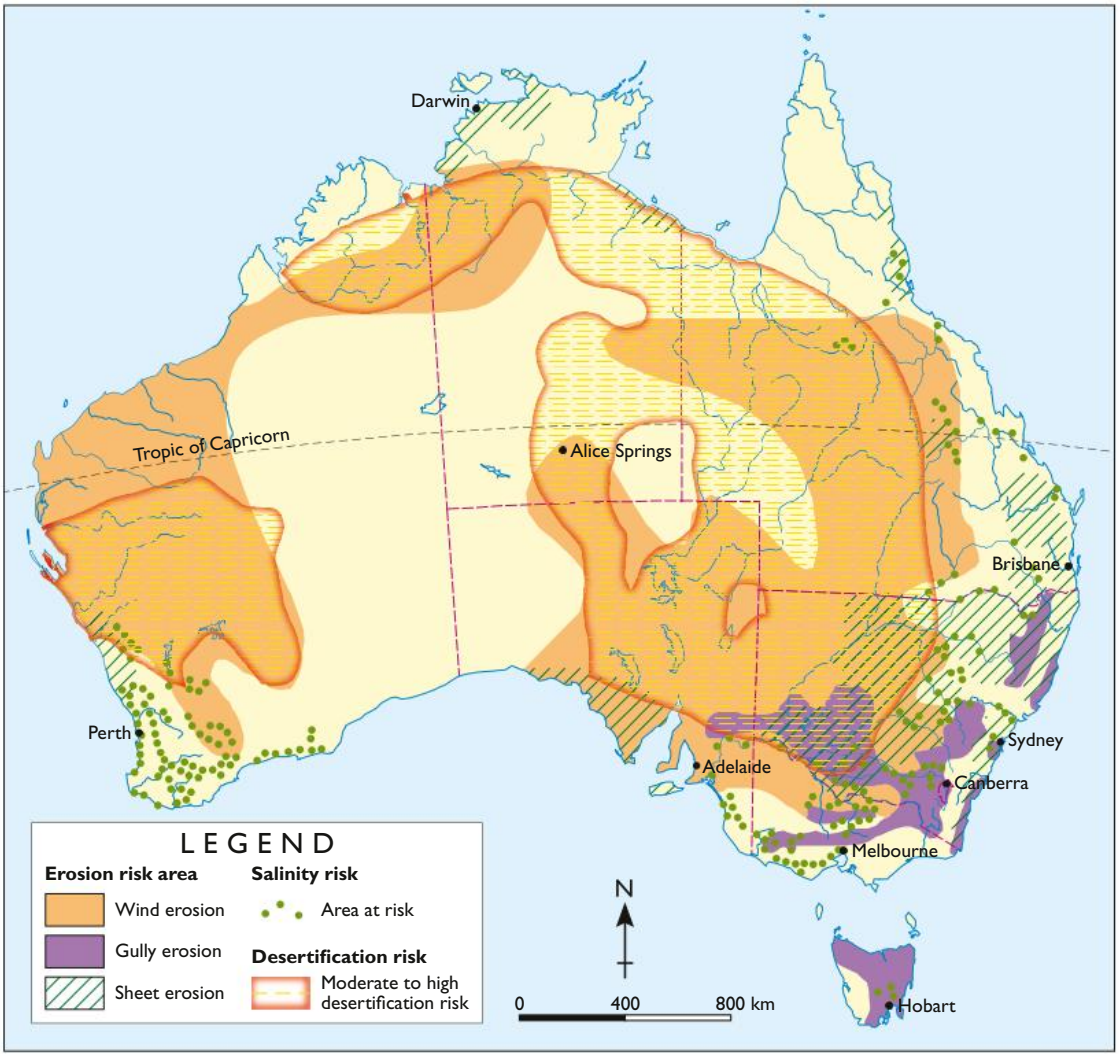


Source 1.28 Soil can be carried on the wind for thousands of kilometres. This dust storm which blanketed Sydney, Canberra and Brisbane in 2009 originated near Kati Thanda (Lake Eyre) in South Australia. Dust was carried as far as northern New Zealand.



Source 1.29 In some arid and semi-arid areas of Australia, cattle grazing has led to a breakdown in soil structure and the loss of plants. This can lead to areas such as this becoming desertified.

AUSTRALIA: DISTRIBUTION OF LAND DEGRADATION



Source 1.30

Source: *Oxford Atlas*

Check your learning 1.8

Remember and understand

1 What is land degradation?

2 Why is land degradation a concern for many people in Australia and around the world?

Apply and analyse

3 Conduct research to compare the footprint of a cow with that of a kangaroo. What does this tell you about the relative impacts of introduced and native species on Australia's soils?

4 Use an atlas to estimate the distance covered by the 2009 dust storm shown in Source 1.28.

5 Examine Source 1.30.

a Describe the areas of Australia at risk from gully erosion. Use the names of states and specific places in your description. You may need to refer to a more detailed map of Australia to assist you.

b Which areas are most at risk from salinity?

c List those areas that are at risk from erosion, salinity and desertification.

d Use the SHEEPT method to list the reasons why some places are more at risk of land degradation than others. For more information on the SHEEPT method, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

Evaluate and create

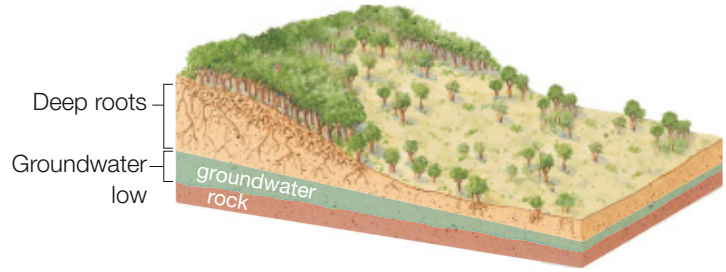
6 Examine Source 1.29, showing a degraded environment in Australia. Discuss in a small group some steps that could be taken to restore this land. Use these steps to develop and present an action plan. This should include an annotated copy or field sketch of Source 1.29.

Soil degradation: Salinity

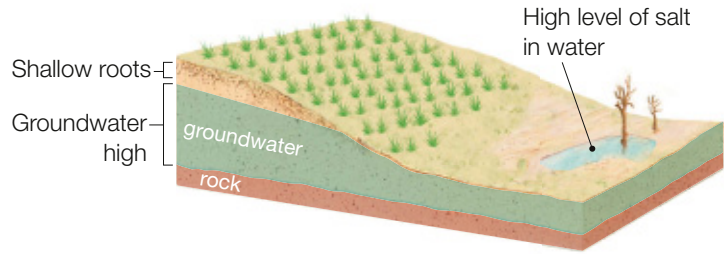
Salt is a natural part of the Australian environment. Deposited by salt-laden winds from the sea and from the weathering of rocks, it is a component of most soils. It has been estimated, for example, that in parts of Western Australia the soil typically contains between 170 and 950 tonnes of salt per 10000 square metres. Because this salt has accumulated slowly over millions of years, Australia's native vegetation has adapted to the salty soils. The native deep-rooted trees and shrubs soak up much of the rainwater entering the soil. This keeps the **water table** low in the ground and means the salt stays deep in the soil and away from plant roots.

However, changes in the Australian landscape since the arrival of Europeans have significantly altered this system. Large areas of native vegetation have been cleared and replaced by shallow-rooted crops and grasses (Sources 1.32 and 1.33). This means that much more water is held in the soil and so the water-table rises, bringing with it the salt that has accumulated over millions of years. It collects in low-lying areas, killing the introduced plants. As the water evaporates, salt is left at or near the surface, creating large salt pans where nothing can grow (see Source 1.31). The salt also moves across the landscape turning freshwater streams into salty drains.

In some places, **irrigation** also increases the amount of water in the soil. This has the effect of raising the water table and bringing salt to the surface. Studies estimate that salinity currently affects 19500 Australian farms and 20000 square kilometres of agricultural land, much of it in Western Australia's wheat belt. At present, it has the potential to affect 46000 square kilometres of agricultural land. This is expected to increase to 136000 square kilometres within 50 years. This makes salinity Australia's most serious and widespread land degradation issue.



Source 1.32 Salt in the Australian landscape before land clearing



Source 1.33 Salt in the Australian landscape after land clearing



Source 1.31 Salt rising to the surface in the Western Australian wheat belt

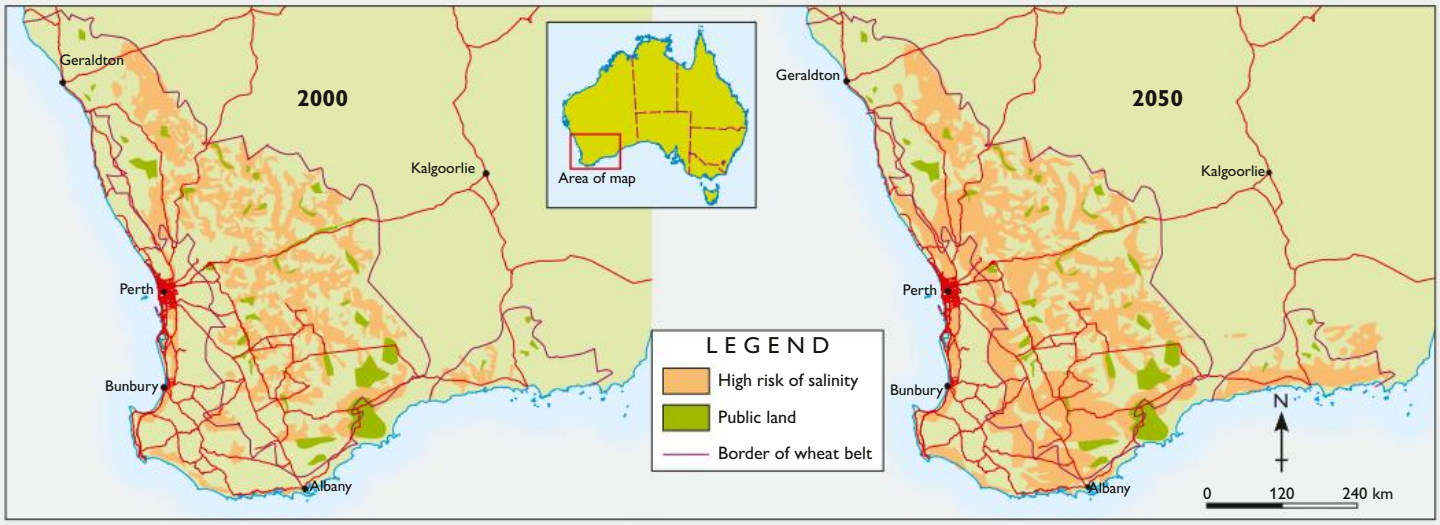
key**concept:** change

Salinity in the Western Australian wheat belt

The largest area of salty soils in Australia is in the south-west corner of Western Australia, a region known as the wheat belt. This is a vast area of 19.3 million hectares, 16 per cent of which is at risk of salinity due to rising water tables. Most of this is agricultural land and would result in lost profits for farmers of at least $80 million a year. Source 1.34 shows the areas of the wheat belt with rising water tables in 2000 and the predicted salinity-affected areas in 2050.

Salinity in the wheat belt also poses a threat to biodiversity as plants and animals lose their habitats. As salt accumulates in the low-lying regions in the landscape such as freshwater lakes, plants and animals that live in these regions are at the greatest risk. At least 1500 plant species in Western Australia suffer from salinity with 450 possibly becoming extinct. Animal species are likely to decline by one-third if salinity continues to spread. For more information on the key concept of change, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA: DRYLAND SALINITY RISK IN THE SOUTH-WEST IN 2000 AND 2050



Source 1.34

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 1.9

Remember and understand

1 Where does salt in the soil come from naturally?

2 How did the arrival of European settlers in Australia affect soil salinity?

Apply and analyse

3 Classify the causes of salinity using the SHEEPT method. For more information on SHEEPT, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

4 Examine Source 1.34.

a Describe the predicted change in salinity in the wheat belt between 2000 and 2050 both in terms of area and distribution.

b How do you think this change will impact on the natural environment of the region?

c One of the largest costs of salinity is road repair. Why do you think this might be the case?

Evaluate and create

5 Discuss ways in which farmers may be able to lower the water table and reduce salinity.

6 Australia is not the only country to suffer from soil salinity. Research salinity in one other country such as Bangladesh, Spain or Egypt. Compare the causes and effects of salinity in Australia with the country of your choice. What are the similarities and differences?

Repairing degraded land

In many local areas, attempts are being made to repair the damage of the past. These attempts tend to be small in scale, as repairing degraded land is expensive and difficult to achieve over a large area. For the repairs to be effective and not cause further damage, it is important for those undertaking the work to have a detailed understanding of the complex ecology of the site.

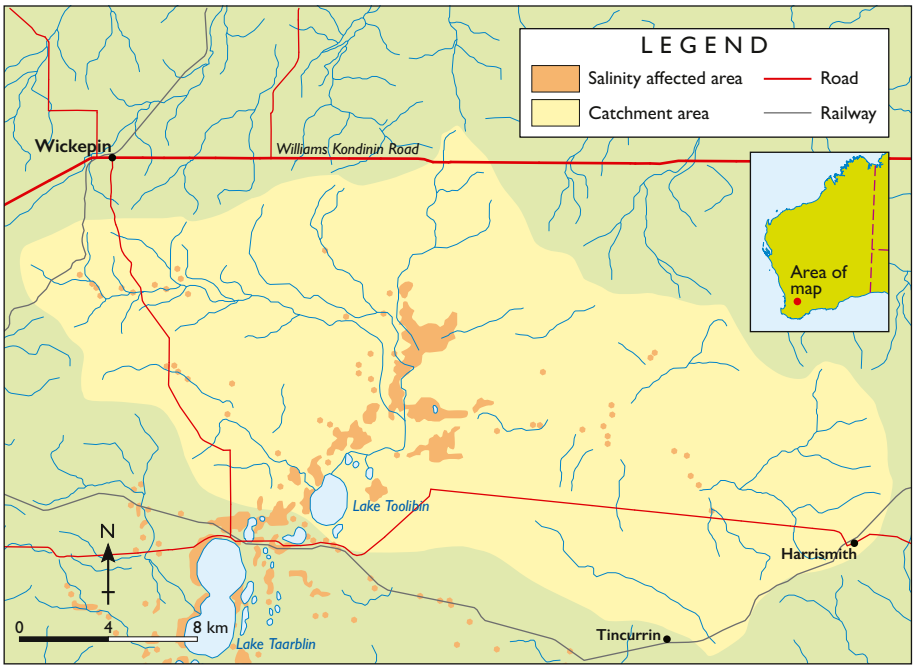
Case study: Fighting salinity at Toolibin Lake

Toolibin Lake, in the Western Australian wheat belt, is a small ephemeral wetland (meaning it only fills with water occasionally, depending on rainfall).

As one of the last remaining freshwater wetlands in the region, it contains important habitats for a number of plant and animal species, many of which are endangered. In the 1970s, the lake bed began to show signs of increasing salinity and many trees died. Source 1.35 shows the distribution of salinity in the area. A geographic investigation found that this was due to the flow of salty water into the lake from surrounding farmland together with a rising water table. In the 1990s, a number of measures were put in place to lower the water table and reduce the salinity (Source 1.36).

These measures included measuring the salt levels in the stream that flows into the lake and diverting excessively salty water to a nearby lake. Pumps on the lake bed were installed to lower the water table and to remove salty water from the soil. Around the lake, belts of trees were planted to intercept water as it flowed towards the lake and also to help in lowering the water table.

TOOLIBIN LAKE: AREAS OF SALINITY



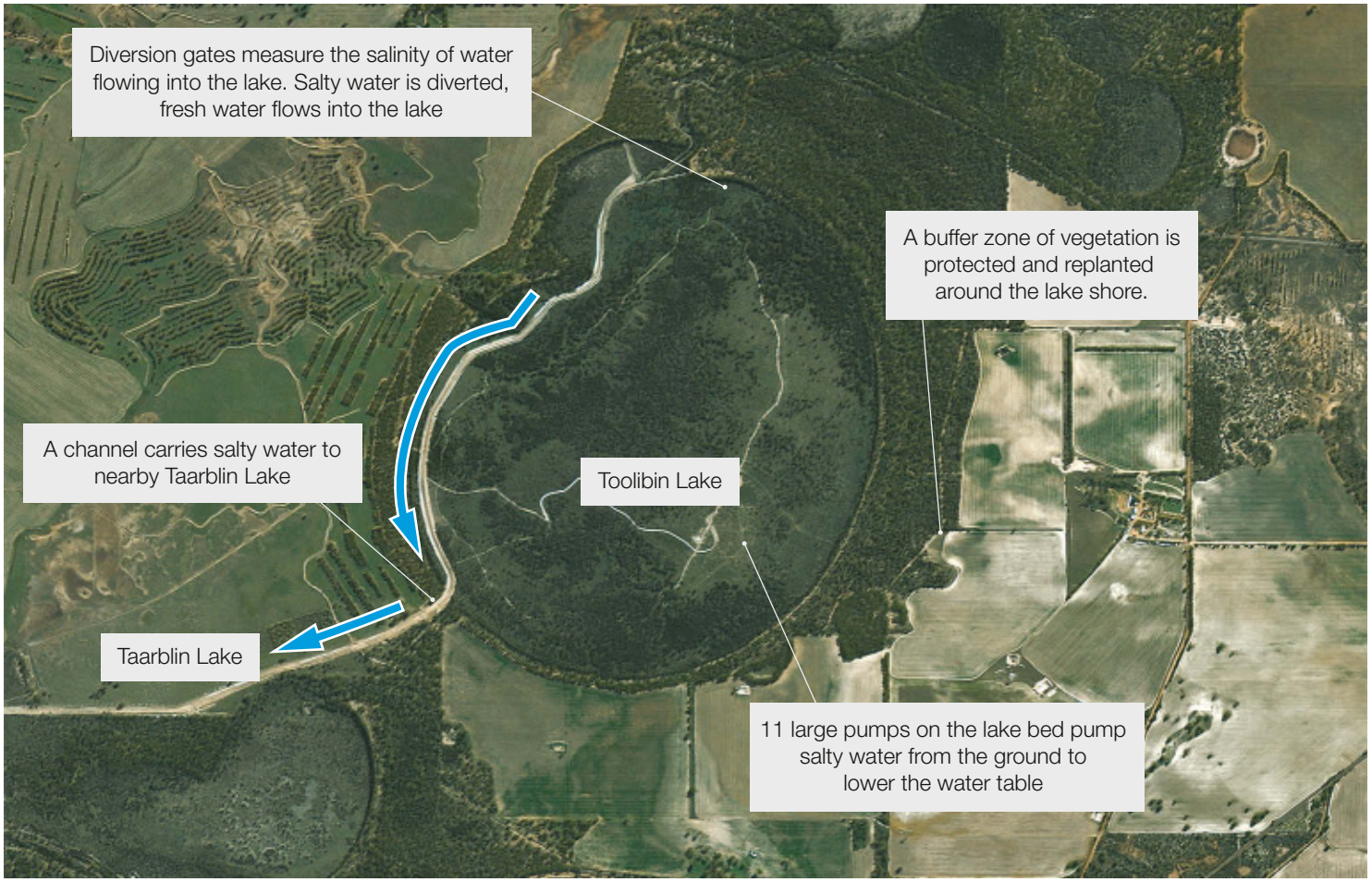
Source 1.35 Source: Oxford University Press

A review of these measures in 2010 showed that the water table had been held below the target of 1.5 metres across most of the lake. However, an analysis of satellite imagery from 1990 to 2009 showed that in some areas of the lake, trees had flourished, but in others, they had continued to decline.

Researchers then examined the ways in which the two dominant tree species, sheoak and paperbark, had responded to changing water and salt levels. They found that the trees had responded in very different ways. New sheoak seedlings were found on the floor of the lake but the paperbark trees had continued to decline in health and numbers. This information could then be used to develop new management plans for the lake. Much of this is now centred on working with the local Landcare group. Landcare is a national network of thousands of locally-based community groups who care for the natural resources of Australia. In the Toolibin Lake much of this work has focussed on increasing the number of trees planted on surrounding farms. The farms in the area tend to grow cereal crops such as wheat. Getting the farmers to put trees on their farms will further reduce salinity across the region.

Building an eco-bridge

Additional measures are being introduced to help endangered animals in the region such as the red-tailed phascogale, which is a small marsupial. Farmers and other land managers are being encouraged to plant trees in corridors between existing stands of native trees, fence off remaining vegetation and creeks and to control feral pests such as cats and foxes. It is hoped that these activities will provide a large, linked safe area, known as an eco-bridge, for native species to thrive.



Source 1.36 An aerial photograph of Toolibin Lake showing the measures used to lower the water table and reduce salinity



Source 1.37 The red-tailed phascogale, a small marsupial, is one of 32 rare or endangered animal species in the wheat belt.

Check your learning 1.10

Remember and understand

1 Where is Toolibin Lake located?

2 Why is the water in Toolibin Lake becoming salty?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Sources 1.35 and 1.36 carefully before completing the following tasks.

- a What are some of the possible causes of salinity that you can identify?
- b What are some of the measures that were used to try and reduce salt levels in the lake?

4 What is an eco-bridge? Explain how the measures put in place to protect endangered species could also help to reduce salinity.

Evaluate and create

5 In small groups, discuss why repairing land degradation in the Toolibin Lake area has been so difficult. What do you think this means for repairing the damage of a much larger area such as the entire Western Australian wheat belt?

6 Research a Landcare project in an area close to you. Who is involved in this project and what are their aims?

Ecosystem decline: Disappearing forests

One of the leading causes of land degradation on a global scale is **deforestation**. Forests have been cleared by humans for thousands of years. Traditionally, forests have been cleared for farming, to clear the way for human settlements and to provide building materials. Today, two key economic realities continue to drive deforestation:

1 Trees grow slowly and other crops such as soya beans grow quickly. As populations continue to grow and expand, and people tend to their current needs rather than the needs of future generations, forests continue to be cleared and replaced by farms to provide people with income and food.

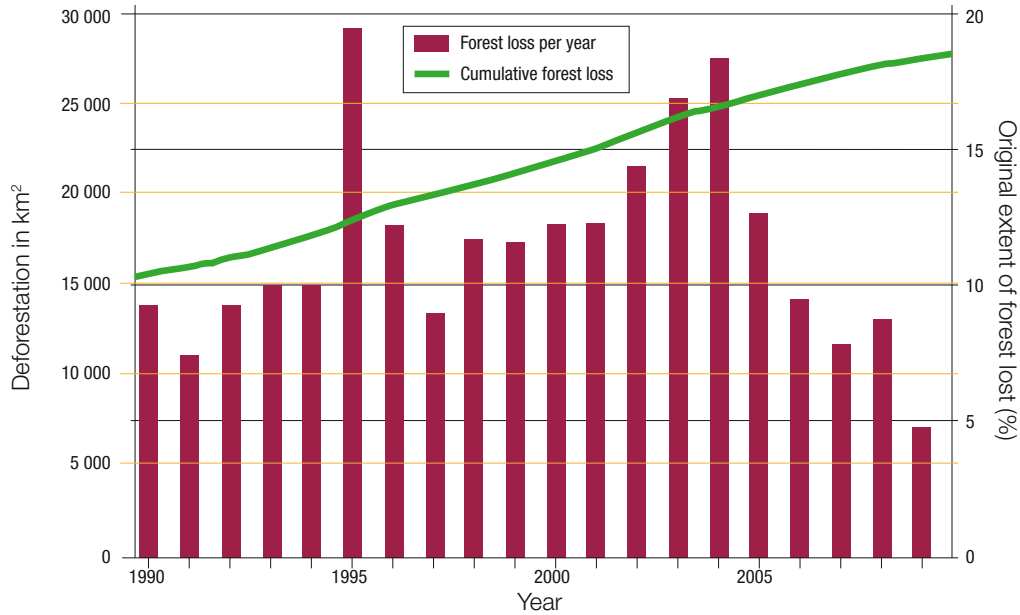
2 Many ecosystem services provided by forests, such as absorbing and storing carbon and filtering water, do not have a monetary value and cannot be bought and sold. Produce from farms and timber from forests are easily bought and sold so are seen as more valuable to local populations than intact forests.



Source 1.38 A section of Amazon rainforest in Brazil that has been cleared for cattle ranching

Case study: The Amazon rainforest

The Amazon, the world's largest tropical **rainforest**, provides an example of the changes that are sweeping across many forest biomes today. Well known as a biodiversity hot spot due to its large numbers of plant and animal species, the Amazon is now considered to be an environmental hot spot too. The Amazon covers an area roughly the size of Australia, but since the 1970s, an area the size of New South Wales has been cleared for other uses. In recent years, rainforest clearing has slowed but still continues. Source 1.39 shows deforestation levels since 1990. Some climate scientists believe that unless the remaining rainforest is protected, a combination of climate change, droughts, fires and deforestation will gradually turn the rainforest into **savanna** and **grasslands**.



Source 1.39 Annual and cumulative deforestation of the Amazon rainforest in Brazil

skill**drill**

Using satellite images to analyse environmental change

Dual satellite images are a useful tool for observing change over a large region of the Earth's surface. By examining them closely, you can describe changes that have occurred and suggest explanations for these changes.

Step 1 Examine two satellite images taken at the same location at different points in time.

Step 2 Locate the area on the Earth's surface using an atlas.

Step 3 Look closely at the first image. Describe the natural and human features that you can see.

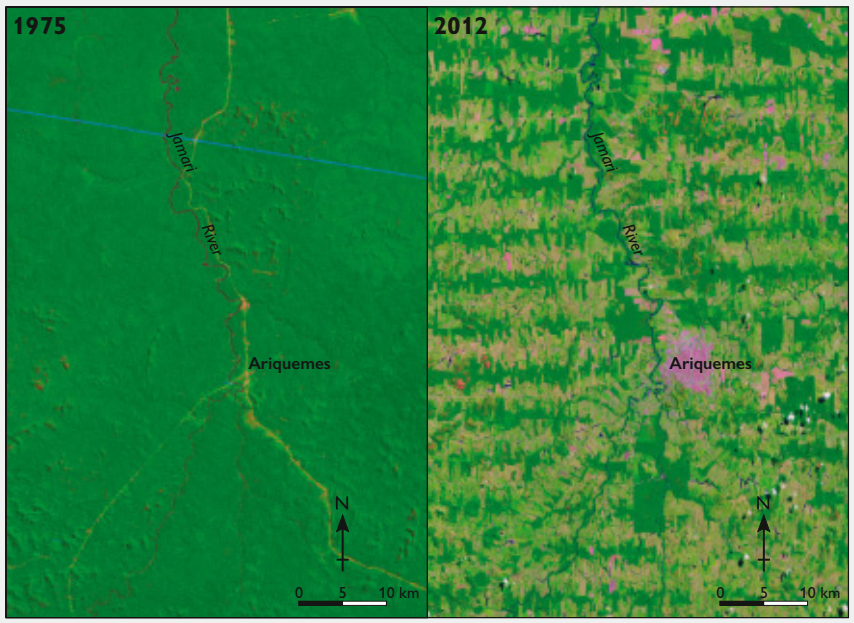
Step 4 Describe the differences between the first image and the second one.

Step 5 Try to quantify the changes. For example, if there has been desertification, calculate the area of desert shown in each of the images. The difference will give you the area that has changed over time.

Step 6 Suggest an explanation for these changes based on your observations.

Apply the skill

1 The two satellite images in Source 1.40 show a section of the Amazon rainforest in the state of Rondúnia, western Brazil, in 1975 and 2012. Follow the steps above to describe the satellite images shown and explain the changes that have taken place in this section of the rainforest over the 37-year period.



Source 1.40 Two satellite images of a section of the Amazon rainforest in the state of Rondúnia, western Brazil. The image on the left was taken in 1975 and the image on the right was taken in 2012.

Check your learning 1.11

Remember and understand

1 Why are forests cleared?

2 What do many climate scientists believe may happen to the Amazon rainforest in the future?

Apply and analyse

3 Look closely at Source 1.39.
- a Describe the trend in Amazon forest loss since 1990.
- b Roughly calculate the average amount of rainforest lost each year.

4 Look closely at Source 1.38.
- a Brainstorm the ecosystem services provided by an intact rainforest. Refer to Source 1.2 for a list of ecosystem services.
- b Highlight those services that will be lost if the rainforest is cleared and underline those services that will be changed but not lost.
- c How would replacing forests with farms affect biodiversity?

Evaluate and create

5 Imagine that the Brazilian government decided to ban forest clearing and instead encouraged people to replant the forest.
- a How would this decision affect ecosystem services and the Brazilian economy?
- b Is this likely to happen? Give some reasons for your answer.

Managing our forests

Many of the world's forested areas have been altered by human activities. It has been estimated that of the 60 million square kilometres of forest that once covered the Earth, only about two-thirds still remains. Each year the world loses about 50000 square kilometres of forest, most of it converted to farmland to support growing populations. For reference, the entire state of Tasmania is around 70000 square kilometres. While deforestation may seem to be an unstoppable process, there are encouraging signs of change in some countries, including Australia.

As nations become more economically developed, rates of deforestation slow. In North America, for example, the total area of forest is increasing rather than decreasing. Similarly, rates of deforestation in Brazil have been declining for several years, as the country becomes more economically developed. There is also a greater awareness of the value of leaving forests intact due to the ecosystem services they provide, particularly the storage of carbon. In many places around the world forests are being replanted to offset **carbon emissions** and to reclaim degraded land.

Slowing and reversing deforestation

- Conserving the remaining forests, for example, in reserves such as national parks
- Pricing forest ecosystem services such as carbon storage to encourage countries to protect forests
- Selective logging by cutting down only a few trees rather than clearing a whole forest
- The replacement and replanting of trees to increase forested areas
- Using timber grown in plantations rather than sourced from native forests
- New and improved farming practices to reduce the need for land to be cleared

Source 1.42 Methods of slowing and reversing deforestation



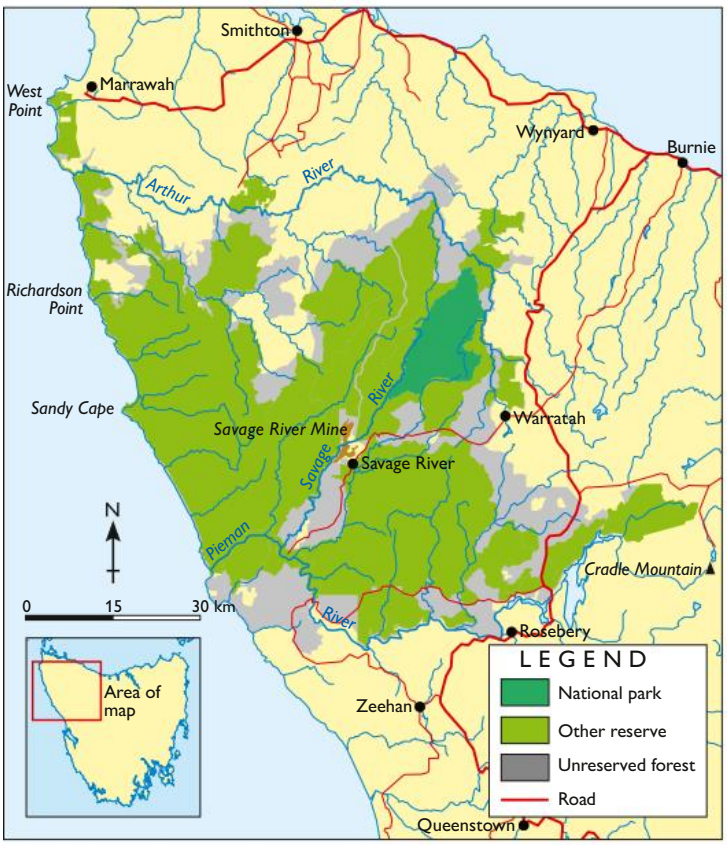
Source 1.41 In the Philippines, local volunteers are replanting mangrove trees to restore important ecosystem services such as protection from storms, food supply and carbon storage.

Case study: The Tarkine Wilderness Area

The Tarkine Wilderness Area of north-west Tasmania is home to one of Australia's most remarkable rainforests (Source 1.43). The forest is believed to have survived largely intact from the time when Australia was part of the ancient supercontinent, Gondwana. It provides a habitat for over 60 rare, threatened and endangered species of plants and animals and has been described as one of the world's greatest archaeological sites because of evidence of ancient Aboriginal habitation.

Much of the Tarkine Wilderness Area is administered by Forestry Tasmania, a forest management company owned and operated by the Tasmanian government, that has allowed some logging of the rainforest and several mines to operate in the area. Ten more mines are planned and mining companies have been given licences to examine 56 other potential sites. Environmental groups have campaigned for decades to have the forest protected as part of a **national park**. Although the Tarkine has been given National Heritage status, only about 5 per cent of the Tarkine rainforest is protected. Environmental campaigners continue to fight for more conservation of Tasmania's old-growth forests and protection from mining and logging interests.

TASMANIA: THE TARKINE WILDERNESS AREA



Source 1.43 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 1.44 The Savage River open-cut mine in the Tarkine Wilderness Area

Check your learning 1.12

Remember and understand

1 What environmental factors have motivated the people shown in Source 1.41 to carry out this work?

Apply and analyse

2 Why do you think deforestation often slows when nations become more affluent and economically developed?

3 Describe the Savage River mine shown in Source 1.44. How has it changed the natural environment?

Evaluate and create

4 While some people support the idea of a Tarkine National Park, others are opposed. Compile a list of groups and individuals who you think would be supporters of the national park plan and another list of those you think would be against it. Beside each group you have listed, explain the likely motivation for their position.

5 Why is conserving forests often difficult to achieve?

6 Compare the issues facing the Tarkine Wilderness Area with those facing the Amazon rainforest. What are the similarities and differences?

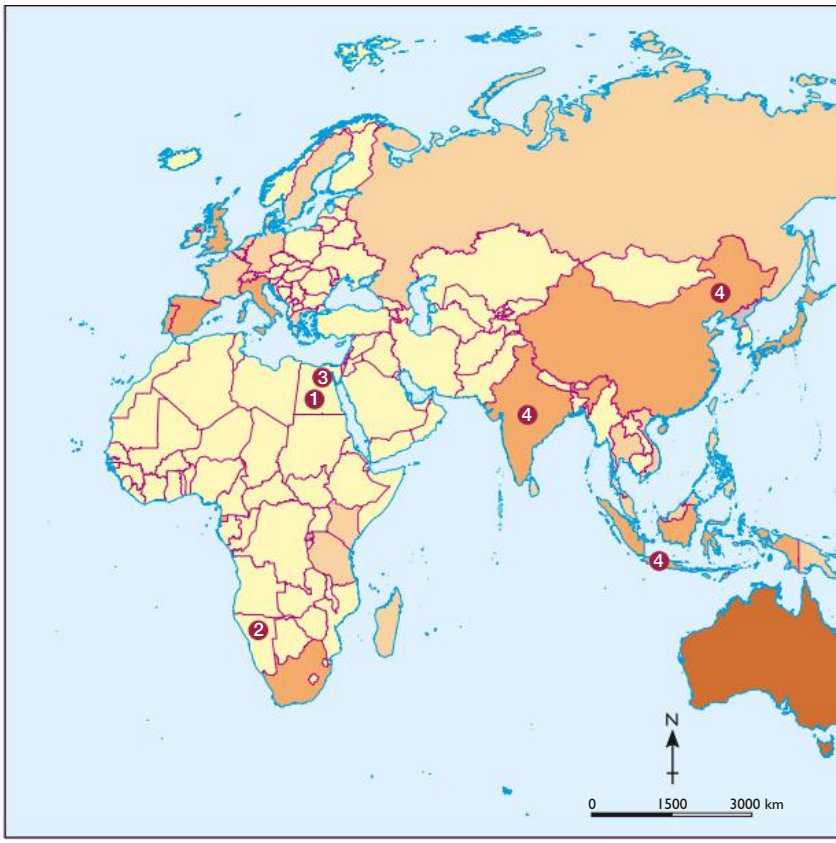
7 Examine Source 1.42. Rank these methods in order from most effective to least effective. Justify your ranking.

Ecosystem decline: Invasive species

Invasive species is a term used by geographers and scientists to describe groups of organisms (e.g. plants, animals, bacteria or fungi) found in an area they are not native to. In many cases, invasive species upset the biological diversity of areas they spread to and can have other negative effects. Many ecosystems around the world are threatened by invasive species of plants, animals and insects. Sometimes, invasive species are brought to a new place deliberately. For example, goats and rabbits were brought to Australia on the First Fleet to provide a source of food for the new settlers. Other species may be brought to a new place accidentally. For example, rats often hide aboard ships going to new places. Other marine pests were brought to Australian seas unintentionally in ballast water carried on container ships.

However they move from one place to another, invasive species have the potential to degrade the land and disrupt the natural balance of the ecosystem. They often compete with native species for food, land or water, leading to a loss of biodiversity. Australia has 362 invasive species, the second highest number in the world (see Source 1.45). Some of the world's most successful invasive organisms include the castor oil plant, Chytrid frog fungus, domestic cat, black rat, American mink and the water hyacinth.

WORLD: NUMBERS OF INVASIVE SPECIES BY COUNTRY



Source 1.45



1 Castor oil plant *(Ricinus communis)*

Native to: North-east Africa and the Middle East

Invaded: Common on every continent except Antarctica

Method of invasion: Carried as an ornamental plant and cash crop in the production of castor oil. Seeds dispersed by rodents and birds.

Preferred biomes: Grassland, temperate forest.

Impacts: Displaces native plant species, poisonous to many animal species including humans.



2 Chytrid frog fungus *(Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis)*

Native to: Africa

Invaded: All six continents. The fungus has infected 93 frog species, more than half of which are Australian.

Method of invasion: Frogs carrying the fungus introduced as a food source and for scientific purposes.

Preferred biomes: Rainforests, freshwater sources

Impacts: About one-third of all amphibian species have the fungus causing a decline of frog species worldwide.



3 Domestic cat *(Felis catus)*

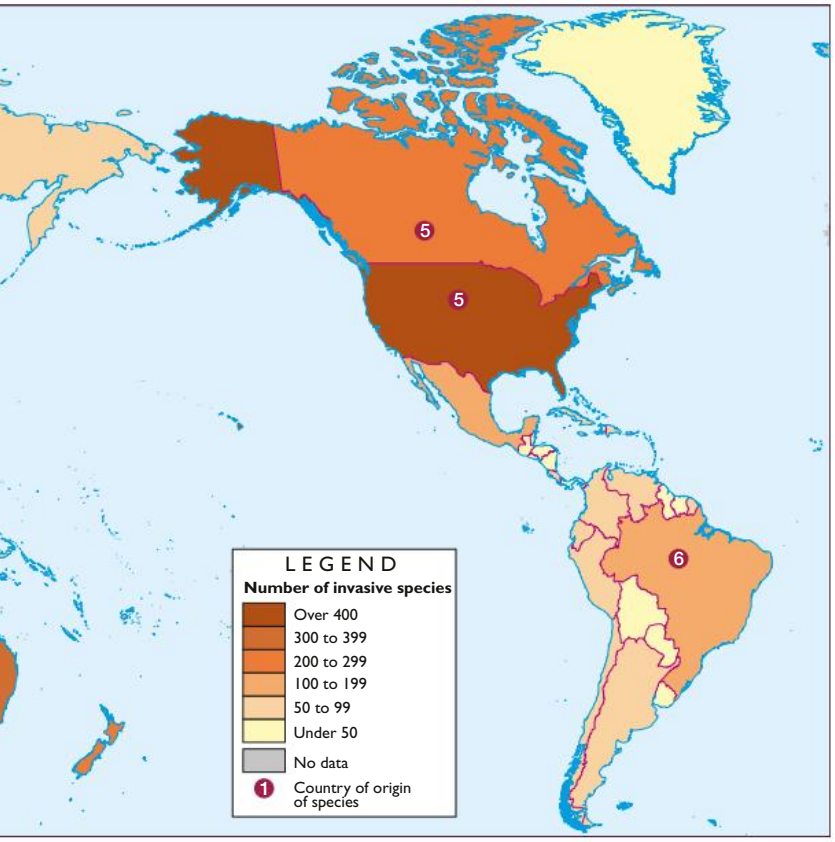
Native to: Unknown (first domesticated in ancient Egypt)

Invaded: Virtually every country, listed as a harmful species in more than 60

Method of invasion: Carried as pets or to restrict rat numbers and then released or escaped into the wild.

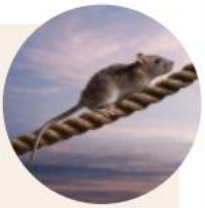
Preferred biomes: grasslands, forests and tundra close to water

Impacts: Caused or contributed to the extinction of birds and small mammals around the world, particularly on islands.



Source: Oxford University Press

4 Black rat *(Rattus rattus)*



Native to: South-East Asia, north-east China and India

Invaded: Widespread around the world

Method of invasion: Deliberately introduced as a food source or accidently introduced as a stowaway on ships

Preferred biomes: Grassland, temperate forest, tropical forest

Impacts: Preys on native birds (especially flightless species and the eggs of seabirds), reptiles and insects, eats native plants and seeds, major agricultural pest. They have caused or contributed to the extinction of birds, mammals, reptiles and plants.

5 American mink *(Neovison vison)*



Native to: North America

Invaded: Widespread throughout Europe

Method of invasion: Bred in mink farms for their fur, they escape or are released by animal activists

Preferred biomes: Forests near wetlands and rivers

Impacts: Kills large numbers of native species such as voles and salmon, can drive native mink from their habitats.

6 Water hyacinth *(Eichhornia crassipes)*



Native to: South America

Invaded: Widespread in streams and rivers around the world particularly in North America and Europe

Method of invasion: Carried as an ornamental plant

Preferred biomes: Freshwater sources including rivers, lakes and streams

Impacts: Grows as a thick mat clogging rivers and streams, inhibiting plants and some fish species and providing a habitat for other pests including malarial mosquitoes.

Check your learning 1.13

Remember and understand

1 How do invasive species move between countries?

2 How can an animal that is not a pest in one country become a major pest when introduced to a new country?

3 How do rats cause land degradation?

Apply and analyse

4 Compare the six examples of invasive organisms shown. What are some of the similarities? How is each unique? Which do you consider has had the greatest impact?

5 Examine Source 1.45.

- a Which countries have the highest numbers of invasive species?
- b Why do you think these countries have so many invasive species? What features do they share that might help to explain the high numbers?
- c Why do you think that Africa and the Middle East have such low numbers of invasive species?

Evaluate and create

6 Some researchers consider humans to be an invasive species. Complete a file card for the human species describing their method of invasion, preferred biomes and impacts.

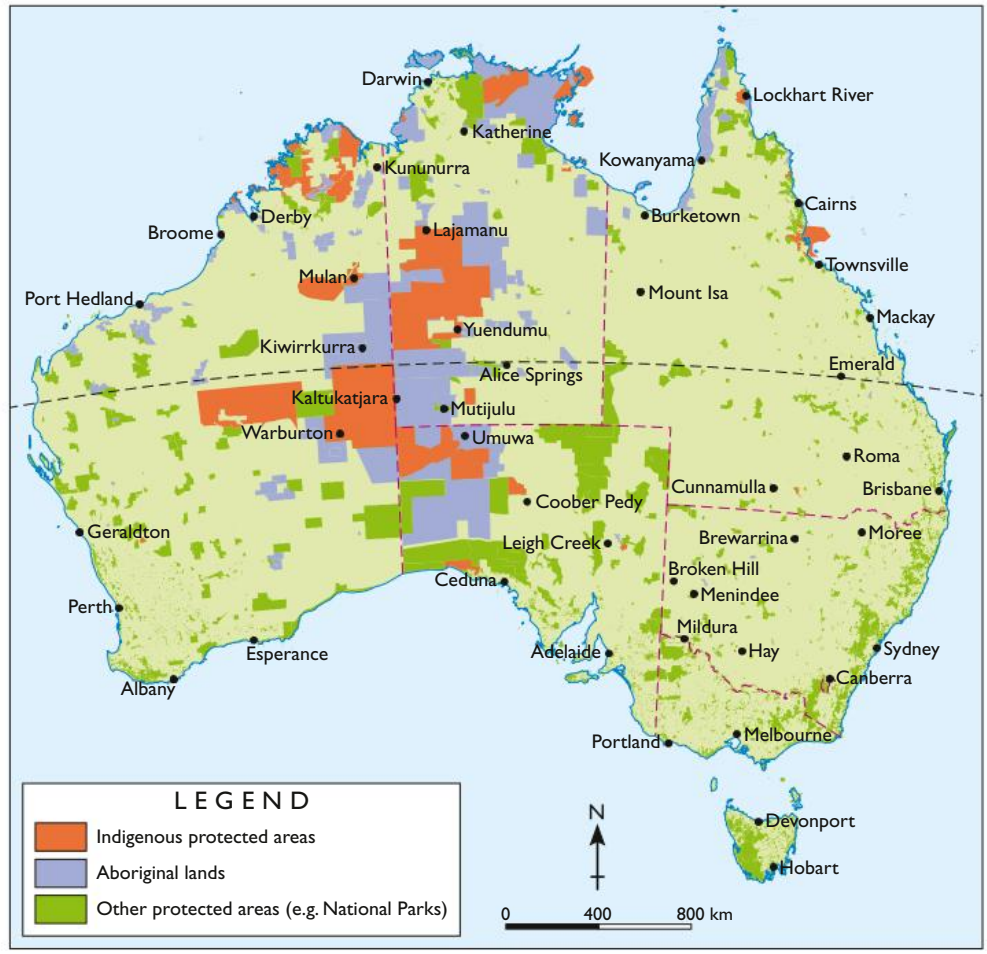
7 Australia is one of the most invaded countries but is also the origin of many plants and animals that are considered invasive species in other countries. These include the golden wattle, Queensland fruit fly, Australian magpie, spotted jellyfish and brushtail possum. Research one of these invading Australians. Describe how and where it has spread and its impact on native plants and animals.

Caring for Country

Indigenous Australians have a special connection with the land. They feel responsible for looking after the stories, places, resources and culture of an area. This is sometimes referred to as 'caring for Country'. Important aspects of caring for Country are connecting with ancestors and maintaining the natural resources of a region. In this way, Indigenous Australians seek to live sustainably. This concept of caring for Country applies to all landscapes including the forests, deserts, wetlands and mountains.

The Australian Government recognises the special connection that Indigenous Australians have with the land in a number of ways, such as the establishment of a network of Indigenous Protected Areas. In these areas, the traditional owners of the land have agreed to promote biodiversity and to protect the natural and cultural values of the land. At present, there are 42 Indigenous Protected Areas across Australia covering a total of 420000 square kilometres. These areas protect some of Australia's most fragile and vulnerable environments.

AUSTRALIA: INDIGENOUS PROTECTED AREAS, ABORIGINAL LANDS AND OTHER PROTECTED AREAS, 2012



Source 1.46

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 1.14

Remember and understand

1 What is an Indigenous Protected Area?

2 What do you think Mandingalbay Yidinji traditional owner Dale Mundraby means by 'putting country back together'?

Apply and analyse

3 The Mandingalbay Yidinji Indigenous Protected Area is located very close to the city of Cairns. How is this both an opportunity and a challenge for the managers of the Indigenous Protected Area?

4 Examine Source 1.46.

a What is the closest Indigenous Protected Area to your home?

b Describe the distribution of Indigenous Protected Areas and Aboriginal lands in Australia. What could account for this distribution pattern?

Evaluate and create

5 Complete a geographic sketch of the oblique aerial photograph provided (Source 1.48). On your sketch label Cairns, Trinity Inlet, saltwater wetlands, mangroves, agricultural land, mountain ranges and rainforests. You will need to consult an atlas or use the Internet to help you.

6 In your own words, define ecotourism. Do you think that ecotourism is a sustainable use of this Indigenous Protected Area?

Mandingalbay Yidinji Indigenous Protected Area

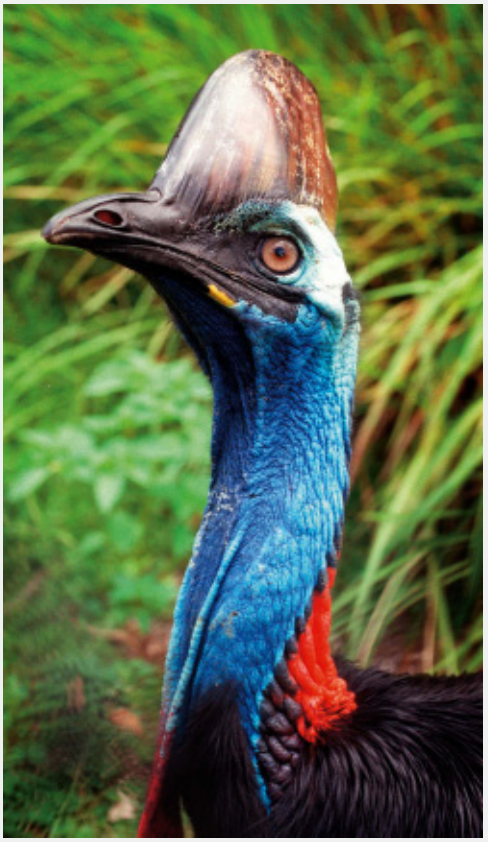
> We had a native title determination and Indigenous Land Use Agreements, but it wasn't until we started developing the Indigenous Protected Area project that we could see a way of 'putting country back together' – to manage country in a tenure-blind way with our partners.
>
> Dale Mundraby, Mandingalbay Yidinji traditional owner

Trinity Inlet is a large saltwater estuary in Far North Queensland. On the west bank of this estuary is the city of Cairns, while on the east bank lies the Mandingalbay Yidinji Indigenous Protected Area. Covering almost 10000 hectares, the Indigenous Protected Area is a world of saltwater wetlands, rugged ranges covered in rainforest, mangroves, salt marshes and sandy beaches. It is home to many rare and endangered plants and animals including the cassowary (see Source 1.47) and several frog species found nowhere else in the world.

Prior to 2011, this region was divided into a number of reserves, national parks and private plots. Unsustainable farming practices led to a loss of biodiversity, particularly in the saltwater wetland of Trinity Inlet. Following a successful native title application, the Indigenous Protected Area was established in a process which the local Aboriginal people, the Mandingalbay Yidinji, described as 'putting country back together'. The traditional owners now work in partnership with governments to restore the area.

Specific programs include trapping feral pigs, collecting seeds and re-vegetating mangroves in barren areas, as well as building walking tracks and other facilities for visitors. The managers of the Indigenous Protected Area see **ecotourism** as the future of the region, once plants become established and birds and animals return to the area.

For more information on the key concept of place, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 1.47 Australia's second largest bird, the cassowary, is vulnerable to extinction due to the loss of rainforest across large parts of Queensland.



Source 1.48 An oblique aerial photograph looking north-east towards the Mandingalbay Yidinji Indigenous Protected Area from Cairns.

Invasion of the cane toad

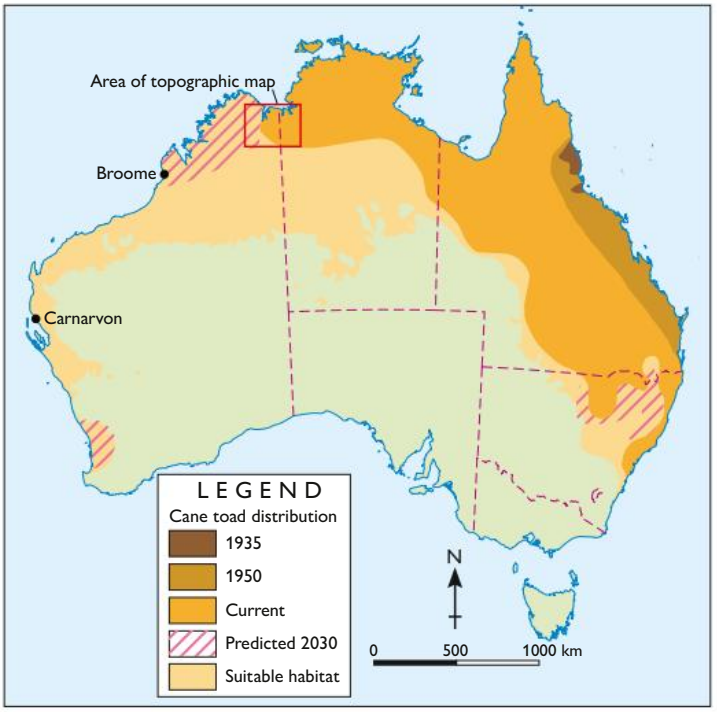
Native to Central and South America, cane toads were released in northern Queensland cane fields in 1935 to help control cane beetles which were eating and destroying the sugarcane plants. The cane toads were of little benefit to the farmers but as they spread beyond the cane fields, southwards into New South Wales and westwards towards Western Australia, they soon became pests themselves. Like many introduced species, cane toads have no natural predators in Australia, so there was little to stop their spread.



Source 1.49 The cane toad has become a serious pest in Queensland and the Northern Territory.

Animals such as snakes, goannas, freshwater crocodiles and quolls have eaten frogs for millions of years. They see cane toads as a new food source. However, the poisonous skin of the cane toad kills its attacker within minutes. This is devastating the local populations of these native animals.

AUSTRALIA: DISTRIBUTION OF CANE TOADS, 2012



Source 1.50 Source: Oxford University Press

skill**drill**

Using a topographic map to explore environmental change

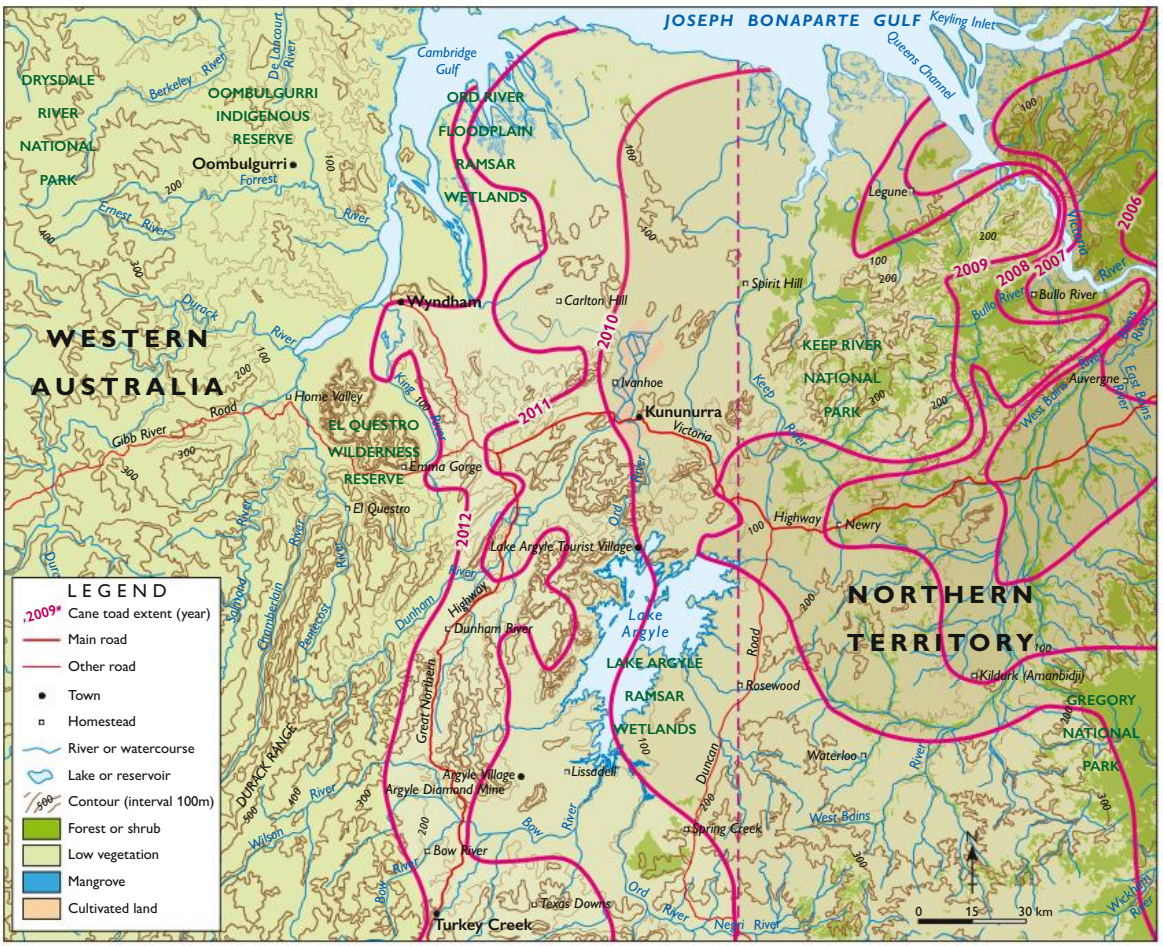
Because topographic maps show the shape of the land in great detail, they are one of the most useful tools used by geographers. By adding extra information, topographic maps can be used to show changes over time and the reasons for these changes. Source 1.51 has been drawn to show the expansion of the cane toad's territory every year from 2006 to 2012. The **contour lines** on the topographic map show the shape of the land over which the cane toads are spreading (including the heights of valleys, hills and ridges). Geographers use this information to measure and predict the rate and direction of the cane toad's spread. Follow these steps:

Step 1 Look closely at the lines and dates showing cane toad expansion to estimate in which direction the spread is moving.

Step 2 Are the lines becoming closer together or further apart from one year to the next? This will tell you if the rate of spread is increasing or decreasing.

Step 3 Select an area between two lines that shows a typical rate of spread. Use the line scale to estimate the distance between the lines in this place. This will give you a rate in

NORTH-EAST WESTERN AUSTRALIA AND NORTH-WEST NORTHERN TERRITORY: ADVANCE OF THE CANE TOAD 2006–2012



Source 1.51

Source: Oxford University Press

kilometres per year. Divide this by 52 to give you a rate per week. This could also be expressed as metres per week.

Step 4 Look at the contour lines and other features shown in the legend to identify any natural or built features that are affecting the pattern and rate of spread being shown on the map.

Apply the skill

Examine Source 1.51 carefully and complete the following tasks.

1. Using the steps provided, estimate the direction in which cane toads are spreading across northern Australia.
2. Calculate the rate of spread for the cane toad between 2011 and 2012.
3. Use the rate of spread you calculated, together with the line scales provided in Sources 1.50 and 1.51, to estimate the amount of time it will take cane toads to spread to the Western Australian towns of Broome and Carnarvon.
4. What natural features appear to be affecting the rate of spread of the cane toad?

Extend your understanding

Examine Source 1.50.

1. Estimate, in square kilometres, the size of the region currently inhabited by cane toads.
2. Estimate the size of the region cane toads are predicted to inhabit under current climate conditions.
3. How do you think climate change will affect the distribution of cane toads? Why do you think this is the case?
4. Kakadu National Park in the Northern Territory contains vast areas of protected wetlands and large numbers of unique plants and animals. Cane toads were first detected in the park in 2001 and since then have had a range of devastating impacts on this unique environment. Research these impacts and the efforts taken by park authorities to minimise them. Discuss the effectiveness of these methods with your classmates.

1.3 How do people change and manage fresh water?

Water degradation

Inland waters such as rivers, lakes and wetlands are some of the world's most degraded environments. Human activities have reduced the quality and quantity of clean fresh water in many of these places. Extracting water from rivers to use in homes, factories and farms, and damming rivers for water supply, flood control and hydroelectricity have all affected the health of these inland waters. Pollution from farms and industry sources entering these waters has also caused damage.

People extract large amounts of fresh water from various natural sources. The highest demand for fresh water is for irrigating farms to grow food. In Australia, for example, 70 per cent of the water extracted from rivers and **aquifers** is used in farming. As the world's population and its demand for food and water grows, many of the world's water resources are becoming degraded by having too much water extracted. This has led to shrinking lakes in some regions and increased salinity in the water in others.

Damming the rivers

Of the world's 292 large river systems, two-thirds have been changed by dams and reservoirs. Dams disrupt the flow of water, flooding some areas and stopping water reaching other areas. Damming also disrupts ecosystem services such as the provision of fresh water, fertile soil and food production. The natural interaction between rivers and coastal ecosystems is degraded as fewer nutrients and less water and sediment reach the river mouth and sea.

Pollutants in the water

Water pollution is the contamination of our rivers, lakes, wetlands, estuaries, seas and oceans. This pollution can be the result of human activities near the water such as shipping, fishing and oil drilling, or from activities conducted on land, a long way from the waterways. Land activities such as the use of fertilisers and pesticides in farming, littering, clearing land, creating tips and landfill, processing sewage and industrial activities can all cause pollution of the waterways.

The results of water pollution are devastating. People lose access to safe, clean, drinking water. Fish and other animals in the water are killed or slowly decline in health and population numbers and an important food source is lost. In extreme cases, water pollution can contribute to widespread food shortages and famine.



Source 1.52 An irrigation dam near Mahabaleshwar in western India



Source 1.53 A toxic bloom of blue-green algae caused by excess nutrients from farm fertilisers has built up in a dam in northern California.

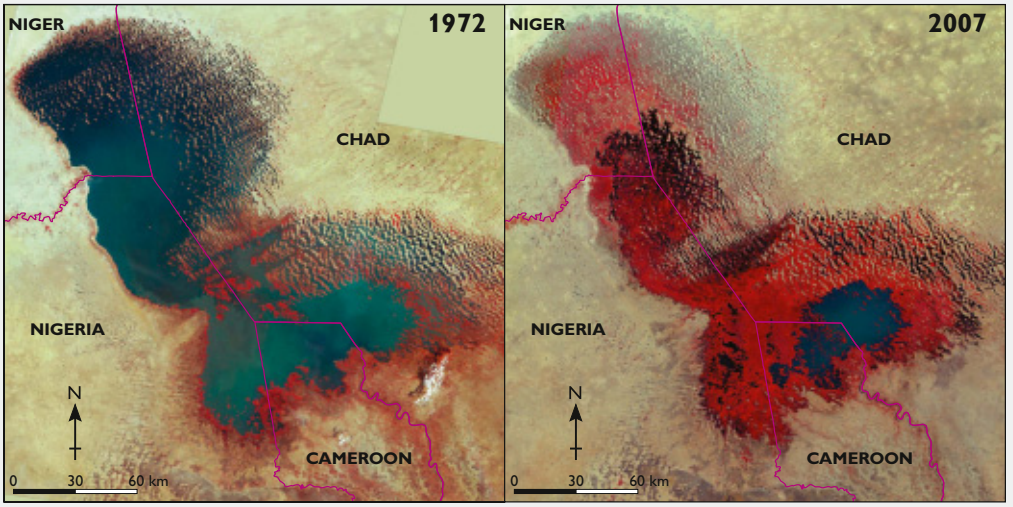
key**concept:** sustainability

Africa's disappearing lake

Lake Chad was once one of Africa's largest and most important freshwater lakes. It provided water to millions of people across four countries and supported a great diversity of wildlife. In 1963, it was the world's sixth largest lake with a total surface area of 23 000 square kilometres. By 2001, this had declined by almost 75 per cent to a paltry 300 square kilometres. This decline is due to a combination of factors including:

- increasing population in the region (e.g. the population of all four affected countries is expected to double by 2050 adding another 300 million people to the region.)
- increasing demand for water to irrigate crops
- drying of the climate due to a decrease in the number of large rainfall events such as monsoonal storms
- extremely high rates of evaporation due to the climate and the shallowness of the lake
- increasing desertification in the Lake Chad catchment area.

For more information on the key concept of sustainability, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 1.54 Satellite images of Lake Chad

Check your learning 1.15

Remember and understand

1 In what ways can building a dam contribute to water degradation downstream?

2 Which human activities contribute to water degradation?

Apply and analyse

3 How do you feel about the scene in Source 1.53? What has caused water degradation in this river?

4 Use the SHEEPT method to classify the factors responsible for the degradation of fresh water resources around the world. (For more information on the SHEEPT method refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.)

5 Examine Source1.54.
- a Describe the changes in Lake Chad evident in these two satellite images.
- b Do you think that Lake Chad will disappear completely? Give some reasons for your answer.

6 Examine Source 1.52.
- a Why do you think this dam might have been constructed? Give evidence from the photograph for your answer.
- b How has this dam changed the natural environment?

Evaluate and create

7 Construct a flow diagram to explore the links between the factors responsible for the decline of Lake Chad.

8 What are some of the issues affecting the health of fresh water resources in your region?

Water degradation in the Murray–Darling Basin

The Murray–Darling Basin is one of Australia's most important resources. Home to more than 2 million people, it produces one-third of Australia's food. It also generates 39 per cent of Australia's income, raised from selling food and fibre overseas. This includes more than half of Australia's cereals, including all of its rice, and virtually all of its oranges.

Many farmers capture rainwater in dams and use it to irrigate their crops and fields but rainfall in the basin is highly variable. If additional water is needed for irrigation it is drawn from the rivers feeding the basin. Farming, along with the basin-wide clearing of natural vegetation, has led to widespread salinity problems in the soil and water resources of the region.

While the amount of salt in the basin is not increasing, it is becoming more concentrated in certain areas. Brought to the surface by the impact of human activities, it is moving into the streams and rivers. As the salt levels increase, natural ecosystems are being placed under stress and cannot cope.



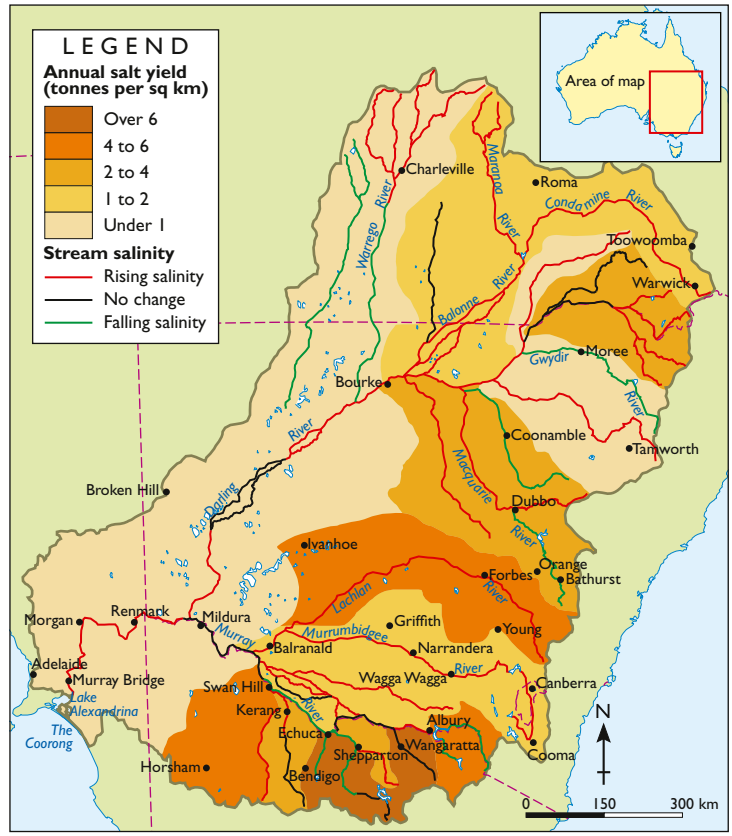
Source 1.55 Salty water seeps from the ground into streams and lakes near Loxton, South Australia.

Salt-sensitive plants and animals are dying and are being replaced by plants that flourish in the increasing salinity, changing the ecology of the rivers.

Human activities are being impacted too. The water is becoming less suitable for domestic uses such as drinking and cleaning, and cannot be used to irrigate crops and pastures. The salty water also corrodes the metal pipes the water is transported in.

As salt is moved downstream, areas nearer to the mouth of the river are becoming even saltier. In the irrigation regions of northern Victoria, areas of rising water tables are predicted to triple in the next 50 years, bringing more salt to the surface and into the tributaries of the Murray River. Without efforts to remove salt from the system, river salinity at the town of Morgan is expected to increase by 25 per cent in the same time period.

MURRAY–DARLING BASIN: MOVEMENT OF SALT TO THE SURFACE



Source 1.56 Source: *Oxford Atlas*

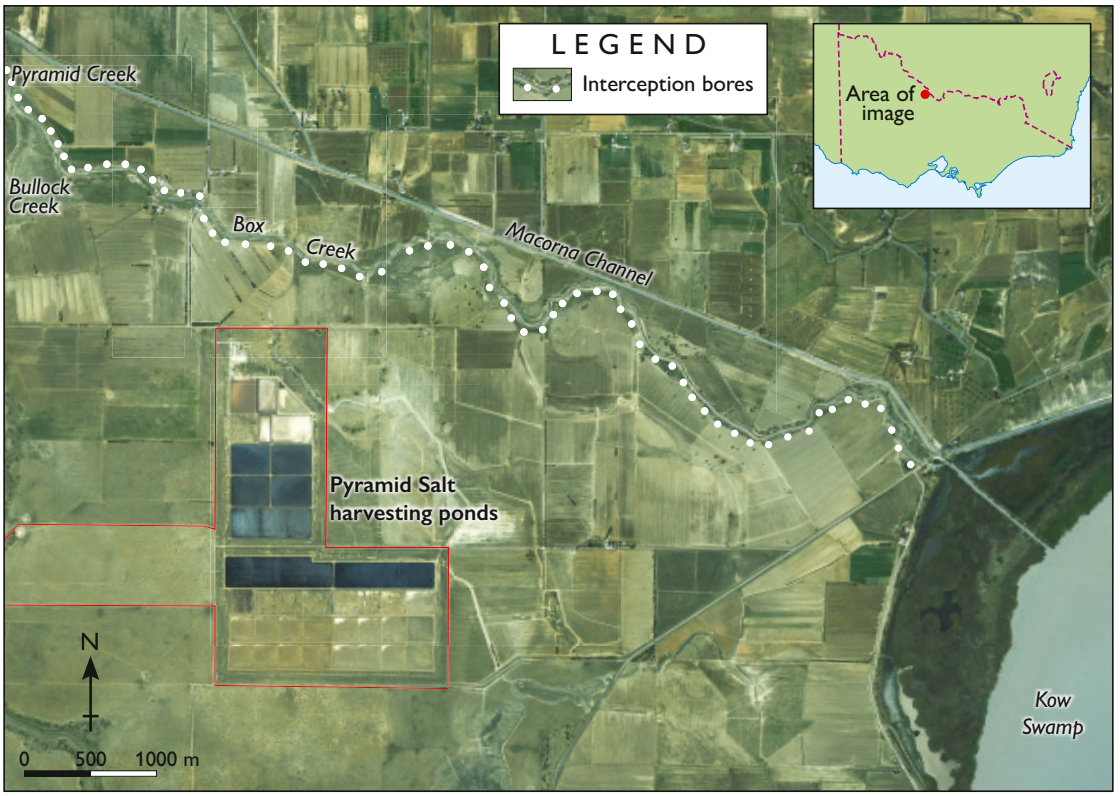
Managing salinity in the Murray–Darling Basin

There has been a range of responses to the issue of salinity in the Murray–Darling Basin, some at the local scale and others at the regional scale. The effectiveness of these management responses has differed from place to place, however, and in some instances the response has created new problems. Two main approaches to salinity management in the basin are currently being used. One approach is to improve farming systems so that farmers use less water. Another approach is the use of salt interception schemes.

Case study: Salt interception in Pyramid Creek

At 17 places along the Murray River, salty water is pumped from the ground and carried to a basin (known as a salt management basin) before it can flow into a river or stream. The salt management basin is often lined with sheets of plastic so the salt is trapped. It is estimated that these schemes stop half-a-million tonnes of salt entering the river system. One such scheme operates at Pyramid Creek near the town of Kerang in northern Victoria (Source 1.57). Salt from this scheme is harvested by a private company, Pyramid Salt, and is sold for use as table salt and swimming-pool salt. The company expects to harvest 36 000 tonnes of salt per year under the scheme.

PYRAMID CREEK: SALT INTERCEPTION SCHEME



Source 1.57 Satellite image of Pyramid Creek near the town of Kerang, northern Victoria, and the Pyramid salt company with their salt harvesting ponds

Check your learning 1.16

Remember and understand

1 Explain why stream salinity is a major problem in the Murray–Darling Basin despite the total amount of salt in the region staying relatively constant.

2 Describe the impacts of salinity shown in Source 1.55.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 1.56.

a Which regions of the Murray–Darling Basin produce the most salt?

b Why do you think this might be the case?

c List the rivers in the Murray–Darling Basin that have rising salinity.

Evaluate and create

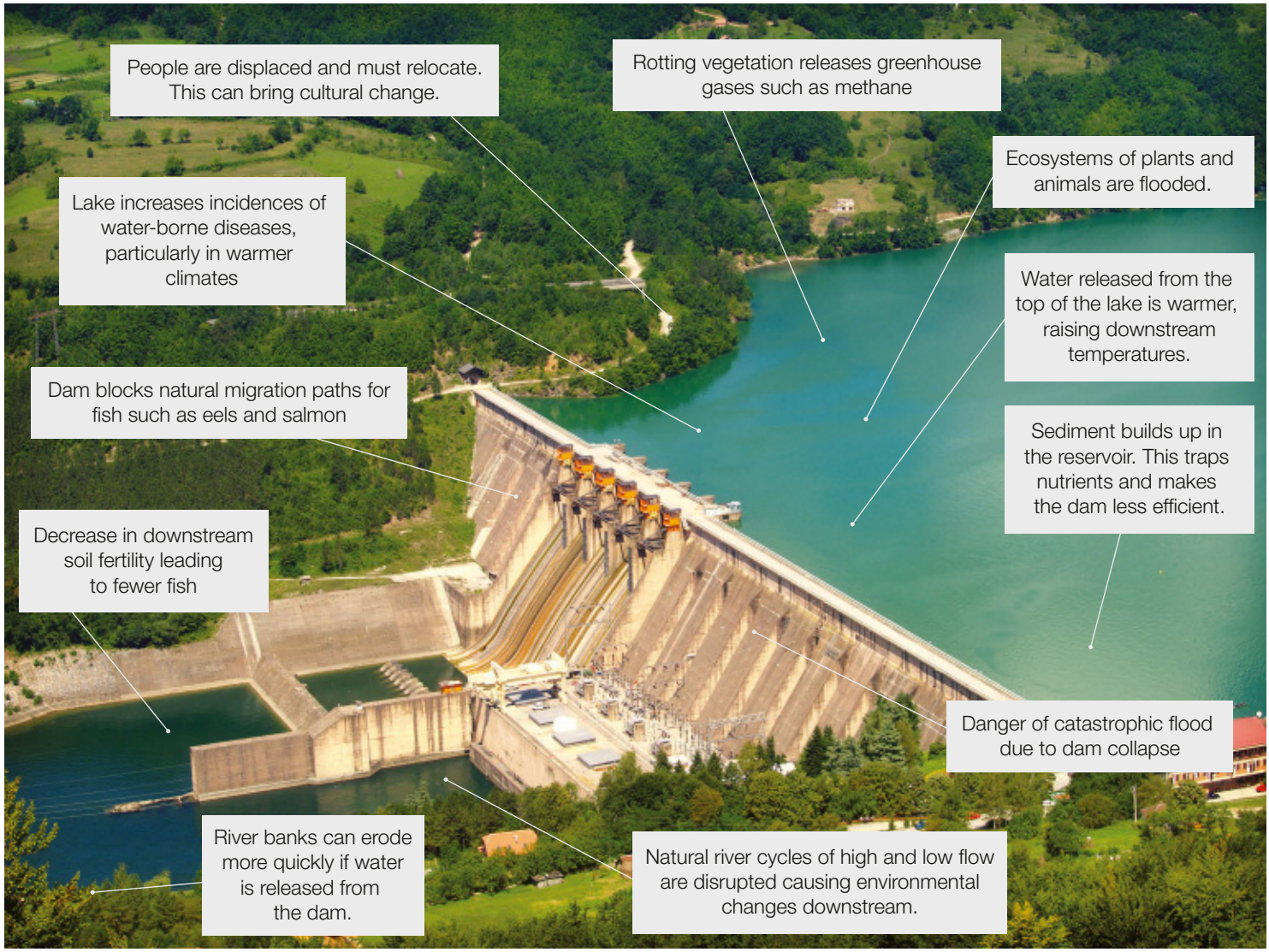
4 The managers of the Pyramid Creek salt interception scheme believe that incorporating salt harvesting helps to make the scheme more sustainable. What do you think this means?

Damming the rivers

There are many human activities that bring environmental change to streams and rivers but perhaps the most dramatic of these is building a dam across a river. One of the main reasons dams are built is to allow a reservoir of water to build up behind the dam which can then be used for the irrigation of farms, a reliable water supply for towns and cities, flood control and for recreation. The energy of the moving water can also be captured behind the dam, and when released through pipes and turbines inside the dam can be used to generate electricity.

This type of electricity (hydroelectricity) provides a cleaner alternative to other methods of power generation such as coal and oil burning. As international pressure mounts to reduce carbon emissions, more and more dams are being built across fast-flowing rivers all over the world. Generally speaking, the bigger the dam, the greater the amount of electricity it can generate. Big dams (over 15 metres high) are now considered the most efficient. There are more than 50000 big dams in the world, half of which are in China, who has 1600 more under construction. China is by far the world's leading hydroelectricity generator and is home to the Three Gorges Dam, the largest dam in the world.

While big dams bring many benefits, they can also create problems for the environment. Source 1.58 shows some of the human and environmental impacts of damming a fast-flowing river.



Source 1.58 Some of the human and environmental impacts of damming rivers

key**concept:** sustainability

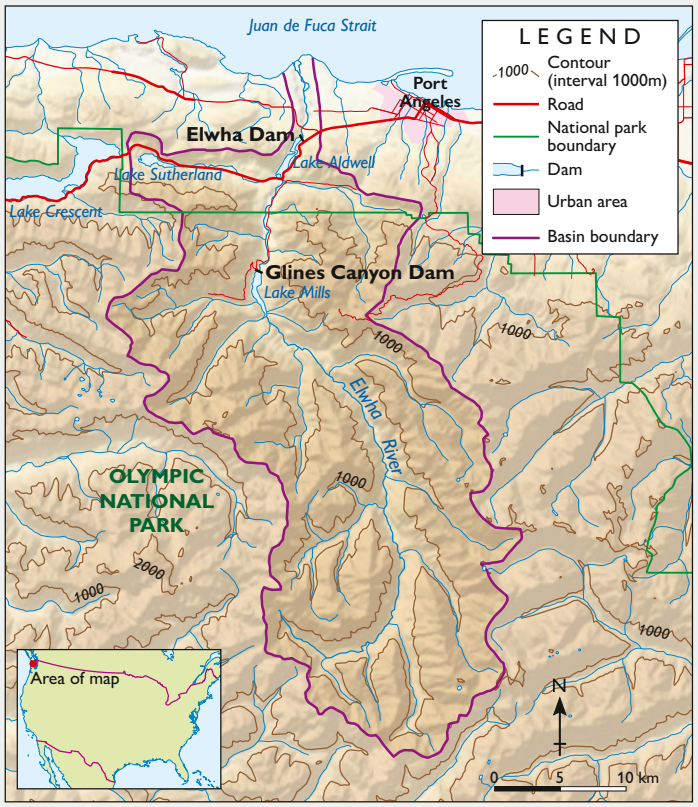
The world's largest river restoration project

While much of the world seems engaged in a dam-building frenzy, in the north-western United States two large dams are being torn down piece by piece. For nearly 100 years there have been hydroelectricity dams on the Elwha River in Washington State, but in 2011 excavators mounted on barges began dismantling them.

Most of the Elwha River runs through the Olympic National Park. Studies on the impact of the dams found that natural ecosystems had significantly declined in quality and capacity as a result of the dams. The greatest impact was on the Chinook salmon, whose migration to spawning rivers had been blocked. This resulted in a 70 per cent decrease in spawning sites (where salmon reproduce). This then impacted on river fertility and reduced the amount of food available to wildlife in the national park such as bears. By removing the dams, it is hoped that the natural ecosystems will be restored.

For more information on the key concept of sustainability, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

ELWHA RIVER: FORMER LOCATIONS OF THE ELWHA RIVER DAM AND THE GLINES CANYON DAM



Source 1.59 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 1.60 The 64-metre-high Glines Canyon dam partially removed in March, 2012.

Check your learning 1.17

Remember and understand

1 Why are many fast-flowing rivers dammed?
2 Why has the Glines Canyon dam been removed?

Apply and analyse

3 Most of the world's big dams are in China. Brainstorm the factors that may be responsible for this. Classify them using the SHEEPT method. (For more information on the SHEEPT method, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.)
4 Examine Source 1.59.
   a Describe the location of the dams on the Elwha River.
   b Estimate the length of this river and the area of its catchment.
   c Why is it important to consider the whole catchment rather than just the river when analysing the impact of a dam?

Evaluate and create

5 Source 1.58 shows some of the negative impacts of dams. Create a similar diagram with a dam's potential positive impacts on people and the environment.
6 Debate this topic: 'Despite their negative impacts, dams are beneficial to people and the environment.'

Pollutants in our water

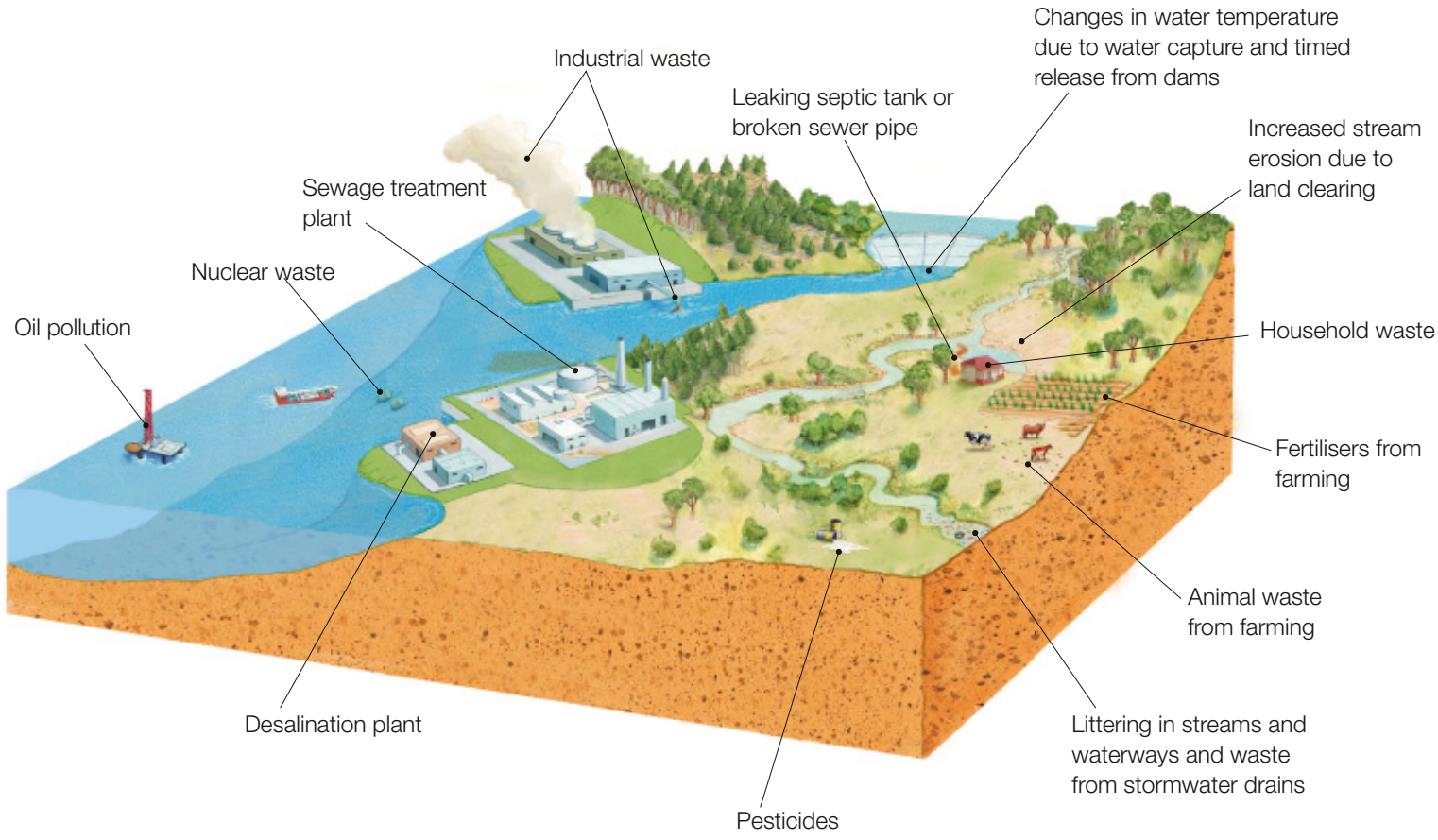
More than one billion people around the world today lack access to safe drinking water. This is due to many factors, one of which is the contamination of freshwater sources such as rivers, streams and groundwater with harmful substances. As well as making water unsafe to drink, pollutants reduce the ability of the environment to provide other ecosystem services such as food supply, pest control and recreation.

Pollutants that enter our waters can be classified as either physical, chemical or biological.

Physical pollutants

Physical pollutants include particles of soil eroded from the landscape and washed into the waterways and any litter such as plastic bags, cigarette butts, shopping trolleys and tyres. It is estimated, for example, that more than 7 billion cigarette butts are littered in Australia each year. Many of these end up washed into drains and carried to streams and coasts where they release chemicals and present a danger to marine life and seabirds.

Soil washing into the waterways is a major source of pollution. These particles of soil can make water cloudy and prevent sunlight entering the water, affecting the plants and animals. When the sediment settles, it can smother small animals and plants living in the water. These sediment particles may also have other substances bound to them such as chemicals and bacteria that can cause pollution.



Source 1.61 Major sources of water pollution

Chemical pollutants

Chemical pollutants include heavy metals, oils, pesticides, industrial chemicals and salt. When the concentration of chemicals in waterways reaches levels that are above natural levels it causes pollution. For example, too much of a naturally occurring plant nutrient changes the chemical balance of water causing excessive plant and algae growth.

Biological pollutants

Biological pollutants include bacteria, parasites and invasive plants and animals. Biological pollutants come from a range of sources including sewage treatment plants, farms, factories and storm water. They can cause harm to other plants and animals in the water, or cause harm to people who drink the water. Bacterial and parasitical pollution such as giardia in the water is usually spread by human and animal waste entering waterways, causing illness.



Source 1.63 An estimated 100 million tonnes of mining waste was discharged into the Queen River in Tasmania between 1893 and 1995, giving it the reputation as Australia's most polluted river.

key**concept:** place

The Ganges River

One of the world's most polluted rivers is the Ganges River of India. An estimated 2900 million litres of sewage is emptied into the river every day, creating a toxic river. In addition, the river is used to dispose of medical waste, dead bodies and waste from tanneries (where leather is made from animal skins) and other factories. A count of harmful bacteria in the river found levels 100 times higher than those considered safe for human use. Millions of people rely on the water of the Ganges for drinking, bathing and cleaning, as well as for its **spiritual** significance.

For more information on the key concept of place, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 1.62 Around 2 million people a day bathe in the Ganges River, one of the world's most polluted rivers.

Check your learning 1.18

Remember and understand

1 What are the three main types of water pollution?
2 Which of these is the main source of pollutants in the Ganges River?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 1.61, showing some of main sources of water pollution. Classify each of these as physical, chemical or biological.
4 As well as water pollution, what other environmental impacts of mining can you identify in Source 1.63, showing the Queen River valley? How might these also contribute to water pollution?
5 There have been several government attempts to reduce pollution in the Ganges River but these have been largely ineffective. Discuss some possible reasons for this with a partner and then with your class.

Evaluate and create

6 The United Nations considers these 10 rivers to be the most 'at risk': Salween-Nu, Danube, La Plata, Rio Grande, Ganges, Indus, Nile, Murray–Darling, Mekong and Yangtze.
   a Locate each of these rivers on a world map and describe their distribution.
   b Select one of these rivers and research the problems it faces.
   c Present your findings to the class.

Living water

Indigenous Australians have been part of the Australian landscape for more than 40 000 years. Over that time they have developed relationships with the land and the water that have helped them to survive and thrive in some of the harshest environments on Earth. As non-Indigenous Australians struggle with issues such as **water scarcity** and degradation, some are learning that the principles followed by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples provide a model that can help them to view and use water more sustainably.

While Indigenous views and values vary from place to place and are both diverse and complex, it is possible to see some common principles with regards to their relationship with water. For example, many Aboriginal peoples refer to permanent sources of water as 'living water'. This describes the importance of water as not only a life-giving force but also of having a life of its own. Indigenous people do not see water as a mere commodity or resource but as a sacred source of life.

> Water is the life for us all. It's the main part. If we are gonna lose that I don't know where we gonna stand. If that water go away, everything will die. That's the power of water.
>
> John 'Dudu' Nangkiriyn

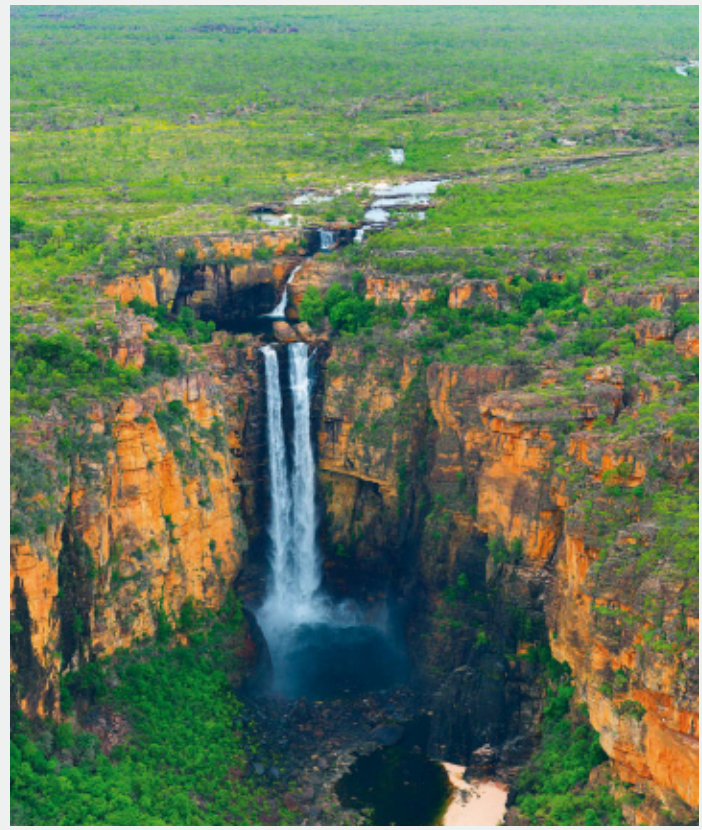
key**concept:** interconnection

Holistic views of the natural world

Indigenous Australians believe that all features of a landscape (land, water, animals, plants and people) are inextricably linked together to form one interconnected whole. Change in one part of the landscape will bring change to the others. This fundamental belief is a key component of Aboriginal views of creation as well as the management of land and water. This traditional view, dating back tens of thousands of years, is now accepted as scientific fact by many researchers and scientists who refer to it as interconnection.

This holistic view of landscapes links Indigenous people with the natural world. Indigenous people believe that they have custodial responsibility for the land and water in the country in which they live and that this responsibility is passed to them by their ancestors and from them to their descendants. Water resources such as rivers, lakes, billabongs and groundwater are protected by a complex series of laws, customs and beliefs. The Nyungar people of south-western Western Australia, for example, throw a handful of sand into streams and lakes as they approach, in order to warn the spirit of the water of their approach.

For more information on the key concept of interconnection, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

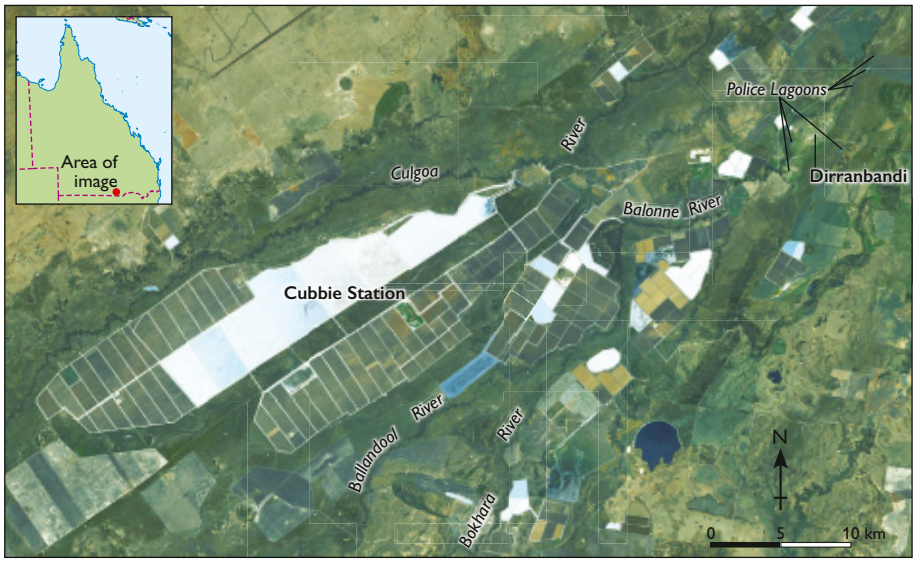


Source 1.64 According to the traditional beliefs of the Gagudju people of Kakadu, a creator-being, known as Almudj, created the waterholes of the region. Almudj brings the wet season every year, may appear as a rainbow, can punish people by drowning them and lives in a pool beneath a waterfall.

Case study: The Police Lagoons

The views of Indigenous Australians with regard to the management of water can, at times, conflict with the views of non-Indigenous Australians, many of whom believe that water is a commodity that can be bought, sold and traded. There are, however, many examples of communities who have been able to take into account both sets of views when developing water management strategies.

One of these is the town of Dirranbandi and the nearby Police Lagoons, a series of wetlands beside the Balonne River in southern Queensland. The Police Lagoons are ephemeral wetlands which means they only fill with water during the rainy season. Before European settlement, the lagoons filled with water once a year and provided an important habitat for plants and animals. The lagoons were also an important meeting place for ceremonies, including burials, for the Kamilaroi and Kooma Indigenous peoples, as well as a source of food. With the development of large-scale farming in the region, including the establishment of Cubbie Station, the largest cotton farm in Australia, the Balonne River floods less often and the lagoons are without water for longer periods of time.



Source 1.65 Satellite image of the Balonne River floodplain in southern Queensland

Following consultation with local Indigenous people, a new management plan for the lagoons will be developed that will take into account the cultural needs of the Indigenous population and emphasise sustainability. Information and knowledge will also be shared between the Indigenous community and government geographers. This will lead to a healthier wetland and see more frequent flooding of the lagoons.

Check your learning 1.19

Remember and understand

1 Why do the views of Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians sometimes conflict?

2 Why do you think that Indigenous views are often ignored when decisions about water use are made?

Apply and analyse

3 How might the Indigenous concept of interconnection help non-Indigenous Australians to better manage scarce water resources in arid regions of Australia?

4 What are your beliefs about the natural environment? Where do these beliefs come from?

5 Examine Source 1.65.

- a Describe the location of the Police Lagoons.
- b This is an ephemeral wetland. Explain how an ephemeral wetland operates.
- c Why are these wetlands significant to local Aboriginal peoples?
- d What land uses can you identify in the satellite image?
- e How do these land uses put pressure on the water resources in this region?

Evaluate and create

6 Discuss a set of guidelines or rules that could be introduced to help water users and managers use the expertise and knowledge of Indigenous peoples in making decisions about water use in Australia.

7 Research the interconnection between water resources in your local area and Indigenous Australians. How have these interconnections changed over time?

Return to Eden

The region at the **confluence** of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers in Iraq once supported one of the world's great wetlands – the area where farming was first developed as well as the location of the world's first towns. For this reason, many thought of the area as the Garden of Eden. The wetlands once covered 20 000 square kilometres and supported complex communities of plants, animals, birds and people.

Between the 1970s and 2002, however, the area of the marshes shrunk by more than 90 per cent and the only major marsh that survived was the Al Hawizeh marsh sitting on the Iraq and Iran borders. This was a result of new irrigation dams that drew water from the rivers upstream to support further agriculture. Much of the marshland became dry and the ecosystems collapsed. The numbers of migratory birds declined dramatically and the local people were forced to move to the cities.

Since 2003 many of the drainage structures have been dismantled and the marshes allowed to reflood. By the end of 2006, more than half of the region had been reflooded and much of the original vegetation had recovered. Farmers are also returning to the area.

skill**drill**

Constructing overlay maps from satellite images

One way to show how a place has changed over time is to construct an overlay map of the area. **Overlay maps** allow geographers to show a place at two different times so that they can instantly see any changes that have taken place. To construct an overlay map from two satellite images, follow these steps:

Step 1 Construct a base map of the region using the earlier satellite image. This should be traced rather than drawn freehand to make it as accurate as possible. Draw a rectangle the same size and shape as the satellite image. Add key natural and human features: rivers, canals, towns, and lakes.

Step 2 Add labels to rivers and towns. Add a north arrow, legend and title. Include the date of the image, scale and source.

Step 3 On a plastic sheet or piece of tracing paper construct a map of the same region from a later satellite image. Ensure that the two satellite images you use show the same region at the same scale. This map will sit on top of your base map so line up features such as rivers that have stayed the same.

Step 4 Place the overlay map on top of the base map and use a piece of tape like a hinge along the top to stick them together.

Step 5 Add a title to the overlay map that does not cover the one on the base map. A north arrow, legend, scale and source should not be needed as these are the same as for the base map.

Apply the skill

1 Construct an overlay map of the marshes using the 2000 and 2010 satellite images in Source 1.66.

2 Describe the changes to the rivers and marshes of this region from 2000 to 2010 as shown in your overlay map.

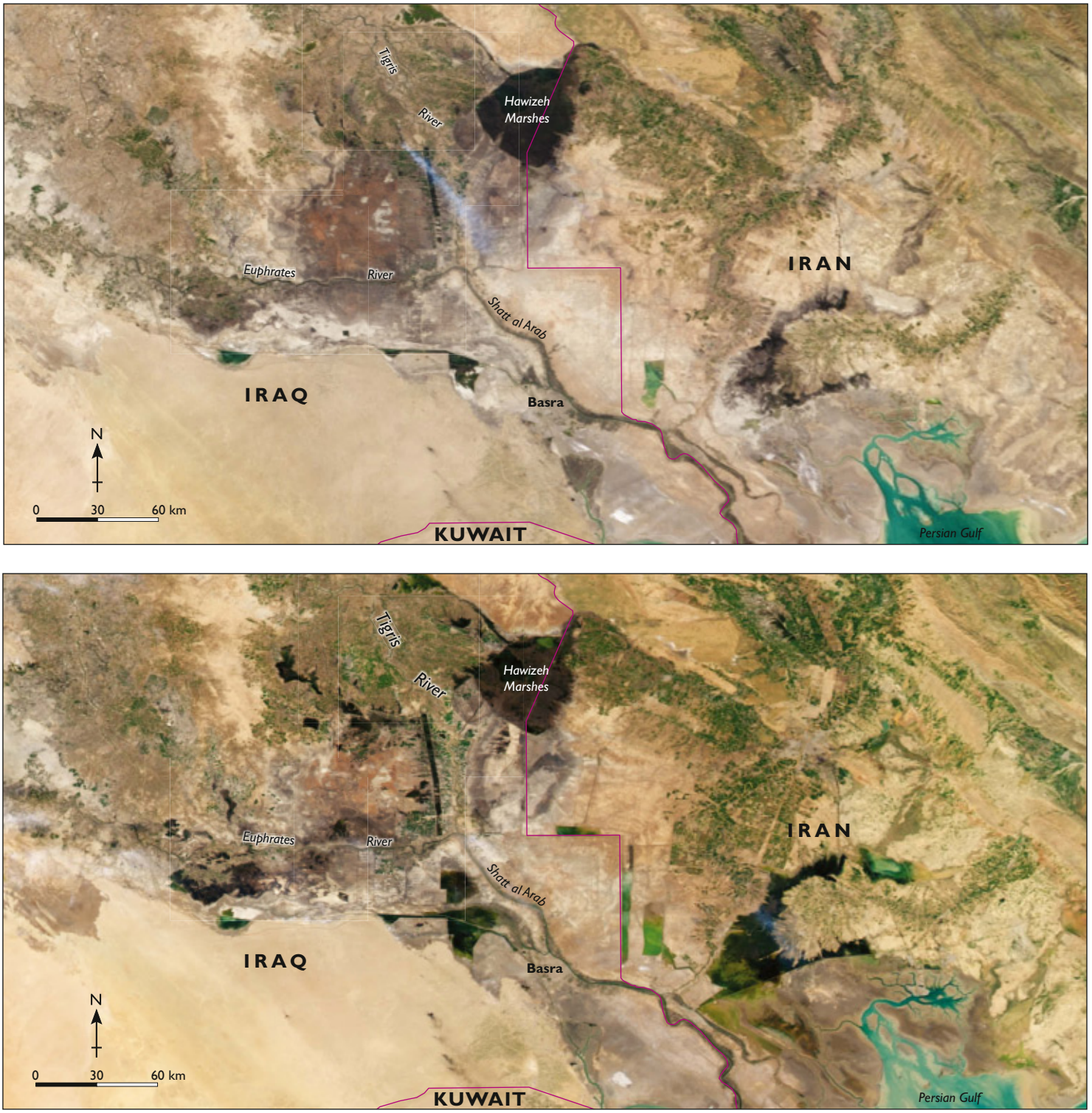
3 Describe the scale of this series of environmental changes. Is this change at the local, regional, national, international or global scale? Give some reasons for your answer.

Extend your understanding

1 The decline and rebirth of the Mesopotamian Marshes is an example of the pressure faced by many of the world's freshwater resources but it is also a beacon of hope as it shows that areas can be restored. Select one of these other examples of water resources under pressure: Aral Sea, tributaries of the Dead Sea, Kara-Bogaz-Gol lagoon, Everglades wetlands, Lake Chad, Lake Balkash, Lake Chapala, Lake Nakuru or the Coorong.

Work in groups to:

- **a** Research the changes that have occurred over time.
- **b** Describe the causes of these changes.
- **c** Describe any attempts that have been made to restore the natural environment and comment on their effectiveness.
- **d** Present your findings as an Annotated Visual Display (AVD). Use images such as satellite images, maps and aerial photographs in your display.
- **e** Compare your example to those researched by other groups in your class. What are the similarities between them? What is unique about the one you researched?



Source 1.66 Satellite images of the Mesopotamian Marshes from 2000 and 2010 (the green areas show the extent of the marshes)

Coastal change and management

Coasts are areas where the land meets the ocean. Coasts are one of the Earth's most threatened environments. Home to more than one billion people, and vulnerable to changes in the ocean and on land, many coasts are now severely degraded. Human activities have affected coastal biodiversity, and polluted coastal environments are now at further risk from the effects of climate change. Already more than half of the world's coastal wetlands and even more of its mangroves and seagrass have disappeared. Coral reefs are dying and in many places, rising sea levels are accelerating the natural process of coastal erosion.

While these changes are of serious concern, geographers can play a role in finding solutions and developing strategies for managing coastal environments. Many governments are now moving to protect their coasts using integrated coastal zone management, and creating national parks and marine reserves in coastal areas so these environments can be carefully managed. Careful management helps to balance human needs with the health of the environment.



2.1 How is the coastal environment changing?

1 As a class, discuss the ways in which human activities have impacted on the coastal landscape shown in Source 2.1.

2 How would a 3-metre rise in sea level affect this coast?

2.2 How can coastal changes be managed?

1 In Source 2.1, what evidence can you see of management strategies to control or limit human activities that may have a negative impact on the natural environment?

2 Brainstorm further strategies that could be put in place to protect this coast. Why do you think these have not been used in this environment?



Source 2.1 Coastal landscapes are popular places as this photograph of a crowded beach in Scheveningen, the Netherlands, demonstrates. Changes brought about by humans in areas like this need to be carefully managed to prevent serious damage to coastal environments.

2.3

How can geographers help to manage coastal changes?

1 While the impacts of human activities are obvious on this coastline, their root causes are less obvious. What might some of these fundamental causes be?

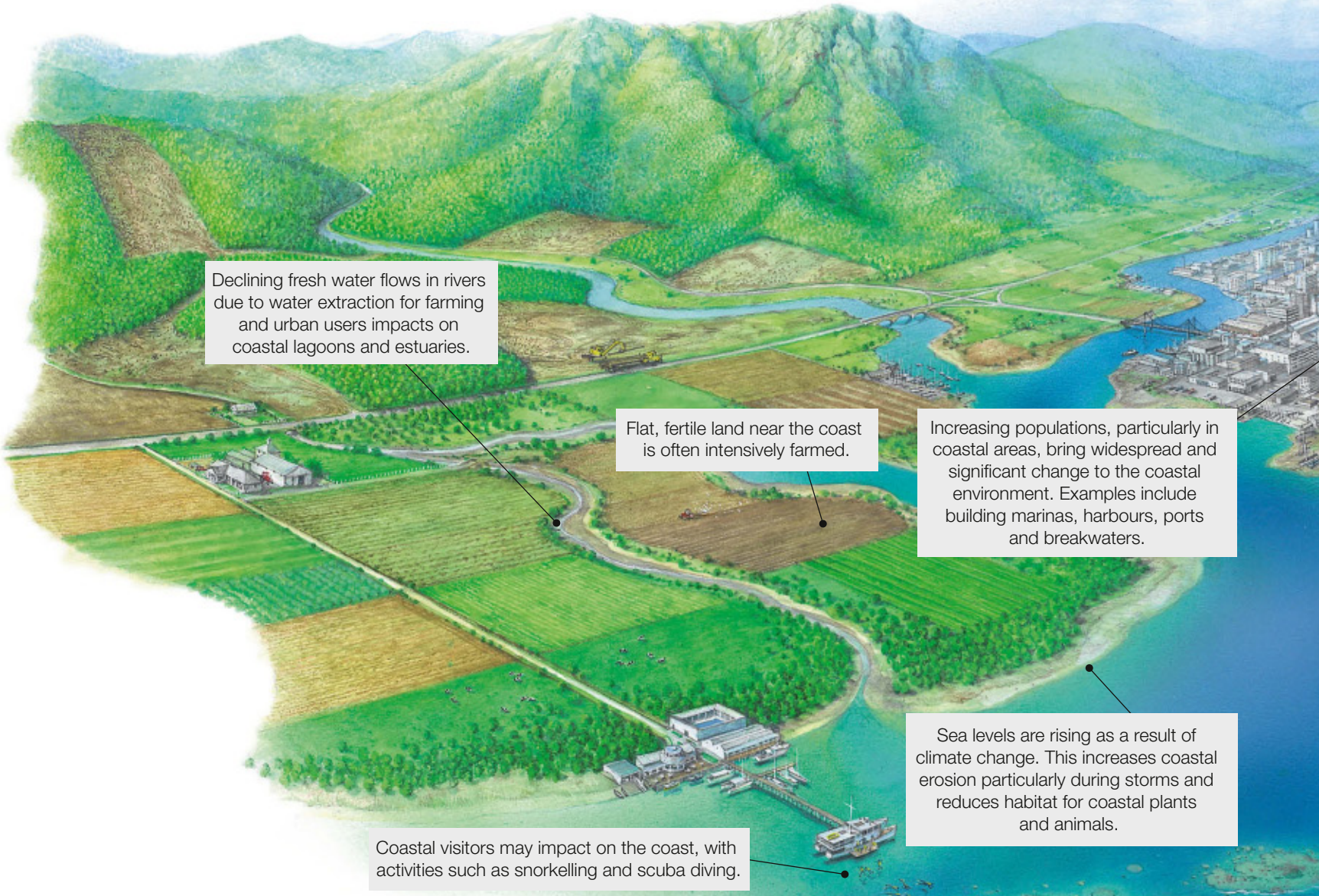
2 Why do changes at coastal environments differ from place to place?

2.1 How is the coastal environment changing?

Change in coastal environments

Coasts are very dynamic places – they are constantly changing. Crashing waves, strong currents, tidal waters and hazards (such as storms and tsunamis) all transform coastal environments. People, too, bring about many changes to these environments. From simple activities, such as walking across a sand dune, to complex study activities, such as the construction of shipping ports and sea walls, humans have serious effects on coastal areas. In many cases, these activities are responsible for **coastal degradation**.

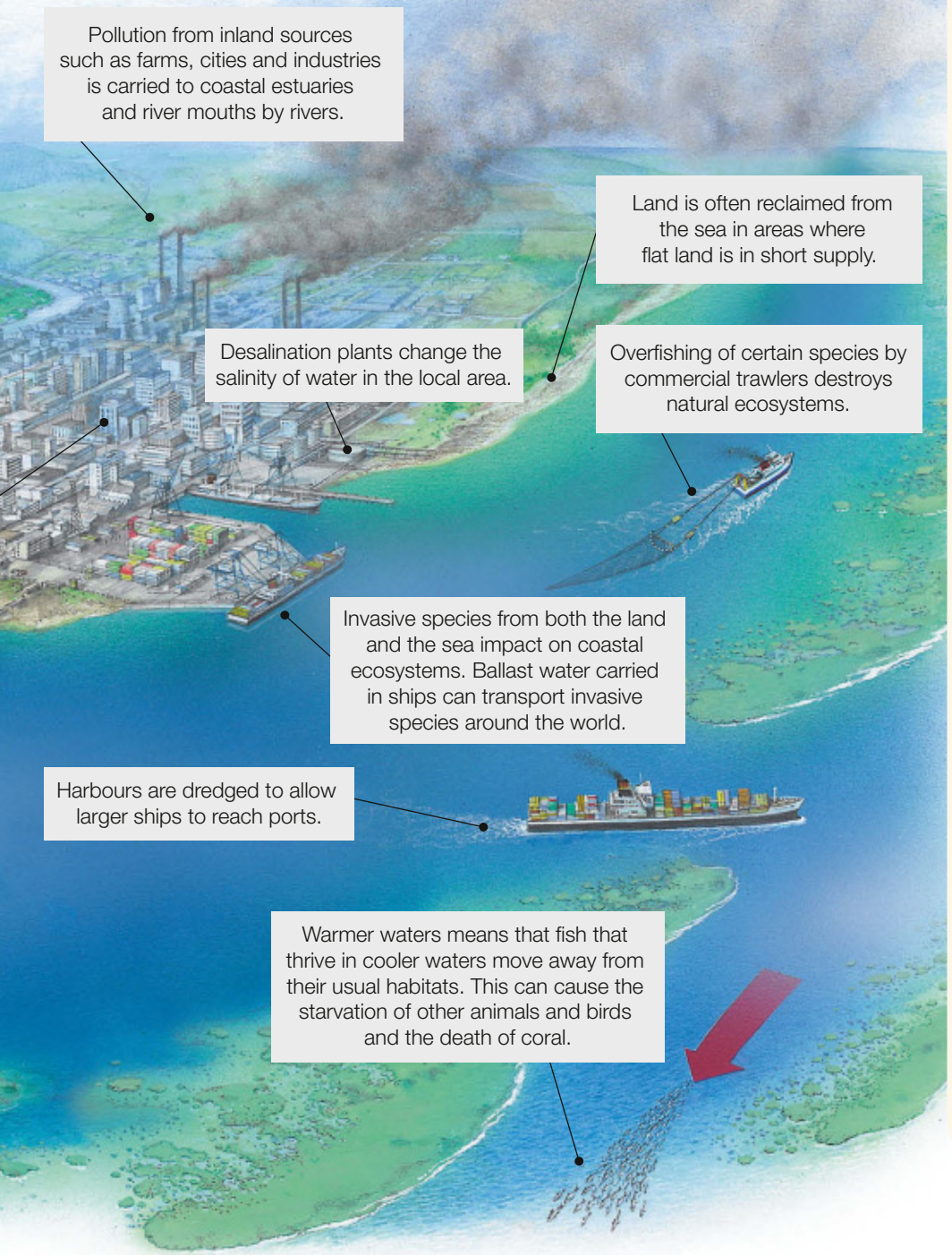
Coastal degradation can be observed on many scales. It may be local, like when litter is dropped on a popular holiday beach, or regional, like when an oil spill washes ashore along hundreds of kilometres of coastline. The effects of coastal degradation are varied, and can include



Source 2.2 Some common examples of coastal degradation

the loss of plant and animal species, or the arrival of an invasive species that permanently affects biodiversity in the area. Examples of coastal degradation can include sand dunes being washed into the sea, changing the coastline, or blooms of toxic algae damaging the marine environment. Source 2.2 provides an overview of some common forms of coastal degradation.

Over the course of this chapter we will be exploring some of the changes that are having the greatest impact on coastal environments. These include climate change, population growth in coastal areas, the loss of coastal biodiversity and marine pollution.



Check your learning 2.1

Remember and understand

1 What are some of the changes currently impacting coastal environments?

2 Are coastal environments close to cities more at risk from degradation than those in remote areas? Give some reasons for your answer.

Apply and analyse

3 The three main drivers of environmental degradation are climate change, population growth and economic growth. Examine Source 2.2.

- a Classify each of the causes of coastal degradation shown according to one of these three drivers.
- b Are there any changes that could not be classified in this way?
- c Which of the three drivers appears to be responsible for most of the changes shown?
- d Classify each of the changes shown according to whether they are taking place on the local, regional, national, international or global scale.

4 Use the geographical concept of interconnection to describe the links between changes on the land and changes at the coast.

Evaluate and create

5 Select one of the causes of coastal degradation shown in Source 2.2. Suggest a solution for the problems this creates.

A dynamic balance

While this chapter focuses primarily on the ways in which human activities bring about changes to coastal environments, it is also important to remember that natural processes are constantly shaping and changing the coast too. Rocks are eroded and material such as sand is transported by the energy of waves, tides and currents, creating a landscape that is constantly evolving. All this change means that coasts are very complex environments to study and understand.

Understanding natural processes in coastal environments

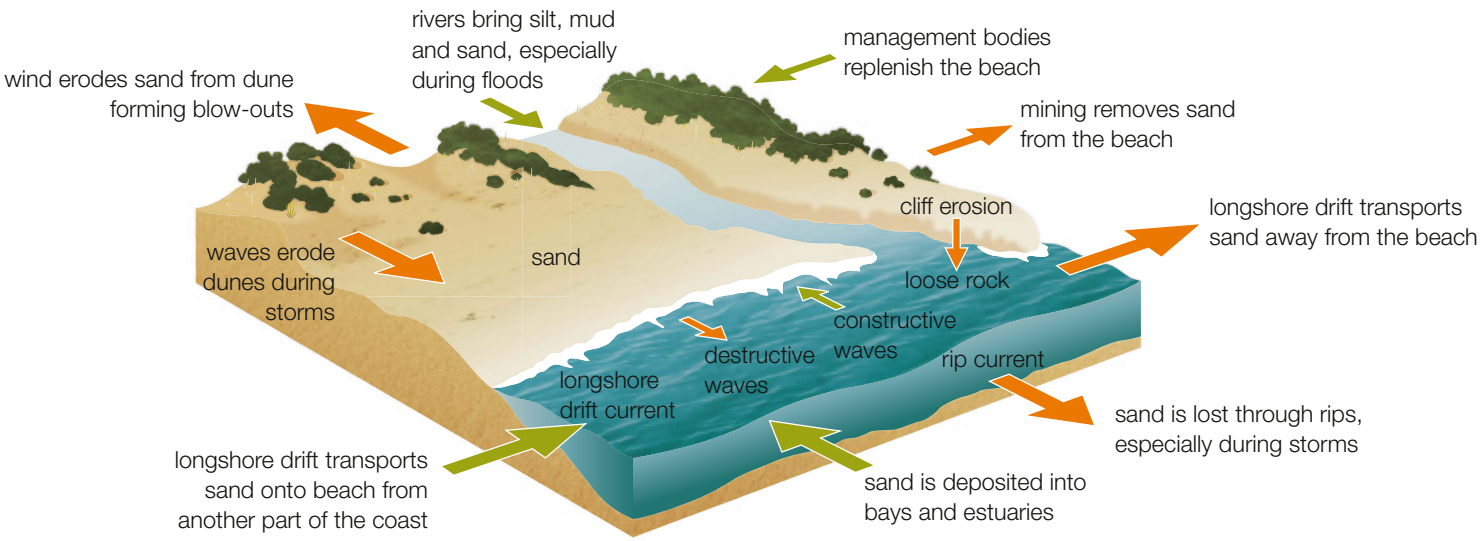
Geographers often use models – such as the systems model – to understand environments, study the relationships between environments, and learn more about the intricate forces that cause changes.

To apply a systems model to a coastline, each individual **landform** is considered to be a separate compartment. Energy such as wind and waves, and matter such as water and sand are studied as they arrive at and leave each compartment. Arriving energy and matter are referred to as inputs and leaving energy and matter are outputs.

If the inputs are greater than the outputs, then the coastline and its landforms such as dunes and **spits** increase in size and the coast grows outwards. If the outputs are greater than the inputs, then landforms decrease in size and the coast retreats (see Source 2.3)



Source 2.4 A range of coastal landforms are evident at Cape Byron, the easternmost point on the Australian mainland.



Source 2.3 How natural processes change coastal environments. Green arrows represent inputs while red arrows represent outputs.

key**concept:** change

Dynamic equilibrium

Energy inputs on the coast – the waves and wind – often erode and transport matter, particularly sand. When matter is transported, the shape of the beach changes. When coastal landforms are in balance with energy inputs this is known as dynamic equilibrium. In this state, energy inputs are absorbed with no movement of matter, and the shapes of the landforms remain unchanged.

When dynamic equilibrium does not exist, inputs and outputs do not remain in balance, and the landscape changes.

In the case of a storm, energy inputs will not be constant, so erosion and deposits will not be in balance. Matter is eroded and transported offshore and the shape of the beach changes. Once the storm ends and the energy inputs return to 'normal' again, dynamic equilibrium returns and the beach will remain unchanged for as long as the energy inputs remain constant.

For more information on the key concept of change, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 2.5 A massive storm struck the north-east coast of the United States in 2012, reducing the width of the beaches by an average of 9–12 metres, and up to 46 metres in some places. The storm disrupted the dynamic equilibrium of this environment.

Check your learning 2.2

Remember and understand

1 What are the main energy and matter inputs in coastal environments?

Apply and analyse

2 Use the systems model to describe the changes that are taking place in Source 2.4.

3 Examine Source 2.5.
- a What evidence is there for the movement of sand?
- b How has this movement changed the shape and location of the coastline?
- c Explain whether this is an example of dynamic equilibrium.

4 Select a coast that you know well (or one that you have visited on a field trip). Describe the energy and matter inputs and outputs in this environment and explain how these have shaped the coastline. For example, a series of sand dunes may have been formed by low energy waves bringing sand from a river mouth.

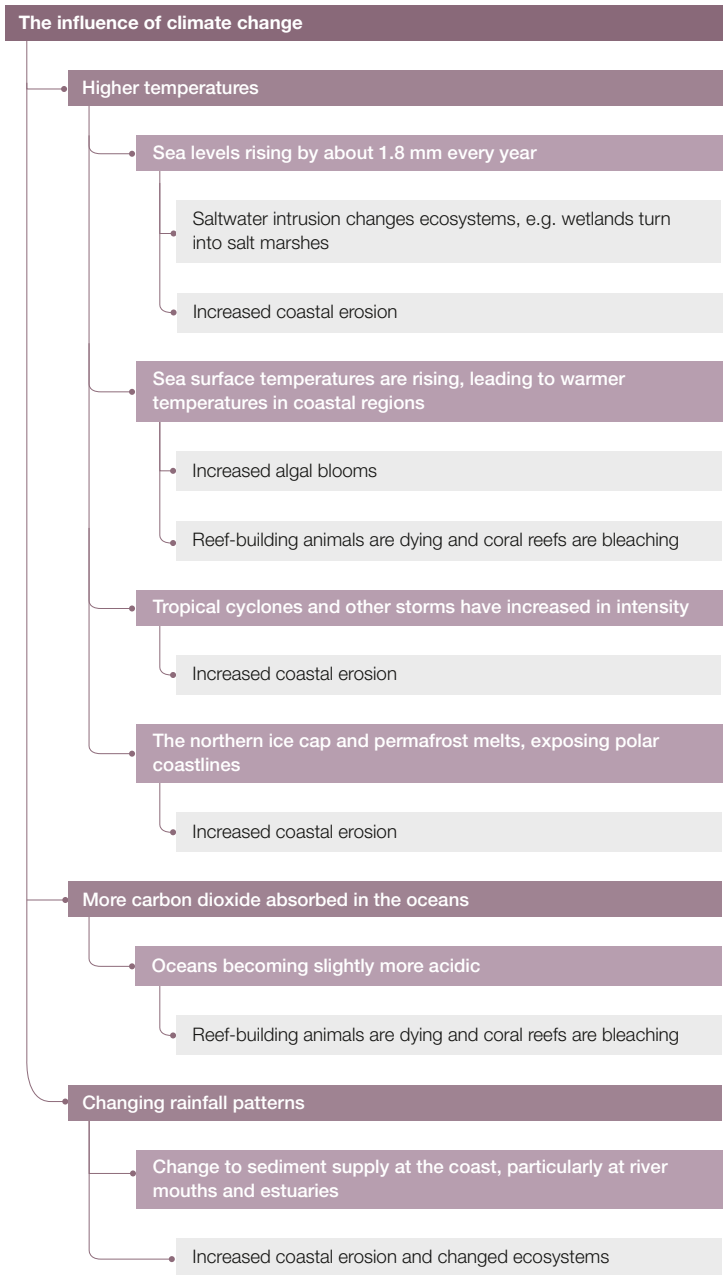
Evaluate and create

5 While many coastlines were heavily eroded by the 2012 storm on the north-east coast of the United States, others hardly changed.
- a Brainstorm some reasons why variations exist in the way coasts are changed.
- b Rank your reasons from the one most likely to explain these variations to the one least likely. Justify your rankings.

6 Complete a field sketch of Source 2.4. On your sketch, label the individual compartments that geographers would study.

Climate change and coasts

The world's climate is changing. Human activities such as land clearing and fossil fuel burning have led to increased amounts of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. This is leading to **global warming**. As a result, the Earth's natural ecosystems are changing or adapting to the higher temperatures. Plants and animals that are unable to adapt to the warmer conditions are either moving towards the poles, where conditions are cooler, or facing extinction.



Source 2.6 The influence of climate change on the coast

Global warming is also affecting coasts. In fact, coastal systems are undergoing greater change than virtually any other environment. As the interface between the land and the sea, coastal systems face pressures from changes in both of these places. Source 2.6 summarises the effects of climate change on coastal areas. One of the greatest concerns for Australian coastal areas is the rising of sea levels.

Australia's rising seas

It can be difficult to convince people that sea levels are rising. This is because ocean and coastal waters are constantly changing as waves, tides and currents keep them in movement. Also, sea levels are rising very slowly. This doesn't mean that they are not rising, however. In fact, sea levels have been rising for at least a century. Scientists use a combination of tide gauges and new technologies such as satellite altimeters (instruments used to measure altitude) to monitor and measure sea-level changes. These measures show that sea levels have risen by about 1.8 millimetres per year over the last century and by about 3 millimetres per year since the mid 1990s.

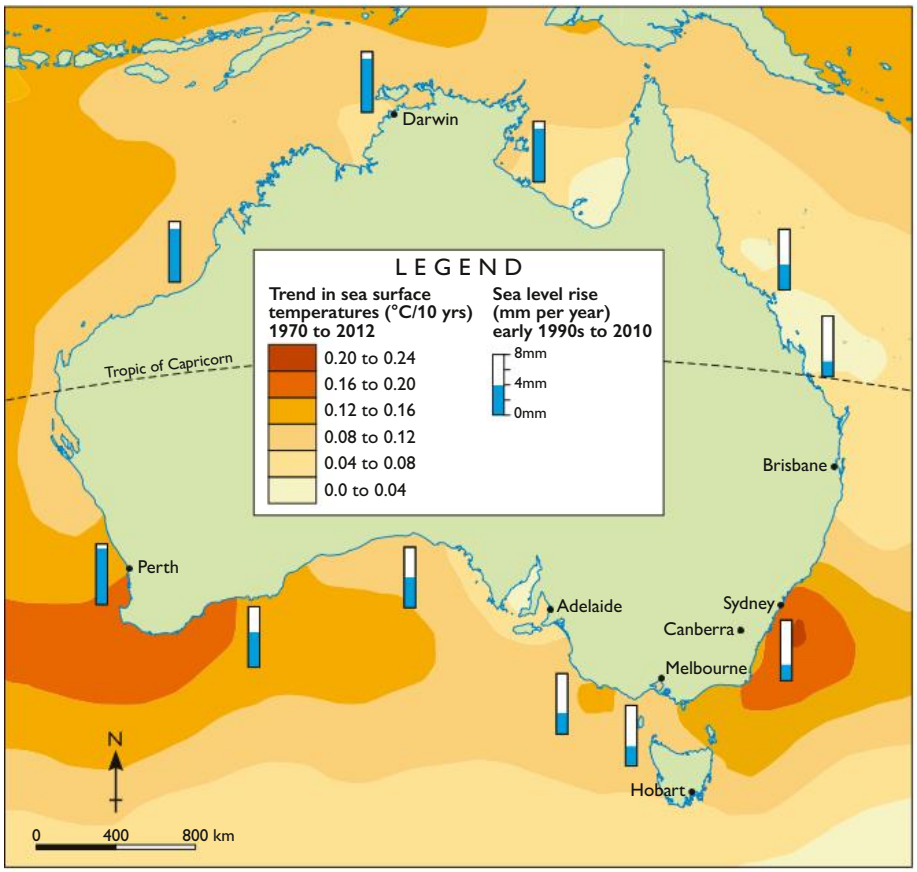
The physical impact of rising seas

An Australian government report in 2011 stated that, 'Sea levels are rising around Australia. A sea-level rise of a metre or more during this century is plausible. It could be less or much more. Between 16000 and 250000 individual homes are potentially at risk of inundation from a 1.1 metre rise in sea level.'

As well as the risk to homes situated on the coastline, rising sea levels are expected to cause:

- an increase in the erosion of beaches, with some beaches expected to disappear completely
- an increase in the incidence of flooding in low-lying coastal areas
- saltwater to enter coastal aquifers, destroying freshwater sources
- an increase in the severity of extreme weather events such as cyclones, bringing with them increased incidences of serious storm damage.

AUSTRALIA: TREND IN SEA SURFACE TEMPERATURES AND SEA LEVEL RISE



Source 2.7 Source: Oxford University Press

Coastal squeeze

As sea levels rise, important coastal ecosystems such as mangroves and salt marshes respond by retreating inland. However, in many places, sea walls and other coastal structures mean they cannot move and are therefore trapped in a narrowing strip of land (see Source 2.8). This process is known as coastal squeeze. This has led to healthy salt marshes and mangrove forests that are highly effective natural barriers to erosion being killed off by built structures that, in many cases, are much less effective at controlling erosion.

Check your learning 2.3

Remember and understand

1 What is coastal squeeze? What causes this problem?

2 Why is coastal erosion expected to increase as sea levels continue to rise?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 2.7.

- a Describe the general pattern in sea surface temperature rises around Australia over the period 1970–2012.
- b Which regions of Australia experienced the greatest rises in sea levels from the early 1990s to 2010?
- c Based on the data provided, are you able to identify any links between sea surface temperature rise and rises in sea level around Australia? Why or why not?

4 Add four boxes to Source 2.6 to provide additional examples of the impacts that rising sea levels and sea surface temperatures will have on natural and human environments.

5 Visit the OzCoasts website (www.ozcoasts.gov.au) and locate the sea level rise maps section. Use these maps to examine the predicted sea level rise in a capital city or region of your choice. Describe the impacts that a 110-centimetre sea level rise would have.



Source 2.8 This sea wall in Manche, France, is squeezing the salt marsh (centre) into a narrower strip as sea levels rise.

The impact of climate change on the Great Barrier Reef

Queensland's Great Barrier Reef is not only one of the world's most beautiful natural treasures; it is also one of its most important. Extending over 2300 kilometres and 14 degrees of latitude, the reef contains over 2900 separate coral reefs and some of the world's most extensive mangrove and seagrass ecosystems. But the combined effects of a changing climate – rising sea temperatures, rising sea levels, **ocean acidification**, and extreme weather events – are causing problems for this remarkable natural environment.

Rising sea temperatures

Studies show that the current temperatures of the Coral Sea are warmer now than at any time over the last 300 years. On average, temperatures are 0.4° Celsius warmer than they were in the late 1800s. As average temperatures rise, warm weather events heat the sea surface to a temperature that coral polyps (the tiny organisms that construct the coral reef) cannot tolerate. The coral polyps feed on algae, but the warmer water temperature causes a build-up of poisons in the algae. In order to survive, the polyps expel the algae on which they feed, as well as some of their own tissue. This process turns the coral white and is known as coral bleaching. Over the short term, bleaching does not kill the coral polyps. However, if sea temperatures remain high over an extended period, the coral polyps eventually starve and the reef will die out.

Rising sea levels

As the climate warms, land ice is melting. For example, the Greenland ice sheet, which covers 80 per cent of Greenland, is melting an average of 195 cubic kilometres per year. The water from this melting ice ends up in our oceans. Rising sea temperatures are also causing the ocean to expand as a result of the warmer water.

In the Coral Sea, sea levels are rising by about 3 millimetres per year. This is expected to have little impact on the coral reefs as they can grow upwards by about 6 millimetres per year. Surrounding ecosystems, however, are likely to be severely affected. As saltwater intrudes further inland, environments such as mangroves and freshwater lakes are expected to change significantly. Low-lying islands are also expected to disappear beneath the rising seas, changing the distribution of nesting birds and turtles.



Source 2.9 An example of mass coral bleaching on the Great Barrier Reef



Source 2.10 The Great Barrier Reef islands such as Heron Island are important nesting sites for the endangered loggerhead turtle.

Ocean acidification

Ocean acidification is a term used to describe the change in water chemistry caused when the carbon dioxide we pump into the atmosphere is absorbed into the ocean. The extra carbon dioxide in the water makes it more acidic. Ocean acidification can have dire consequences for a coral reef.

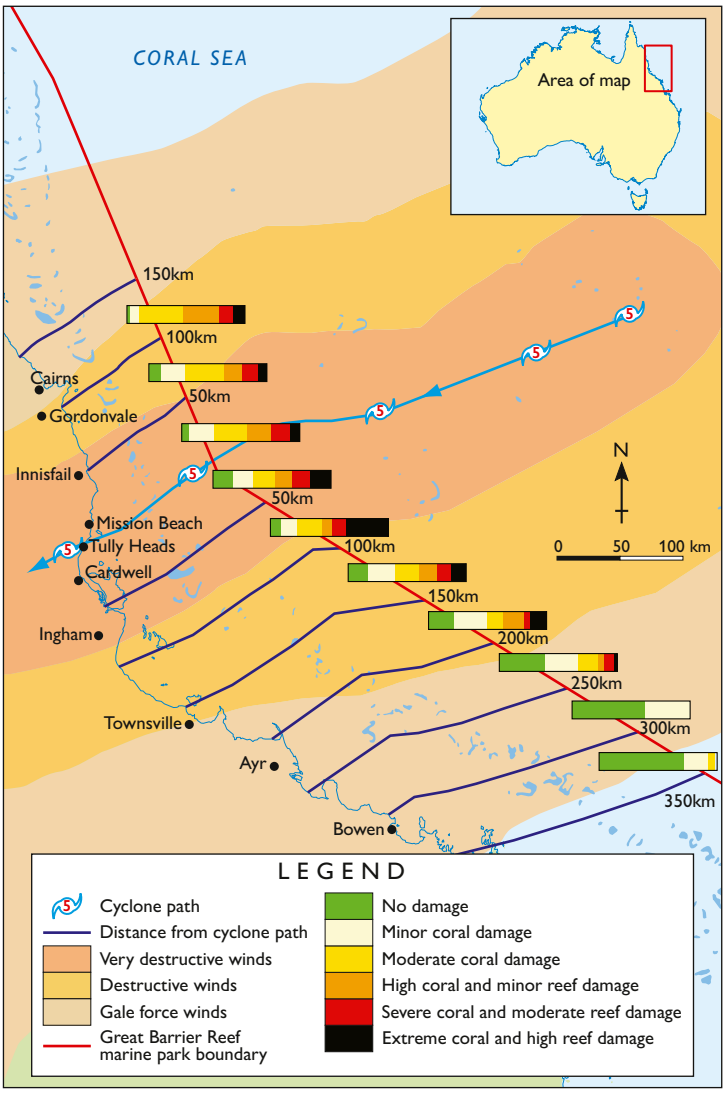
As carbon dioxide is absorbed into the ocean, it reduces the amount of carbonate (a kind of salt) in the water. Marine animals need this carbonate to make their shells and skeletons. Reef-building animals such as coral polyps then use these shells and skeletons to create a reef. With fewer shells and skeletons available, construction of the reef is seriously limited. Over the long term, ocean acidification is expected to be the greatest challenge facing the Great Barrier Reef.

Extreme weather events

Increases in the severity and frequency of flooding and tropical cyclones also pose serious threats to the reef. Flooding brings increased sediment to the reef and this sediment smothers plants. Pesticides and other chemicals are also carried by floodwaters, adding to the levels of pollution in the water around the reef.

Cyclones generate large and powerful waves which damage corals and the reef structure. One of the worst cyclones to hit the reef in recent times was Cyclone Yasi in 2011 (see Source 2.11). Reefs are able to recover from these natural events but need time to do so. As extreme weather events become more frequent, reefs have less recovery time.

GREAT BARRIER REEF: DAMAGE FROM CYCLONE YASI, FEBRUARY 2011



Source 2.11 Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.4

Remember and understand

1 Why are sea levels around the world rising?

2 How do rising sea levels impact on nesting birds and turtles?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 2.11.

- a Describe the track of Cyclone Yasi and the areas in which the winds were most destructive.
- b In which areas was reef damage the greatest? Which areas suffered the least damage?
- c Describe the relationship between wind speed and reef damage.

Evaluate and create

4 Construct a flow chart or mind map showing the impact of ocean acidification on coral reefs.

5 Rank the four impacts of climate change described here from the one likely to have the greatest impact on the reef to the one likely to have the least impact. Write a paragraph justifying your ranking.

6 Imagine that the Great Barrier Reef disappeared due to the combined effects of climate change. How would this affect the Queensland coast and the Queensland economy?

The impact of population growth on coasts



Source 2.12 The contrast between the natural and built-up environments of Tokyo Bay, Japan: a beach in Tokyo Bay (top), and reclaimed land near the CBD (bottom).

About one-quarter of the world's population live within 100 kilometres of the coast. Most of the world's megacities in both the developed and developing world are located on the coast and many of them are growing rapidly. In China, for example, 1000 people a day move to coastal cities from the country's interior. The impact of billions of people in millions of coastal cities, towns, villages and farms has caused one United Nations expert to state that 'humankind is in the process of annihilating coastal and ocean ecosystems.'

The impact of human settlements on coastal areas

The coast has always been an attractive place for human settlement. Coastal regions provide access to food and water, and people have long used boats and ships for transportation. But the growing number of people along the coast, together with increasing levels of trade and movement between settlements have had many detrimental effects on coastal ecosystems:

- Engineering structures such as sea walls, **groynes**, breakwaters, training walls and marinas have hardened the coast and changed natural cycles of **erosion** and **deposition**.
- Changing the natural flow of water by dredging channels, diverting rivers and building dams has altered the amount of fresh water and sediment arriving at the coast, impacting on natural ecosystems and landforms.
- Discharging sewage into the ocean, the run-off of fertilisers from farms and other contaminants entering coastal waters have caused pollution in the oceans.
- Increased numbers of people in coastal areas has led to overfishing of the fish and shellfish. In some places coastal fish stocks have fallen by 90 per cent in the last 30 years.
- Ports are often an entry point for invasive species that bring dramatic changes to coastal ecosystems.
- The presence of large numbers of people on beaches have an impact: people leave litter on beaches, they walk over native plants and impose walkways, they can destroy breeding areas of sea birds and bring predators such as dogs into the environment.

Continued growth and competition for land

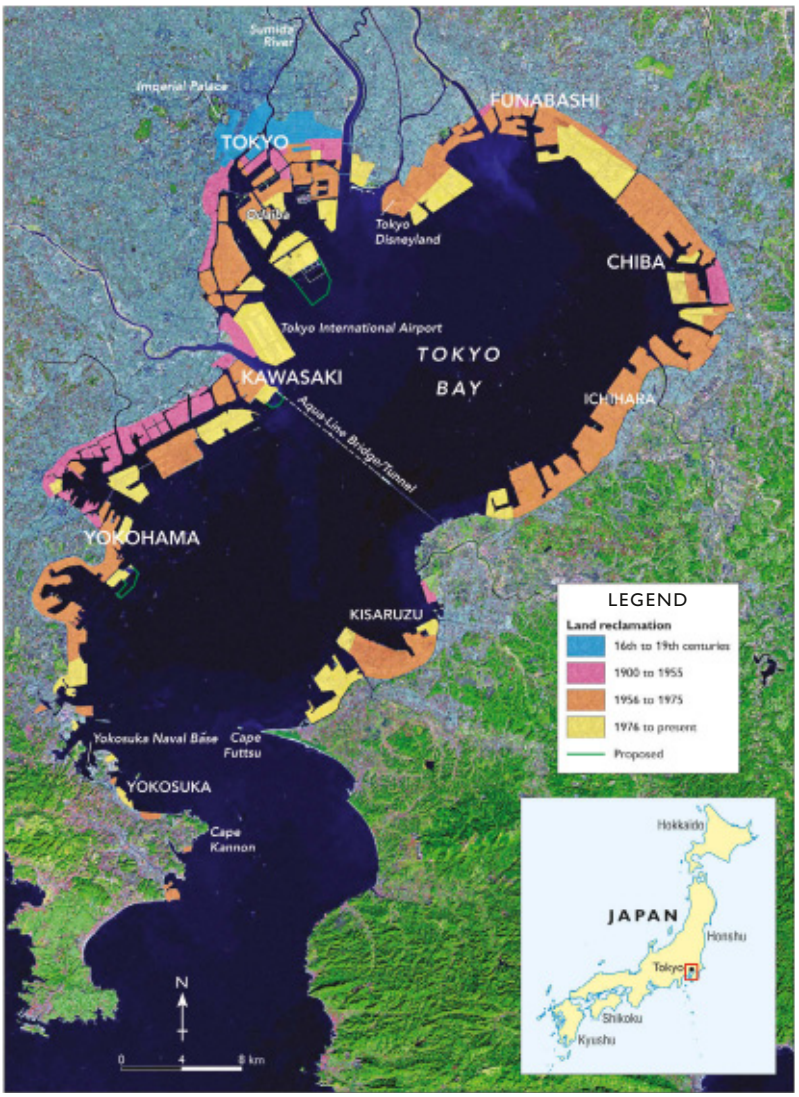
Many coasts have been converted from natural ecosystems to human landscapes. Cities need space to grow and harbours for trade and transport. Mangroves, marshes and **estuaries** have been drained and filled in, sand dunes flattened and built over and communities of coastal plants cleared. In some places, land for expansion has been so scarce that new land has been built in bays and estuaries from rocks, rubbish and silt from the sea bed (known as **land reclaimation**).

Case study: Tokyo Bay

The largest example of reclaimed land is Japan's Tokyo Bay. Twenty per cent of the bay has been filled in to create 250 square kilometres of new land. This new land was created around the edge of the bay using urban waste and silt from the bottom of Tokyo Bay. The reclaimed land is now home to some of the world's most expensive real estate including an international airport and Tokyo Disneyland.

In September 2013, Tokyo was selected as the host city for the 2020 Summer Olympic Games. Many of the sporting venues will be built on reclaimed land and this is expected to further increase the property values in the areas surrounding Tokyo Bay.

TOKYO BAY: EXTENT OF RECLAIMED LAND



Source 2.13 Source: National Geographic

Check your learning 2.5

Remember and understand

1 What is land reclamation and why is it used?
2 Describe the changes to coastal ecosystems as a result of coastal city growth.

Apply and analyse

3 Use an atlas to research the location of the world's megacities (cities with over 10 million people). How many megacities are coastal? How many of these coastal megacities are on river mouths or estuaries?
4 Why would the impacts described on these pages be particularly serious for small island communities?
5 Would the population impact on coasts be greatest in developing or developed countries? Discuss this with a partner and then with the class.

Evaluate and create

6 Construct an overlay map of Tokyo Bay using Source 2.13. On the base map show the natural outline of the bay. On the overlay show the total area of reclaimed land. Describe the spatial change over time shown on your map.
7 Use Google Earth to explore the coastline of Tokyo Bay. Estimate the percentage of the coastline that is:
   a heavily modified (for example, reclaimed land)
   b lightly modified (for example, sea walls or groynes constructed)
   c not modified.

Loss of coastal biodiversity

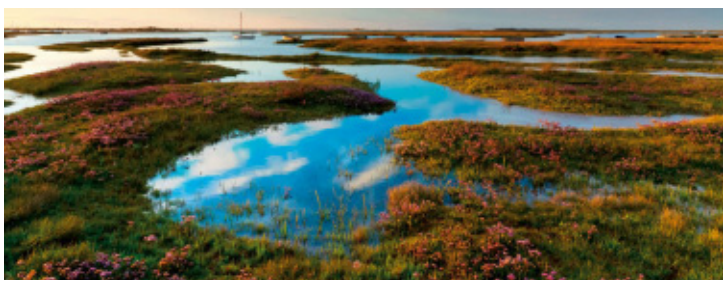
The number of plant and animal species on a global scale is in decline. The drivers of this wave of extinction are all caused by human activities such as the destruction of habitats, overexploitation of ecosystem services, pollution, climate change and the introduction of invasive species. Recent studies of the four key coastal ecosystems – mangroves, seagrass beds, salt marshes and coral reefs – reveal that all are declining in size and biodiversity.

Mangroves

Mangroves provide a wide range of crucial ecosystem services in many tropical areas, including providing wood, protecting communities from the effects of offshore storms and as a breeding ground for fish and crustaceans. Despite their importance, about one-fifth of the world's mangroves have been lost since 1980, an estimated area of 36 000 square kilometres (see Source 2.15). Countries such as Kenya, Liberia and Puerto Rico have already lost over 70 per cent of their mangrove forests. Currently, the United Nations estimates that mangrove forests are being cleared at four times the rate of land forests. Mangroves have been cleared to make way for agricultural land, harbours, housing and fish farms.

Seagrass beds

Seagrass beds are an important ecosystem for dugongs and manatees (both large sea mammals) and the leafy seadragon (see Source 2.16), as well as providing food for hundreds of other species. Seagrass beds are also important for stabilising sediments in the water, absorbing carbon dioxide and protecting against erosion. Over the last 200 years, about 30 per cent of the world's seagrass beds have disappeared, many of them within the last few decades. The main threats to seagrass beds and the biodiversity they support are the dredging of the sea bed, the development of tourist marinas and water pollution from rivers and streams.



Source 2.14 Salt marshes protect shorelines from erosion and reduce flooding.



Source 2.15 Many mangrove forests, such as here in Malaysia, have been cleared to make way for shrimp farms.



Source 2.16 The amazing leafy seadragon, threatened by a loss of seagrass near Australia's southern cities.

Salt marshes

Salt marshes are intertidal habitats, meaning they are above water at low tide and under water at high tide. Salt marshes are essential for healthy fisheries and coasts. They provide food, refuge and a habitat for the offspring of more than 75 per cent of marine species, including shrimp, crab and many fish. Birds also feed on the marshes. Salt marshes protect shorelines from erosion and reduce flooding by slowing and absorbing rainwater (see Source 2.14). They also help to maintain water quality by filtering runoff and absorbing excess nutrients. Twenty-five per cent of the world's salt marshes have already been lost; many turned into agricultural land for farming.

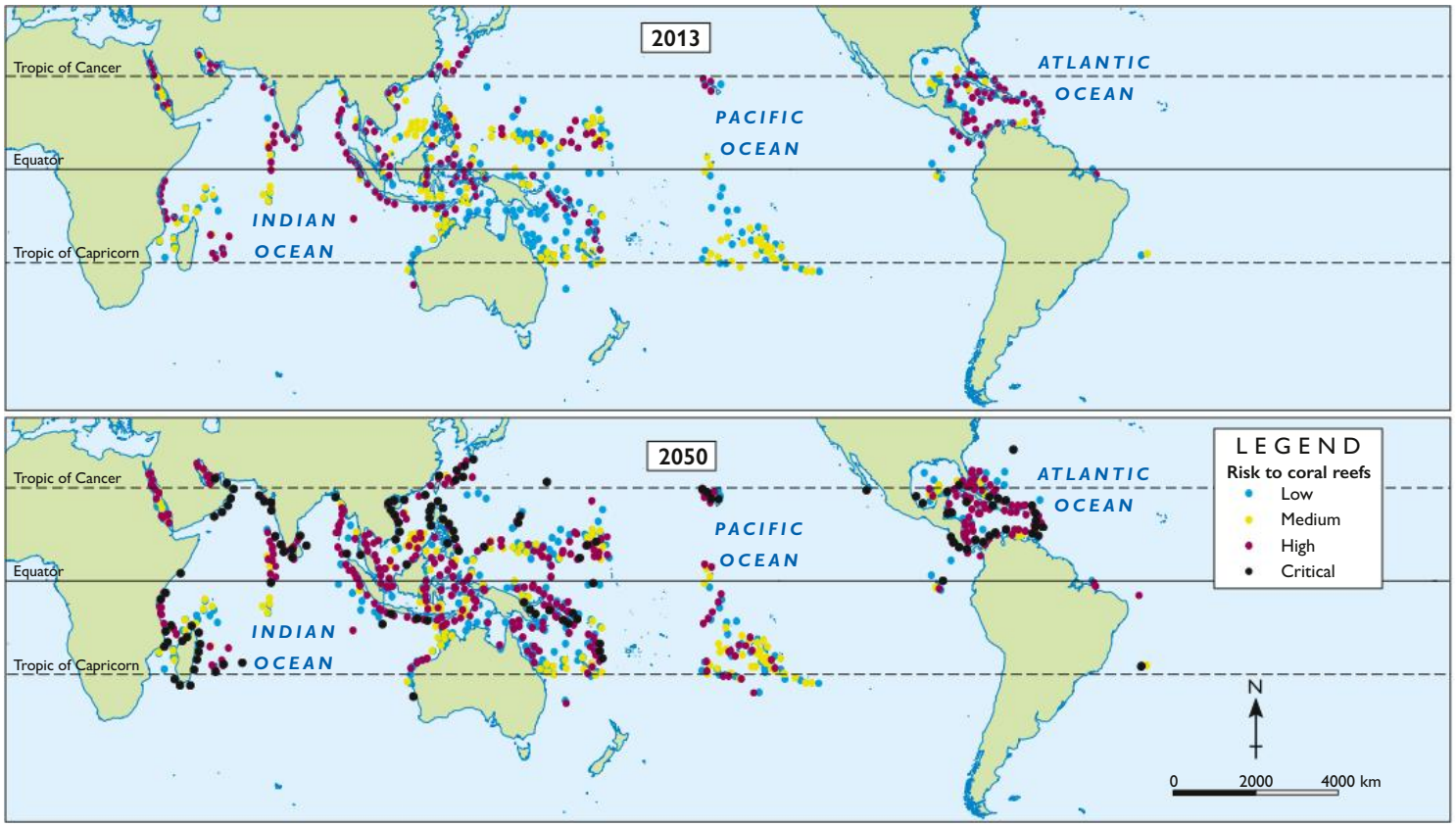
Coral reefs

Coral reefs are home to one-quarter of the world's fish species. The richest area of coral is the western Pacific Ocean. In the 1980s, 66 per cent of the region's reefs were covered in living coral, but by 2004 this had declined to just 4 per cent. In the Caribbean Sea, the amount of living coral fell by one-quarter in a single year.

Up to a billion people rely on the ecosystem services provided by coral reefs, including food, protection from waves and storms and income from reef-based tourism. Despite their importance, the coral reefs are under threat.

As well as the threats from warmer sea temperatures causing coral bleaching, coral reefs are also in danger from human activities such as land-based industries increasing the levels of sediment and pesticides in the ocean, and from invasive species such as the crown-of-thorns starfish.

WORLD: CORAL REEFS AT RISK IN 2013 AND PROJECTED TO BE AT RISK IN 2050



Source 2.17

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.6

Remember and understand

1 What ecosystem services are provided by the four coastal habitats discussed? Classify these as sinks, sources, services or spiritual functions.

Apply and analyse

2 What are the five drivers of biodiversity loss in coastal habitats? Give an example of each of these.

3 Examine Source 2.17.

a Describe the distribution of the world's coral reefs using the PQE method. For more information on the PQE method refer to section GT. 2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

b Which reefs were most at risk in 2013?

c Which reefs are projected to be at risk by 2050?

Evaluate and create

4 Sketch Source 2.15 and shade intact mangroves and disturbed mangroves using two different colours. Label features of the natural and human environments.

5 Research the threats faced by one coastal species in Australia such as the dugong, orange bellied parrot, coastal emu, grey nurse shark, marine turtles or sea snake, and present your findings to the class.

Coastal and marine pollution

A pollutant is any substance released into the environment that has a harmful or negative effect on the natural environment. Coasts are particularly vulnerable to the damaging effects of **pollution** as pollutants released on land and in the sea usually find their way to the coast, carried by rivers, tides, waves and ocean currents.

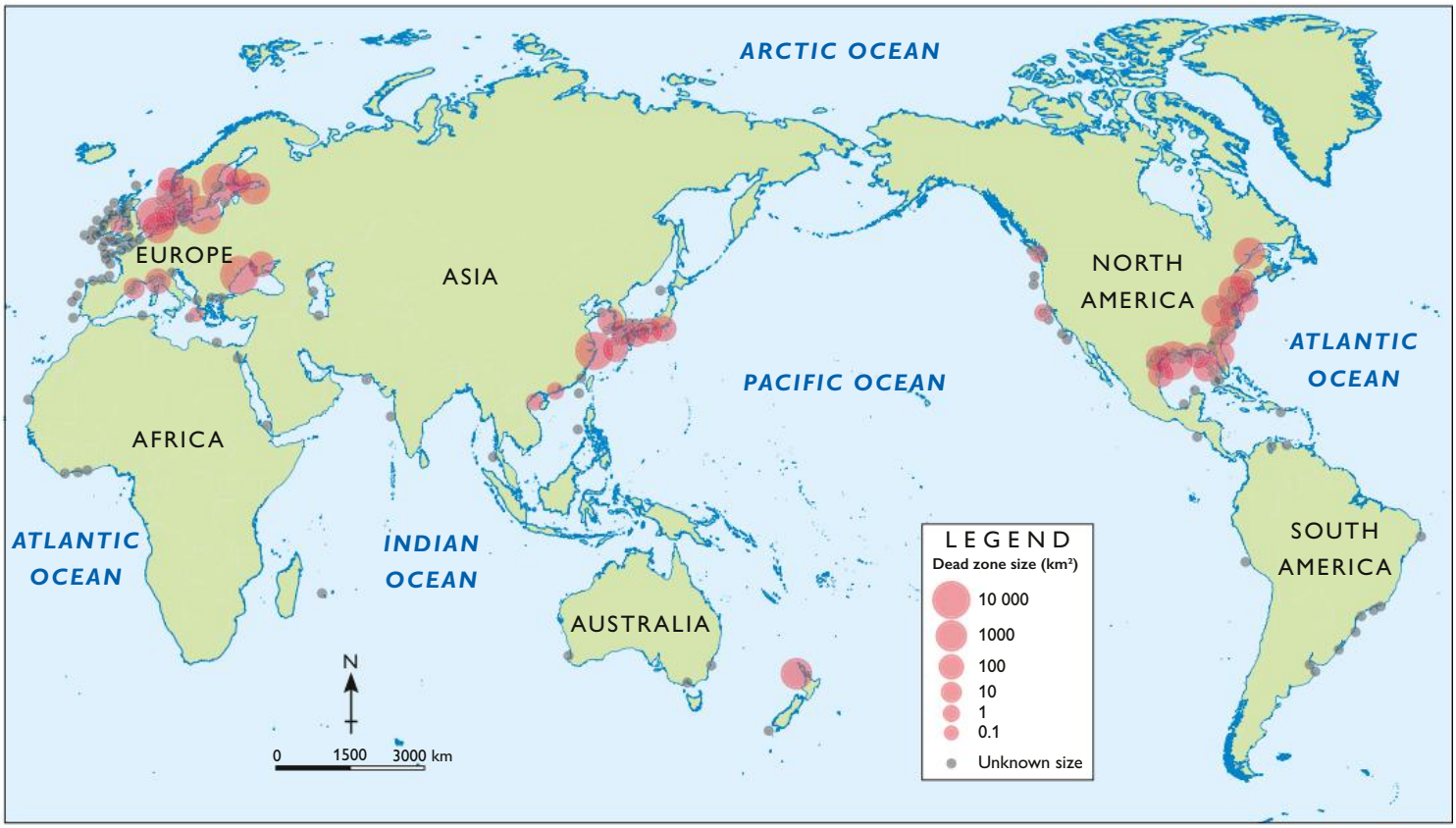
Sources of coastal pollution

While it might be tempting to think that most coastal pollution comes from people using the coast such as beach-goers and people fishing, this is generally not the case. Rivers carry urban pollutants such as sewage, industrial waste, chemicals and water washed from streets and yards as stormwater to the coast. Rivers also bring pollutants from rural areas such as animal manure, pesticides and fertilisers washed from the land in heavy rain. Deforestation in river catchments also increases the amount of sediment and fresh water carried to the coast. One of the most serious consequences of coastal and marine pollution is the formation of dead zones in the ocean (see Source 2.18).



Source 2.19 This bloom of algae, triggered by fertilisers washed from farms, covered beaches in southern China in 2011.

WORLD: LOCATION OF MARINE DEAD ZONES



Source 2.18

Source: Oxford University Press

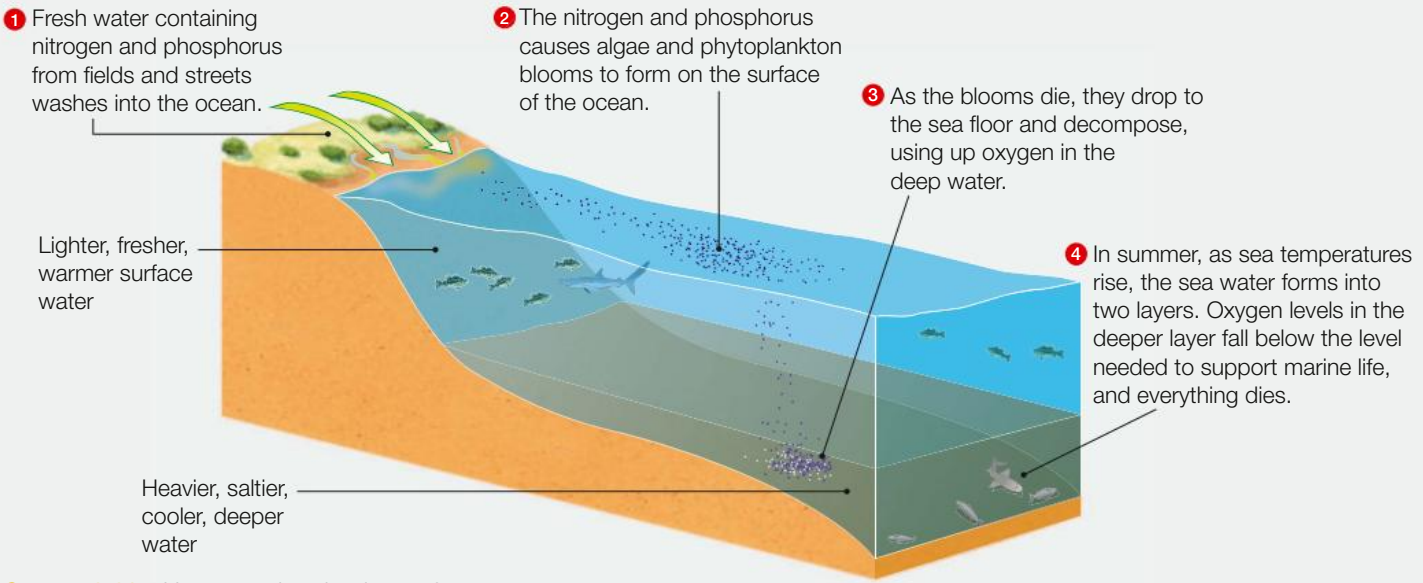
key**concept:** environment

Marine dead zones

Marine dead zones are areas of fresh water or salt water where oxygen concentration has become too low to support life. Some rivers carry a cocktail of pollutants, all of which arrive at the coast. Waves, tides and currents then carry these pollutants along the coast and out to sea where they can cause great environmental damage. Arguably the most serious damage is the creation of marine dead zones in the ocean, devoid of oxygen and marine life. Dead zones form in summer with the warmer weather conditions encouraging algae blooms which then go on to deplete oxygen levels in deeper seas (see Source 2.20).

Although the number and size of marine dead zones fluctuate, they are on the increase. In the 1960s, only 39 dead zones were identified, compared with 405 in 2000. Some dead zones are only a few square kilometres in size and last only a few months. The largest dead zones, however, are massive. Dead zones in the Baltic Sea and Gulf of Mexico can be more than 18000 square kilometres in size.

For more information on the key concept of environment, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 2.20 How a marine dead zone forms

Check your learning 2.7

Remember and understand

1 What is meant by the term 'marine dead zone'?

2 What are the causes of marine dead zones and what are the effects of these zones?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 2.18.

a Describe the distribution of the world's largest marine dead zones using the PQE method. For more information on the PQE method refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

b Describe and account for the relationship between marine dead zones and areas of high population density.

4 Why do dead zones grow and decline throughout the year?

Evaluate and create

5 Marine dead zones can be explored through the geographical concept of environment, but they could also be used as an example of the geographical concept of interconnection. Describe how dead zones relate to interconnection.

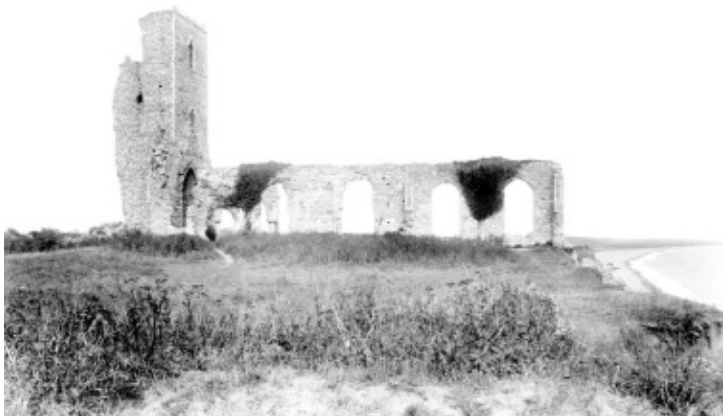
6 In small groups, discuss possible solutions to the problem of marine dead zones and present your ideas to the class. You may wish to research the ways in which communities and nations have responded to a large dead zone in the Black Sea as a starting point.

Dunwich's disappearing churches

Dunwich is a small coastal village located in south-eastern England. Its current population is only 100 people, but in the 13th century Dunwich was one of the largest ports in eastern England. With a population of around 3000 people, it was one of England's 10 largest towns. Merchants traded wool, grain, fish, wine and furs across the North Sea to Iceland, the Netherlands and France. Dunwich had eight churches, three chapels and two hospitals.

Storms, tides and longshore drift have all combined to make Dunwich a very different place today. The coastline at Dunwich has receded, on average, 1 metre per year and is now 2 kilometres west of its position in Roman times in the 4th century CE. Buildings that sit on the present-day cliffs were once 2 kilometres inland.

Large storms in 1286 and 1328 swept large areas of the town into the sea. Because there was so much material deposited in the sea, the harbour was blocked by the growth of a large spit. Trade and fishing were ruined and the population declined. By 1347, a quarter of the city had been lost, and the remainder of Dunwich disappeared into the sea over the next few hundred years. Most of the original buildings have disappeared, including all eight churches. The last one disappeared early in the 20th century (see Source 2.21).



Source 2.21 The last of Dunwich's old churches photographed in 1908 shortly before it collapsed into the sea.

skill**drill**

Mapping environmental change using multiple overlays

Creating overlay maps is a useful technique for showing and measuring environmental change. To complete a multiple overlay map follow these steps.

Step 1 Construct a base map of the region using the current topographic map. This should be traced rather than drawn freehand to make it as accurate as possible. Include key natural and human features such as the coastline, towns, roads and the extent of the marshes.

Step 2 Add labels such as rivers and town names. Add a north arrow, legend, title, scale and source.

Step 3 On a plastic sheet or piece of tracing paper, construct a map of the same region from the earliest map you have at the same scale. Remember that this map will sit on top of your base map, so features such as rivers that have remained the same should line up.

Step 4 Place the overlay map carefully on top of the base map and use a piece of tape like a hinge along one side to anchor the overlay in place.

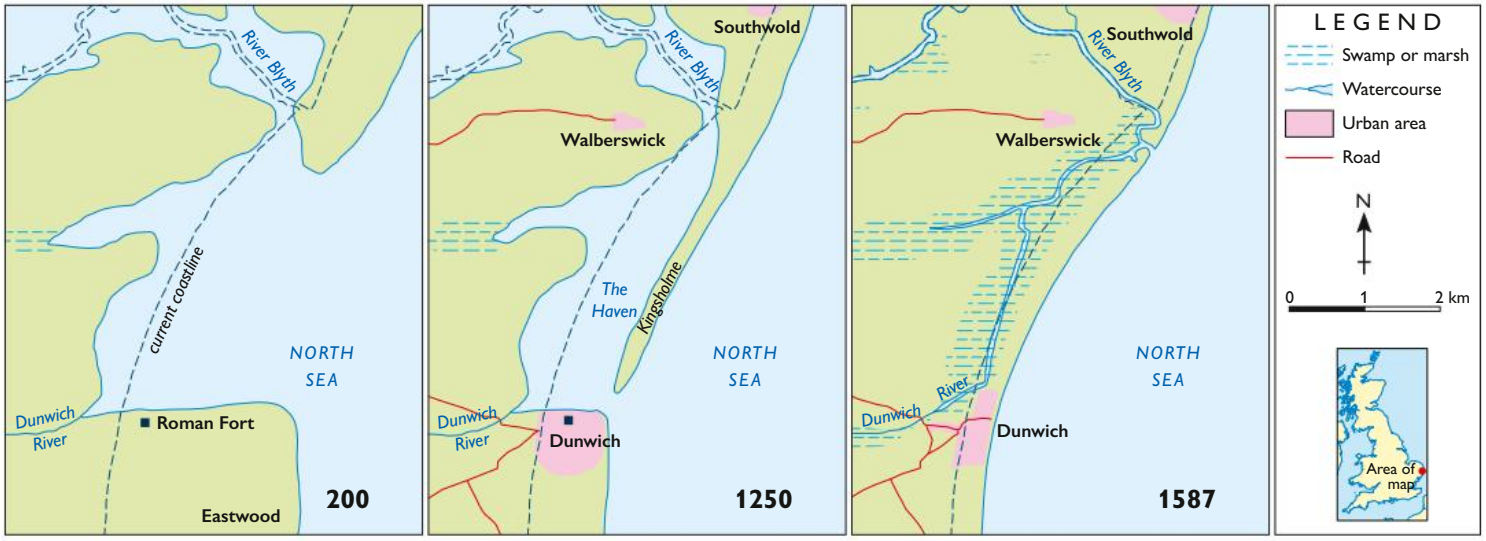
Step 5 Add a title to the overlay map that does not cover the one on the base map. A north arrow, legend, scale and source should not be needed as these are the same as for the base map.

Step 6 Repeat steps 3–5 to complete an overlay from another map of the same region from another time. Hinge this at the opposite side of the base map with a piece of sticky tape.

Apply the skill

1. Complete a multiple overlay map using the topographic map in Source 2.23 as the base map, the 200 map as the first overlay and 1587 as the second overlay (both source 2.22).
2. Describe the changes that occurred to this coastline between 200 CE and 1587. Was the dominant process during this time erosion or deposition?
3. What other features on the 200 map might help to explain the dominant process that occurred between 200 and 1587?
4. What effects did these changes have on human activities?
5. Describe the changes that have occurred to this coastline since 1587. Is the dominant process erosion or deposition?
6. Estimate the area of lost land since 1587. Do this by multiplying the length of this strip of land by its average width.

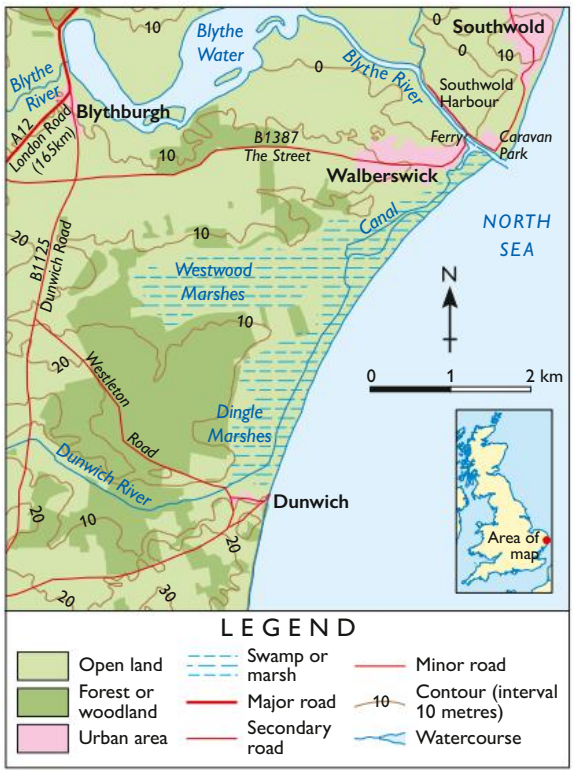
DUNWICH: CHANGING COASTLINE



Source 2.22

Source: Oxford University Press

DUNWICH: TOPOGRAPHIC MAP



Source 2.23

Source: Oxford University Press

Extend your understanding

Conduct some extra research on the Internet and complete the following tasks.

1 In an effort to stop further erosion of this coastline the local authorities have commissioned a study into possible protection measures. The study reports that there are three main options available to the local community: sea walls, groynes and breakwaters. Which of these measures would you recommend the local authorities adopt to manage erosion on this coastline? Give at least three reasons for your answer.

2 Some members of the local community have campaigned against the hard engineering techniques suggested in the study. They argue that a managed retreat system is the only sustainable option. Conduct research on this approach and decide if you agree with them. Give some reasons to support your decision.



Source 2.24 The steep face of dunes at Dunwich are the result of continued erosion.

2.2 How can coastal changes be managed?

New ways of managing coasts

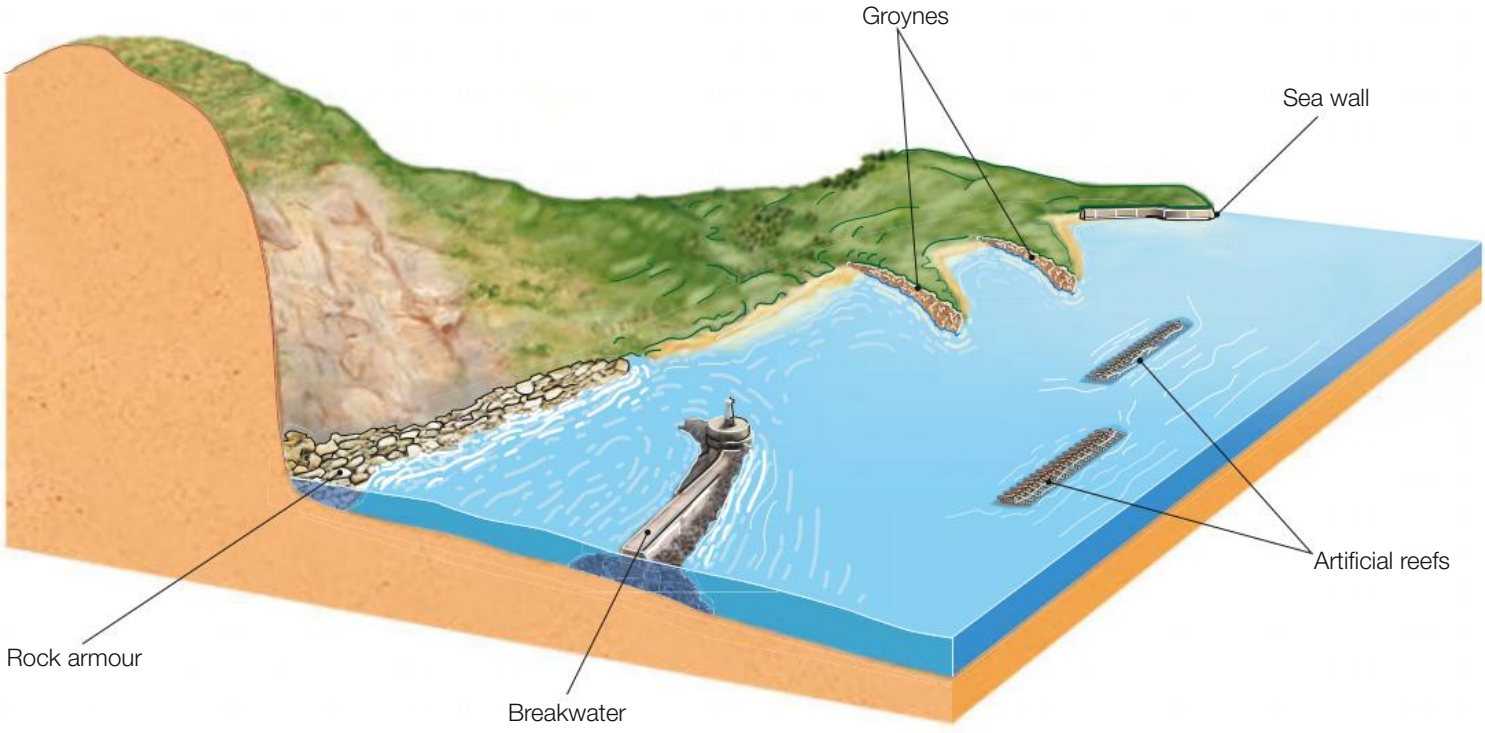
Many attempts have been made by people in the past to try to control the natural coastal processes of erosion, transportation and deposition. Unfortunately, due to a poor understanding of these natural processes, attempts have often made problems worse or simply moved them to another part of the coast. In addition, issues have tended to be managed on a local scale without regard for the broader environments that influence the coast such as river catchments and marine ecosystems.

More recently, a greater understanding of natural processes as well as a recognition of the widespread impacts of coastal management has led to new approaches. These include soft engineering (using natural processes), integrated coastal zone management (ICZM), and the protection of coastal ecosystems with special marine reserves.

Managing natural processes: hard vs soft engineering techniques

One of the key principles underpinning effective coastal management is to work with natural processes. In the past, coastal management has tended to use 'hard' engineering. Hard engineering refers to the building of structures such as sea walls, groynes, artificial reefs, rock armour and **breakwaters** to protect coastlines from the erosive effects of waves or to trap sand. The main hard engineering techniques are shown in Source 2.25.

Many people in coastal areas like these hard options as the results are obvious and immediate. These structures tend to be expensive, however, and to have a high impact on natural environments. In many cases, they also create other problems or simply move the problem further along the coast.



Source 2.25 A stretch of coastline showing a number of hard engineering techniques commonly used around the world today

By comparison, soft engineering coastal management techniques use the natural processes of the coast. They are often less expensive than hard engineering options, and are considered to be more sustainable as they have less impact on the natural environment. There are two main types of soft engineering – beach nourishment and managed retreat.

- Beach nourishment replaces beach material such as sand that has been removed by erosion or longshore drift (see Source 2.26). Beaches are a natural defence against erosion and coastal flooding and are a desirable feature of the landscape for residents and tourists alike. The natural process that eroded the beach in the first place will continue, however, so the beach needs to be nourished again and again.



Source 2.26 In the Netherlands a vast sand peninsula 2 kilometres long and 1 kilometre wide has been constructed. Dubbed the 'sand engine', waves and currents are redistributing the peninsula along the shore where it is expected to nourish the beaches and form sand dunes.

- Managed retreat involves the relocation of human settlements and hard engineering defences such as sea walls and groynes so that the natural processes of erosion and deposition can take place. In many cases, low-lying areas flood allowing salt marshes, wetlands and mudflats to re-establish themselves in these areas (see Source 2.27). Over time, these habitats provide a natural defence against further erosion. Unlike many hard engineering techniques, managed retreat can be relatively inexpensive. However, people living in these regions can be unwilling to relocate and need to be compensated for the loss of their properties.



Source 2.27 Managed retreat at Abbotts Hall Farm in Essex, England, has allowed salt marshes to be re-established.

Check your learning 2.8

Remember and understand

1 What are the main differences between hard and soft engineering techniques?

2 Describe the process that is occurring at Abbotts Hall Farm (see Source 2.27).

Apply and analyse

3 What is beach nourishment? Outline some of the possible positive and negative environmental impacts of this soft engineering technique.

Evaluate and create

4 Match the hard engineering technique with its function and possible disadvantage.

Technique	Function	Possible disadvantage
Sea wall	Absorbs the energy of waves and allows the build-up of sand to form a beach	Can be difficult and expensive to find and place suitable rocks to form the wall
Groyne	Protects cliffs, land and buildings from erosion and can also lessen the risk of coastal flooding from storm surges	May weaken longshore drift and allow sand to build up – sometimes creating a tombolo
Rock armour	Absorbs the energy of waves and provides a safe harbour for boats	Can ruin the appearance of the beach and be costly to maintain
Breakwater	Traps material carried by longshore drift and allows a beach to be built up	Can be very expensive to build and maintain. The breakwater reflects rather than absorbs wave energy so waves may continue to cause erosion elsewhere.

Change at Rainbow Beach

Rainbow Beach is a small community located on a massive dune system that runs along the Queensland coast near the southern tip of Fraser Island. Formed over two million years, the dunes are part of one of the world's greatest sand dune complexes that includes Fraser Island – the world's largest sand island. In places, the dune system is 200-metres high and is held in place by large areas of scrub, forest and grasses.

While Aboriginal occupation of the region dates back 5500 years, European settlement began with a sand-mining operation north of the town in the mid 1960s. A road built to reach the sand mine was soon used by tourists to access Fraser Island and the new town of Rainbow Beach (see Source 2.28). The sand-mining operation finished in 1976 but the population of the small town continued to grow slowly. Now home to about 1000 full-time residents, visitor numbers swell in summer holiday periods as people arrive to use the camping ground as well as several motels and resorts.

The key management issue faced by the region is the erosion of the sand dunes, particularly during storms. This is an example of a potential conflict between natural processes and human activities. Sand dunes naturally change in response to long-term and short-term changes in wind patterns, sand supply and sea levels. The erosion of the foredune at Rainbow Beach (a dune ridge running parallel to the ocean) is a natural event. However, as the erosion is now putting buildings at risk and making the beach unsuitable for recreation activities, some local residents and the Gympie Regional Council are proposing to try and control the erosion.

A study of the region found that the risk of severe dune erosion at Rainbow Beach is very low but some people are still concerned that during a severe storm important buildings could be lost. The council plans to install large sandbags at the base of the dunes in front of the Surf Life Saving tower, along 260 metres, to slow erosion and protect a new amenity block that has been built on top of the dunes.



Source 2.29 A 2009 storm severely eroded the Rainbow Beach foredune, placing the Surf Life Saving tower in danger of collapse.



Source 2.28 An **oblique aerial photograph** of Rainbow Beach, looking south. The foredune and two blowout dunes (known locally as the Carlo Sand Blow and the Little Sand Blow) can be seen to the south of the town.

key**concept:** place

Coastcare at Rainbow Beach

There are 2000 Coastcare groups in Australia. Each group is made up of volunteers who work with local governments to identify problems and then work together to solve them. At Rainbow Beach, the local group has identified the loss of native vegetation, the trampling of dune vegetation by visitors accessing the beach, sand skiing on the sand blows, coastal erosion, environmental weeds, beach parking and rising sea levels due to climate change as the key issues in the area.

Some of the projects the Coastcare group at Rainbow Beach have undertaken include restoring native plants and removing weeds, protecting the dunes, monitoring bird populations and improving wetland areas.

For more information on the key concept of place, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 2.30 Rainbow Beach has a very active Coastcare group.



Source 2.31 A range of management strategies are in place at the main beach in Rainbow Beach. The fencing and walkway direct people to enter the beach on this path, protecting surrounding dunes.

Check your learning 2.9

Remember and understand

1 Describe the natural environment of Rainbow Beach.
2 Describe the human activities bringing about change to this place.
3 What is Coastcare?

Apply and analyse

4 Is the plan to place sandbags at the base of the dunes an example of hard or soft engineering? Give some reasons for your answer.
5 What management strategies can you identify in Sources 2.30 and 2.31? What is each strategy designed to achieve and how effective do you think each will be in achieving its aims?
6 What are the similarities and differences between changes at Rainbow Beach and changes at Abbotts Hall Farm in Essex (see Source 2.27)?

Evaluate and create

7 The Little Sand Blow is increasing in size as it moves westward. Construct a flow diagram or field sketch that shows the:
- natural processes responsible for this movement
- human activities that may be contributing to the movement
- impacts of this movement on the environment
- possible responses by the local government and Coastcare group.

Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM)

In response to the serious issues facing coastal and marine ecosystems, a major United Nations conference held in 1992, called the Earth Summit, proposed a new system for managing coastal environments. Known as Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) it is now a widespread practice in many coastal nations, such as New Zealand, India, Canada, Bangladesh and the Netherlands.

The United Nations recognises that one of the common issues associated with coastal management is that government departments and interest groups often propose very different solutions to issues depending on their own needs and interests. In most cases, these solutions ignore the needs of other coastal users. The many coastal interest groups include residents, the tourism industry, fisheries, farmers, forestry, manufacturing, mining, waste disposal, marine transportation and real estate developers.

The key to ICZM is that it seeks to pull together the many groups and individuals with an interest in the coast in an integrated way when devising a management plan. The key principles of ICZM are outlined in Source 2.32. The success of ICZM is then dependent on funding, consistent government priorities and the expertise available to organise and manage large projects.

Eight principles of Integrated Coastal Zone Management

- Involve all relevant governments
- Take a long-term view
- Use a holistic approach
- Consider local conditions
- Work with natural processes
- Get people involved
- Use a range of approaches
- Be prepared to change strategy

Source 2.32 The eight key principles of Integrated Coastal Zone Management



Source 2.33 The challenges facing many coastal environments require an integrated approach.

Case study: ICZM in Bangladesh

Each ICZM plan is designed to best address the issues of the country it has been developed for. In Bangladesh, for example, the key issues are rising sea levels that bring saltwater floods to low-lying communities and the impacts of cyclones and storm surges. It is estimated that a one-metre rise in sea level would leave 17 000 square kilometres of land in Bangladesh submerged and 15 million people without a home (see Source 2.34). It will affect 1 million hectares of farmland and threaten the fresh water supplies of three major cities.

In response to these threats the Bangladeshi government, with the assistance of the World Bank and expertise from the Netherlands, has developed an ICZM strategy that focuses on disaster mitigation. To date 150 000 hectares of mangroves have been replanted and more than 2500 cyclone shelters constructed.



Source 2.35 A nursery for mangrove trees. These will be used to replace some mangrove areas lost to farming and forestry and help to reduce flooding.

BANGLADESH: PREDICTED IMPACT OF 1-METRE SEA-LEVEL RISE



Source 2.34 Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.10

Remember and understand

1 What is ICZM?
2 How and why has ICZM been implemented in Bangladesh?

Apply and analyse

3 Source 2.20 illustrates a significant problem in many coastal areas – marine dead zones. Work with a partner to use the eight key principles of ICZM to suggest how people could manage this issue. For example, using a holistic approach might mean getting farmers to be more careful in their use of fertilisers. Perhaps nutrient levels in streams could be monitored so that farmers could better manage their application of fertiliser, particularly in times of heavy rainfall.

Evaluate and create

4 What do you see as some of the barriers to ICZM principles being adopted in Bangladesh?
5 What do you see as some of the advantages in managing coastal changes using this approach?

ICZM in the Netherlands

The province of Zeeland in the Netherlands is a large agricultural area that is home to more than 380000 people (Source 2.38). Much of the region lies below sea level. The land has been drained and reclaimed, creating new islands that are linked by bridges and tunnels. The area has an intricate series of levees (known as dykes) and dams that hold back the waters of the North Sea and regulate the flow of the rivers to the sea. The province also supports a large fishing industry and is home to the largest national park in the Netherlands.

In Zeeland, ICZM is used to reduce flooding from storm surges. The largest of the flood protection dams, the 9-kilometre-long Oosterscheldekering, links two of the largest islands in Zeeland. The 62 steel doors that make up the barrier can be lowered or raised in response to tides, storms and other sea level changes (see Source 2.36). For most of the year, seawater can flow freely beneath the dam so that marine ecosystems in the bays and estuaries of the delta can be maintained.

The dam, which was opened in 1986, has been declared one of the Seven Wonders of the Modern World and bears a plaque with the words, 'Here the tide is ruled by the wind, the moon and us (the Dutch).' Any long-term changes in sea level due to climate change will place greater pressure on this region and on these amazing engineering works.

The series of dams, storm surge barriers and bridges have provided many benefits for the people of the Zeeland region. As well as protecting them from storm surges and flooding, large areas of former saltwater estuaries have been converted into freshwater lakes creating a reliable supply of water. The dams and bridges also link together island communities that had been isolated for hundreds of years and the calmer waters of the river mouths and estuaries are safe for shipping and recreational boating.

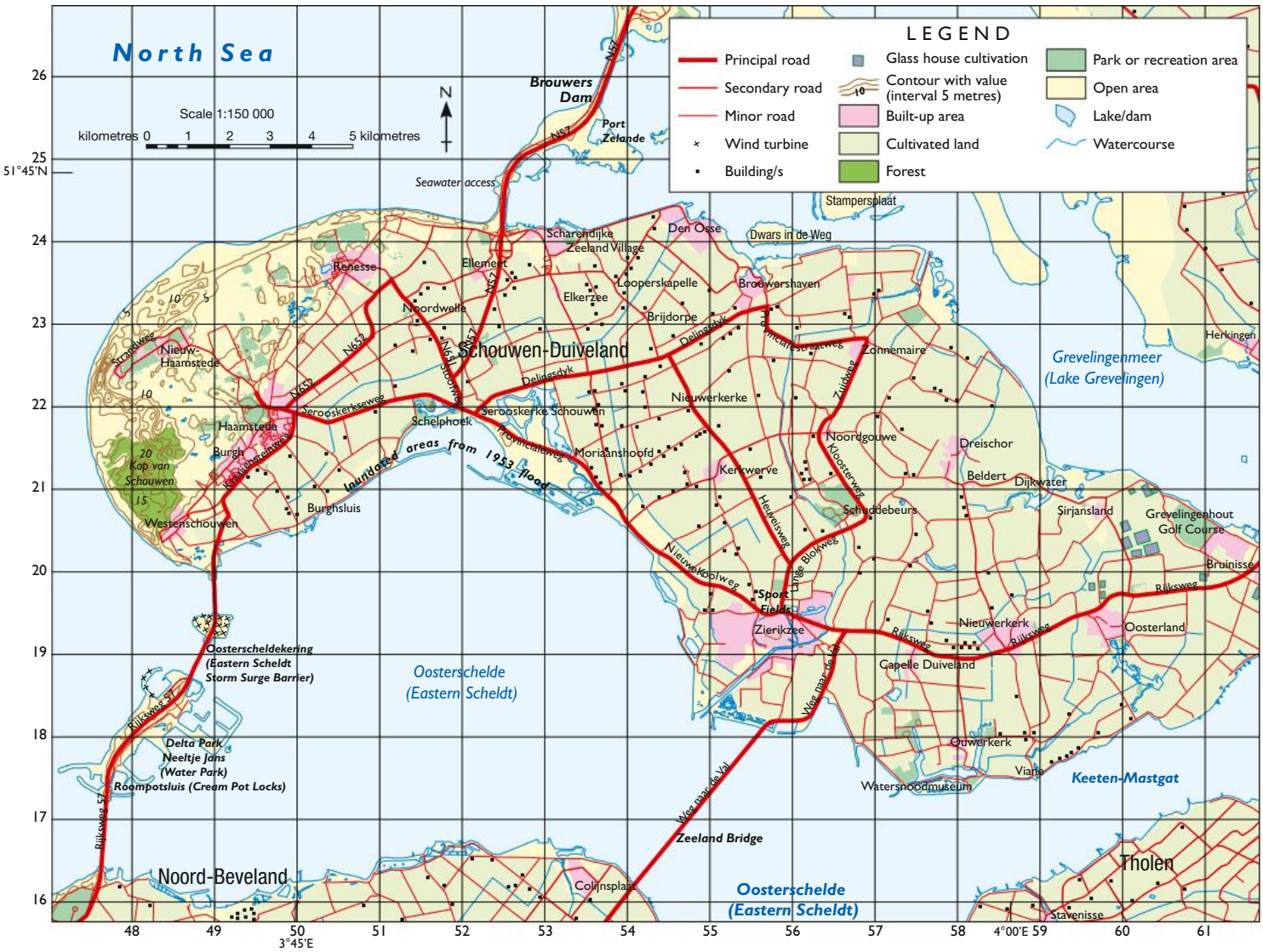


Source 2.36 The Oosterscheldekering storm surge barrier in Zeeland



Source 2.37 A vertical aerial photograph of Zeeland showing a number of dams and storm surge barriers (including Oosterscheldekering)

ZEELAND: TOPOGRAPHIC MAP



Source 2.38

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.11

Remember and understand

1 Why was the Oosterscheldekering constructed?

2 Locate the province of Zeeland in an atlas and describe its location.

Apply and analyse

3 Use the eight key principles of ICZM (see Source 2.32) to comment on the flood protection provided by Oosterscheldekering. For example, how does this barrier take local conditions into account?

4 Examine Sources 2.37 and 2.38.

a What factors do you think may be responsible for the large sandbanks forming in the Oosterschelde?

b Identify the different land uses on the island of Schouwen-Duiveland.

c Describe the relief of the island using the contour lines on the map.

d Describe the southern shore of the island.

Evaluate and create

5 Draw a sketch map of the vertical aerial photograph in Source 2.37. On your map label the key natural and human features of the landscape.

6 The Oosterscheldekering is only one part of a much larger flood protection scheme. Use Google Earth to examine the region and find other examples of flood protection.

Protecting the coast

An effective way to manage and protect natural environments such as coasts is to give them legal protection. This helps ensure that harmful activities are banned or limited. In Australia, this is achieved mainly through a system of national parks (on land) and marine reserves (in the surrounding seas and oceans).



Source 2.39 Royal National Park is Australia's oldest. Established in 1879, it protects large areas of coastal rainforest and ancient sand dunes.

National parks

Each state and territory of Australia has a large number of special places, both coastal and inland, that the government has decided to protect. These might be as small as a single historic house or beach, or as large as a wilderness or national park. Despite the name, virtually all of Australia's more than 550 national parks are the responsibility of the individual state and territory governments.

Although management strategies differ between states, the common ideals are that the land, plants and animals within the parks have protection from activities that threaten their existence and that people should be able to visit these special places. This can lead to problems, as visitors who come to see these areas in their natural beauty may threaten the very environment they are visiting. The managers of the national parks have the task of controlling what visitors do in each park by limiting or restricting certain activities in sensitive areas.

Marine reserves

While national parks protect special places on land, Australia's diverse marine environments also need to be protected. In 2012, the Australian government announced the creation of one of the world's largest marine reserve networks. Around 3.1 million square kilometres of our oceans are now managed mainly for the purposes of biodiversity conservation. This is an area roughly equivalent to the land area of Queensland and the Northern Territory combined.

Managing a marine reserve is particularly challenging because, unlike national parks on land, fences and signs aren't easily erected to limit access to particularly sensitive areas. Instead, marine reserves are divided into zones, and certain activities are allowed, banned or limited in each zone. It is the responsibility of anyone who enters a marine reserve to be aware of the activities permitted within each zone.

Every marine reserve in Australia, except for the Great Barrier Reef which is recognised as a special case, has been assigned a particular management category (see Source 2.40). These are the same as those adopted in other countries and have been developed by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

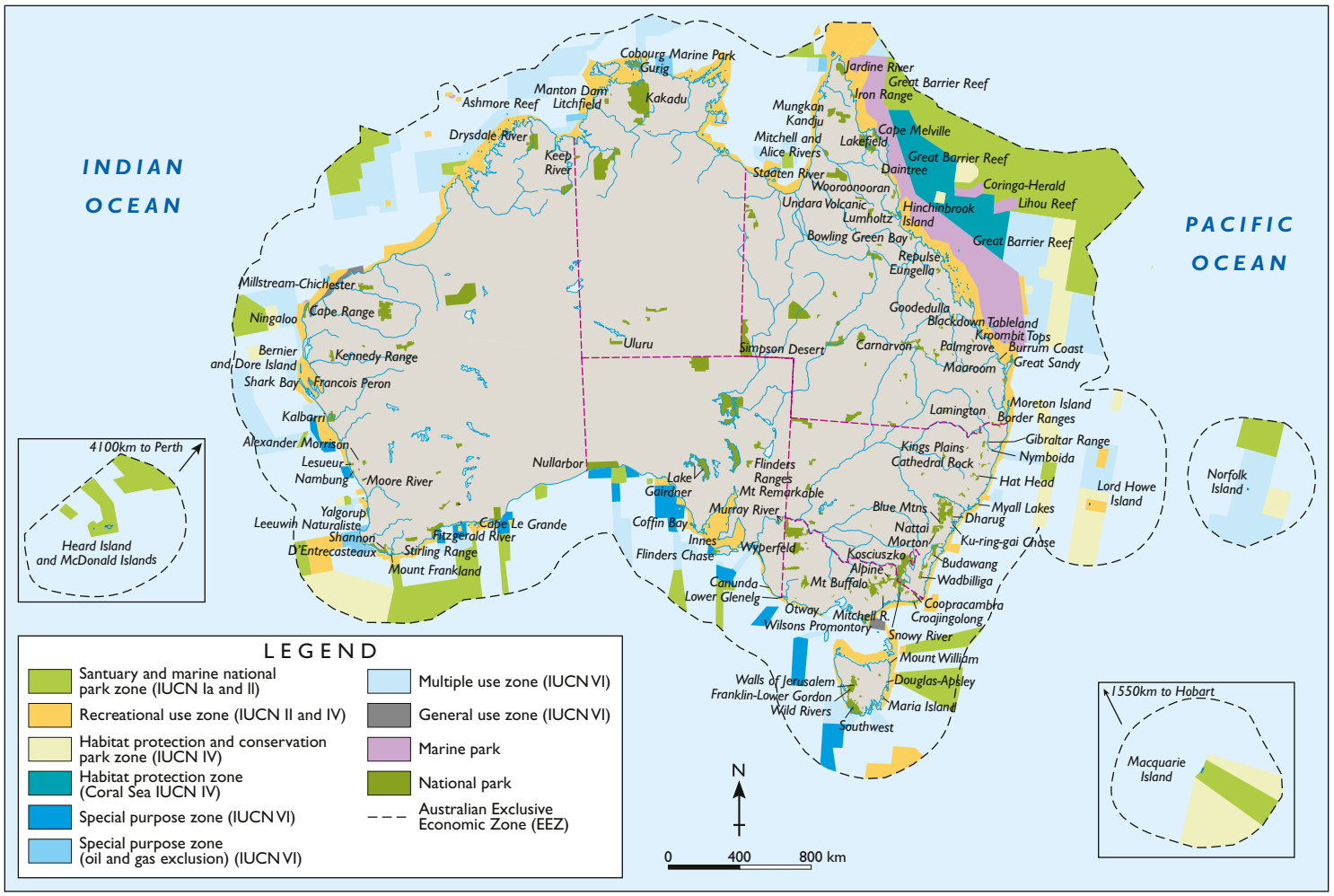
Source 2.40 The IUCN management categories for the conservation of marine reserves

IUCN number	Name of reserve type	Purpose of the reserve
Ia	Strict nature reserve	Managed primarily for scientific research or environmental monitoring
II	National park	Protected and managed to preserve its natural condition
IV	Habitat/species management area	Managed primarily to ensure the maintenance of habitats or to meet the requirements of specific species
VI	Managed resource protected area	Managed to ensure long-term protection and maintenance of biological diversity with a sustainable flow of natural products and services to meet community needs



Source 2.41 Freycinet Marine Reserve on Tasmania's east coast includes large areas designated as strict nature reserves due to the biodiversity of the coast's offshore seamounts (undersea mountains) and bird populations.

AUSTRALIA: NATIONAL PARKS AND MARINE RESERVES, 2012



Source 2.42

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.12

Remember and understand

1 In what ways are natural environments protected in Australia?

2 What are the ideals behind the management strategies implemented in national parks?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 2.42.
   a Where are Australia's largest marine reserves located?
   b Describe the location of marine reserves in the state in which you live.

4 Examine Sources 2.39 and 2.41, showing people in two protected coastal areas. Describe what they are doing and how this may impact on the natural environment. How could park managers in these areas limit these impacts?

Evaluate and create

5 There were many objections to the Australian Government announcement in 2012 that millions of square kilometres of ocean were to become marine reserves. In small groups consider which Australian groups would be likely to support this announcement and who would be likely to oppose it. Brainstorm the arguments that each of these groups would use to support their points of view.

6 Source 2.42 shows the extent of Australia's Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ). Research this area and find out the benefits for Australia in having such a large EEZ. You may also like to find out about the Timor Gap and how this was created.

Reducing the impacts of coastal tourism

Tourism is the world's largest industry. It generates more than $US8 trillion a year in income and employs about 220 million people worldwide. Tourism in coastal areas has experienced a surge in recent years, and for many coastal communities it has become the largest contributor to their economy. While tourism has the potential to alleviate poverty and bring better infrastructure such as new roads and public services, it also has the potential to bring about major environmental degradation.

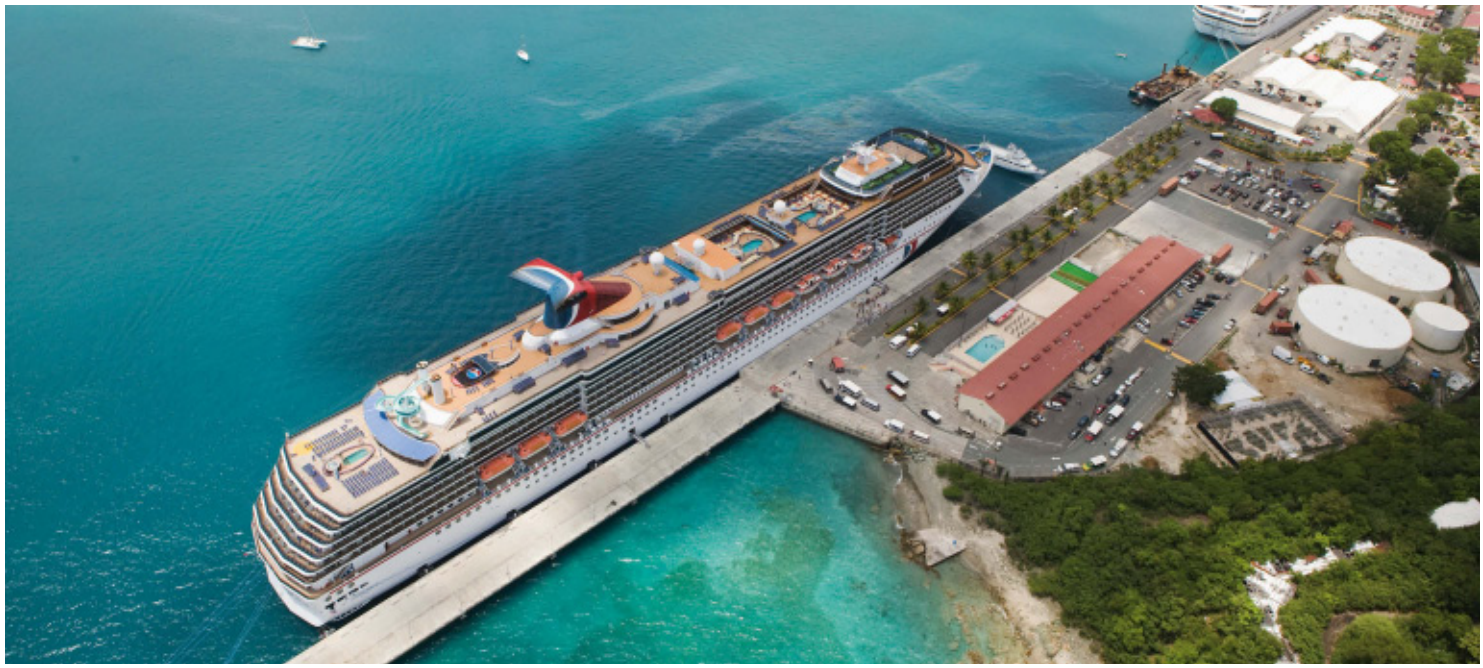
Tourism not only attracts visitors to coastal areas but also locals, who move to the coast for work, providing the goods and services tourists require. Tourism also brings developments such as hotels, jetties, roads, airports and shopping strips, often with minimal or hurried planning. The result is that many coastal tourism hubs are under significant environmental pressure.

The potential negative environmental impacts of tourism are many. Greater numbers of people bring increased pollution and landfill (see Source 2.43). As ecosystems such as mangroves, wetlands and reefs are removed to make way for hotel developments, there is a subsequent decline in biodiversity and an increased risk of beach loss from erosion and natural disasters. In addition, an increased demand for fresh water, food (especially seafood), energy and sanitation make tourism a huge consumer of natural resources.

Ecotourism: a way forward?

Ecotourism is one option that coastal tourism operators are using to make their industry more sustainable. It is also a strong marketing tool, appealing to tourists who want more environmentally friendly travel. The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) defines ecotourism as 'responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the wellbeing of local people'. TIES believes that those who implement and participate in ecotourism activities should:

- minimise environmental impacts
- build environmental and cultural awareness and respect
- provide positive experiences for both visitors and hosts
- provide direct financial support for conservation
- provide financial benefits and empowerment for local people
- ensure sensitivity to the host country's political, environmental and social climate.



Source 2.43 Cruise ships that carry up to 4000 passengers each contribute to the 70000 tonnes of waste generated annually from tourism in the Caribbean region.

key**concept:** sustainability

The Penguin Parade

One of Victoria's most popular tourist attractions is the nightly arrival of hundreds of Little Penguins at Summerlands Beach on Phillip Island. This natural event attracts around 1 million visitors per year, more than half of whom are from overseas. As well as a tourist attraction, the Penguin Parade is also an example of minimal impact ecotourism and conservation.

As a non-profit organisation, the Phillip Island Nature Park uses the income generated from the parade to protect, conserve and restore the natural environment of the region. The organisation has become a world expert on the Little Penguins as well as carrying out vital research on seals and seabirds. In order to protect the penguins, rangers undertake large- and small-scale revegetation and habitat restoration programs. As a result, the penguin population climbed from 19000 in the 1980s to 32000 in 2013.

Much of the restoration and revegetation work is on the site of a former housing estate located adjacent to the Penguin Parade. Between 1985 and 2010, the Victorian Government purchased and removed hundreds of holiday homes, as well as the roads, gardens, power cables and septic tanks that made up the Summerlands Estate. The area is now prime habitat for the penguins. Future plans include moving the visitor centre and car parks so that the land on which they now sit can also be restored to natural habitat.

For more information on the key concept of sustainability, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 2.44 Raised boardwalks and viewing platforms minimise the environmental impact of visitors to the Penguin Parade and allow penguins to move freely from the ocean to their burrows every evening.

Check your learning 2.13

Remember and understand

1 What is ecotourism?

2 In what ways can the Penguin Parade on Phillip Island be considered to be an example of ecotourism?

Apply and analyse

3 Source 2.43 shows a cruise ship docking at a Caribbean port. Describe the changes that have been made to the coast as a result of tourism that can be seen in this photo.

4 Compare these changes to those that have occurred at the Penguin Parade.

Evaluate and create

5 Imagine that an international tourism operator has proposed to build a port for cruise ships at Rainbow Beach (see Source 2.28) and that that you have been appointed the company's environmental consultant. Brainstorm the impacts of this development on the natural environment. Use the ecotourism principles provided to make recommendations that minimise these impacts. Prepare a report for the tourism operator with your recommendations. You may like to include a map and sketches in your report.

Indigenous management of the coast

Prior to European colonisation in 1788, the coastal areas of Australia supported large numbers of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. The coasts provided a reliable source of food both from the sea and the surrounding land.

Today, nearly half of all Indigenous Australians live near the coast. Many maintain a close association with the coast through cultural and historic connections, through continued use of coastal resources and by law. In the Northern Territory, for example, Aboriginal communities own and manage approximately 85 per cent of the coastal land.

Coastal places with special significance to Indigenous Australians are under the same environmental threats as other coastal places: from population and economic growth, land use changes, climate change and the arrival of invasive species. Indigenous communities are now working with government to restore lands that are important to them. This joint approach means that factors of Indigenous heritage are taken into account when decisions are made about the use and restoration of degraded areas.



Source 2.45 An oblique aerial photograph of the Coorong, Lower Lakes (including Lake Alexandrina and Lake Albert) and Murray Mouth region of South Australia

Case study: Indigenous management of the Coorong

> The land and waters is a living body. We the Ngarrindjeri people are a part of its existence. The land and waters must be healthy for the Ngarrindjeri people to be healthy. We are hurting for our Country. The Land is dying, the River is dying, the Kurangk (Coorong) is dying and the Murray Mouth is closing. What does the future hold for us?
>
> Tom Trevorrow, Ngarrindjeri Elder, Camp Coorong, 2002

The region known as the Coorong, where the Murray River reaches the sea, covers an area of 14000 square kilometres. The Coorong was recognised as a Wetland of International Importance and as a breeding ground for many bird and fish species by the Ramsar Convention on Wetlands in 1985. Due to a combination of factors, including water extraction in the Murray–Darling Basin, drought and barrages (dams) built across the Murray to hold back sea water, the region has become severely degraded. In particular, the waters of the Coorong Lagoon and lakes have become saltier than the sea, wetlands have dried out and acidic soils have become exposed. Another cause of this degradation has been the building of dams that collect water during wet seasons and then release this water during dry seasons. This has disrupted the natural cycle of the Murray River of floods and droughts and had a dramatic effect on the natural ecosystems of the river, particularly at its mouth. In some years, so little water flows through the mouth that it closes, cutting off the lakes of the region from the sea.

The traditional owners of the region, the Ngarrindjeri people, maintain a strong connection with the lands and water of the Coorong. They believe that the health of their nation is closely linked to the environmental health of the region, and that a freshwater flow that allows plants and animals to thrive must be maintained.

COORONG: INDIGENOUS LANDS AND NATIONAL PARKS



Source 2.46 Source: Oxford University Press

The Ngarrindjeri community through the Ngarrindjeri Regional Authority (NRA) has formed a close relationship with the South Australian Department of Environment, Water and Natural Resources (DEWNR) to deal with short-term crises in the region and to plan for a sustainable future. This has resulted in the adoption of a long-term plan which aims to secure a future for the region as a 'healthy, productive and resilient wetland system that maintains its international importance.' The plan includes a number of specific goals:

- to protect and restore natural habitats
- to restore viable populations of native bird, fish and other animal species. Restoring the natural flow of fresh water to the Coorong and Lower Lakes are seen as a key component of this goal.
- to improve water quality and increase flows through the wetlands. It is proposed, for example, that very salty water be pumped out of the lagoon to the sea.
- to recognise the Ngarrindjeri community's association with the area.

Large areas of dunes, wetlands and farmland have already been replanted using native plant species as the first step in this plan to restore the Coorong area.



Source 2.47 South Australian Environment Minister Paul Caica and NRA chairman Tom Trevorrow meet at the Coorong in 2012 to sign a new management agreement for the region.

Check your learning 2.14

Remember and understand

1 Why did many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples live near the coast in the past?

2 Why are the Ngarrindjeri people particularly concerned about the health of the Coorong ecosystems?

Apply and analyse

3 Use Source 2.45 to describe the natural environment of the Coorong and Lower Lakes. Include the water and land features that you can identify.

4 Examine Source 2.46.

- a Describe and account for the location of Indigenous lands.
- b Describe the locations of the barrages. Why have the barrages been built in these places? How would they change the natural environment of Lake Alexandrina and the Coorong?

5 Examine the Indigenous Protected Areas shown on Source 1.46. How many of these areas are coastal? Describe the distribution of these coastal Indigenous Protected Areas.

Evaluate and create

6 Use the eight key Integrated Coastal Zone Management principles shown in Source 2.32 to devise a strategy to improve the health of the Coorong ecosystem.

7 Research which other wetlands in Australia are listed in the Ramsar Convention.

Ningaloo Coast

On the north-west tip of Western Australia is one of the world's most spectacular coastal environments. Long white beaches run along the shore, and visitors can swim out from the beach to Australia's longest fringing reef (a reef that lies extremely close to shore). The region has about 300 000 visitors a year, many of them arriving between April and July for a chance to snorkel with whale sharks. The region is also home to dugongs and visited by humpback whales and greenback turtles.

Much of the region is under some form of legal protection as part of the Ningaloo Marine Reserve and Cape Range National Park. It is also Australia's newest World Heritage site, having been added to the World Heritage List in 2011.

Though a remote and relatively pristine area, the Ningaloo Coast faces a number of potential environmental threats. These include:

- oil and gas exploration off the coast
- damage to coral reefs from boat owners anchoring in the fragile reef areas
- illegal fishing
- plastic bags killing turtles and whales by intestinal blockage
- damage to vegetation from off-road driving
- waste disposal and pollution
- increasing level of water consumption
- potential for bushfires
- invasive species (foxes, goats, cats) destroying or attacking native plants and animals.

Other potential issues in the area include a RAAF bombing range south of Cape Range National Park, which may threaten important limestone caves and sinkholes, and livestock from local farms that could damage vegetation if they are not appropriately managed. In addition, the development of oil and gas reserves in offshore basins and shelves could present a future threat to the coast and reef.



Source 2.48 The small town of Coral Bay is used as a launching point for whale watching and fishing boats.

skill**drill**

Analysing complex maps

Complex maps contain more than one set of information. Geographers use complex maps to analyse different features, reveal patterns and explain links between features in a given area. You can analyse a complex map by following these steps.

Step 1 Look carefully at the map and read its title to make sure you understand what is being shown.

Step 2 Examine the map's legend. Complex maps can have more than one part to a legend, and these parts will be represented on the map in different ways. For example, in Source 2.49 areas of colour are used to show the location of recreational use zones and state marine reserves. Different symbols are also used, to show roads and coastal water boundaries.

Step 3 Train your eyes to look for one set of information at a time. For example, look at solid blocks of colour on the map and work out what they tell you.

Step 4 Move to a different set of information by selecting another symbol or block of colour from the legend. Examine the map to identify this symbol or area of colour.

Step 5 Look for concentrations of the same symbol in areas to see if patterns exist.

Step 6 Note any patterns you can find on the map between different features and locations.

Step 7 Describe the degree to which patterns are connected.

Step 8 Try to suggest reasons for the connection between the two patterns.

Apply the skill

Look at the map of Ningaloo Marine Reserve (Source 2.49).

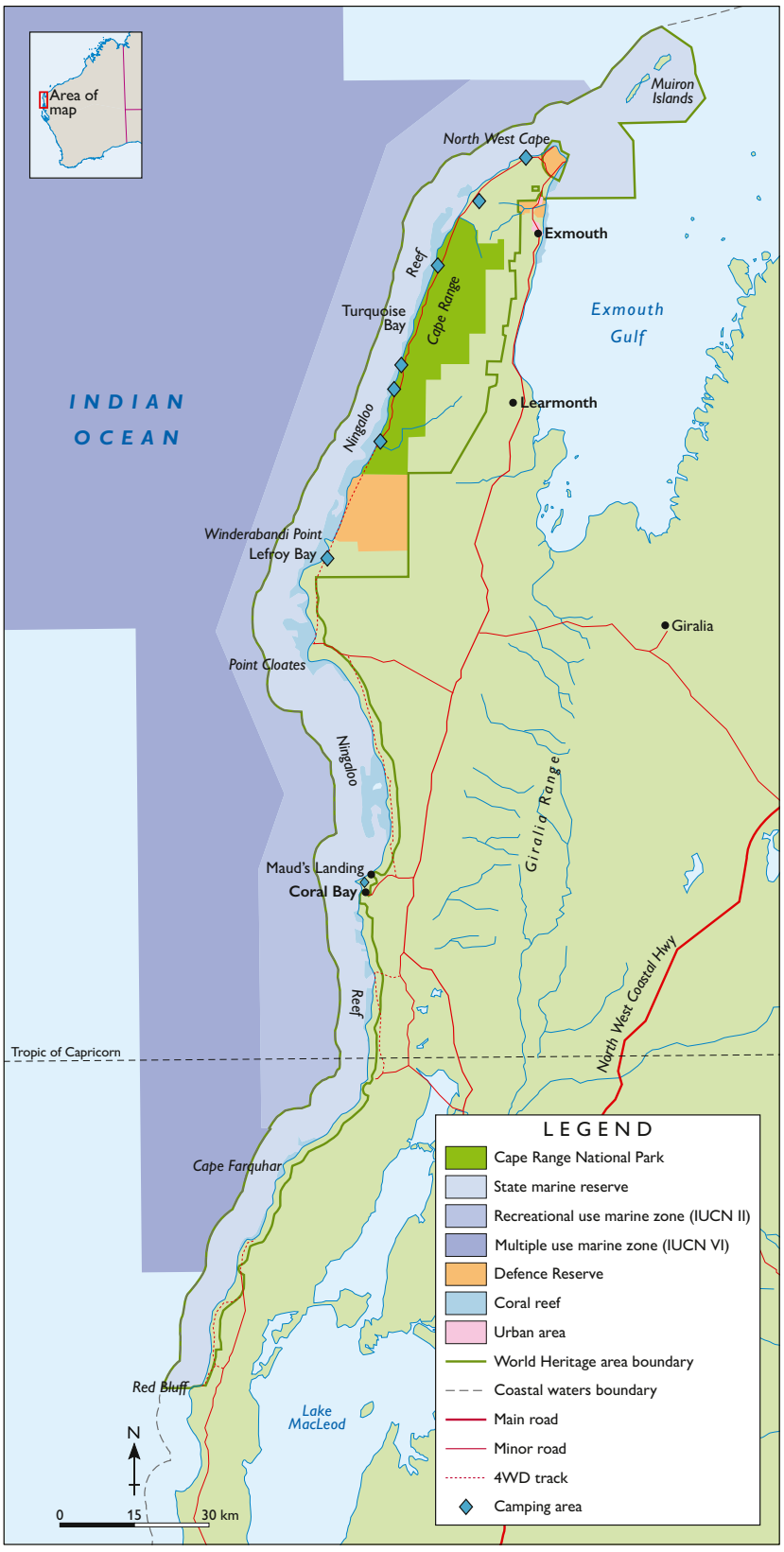
1. Find the symbol for multiple use marine zones in the legend then locate these areas on the map. Describe the concentration of these areas.
2. What relationship is there between the multiple use marine zones and the location of recreational use areas?
3. Describe the location of the Ningaloo World Heritage area.

Extend your understanding

Do some further reading on the Internet to complete the following tasks.

1. Research Ningaloo's World Heritage listing.
   - a What does World Heritage mean?
   - b Why are sites placed on this list?
   - c Why was the Ningaloo Coast added to the list?
2. In the early 2000s, a large resort and marina called Coral Coast Resort was planned for the coastal area to the north of Coral Bay known as Maud's Landing. Find out about these plans and why the resort was not built.

NINGALOO MARINE RESERVE AREAS



Source 2.49

Source: Oxford University Press

2.3 How can geographers help to manage coastal changes?

The role of geographers in managing environmental change

Geographers have an important role to play in the management of environmental change. Because geographers draw on knowledge and skills from the natural sciences (such as geology, biology, chemistry and physics), the social sciences (such as psychology, history and economics) and humanities (such as philosophy) they are uniquely placed to see the 'whole picture' when examining environmental change. Geographers can, for example, consider the reasons why people act in a certain way and consider the impacts of these actions on the environment. They can also help to explain why people respond to change in different ways and, most importantly, recommend a course of action that is beneficial to both the natural environment and people.

Fieldwork case study

When examining environmental change such as coastal erosion, geographers often begin by developing a set of geographical questions. The geographer then sets out to answer these questions using a range of geographic tools. One of the most useful tools is fieldwork – visiting the environment being studied and observing it firsthand.

When exploring changes at the coast, geographers use a range of specific techniques. These include constructing cross-sections of dunes, cliffs and other landforms, photographing evidence of change and measuring **longshore drift**. By visiting the same site at regular intervals (for example, once a year) geographers can also observe changes that have occurred between their visits. It may be important to visit the site at different times of the year to observe seasonal changes such as the effects of storm waves during winter or the impacts of holiday-makers during summer. The following case study is an example of the sort of environmental issues that might be explored by a geographer completing fieldwork.

Case study: Coastal issues at Old Bar, New South Wales

The small coastal town of Old Bar, located on the mid-north coast of New South Wales, faces a range of environmental changes. The town is located on a dune system within a river delta and is home to around 4000 permanent residents. It also has a large number of visitors, particularly during holiday times. The dunes are eroding rapidly at a rate of up to 1 metre per year and this is threatening homes and infrastructure. Studies have found that the dunes in this area have experienced periods of erosion in the past but that rising sea levels are making the current situation more severe.

Local residents are worried that trail-bike riders on the dunes are causing more damage and that the old site of a sand-mining business, which operated back in the 1980s, is an erosion hot spot. Some are also concerned that a proposed 10-hectare housing estate south of the town will



Source 2.50 An oblique aerial photograph of Old Bar showing the location of a proposed real estate development.

further damage the dunes. Many residents believe that building two artificial reefs at the cost of $10 million would protect the coast from further erosion. However, an expert study recommended that a managed retreat coupled with a sloping sea wall of sand-filled bags and regular beach nourishment was a better option.

Photographs from fieldwork at Old Bar



Source 2.51 Dune erosion has destroyed some homes and is threatening others.



Source 2.52 In some places the beach is composed of pebbles as well as sand.



Source 2.53 Evidence of erosion includes a large Norfolk pine tree which has fallen onto the beach.

Check your learning 2.15

Remember and understand

1 Why is fieldwork an essential tool for geographers?

2 Why are geographers uniquely placed to help describe and manage environmental change?

Apply and analyse

3 Look carefully at the photographs on these pages. Create a series of geographical questions that could be used as the basis of a field trip to Old Bar. You may like to begin your questions with the words 'what', 'where', 'how', 'why', 'what impact' and 'what should'. Share your questions with a partner and then with the class.

4 Why would many residents prefer artificial reefs to be constructed rather than implementing the soft engineering approach of managed retreat?

5 What would be the advantages and disadvantages of sea walls and beach nourishment at Old Bar?

Evaluate and create

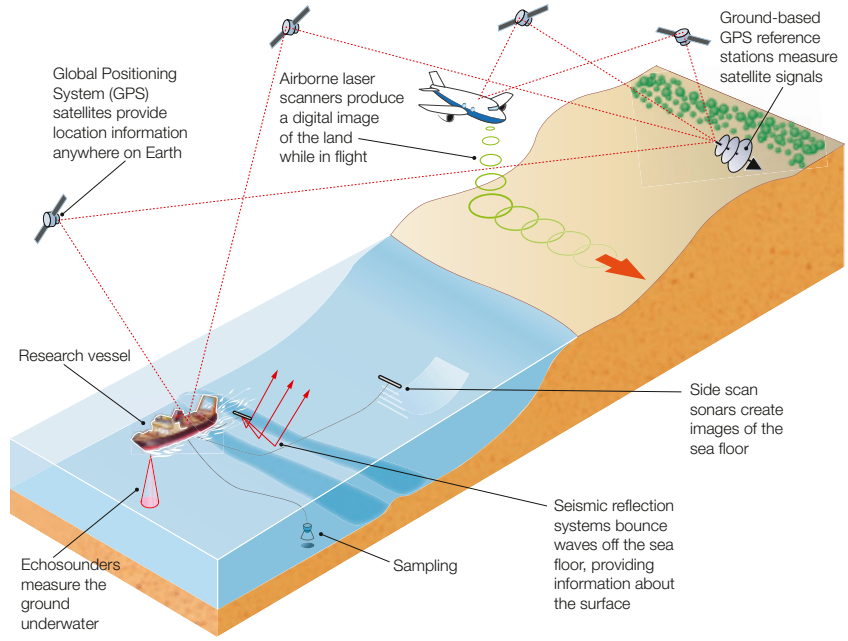
6 Read section GT.3 of 'The geographer's toolkit' and use the tip on conducting successful fieldwork to design your own fieldwork investigation of Old Bar. Outline the five stages of your inquiry, making sure that you investigate:

- a the causes of coastal erosion
- b the effects of coastal erosion
- c the responses to coastal erosion.

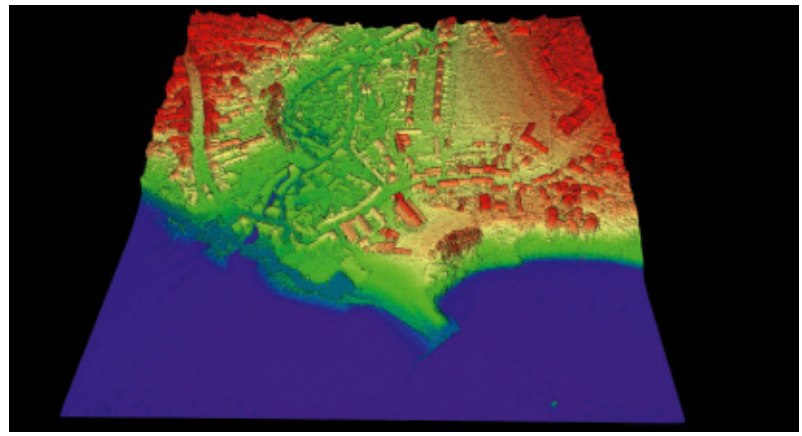
Using spatial technologies

Geographers use a range of tools to describe and predict environmental change. These tools may be as simple as direct observation or involve measuring and recording the changing width of a beach with a tape measure. Increasingly, however, digital tools are being used to measure change and to help manage dynamic environments such as coasts, forests and farms (see Source 2.54). These tools rely on the collection of data from sources such as the **global positioning system (GPS)**, aerial photographs, ships and tide meters. The data collected is then analysed by computer programs and made available for use by **geographic information systems (GIS)** and **digital terrain modelling (DTM)** as well as other applications.

As more and more coastal communities become concerned about the impacts of rising sea levels due to climate change, there is a greater demand for more advanced methods of monitoring the coastline. This is driving a boom in coastline monitoring through spatial technologies and is making more data and information about coastal changes available to geographers than ever before.



Source 2.54 Geographers use a range of digital data collection methods.



Source 2.55 In this DTM, the height of the land and the depth of the sea are represented by changes in colour.



Source 2.56 The same data used to create the first DTM has been combined with an aerial photograph to create a more realistic digital representation of the landscape.

Digital terrain models (DTMs)

A DTM shows the relief (or shape) of the land in three dimensions (see Sources 2.55 and 2.56). Much of the data needed to create a DTM is collected from special sensors on satellites. This data is represented as a raster (grid of squares) and manipulated by technicians to form a model of the Earth's surface. These models can help geographers 'see through' features of the environment such as coastal waters and forests to examine the terrain below. They can be used to predict areas at risk from erosion and other hazards, such as coastal flooding. This information can then be used to help manage the environment to limit the effects of these potential hazards and disasters.

key**concept:** interconnection

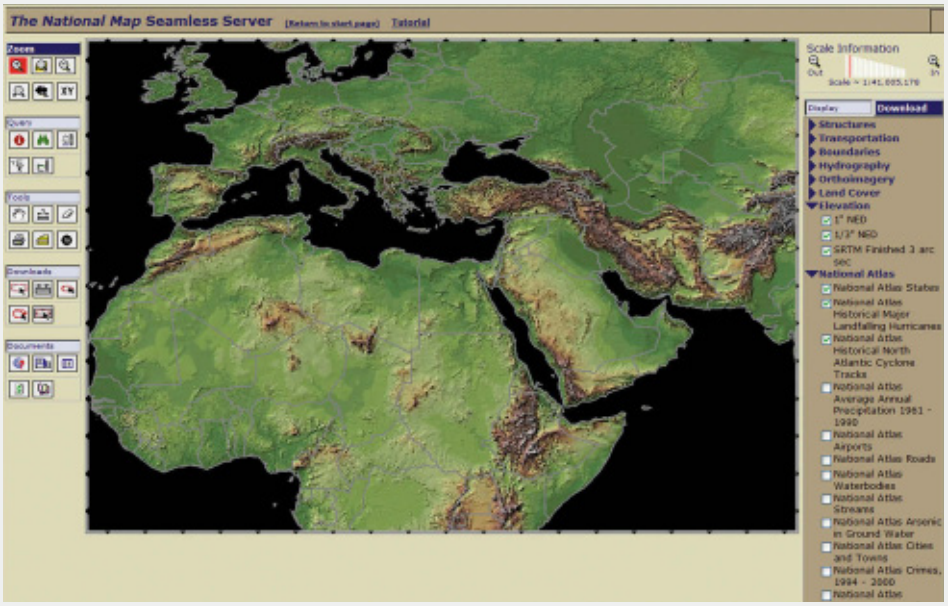
Geographic Information Systems (GIS)

GIS uses digital data to create a series of maps of a particular landscape. Each map focuses on a different aspect of the environment, such as the ocean depth, salinity, roads, settlements and relief. Using a GIS program, the maps are presented as a series of layers which can be switched on and off. This enables geographers to compare different aspects of the environment and look for interconnections between them.

GIS is particularly useful in examining and managing change in coastal environments. It allows geographers to isolate different and competing land uses, to see beyond political and physical boundaries and to measure change over time.

The Netherlands provides a good example of the use of this technology. Every year, the entire 350-kilometre-long Dutch coastline is digitally mapped and measured using methods similar to those shown in Source 2.54. The maps and cross-sections produced in this annual survey are compared to the first survey of this kind, undertaken in 1990. Areas of coastal erosion and accretion (growth) are clearly displayed on GIS maps and are used by coastal managers to make changes in coastal defence strategies such as beach nourishment and sea walls.

For more information on the key concept of interconnection, refer to section GT.1 of "The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 2.57 A GIS map of North Africa and Europe. A range of GIS tools are shown in the left-hand margin and the map layers available in the right-hand margin. By manipulating these tools and layers, geographers can create their own maps and examine regions in great detail.

Check your learning 2.16

Remember and understand

1 Why do geographers use digital tools?
2 How is data collected to create GIS and DTMs?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Sources 2.55 and 2.56.
   a What evidence is there that this coastline is under threat of erosion?
   b Which of these DTMs would be most useful to an engineer planning the placement of new groynes? Give some reasons for your answer.
   c Who would find these models useful?

Evaluate and create

4 Examine Source 2.50 showing the proposed real estate development site at Old Bar in New South Wales before completing the following tasks.
   a Imagine that the developer at Old Bar has asked you to suggest a range of digital data collection methods to create a GIS that will assist them with their planning. Describe the most relevant data collection methods to use.
   b Now sketch the map layers that you think the developer would most like to see included in the program.

Understanding spatial variations

Each place on the Earth's surface is unique. In the same way that no two people are exactly alike, natural environments such as forests, glaciers and coasts all differ. The reasons for these variations may be complex, but recognising them is a critical part of understanding why different places have different problems. Geographers examine these differences (also known as **spatial variations**) and use what they find to propose solutions and responses to environmental change and/or issues. It is important to remember that these solutions and responses need to be site-specific. They may work in one place but not work in another. Some environments are also more resilient to change than others.

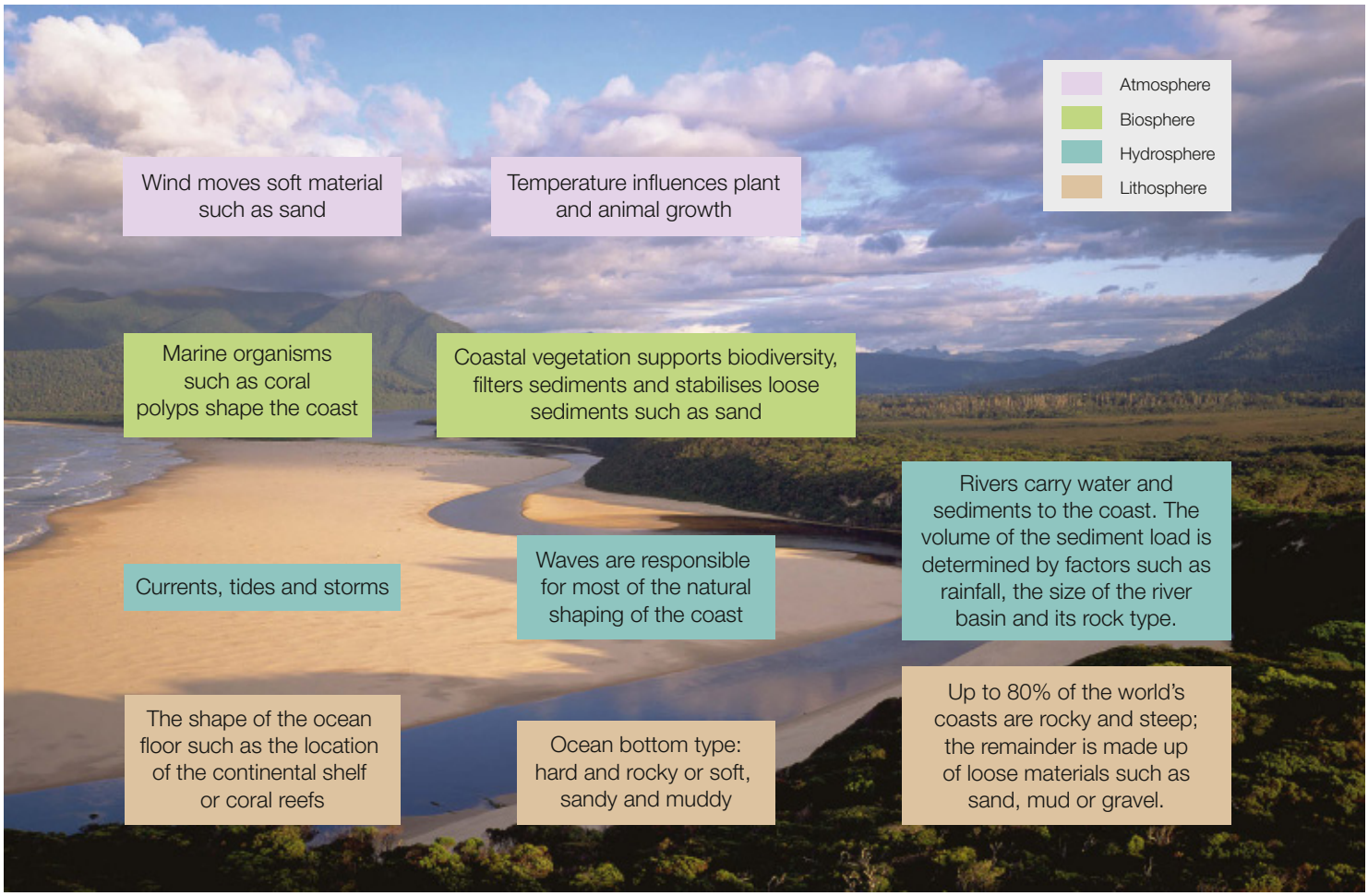
The factors that need to be looked at when considering spatial variations in environments can be divided into two groups – natural factors and human factors.

Natural factors

Geographers often use models to help them understand processes that take place in the natural world. One of these models (known as the four spheres model) is particularly useful when investigating the natural factors that influence spatial variations. The four spheres that interact to form unique landscapes include:

1. the **atmosphere** – all of the gases that surround the Earth
2. the **biosphere** – all living things on Earth (i.e. plants, animals, humans and other organisms)
3. the **hydrosphere** – all of the water on Earth (i.e. in solid, liquid and gaseous forms)
4. the **lithosphere** – the outer rocky layer of Earth (i.e. crust).

Source 2.58 provides an example of how the four spheres model can be used to investigate and describe how natural factors interact to shape coastal environments.



Source 2.58 An analysis of an Australian coastal environment using the four spheres model



Source 2.59 The Gold Coast in Queensland is an example of an anthropogenic coast.

Human factors

People have always been drawn to the coast. Coastal environments provide us with many ecosystem services that we need to live and thrive such as food, shelter, transport, recreation and flat land for building. Areas near the mouths of rivers also provide fresh water and fertile soil. Human influence tends to be concentrated in certain places on the coast where these ecosystem services are most available. In these places, the coastlines are now so altered by human activities that some geographers refer to them as anthropogenic coasts (see Source 2.60), meaning humans have become the dominant force in these environments.

Source 2.60

Features of an anthropogenic coast
Coastal protection constructions such as sea walls
Cleared vegetation
Dredged shipping channels
Mining operations including sand mining and oil drilling
Fishing and aquaculture
Coastal agriculture
Forestry
Shipbuilding and other industries
Shipping and port facilities
Dammed rivers for hydroelectric power generation
Naval and other defence operations
Tourism and recreation
Roads
Draining coastal wetlands and salt marshes
Land reclamation
Cities

Check your learning 2.17

Remember and understand

1 Name the four interconnected spheres that make up the Earth.

2 List four ecosystem services that the coast provides us with.

Apply and analyse

3 Would rocky coasts be more resilient to change than sandy coasts? Give some reasons for your answer.

4 Choose a section of coastline you have visited or know well and describe the natural and human processes that have shaped it.

Evaluate and create

5 In the same way that natural factors can be classified, so too can human factors. One method is to classify them as social, historic, environmental, economic, political or technological (making the acronym SHEEPT). Use this method to classify the human factors listed in Source 2.60. For more information on the SHEEPT method, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

Assessing environmental change

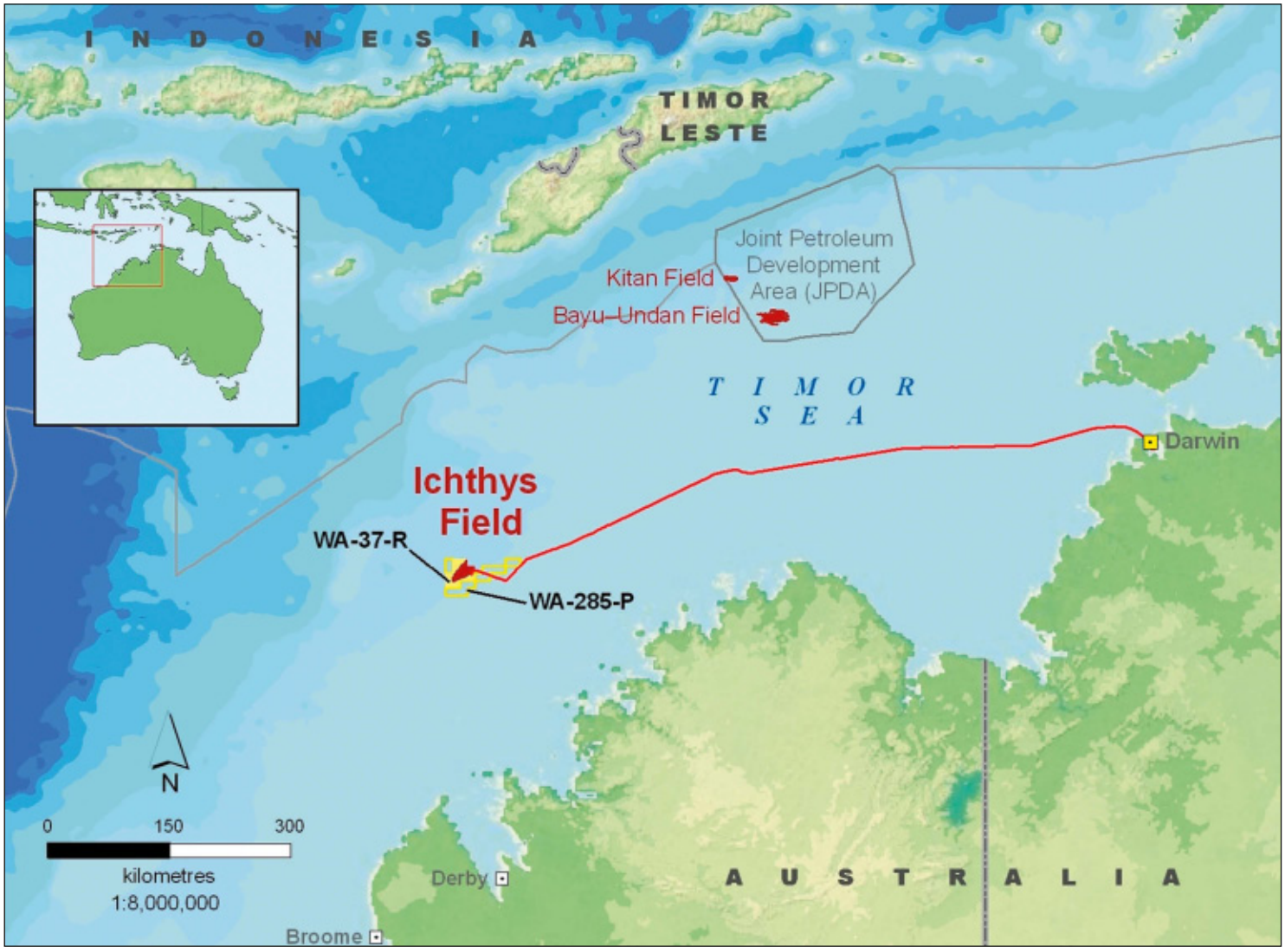
In Australia, and in many other countries, building projects that are likely to impact on the natural environment must go through a process of environmental assessment. This involves a study of the likely impacts of the proposed project on the environment. The resulting document is called an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) and is generally prepared by a geographer with specialised training.

When completed, the EIS is submitted to the relevant authority, for example the state planning ministry. The state planning ministry then has the authority to stop the project if they feel it has too much impact on the environment. Alternatively, they may request changes to aspects of the project in order to minimise the environmental impacts.

Case study: The Ichthys Project

The Ichthys Project (named after the classical Greek word for 'fish') is the largest oil and gas mining project to be undertaken in the Northern Territory. It is being built by INPEX, a worldwide gas exploration company, and its partners, with construction in the Timor Sea and Darwin. Natural gas, an extremely valuable energy source, will be extracted from beneath the Timor Sea and then transported to Darwin through a pipeline that will be laid on the seabed.

ICHTHYS PROJECT: LOCATION OF THE PROPOSED OFFSHORE WELLS, PIPELINE AND ONSHORE PLANT



Source 2.61

Source: AAP

The massive project is set to deliver significant social and economic benefits to Australia, bringing jobs, training, business opportunities, and advancement for the energy industry.

The three stages of the project – the offshore wells, the pipeline and the onshore facilities at Darwin – were all assessed for their environmental impacts before the project was allowed to proceed.

The onshore processing plant is being constructed on Middle Arm Peninsula to the south of Darwin and close to an existing natural gas plant. The following factors were studied as part of the three-year environmental assessment of the project:

- The impact of dredging parts of the harbour and the disposal of the dredged material on corals, sea grass and marine animals such as dolphins, dugongs and turtles. Dredging involves the removal of a large rock shoal by methods such as using explosives (three explosions per day for 57 weeks) or specialised dredges.
- An increase in underwater noise and the impact of this on dolphins which use sound to navigate.
- Impacts on shore birds and wading birds, particularly from the loss of mudflat habitat and the potential of oil spills.
- Impacts on fish species including the commercially important barramundi and on crustaceans, especially mud crabs.
- The removal of areas of mangrove forest, including plants listed as vulnerable to extinction, and the possible impacts of increased sedimentation on other areas of mangrove.
- Disposal of waste water, including sewage from the plant and the village built to house up to 3500 construction workers.
- Air and noise pollution and the effects of these on Darwin residents.
- Greenhouse gas emissions. The project, when completed, will be the largest emitter of greenhouse gases in the Northern Territory and one of the largest in Australia.

Based on their assessment of the impacts and potential benefits of the project the Northern Territory government allowed it to go ahead, as long as the company made a number of changes to reduce the potential environmental impact and agreed to a range of recommendations. These included:

- monitoring and researching the health of Darwin Harbour for 40 years
- long-term research of coastal dolphins to assist with their conservation
- a $3 million donation to Charles Darwin University to assist in oil and gas research
- an extensive mapping project covering the natural habitats of the Darwin region.



Source 2.62 A computer-generated image of the completed onshore processing plant near Darwin

Check your learning 2.18

Remember and understand

1 What is an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) used for?

2 List the potential benefits as well as potential negative impacts of the Ichthys Project.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 2.61.
   a Estimate the total length of the pipeline.
   b What are some of the potential impacts of the pipeline?

4 Examine Source 2.62. Describe the changes to the natural environment as shown in this computer-generated image.

5 Why would INPEX agree to the range of recommendations put forward by the Northern Territory government?

Evaluate and create

6 Explain the importance of each of the Northern Territory government's recommendations for the natural environment.

7 Brainstorm with your classmates what cultural, economic and environmental factors a government would need to consider when deciding whether or not to approve a project such as the Ichthys Project.

Developing responses to environmental issues

Once an environmental issue has been identified and assessed, it is often necessary to come up with a suitable response. Remembering that each environmental issue is unique, the environmental response must also be individually designed for that particular environment. Management responses that are effective in one place may be ineffective or even damaging in other places.

When considering a suitable response to environmental issues, important questions to ask include:

- Does the response deal with the causes of the issue as well as its effects?
- Is the response affordable, both in the short and long term?
- Is the response beneficial to all natural environments, or does it just move the problem and perhaps result in greater environmental changes in another place?
- Is the response fair to all of the relevant stakeholders?

Case study: Sierra Leone's disappearing beaches

Sand mining is having a serious environmental impact on the coastal environment in the African nation of Sierra Leone.

The capital city, Freetown, is experiencing a population and building boom. The population is growing by about 70000 people per year and there is a growing demand for new housing as well as commercial and industrial buildings.



Source 2.63 Sand mining on Hamilton Beach, Freetown, Sierra Leone

Many of these buildings are made from concrete which requires vast quantities of cheap, good quality sand. Sand-mining operations can involve up to 40 trucks at a time, each with a team of diggers, who shovel sand from a beach. This process is creating changes in both the natural environment, as the sea is able to penetrate further inland, and the human environment. Local residents are being affected as the remaining dunes are eroding rapidly and houses are falling into the sea.

Possible responses

Sierra Leone is trying to build a viable tourism industry to boost the nation's economy but tourist resorts are in danger of losing their beaches and their potential customers. A possible response to this problem would be to declare sand mining illegal and arrest those who continue to take sand from the beaches. Another possible response to this problem would be the importation of sand from other places.

Some of the factors that would need to be considered when planning a response to the issue of sand mining in Sierra Leone are:

- Sierra Leone is one of the world's poorest countries. Many people struggle to earn enough money to provide adequate food, shelter and water for their families. Sand mining provides a source of income for hundreds of men and their families.
- As a developing country, levels of technology in industries such as transport and mining are low.



Source 2.64 Hamilton and Lakka beaches shown on the edge of Freetown's urban sprawl

- Coastal areas are often heavily used for many purposes: fishing, residences, tourism, recreation and a source of building materials.
- As dunes disappear, coastal erosion is accelerating and is now up to 6 metres per year in some places.
- Global climate change is expected to raise sea levels on this coast and to increase the number and severity of storms generating large, destructive waves.
- Sierra Leone's police force has not enforced previous bans on sand mining.
- Corrupt local officials accept payments from the construction companies to continue the sand mining.
- The main sources of sand, Hamilton and Lakka beaches, are located within Freetown's urban sprawl (see Source 2.64).

skill**drill**

Evaluating possible responses to environmental issues

Complex environmental issues often require complex responses. Geographers can propose possible responses or assess the environmental, economic and social sustainability of responses proposed by governments. Geographers can evaluate possible responses against a set of criteria. For example, the issue of sand mining in Sierra Leone requires an urgent response. If the situation continues, hundreds of people will lose their homes, the tourist industry will collapse and many people will lose their jobs. The area around Freetown will also lose many ecosystem services such as storm protection.

When evaluating possible responses to environmental issues such as the one in Sierra Leone, follow these steps:

Step 1 Read all of the background information carefully and make sure that you understand it well. You may also like to conduct some additional research on the issue if anything is unclear.

Step 2 In some cases, you may be required to suggest your own responses to environmental issues. In other cases, you will evaluate responses that have been suggested by others. For example, in the case of Sierra Leone:

Response 1 – Declare sand mining illegal and arrest those who continue to take sand from beaches

Response 2 – Import sand from other places.

Step 3 Develop a set of criteria to evaluate each of the suggested responses. These criteria should consider all sides of the issue, for example economic viability, environmental sustainability and social justice.

Step 4 Create a table to evaluate each response against each criterion. You may like to use symbols such as:

✓ – criterion met % – criterion partly met

× – criterion not met ? – unsure.

Step 5 Use the data in your table to select the best response to the issue. You may need to reconsider particular aspects of the response (and make modifications) to come up with the best response. In other cases, you may need to combine aspects of more than one response to come up with the best solution.

Step 6 Based on your evaluation, present your final recommendation. Include maps and diagrams to help describe the proposal and the intended benefits.

Apply the skill

1 Follow the steps to develop a sustainable response to beach sand mining in Sierra Leone.

Check your learning 2.19

Remember and understand

1 Why is beach sand mining a problem?

2 Why doesn't the Sierra Leone government just ban beach sand mining?

Apply and analyse

3 List the effects of illegal sand mining and rank them from the most to least significant in terms of the severity of environmental impact.

Evaluate and create

4 Beach sand mining also occurs in other countries including Liberia, Morocco, India, Jamaica and New Zealand. Research beach sand mining in one of these places and make a list of the underlying reasons for the practice.

5 Using Source 2.60, identify the human factors that are shaping the coastline of Sierra Leone. How do these differ from those shaping the coastline at Old Bar (see pp. 124)?

Gulf of Mexico oil spill

The Gulf of Mexico lies between the United States, Mexico and Cuba and contains one of the world's busiest oilfields. There are almost 4000 active oil wells in the Gulf along with a further 27 000 abandoned wells.

In April 2010, an active oil well operated by British Petroleum (BP), known as the Deepwater Horizon, exploded and sank to the sea floor, 1500 metres below the surface. Oil gushed from the well for three months while BP and American authorities tried desperately to plug the hole. The results were catastrophic. An oil slick covering 1500 square kilometres started moving towards the American coastline. Thousands of sea birds, fish, dolphins and turtles were covered in oil and died. Other animals along the shoreline such as crabs and molluscs were also badly affected. Local industries such as fishing and tourism collapsed, and many people lost their livelihoods.

skill**drill**

Analysing environmental accidents using complex maps

In the case of an environmental accident, the impacts of the accident usually have multiple causes. Geographers try to go beyond the obvious cause (the oil well blew up) to explore other factors that have influenced the course and extent of the impacts. These are generally a combination of natural processes and human activities. Complex maps contain more than one set of information. Geographers use complex maps to analyse different features, reveal patterns and explain links between features in a given area. You can analyse a complex map by following these steps.

Step 1 Look carefully at the map and read its title to make sure you understand what is being shown.

Step 2 Examine the map's legend. Complex maps can have more than one part to a legend, and these parts will be represented on the map in different ways. For example, in Source 2.65 natural environments are shown using a range of colours and towns and cities with a range of symbols.

Step 3 Train your eyes to look for one set of information at a time. For example, look at solid blocks of colour on the map and work out what they tell you.

Step 4 Move to a different set of information by selecting another symbol or block of colour from the legend. Examine the map to identify the symbol or areas of colour.

Step 5 Look for concentrations of the same symbol in areas to see if patterns exist.

Step 6 Note any patterns you can find on the map between different features and locations.

Step 7 Describe the degree to which patterns are connected.

Step 8 Try to suggest reasons for the connection between the two patterns.

Apply the skill

1 Using Source 2.65, analyse the causes and effects of the Gulf of Mexico oil spill. Once you have completed your analysis, fill in the table below as a way of organising your results. An example has been done for you.

Geographic factor	Possible contributing feature	Description of feature
Physical environment	Shape of the coastline	The Gulf of Mexico is an extensive broad bay which opens to the Atlantic Ocean and Caribbean Sea in the east.
	Features of the seabed	
	Location of coastal marshes	
Natural processes	Ocean currents in the Gulf	
Demographics	Distribution of towns and cities	
	Location of oil refineries and oil rigs	

GULF OF MEXICO: EXTENT OF OIL SPILL FROM DEEPWATER HORIZON, 2010



Source 2.65

Source: Oxford University Press

Extend your understanding

In addition to complex maps, geographers use information from a range of additional sources to explain how the impacts of the accident progressed and to look at the more long-term impacts on the environment. Research the Gulf of Mexico oil spill on the Internet before answering the following questions.

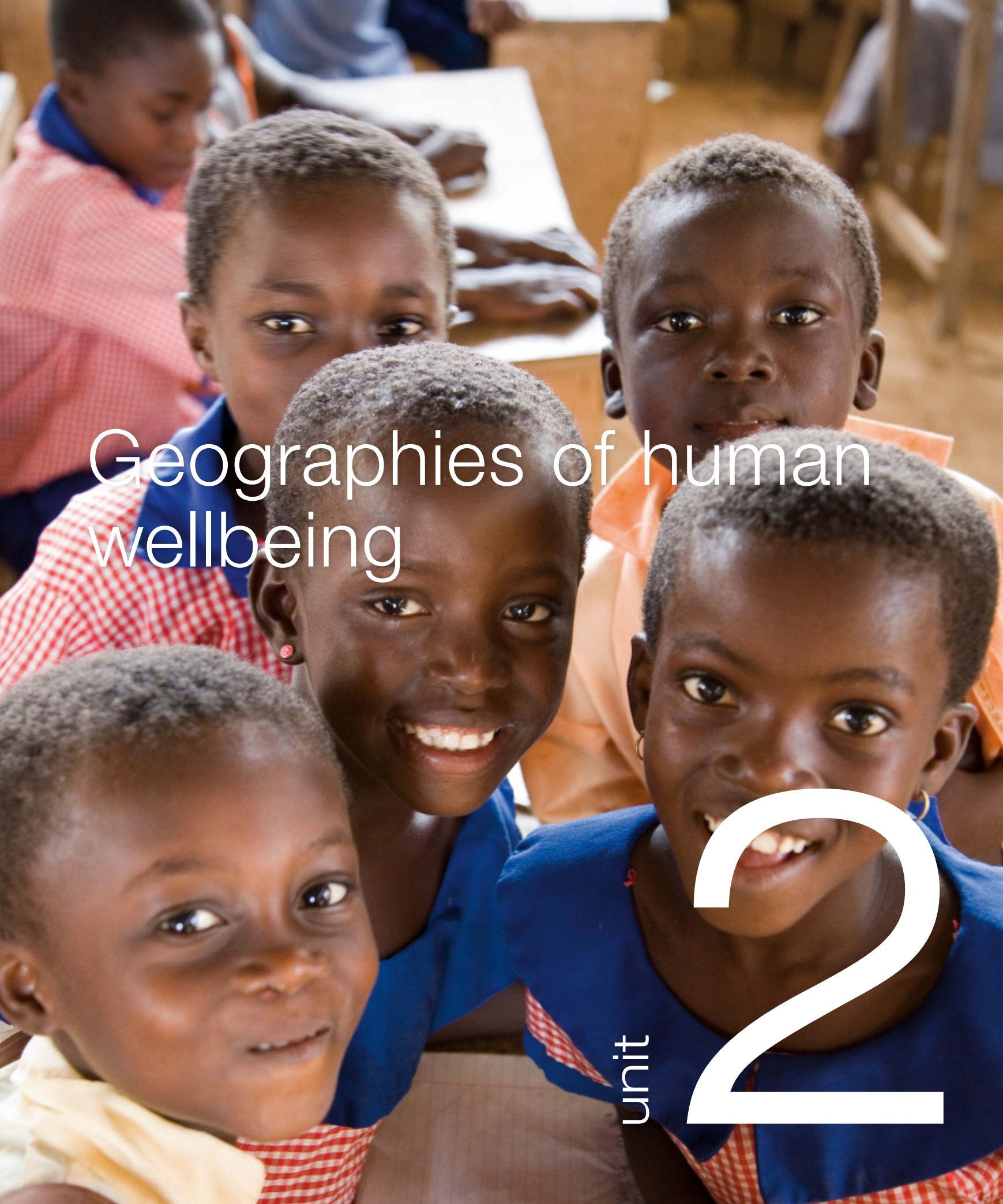
1 Can you identify any contributing factors to the accident that are not shown on Source 2.65 (for example any economic or technological factors). What was their role in the accident? Add these factors to the table provided.

Contributing factors	Possible contributing feature	Description of feature
Economic factors	Level of development of USA	
	Importance of oil in USA economy	
	Tourism and fishing industries	
Technological factors	Operation of oil refineries and oil rigs	
	Technical failure of oil rig	

2 Since 2000 more oil wells have been drilled in much deeper water than in the past. Some experts believe that this was an important factor in this disaster. Why do you think wells are now being drilled in much deeper water?

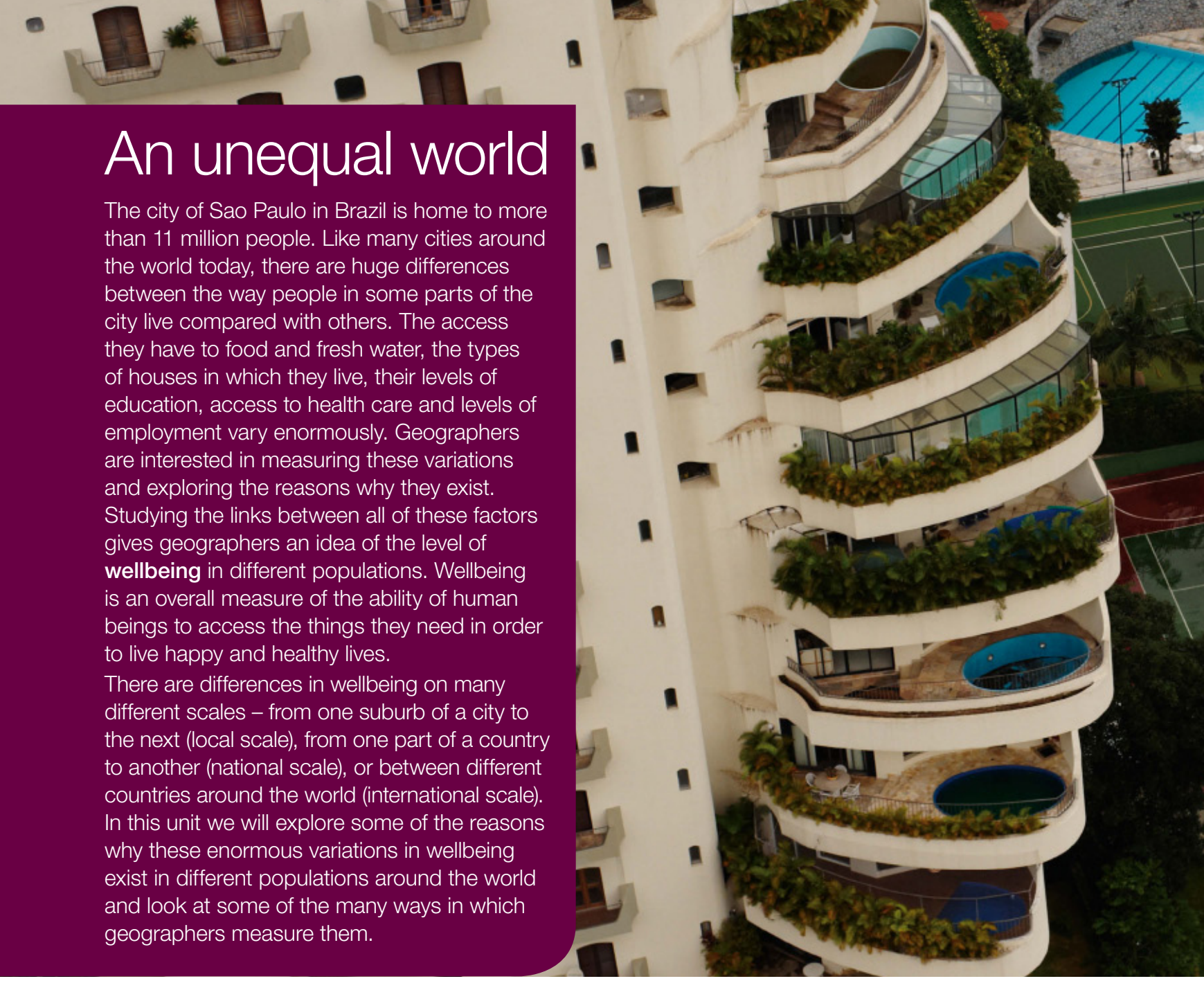


Source 2.66 The fire on the Deepwater Horizon



Geographies of human wellbeing

unit 2



An unequal world

The city of Sao Paulo in Brazil is home to more than 11 million people. Like many cities around the world today, there are huge differences between the way people in some parts of the city live compared with others. The access they have to food and fresh water, the types of houses in which they live, their levels of education, access to health care and levels of employment vary enormously. Geographers are interested in measuring these variations and exploring the reasons why they exist. Studying the links between all of these factors gives geographers an idea of the level of **wellbeing** in different populations. Wellbeing is an overall measure of the ability of human beings to access the things they need in order to live happy and healthy lives.

There are differences in wellbeing on many different scales – from one suburb of a city to the next (local scale), from one part of a country to another (national scale), or between different countries around the world (international scale). In this unit we will explore some of the reasons why these enormous variations in wellbeing exist in different populations around the world and look at some of the many ways in which geographers measure them.

3.1

How does wellbeing vary around the world?

1 Compare the standards of housing that you can see in the Paraisópolis favela with housing standards in the region where you live. What are the similarities and differences?

3.2

How does wellbeing vary within countries?

1 What variations in living standards can you identify between those living in the favela and those living in the apartment block?

2 Why do you think these variations exist in such a small area?



chapter 3

Source 3.1 An apartment building with a pool and tennis court shares a fence with one of Sao Paulo's largest favelas (a shanty town or slum), Paraisópolis (meaning 'Paradise City'), home to about 100 000 people. This scene starkly illustrates the inequalities in wellbeing worldwide.

3.1 How does wellbeing vary around the world?

Defining wellbeing

Geographers define wellbeing as the ability of people to access the things they need in order to live happy, healthy and contented lives. Whether a person is born in a refugee camp in Tanzania, a megacity in China, a rural town in France or a coastal city in Australia, their basic requirements for life are the same. The primary requirements include fresh water, a secure food supply, shelter, clothing, and safety. Once these primary needs have been met, secondary needs, such as good health, the ability to make a decent living and access to education become important in determining an individual's level of wellbeing.

The ability to meet these needs varies a great deal within communities, within countries and between countries. Many people around the world struggle simply to find enough food to eat or enough water to drink every day. Other people lack access to good health care or the ability to send their children to school. These experiences lead to a wide range of variations in human wellbeing. Geographers are interested in describing these variations and exploring possible reasons for them. They are also interested in analysing any strategies introduced to improve wellbeing and offering possible responses to resulting problems.

Three of the most important variables that influence levels of wellbeing around the world today are wealth, health and education.

Wealth

Our access to the basic necessities of life (and other wants we may have) are determined largely by our degree of wealth and our ability to earn a living. Wealth is generated by producing and selling things, earning wages from work, making investments or owning assets. If we have enough wealth, we can use it to access a wide variety of goods and services. If we do not, we may struggle to buy things such as food, medicine and tools that we could use to generate more wealth (see Source 3.2). There are huge variations in wealth across the globe. It is estimated, for example, that the wealthiest one per cent of adults own 40 per cent of the world's assets and that the three richest people in the world are wealthier than the world's 48 poorest countries combined.

Health

Human health is affected by a wide range of factors. Clean air, clean water and a secure supply of nutritious food are all vital but other factors are also important. These include the ability of a community to treat and control the spread of diseases, provide health care when individuals are sick or injured, care for the vulnerable such as babies and the aged, and provide emergency services in times of crisis. Access to health care is vital during natural disasters such as a drought or man-made disasters such as war, which can limit supply of food and water. People living in war-torn countries often struggle to find the basic requirements needed for a healthy life.



Source 3.2 China has one of the world's fastest growing economies. However, as in all countries, wealth is unevenly distributed.



Source 3.3 People in Singapore enjoy one of the world's best healthcare systems. A baby born in Singapore is 45 times more likely to survive their first year of life than a baby born in Afghanistan.



Source 3.4 In 2013, about 74 per cent of Indian adults could read and write. This compares with a rate of just 12 per cent in 1947. Despite this dramatic improvement, India is home to the world's largest number of illiterates.

Education

Access to a formal education is viewed by many people as the key to improving wellbeing. Being able to read and write gives people access to a greater number of services and provides a range of options that can lead to better jobs, higher wages and improved standards of living. Education also increases people's self-esteem and allows them to have more control over their future.

In many communities, education is difficult to obtain. In many countries, poverty and conflict are the two major reasons why children do not attend school. Education can be especially difficult for girls to obtain, because in many cultures educating boys is seen as more worthwhile. While parents may work hard to send their sons to school, they prefer to have their daughters helping out at home.

Despite these obstacles, rates of schooling and literacy (the ability to read and write) are increasing around the world. In Sub-Saharan Africa, for example, the enrolment rates of children in primary school rose from 58 per cent in 1999 to 76 per cent in 2010. This means that 43 million more children received a primary education in the region by 2010. In wealthy countries, such as Australia, New Zealand and the United States, education is seen as so valuable that it is made compulsory, free and universal.

Check your learning 3.1

Remember and understand

1 Write your own definition for the term 'human wellbeing'.
2 Why is access to education seen by many as the key to improving wellbeing?

Apply and analyse

3 What are some of the ways in which a person's wellbeing could be measured?
4 Describe the contrasts in wealth shown in Source 3.2.
5 Why do you think survival rates of babies are so poor in Afghanistan? Make a list of possible reasons. Explain why the survival rates of babies are so much better in Singapore.

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct some research and describe wellbeing in Australia. Use the headings of wealth, health and education to guide your description.
7 Which photograph on these pages best shows what wellbeing means to you? Give some reasons for your answer.

Different views of wellbeing

The way in which we define wellbeing is dependent on a large number of factors. These include our values, beliefs, history, environment, level of education, language and culture. People from different environments and cultures often view wellbeing in vastly different ways. For example, owning your own home might be considered a factor that increases wellbeing, but in many Indigenous Australian communities guardianship of the land is considered more important to wellbeing than individual ownership.

Common indicators of wellbeing

Geographers often rely on a range of **quantitative data** to measure and compare levels of wellbeing around the world. Two of the most common measures used today include **Gross Domestic Product (GDP)** and **literacy rates**. These measures are referred to as universal indicators because, while they are not perfect, the data they provide is easily obtained and allows geographers to make basic international comparisons.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) provides a measure of the total market value (i.e. the monetary value) of all the goods and services produced in a country in a given year. By dividing the GDP of a country by the total number of people living there, the GDP per capita can be calculated. This gives an approximation of the value of goods and services produced per person in the country each year. This data is then used to assess the average productivity and wealth of individuals.

Another universal indicator used to measure and compare wellbeing around the world is literacy rates. Literacy rates give an indication of the number of people in a population who are able to read and write. Data relating to literacy is often used as a measure of educational results in different countries. In general, low levels of literacy and education can impede the economic development of a country and affect wellbeing.

Although universal indicators like GDP and literacy rates are commonly used by geographers, they do not provide an objective and complete picture of the situation. For example, relying only on GDP to measure wellbeing assumes that feelings of wellbeing in a population are based exclusively on how much money people have. In the same way, using only literacy rates assumes that feelings of wellbeing are linked exclusively to people's level of education. From our own experiences we know that it's just not that simple. These quantitative measures do not take into account the many different attitudes and values of people within a population, nor do they give an indication of how satisfied individuals may feel with their place in society. In order to give a more complete picture, a range of additional data – known as **qualitative data** – needs to be taken into account. Qualitative data about wellbeing is often more difficult and time consuming to collect because it is gathered from surveys and interviews.

Over the course of this unit we will be looking more closely at a range of different indicators of wellbeing, including one developed by the United Nations known as the **Human Development Index (HDI)**, which combines a range of different measures into one.

Wellbeing for Indigenous Australians

Many Indigenous Australians have a view of wellbeing based on traditional beliefs of inter-relationships between individuals, their community and the land. Wellbeing is achieved when the relationships between these factors work together in harmony. This is often described as a holistic view of wellbeing. Importantly, ill-health will arise and persist when the harmony of these relationships is disrupted.



Source 3.5 For Indigenous Australians wellbeing is partly determined by connection to the land.



Source 3.6 Since 1971, Gross National Happiness has replaced Gross Domestic Product as a measure of wellbeing in Bhutan.

It can therefore be difficult to measure the wellbeing of Indigenous Australians using only the common universal indicators. The Australian Bureau of Statistics has recently attempted to develop a model that takes into account Indigenous values when considering wellbeing levels. As well as using measures of health, literacy and wealth, this new model includes wellbeing measures related to an individual's connection to their community, ancestry, cultural traditions and identity, land and spirituality.

Case study: Bhutan and Gross National Happiness (GNH)

> It's easy to mine the land and fish the seas and get rich. Yet we believe you cannot have a prosperous nation in the long run that does not conserve its natural environment or take care of the wellbeing of its people, which is being borne out by what is happening to the outside world.
>
> Thakur Singh Powdyel, Bhutan's Minister of Education

Since 1971, the tiny Himalayan country of Bhutan has rejected GDP as the way to measure the wellbeing of its people and instead adopted a measure known as Gross National Happiness (GNH).

While this might seem like nothing more than a good idea, in Bhutan it is taken very seriously. A GNH measure is taken every year as the country's government attempts to move its citizens towards a happier state. The four guiding principles of GNH are equitable social development, cultural preservation, conservation of the environment and promotion of good governance.

Children are taught these principles at school along with better environmental practices and basic agriculture. At school, bells have been replaced with soothing music and there are daily meditation sessions. In a recent study that measured happiness in 178 countries, the Bhutanese ranked as the eighth happiest people on the planet. Bhutan was the only country in the top 20 with a low GDP.

Check your learning 3.2

Remember and understand

1 What is Gross Domestic Product (GDP) an indicator of? Why is it often used as a measure of wellbeing?

Apply and analyse

2 How do you think Gross National Happiness would be measured?

3 Why do you think other countries have not adopted Bhutan's measure of GNH?

Evaluate and create

4 What are some important aspects of your own wellbeing? In what ways are they similar or different to the Bhutanese view of wellbeing?

Mapping wellbeing

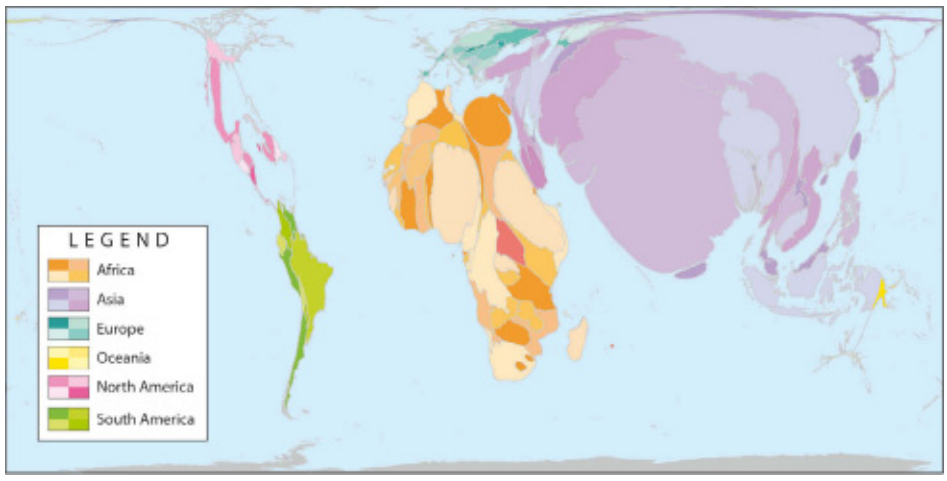
Geographers often use a range of maps to explore the spatial patterns in wellbeing within and between countries. Maps can be used to show variations in wellbeing around the world using specific indicators, such as **Human Development Index (HDI)** or levels of poverty. By using a range of different mapping techniques, geographers can easily identify if countries with a high proportion of people living in poverty are clustered together or spread across the globe. They can then use this information to make comparisons and draw conclusions about the level of wellbeing in these places.

WORLD: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX RATINGS



Source 3.7 Source: Oxford University Press

WORLD: PROPORTION OF POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY



Source 3.8 Source: Oxford University Press

Choropleth maps

Choropleth maps give a quick impression of a spatial pattern by using dark and light shades of the same or similar colours. Darker shades usually show 'the most' and lighter shades show 'the least'. In Source 3.7, for example, countries are shaded according to their **Human Development Index (HDI)** rating. This measure, developed by the United Nations, combines several indicators into a single measure. The world's countries are ranked using indicators of health (life expectancy), education (literacy) and income (Gross Domestic Product). This ranking is then used to place the world's countries into four categories ranging from very high HDI to low HDI. The United Nations uses the same measure each year in its annual *Human Development Report* so that a country's scores, rankings and categories are regularly updated.

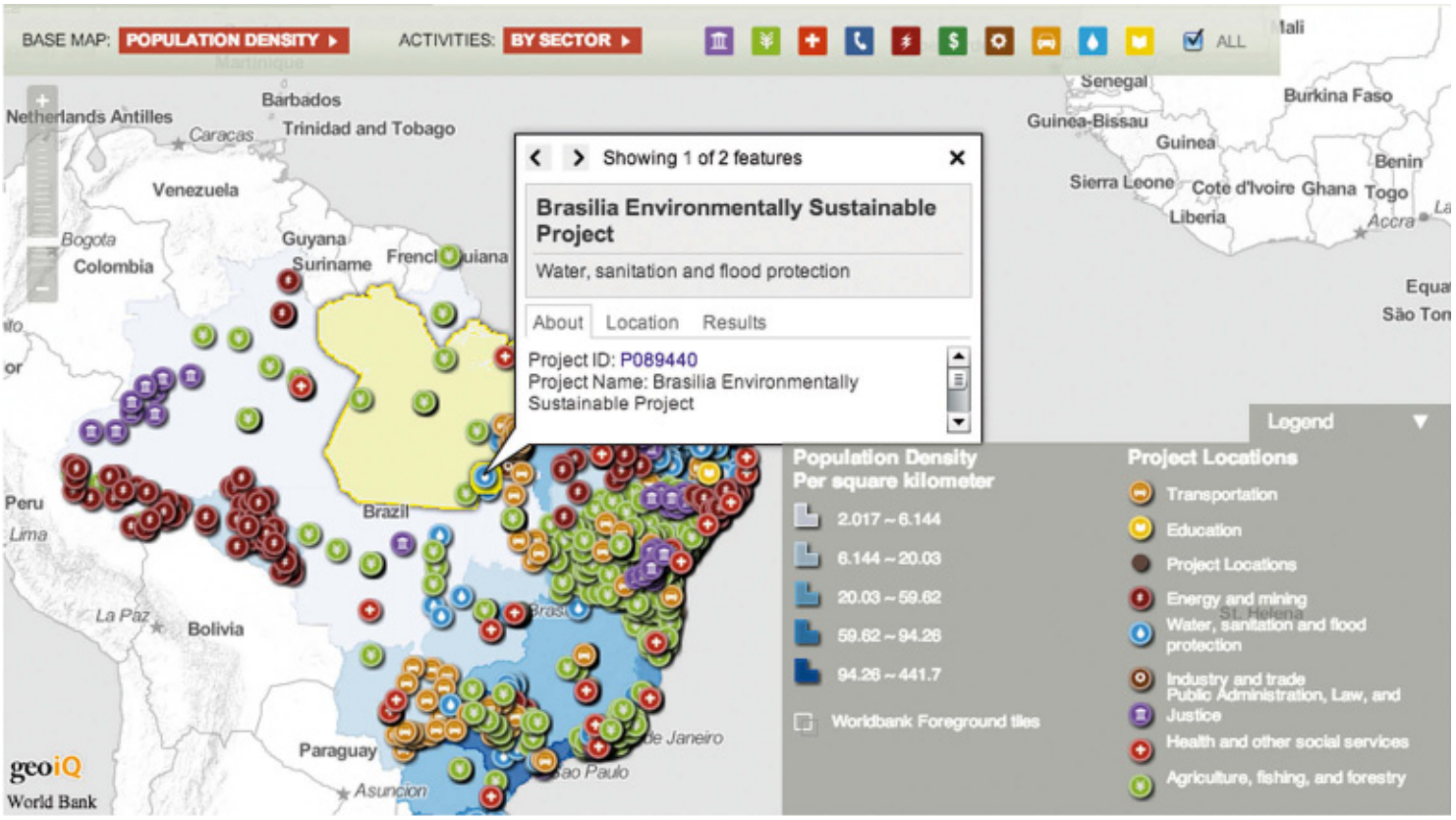
Cartograms

A **cartogram** is a type of map that displays countries in roughly their correct geographic locations but the size of countries is determined by the variable being mapped. For example, in Source 3.8, the size of each country is determined by the proportion of the world population that is living in poverty within that country. The larger the country is shown on this map, the greater the number of people living in poverty in that country. The smaller the country is shown on the map, the fewer the number of people living in poverty. The colours are added to the map to divide the world into geographic regions so that different cartograms can be easily compared.

GIS maps

Geographic Information Systems (GIS) maps display data as a series of layers of digital information. Each layer of the map focuses on a different aspect of the environment, such as poverty, population, roads, settlements or land relief.

When using a GIS program, geographers can switch layers on and off, allowing them to compare different aspects of the environment and look for interconnections between them. International organisations such as the World Bank are increasingly using GIS technology to map their activities and projects.



Source 3.9 Screenshot of a World Bank GIS map showing a range of projects currently being undertaken to improve sustainability and wellbeing in Brazil

Check your learning 3.3

Remember and understand

1 What is the HDI and what is it used for?
2 What is a cartogram?

Apply and analyse

3 Do you think cartograms or choropleth maps are more useful for investigating variations in patterns of wellbeing? Give some reasons for your answer.
4 Describe the patterns of World Bank sponsored projects that you notice in Brazil on the GIS map.

Evaluate and create

5 Use the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to complete this task.
   a In groups of three, each research a different indicator of wellbeing in South America: GDP, literacy rates or **life expectancy**.
   b With your data, each create a choropleth map for the countries of South America. Use the same colours or shades for all the maps.
   c Place the maps on the classroom wall beside each other so that you can easily compare them. What similarities do you notice? What are some of the key differences?

Exploring links between wellbeing

Aspects of wellbeing such as health, wealth and education are usually closely related. A change in one aspect of a person's wellbeing usually affects other aspects of their wellbeing. For example, children who attend school tend to have better health than those who do not. Links such as these can be seen at the national scale as well as at the local scale. One of the most useful tools when exploring these links is a special type of graph known as a **scatter plot**.

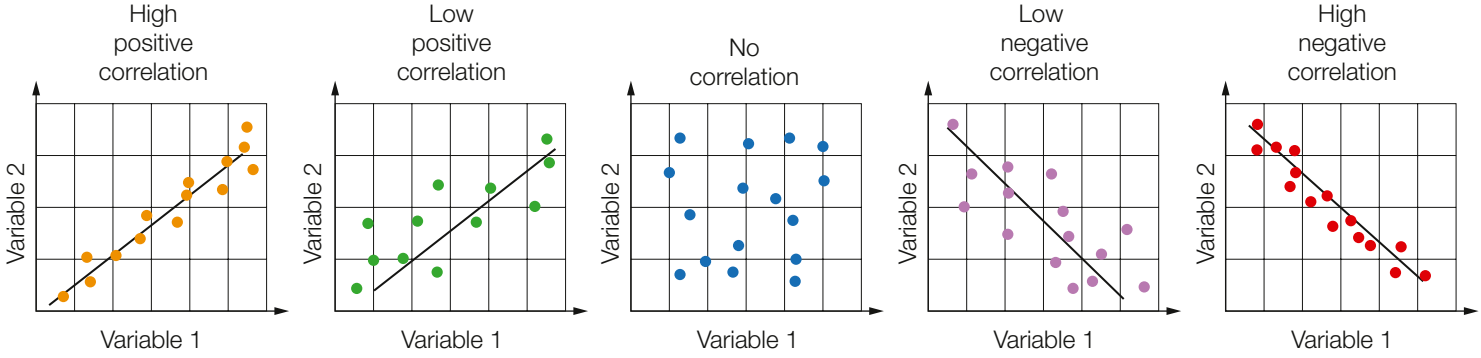
Scatter plots

Scatter plots are similar to line graphs in that they are used to display data plotted against two variables. Scatter plots are used by geographers to show the degree to which one of the variables shown on the graph is related to the other. This relationship is known as the **correlation**. Commonly, scatter graphs show data for a number of countries, each of which is represented by a dot on the graph. When the dots come close to forming a straight line, they are closely related and therefore are said to have a high correlation. When the dots do not come close to forming a straight line, they are not closely related and therefore are said to have a low correlation (see Source 3.10). When the trend is increasing, the correlation is positive. When the trend is decreasing, the correlation is negative. A trend line is often added to a scatter plot to demonstrate the strength of the relationship between the two variables.

Source 3.10 shows a selection of the most common trends that can be represented on a scatter plot. With the introduction of digital graphing tools it has been possible to add more data to make scatter plots even more useful. Three variables can now be graphed to create a three-dimensional scatter plot. By animating graphs it is also possible to show changes in variables and their correlation over time. In Source 3.11 the size of each dot is determined by the size of the population of the country. The graph is able to show life expectancy in each country as well as **fertility rates**.



Source 3.11 This scatter plot taken from the Gapminder website is exploring the correlation between life expectancy and fertility rates (children per woman) worldwide.



Source 3.10 Simple scatter plots showing different types of correlation

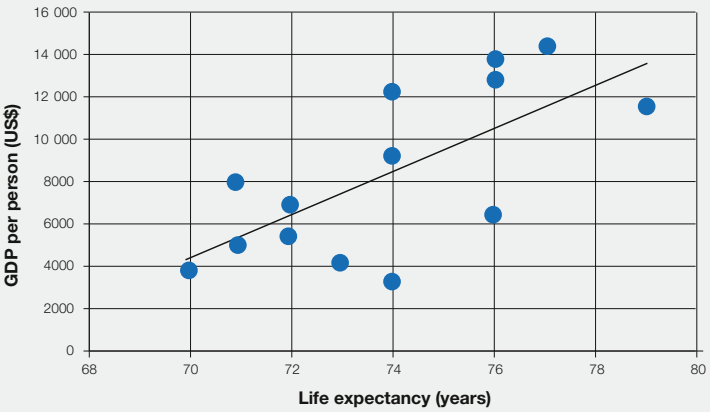
skill**drill**

Constructing scatter plots using Microsoft Excel

You can use a computer program such as Microsoft Excel to construct a scatter plot and show the correlation between two variables. Note: These instructions may vary a little depending on the version of the program you are using.

Step 1 Enter the data into an Excel spreadsheet. The first indicator goes into column A and the second into column B. The data for each country must go into a separate box, known as a cell, on the spreadsheet.

Step 2 Highlight all of the cells containing data.



Source 3.12 A scatter plot showing the correlation between life expectancy and GDP per person for South America countries

Step 3 Using the menu at the top of the spreadsheet select insert→scatter→the first scatter plot. This will convert your data into a scatter plot.

Step 4 The vertical axis usually defaults to begin at zero but the correlation is often easier to see if it begins slightly less than the lowest value being graphed. Look at your graph and decide what you would like as the lowest value on the vertical axis. Use layout→axes→primary vertical axis→more primary vertical axis options→change minimum auto to minimum fixed and enter the value you have decided on. Close the menu.

Step 5 Right click on one of the dots on the graph and select add trendline→linear.

Step 6 Use the chart tools menu 'layout' to turn off the gridlines and the legend. Add a title and label the axes.

Apply the skill

1 Use the 'World statistics' on pages 504–515 to find the life expectancy and GDP rates for all the countries of Oceania. With this data construct a scatter plot exploring the links between life expectancy and GDP per person for the countries of Oceania.

Check your learning 3.4

Remember and understand

1 What is the purpose of scatter plots?

2 What does the word 'correlation' mean?

Apply and analyse

3 Describe the relationship between life expectancy and children per woman as shown in Source 3.11. Describe what this means in your own words.

4 Describe the relationship between life expectancy and GDP per person as shown in Source 3.12. Why do you think this correlation exists?

a Scatter plots often contain one or two countries that do not conform to the general pattern and sit apart from most other countries on the graph. These are called outliers. How many outliers can you identify in Source 3.11?

b Why do you think these countries do not conform to the general pattern?

Evaluate and create

5 Visit the Gapminder website (www.gapminder.org) and download Gapminder World. Click the play button to see how countries have changed over time. Explore the graphs on this website by selecting different indicators for each axis and watching the ways in which their correlation changes.

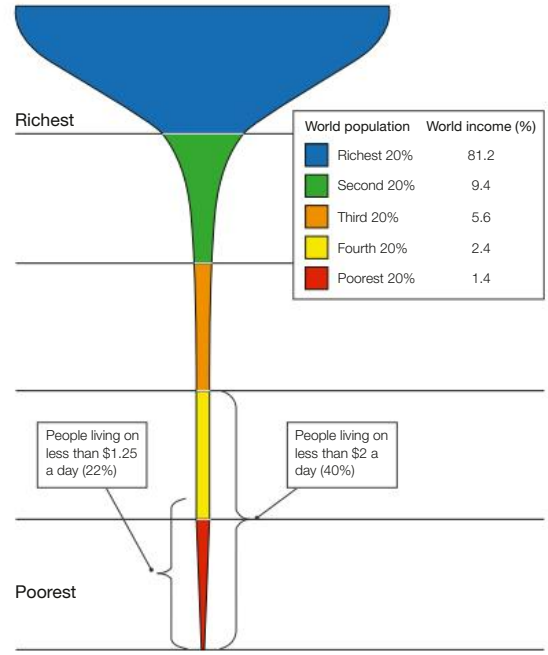
Contrasts in wealth

By any measure, the world's wealth is unevenly distributed (see Source 3.14). The richest one per cent of the world's population has approximately the same amount of income as the poorest 56 per cent of the world's population (3.5 billion people). All 10 of the world's poorest countries are in Africa.

Measuring wealth: Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

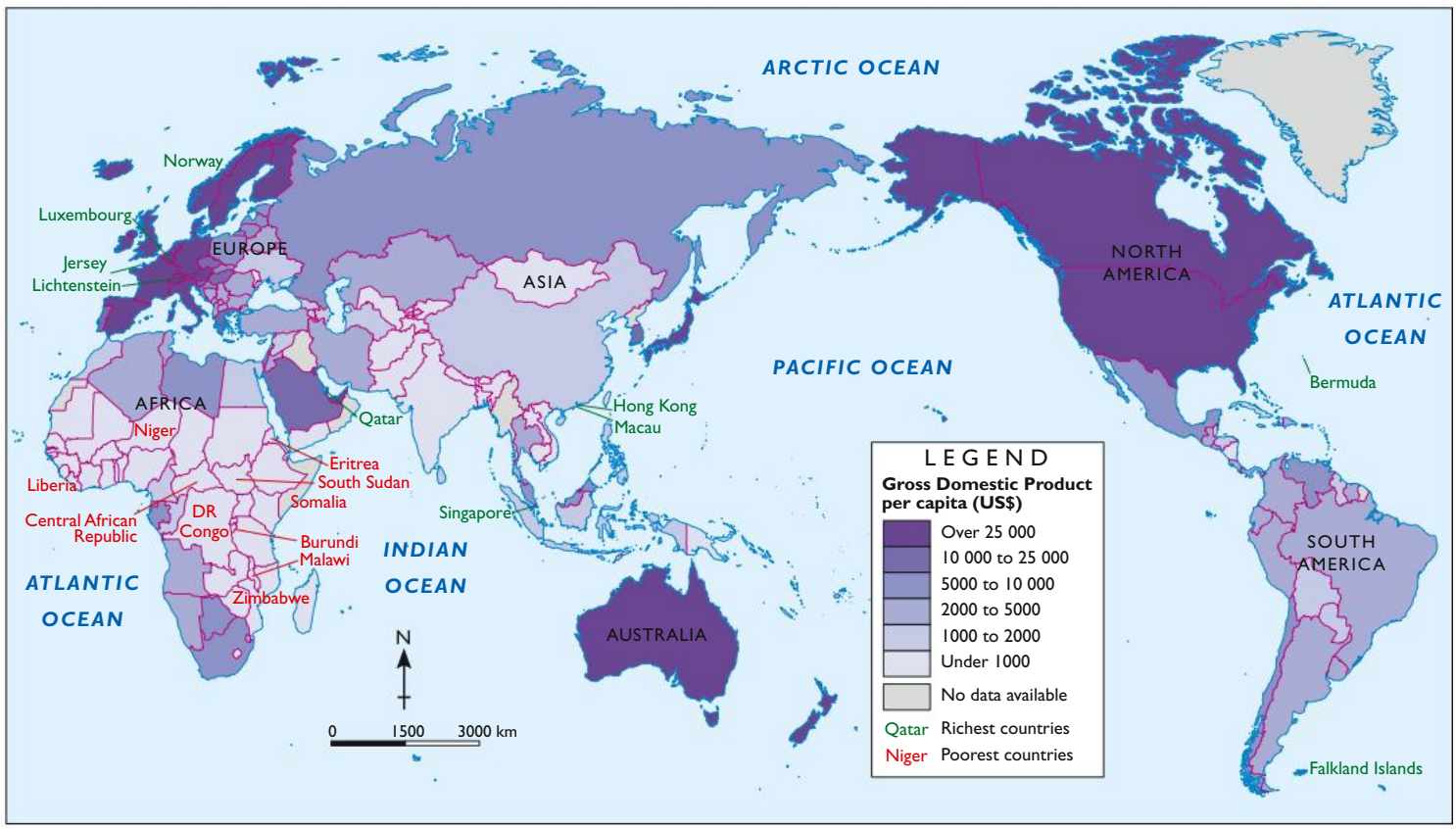
A country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is one way to measure wealth. This is done by calculating the size of its economy by adding the total value of all goods and services produced during a year. To make meaningful comparisons between countries, the total GDP is divided by the size of the population to produce a measure known as GDP per capita. Source 3.13 shows the GDP of countries worldwide, together with a listing of the world's 10 richest countries and the world's 10 poorest countries.

In 2012, the GDP per capita of Qatar, the world's richest country, was $103 900 and the GDP per capita of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the world's poorest country, was $272. Australia's GDP was $42 000. (All these figures are given in US dollars.)



Source 3.14 A graph of the world's wealth distribution, 2011, known as the 'champagne glass distribution' because of its shape

WORLD: GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT SHOWING RICHEST AND POOREST



Source 3.13

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 3.15 Indian and Nepalese window-washers abseil down a skyscraper in Doha, the capital city of Qatar.

Case study: levels of wealth in Qatar

As mentioned, the residents of Qatar are, on average, the wealthiest people on Earth. Its two million people earn an average of US$103 900 each year (compared with the global average of US$12 500). Qatar is a tiny country (slightly smaller than the Sydney metropolitan area) with vast reserves of oil and gas. The wealth generated from developing and exporting these resources has been used to increase the state of wellbeing for many Qatari residents. The country boasts one of the world's best healthcare systems, while water, gas, electricity and even food are partially paid for by the state. The employment opportunities in Qatar attract many migrants from other Middle Eastern countries as well as from South and South-East Asia, particularly India, Nepal and the Philippines. More than half of the population is made up of foreign workers (the highest migration rate in the world).

Check your learning 3.5

Remember and understand

1 Where are the world's ten poorest countries?

2 Examine Source 3.15. Why do you think these men have travelled from Nepal to Doha to do this work?

Apply and analyse

3 When GDP per capita is calculated, small countries with a low population are often at an advantage over countries with large populations. Explain why this is the case.

4 Examine Source 3.13. In a carefully worded paragraph, describe the global distribution of wealth using the PQE method. For more information on the PQE method, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'. Refer to specific regions and countries in your description.

5 Describe the pattern of wealth distribution as shown in Source 3.14.

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct some extra research on the Internet to complete the following task.

- a Brainstorm the factors that might help to explain why global wealth is so unevenly distributed. Why are people in some countries such as Qatar, the USA and Australia wealthy while people in other places are not?
- b Try to think of as many reasons as you can and then classify them into groups of factors. Decide on headings for these groups.

Living in poverty

In 2000, the United Nations set several wellbeing targets that they aimed to meet by 2015. These targets became known as the Millennium Development Goals. The first of these was to eradicate extreme hunger and poverty by halving the proportion of people living on less than US$1.25 a day (known as the 'poverty line'). The 'poverty line' is the estimated minimum income needed per day in a particular country to secure the necessities of life. The target was met five years early, due largely to the economic development of countries with large populations such as Brazil, China and India. This meant that a lot fewer people were living in extreme poverty than in the past. This, of course, is great news but this improvement in wellbeing was not felt in all of the world's countries.

In the countries of Africa that lie south of the Sahara Desert (a region known as Sub-Saharan Africa), almost half of the population lives on less than US$1.25 a day. While this proportion has decreased over the last few decades, it still leaves 420 million people living in absolute poverty. Almost 60 million of these live in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), the world's poorest country.

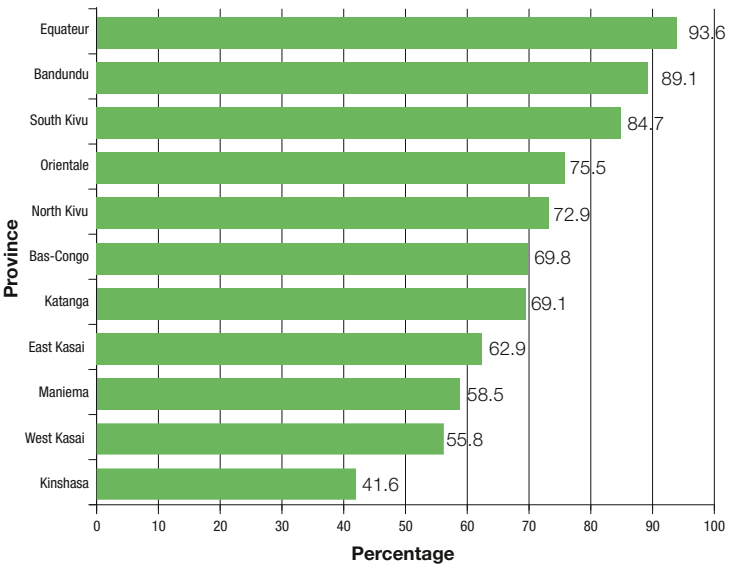
Case study: Wellbeing in the Democratic Republic of the Congo



Source 3.16 Gold mining in the DRC is hard, back-breaking work with little hope of personal gain. For many people in rural areas, however, it provides one of the only opportunities for on-going work. Up to 150 000 mines dot the landscape in the Ituri district of the Orientale province. Gold is seen by many as a road to wealth and worth fighting for. This has resulted in armed conflict in the Ituri district. It is also taking workers away from farming, leaving the country without enough food to feed its people.



Source 3.17 The capital of the DRC is Kinshasa. Kinshasa's population is expected to top 10 million within the next year or so when the city will become the world's newest megacity. Migrants from rural areas and a high birth rate have swelled the number of people in the city. Many of the city's residents live in slums such as this one in the city's east.



Source 3.18 The percentage of the population of the Democratic Republic of the Congo living in poverty, by province, 2005.

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO



Source 3.19

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 3.6

Remember and understand

1 What is meant by the term 'poverty line'?

2 What are the Millennium Development Goals?

Apply and analyse

3 Use Sources 3.18 to 3.19 to examine and describe the relationships in the DRC between:

- a conflict and poverty
- b mineral deposits and poverty
- c city living and poverty.

4 Access the indicators of wealth for Qatar and the DRC in the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515. Use these to write five statements comparing the wealth of the people living in these countries.

Evaluate and create

5 Trace an outline map of the DRC including the province borders. Use the data in Source 3.19 to construct a choropleth map of poverty in each province.

6 Describe the pattern of poverty within the DRC using the PQE method. Use the names of specific places in your description.

Contrasts in health

In some countries, people struggle to obtain the most basic health care services and doctors work in hospitals that are old and poorly equipped. In other countries, hospitals have state-of-the-art facilities and access to the newest treatments and drugs. While it is easy to see how unevenly distributed health services are worldwide, the level of health and its contribution to the wellbeing of a community or country is a complex concept. There are many other variables that can affect the health of people, including diet and other lifestyle factors.

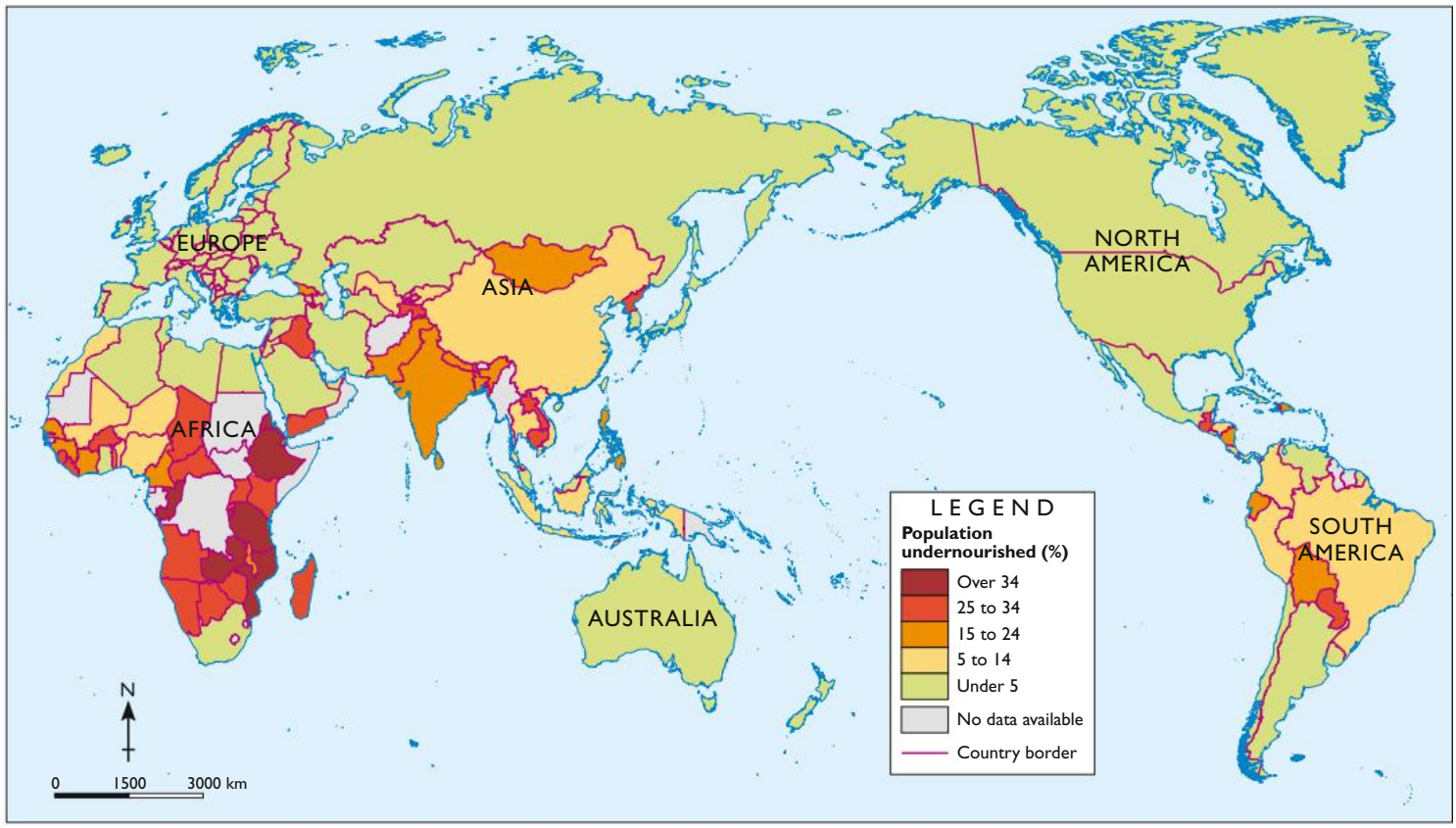
For these reasons, geographers rely on indicators of health such as **life expectancy** and the infant mortality rates to measure and compare the health of individuals within countries. Other indicators such as the number of doctors per 1000 people and access to reliable water can also be used to examine the reasons why health differs between countries.

Thirst and hunger

The greatest threat to good health in the world today is hunger. The simplest way to improve the health of people around the world is to provide them all with enough clean water to drink and enough food to eat. One in eight people worldwide are undernourished, making them more susceptible to disease, less productive in their work and more likely to die young. Hunger is often the result of a range of factors including conflict, natural disaster, poverty and environmental degradation.

Dirty water causes health problems as well, including diarrhoea, and carries diseases such as cholera and typhoid. Around 780 million people around the world do not have access to clean water, and 345 million of these live in Africa. The importance of clean water cannot be under-estimated. More than 3.4 million people die each year from diseases caused by dirty water or a lack of sanitation, including thousands of children every day.

WORLD: HUNGER LEVELS 2012

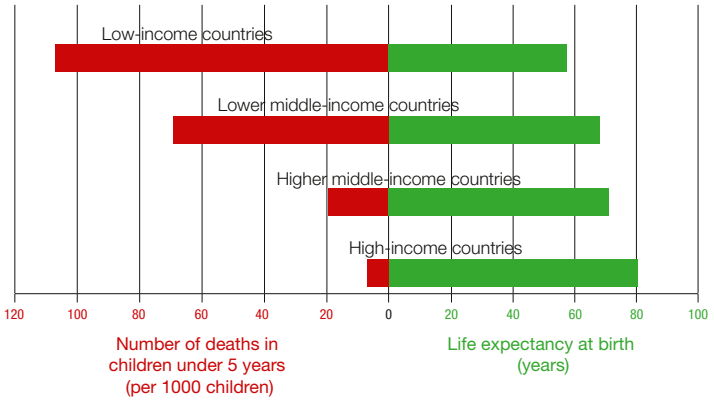


Source 3.20

Source: Oxford University Press

Life expectancy

Life expectancy is the average number of years that a person can expect to live. For people in developing countries, life expectancy is generally shorter than for people in developed countries. A child born in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2013, for example, can expect to live for 55 years, while a child born on the same day in the USA can expect to live for 79 years – 24 years longer. The lower life expectancy in Sub-Saharan Africa is due to a wide range of factors including the presence of diseases such as malaria and HIV AIDS, poor water and **food security** and poor access to health care. Source 3.21 clearly shows the relationship between the wealth of a country and the life expectancy of its citizens.



Source 3.21 The links between a country's wealth, child deaths and life expectancy

Infant mortality

In the same way that life expectancy varies greatly between the developing and the developed world, **infant mortality** rates (the proportion of children who die in their first year) are also strikingly different (see Source 3.21). A child born today in Sub-Saharan Africa is 12 times more likely to die in their first year of life than a child born in the USA.

Studies of infant mortality in developing countries have discovered some specific factors that put children at higher levels of risk. Children and their mothers are much more vulnerable in rural areas than in cities. Women in cities tend to give birth in hospitals and health clinics, while women in rural areas often give birth at home without a nurse or doctor present. Children born to educated mothers, even those with only a primary school level of education, also have a higher survival rate. In some regions survival rates can be up to three times greater than for children of uneducated mothers.



Source 3.22 Mali, a country in West Africa, has one of the highest infant mortality rates in the world. Vaccinations against disease and more clinics for mothers and children are seen as crucial steps in lowering this rate.

Check your learning 3.7

Remember and understand

1 In your own words, explain the links between poverty and indicators of health like life expectancy and infant mortality.

2 What are some of the effects of hunger?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.20.

- a In which regions of the world are more than 95 per cent of the population well nourished?
- b In which regions of the world are more than 25 per cent undernourished?
- c Compare this map with other world maps in this chapter. What links can you find between hunger and other factors such as Gross Domestic Product (Source 3.13) and literacy rates?

4 Using the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515, compare the life expectancies of people born in two different regions of the world – one developed and one developing. Compare average life expectancy in these regions with infant mortality. What pattern do you notice when comparing these two figures?

Evaluate and create

5 Use information from your own research on the Internet to complete the following task.

- a One of the Millennium Development Goals is to reduce the infant mortality rate by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015. By 2010, it had fallen by one-third. Research how this was achieved and suggest changes that could be made to reach the goal by 2015.

The Sub-Saharan HIV epidemic

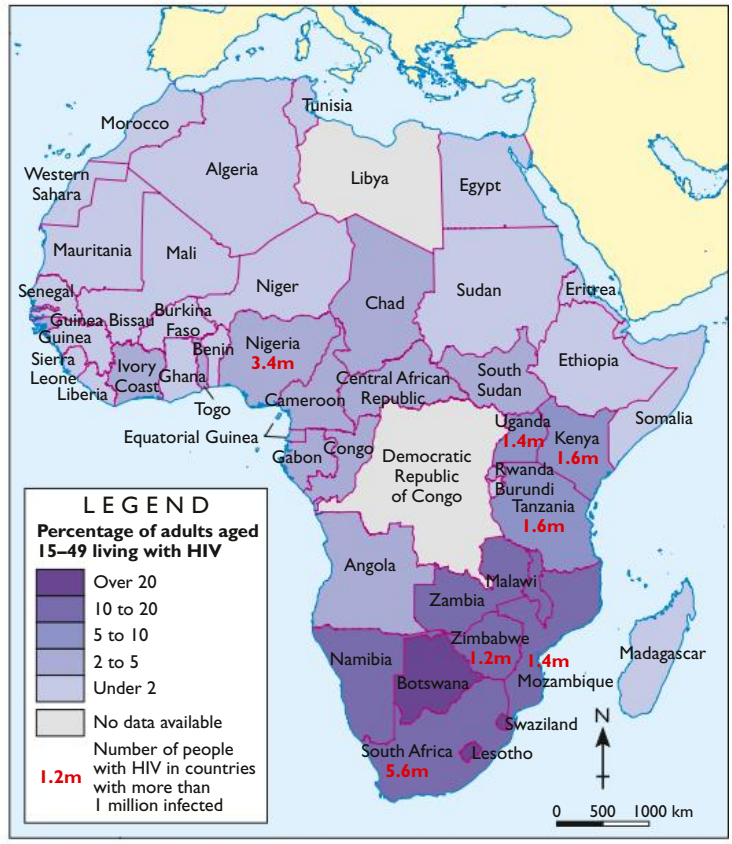
One of the most serious health challenges facing individuals and communities in developing countries is the spread of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) which can lead to Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS). HIV is a virus that attacks the body's immune system and makes people highly susceptible to infections. As the body is unable to fight these infections, common illnesses become life-threatening. About 34 million people are living with HIV worldwide. Sixty-nine per cent of these people are in Sub-Saharan Africa where almost one in 20 adults has the virus (see Source 3.24).

HIV is a contagious disease spread through contact with blood, most commonly through poor health practices such as sharing intravenous needles and having unprotected sex. Perhaps most tragically, unborn children can contract the virus from their mothers and newborns can contract it through breastfeeding. Over 300 000 children per year become infected with HIV from their mothers. Treating pregnant women who are HIV positive with suitable medicines is seen as the frontline in the battle to reduce and eventually eliminate HIV.



Source 3.23 Mourning her eighth child to die from HIV-related illnesses, an 80-year-old Uganda woman is left to care for her surviving three grandchildren.

AFRICA: ADULTS LIVING WITH HIV



Source 3.24 Source: Oxford University Press

The impacts of HIV/AIDS

The spread of HIV among populations in Africa is having devastating impacts on communities. These include:

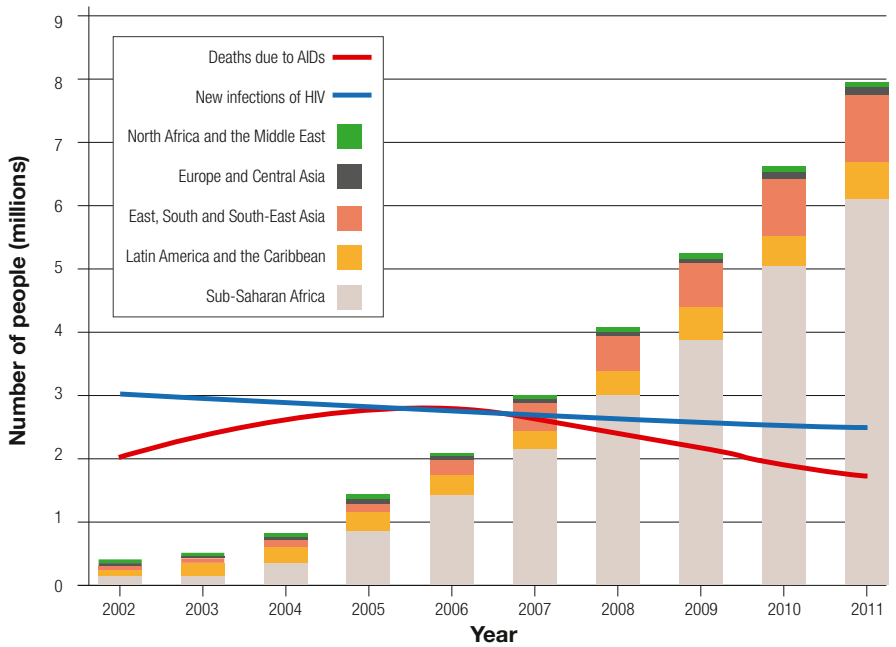
- impacts on population – the loss of life among age groups that would usually be at their most productive; lower life expectancy across the population as a whole; and the slowing of population growth.
- impacts on families and households – the loss of income and cost of caring for infected family members has increased poverty levels; families face discrimination and social stigma; loss of parents has left increasing numbers of orphans and single-parent families or resulted in an increased burden on extended family.
- impacts on food security – the loss of workers on farms has affected productivity leading to reduced farm output and subsequent food shortages.

- impacts on health care – greater demands placed on healthcare systems, with increased strains on doctors, nurses, hospitals and pharmacies often in areas already under stress; the death of healthcare workers; funds needed to treat other diseases are being diverted to treat HIV patients.
- impacts on education – the death of teachers; fall in attendance by children caring for ill parents or replacing them in the workforce; loss of income makes it harder to pay school fees.
- impacts on the economy – the strain on the national economy from increased health costs and a fall in GDP increases income inequalities and poverty; loss of 'human capital' such as skilled and educated young people.

HIV health programs

The United Nations has embarked on an ambitious program to reduce and even eliminate HIV/AIDS. The program is called 'Getting to Zero' and lists as its main targets zero new HIV infections, zero discrimination against those with the virus and zero AIDS-related deaths. There are a large number of projects that have proven effective in reducing HIV, in particular the use of new drugs (known as antiretroviral therapy) for those with the infection. For those without the infection, education programs aimed at preventing future infections have been very effective.

In recent years, the number of people who have been newly infected with the virus has fallen. In Sub-Saharan Africa, for example, new infections fell from a peak of 2.4 million in 2001 to 1.8 million in 2011. Along with this decline has come a fall in the number of people dying from HIV-related illnesses. This is largely due to the greater availability of medicines for low- and middle-income households, particularly in developing countries (see Source 3.25). Studies show that successful treatment of the virus is often followed by improved economic conditions in these countries.



Source 3.25 Number of people receiving HIV therapy in low- and middle-wealth regions of the world, 2002–2011

Check your learning 3.8

Remember and understand

1 What is HIV?

2 Examine Source 3.23. Describe what has happened to her family. What do you think she is feeling? How do you feel about her situation?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.25.
- a Describe the general trend in the treatment of HIV on a global scale.
- b In which regions of the world has the number of people receiving treatment grown most quickly?
- c What do you see as some of the barriers to infected people receiving treatment? How could these barriers be overcome?
- d Describe and account for the trend in AIDS deaths in these regions since 2002.

4 Examine Source 3.24.
- a Which country in Africa has the greatest percentage of adults living with HIV?
- b Which country has the greatest number of people living with HIV?
- c Describe the general pattern of infection as shown on the map.

Evaluate and create

5 Classify the effects of HIV into impacts on individuals, impacts on communities and impacts on nations.

6 Select an African country with high rates of HIV infection as shown in Source 3.24.
- a Refer to the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 for more information on this country. Use this data to describe other indicators of wellbeing there.
- b Use your research skills to investigate the health situation in this country. In your research, focus on rates of HIV infection and find out if they are increasing or decreasing.

Contrasts in education

Education provides much more than the opportunity to read, write and count. It is seen by many international aid agencies and experts in the field as the key to helping people, communities and nations lift themselves out of poverty. Education provides individuals with opportunities to become more engaged with society, to have a range of skills and tools to better care for themselves and their children, to participate in the workforce and improve their country's economy, to live healthier lives, to combat poverty and to reduce inequalities in wellbeing.

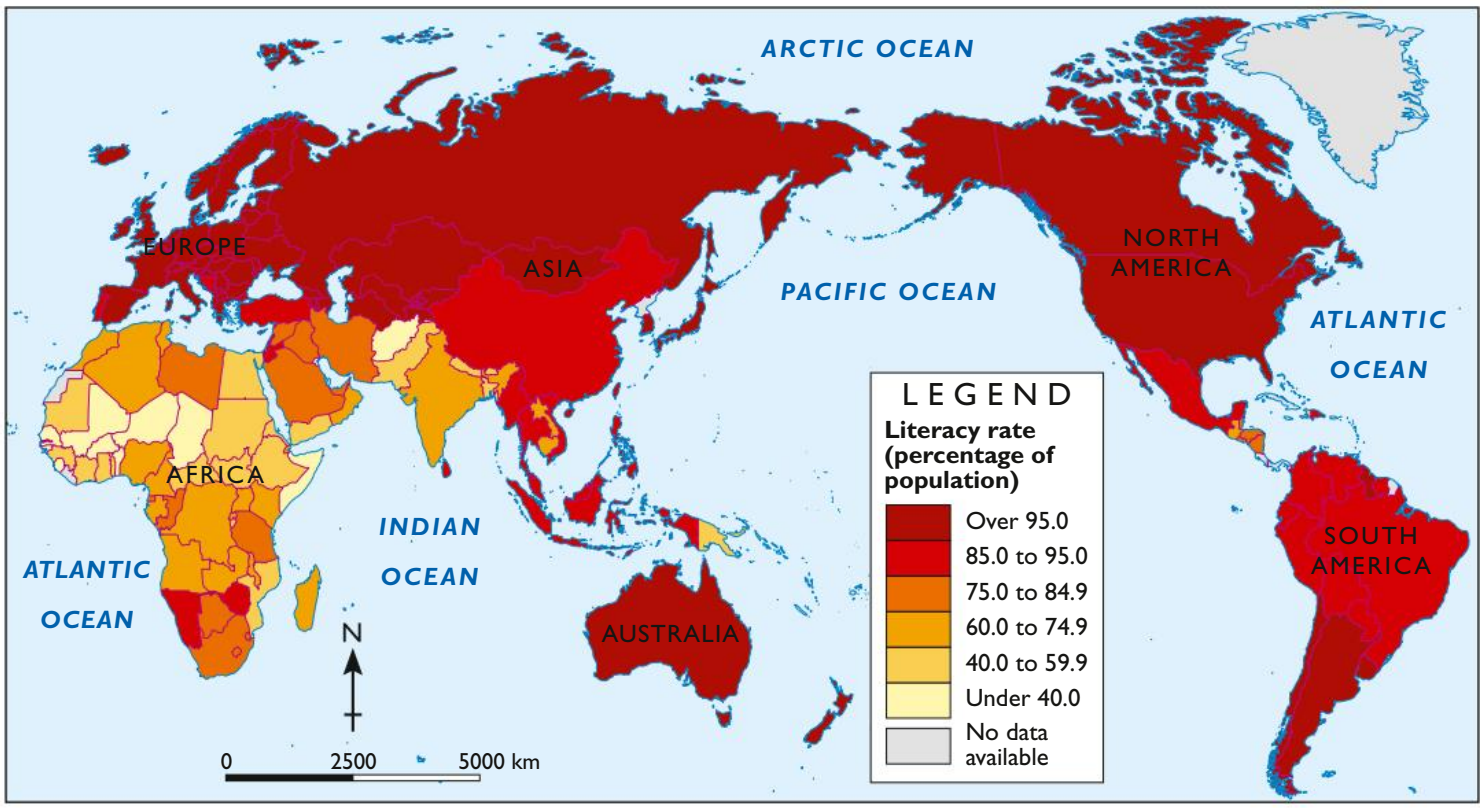
Literacy rates

Literacy rates measure the percentage of adults who can read and write and are often used as an indicator of education levels within countries. Literacy rates can be difficult to calculate, however, as many countries do not keep accurate data. It is also important to be aware of potential variations in literacy within countries. In many countries, for example, people in rural areas have lower literacy levels than city dwellers. In other countries, girls are not given the same educational opportunities as boys.



Source 3.27 Between 1999 and 2010, the percentage of Sub-Saharan African children attending school rose from 58 per cent to 76 per cent. Despite this remarkable improvement, 33 million children receive no schooling.

WORLD: LITERACY RATES



Source 3.26

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 3.28 Eritrea has one of the world's lowest primary school enrolment rates. This is due to a number of factors, including school fees, poor infrastructure and the role of many children as workers on subsistence farms.

Barriers to successful education

Access to education varies widely across the globe. In developed countries such as Australia, Britain, Germany and France, about 99 per cent of all school-aged children are enrolled in schools. In developing countries such as Mali, Ethiopia and Niger, it is only 90 per cent. While the enrolment rate has improved markedly over the last two decades, a 90 per cent participation rate means that 61 million children of primary school age are not receiving an education. More than half of these children are in Sub-Saharan Africa. A further one-fifth are in South Asia.

There are many factors that determine whether or not a child will attend school. These include:

- system barriers – such as a lack of trained teachers, classrooms and educational materials including books
- attendance barriers – such as school fees, distance to school, poor transport networks and the concern of many parents about the safety of their children. Many children also work to help support their families.
- social barriers – such as variations in language, religion and conflict within countries. Conflict is one of the greatest barriers with children in war-torn nations such Somalia and Syria much less likely to attend school.

Check your learning 3.9

Remember and understand

1 Why do you think Sub-Saharan African children are less likely to attend school than children in other regions of the world?

2 List three social barriers that may determine whether or not a child attends school.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.28. Who do you think has painted this sign on the school wall? What is the purpose of this sign?

4 Compare Source 3.26, the world map of literacy levels, with Source 3.13, the world map of Gross Domestic Product. Comment on the relationships you see between these two indicators.

5 What is the literacy rate in Eritrea (refer to the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515)? Compare this with the literacy rate in Australia. Suggest reasons to account for the differences in literacy between these two countries.

Evaluate and create

6 Which of the barriers to education discussed here do you think would be the most difficult to overcome? Give some reasons for your answer.

7 In a small team, develop some strategies to help communities overcome one or more of the barriers to education. Share your strategies with the class.

Global obesity epidemic

As you have learnt, many people around the globe face chronic food shortages and hunger. However, one of the fastest growing public health crises in many countries is obesity. Once only a problem in developed countries, obesity has now spread to developing nations such as Mexico, China, India and Brazil. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that more than 1.4 billion people in these countries are overweight and 500 million of these are obese.

Excessive body weight and obesity are linked to health problems such as heart disease, stroke, arthritis, diabetes and some cancers. Obesity is a leading cause of premature death in many countries and a huge burden on public health resources. It has become such a serious issue that many experts now describe it as the global obesity epidemic.



Source 3.29 'Global threat waiting room'

skill**drill**

Developing geographical questions from media reports

Much of our understanding about events and trends happening around the world comes to us through media reports. These reports can take the form of printed media such as newspapers and magazines, electronic media such as television and radio reports, or new media such as the Internet and mobile phones. News has never been more accessible and plentiful than it is right now. By learning a few simple techniques you can use the news to generate geographical questions to guide your inquiries.

Step 1 Check the source of the news article for reliability and possible bias. Find out who wrote the article and the news organisation that published it. Mainstream media organisations are generally more reliable than smaller ones but this may not always be the case. If possible, use the news company website to investigate possible bias.

Step 2 Work out what type of report you are watching, reading or hearing. Is the information presented being reported as fact or is it an opinion piece? Both are valuable but it is important to know the difference.

Step 3 What is the reporter's main contention or key point? State this in your own words.

Step 4 What information and arguments are used to support the reporter's contention?

Step 5 What evidence does the reporter use to support these arguments? What is the source of this evidence?

Step 6 Look closely at any images or graphics that are included in the report. How do they help to support the reporter's contention and arguments?

Step 7 What further questions does this article raise for you? Good geographical questions open up new lines of inquiry for you to explore. Try using question starters such as 'How many', 'Where does', 'Why does', 'Who is affected', 'What changes does' and 'How should people'.

Apply the skill

1 Use the steps provided to analyse and develop questions about Source 3.30, 'Obesity epidemic spreads to developing world'.

2 Share your geographical questions with your classmates and build up a class list of questions.

Source 3.30 Media report 'Obesity epidemic spreads to developing world' from ABC News, 24 July 2012.



Obesity epidemic spreads to developing world

The world is getting very fat, very fast and now the obesity epidemic has spread from rich countries to poor and developing countries. It is likely 1 billion people will be obese by 2030.

Fat is being called the new tobacco.

Body weight is not just about vanity, it is about life and death, with obesity increasing the risk of heart disease, type-2 diabetes and some forms of cancer.

So how and why did the problem of obesity explode in places that, not so long ago, counted malnutrition and even famine as major health concerns?

Well it's about increasing wealth, changing diets, genetic programming and aggressive marketing by international food companies.

The most perplexing problem in emerging economies is how they are going to deal with a tidal wave of obesity with relatively scant health resources.

We've canvassed opinion from notable authorities on diet, nutrition and fat issues, and met people in these countries struggling with the consequences of obesity.

It's an eye-opening, sometimes shocking journey.

First stop: Mexico. The biggest killer here is diabetes. In the past 30 years this country has gone from dealing with widespread malnutrition to coping with two thirds of the population growing overweight or obese. One of the main culprits is the super-pervasive spread of soft drinks: Mexicans drink more carbonated beverages per head of population than anyone else in the world. In a country where running water isn't guaranteed and bottled water is expensive, these soft drinks have become a daily dietary staple for everyone from infants to the elderly.

Next is Brazil, where global food giants are moving into every corner of the country, from the big cities to the remote reaches of the Amazon to sell their highly processed products readily and cheaply. Profits and market share are soaring and so is obesity, with another 1 percentage point of Brazil's population joining the ranks of the obese every year.

In India, as incomes have risen so too has weight. But the effects here are even more dramatic than elsewhere because the Indian body type magnifies the effects of obesity. Many have a genetic predisposition to diabetes and heart disease. The situation is so dire that health experts warn a staggering one in two babies born in India today will get type-2 diabetes, delivering future generations the real possibility of widespread disability and early death. India is bracing for an estimated 100 million type-2 diabetes patients.

The final stop on our Globesity tour is China – where the rapid transformation of the economy has been mirrored by massive changes to the consumption of food. Not just the sort of things Chinese are eating but the way they eat. Snacking was a rarity not so long ago. Now it abounds. Thirty years ago the Chinese ate only small amounts of sugar and oil – today they are a big part of the diet and a big part of the reason more and more Chinese are getting bigger and bigger.

Extend your understanding

1 Look closely at Source 3.29. What point is the cartoonist making about obesity?

2 Select one of the geographic questions from the class analysis of the article, 'Obesity epidemic spreads to developing world'. Use this as a starting point for research into the global obesity epidemic. Report back to the class on what you find during your research.

3.2 How does wellbeing vary within countries?

Variations in wellbeing within India

Within every country, access to wealth, health care and education varies between states or regions, between different ethnic groups and between rural and urban populations. In the same way that they can compare the wellbeing of one country with another, geographers can also take a detailed look within a country to investigate the variations in wellbeing that exist.

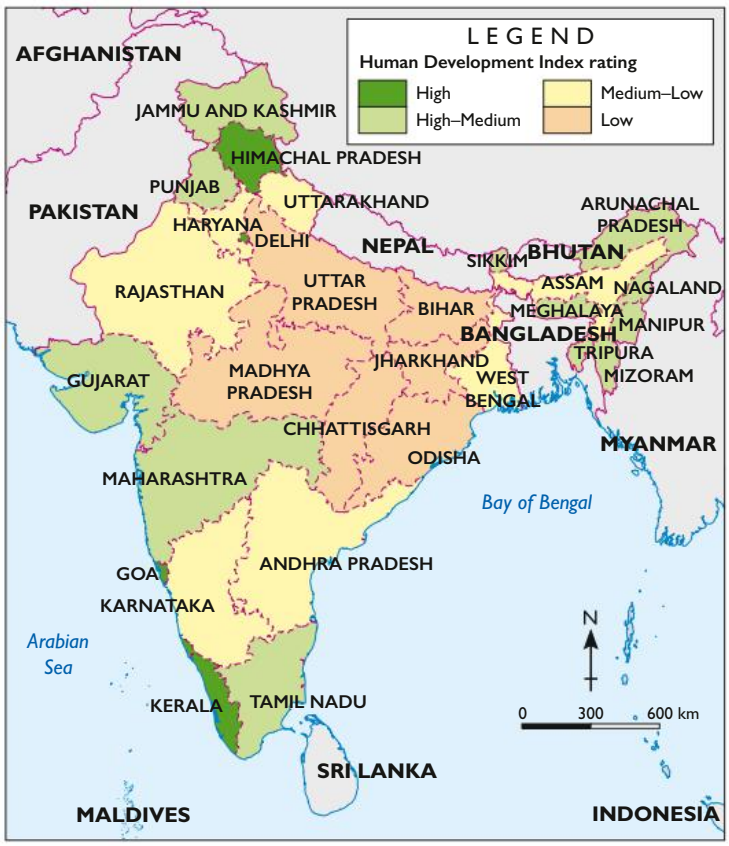
India is a vast, complex and dynamic nation. Its population currently stands at more than 1.2 billion and is growing by about 16 million people a year. It is estimated that India will overtake China as the world's most populous nation by 2030, a position it is unlikely to lose for centuries. As with all nations, there are tremendous variations in wellbeing within India. At one end of society, there are hundreds of millions of poor, subsistence farmers growing just enough food to feed their families. At the other end, there are around 164 000 entrepreneurs and business people classed as super-rich. This means they have investable assets worth more than US$1 million each.

India also has one of the world's largest middle classes, estimated to be about 250 million people.

India is divided up into many different states and union territories. Source 3.31 shows the range of rankings for these states and territories under the Human Development Index (HDI).

By looking at two states in particular, Kerala and Chhattisgarh, the states with India's highest and lowest rankings in human development respectively, we can see the great contrasts in wellbeing that exist within India.

INDIA: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX FOR DIFFERENT STATES, 2008



Source 3.31 Source: Oxford University Press

Source 3.32 Wellbeing indicators for the states of Kerala and Chhattisgarh, and India (total)

Indicator	Kerala	Chhattisgarh	India
People living in poverty	15%	40.9%	27.5%
Under 5 mortality rate	16.3/1000	90.3/1000	74.3/1000
Underweight children	22.9%	47.1%	42.5%
Literacy rate	93.9%	71%	72%
Houses with no toilet	4.3%	72.9%	49.2%

Wellbeing in Kerala

The south-west state of Kerala is ranked as the having the highest HDI in India. The state has the lowest level of poverty, the highest literacy rates, the lowest population growth rates and the fastest economic growth in the country. In many ways, the state compares favourably with wellbeing in many developed countries.

There are several factors responsible for this comparatively high level of wellbeing. More than 2.5 million people from the state live and work in the countries of the Persian Gulf such as Qatar (see Source 3.15) and each year they send home a combined income of US$6.81 billion. This means their families can afford education and health services. The state was also one of the first to change its laws so that individual farmers can own land, increasing their incentives to make a profit. Fertile soils and a favourable climate also help to boost agricultural production (see Source 3.33).

Tourism is Kerala's biggest industry, with its attractive backwaters (a chain of lagoons and lakes) and sandy beaches making it popular with tourists.

Wellbeing in Chhattisgarh

The north-east state of Chhattisgarh is ranked as having the lowest HDI in India. The state is two-thirds rural and relatively undeveloped, though it is rich in minerals and has good electricity, steel and cement industries. Forty-five per cent of the population is made up of tribal groups and ethnic minorities, often living in remote forested areas.

It has one of the highest rates of poverty and the greatest percentage of undernourished children in the country and high population growth. Schools experience very high dropout rates in Chhattisgarh, particularly in rural areas where children are often needed to work on family farms. People living in the more remote areas of the state often have difficulty accessing opportunities to improve wellbeing such as government aid and medical services. Chhattisgarh has also had its share of social unrest. A large part of Chhattisgarh is under the control of a group known as the Naxalites (see Source 3.34). This conflict has disrupted economic and social progress in the area.



Source 3.33 A busy market in Kerala. Markets such as this allow people in the city to get fresh food from rural areas quickly and easily.



Source 3.34 An armed Naxalite rebel rides past a boy carrying a bow and arrow in the Indian state of Chhattisgarh.

Check your learning 3.10

Remember and understand

1 Make a list of the various factors affecting wellbeing across India.

2 Make a list of the reasons that make it difficult to improve wellbeing in Chhattisgarh.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.31. Describe the pattern of wellbeing in India according to the Human Development Index. Use the names of specific states as well as compass directions in your description.

4 Why are there large variations in wellbeing within India? Use the examples of Kerala and Chhattisgarh in your response.

Evaluate and create

5 Use Source 3.32 to construct a multiple bar graph contrasting wellbeing in Kerala, Chhattisgarh and India (total). Describe the pattern evident in your completed graph.

India's rural–urban divide

India has the largest number of people living in poverty in the world. With almost half a billion people living below the poverty line of US$1.25 a day, the country is home to one-third of the world's poor. This poverty is unevenly spread across the country, with significant inequalities in wellbeing between rural and urban areas. People in rural areas are almost twice as likely to be living below the poverty line than people living in urban areas.

As India embarks on a path of economic and social change this gap is narrowing, but there is still some way to go before equality is attained. Source 3.35 shows some of the key indicators of the rural–urban divide or what some researchers have called 'A Tale of Two Indias':

Source 3.35 Differences in wellbeing between urban and rural India

Key wellbeing indicator	Urban India	Rural India
Population size	402 314 697	818 485 662
Average years of education	7.65	3.94
Total spending per month	1984 rupees	1054 rupees
Improved drinking water access	96%	84%
Improved sanitation access	54%	21%
Skilled medical staff present at birth	76%	44%
Underweight children under 5	33%	46%
Living below poverty line	26%	42%



Source 3.36 A young girl collecting dried cow dung to be used as cooking fuel in a rural village in the state of Uttar Pradesh. The state is home to more rural poor than any other in India.

Wellbeing in rural India

India is largely a nation of farmers and rural villagers; well over half of the population lives in settlements of no more than 5000 people. For many of these people, life is hard and standards of living are low when compared to people living in urban areas. Indian rural poverty is the result of a range of factors that differ from place to place. These include low food production levels leading to malnutrition; poor infrastructure such as roads, electricity and communication networks; ineffective safety-net programs such as job schemes; and poor access to financial resources such as bank loans and credit. Farmers are also at the mercy of nature. Droughts, floods and widespread land degradation have all contributed to rural poverty.

Poverty is greatest among minority ethnic groups (particularly in degraded forest areas) and marginalised classes of people such as Dalits (also known as untouchables) who make up the lowest class in Indian society according to the Hindu caste system. In communities where coastal fishing is the main source of food, poverty is increasing because overfishing and marine degradation have greatly reduced fish stocks.

Wellbeing in urban India

India is home to some of the world's largest and fastest growing cities. The country has 46 cities of more than 1 million people and three of the world's megacities (i.e. Kolkata, Mumbai and Delhi). Those living in urban areas have greater access to health care which has led to fewer infant deaths and better health in early childhood. Children in urban areas on average also spend more time at school, and achieve a higher level of education. These cities are home to much of the nation's wealth as new opportunities in service industries such as banking and information technology have emerged. These opportunities have led to a growing middle class which has in turn led to improved infrastructure in the cities.



Source 3.37 New apartments rise above an urban slum in Mumbai, India's largest city.

key**concept:** place

India's urban slums

Many people in India respond to the inequalities in wellbeing between rural and urban areas by moving from the countryside to the city. Millions of Indians from rural areas have poured into the country's booming cities hoping to leave poverty behind as they seek a better life in the city. The reality for many, however, is that they exchange rural poverty for urban poverty (see Source 3.37).

For geographers this relates to the concept of place as these people establish new homes in new areas. The new arrivals from the countryside often take up residence in slum areas on land that is considered unsuitable for ordinary housing, often because it is swampy or prone to landslides. Indian cities now contain some of the world's largest slums. Residents build their own homes out of discarded materials and live with the constant fear of eviction as they have no legal right to be there.

Many Indian cities are struggling to provide their citizens with the infrastructure needed for wellbeing such as fresh water, sanitation, reliable access to electricity, schools, roads and hospitals. But it is not all bad news. Packed with people determined to improve their lives and their communities, many slums have become so well established that their infrastructure is often close to the standard in other parts of the city, and usually better than in rural areas.

The biggest struggle for many slum areas, however, is the provision of adequate sanitation. Most homes in the slums do not have a toilet, and the toilets that do exist are often an open pit shared by hundreds of people. While many amenities are often organised and run by the slum dwellers themselves, they rely on city authorities to provide proper sewage disposal. Because the slums are considered to be illegal settlements, authorities are reluctant to invest in sanitation for them.

For more information on the key concept of place, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

Source 3.38 Access to amenities in slum and non-slum urban households across a selection of Indian cities

City	Tap water		Toilet		Electricity		Mobile phone	
(Percentage of households)	Slum	Non-slum	Slum	Non-slum	Slum	Non-slum	Slum	Non-slum
Ahmedabad	86.2	86.6	61.3	94.6	91.5	98.9	48.8	63.1
Bangalore	84.3	80.2	86.8	97.8	96.6	98.4	71.0	66.5
Chennai	78.2	83.7	91.0	97.4	98.4	99.3	70.0	59.2
Delhi	86.7	89.9	50.6	95.8	97.8	99.6	66.1	63.4
Kolkata	90.8	87.0	92.0	96.2	95.5	96.5	70.1	63.5
Greater Mumbai	96.1	97.3	32.8	75.1	95.6	98.3	76.6	53.5
Pune	98.8	98.4	35.8	90.6	96.2	98.9	73.4	62.0

Source: censusindia.gov.in

Check your learning 3.11

Remember and understand

1 Describe the differences in wellbeing between urban and rural areas in India.

Apply and analyse

2 Examine Source 3.38. Do the levels of amenities available in the slum and non-slum areas of these Indian cities surprise you? What health or safety issues might be a concern for residents with limited access to some of these amenities?

Evaluate and create

3 Conduct further research on the Internet to complete the following tasks.

a Compare the inequalities in wellbeing between urban non-slum India, urban slum India and rural India. Write a short report on your findings.

b Complete an annotated sketch of Source 3.37. On your sketch label any inequalities in wellbeing that you can identify.

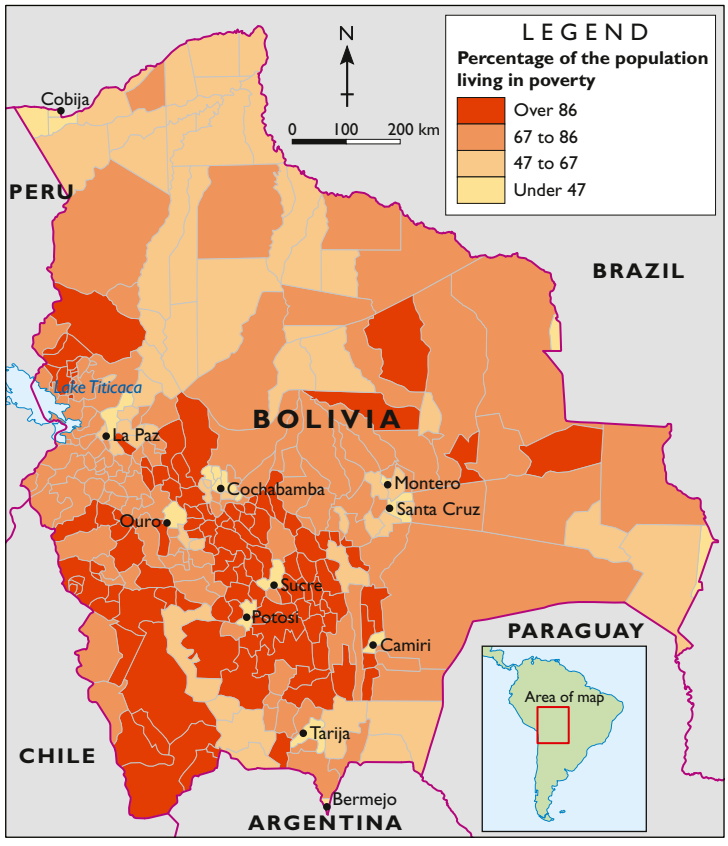
Wellbeing in Bolivia

By most measures, Bolivia has one of the lowest levels of wellbeing in South America. In the 2012 United Nations Human Development Report, Bolivia is ranked at number 108 in the world in terms of the Human Development Index (HDI). This places Bolivia in a group of countries described as having medium human development. Even so, 60 per cent of Bolivians live below the poverty line, and more than half of these people are described as living in extreme poverty.

Patterns of poverty

Taking a more detailed look at Bolivia's poor, it becomes clear that people in some areas are more likely to be living in poverty than in other areas. As in India, poverty tends to be concentrated in rural areas, where two-thirds of the population is in extreme poverty. In these areas people grow just enough food to feed themselves and their families, with little left to sell. Poverty is also higher among the Indigenous population. Source 3.39 shows the percentage of the population in each region of Bolivia living below the poverty line.

BOLIVIA: POPULATION LIVING BELOW THE POVERTY LINE



Source 3.39 Source: Oxford University Press

This poverty is due to a number of factors, including different levels of employment and availability of resources, varying quality of infrastructure such as roads, schools, hospitals and electricity and high levels of land degradation.

One of the ways in which Bolivians have responded to poverty is to migrate. The most common migration tends to be from rural areas to cities. This has led to a booming urban population and some of South America's largest slums.



Source 3.40 In rural Bolivia there tends to be low levels of technology, poor infrastructure such as roads, a lack of job opportunities, and less access to services such as schools, doctors and sanitation than in the nation's urban centres.



Source 3.41 Around one in five Bolivian children do not complete primary school

Many Bolivians also choose to leave their country and move to other countries, particularly Argentina. About one-quarter of all people born in Bolivia now live in another country. Today, Argentina is home to more than 1 million Bolivians.

Education

Bolivia spends almost one-quarter of its national income on education. This is one of the highest rates of education spending in Latin America. Despite this, about 1 million Bolivian adults are illiterate and approximately one in five children never complete primary school.

Most of the children who do not attend school live in rural areas where they are needed to work with their parents to help support their families. The result of this is that rural children do not gain the education and skills that could help pull their families out of poverty. Many Indigenous children also drop out of school due to language difficulties. They grow up speaking their Indigenous language but when they attend school all the classes are taught in Spanish.

Health

Many Bolivians face chronic health problems linked to food insecurity. Farm productivity in Bolivia is among the lowest in South America and is still declining in some regions. This is due to a wide range of environmental problems including land degradation, regular flooding and droughts, outdated farming technology and a lack of investment.

Poor harvests have led to widespread malnutrition and almost 5 million people struggle to meet their daily food requirements. Pregnant women and young children are the hardest hit by malnutrition, resulting in underweight children and iron deficiencies. Infant mortality rates are falling as health care gradually improves but they are still the highest in South America.

Rates of diseases such as tuberculosis, malaria and yellow fever are high. This can further lower farm productivity as ill farmers and workers are less able to work to produce food. HIV/AIDS rates are relatively low but increasing.



Source 3.42 These two boys are among the lucky few Bolivians in rural areas who have access to an improved water source.

Improvements to wellbeing

The Bolivian people and government are working hard to improve their wellbeing. The country has experienced times of political uncertainty and corrupt government but is now in a period of stability. This has encouraged aid organisations such as the World Bank and UNICEF to support the government in its efforts to implement reforms designed to improve wellbeing.

Helping the disadvantaged

Small **non-government organisations (NGOs)** are also making a difference in Bolivia. One example of this is the Foundation for Sustainable Development (FSD) that works with local community organisations in Cochabamba, a city in central Bolivia. FSD volunteers and interns help these organisations to improve health and education services, particularly for disadvantaged groups such as the rural poor, Indigenous people and women. Some examples of the initiatives supported by FSD include a literature and reading group for children and programs to combat malnutrition by training adults in health and cleanliness, nutrition, agriculture and microfinance.



Source 3.43 An example of an NGO project in Bolivia aimed at improving wellbeing through access to clean drinking water

key**concept:** scale

Life in Bolivia's cities

Variations in wellbeing can be observed at a range of scales including at the global, national, regional and local scale. An example of a global variation is the classifying of countries according to their level of economic development (see Source 3.13). National and regional variations can be seen in the map of poverty in Bolivia (Source 3.39). Local variations are those that occur in small areas such as individual suburbs and cities.

La Paz, Bolivia's capital city, has a population of about 2 364 000. The highest capital in the world, La Paz is a spectacular city sitting within a canyon on the Altiplano (also known as the Andean Plateau). Tall, modern office buildings crowd the city centre, while vast urban slums cling precariously to the mountain slopes on the city's edges (see Source 3.44). These slums are home to up to 1 million people, many of them migrants from the poverty-stricken countryside. About 42 per cent of La Paz's population lives below the poverty line.

For more information on the key concept of scale, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 3.44 La Paz valley showing the houses of the poor built on the hillsides and the central business district below

skilldrill

Creating multiple-line graphs

Multiple-line graphs are useful tools because they allow geographers to observe and compare changes in data over time. This enables geographers to more easily identify trends and changes in different sets of data gathered in different locations.

Step 1 Construct a set of axes. The years are placed on the horizontal *x*-axis. The years must be evenly spaced out; for example 1 centimetre for every five years. The data being graphed is placed on the vertical *y*-axis and should extend slightly higher than the highest figure being graphed. Once again, the scale must be even; for example 1 centimetre for every 10.

Step 2 Plot the first set of data with a series of small neat dots and join these with a smooth coloured line. Add a label at the end of the line describing the indicator you have graphed.

Step 3 Repeat step 2 for the remaining sets of data. Use a different colour for each line.

Step 4 Add a title and label each axis.

Apply the skill

1 Construct a multiple-line graph to show the changes in wellbeing in Bolivia between 1970 and 2010 using the selected key indicators listed in Source 3.45.

Source 3.45 Changes in wellbeing in Bolivia between 1970 and 2010 using selected key indicators

Key indicator	1970	1975	1976	1980	1985	1990	1992	1995	2000	2005	2010
Adult literacy (%)	—	—	63	—	—	—	79	—	86	—	91
Infant mortality rate per 1000 people	141	123	—	108	97	82	—	70	59	49	40
Life expectancy at birth	45	48	—	52	56	59	—	61	63	65	66
Urban population with clean water (%)	—	—	—	—	—	92	—	93	94	95	96
Rural population with clean water (%)	—	—	—	—	—	43	—	48	55	62	69
Urban population with sanitation (%)	—	—	—	—	—	28	—	30	31	33	35
Rural population with sanitation (%)	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	7	8	9	10

Check your learning 3.12

Remember and understand

1 Use the data in Source 3.45 to comment on the level of wellbeing in Bolivia from 1970 to 2010.
2 What are NGOs and what role do they play in Bolivia?
3 Why do people move from the countryside to the cities of Bolivia? What impact does this migration have on cities?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine the multiple-line graph you constructed in the skilldrill.
  a What general trend do you observe in this graph?
  b Comment on the inequalities in rural and urban wellbeing shown in your graph.
  c Comment on the usefulness of a multiple-line graph for showing the links between sets of data.
5 Examine Source 3.39.
  a Describe the pattern of poverty at the national scale.
  b Suggest a reason to explain the pattern you have described.

Evaluate and create

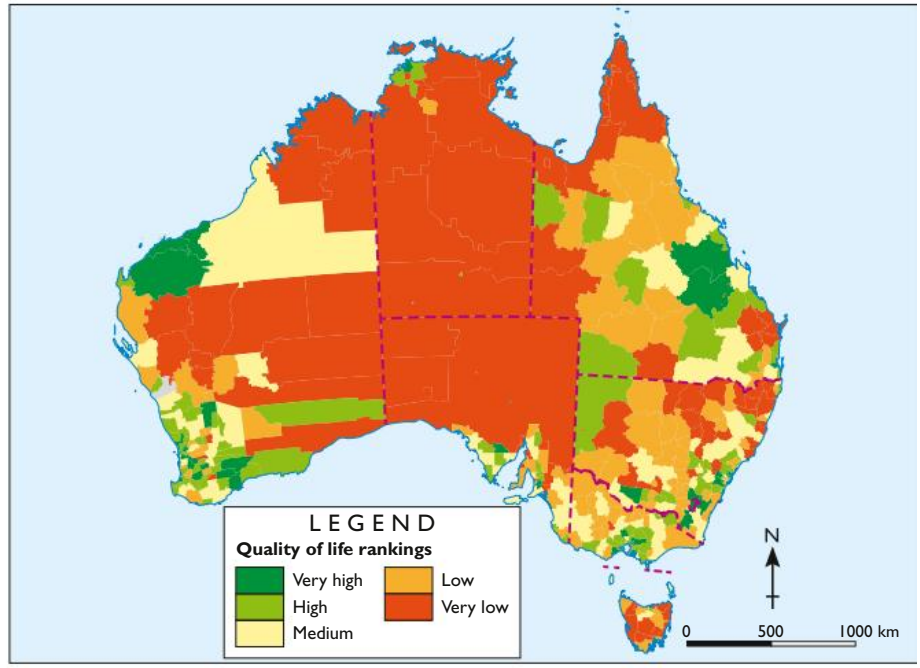
6 Use the photographs on these pages to describe inequalities in wellbeing in Bolivia. Which photograph best shows these inequalities? Write a caption for the photo you have chosen that briefly describes the situation.
7 Research one indicator, such as education, that contributes to Bolivia's level of wellbeing. Prepare an infographic that explains how it affects the wellbeing of the Bolivian people.

Wellbeing in Australia

Australia is one of the world's wealthiest nations on Earth. In the 2012 United Nations Human Development Report, Australia was placed second in the world in the Human Development Index (HDI) rankings. As with all countries, however, there are variations in wellbeing within Australia. Some places provide better access to reliable medical and educational facilities, a range of occupations and affordable housing. Other places have limited access to some or all of these services or facilities. These variations can be difficult to measure at a regional and local scale using common indicators such as life expectancy and literacy rates because these are generally measured at the national scale.

There are other sources of information, however, that can help geographers measure wellbeing at the regional and local scale. Australia's five-yearly census gives us a great deal of information about living in Australia, such as the areas with the highest and lowest quality of life (see Source 3.46).

AUSTRALIA: QUALITY OF LIFE RANKINGS BASED ON CENSUS DATA



Source 3.46 Source: Oxford University Press

A quality of life study

To create an index tracking living standards, in 2008 Bankwest (a bank based in Perth, Western Australia) conducted its own quality of life study. The study – known as the Bankwest Quality of Life Index – ranked 590 local government areas (LGAs) using indicators such as access to health, education and employment services, home ownership, house size, Internet access, income and rates of crime.

Highest and lowest quality of life

The study found the Sydney suburb of Ku-ring-gai to have the highest quality of life. Virtually all of the top 25 LGAs were suburbs in our capital cities, particularly Sydney, Melbourne and Perth. The Western Australian town of Hall's Creek was found to have the lowest quality of life. Of the bottom 25 LGAs, 23 were in remote and regional areas.



Source 3.47 Part of the Sydney suburb of Ku-ring-gai, rated Australia's most liveable suburb by the Bankwest Quality of Life Index 2008



Source 3.48 Hall's Creek, a remote Western Australian town, was rated as the least liveable place in Australia by the Bankwest Quality of Life Index 2008.

The rural–urban divide

The Bankwest study, and many others like it, found that people living in rural areas in Australia have a lower standard of wellbeing than those in urban areas. This pattern is repeated in other developed countries around the world. Studies of health statistics in Australia show that the further away from a major city you live, the less healthy you are likely to be.

For example, in rural areas:

- rates of hospitalisation for serious injury or illness are higher
- there are fewer doctors for every 1000 people
- smoking rates and alcohol consumption are higher
- death and serious injury rates due to work or driving are higher.

Check your learning 3.13

Remember and understand

1 Why is it more difficult to measure, rank and map variations in wellbeing within countries?

2 List three health concerns that are more serious for Australians living in rural areas than for those living in urban areas.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.46.

- a Which regions of Australia have the highest quality of life?
- b Which regions of Australia have the lowest quality of life?
- c In a carefully worded paragraph, describe the distribution of regions in Australia according to their quality of life rankings using the PQE method. For more information on the PQE method, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'. Refer to specific towns, cities, regions and states in your description.

4 What barriers do you think exist that make it difficult to improve wellbeing in rural and regional areas of Australia? What could be done to improve wellbeing in those areas?

Evaluate and create

5 Complete some further research on the Internet to complete these tasks.

- a Access the Bankwest Quality of Life Index report on the Internet and use the information there to present a short report summarising their findings about the wellbeing of your state or territory.
- b Are the reasons for the inequalities between rural and urban populations in Australia similar or different to those in India? Give some reasons for your answer.

Wellbeing in Indigenous Australian Communities

By most measures there are significant differences in wellbeing between Indigenous and non-Indigenous communities around Australia. Indigenous children are twice as likely to be born underweight and twice as likely to die before their fifth birthday than non-Indigenous children. They are also less likely to attend pre-school and much less likely to reach minimum standards in literacy and numeracy while at school. Although almost nine out of every 10 non-Indigenous young adults complete Year 12, it is closer to five out of 10 for Indigenous young adults. The pattern is similar with employment. Only 46 per cent of Indigenous adults are in employment, compared to 72 per cent of their non-Indigenous counterparts. Perhaps the most alarming statistic is that an Indigenous boy born this year can expect to live 11.5 years less than a non-Indigenous boy. For girls, the figure is 9.7 years.

Closing the gap

In 2008, the Australian Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, apologised to Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders affected by the official government policies that separated Indigenous children from their families, a group known as the Stolen Generation. As part of this apology, Prime Minister Rudd also gave a promise 'to close the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians on life expectancy, educational achievement and employment opportunities.'

The government's targets were to:

- close the gap in life-expectancy by 2031
- halve the gap in mortality rates for Indigenous children under five by 2018
- ensure access to early childhood education for all Indigenous four-year-olds in remote communities by 2013
- halve the gap in reading, writing and numeracy achievements for Indigenous children by 2018
- halve the gap in Indigenous Year 12 achievement by 2020
- halve the gap in employment outcomes between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians by 2018.

By 2013, the early childhood education target had been met and progress had been made in the other areas. However, progress is generally slower than is needed to meet all targets by their set dates. The gap is closing, but slowly.

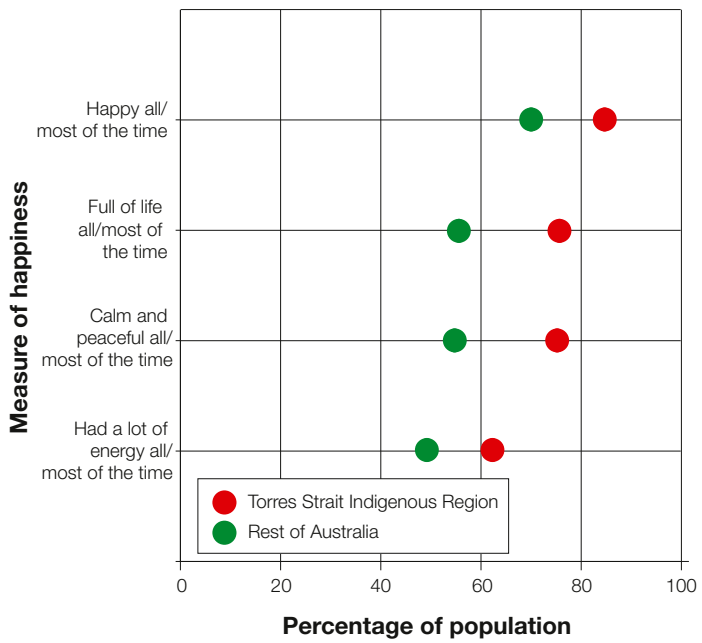


Source 3.49 Ntaria school in Hermannsburg, outside Alice Springs in the Northern Territory. Increased government funding has allowed remote schools to offer longer pre-school programs. This has resulted in improved literacy and numeracy as well as improved health as the children are also given healthy lunches.

Measuring happiness

Although statistical indicators such as life expectancy and literacy rates paint a grim picture of low levels of wellbeing among Indigenous Australians, other measures tell a different story. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) has begun to ask people to assess their own wellbeing by asking questions about their levels of happiness and satisfaction with life in the National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey (NATISS). The data collected reveals some interesting trends. Torres Strait Islanders, for example, are much more likely to report feeling happy, full of life, calm and peaceful and having lots of energy than individuals in the broader Australian community (see Source 3.50).

The NATISS revealed variations in levels of happiness between different regions. The NATISS results showed that 79 per cent of Indigenous adults living in these remote areas reported feeling happy some or most of the time. This compares with only 68 per cent of Indigenous adults living in Australia's major cities reporting feeling happy. However, in virtually all other measures, such as school attendance, literacy, health, disease and employment, the most disadvantaged Indigenous communities were those in remote areas. Access to health care, education and employment opportunities are often more limited in remote areas than they are in regional centres and major cities.



Source 3.50 Results from the National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey (NATISS), 2008



Source 3.51 Happiness amongst Indigenous Australians in remote areas is higher for those involved in cultural activities than for those who rarely or never attend cultural events.

Check your learning 3.14

Remember and understand

1 Summarise life expectancy rates between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians.

Apply and analyse

2 Examine Source 3.50. Write a short paragraph contrasting the levels of happiness between Torres Strait Islanders and the rest of Australia.

3 The 'closing the gap' targets rely on quantitative measures to measure their progress. Why do you think these measures are used rather than qualitative measures (such as levels of happiness and satisfaction)?

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct some further reading on the Internet and complete these tasks.

- a Why do you think people are happier if they are engaged in cultural and community activities?
- b Design and conduct a survey that questions people about their level of happiness and the factors that affect their happiness. Include questions about their involvement in cultural and community activities. Write a report on your results in which you outline what makes people happy.

3.2 big**ideas:** broadsheet

Investigating wellbeing at the local scale

Most studies of wellbeing focus on differences and variations between nations. But there are also variations at the local scale. In this broadsheet you will learn how to use census data to collect and map information about wellbeing in your local area. Based on your completed research and maps, you will then explore some possible reasons for the variations in wellbeing at the local scale.



Source 3.52 There are significant variations in wellbeing in Central Sydney.

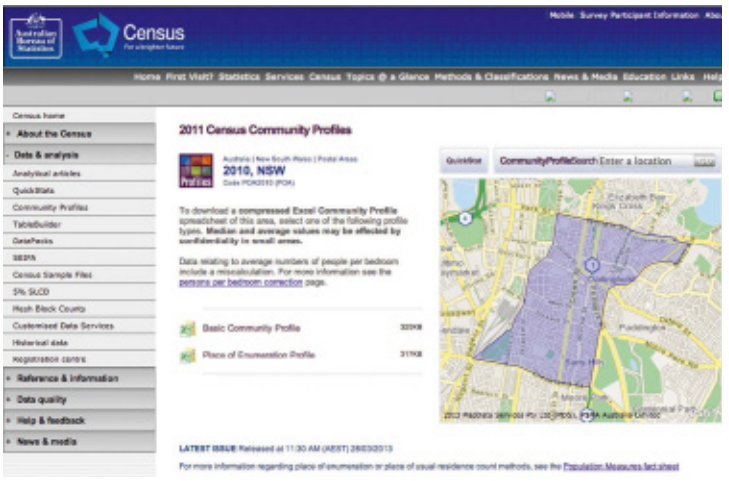
skill**drill**

Collecting and mapping census data

A census is held in Australia every five years and the results are processed and published by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). Geographers often use this information to map data and trends across an area. You can collect data about your local area and map it by following these steps.

Step 1 Access the ABS website at www.abs.gov.au. Click on the 'Census' tab at the top of the home page. Then select the 'Data & Analysis' tab on the left, then 'Community Profiles'.

Step 2 This page allows you to access the census data at a wide range of scales, including at the local level. A useful way of working at the local scale for this study is by using postcodes. To access the data for your suburb, enter your four-digit postcode in the 'Community Profiles Search' tool. If more than one option is displayed, choose POA. Click 'Go'.



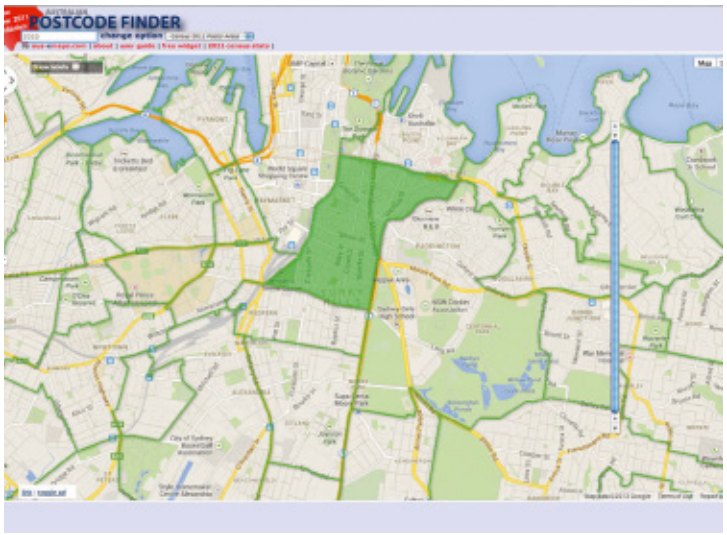
Source 3.53 A screenshot of the postcode map on the Australian Bureau of Statistics Census website

Step 3 This should open a map of your postcode and allow you to choose one of two spreadsheets. Select 'Basic Community Profile' and open or save this spreadsheet.

Step 4 Use the tabs at the bottom of the spreadsheet to access the 'List of Tables'. This will give you a breakdown of the kind of information available. Select a category you would like to map.

Step 5 Click on the category you have decided and record the data for your suburb. Access the same data for your neighbouring postcodes by typing the area or postcode

in the field above the map. You can find out what your neighbouring postcodes are by using the interactive map at the Australian Postcode Finder website (see Source 3.54). Simply enter your four digit postcode into the search tool at the top of the page and it will zoom into this area. Click on the neighbouring postal areas to find their postcodes and then use the ABS website to access and record data for these postcodes.



Source 3.54 A screenshot from the Postcode Finder website

Step 6 Once you have collected the data you can map it by constructing a choropleth map. Print out a map of your area. You can use one you have or print the one from the ABS site. Trace a copy showing only the postcode boundaries.

Step 7 Use the data collected from the census to construct a choropleth legend for your map. Divide your data into four or five categories. Use darker shades of a colour for higher values and lighter shades for lower values. For example, your suburb might have fewer people per household (if that was what you chose to map) than the neighbouring suburb. So, you would colour your suburb a lighter shade and your neighbouring suburb a darker shade.

Step 8 Shade your map according to the legend you created in Step 7.

Step 9 Complete your map with BOLTSS.

Apply the skill

1 Complete a choropleth map of variations in median household income in your local area (include at least 6 suburbs) by collecting information from the ABS website. You can find this data under table B02, *Median Household Income*. Follow the steps to gather your data and map the information.

2 Describe the pattern shown on your completed map.

Extend your understanding

1 Explore and evaluate possible reasons for the variations shown on your map. These will vary from place to place, but here are some possibilities:

- distance from the centre of a large city
- presence of employment opportunities such as factories and shopping centres
- presence of higher educational opportunities such as universities
- presence of transport networks such as railway stations and major roads
- presence of large, shared accommodation areas such as aged-care facilities or school hostels
- presence of geographic features such as a coastline or large park.

Use your knowledge of the local area and street directory maps to evaluate these possible reasons.

2 Collect information from the ABS site and analyse variations in another indicator of wellbeing. Do this for the same suburbs you investigated earlier. You could choose to analyse the number of motor vehicles per dwelling, highest year of schooling completed or percentage of people unemployed.

3 You can also use the census data to explore levels of wellbeing in communities that are not located close to each other. Follow Step 1 in the skilldrill to access the census data and then enter the names of communities in the 'Communities Profiles Search' tool. There may be a few options given as the ABS collects data at a range of scales. The Local Government Area (LGA) is a useful scale when comparing suburbs or country towns but you can compare wellbeing at many scales.

a Use the Quick Stats to compare wellbeing in Halls Creek, Ku-ring-gai and the LGA in which you live.

b What have you learnt about variations in wellbeing within Australia?

c What are the advantages and disadvantages in using census data to describe and compare wellbeing?

Inequalities in wellbeing

There are many reasons for the inequalities in wellbeing that exist between countries. The environment and climate can make a difference, affecting access to fresh water and the ability to grow food. The presence of natural resources such as oil and minerals is an important source of wealth for countries that influences levels of wellbeing.

The political, economic and social organisation of a country can also have a big impact on its wellbeing. Important factors include the make up of the population, the levels of gender equality and access to technology. One of the most significant factors affecting wellbeing, however, is conflict.

In 2011, fighting between rebels and government troops in Syria broke out destroying more than half of the country's hospitals as well as other vital infrastructure such as roads, electricity, communication networks and factories. Food production fell dramatically and in some areas, clean water supplies were reduced to one-third of their pre-war levels. All of these factors have resulted in enormous inequalities in wellbeing.



4.1

How does the natural environment cause inequality?

1 Refugee camps are often located in regions close to national borders where it can be difficult to maintain a high level of wellbeing. What does Source 4.1 tell you about the natural environment of this place?

4.2

How do human activities cause inequality?

1 Which organisation has responded to the plight of Syria's refugees in this photograph? What assistance does this woman need to help her maintain her wellbeing and that of her children?

2 What problems will she face when the conflict in Syria comes to an end?



chapter 4

Source 4.1 A Syrian refugee carries her infant with her to wash the family clothes at Zaatari refugee camp in Jordan. She is one of more than a million Syrians who have fled the country as the result of a bloody civil war.

4.1 How does the natural environment cause inequality?

Why wellbeing varies

As you have learnt, wellbeing varies a great deal within and between countries. The factors behind these variations are complex but can be broken up into five main groups: environmental, social, economic, historic and political.

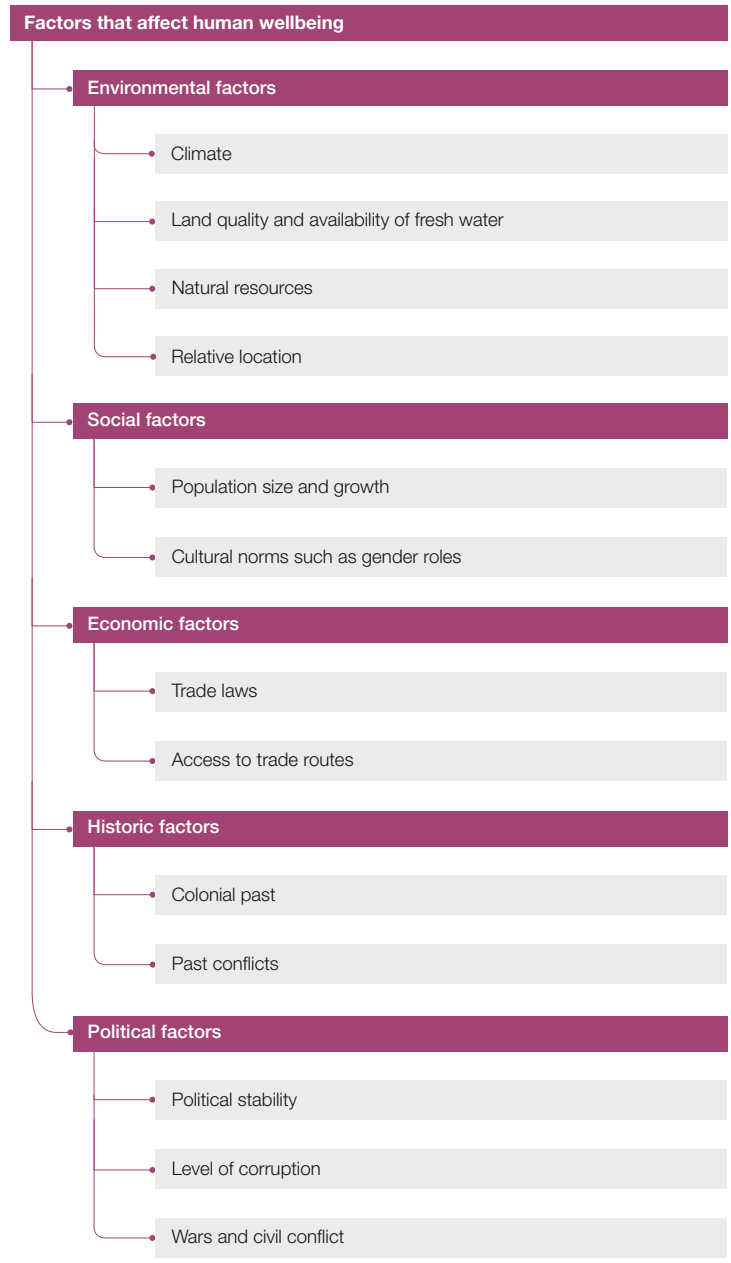
Environmental factors that affect wellbeing include the suitability of the land for agriculture, the climate and whether there are any natural resources present in the landscape. In some places, good growing conditions ensure that food is plentiful and minerals in the ground bring wealth and industry. In other places, poor soils or unreliable rainfall are the key factors that limit people's wellbeing.

Social, economic, historic and political factors are all examples of human factors. Human factors that affect wellbeing include things like population size, cultural norms, laws and rules regulating business and trade, historical events, political systems and wars. In some places, long periods of stability have allowed for great improvements in living conditions. In other places, the wellbeing of people has been affected by ongoing conflict and decades of corruption and persecution. In these cases, people's access to resources such as water, food and health care is limited, affecting their quality of life.



Source 4.2 Norway regularly tops the world ranking in the annual Human Development Index.

Every region and country around the world has its own unique set of inter-related factors that determine the wellbeing of the people who live there. The key factors that determine a country's level of wellbeing are outlined in Source 4.3.



Source 4.3 Factors that affect human wellbeing

key**concept:** place

The two Koreas: a study in wellbeing

The Korean Peninsula is shared by two countries – South Korea and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (more commonly known as North Korea). Due to their proximity to each other they have similar climates, soils, topography and mineral resources. And yet South Korea is rated as the country with the 12th highest level of wellbeing in the world, while North Korea is 63 places lower at 75th. South Koreans live, on average, 10 years longer and have a gross domestic product (GDP) 18 times higher than their northern counterparts.

These differences cannot be explained by differences in resources but in the ways in which these countries are governed and their resources managed. South Korea is a democracy with a market-driven economy. It has a strong economy with high exports and imports, is highly industrialised with a large urban population and is technologically advanced. South Korea also has relatively low levels of corruption and a free media.

North Korea is a totalitarian state, meaning there is only one political party and no elections. It has little to do with the rest of the world and the economy is strictly controlled by the central government. The population is still largely rural and farming methods are technologically backwards. The North Korean government places a great emphasis on having a strong military and up to one-third of the country's budget goes towards maintaining it. North Korea also has very high levels of corruption and no freedom of the press.

For more information on the key concept of place, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 4.4 The Korean Peninsula at night

Check your learning 4.1

Remember and understand

1 What are some of the environmental factors that influence wellbeing? Explain the influence that each of these may have on an individual's wellbeing.

Apply and analyse

2 Using Source 4.2, describe the environmental factors that help to explain Norway's high levels of wellbeing.

3 Using Source 4.3, explain why Australia has high levels of wellbeing.

4 Examine Source 4.4. Describe the pattern shown in this satellite photograph and explain it in relation to wellbeing.

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct some further research on the Internet to complete the following tasks.

a 'Levels of human wellbeing are mainly the result of human factors rather than natural ones.' Evaluate this statement with reference to some specific examples and discuss your thoughts in small groups of three or four.

b Find and research examples similar to the Korean Peninsula, where neighbouring countries have very different levels of wellbeing – for example Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Outline the reasons for this with reference to the five factors discussed in Source 4.3. Present your findings in table format.

Environmental factors and wellbeing

The natural environment provides us with the necessities of life – fresh air, fresh water and food. However, there are wide variations in the availability of these vital resources around the world. Climate also affects the suitability of the environment for sustaining wellbeing.

Variations in water and food security

The most important environmental factors are those that provide us with a reliable supply of clean water and the resources required to grow food. Clean water is provided by regular rainfall and is usually carried along rivers where it is accessed by communities in villages, towns and cities. Fresh water is also used by farmers to irrigate their crops in the production of food.

Because there are natural variations in rainfall, temperature, soil fertility and river flows, food and **water security** vary widely. To get the best crops farmers rely on fertile soils, warm temperatures and other important ecosystem services such as insects and birds to pollinate plants and control pests. The products of human ingenuity such as water pipelines and dams, fertilisers and greenhouses have overcome many of the limitations set by these natural variations but they are costly to build and maintain. The growth in the world's population, particularly in the last 50 years, has placed a strain on the ability of the environment to provide food and water security.

In some places the land has become degraded by human activities such as overgrazing and the unsustainable use of water. This is now affecting the food and water security of millions of people (see Source 4.5).



Source 4.5 This girl in Chad sets out from her village on her daily walk to collect water. She lives in the Sahel on the southern fringe of the Sahara Desert where wellbeing is threatened by unreliable rains, infertile soil and a rapidly expanding population.

Case study: Food security in India

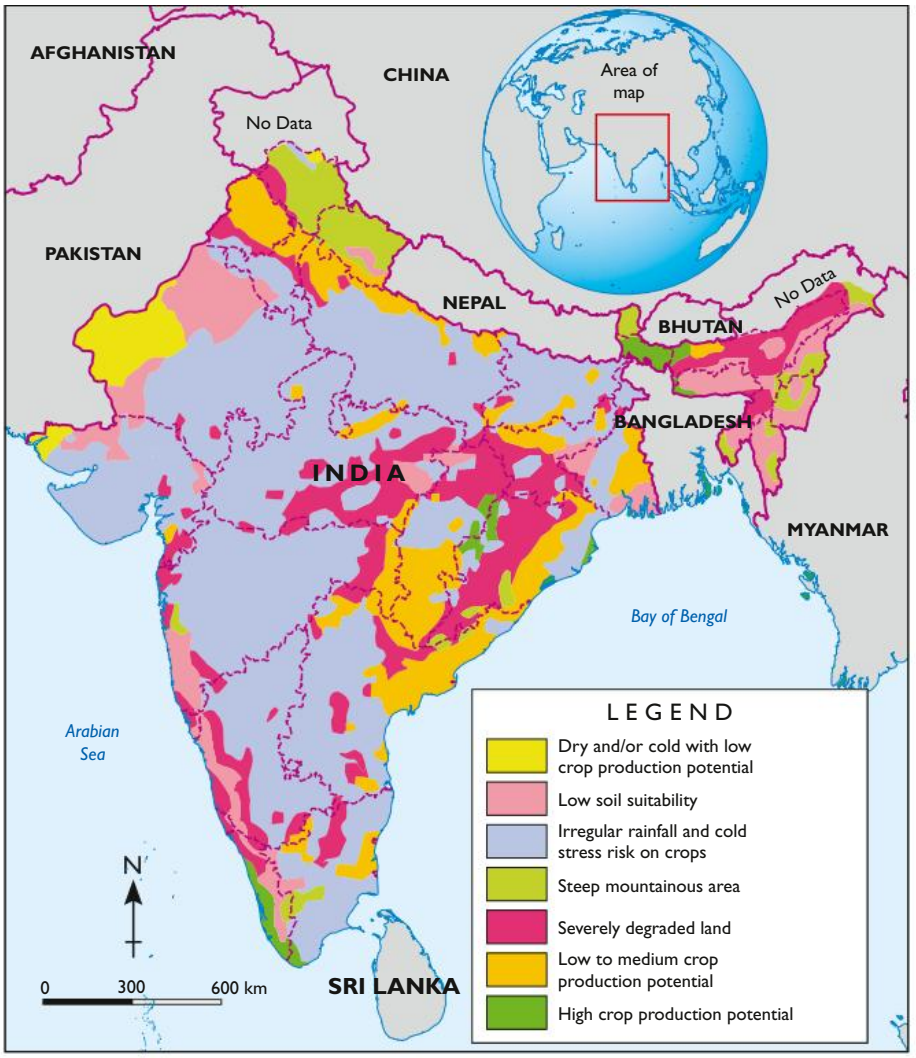
In some environments, the inability to grow enough food to meet the needs of the population has a major impact on wellbeing. India has a population of about 1.2 billion but across much of the country, environmental conditions are unsuitable for growing food.

These environmental conditions, together with a lack of agricultural technology and poor irrigation, have led to frequent famines. In 2013, a severe drought in the western Indian state of Maharashtra became the worst the region had experienced in four decades. As reservoirs ran out of water, farmers were unable to produce food. Shortages meant people went without.

In the late 19th century, India experienced its worst famines, resulting in the starvation and deaths of millions of rural Indians. These days, India can import food such as rice and grains when food supplies are threatened. However, the imported food is more expensive and the price increases still lead to severe hardship for India's poor.

Source 4.6 shows some of the major environmental conditions and the effects they have on food production throughout India.

INDIA: MAJOR ENVIRONMENTAL CONSTRAINTS ON FOOD PRODUCTION



Source 4.6

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 4.2

Remember and understand

1 Which natural resources are important in providing food and water security?

2 How does the uneven distribution of resources help to explain variations in human wellbeing?

Apply and analyse

3 Compare Source 4.6 with Source 3.31. Can you find evidence that certain environmental constraints on food production have led to lower levels of human development? Use the names of specific states in your answer.

4 Compare Source 4.5 with Source 4.2. Describe and account for the differences you can observe in these sources. How might the environmental conditions you see help to explain the differences in wellbeing between these two nations?

Evaluate and create

5 Complete some further research on the Internet to do the following task.

a Since 1993 a World Water Day has been celebrated by the United Nations to bring attention to an aspect of fresh water supply. Investigate how World Water Day has been used to bring attention to the issue of food security.

b Present your findings by writing a 250-word report or by summarising the most important details in table format.

The influence of climate

On a global scale, climate has largely determined where people have lived. Areas that are too cold, too hot or too dry have tended to be sparsely populated, while those with mild temperatures and reliable rainfall have tended to be more densely populated.

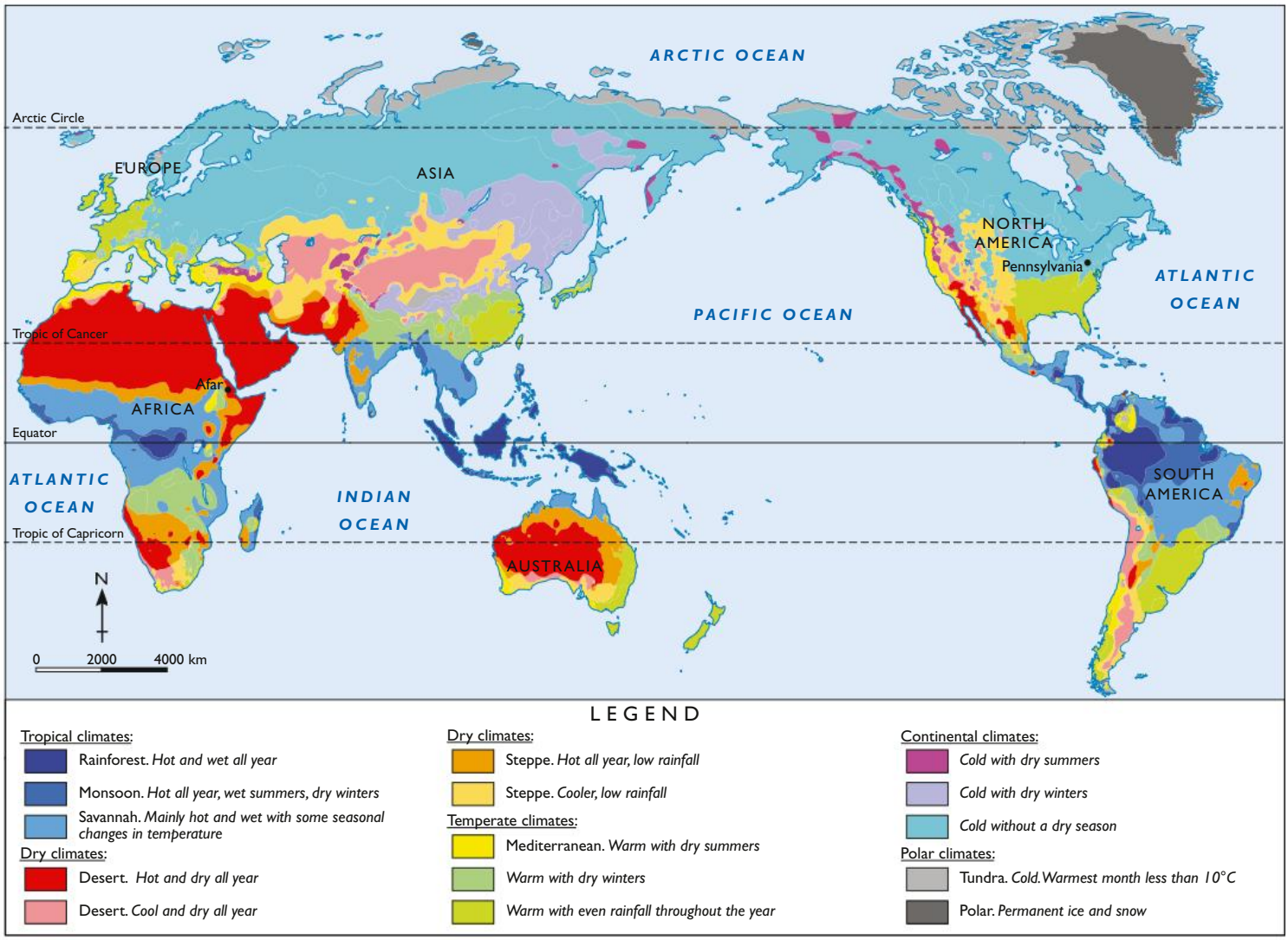
As the world's population has increased, however, more and more people have moved into marginal climate regions that were previously considered unsuitable for farming and settlement. By using technology such as irrigation in dry places, these marginal regions have been transformed to support human populations.

Researchers have developed two theories based on these trends in an attempt to explain how climate affects wellbeing.



Source 4.8 Farming for food usually requires reliable rainfall and mild temperatures such as here in Pennsylvania, north-east USA.

WORLD: CLIMATE ZONES



Source 4.7

Source: Oxford University Press

Theories of how climate affects wellbeing

Theory 1 – Human wellbeing is highest in regions where the climate is neither too extreme nor too comfortable. Supporters of this theory believe that populations living in regions where the challenges presented by climates that are not too severe or too comfortable lead to advances in technology that improve wellbeing overall. According to this theory, people in rainforest climates where rainfall and temperature are both perfect for growing crops have lower levels of development because there are few major challenges to their survival and no incentive to change. By comparison, people living in climates that present a number of mid-range challenges will have higher levels of development because they are encouraged to solve these challenges through innovation.

Theory 2 – People who live in marginal climate regions have lower levels of wellbeing because of the difficulties faced in growing enough food or finding enough fresh water. These activities take so much time and effort, for example spending hours each day collecting water from the nearest water source, that there is no time left to develop ways to move beyond simple survival. Supporters of this theory point to desert regions in Northern Africa and Central Asia as evidence to support their case.



Source 4.9 In Afar, northern Ethiopia, people are nomadic and live from livestock farming. Girls are responsible for herding sheep, goats and camels to the pastures while men provide protection.

Check your learning 4.3

Remember and understand

1 Why are human populations clustered in certain areas rather than evenly distributed across the world?

2 Use Sources 4.8 and 4.9 to describe the very different climates of Afar and Pennsylvania.

Apply and analyse

3 Use the data in the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to compare levels of wellbeing in Ethiopia and the USA. To what extent do you believe these differences are due to climatic differences?

4 Why are more people moving to areas that have previously been considered unsuitable for human habitation? Which factors do you think would be most important to drive people to move to an inhospitable area?

Evaluate and create

5 Copy and complete the following table in your notebook. Use the world map at the back of this book together with the data in the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to complete column 2. Then use Source 4.7 to complete column 3.

Region	HDI ranking 2012	Main climate zone
Northern Africa: Morocco	130	Desert, Mediterranean
Southern Africa: South Africa		
North America: Canada		
South America: Brazil		
Oceania: Australia		
Europe: Germany		
Central Asia: Mongolia		
North Asia: Russia		
South Asia: Pakistan		
South-East Asia: Indonesia		

6 Use the information you have collected in this table to evaluate the theory that levels of wellbeing are highest in regions where the climate is neither too extreme nor too comfortable.

The influence of climate change

Many regions of the world have seen a dramatic improvement in human wellbeing over the last few decades. Infant survival, literacy rates and life expectancy have all increased. **Climate change**, however, threatens to stall and even reverse many of the gains made in these areas. The main threats from climate change are the greater risks posed to people's health from rising temperatures and the expected fall in food production which may, in turn, lead to lower levels of food security.

Health threats

The most direct consequence of rising temperatures is more frequent heatwaves and more cases of associated heat stress. Heatwaves are already Australia's deadliest natural disaster, with older people in urban areas most at risk. In 2009, during a heatwave that hit south-east Australia, there were more than 400 heat-related deaths in Melbourne and Adelaide alone. Researchers expect the death toll from heatwaves in Australia to increase fourfold by 2050. Increasing temperatures bring other threats too, with more frequent extreme weather events such as bushfires, droughts, cyclones and floods.

The other major health concern with rising temperatures, and potentially the most catastrophic, is the spread of serious diseases such as malaria and dengue fever. Rising temperatures create suitable living environments for disease-carrying mosquitoes in areas that were previously too cold. Some research estimates that 300 million more people will be affected by malaria by 2080 as a result. In recent years, the numbers of people dying from malaria has been decreasing, thanks to better preventative measures and greater access to treatment. But increasing numbers of victims could overwhelm health systems in poorer countries where they are less able to prepare and recover from health epidemics.

Food security threats

As temperatures rise and rainfall patterns change so will growing conditions. This will affect food security as communities in some regions become unable to produce enough food. Farming areas that are already in dry, warm regions, such as areas surrounding the Sahara and Kalahari deserts in Africa, are expected to see a massive reduction in food production (see Source 4.11). Worldwide, reductions in grain production are also expected, at a time when world population figures continue to grow. This will send prices for grains higher, making it increasingly difficult for the poor to feed themselves.

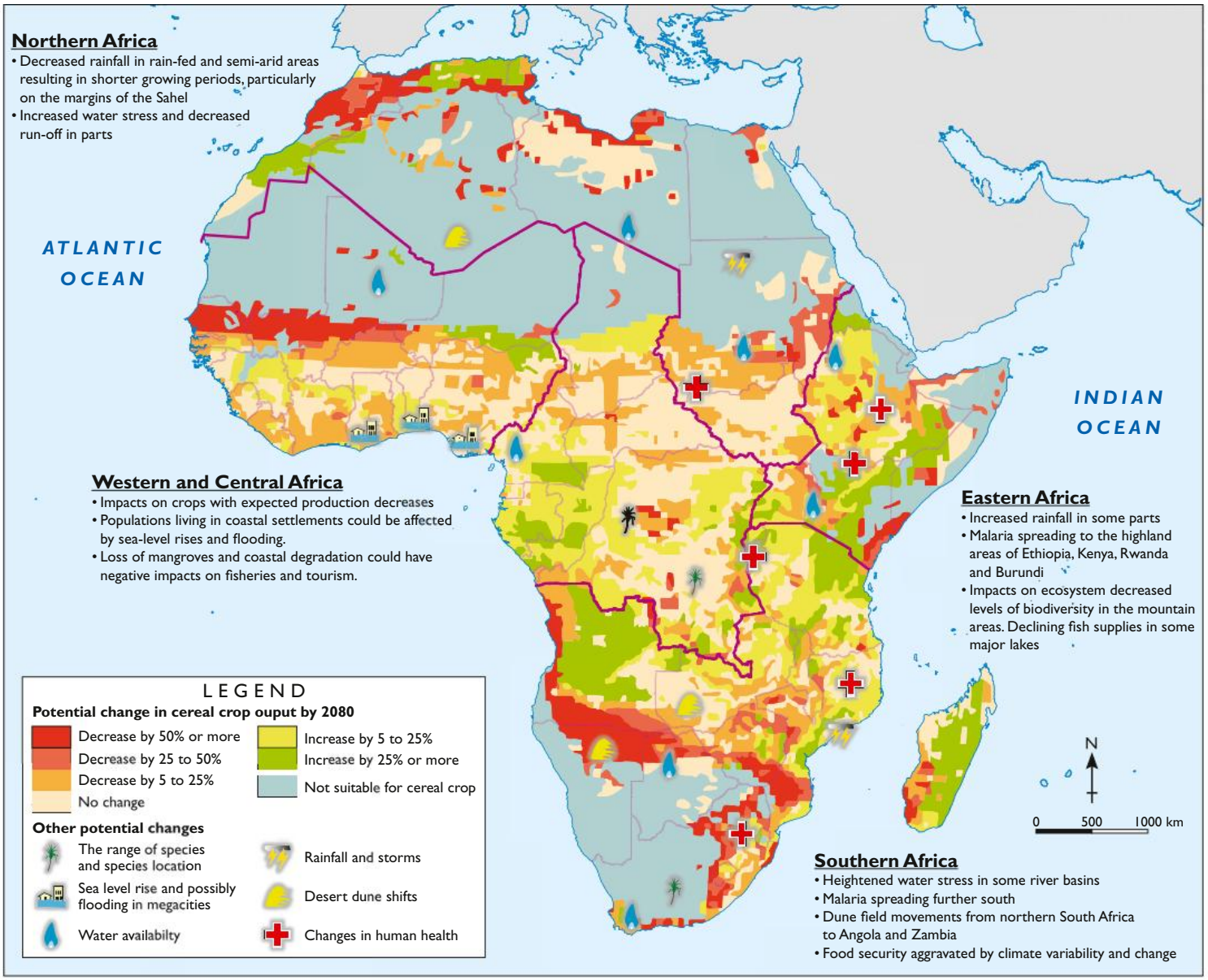
The impacts on food security will also be multiplied by changes in water supply. The glaciers of the Himalayas and the Andes supply water to over a billion people in cities and on farms. As the glaciers disappear, the water supply for these people will become less reliable, reducing the ability of farmers to use this supply to irrigate their crops (see Source 4.10).

Farmland in coastal regions will also be affected. Rising sea levels are expected to flood low-lying land making it unsuitable for farming and causing salt water to intrude further inland.



Source 4.10 A NASA satellite image of glaciers in the Himalayas. The lakes at the end of each glacier are increasing in size as the glaciers reduce in size. This means that less water is stored in the glaciers themselves.

AFRICA: CURRENT AND POSSIBLE FUTURE IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE



Source 4.11

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 4.4

Remember and understand

1 List the ways in which rising temperatures threaten people's health.

2 Name two climatic factors that threaten food security.

3 Why should we be worried about the melting of glaciers?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source 4.11.

- a Which areas of Africa are likely to see the greatest reduction in cereal crop output by 2080?
- b Which areas are likely to see an increase in cereal crop output?
- c What might this mean for the distribution of populations in Africa?
- d What might this mean for food security?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct some further research on the Internet before completing the following task.

- a Which of the effects of climate change shown in Source 4.11 do you consider to be the greatest threat to wellbeing? Give some reasons for your answer, supporting your argument with data gathered from at least two secondary sources.

The influence of natural resources on inequality

Natural resources include a country's mineral, petroleum, timber and hydropower reserves along with any other resources that can be used commercially to improve the wealth of the country and the wellbeing of the country's population. Fossil fuels such as oil, and minerals such as iron ore, copper and diamonds are often in demand around the world. The money raised from the sale of these resources can then be used to improve wellbeing. This is what has happened in the oil-rich nations of the Middle East who now enjoy very high levels of wellbeing.

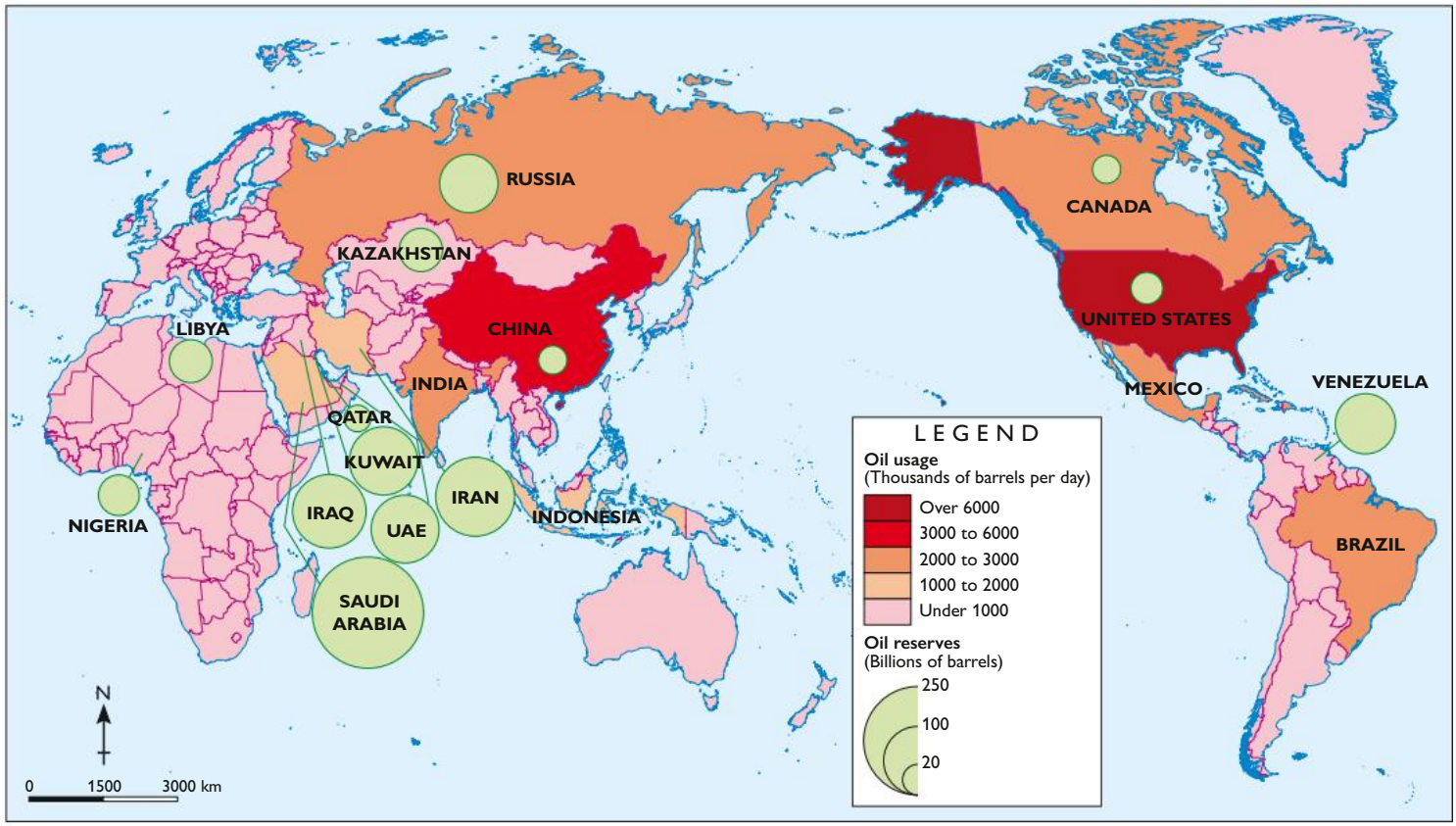
Variations in mineral wealth

Throughout human history, different minerals have provided people with the means to increase their wellbeing. Ancient people used bronze and iron to make tools and weapons with which they could hunt large prey and increase their food security. In today's world, oil is a vital commodity. It is used by billions of people for transport, manufacturing, heating and cooking. Oil is found in only a few places on Earth, but often in vast quantities.

Those countries that have reserves of oil are able to mine, refine and sell it to those who do not, thereby giving them an opportunity to generate wealth and increase their wellbeing. Source 4.12 shows the distribution of oil reserves throughout the world using proportional circles to show the oil reserves available to each country. You can see from this map that the majority of oil reserves are concentrated in a relatively small number of countries. The colour of each country in Source 4.12 indicates how much oil it uses. If a country needs oil but does not have any oil reserves, they have to buy it from a country that does.

Natural resources are considered of such high value that throughout history, access to them has been a common cause of conflict between countries.

WORLD: THE LOCATION OF OIL AND THE RATE OF OIL USE



Source 4.12

Source: Oxford University Press

key**concept:** interconnection

Natural resources and colonisation

As Western nations developed and their populations grew in the 16th and 17th centuries, their need for resources increased beyond what could be provided within their national borders. European powers such as Spain, England, Portugal and the Netherlands sent explorers out to the unknown regions of the world in the hope of finding resources and riches that they could use. They colonised vast areas of the Americas, Africa and the Pacific, often taking the wealth of the countries they colonised to increase their own wellbeing. In many cases, this had devastating results for the Indigenous people in these colonies.

Millions were taken as slaves or put to work extracting minerals and other natural resources from the ground. Countless others were killed in conflicts or died from Western diseases against which they had no natural immunity. Valuable resources such as timber and minerals were taken, and the Indigenous social and political systems were destroyed.

Some people would argue that a form of colonisation still continues today, as companies from wealthy countries develop and sell the resources of poorer nations. Thanks to profits from oil, Nigeria now has Africa's second-largest economy. Much of this wealth comes from multinational companies such as Royal Dutch Shell extracting Nigeria's oil. Shell currently produces 21 per cent of Nigeria's exported oil.

For those living near Shell's oil plants in the Niger Delta, there have been more negatives than positives as a result of the oil industry. Oil spills, loss of agricultural land and environmental degradation have left those in surrounding villages poorer than ever.

For more information on the key concept of interconnection, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 4.13 Royal Dutch Shell's oil plant in Bonny, Nigeria. Shell began operations in Nigeria in 1937. Today more than 1000 Nigerian wells operated by Shell produce more than 600 000 barrels of oil a day, virtually all of it exported.

Check your learning 4.5

Remember and understand

1 What do individuals and communities use oil for?

2 How can natural resources influence a country's wellbeing?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 4.12.

- a Which 10 countries have the world's largest oil reserves?
- b Use the data in the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to order the 10 countries with the largest oil reserves according to their Human Development Index (HDI) rankings.
- c Can you see a direct relationship between large reserves of oil and high levels of wellbeing as shown by the HDI rankings? Write a paragraph describing this relationship.
- d Discuss why access to important natural resources such as oil does not always lead to improved levels of wellbeing.

4 What is colonisation? How does this help to explain variations in human wellbeing?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct some further research on the Internet before completing the following tasks.

- a Use Google Earth to explore the town of Bonny in Nigeria.
- b Find the location of the photograph in Source 4.13.
- c Comment on the variations in buildings in this town and the conclusions that can be drawn about relative wealth and wellbeing.
- d Use the ruler function to estimate the size of the oil and gas plant.
- e What evidence can you find of environmental change as a result of this plant?

The influence of location on inequality

Differences in human wellbeing cannot be explained by variations in climate and the distribution of natural resources alone. While control over reserves of natural resources was the main source of wealth and power hundreds of years ago, it tends to be less of a factor in today's world. In our increasingly globalised world, vast quantities of goods, services, people, finances and ideas move quickly between countries. As a result, countries with few natural resources can increase their wellbeing by engaging in these flows of goods and services.

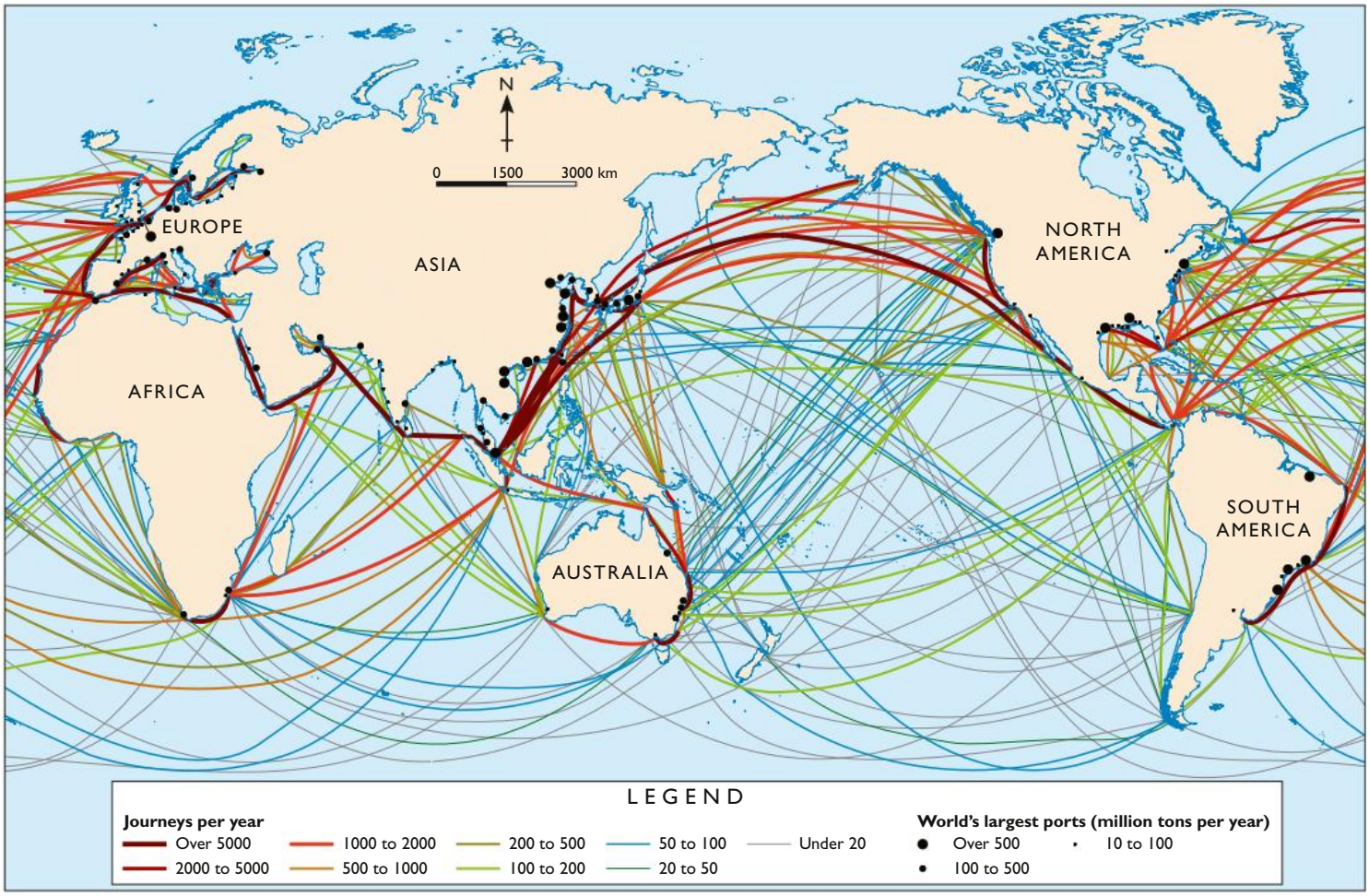
Some of the highest levels of wellbeing are enjoyed by people living in places without the natural resources such as large areas of land suitable for agriculture or vast mineral reserves. For these people, their location and ability to trade are the key to their wellbeing.

Access to trade routes

All of the world's great empires were built partly on their ability to transport goods and people. Large volumes of goods were usually transported by water. Ancient Egyptians used the Nile River, the Greeks and Romans used the Mediterranean Sea, and the British used the oceans of the world for trade. Countries and empires with ports close to major shipping routes had a natural advantage.

Little has changed in the ways goods are transported today. The United States, for example, has been able to

WORLD: MAIN SHIPPING ROUTES AND LARGEST CONTAINER PORTS



Source 4.14

Source: Oxford University Press

maintain high levels of wellbeing for centuries through its ability to trade from large ports on its west, east and south coasts. China, one of the world's fastest growing economies, is the world's largest exporter and second largest importer. Six of the world's eight busiest ports are located in China and an estimated 121 million shipping containers pass through them every year. China is using trade from its many ports as a way to improve the wellbeing of hundreds of millions of its citizens.

key**concept:** interconnection

Singapore and the importance of location

Singapore is one of the world's smallest countries with few natural resources. Most of the land area is used for urban development, so little remains for food production; there are no significant rivers and no mineral reserves. And yet, Singapore has one of the world's highest levels of wellbeing with an average life expectancy of over 84 years and one of the world's highest levels of GDP per person. Singapore's wealth is based largely on its geographic location at the tip of the Malay Peninsula.

Ships moving between the world's major exporters and importers have used the port of Singapore as a trading centre for hundreds of years. The Port of Singapore is connected through shipping to more than 600 ports in 123 countries around the world, making it the 'gateway to Asia'. This central location has enabled Singapore to thrive in other global industries. Singapore also imports raw materials which it turns into valuable commodities such as electronic and telecommunication goods for export. Lastly, the country is home to major oil refineries and other mineral treatment plants and is a major centre of finance.

For more information on the key concept of interconnection, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 4.15 An oblique aerial photograph showing part of the Port of Singapore

Check your learning 4.6

Remember and understand

1 How does Singapore's location help to explain the high levels of wellbeing there?

2 How can countries with little in the way of natural resources work to improve their wellbeing?

Apply and analyse

3 Use the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to describe overall levels of wellbeing in Singapore.

4 Examine Source 4.14.

- a Describe the location of the busiest shipping routes.
- b Design the course of a container ship that travels from Beijing, around the world, and back to Beijing following the busiest shipping routes. Use an atlas to make a list of the ports and countries where your ship would dock.
- c Use the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to explore the levels of wellbeing in the countries where your ship would dock.
- d What does this map tell you about the advantages of coastal nations in accessing trade?
- e How does this map help to explain the high levels of wellbeing in the USA, China and Singapore?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct some further research on the Internet before completing the following task.

- a In small groups, brainstorm all the ways in which location influences a country's wellbeing. Source some images that illustrate your ideas and create a PowerPoint presentation explaining these links.

4.1 big**ideas:** broadsheet

Prisoners of geography

The movement of goods and produce by sea puts cities situated on ports and trade routes at a distinct advantage when it comes to improving levels of wellbeing. Singapore and Hong Kong, for example, are rated as having levels of development that place them in the world's top 20 nations. Both are small islands with few natural resources but their location on major shipping routes and large natural harbours have allowed them to build thriving economies.

Other nations find their geographical location puts them at a distinct disadvantage. Wellbeing in landlocked nations such as Mongolia, Afghanistan, Niger, Ethiopia and Bolivia is hindered by a lack of access to the sea. Virtually all goods into and out of these places must travel by land, making them significantly more expensive. This situation is compounded if goods must travel through neighbouring countries with poor transport infrastructure, corruption or conflict. A United Nations study revealed that landlocked countries do worse than their maritime neighbours in each aspect of the HDI ranking – income, life expectancy and education.



Source 4.16 Niger, one of the world's poorest nations, lies 600 kilometres from the nearest ocean. Virtually all goods and people must enter and leave the country by road. Less than 4000 kilometres of road in the country is paved.

skill**drill**

Calculating a wellbeing index

A wellbeing index is a valuable tool that can be used to rank a group of countries being studied for example, by placing them in order from the country with the highest wellbeing to the one with the lowest. Follow these steps to develop a wellbeing index for some of the world's landlocked countries.

Step 1 Draw up a grid with 10 columns using the headings set out below (these are your key indicators) and a row for each country you are ranking. This could be done on paper or using a spreadsheet in Microsoft Excel. Using a world map as a guide, list your countries in the first column. Select a range of landlocked countries from different continents for an even spread.

Country	Infant mortality rate	% below poverty line	Life expectancy	GDP per capita	Access to clean water	Literacy rate	Total	Average	Final rank
Bolivia									
Mongolia									
Niger									

Step 2 Rank the countries from the lowest infant mortality rate to the one with the highest. For example if you have 20 countries the highest score would be 20 and the lowest would be 1. If two or more countries have the same infant mortality rate, they score the same ranking. Record these rankings in the column headed 'Infant mortality rate'. For those countries where the data is unavailable do not include them in the ranking.

Step 3 Repeat this step for the 'Percentage of the population living below the poverty line' (column 3).

Step 4 Repeat this step for 'Life expectancy' (column 4) but this time, the highest life expectancy scores 1 and the lowest scores 20.

Step 5 Repeat for 'GDP per capita' where the highest is ranked 1 (column 5).

Step 6 Repeat for 'Access to clean water' where the highest is ranked 1 (column 6).

Step 7 Repeat for 'Literacy rate' where highest is ranked 1 (column 7).

Step 8 Add the total score for each country and record this in column 8.

Step 9 Calculate the average score for each country. Divide each country's total score by the number of indicators for which they have valid data. Record this average score in column 9.

Step 10 Rank the countries based on these average scores. The country with the lowest average score will be the first ranked country. Record these ranks in the final column. You have now completed a wellbeing index of countries based on these six indicators.

Apply the skill

1 Calculate a wellbeing index for 20 of the world's landlocked countries (see Source 4.17).

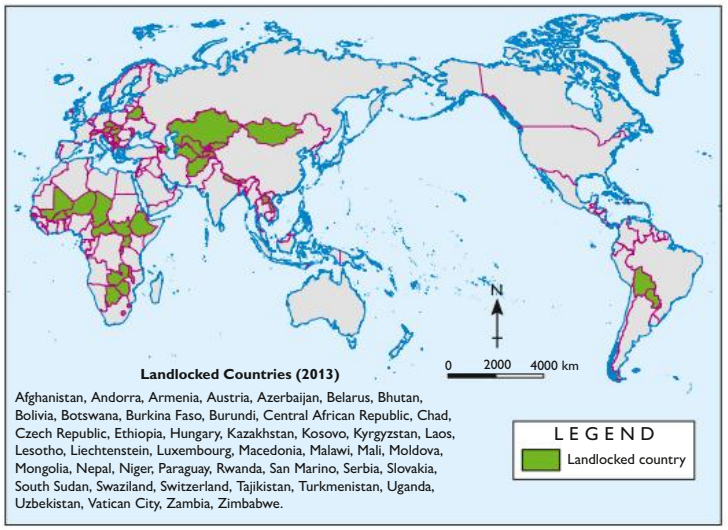
2 Comment on the level of wellbeing of people living in landlocked countries based on your wellbeing index.

3 Examine the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515. List the 10 countries in the world with the lowest HDI rankings. How many of these are landlocked countries?

Extend your understanding

1 Calculate a wellbeing index for the countries of South America. How do the two landlocked countries score on your index?

WORLD: LANDLOCKED COUNTRIES



Source 4.17 Source: Oxford University Press

2 Bolivia has no coastline but maintains a navy of approximately 5000 sailors (see Source 4.18). Research the history of Bolivia's access to the Pacific Ocean to find out why this country has a navy.



Source 4.18 Members of the Bolivian navy parade during the annual 'Day of the Right to Regain Access to the Sea'.

4.2 How do human activities cause inequality?

Human factors and wellbeing

In section 4.1, you learnt about some of the ways in which the natural environment can influence human wellbeing and result in inequalities between countries. In this section, we will concentrate on the human factors that affect wellbeing. These human factors are a combination of different social, economic, historical and political factors. Changes in the size of populations, inequalities between different groups in society, political instability and conflict are all examples of human factors that affect wellbeing.



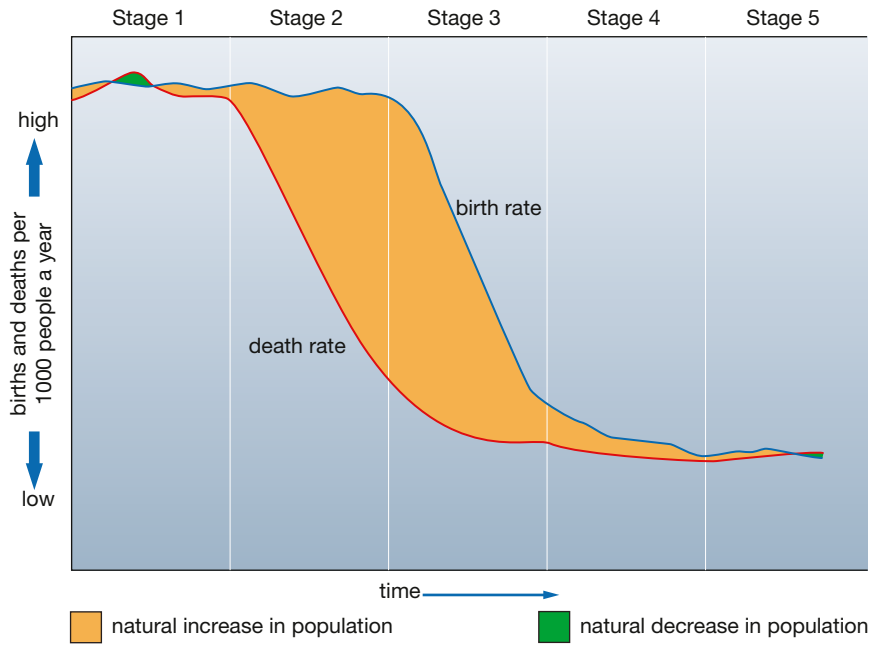
Source 4.20 The population of Nigeria increases by 2.6 per cent per year. Already home to 170 million people, its population is predicted to exceed 400 million by 2050. The population of its capital, Lagos, is expected to triple to over 30 million inhabitants in the same time period.

Demographics and changes in population

The number of people living in a country is always changing. In some countries the population is growing rapidly and in others it is declining. The rate at which populations change is largely related to changes in wellbeing.

Demographics is a term used by geographers to describe the quantifiable statistics of a population (or smaller groups within it). Looking at statistical data on population can help to identify trends in population patterns and predict future trends that could affect wellbeing within a country.

Countries tend to pass through a series of stages in terms of population change. By observing these changes in many countries over a long period, geographers were able to develop the **demographic transition model** (Source 4.19).



Source 4.19 The demographic transition model

Looking at population trends

Many developing countries around the world today, particularly in Africa and Asia, are currently in stage two according to the demographic transition model. Death rates have fallen dramatically as better health care, sanitation and the provision of fresh water have improved the health and life expectancy of millions of people. Improvements have also been made in the care offered to women giving birth and of their newly born children. Millions more babies are now surviving into adulthood as a result of these improvements.

While these improvements have led to people enjoying longer, healthier lives, they have also created a problem. In these countries,

there is currently a gap (or lag) between the fall in the death rate and a fall in the birth rate, so populations are growing rapidly (see Source 4.19). As a result, the population of Africa, for example, is expected to double in the next 40 years to more than 2 billion.

In contrast, many developed countries in regions such as North America and Western Europe have reached stages four and five in their demographic transition. Birth rates have now fallen to such an extent that some of these countries are facing an overall decline in their populations. The reasons for this fall differs between countries but there are some common factors. A general improvement in living conditions, high use of contraception and other family planning methods, high rates of education and work participation amongst females and a movement from rural living to large cities all seem to be contributing factors to the falling birth rates.

Case study: China's one-child policy

Perhaps the most famous attempt by a country to reduce its birth rate has been China's 'one-child policy'. Introduced in 1979, and still in effect today, its aim is to reduce the rate of population growth in the world's most populous country. Couples in China are encouraged to have only one child, although the policy has been unevenly applied across the country. One-child families are given better access to education, health care, jobs and houses while those that have more children are fined and lose access to important social services.

The policy has been successful in reducing China's growth rate and has likely resulted in 300 million fewer births since it was implemented in 1979. But there have also been a range of unintended consequences which are now causing concern.

In China, people prefer to have sons rather than daughters, as boys traditionally support their parents in their old age. As parents can only have one child, many are ensuring that this is a boy. In some cases, this may involve using an ultrasound machine to determine the sex of the foetus, and aborting the pregnancy if it is a girl. In other cases, baby girls are abandoned or sent to orphanages. This has led to a large imbalance between the sexes in some parts of China with 13 males born to every 10 females.



Source 4.21 A mother in Shaoyang plays with her son in front of a family planning poster.

Check your learning 4.7

Remember and understand

1 Why can it be useful to analyse statistical data on population?

2 Why have death rates fallen in many developing countries over recent times?

Apply and analyse

3 In what ways would the demographic transition model be useful for geographers studying population trends?

4 Use the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to find the birth and death rates for Australia, Afghanistan, Italy and Timor-Leste (East Timor).

a Which of these countries would you describe as having a rapidly expanding population, which is relatively stable and which has a declining population? Explain your answers.

b In which stage of demographic transition is each of these countries? What challenges do planners in Italy and Timor-Leste face?

5 What is China's one-child policy designed to do? Describe its results in terms of the demographic transition model.

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct some further research before completing the following task.

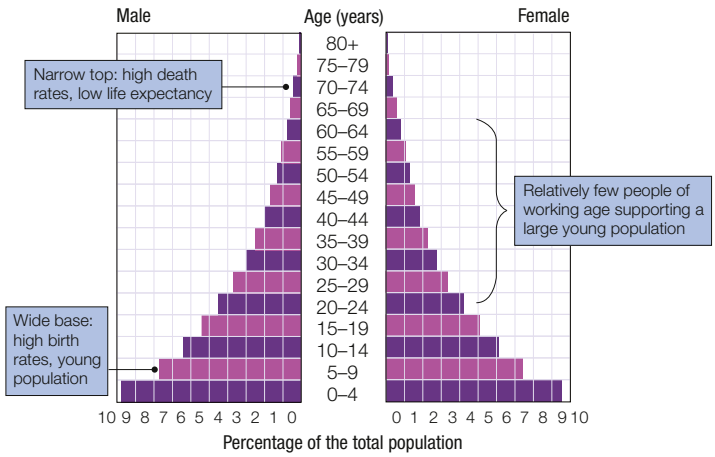
a What messages do you think are being communicated on the billboard shown in Source 4.21? Do some extra research to investigate the issues surrounding family planning in China and its impacts on Chinese people. Share your research in groups of three or four and summarise your findings.

Changes in population structure

How population affects wellbeing

Population structure is a term used to describe the different groups in society that together make up the total population. Geographers often identify groups according to their age and sex. One of the most useful tools that geographers use to study a country's population structure is called a **population pyramid**. Population pyramids graph the population of a country in age segments (shown in the central axis). Males and females are shown separately – males are always shown on the left of the pyramid and females on the right.

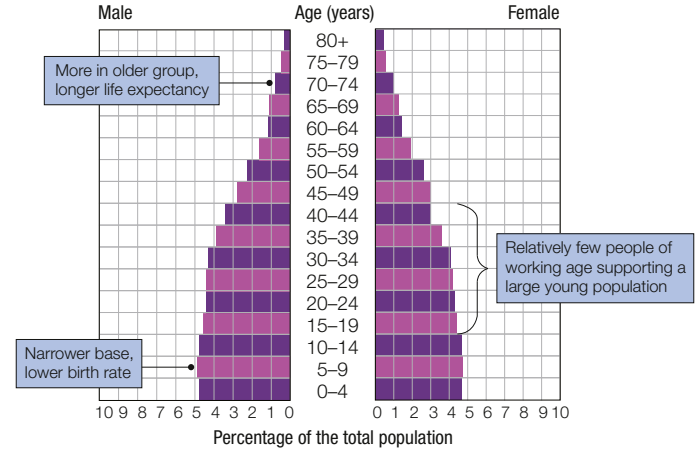
Population pyramids help geographers to identify trends in populations. The overall shape of the pyramid can indicate whether a country's population is growing, contracting or remaining relatively stable. Countries with a rapidly growing population tend to have pyramids that are wide at their base and narrow at their top (Source 4.22).



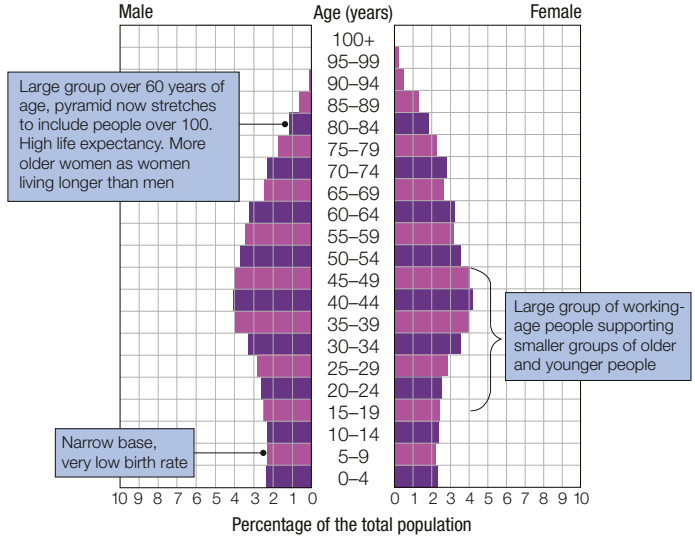
Source 4.22 The population pyramid for Niger, an example of a rapidly growing population

Countries with a population that is growing slowly have a different shaped pyramid (Source 4.23). The base is much narrower because birth rates and fertility rates are lower. In these countries, much of the population is of working age.

Countries with a declining population tend to have a population pyramid that looks like an inverted pyramid (Source 4.24). In these countries, the birth rate is low so the base of the pyramid is very narrow. There is usually a large group of people over 60 years of age as life expectancy is high and death rates are low.



Source 4.23 The population pyramid for Indonesia, an example of a slowly growing population



Source 4.24 The population pyramid for Italy. An example of a declining population



Source 4.25 The population of Italy is ageing and declining due to a very low birth rate.

skill**drill**

Constructing a population pyramid

You can construct your own population pyramid by following these steps. Population pyramids are fairly simple to construct but accuracy is very important so take your time. For more information on population pyramids, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

Step 1 Draw the horizontal axis (the *x*-axis) which will show the percentage of the population. Leave a gap in the centre similar to the population pyramids shown in Sources 4.22–4.24. Your age ranges will go in this space.

Step 2 Add the scale 0 to 10 on each side, working from the centre outwards. Label your *x*-axis 'Percentage of the total population'.

Step 3 Add the centre axes (the *y*-axes) as per the population graph in Source 4.22. Label the *y*-axes 'Age (years)'. Remember that males are always shown on the left and females on the right, label the left side 'Male' and the right side 'Female'.

Step 4 Mark the scale on the *y*-axes. You will need to allow for 20 rows.

Step 5 Add the labels for each age group span in the centre space. Start with 0–4 at the bottom and increase in intervals of four years until you reach 100+.

Step 6 Transfer information from your data set onto your population pyramid. Draw bars in for each age group's data. Use a ruler and sharp pencil. Make sure that each bar is exactly the same width.

Step 7 Lightly shade each bar using two alternating colours so the graph is easy to read. Add a title.

Source 4.26 The population of Australia, 2012

Age	Males (%)	Females (%)
0–4	6.7	6.3
5–9	6.4	6.0
10–14	6.3	5.9
15–19	6.6	6.2
20–24	7.3	7.0
25–29	7.6	7.3
30–34	7.0	6.9
35–39	6.9	6.8
40–44	7.2	7.2
45–49	6.8	6.8
50–54	6.7	6.8
55–59	6.0	6.0
60–64	5.4	5.5
65–69	4.5	4.5
70–74	3.2	3.4
75–79	2.3	2.7
80–84	1.7	2.2
85+	1.3	2.4

Apply the skill

1 Construct a population pyramid for Australia in 2012 using the data from Source 4.26.

2 Add three labels to your Australian population pyramid, similar in style to those on the three population pyramids shown in Sources 4.22–4.24, describing three key features of the structure of Australia's population.

Check your learning 4.8

Remember and understand

1 Describe the appearance of a population pyramid for a rapidly growing population.

2 Which of the population pyramids shown on these pages represents the most rapidly growing population?

Apply and analyse

3 Use the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to list the fertility rates in Niger (Source 4.22), Indonesia (Source 4.24), Italy (Source 4.23) and Australia. What link can you make between the shape of the pyramids of these countries and their fertility rates?

Evaluate and create

4 Using the four population pyramids (Italy, Niger, Indonesia and Australia) as a guide, match each country with its current position in the demographic transition model (Source 4.19).

Population growth and inequalities in wellbeing

> The countries in which poverty levels are the highest are generally those that have the most rapid increases in population and the highest fertility levels.
>
> United Nations Population Fund

The populations of most countries around the world are increasing. In some countries, such as Australia and the United States, the population is growing slowly, and in other countries, such as Niger and Uganda, it is growing rapidly. Populations grow when the number of arrivals from births and immigration is greater than the number of departures from deaths and emigration. In most cases, the growth of a country's population is largely determined by the **fertility rate**.

Many people living in countries with a rapidly growing population experience difficulties accessing vital services. These include access to education, food, safe drinking water, electricity, communications and transportation. Access to health services such as hospitals, doctors and medicines is also much lower than in countries with slowly growing or declining populations. Infant mortality and maternal mortality (mothers dying due to pregnancy or childbirth problems) are also much higher in rapidly growing populations. This is largely because many births in these countries are not attended by health professionals.



Source 4.27 Niger is the only country in the world where the average number of children born to each woman (known as the fertility rate) is greater than seven. Of the 15 countries with the highest fertility rates, 14 are in Sub-Saharan Africa. The other country is Afghanistan.

Gender inequality and fertility rates

> Gender inequality fuels population growth. Where women are denied full legal, social and economic rights, such as education, secure livelihoods, property ownership and credit, they are forced to rely on childbearing for survival, status and security.
>
> Lakshmi Puri, Assistant Secretary-General of UN Women, 2011

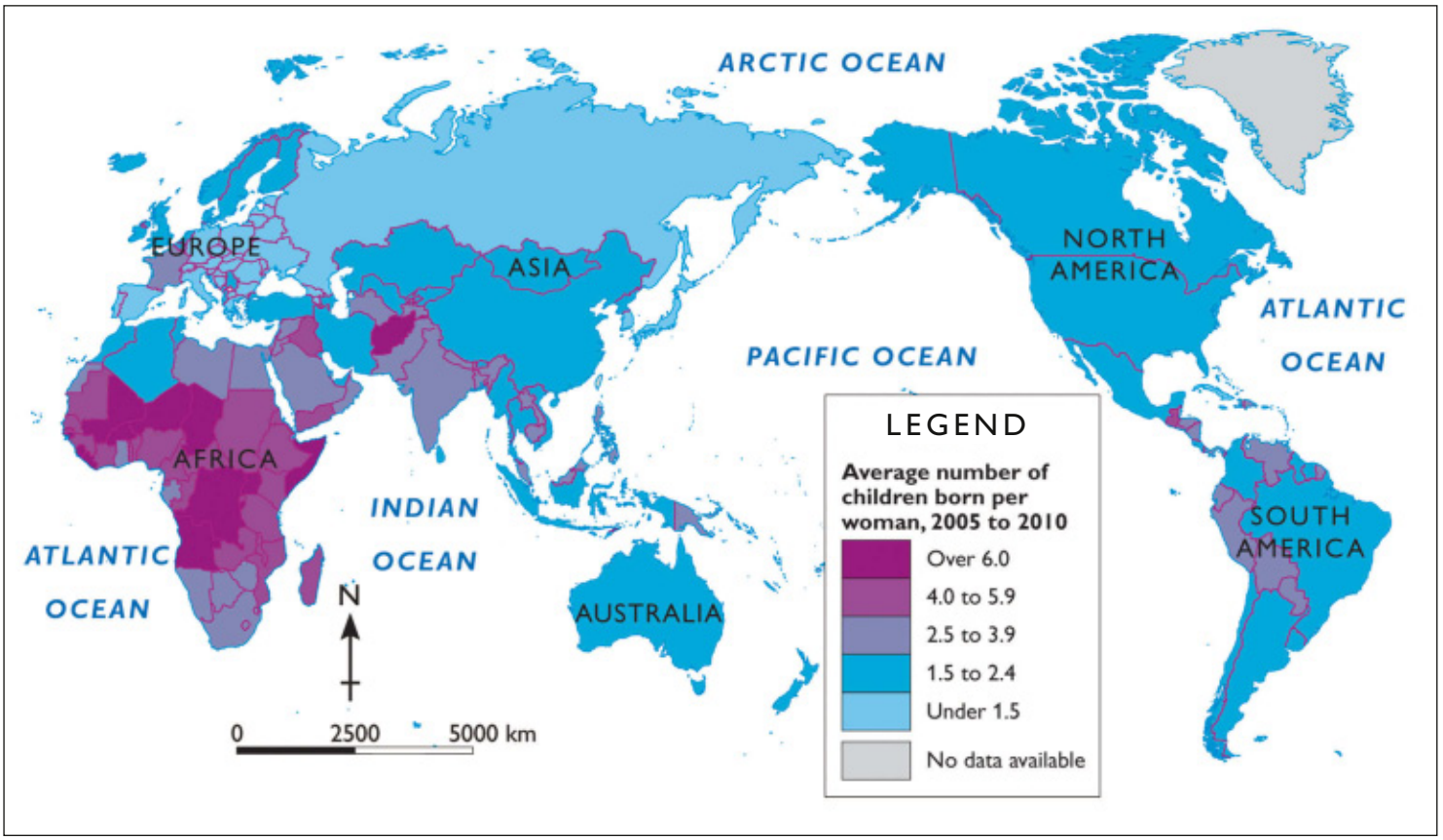
Many researchers believe that the lower status of women, particularly in developing countries, contributes to higher fertility rates as women with lower levels of education tend to have more babies. In turn, higher fertility and larger families make it even more difficult for women to attend school or to participate in the workforce and in government.

Inequality between women and men is both a cause of inequality in wellbeing and one of its effects. Societies in which women have a lower status in education, employment and government tend to have lower levels of wellbeing than those with less or no gender discrimination.



Source 4.28 The adult literacy rate for Yemen is 43 per cent for females and 79 per cent for males.

WORLD: TOTAL FERTILITY RATE



Source 4.29

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 4.9

Remember and understand

1 What is meant by maternal mortality?
2 What might be a cause of higher rates of infant and maternal mortality in countries with rapidly growing populations?
3 What is the fertility rate in Australia? Name three other countries with a similar fertility rate.
4 Explain the links between gender inequality and population growth in your own words.
5 What sort of services are difficult to access in countries with rapidly growing populations?

Apply and analyse

6 Examine Source 4.28.
   a Estimate the proportion of girls and boys in this school in Yemen.
   b How does this help to explain the gap in literacy levels between males and females in Yemen?
7 Examine Source 4.29.
   a Use the PQE method to describe the pattern shown on this map. For more information on the PQE method, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.
   b Compare this map to the world maps showing the proportion of population living in poverty (Source 3.8), GDP per capita (Source 3.13), hunger levels (Source 3.20) and literacy rates (Source 3.27). For each map write a one-sentence summary of the similarities that you notice.
   c Based on the summaries you have written, what is the most significant link between fertility rates and human wellbeing?

Gender and inequalities in wellbeing

Throughout much of the world today there are **gender inequalities**. For example, if you are a woman, you are more likely to be living in poverty and unable to read or write. You are more likely to be a refugee and subject to gender-based violence. You are also less likely to be in government, to be employed or to own property.

As we have learnt, there are certain key indicators that can be used to measure wellbeing. Three important ways to assess gender equality in a country are by measuring women's participation in education, the workforce and government. It is these three things that are essential to raising the status of women and providing opportunities for better jobs, higher levels of wealth and female-friendly government policies.

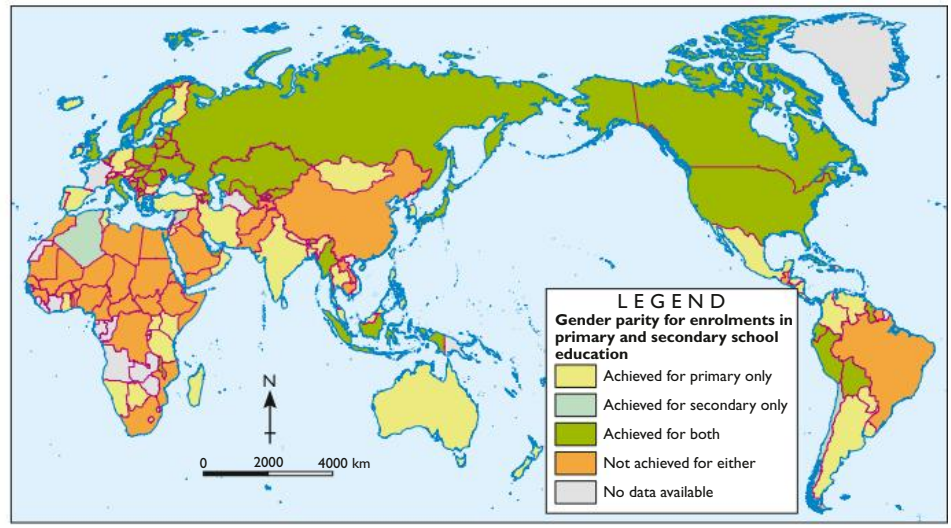
Gender inequality in education

In many countries around the world, boys outnumber girls in schools particularly at secondary school level (see Source 4.30). The gap is wide throughout South Asia, for example, where the number of girls attending secondary schools is low compared to boys – only 75 girls for every 100 boys. This gap is a reflection of gender-based discrimination in societies where sons are often considered more important than daughters. Poverty also has an effect on this inequality. In India, for example, girls from poorer families who do attend school at all, attend inferior schools that teach nothing more than basic literacy and numeracy. Higher levels of schooling cost money and poor families are more willing to invest in their sons than their daughters.

Gender inequality in government

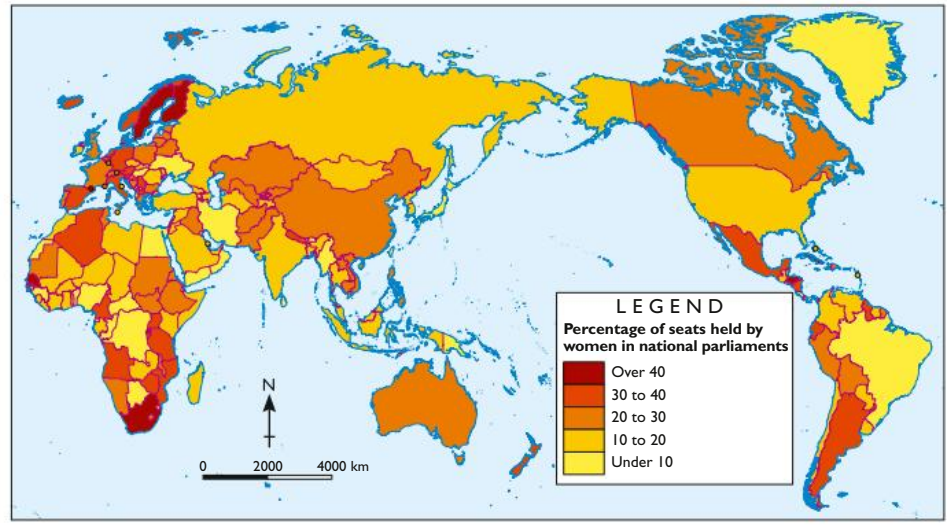
In every country of the world, less than half of the representatives in national parliaments are women (see Source 4.31). Globally, women make up only 18 per cent of the world's elected officials. The Scandinavian countries and Iceland have the highest number of women in government, with Spain, South Africa and Argentina also having better than average numbers. Low levels of representation in government can make it difficult for gender equality laws such as universal education to be discussed and enacted.

WORLD: GENDER PARITY FOR ENROLMENTS IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION



Source 4.30 Source: Oxford University Press

WORLD: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS

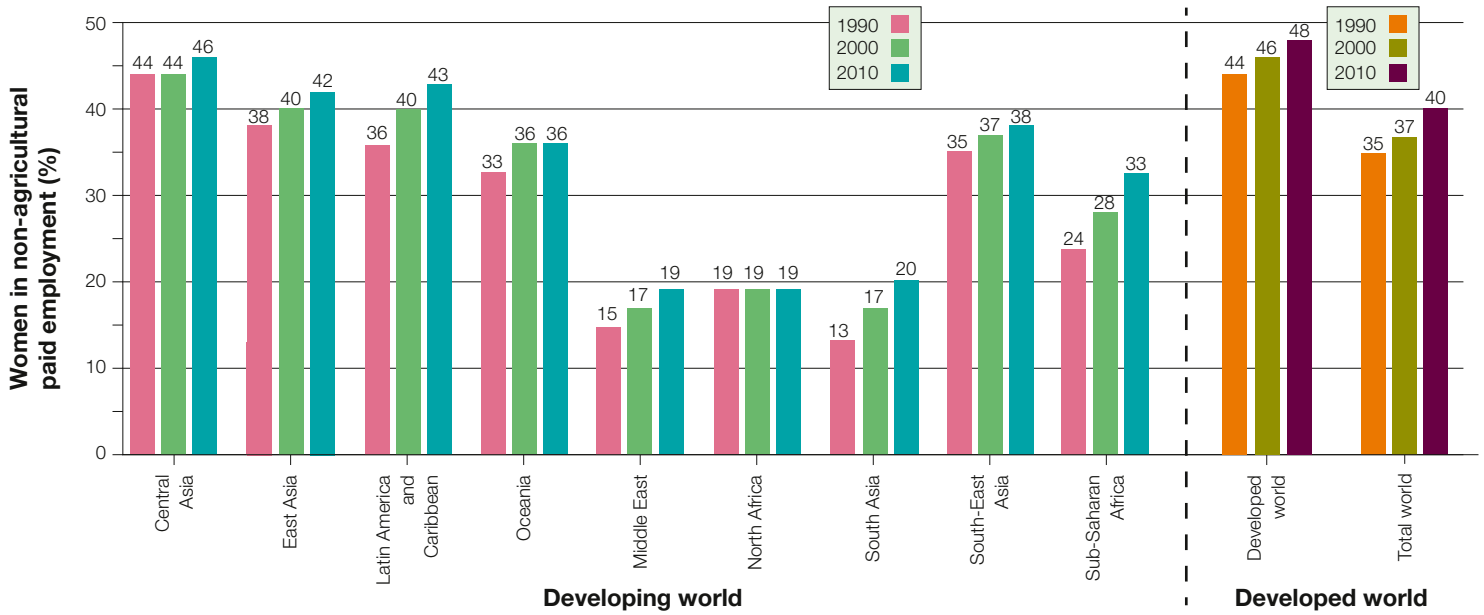


Source 4.31 Source: Oxford University Press

Gender inequality and job opportunities

Women own about 1 per cent of the world's resources and earn one-tenth of the world's income. In many places around the world their participation rates in the paid workforce are much lower than men's (see Source 4.32). The Middle East and North Africa have the lowest levels of female participation in the workforce. Even in the developed world, where women's participation is high, women tend to earn less than men and occupy lower-level positions.

In many of the places where women have low participation rates in the paid workforce, they are instead doing unpaid agricultural work. Approximately 60 per cent of women in developing countries work in farming. These women work long hours every day on family farms that produce just enough food to support their families. They also perform most of the domestic chores such as collecting wood and water, caring for children and preparing food.



Source 4.32 Percentage of employees in non-agricultural employment who are women

Check your learning 4.10

Remember and understand

1 Define the term 'gender inequality' in your own words.

Apply and analyse

2 Examine Source 4.30.
   - a In which regions of the world has parity (equal numbers) of male and female students been achieved for both primary and secondary education?
   - b Use the map in Source 4.29 showing fertility rates to comment on the fertility rates in the regions you listed in (a).
   - c What relationships can you see between education parity and fertility?

3 Use the sources provided to compare the regions of Europe and Sub-Saharan Africa in terms of:
   - a parity in education
   - b women in non-agricultural employment (note: Europe is included as part of the 'Developed world')
   - c the percentage of women in government.

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct some further reading before completing the following tasks.
   - a Research gender equality and inequality in Australia. Focus on issues such as employment, wage levels, number of seats in parliament and education.
   - b Present your findings as a written report. Remember to acknowledge the sources of the data you use in your report.

Technology and inequalities in wellbeing

Technology is a very broad term used to describe a range of different tools, machinery, techniques and systems to solve a problem or achieve a goal. From the times of earliest human societies, people have strived to find new and better ways of growing food, accessing water, treating medical problems and improving sanitation. All of these technological developments were designed to improve wellbeing. Over the last 200 years, there have been many significant advances in technology that have fundamentally changed the way we live and work. These advances have had enormous impacts on societies. Some of the biggest changes occurred during the Agricultural Revolution of the 18th century and the Industrial Revolution of the 19th century.

These revolutions, however, were concentrated in Europe and the United States and their impacts were greatest in the parts of the world now known as the developed world. The people of Europe may have been living with the benefits of these revolutions for generations but in many Asian and African countries, they are still using farming methods not seen on Europe's farms for hundreds of years.

Case study: Differences in dairy farming technology

Differences in the availability and use of technology between the developed world and the developing world can be seen clearly in these examples of dairy farming in Laos and New Zealand.

The woman shown in Source 4.33 is a farmer in Laos. She is bringing her herd of four cows to a small shed leaning against her house. She will spend the next hour or so milking the cows by hand into a bucket. This will provide enough milk for her family to be able to make their evening and morning meals. The cows will stay in the shed overnight and be milked in the early morning. During the day they will be able to wander across the countryside but will be accompanied by one of the children of the family whose daily task is to make sure the cows are fed, keeping the child out of school. Their droppings will be collected and used for fertiliser, fuel for the cooking fire or mixed with straw and used for mud bricks. On some days, the larger cow will be used to plough the family rice field, pulling a plough through the mud.

The farm in Source 4.34 is also a dairy farm. The family ride motorbikes to herd the cows into a mechanised milking shed. Suction cups are attached to the cows' udders and the milk is pumped into large storage tanks ready for collection by a refrigerated milk tanker later in the day. Because the milking is mechanised, the farmer and one other worker are able to milk 1200 cows twice a day, producing much more milk than the farmer and his family can consume. The milk is sold to the local dairy factory where it is treated and used to supply the needs of the people in towns and cities throughout the South Island of New Zealand.



Source 4.33 A dairy farm in Laos, 2012



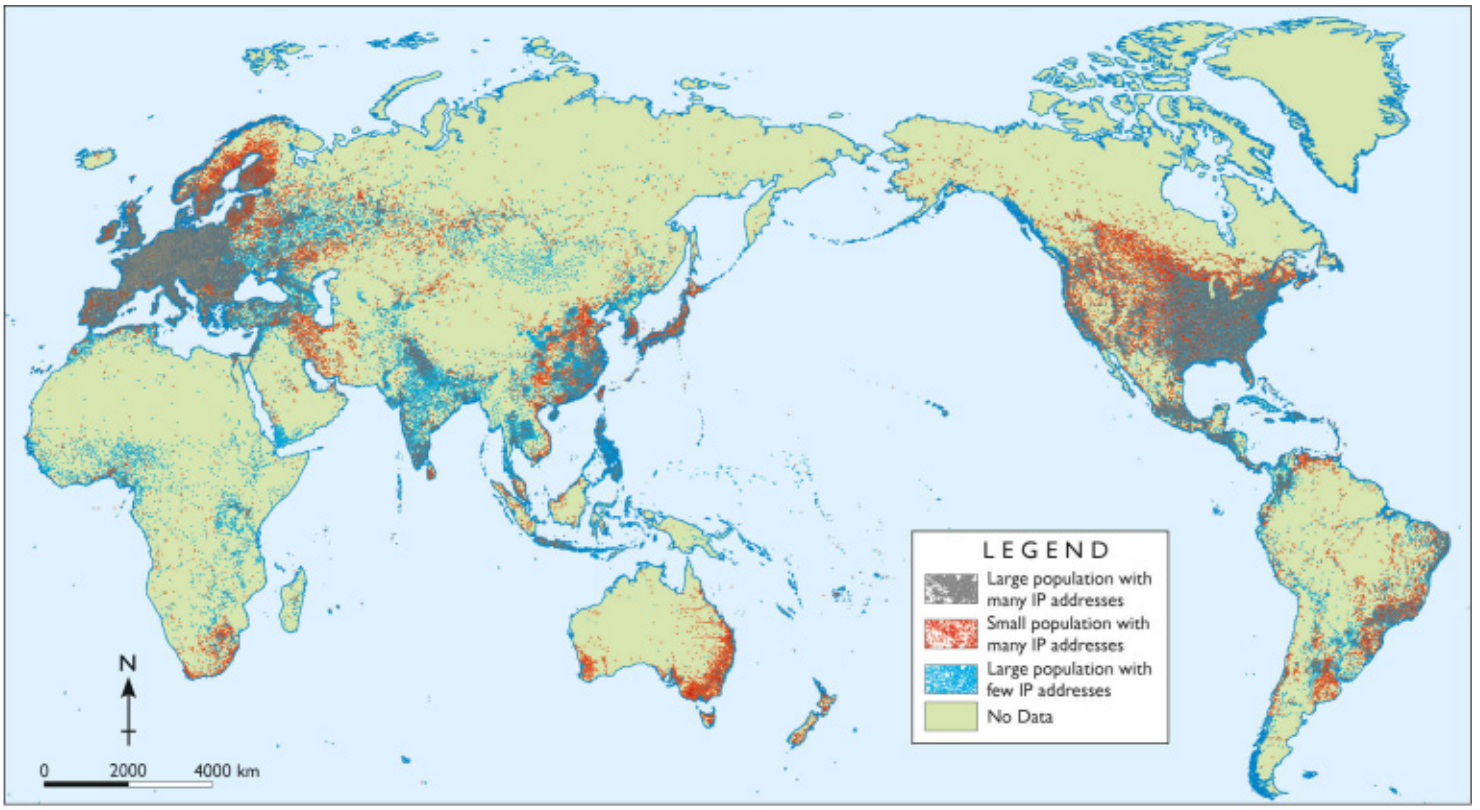
Source 4.34 A dairy farm in New Zealand, 2012

Information and communications technology (ICT) and wellbeing

Technology is always moving forward. We are currently experiencing a kind of information revolution in which the growth and spread of ideas and knowledge is occurring much more rapidly than at any time in the past. To a large degree this is being fuelled by advances in information and communications technologies (ICT).

ICT has the potential to improve the wellbeing of people throughout the world. Already, the information revolution has made it easier for businesses on opposite sides of the world to work with each other. It has also allowed Western companies to access cheaper labour in developing countries by outsourcing jobs overseas. The outsourcing of jobs in call centres and IT services, for example, has provided new employment opportunities and increased wellbeing in countries such as India and the Philippines. The spread and influence of the information revolution throughout the world, though, remains uneven (Source 4.35).

WORLD: INTERNET USE AND POPULATION



Source 4.35

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 4.11

Remember and understand

1 What is technology?
2 In which areas do humans seek to improve wellbeing through the use of technology?
3 How has the outsourcing of jobs by Western countries improved wellbeing in India and the Philippines?

Apply and analyse

4 Compare Sources 4.33 and 4.34.
   a Comment on the levels of technology used by dairy farmers in these two places.
   b Use the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to compare levels of wellbeing in these two countries.
5 Examine Source 4.35.
   a Describe the general pattern of Internet use on this map.
   b Compare this map to Source 3.7 showing HDI rankings around the world. What links do you notice between the HDI rankings and Internet traffic?
   c How would you account for these links?

Politics and inequalities in wellbeing

Politics is a term used to describe all of the activities associated with governing a country or region. Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826), third President of the United States and principal author of the Declaration of Independence, was a gifted politician. According to Jefferson, good governments were those that protected the rights of individuals, encouraged economic freedom, promoted happiness and listened to the will of the people. Although Jefferson died almost 200 years ago, his beliefs still hold true. Governments wield enormous power over their citizens. Some are good, while others are bad. Regardless of this, they are all responsible for influencing levels of wellbeing among their citizens.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

On 10 December 1948, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. After World War II, the newly formed United Nations decided to set an international agreement of basic human rights that should be made available to all. The idea was that those in power would be responsible for ensuring that the human rights of their citizens were protected to the best of their government's ability.

This was the first time in history that the nations of the world had listed the basic human rights to which all human beings are entitled. The Declaration now underpins many laws to protect basic human rights all around the world. These rights include:

- the right to equality, life, freedom, security, equality before the law, a fair public hearing, be presumed innocent until proven guilty, move freely, seek asylum in another country, marriage, family, own property, freedom of opinion, peaceful assembly, free elections, social security, desirable work, rest, adequate living standards, education and to share in scientific advancements
- freedom from discrimination, slavery, torture, arbitrary arrest, interference with privacy, religious persecution, state or personal interference in the above rights.

Government corruption

Many researchers believe that the abuse of political power is the leading cause of poverty and inequality in the world today. In particular, they point to the corruption that exists in many developing nations where those in power use their position for their own benefit rather than the benefit of the country.

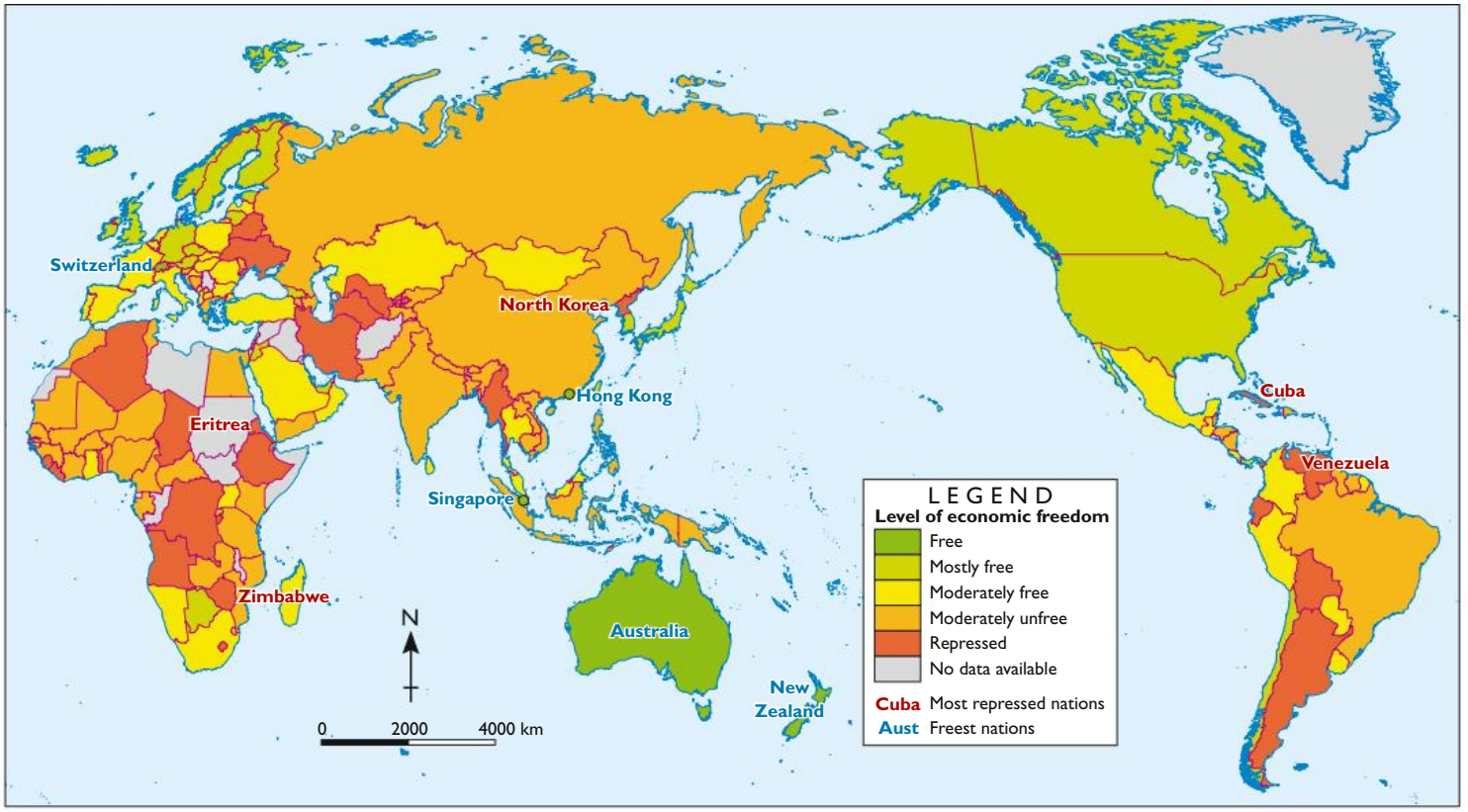


Source 4.36 In some countries, such as Burma, children are forced into conflict and become child soldiers. Some groups, including Amnesty International, argue that 'the right to refuse to kill' should be added to the list of basic human rights.

Source 4.37 ranks the countries of the world according to the level of economic freedom. This data is compiled by scoring nations on various indicators including the level of corruption, labour freedoms and property rights.

Government corruption usually leads to the repression or punishment of any individual or group that speaks out against the government. In some cases, the struggle between different political groups within a country can result in civil war and ongoing conflict, an example of this is the current civil war in Syria. Along with environmental degradation, corruption and conflict are the two factors most likely to halt or reverse upward trends in improved wellbeing, affecting people's health, education and economic activity.

WORLD: FREEDOM AND REPRESSION



Source 4.37

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 4.38 North Korea is one of the world's most repressed nations. It is very difficult to access data for North Korea but it is estimated that more than one-quarter of North Koreans live below the poverty line. Despite this, it is believed that up to one-third of the annual budget is spent on the military under a policy known as 'songun' or putting the military first.

Check your learning 4.12

Remember and understand

1 Describe Jefferson's idea of good government.

2 How can corruption and conflict within a country affect the wellbeing of its people?

Apply and analyse

3 In which regions of the world are people most repressed?

4 In which regions are people most free from repression?

5 Access the full list of rights and freedom outlined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights online. Discuss with a partner how it would influence wellbeing if these rights were adopted as law in every country in the world.

Evaluate and create

6 Using Source 4.37 and an atlas, select four countries from each level of the five levels of economic freedom. Use the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to research the HDI ranking of each of these 20 countries. Construct a scatter plot comparing the level of economic freedom in each country with its HDI ranking. Describe the pattern shown.

Conflict and wellbeing

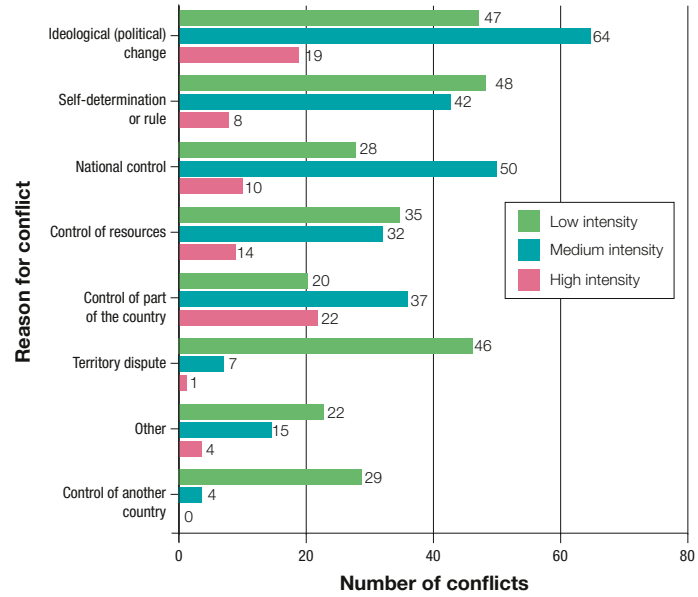
Wars and civil conflicts are complex events. There is rarely, if ever, a single factor that causes them. An intricate set of social, historic and physical factors lie behind one group of people or nation attacking another. The costs of war are immense both in terms of human life and economic resources. For a country to go to war there must be enormous perceived benefits to the winner of that war. Often these benefits are resources that will impact positively on the wellbeing of the victorious party. These may include oil, areas of desirable land, or access to water.

Why conflicts happen

Countries go to war for many reasons. They may see the opportunity to gain more land or more valuable resources, or they may want to remove a potential security threat. They may go to war for religious reasons, or to fight a rival ethnic group.

Source 4.40 shows the reasons for the 396 conflicts recorded in 2012 by the Department of Political Science at the University of Heidelberg, Germany. In their annual report on global conflict, the university also classifies conflict as peaceful disputes over politics or borders (low intensity), conflicts involving infrequent fighting (medium intensity) and conflicts involving constant fighting (high intensity).

Studies consistently show that few conflicts are fought solely over natural resources. Indeed, of the 396 conflicts in 2012, only six were considered to be fought purely on this basis. And yet, about 40 per cent of all civil wars in the last 60 years have partially involved struggles for control of natural resources, including at least 18 violent conflicts since 1990. Many of these are in Sub-Saharan Africa where rebel soldiers loyal to different warlords fight to gain control of valuable mineral resources. Income earned from mining these resources is used to fund further fighting, often for other reasons such as the control of part of the country or attacks on neighbouring countries.



Source 4.40 The major causes of conflict in 2012 worldwide



Source 4.39 The Rwandan genocide which resulted in more than half a million deaths and the displacement of millions more was fought, in part, over the control of land, a valuable resource in this densely populated region of central Africa.

Case study: Water wars

One of the most valuable resources in many parts of the world today is fresh water. Disputes over its control have occurred for thousands of years and many analysts believe that this will accelerate in the future as water resources become scarcer and populations continue to grow. Water wars follow the trends of most disputes over resources: they tend to be within, rather than between, countries, and the tension over the resource is usually not the only cause of the conflict.

In recent times, there have been conflicts over the water resources of the Aral Sea in central Asia, the Tigris, Euphrates and Jordan rivers in the Middle East and the Nile and Okavango rivers in Africa. There is also ongoing tension between Pakistan and India, partially over the the rivers in the Kashmir that feed into the Indus River basin. The Arab–Israeli War in 1967 (also known as the Six-Day War) was fought, in part, for control of the Golan Heights, an important water source for both Israel and its neighbour Syria. The area was seized by Israel at the end of the war and the Golan Heights now supplies one-third of the nation's water. The Darfur conflict in Sudan, which started in 2003, is sometimes called the 'world's first climate change war', as different ethnic and religious groups fight for control of dwindling water resources.



Source 4.41 India and Pakistan have fought sporadically for control of the territory of Kashmir since 1947. Part of the dispute is over the water that flows from India into Pakistan – a valuable resource in this region. Pakistan accuses India of diverting much of this water before it reaches Pakistan. India denies this.

Check your learning 4.13

Remember and understand

1 What were the three most common reasons for armed conflict in 2012?

2 Why do some analysts believe that more wars in the future will be fought over water?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 4.40.
- a Add up the total number of reasons for war shown here.
- b Explain why this number is higher than the total number of conflicts (396).
- c High intensity conflicts were most commonly fought for what reason? Give some possible explanations for this.
- d Estimate what percentage of conflicts involved a battle for resources.

4 Use an atlas to describe the course of the Indus River. Where is the river's source? How does this help to explain the six-decades-long tension between India and Pakistan?

5 Use an atlas to describe the course of the Okavango River. How might this help to explain ongoing tension between Namibia and Botswana?

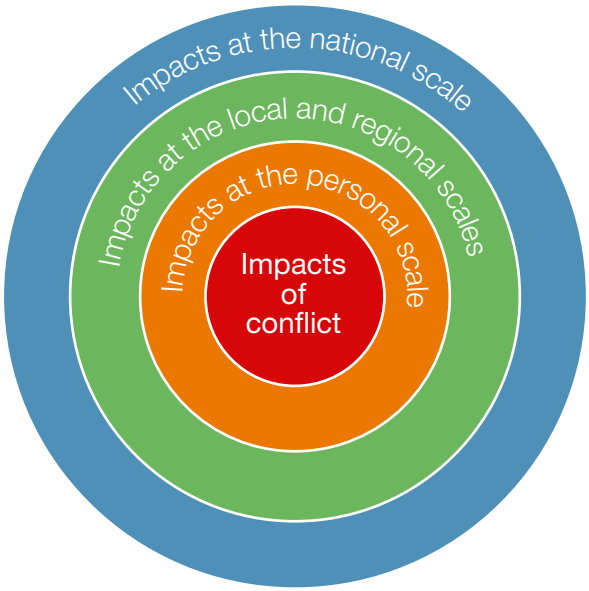
6 Examine Source 4.39. How has conflict impacted on the wellbeing of these people?

Evaluate and create

7 Conduct some further Internet research before completing this task.
- a Prepare a short speech examining the statement, 'Scarcity leads to conflict'. Provide evidence from these pages and your own research to agree or disagree with this statement.

The lasting impacts of conflict

Conflict at any scale and any intensity almost always has wide-ranging and long-term impacts on human wellbeing. Countries can take decades to recover from the impacts of war, preventing people from accessing opportunities to improve their wellbeing. Source 4.42 lists some of the common effects of high-intensity conflicts.



Source 4.42 Impacts of conflict at the personal, local, regional and national scales

Impacts at the personal scale:
- reduced quality of life
- reduced ability to makes choices about lifestyle
- loss of life
- impact on personal dignity and human rights
- impact on health and a reduced ability to access appropriate care
- loss of connection to other people in other regions
- individuals forced to fight
- targeted attacks on schools reduce the opportunity to have an education
- greater incidence of sexual violence.

Impacts at local and regional scales:
- decreased access to land, leading to food insecurity
- collapse of systems such as transport, food supply and local government
- fewer job opportunities
- breakdown in transport and communication networks
- displaced people put stress on infrastructure such as water and health systems in neighbouring places
- unsustainable use of natural resources to fund the conflict
- loss of productivity due to labour shortages.

Impacts at the national scale:
- environmental degredation, e.g. forest clearing and landmines
- food insecurity and dependency on aid
- refugees flee to other countries
- decline in national economy and less public spending as money is spent on conflict
- neighbouring nations often increase their military spending
- less spending on education (21 developing countries spend more on arms than on education)
- military spending results in less financial aid for developing countries.



Source 4.43 Girls prepare to sleep in an NGO shelter in Gulu, Uganda. There are about 20 000 night commuters that sleep in Gulu town every night, some walking hours from their home villages. They do this to escape the lasting impacts of conflict. The girls are afraid of being abducted by the Lord's Resistance Army (a militant group of rebels fighting for control of Uganda). The Lord's Resistance Army has been accused of widespread human rights violations including murder, mutilation and child sex slavery.

Case study: Landmines

Landmines are explosive devices that are triggered by a weight pressing on them – most commonly from someone stepping on them or a vehicle driving over them. Placed during wartime, landmines are used to destroy enemy vehicles, kill enemy soldiers and make roads and other areas impassable.

But the impacts that landmines can have on a country's wellbeing last long after the end of the war. Landmines kill and injure civilians and livestock, not only during the conflict but long after it has finished. Landmines also contribute to land degradation and can significantly limit the areas that can be used for farming.

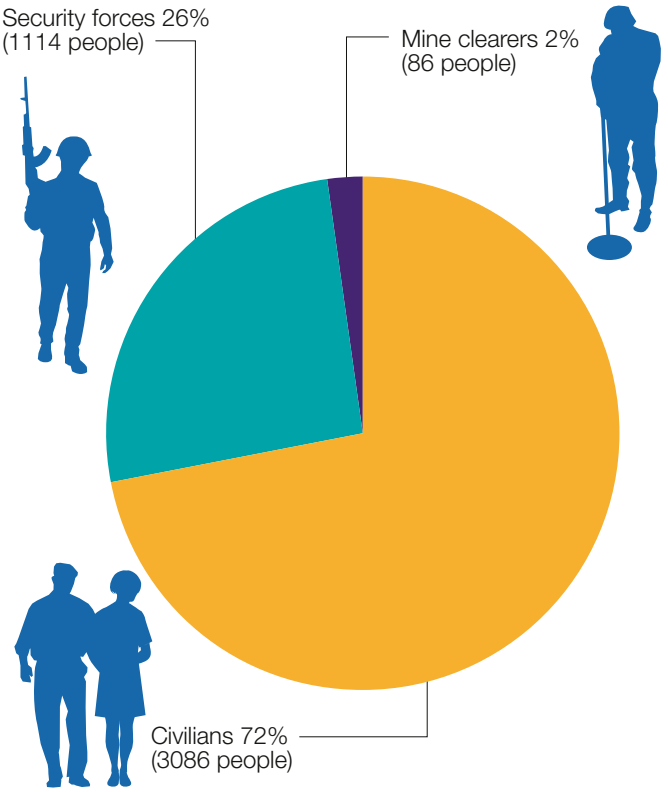
The Landmine and Cluster Munitions Monitor (an organisation that carries out research and monitoring into the consequences of landmines) estimates that 59 countries are affected by landmines and that there are more than 4000 casualties a year as a result of landmines exploding (see Source 4.45). In 2011, for example, 1320 people were killed by landmines and 2907 were injured. Approximately one-third of these victims were children.

The countries with the most landmines are those currently involved in conflict such as Iraq and Afghanistan and in recent conflicts such as Angola, Somalia and Bosnia-Herzegovina. However, older conflicts have also left terrible marks on some countries. Cambodia still has up to 10 million landmines from the Cambodian Civil War and the border wars which followed in the 1970s. It now has one of the highest rates of physical disability of any country in the world (see Source 4.44). Egypt also has an estimated 23 million unexploded landmines, relics from World War II and conflicts with Israel in the 1960s and 1970s.

While landmines can be located with metal detectors and defused, this is a costly, dangerous and technically advanced task. A mine can be purchased on the black market for US$3 but may cost US$1000 to remove.



Source 4.44 A landmine victim learns how to farm without legs in a rehabilitation centre in Cambodia.



Source 4.45 Worldwide landmine casualties (injuries and deaths) in 2011 (divided by military and non-military)

Check your learning 4.14

Remember and understand

1 What are some of the impacts of war at the national scale?
2 What are landmines?

Apply and analyse

3 Access the latest annual report of the Landmine and Cluster Munitions Monitor.
   a Which countries used landmines in the last year? Map these countries on an outline world map.
   b What advances were made in clearing landmines?
   c Where does Australia rank in terms of the size of its landmine stockpile?
4 Which impacts of conflict listed in Source 4.42 could apply to landmines?
5 Why are children often the group most impacted by war?

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct some further Internet research before completing this task.
   a Construct a flow diagram showing how impacts at the personal scale can become impacts at the national scale and vice versa.

War in Darfur

Darfur is a **semi-arid** and **arid** region of western Sudan in northern Africa. It borders the countries of Chad, the Central African Republic and the world's newest country, South Sudan (which gained its independence from Sudan in 2011). Sudan has been in a state of almost continual conflict since it was granted independence from Britain in 1956. The most recent conflict (commonly referred to as the War in Darfur) began in 2003 when several armed rebel groups attacked Sudanese army units, police stations and a military airfield after accusing the government of favouring Sudanese Arabs and suppressing non-Arab Sudanese.

The government army, along with an armed Arab group, the Janjaweed (literally 'evil men on horseback') responded by attacking unarmed civilians in the Darfur region. Targets of the attacks tended to be non-Arab Sudanese of black African descent, most of whom were poor subsistence farmers. Hundreds of villages were bombed with military aircraft before the Janjaweed attacked, slaughtering and raping tens of thousands of people and laying waste to huge areas of farmland. Some claim that the Janjaweed attacks were not random but targeted at particular ethnic groups.

An estimated 2.7 million people – one-third of Darfur's total population – fled the conflict to other parts of Sudan and to Chad. This created a second crisis, as malnutrition and disease soon swept through the temporary camps of the refugees, killing thousands of people. It is difficult to know exactly how many people died as a result of the War in Darfur but estimates place the number at about 300000.

The underlying reasons for this conflict are complex and interconnected. In Darfur, communities feel separated and isolated by differing religious beliefs and ethnic backgrounds, a lack of involvement in the political process and poverty. Distrust and hatred of other groups often boils over into conflict. In addition to these reasons, some analysts also believe that the War in Darfur is a fight for dwindling resources, particularly water and arable land.



Source 4.46 An oblique aerial photograph of the burned-out village of Abu Sourouj, West Darfur, Sudan. Bombed in 2008 along with two other villages north of Geneina by the Sudanese government, it was simultaneously attacked by armed men on camels, horseback and donkeys, otherwise known as the Janjaweed.



Source 4.47 The victims of the War in Darfur in a refugee camp in eastern Chad

key**concept:** interconnection

The world's first climate change war?

A United Nations study in 2007 found that changing rainfall patterns and desertification in the region was forcing people to move south into areas where they came into conflict with communities of differing ethnic and religious backgrounds. The report found that climate change was creating 'unavoidable pressure on people through migration, displacement, food insecurity and impoverishment, possibly ending in conflict.' It also stated that this could trigger other wars in Africa. Other experts point to the long-running political and ethnic tensions along with a rapid increase in the number of guns as the main causes of the conflict.

Source 4.48 shows the movement of the 400 mm isohyet (a line drawn on a map, which connects places that receive the same amount of rainfall and separates places that receive different amounts of rainfall). Here, this line joins together all places that received 400 mm of rain in a year. Places north of this line in Sudan receive less than 400 mm of rainfall a year, making farming very difficult.

For more information on the key concept of sustainability, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

SUDAN: THE CHANGING LOCATION OF THE 400 MM ISOHYET



Source 4.48 Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 4.15

Remember and understand

1 Name the two resources thought to be a contributing cause of the War in Darfur.

2 List the various factors that have contributed to conflict in Sudan since it was granted independence.

Apply and analyse

3 Look up the location of Sudan in an atlas. Write a short paragraph describing the location of Sudan.

4 Examine Source 4.48.

- a Describe the pattern of land cover in Sudan.
- b Describe the change in rainfall patterns between 1929 and 2003 using the PQE method. For more information on the PQE method, refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.
- c Estimate how much more of the country received less than 400 millimetres of rain per year in 2003 compared with 1929.
- d Explain how this change may have helped to trigger the War in Darfur.

5 Locate the Darfur region in Source 4.11. (showing predicted changes in cereal crop output by 2080). What is the predicted change for the Dafur region? How might this fuel future conflicts in the region?

Evaluate and create

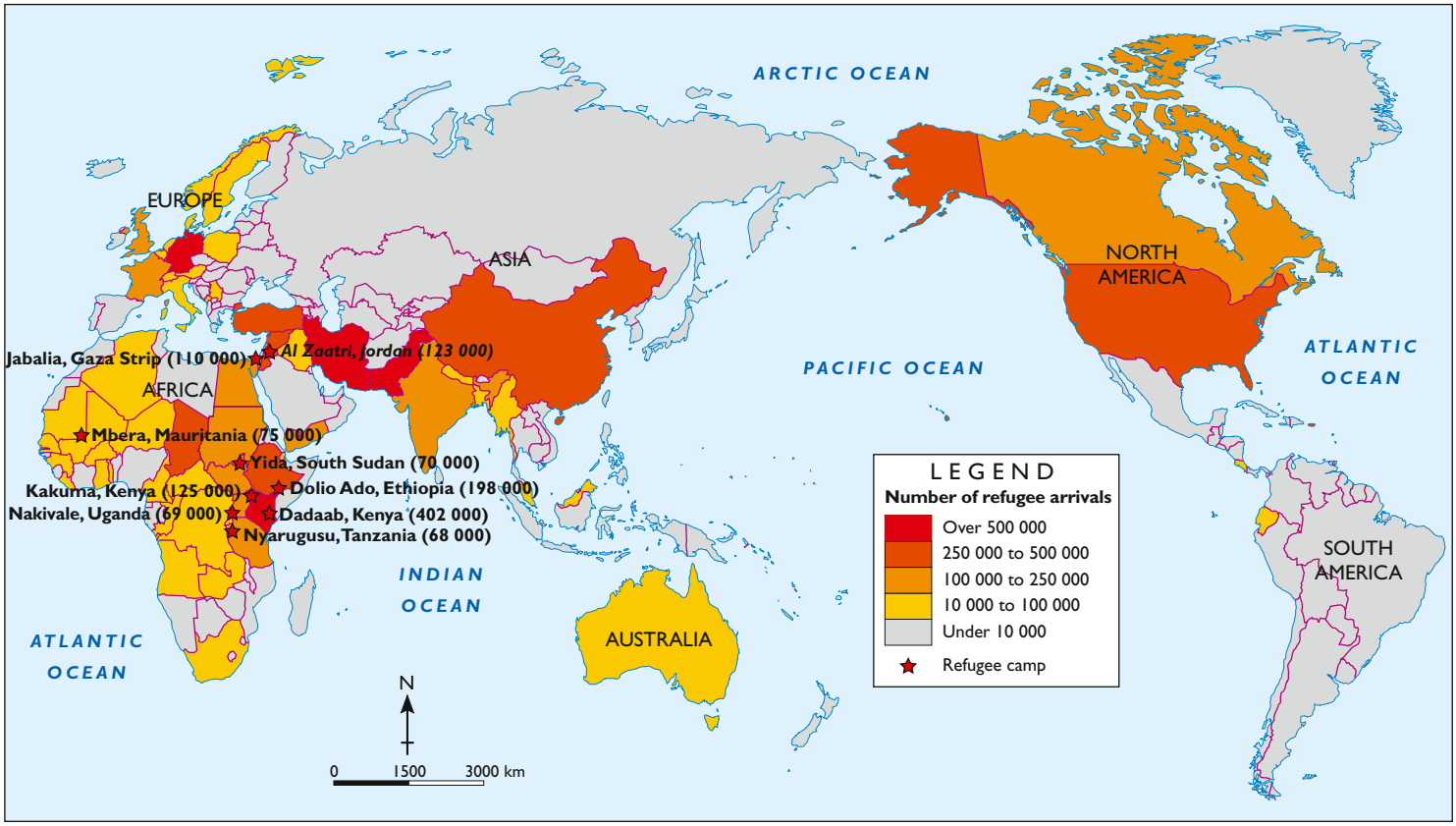
6 Divide into small groups and discuss how this conflict is likely to have affected the wellbeing of individuals and communities in both Sudan and Chad. Summarise your findings and present them in a table. Use the column headings 'Effects on the wellbeing of individuals' and 'Effects on the wellbeing of communities'.

Conflict and refugees

During periods of armed conflict, many people are forced to leave their homes and seek safety elsewhere. If they cross into another country they are referred to as **refugees**. If they remain within their home country but away from where they live, they are referred to as **internally displaced persons (IDP)**.

The number of refugees and IDPs around the world changes constantly depending on the number of places involved in conflicts. In 2011, about 37 million people were forced to leave home because they feared for their safety. More than 26 million of these were IDPs. Almost half of all refugees are in Asia, whereas most IDPs are in Sub-Saharan Africa and South America. Colombia alone accounts for almost one-fifth of the world's IDPs (see Source 4.49).

WORLD: REFUGEES AND INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN 2011



Source 4.49

Source: Oxford University Press

The wellbeing of refugees

Life as a refugee is hard. Many refugees have witnessed or been victims of persecution, torture or sexual violence. As most refugees flee from one developing country to another, they often find that the country to which they have fled is unwilling or unable to offer them much assistance. In many cases they are forced to live in temporary camps set up by refugee agencies such as the United Nations and International Red Cross. These camps are often in places where access to essential services such as a reliable water supply, food security, sanitation and health care is very limited.

The United National High Commission on Refugees (UNHCR) sets minimum standards for refugees living in camps. Not all refugee camps are able to meet these very basic standards (see Source 4.50).

Source 4.50 Study of people in refugee camps able to access services at the UNHCR minimum standard

Essential service	UNHCR minimum standard	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Nepal	Bangladesh	Thailand
People receiving food aid	100% of eligible people	100%	99%	100%	84%	100%	100%
Kilocalories per person per day	2100 kcal	2100 kcal	2114 kcal	1521 kcal	1785 kcal	2158 kcal	2472 kcal
Water per person per day	20 litres	26 litres	18 litres	14 litres	24 litres	24 litres	30 litres
Population within 200 m of tap	100%	93%	76%	50%	100%	100%	100%
Families with toilets	100%	95%	7%	58%	24%	59%	90%
Households with adequate housing	100%	78%	13%	93%	3%	100%	100%
People per health facility	10 000	14 193	13 672	8847	13 694	12 111	11 408
Qualified or trained teachers	80%	76%	11%	70%	Not known	51%	54%

Source: United National High Commission on Refugees, 2009

Case study: Life in Dadaab refugee camp

Dadaab refugee camp in Kenya is located approximately 100 kilometres from the Kenya–Somalia border. It is one of the world's largest refugee camps, housing more than 350000 refugees, most fleeing conflict in nearby Somalia.



Source 4.51 Women collect drinking water at Dadaab refugee camp in Kenya.



Source 4.52 A Somali woman prepares food for her family in a makeshift shelter.

Check your learning 4.16

Remember and understand

1 What is the difference between a refugee and an internally displaced person (IDP)?
2 Why are living conditions often poor in refugee camps?

Apply and analyse

3 Use Sources 4.51 and 4.52 to describe wellbeing in Dadaab refugee camp, Kenya.
4 Examine Source 4.49.
   a Use the PQE method to describe the distribution of refugees on a global scale. For more information on the PQE method refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.
   b Approximately how many refugees and IDPs are in each of the six countries listed in Source 4.50?
5 Examine Source 4.50.
   a Compare living conditions between refugee camps in Asia and Africa.
   b Using evidence from the table, which refugee camp do you think has the worst living conditions?
   c Describe the variations between camps with regard to toilet facilities.

Evaluate and create

6 Construct a scatter plot comparing Gross Domestic Product per capita and kilocalories per person within refugee camps in the six countries listed in Source 4.50. Describe and account for the pattern shown in your completed graph. GDP per capita data is available in the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515.

Demographic change in Japan

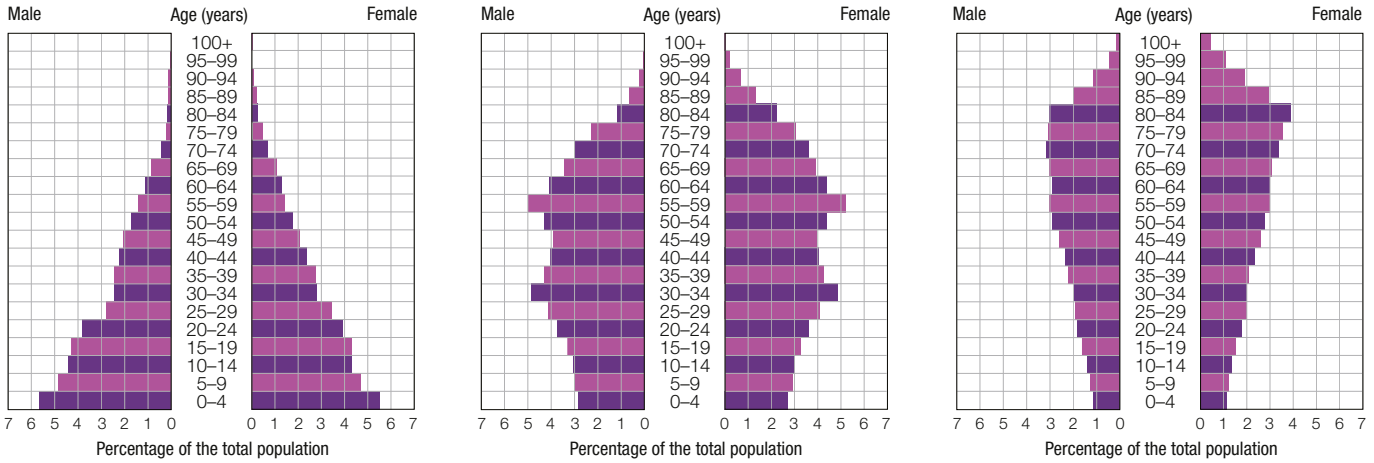
The population of Japan has undergone an significant change over the last 60 years. In 1950, 7 per cent of all Japanese people were over the age of 60 and life expectancy was 59 years. By 2010, more than one-quarter were over 60 and life expectancy was the highest in the world at more than 83 years.



Source 4.55 More than 50 000 Japanese people are aged over 100 – around 87 per cent of them women.

There are many factors responsible for these changes. In 1945, at the end of World War II, returning soldiers were keen to marry and start families. The result was a baby boom where the birth rate rose dramatically for about five years. When this group started working, in the 1970s and 1980s, they brought about an economic transformation that made Japan one of the world's wealthiest countries. This wealth was used to improve wellbeing and has improved life expectancy. Babies born in the boom are now in their sixties.

The other important demographic change has been a fall in the birth rate. Japanese families are now amongst the world's smallest. This has led to an overall decline in the size of the population. The population currently sits at around 126 million. Researchers estimate that the population will fall to 95 million by 2050. This has obvious implications for the economy and for the care of the growing elderly population.



Source 4.53 Population pyramids for Japan showing the population in 1950 (left), 2005 (middle) and the expected population in 2055 (right).

Source 4.54 Key population indicators for Japan from 1950 to 2010

	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
Life expectancy	59.3	65.8	67.8	70.3	72.1	74.4	76.2	78.3	79.0	79.8	81.3	82.3	83.2
Fertility rate	3.51	2.47	2	1.98	2.1	2	1.78	1.72	1.57	1.41	1.32	1.3	1.36
Total population (millions)	82	88	92	97	NA	NA	NA	119	122	124	125	126	126
Population aged 60+ (%)	7.7	8.0	8.8	9.6	10.6	11.7	12.8	14.6	17.4	20.4	23.3	26.5	30.5

Source 4.56 Birth and death rates for Japan from 1953 to 2008

	1953	1958	1963	1968	1973	1978	1983	1988	1993	1998	2003	2008
Birth rate per 1000 population	23.75	18.04	17.11	17.79	19.03	15.21	12.81	11.19	9.87	9.44	8.92	8.20
Death rate per 1000 population	9.389	7.926	7.381	6.907	6.62	6.25	6.276	6.461	7.514	7.013	7.884	9.149

skill**drill**

Constructing a multiple line graph

Multiple line graphs are useful tools for displaying and comparing a range of data. They are constructed in much the same way as normal line graphs but extra lines are added to show the trends in multiple data. Follow these steps to construct a multiple line graph:

Step 1 Construct a set of axes. As line graphs usually show change over time, the years are commonly placed on the horizontal axis (*x*-axis). Using an even scale, such as one centimetre for every 10 years, divide and label the *x*-axis. Now draw the vertical axis (*y*-axis). Ensure that the *y*-axis has a scale that suits all the data that you are plotting and will fit the highest number in the data set.

Step 2 Plot the first set of data using a neat, coloured dot. Join these dots with a neat line, using the same colour. At the end of the line, write the title of the data. Alternatively, use a legend.

Step 3 Repeat step 2 for each set of data. Use different colours for each line.

Step 4 Give your completed graph a title.

Apply the skill

1 Construct a multiple line graph showing the changes in life expectancy, total population and the percentage of the population aged over 60 in Japan between 1950 and 2010.

2 Describe the patterns shown in your completed graph.

3 How are these changes reflected in the three population pyramids?

4 Construct a multiple line graph showing the changes in birth and death rates between 1953 and 2008.

5 Compare your completed graph with the demographic transition model in Source 4.19. Which stage of demographic transition is Japan currently in?

Extend your understanding

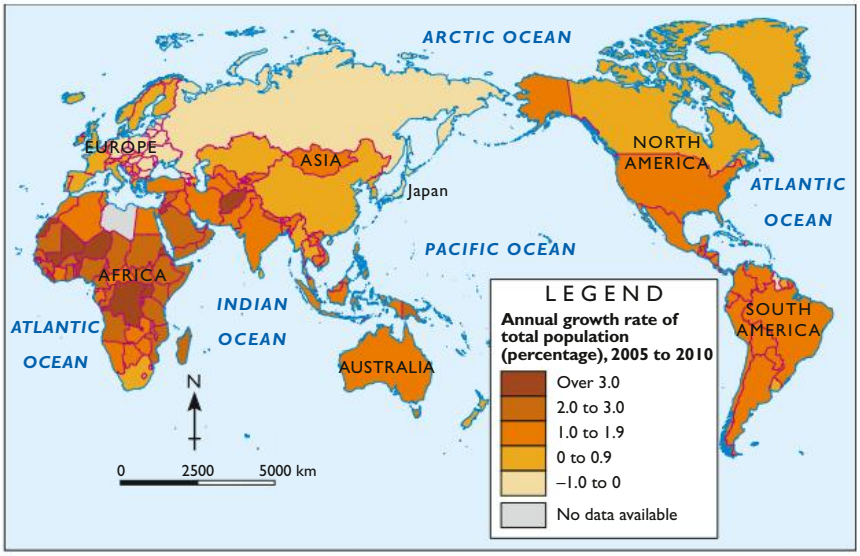
1 Japan is not the only country with a declining and ageing population. Examine Source 4.57 showing world population growth and describe the location of those countries with –1.0 to 0 per cent growth.

2 Select one of these countries (other than Japan). Research the structure of the population of this country. A useful starting point is the CIA World Factbook, available online.

3 What are some of the similarities and differences between your chosen country and Japan in terms of:

- a fertility
- b population over 60 years of age
- c the reasons for population change.

WORLD: POPULATION GROWTH



Source 4.57 Source: Oxford University Press



Improving human wellbeing

All over the world, the wellbeing of millions of people is slowly improving. From local projects (such as teaching Indian women sustainable farming techniques) to global initiatives (such as the United Nations Millennium Development Goals), the inequalities between rich and poor in many areas are being addressed.

Since 2000, around 600 million of the world's poor have moved above the poverty line, more than 1 billion have gained access to safe drinking water, millions of girls have attended school for the first time, millions more babies have survived beyond their first year of life, and the rates of infection for deadly diseases like HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis have all fallen. These improvements are due to the hard work of many different organisations and agencies – from small not-for-profit groups to huge multi-national non-government organisations. Thanks to the financial support of government grants, contributions from the business community, and donations from ordinary citizens, these organisations are able to continue their work improving levels of human wellbeing for those who need it most.

5.1

How can we improve wellbeing?

1 How might training in crop development help the women in Source 5.1 to improve their wellbeing?

2 What do you know about the United Nations Millennium Development Goals? What questions could you ask to help you find out more?

5.2

Who is working to improve wellbeing?

1 Have you heard of any groups that are working to improve wellbeing in Australia? What about improving wellbeing on the global scale?

2 In 2013, the Australian government budgeted $5 billion of aid to overseas countries. Brainstorm ways that this aid could improve wellbeing in a country such as India.



Source 5.1 Women in India receiving training from the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) on sustainable agricultural practices and crop-growing techniques

5.1 How can we improve wellbeing?

Improving wellbeing

At a meeting of the United Nations in 2000, representatives of all the 193 countries present agreed to a set of goals designed to end poverty and improve wellbeing across the globe by 2015. Eight goals, now known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), were created and agreed to by all of the world's countries and leading development institutions.

The Millennium Development Goals

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals aim to:

- eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- achieve universal primary education
- promote gender equality and empower women
- reduce child mortality
- improve maternal health
- combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- ensure environmental sustainability
- develop a global partnership for development.

Progress towards these goals is tracked against 8 goals (see Source 5.3) using 60 indicators of wellbeing. Many countries, including Australia, use these goals as a framework for allocating funds to their overseas aid programs.



Source 5.2 A United Nations infographic reporting on progress made towards achieving Goal 1.

Progress towards achieving these goals has been uneven. Some goals and targets have been met ahead of schedule while others may never be met. In some regions, progress has been very slow and wellbeing has even begun to decline again. Despite these setbacks, there have been success stories. For example:

- In 2010, the percentage of people living in extreme poverty was half the rate it had been in 1990.
- Between 1990 and 2010, more than 2 billion people gained access to improved sources of drinking water.
- In 2010, 99 per cent of children in developing countries attended primary school, up from 82 per cent in 1999.
- There were 14 000 fewer child deaths per day in 2011 than there were in 1990.
- The estimated rate of malaria infections has fallen by 17 per cent since 2000.
- The rate of maternal mortality (mothers dying due to pregnancy or birth) has almost halved since 1990.

Check your learning 5.1

Remember and understand

1 What was the aim behind the creation of the Millennium Development Goals?

2 What do countries like Australia use these goals for?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 5.3, reporting on the progress in achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

- a Which targets are the closest to being achieved?
- b Which targets are the furthest from being achieved?
- c Why do you think this is?
- d How do Oceania and Sub-Saharan Africa compare in their progress towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals by 2015?

Evaluate and create

Use the Internet to complete this task.

4 Using a series of boxes and arrows explain how three or more of the MDGs are linked to each other.

Goals and targets	North Africa	Sub-Saharan Africa	East Asia	South-East Asia	South Asia	Middle East	Oceania	Latin America and Caribbean	Causcasus and Central Asia
GOAL 1: ERADICATE EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER									
Reduce extreme poverty by half	Low poverty	Very high poverty	Moderate poverty	Moderate poverty	Very high poverty	Low poverty	Very high poverty	Low poverty	Low poverty
Productive and decent employment	Large deficit in decent work	Very large deficit in decent work	Large deficit in decent work	Large deficit in decent work	Very large deficit in decent work	Large deficit in decent work	Very large deficit in decent work	Moderate deficit in decent work	Moderate deficit in decent work
Reduce hunger by half	Low hunger	Very high hunger	Moderate hunger	Moderate hunger	High hunger	Moderate hunger	Moderate hunger	Moderate hunger	Moderate hunger
GOAL 2: ACHIEVE UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION									
Universal primary schooling	High enrolment	Moderate enrolment	High enrolment	High enrolment	High enrolment	High enrolment	—	High enrolment	High enrolment
GOAL 3: PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWER WOMEN									
Equal girls' enrolment in primary school	Close to parity	Close to parity	Close to parity	Parity	Parity	Close to parity	Close to parity	Parity	Parity
Women's share of paid employment	Low share	Medium share	High share	Medium share	Low share	Low share	Medium share	High share	High share
Women's equal representation in national parliaments	Low representation	Moderate representation	Moderate representation	Low representation	Low representation	Low representation	Very low representation	Moderate representation	Low representation
GOAL 4: REDUCE CHILD MORTALITY									
Reduce mortality of under-5-year-olds by two thirds	Low mortality	High mortality	Low mortality	Low mortality	Moderate mortality	Low mortality	Moderate mortality	Low mortality	Moderate mortality
GOAL 5: IMPROVE MATERNAL HEALTH									
Reduce maternal mortality by three quarters	Low mortality	Very high mortality	Low mortality	Moderate mortality	High mortality	Low mortality	High mortality	Low mortality	Low mortality
Access to reproductive health	Moderate access	Low access	High access	Moderate access	Moderate access	Moderate access	Low access	High access	Moderate access
GOAL 6: COMBAT HIV/AIDS, MALARIA AND OTHER DISEASES									
Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	Low incidence	High incidence	Low incidence	Low incidence	Low incidence	Low incidence	Low incidence	Low incidence	Intermediate incidence
Halt and reverse the spread of tuberculosis	Low mortality	Moderate mortality	Low mortality	Moderate mortality	Moderate mortality	Low mortality	High mortality	Low mortality	Moderate mortality
GOAL 7: ENSURE ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY									
Halve proportion of pop. without improved drinking water	High coverage	Low coverage	High coverage	Moderate coverage	High coverage	High coverage	Low coverage	High coverage	Moderate coverage
Halve proportion of pop. without sanitation	High coverage	Very low coverage	Low coverage	Low coverage	Very low coverage	Moderate coverage	Very low coverage	Moderate coverage	High coverage
Improve the lives of slum-dwellers	Moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	Very high proportion of slum-dwellers	Moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	High proportion of slum-dwellers	High proportion of slum-dwellers	Moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	Moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	Moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	—
GOAL 8: DEVELOP A GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP FOR DEVELOPMENT									
Internet users	High usage	Moderate usage	High usage	High usage	Moderate usage	High usage	Low usage	High usage	High usage

The progress chart operates on two levels. The words in each box describe the current situation. The colours show progress towards the target according to the legend below:

LEGEND

- Target already met or expected to be met by 2015
- No progress or deterioration.
- Progress insufficient to reach the target if current trends persist.
- Missing or insufficient data.

Source 5.3 A chart showing progress on the Millennium Development Goals (current at 2013)

Improving wellbeing for women and children

The Millennium Development Goals have a strong emphasis on improving the wellbeing of women and children. Women and children are particularly at risk from the effects of poverty as their status in many societies is lower than that of men. On top of that, giving birth in developing countries comes with high risks of health complications and death. Improving maternal health and reducing child mortality are two key millennium goals.



Source 5.4 Two boys return from the fields in the west African nation of Cape Verde.

Fertility rates in the developing world

Fertility rates are higher in the developing world than in the developed world. Source 4.29 shows that fertility rates are particularly high in Africa, the Middle East and South Asia, where the birth rate ranges from three to over six children per woman.

There are many reasons why women in these countries have so many children. These reasons generally relate to the woman's culture, history, religion, status and beliefs. In many cultures, children are seen as a household's greatest asset. Children perform important tasks such as fetching water, collecting firewood and working in the fields. They are also a form of security, as children are often expected to look after their parents when they get old and become unable to look after themselves.

Another possible reason why women in developing nations have a high fertility rate is that they are aware that not all of their children will survive into adulthood. **Child mortality rates** are particularly high in Africa, with the worst levels recorded in Mali (106 deaths per 1000 births), Somalia (101) and the Central African Republic (95). The highest rate of deaths in the world is 119 deaths per 1000 births in Afghanistan. Australia records only 4.5 deaths for every 1000 children born.

Lack of access to contraception is another possible reason behind high fertility rates in the developing world. Research shows that up to 200 million women worldwide would delay or prevent pregnancy if they could, but they are not able to use or access effective contraception.

Family planning

One way of improving maternal health and reducing child mortality is to actually reduce the number of times a woman goes through childbirth. This is referred to as family planning. Fewer children means more resources for those children who are born, leading to improved health (see Source 5.5). In countries where the central government develops a program of family planning – often with external aid and help from non-government organisations (NGOs) – a falling birth rate has tended to follow.

Some of the key benefits of effective family planning

- Smaller families mean better health and education for each child.
- Higher rates of condom use reduce the likelihood of individuals contracting HIV and AIDS.
- Average income increases as smaller families share their income between fewer people.
- Women with fewer children have greater education and employment outcomes.
- Smaller families have higher rates of infant survival and healthier, better nourished children.
- Fewer pregnancies mean fewer deaths due to pregnancy and birth complications and fewer unsafe abortions.
- The cost of social services is reduced, particularly the cost of health care and infrastructure such as water provision and schools.

Source 5.5 The benefits of family planning

While talking about reproduction has long been a taboo subject in some societies, these barriers are gradually being broken down. At thousands of clinics across the developing world, mothers are educated about proper infant nutrition, babies are weighed and immunised, women are counselled about having their first babies later and then spacing subsequent births further apart, and contraceptive options are provided. Educating women about using condoms has been particularly important, as their use can also stop the spread of diseases such as HIV/AIDS.

Check your learning 5.2

Remember and understand

1 What is family planning?

2 In what ways does family planning help to improve human wellbeing?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 5.6. It shows a family planning clinic in Kenya set up by Marie Stopes International. Use the Internet to research this organisation. What do they do? In which regions and nations are they most active? What are some of their success stories?

4 Write a paragraph explaining how an effective family planning program can help to reduce infant deaths in a country.

Evaluate and create

5 Use the key concept of scale to think about the benefits of family planning shown in Source 5.5. Categorise these benefits in order from the personal scale to the global scale.

6 Classify the reasons why families are larger in poorer nations than in richer nations using the SHEEPT method. For more information on the SHEEPT method refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

7 Use the Gapminder website to explore the link between contraceptive use and income.



Source 5.6 A family planning clinic in a busy Kenyan marketplace

Improving access to education

> Education has shaped my life and the history of my country. I grew up in a society ravaged by war and mired in poverty. Schools had been destroyed. My classes were held in the open under a tree. We had no desks, chairs or other basic necessities. The Republic of Korea was on its knees, but education enabled the country to stand tall again … Even in the worst circumstances, education helps to give children confidence to face the future. As Secretary-General of the United Nations, I want every child, without exception, to have the same opportunity that I had.
>
> Ban Ki-Moon, Secretary-General of the United Nations, 2012

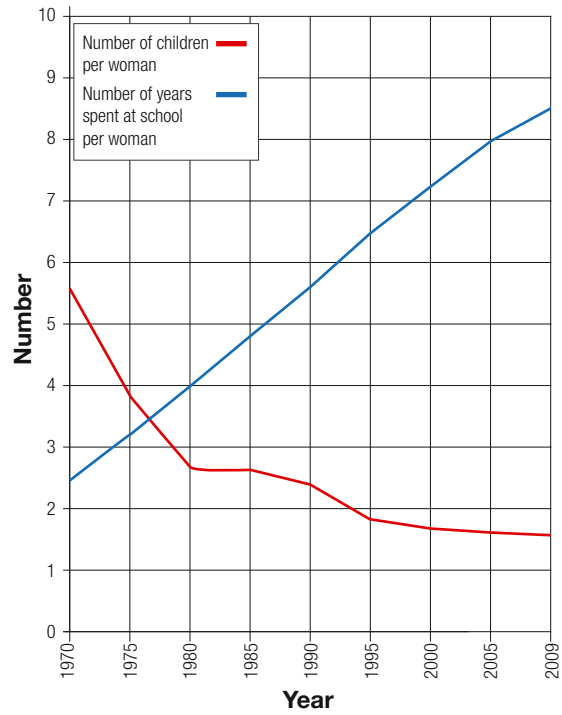
One of the United Nations' goals is to improve the political profile of education around the world. In fact, the United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon has personally led the Global Education First Initiative. Launched in September 2012, the initiative includes, among other aims, the Educate-a-Child program. This program seeks to get all children into schools and bring high quality learning to children who have no access to formal schooling. This is seen as the key factor to improving the living conditions and future wellbeing of millions of children.

The benefits of education

Many social researchers believe that the key to improving human wellbeing around the world, particularly in poorer communities, is to improve participation rates in education. Their studies show that education allows individuals to break the cycle of poverty and live healthier, longer lives.

The benefits to society are multiplied when girls are able to access an education at the same rate and level as boys. Studies show that mothers who have attended school have a lowered risk of their babies falling victim to infant mortality, have fewer children and earn more than mothers who are less educated. Children born to these women are 50 per cent more likely to live past the age of five and have much lower rates of HIV infection than children born to less educated mothers.

Over the past 40 years the Chinese government has made a real effort to get more children into education for longer periods. This push has included increasing the education levels of girls. Educating girls has had many benefits for Chinese society. Educated women generally want smaller families and make better use of reproductive health and family planning services to achieve their desired family size (see Source 5.7). Educated women contribute more to the economy and help increase economic growth. With China's booming economy, China now has 68 per cent of women in paid employment. This is a higher rate than Australia (which has 59 per cent).



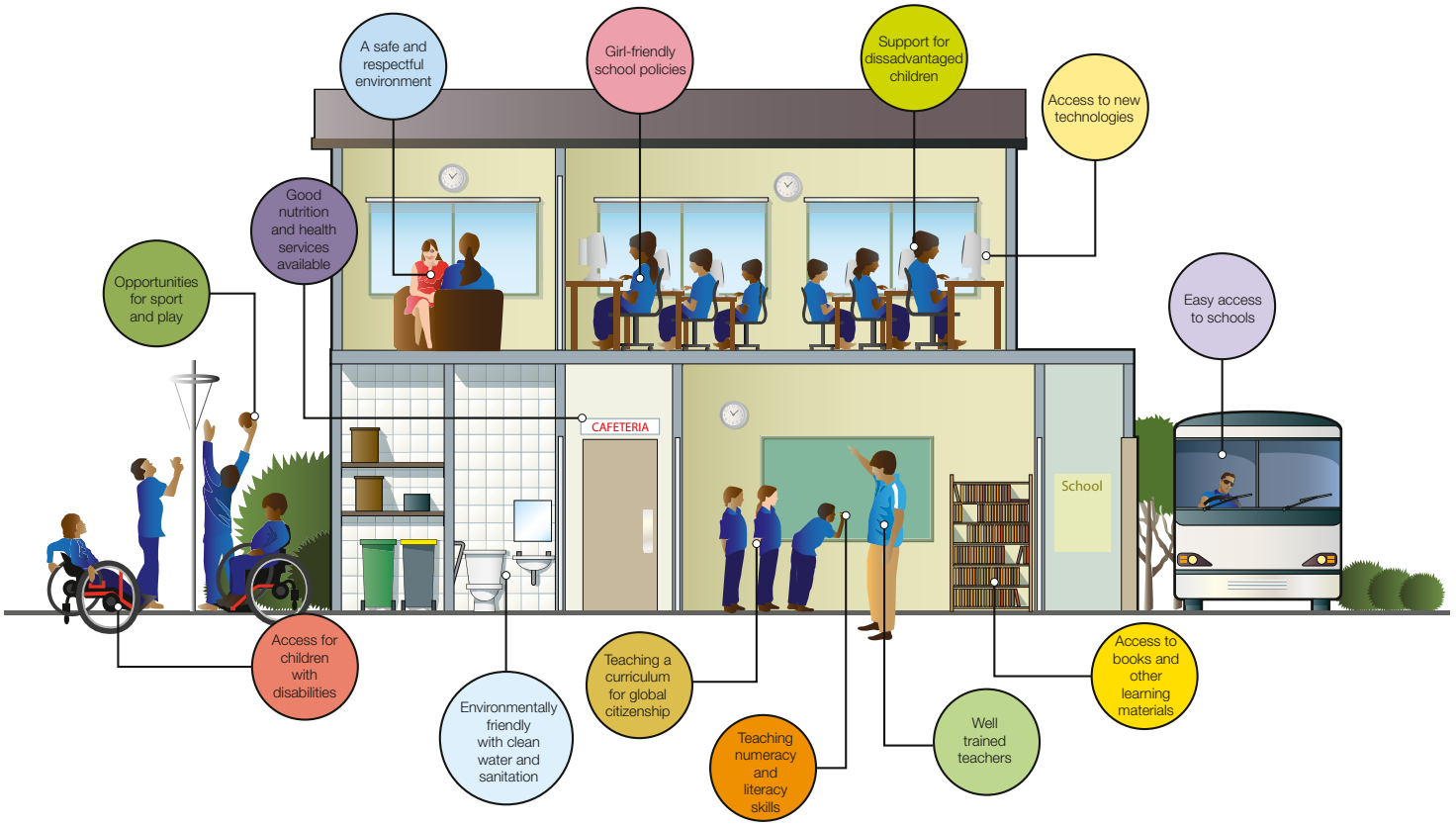
Source 5.7 Education levels and fertility rates for women in China aged between 15 and 44 years



Source 5.8 A Chinese Government poster from the 1970s encourages girls to 'Learn science and build the country'.

Successful schools

As well as getting all children into schools, the United Nations Global Education First Initiative is also interested in improving the standard of schooling that children receive and creating a positive school environment. Too many schools in the developing world currently have poorly trained teachers and not enough books or other resources to teach with. Too many children are also going to school hungry, which is affecting their ability to learn. Source 5.9 shows the standards and features that the United Nations would like all schools worldwide to achieve.



Source 5.9 The main features of successful schools according to the United Nations Global Education First Initiative

Check your learning 5.3

Remember and understand

1 What are some of the links between education and wellbeing?

2 Explain why educating girls can help to improve wellbeing for everyone in a community.

Apply and analyse

3 'Education provides much more than the opportunity to read, write and count.' Explain this statement using examples from Source 5.9.

4 Examine Source 5.7.

- a Describe the change in the education of women between 1970 and 2009.
- b How is this linked to the poster in Source 5.8?
- c How has the fertility rate changed in the same period?
- d How is this linked to the one-child policy implemented over the same period?

Evaluate and create

5 Using Source 5.9 as a guide, design a poster that promotes one of the advantages of gaining an education.

6 Mahatma Gandhi, a leader of the Indian nationalist movement in the early 20th century, once said 'Educate one man, you educate one person, but educate a woman and you educate a whole civilisation'. What do you think he meant by this? Do you agree? Write a paragraph outlining your thoughts.

Improving wellbeing in Australia

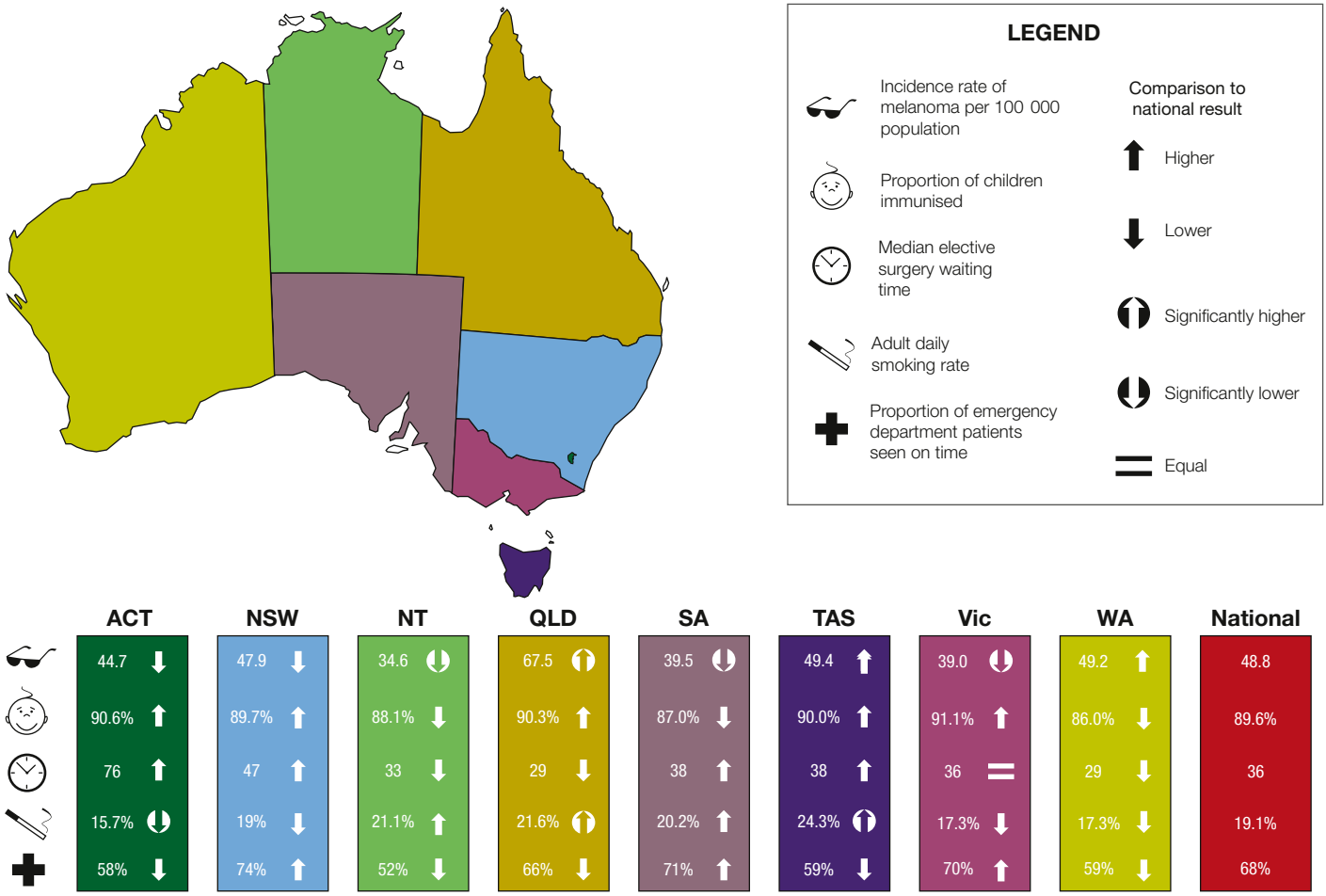
Australia has one of the highest levels of wellbeing in the world. In the 2013 United Nations Human Development Report, Australia was ranked as having the second highest HDI in the world behind Norway. Australians can expect to go to school for longer and to live longer, healthier lives than virtually any other nationality. While data such as this is welcome news regarding our position in the world, it can hide the inequalities that exist within our nation.

There are significant variations in wellbeing, for example, between rural and urban Australia and between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians. A number of government and non-government groups are working to reduce these variations.

Inequalities in health

Studies show that there are significant differences in the health of different groups of Australians. People from poorer households are less likely to be physically active, to visit a dentist or medical specialist, or to have a medical test such as a skin cancer check or mammogram to detect breast cancer. They are more likely to smoke and to be obese or overweight. As well as inequalities due to income, studies have also found health inequalities relating to location, ethnicity and age. Source 5.10 shows some of the health inequalities that exist between Australia's states and territories.

AUSTRALIA: HEALTH INEQUALITIES BETWEEN STATES



Source 5.10

Source: Oxford University Press

Inequalities in education

There are similar trends in education to those exhibited in health areas. Children from poorer households are less likely to attend early childhood education and less likely to go to university than children from wealthier households. They also have less access to information technology such as broadband Internet, particularly in rural and remote regions. Students in rural areas generally have a more restricted choice of subjects to study and are less likely to finish high school.

The rural–urban divide

In many areas of wellbeing in Australia there is a rural–urban divide. There are fewer education and employment opportunities in rural areas and less access to health services and medical care. People in rural areas are more likely to suffer from chronic health conditions such as diabetes and heart disease and die earlier than those living in towns and cities. They are also at a higher risk of injury from work and car accidents.

Reducing inequality

Governments have tried to reduce these inequalities in wellbeing in Australia in two main ways:

- Targeted programs that focus on a particular problem or issue. For example, campaigns to reduce smoking or to encourage people to have health checks.
- General programs to maintain and lift the wellbeing of the entire community. The National Disability Insurance Scheme and Medicare which ensure people can access care regardless of their financial situation are examples of these.

Case study: Rural Health Education Foundation

There are many people working in a range of fields to improve wellbeing in Australia. One of these groups is the non-profit organisation the Rural Health Education Foundation (RHEF). In a similar way to the Royal Flying Doctor Service, the RHEF aims to use modern technology to reduce the gap between rural and urban health.

The mission of the RHEF is to 'improve the health outcomes of people in remote and rural Australia by providing quality accessible health education to health professionals and their communities'. The foundation, which is funded by government and private donations, produces and broadcasts health education programs on its own free-to-air digital TV network called the Rural Health Channel. RHEF expects 250 000 households across Australia to have access to the channel. All RHEF-produced programs are also available as podcasts, on DVD and online.

Programs cover a wide range of topics of importance to people living in remote and rural regions such as Indigenous eye disease, tropical diseases and farming health hazards. Doctors and other health professionals can access the programs easily and therefore stay up to date with current advances in medicine.



Source 5.11 A RHEF film-making team

Check your learning 5.4

Remember and understand

1 In what ways do people in rural areas have lower levels of wellbeing than people in urban areas?
2 What is the Rural Health Education Foundation doing to help reduce these inequalities?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 5.10.
   a List the seven statistics that are significantly lower or higher than the national average.
   b Describe the results of this survey for your home state or territory.

Evaluate and create

4 Rank the states and territories of Australia from those that performed best in the health survey in Source 5.10 to those that performed worst.
5 One of the difficulties for governments in reducing inequalities in wellbeing is being able to evaluate the effectiveness of individual programs. How could the effectiveness of the RHEF TV channel be evaluated?
6 Access RHEF online and list the programs available on the Rural Health Channel. Watch one of the programs available online and write a brief review, outlining how useful you think it would be for the target audience.

Improving the wellbeing of Indigenous Australians

As you have learnt, studies show that the wellbeing of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians is well below that of other Australians. A United Nations official described the standard of health in Indigenous communities in Australia in some respects as being worse than in developing countries. A range of government and non-government groups are working to close the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians in a range of important areas.

Improvements in health

Chronic diseases such as heart attacks and diabetes are responsible for about 70 per cent of the health gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians. The Federal Government, in partnership with local health services, is working to:

- encourage Indigenous people to have regular health checks
- train health workers in the techniques of managing chronic diseases such as diabetes and arthritis. This includes giving advice on such things as the health benefits of increased physical activity and stopping smoking (see Source 5.12).
- make medicines and treatments more affordable to Indigenous patients
- increase the number of Indigenous Australians working in the health sector
- build more hospitals and health centres in Indigenous communities
- improve the quality and range of foods available in the shops in Indigenous communities
- provide mobile health facilities that visit remote communities and target dental, eye and ear problems
- change the type of fuel sold in many remote petrol stations to make it unsuitable for sniffing to reduce the rates of this type of substance abuse
- improve the mental health of Indigenous people. One initiative is called Link Up and helps Indigenous people trace and contact those family members who were forced to move as part of the Stolen Generation
- increase participation of Indigenous children in sport and recreation
- strengthen cultural ties within communities through the support of language and the arts
- upgrade and maintain airstrips in remote communities to provide better access to emergency health care.



Source 5.12 Rates of smoking for Indigenous Australians are twice that of non-Indigenous Australians. Anti-smoking campaigns aim to reduce these rates. Similar campaigns aim to reduce alcohol use during pregnancy.

The responses outlined here are targeted at improving the health of Indigenous Australians. There are also responses aimed at the other six key areas that are seen as vital to closing the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians: early childhood, schooling, healthy homes, economic participation, safe communities and leadership.

Case study: Cathy Freeman Foundation

Responses to wellbeing issues often involve a partnership between governments and non-government organisations (NGOs). One such response is the work being done by the Cathy Freeman Foundation to improve the wellbeing of children on Palm Island. Olympic champion Freeman established the foundation in 2007 to help address some of the key problems facing this remote Indigenous community. These problems include high unemployment, low literacy and life expectancy rates and very high rates of ear disease and hearing loss. As nearly two-thirds of the population is under the age of 20, the foundation focuses on education, particularly reducing the truancy rate which can be as high as 55 per cent.

Key components of the foundation's strategy are public recognition of children who attend school and achieve good outcomes, sport and recreation programs that encourage children to attend school, increased numbers of teacher's aides, school camps to the mainland for those children who attend school regularly, and scholarships to students to attend private schools in mainland Queensland. The foundation has had great success in reducing truancy, improving literacy levels and improving the future employment prospects of hundreds of Indigenous children.



Source 5.13 Cathy Freeman helps Craig Evers ride his new bike on Palm Island. The bike was donated by the Cathy Freeman Foundation.

Check your learning 5.5

Remember and understand

1. Explain what the Cathy Freeman Foundation is doing to improve the wellbeing of Palm Islanders.
2. What did a United Nations official have to say about Indigenous health in Australia? Why do you think he made this comment?

Apply and analyse

3. Select one of the strategies aimed to improve the health of Indigenous Australians and explain:
   a. the aims of the strategy
   b. how the effectiveness of the strategy could be measured.
4. Cathy Freeman is not the first celebrity to become involved in projects aimed at improving wellbeing. Angelina Jolie, Bob Geldof and Bono are other well-known examples. Why do you think celebrities often become involved in this type of work?
5. Use an atlas to describe the location of Palm Island. Describe how the location of this community may help explain the high rates of unemployment.

Evaluate and create

6. Visit the Cathy Freeman Foundation website. Prepare a report on one of the five programs that are helping to improve wellbeing.
7. Design a poster that encourages children on Palm Island to attend school.

5.1 big**ideas:** broadsheet

The wellbeing of refugees in Australia

Many refugees and asylum seekers arrive in Australia after fleeing conflict, violence or persecution in their home countries. They have often had long journeys to get here, and potentially spent years in refugee camps waiting to be resettled in another country. Some also make the dangerous journey to Australia by boat.



Source 5.14 In 2010, more than 50 people died when a small fishing boat loaded with refugees crashed onto the rocky shore of Christmas Island.

Refugees and asylum seekers often have low levels of wellbeing. The process of fleeing their home country and waiting for resettlement has prevented them from receiving full health care and education. They may have suffered trauma in their home countries, and may experience culture shock on their arrival in Australia.

Listed below are some facts and figures about immigration levels to Australia including refugee and asylum seeker arrivals.

- A refugee is someone who would face persecution in their home country on account of their race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion.
- An asylum seeker is someone outside their country who is seeking international protection and who may or may not be a refugee.
- According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), at the end of 2011 an estimated 42.5 million people worldwide were considered forcibly displaced due to conflict and persecution, including 15.2 million refugees, 895 000 asylum seekers and 26.4 million internally displaced people.
- In 2010–2011, Australia granted visas to 13 799 refugees.
- In 2011–2012, 7379 people who arrived by boat lodged applications to be considered as refugees in Australia. Once they have been determined to be refugees they can then apply for a permanent visa to remain here. The top four countries of origin were Afghanistan (3179), Iran (1553), Sri Lanka (825) and Pakistan (618). 4766 visas were granted in the same year, many of these to refugees who had arrived several years earlier.
- In 2011, Australia received 3 per cent of asylum applications made to the world's developed countries. The USA received 17 per cent and France, 12 per cent.

Issues of wellbeing for refugees arriving in Australia include:

- difficulty accessing appropriate health care and other public services. Language barriers also often require the use of interpreters
- many newly arrived refugees lack family and friends in Australia and face isolation in their new communities
- refugees may need specialised torture and trauma counselling for long periods of time as a result of their experiences
- before coming to Australia, many refugees have lived for years with only limited access to food, both in terms of amount and variety, leading to poor nutrition.

skill**drill**

Constructing an infographic

An infographic is a method of presenting complex information using graphics such as pictures, maps and graphs so that it can be interpreted quickly and easily by an audience. Infographics are often used by groups in society to make a point about a current event or situation. Source 5.15 is an infographic created by the Australian community action group GetUp!. It is intended to show that the number of refugee arrivals in Australia are the result of conflicts rather than changes in government policy in relation to refugees.

Step 1 Decide on the issue that you are presenting in your infographic and the point you wish to make about it.

Step 2 Research the issue you are presenting. Look for information that supports your point of view. As with all information, check that it is reliable. If using the Internet, for example, information from government (.gov), educational institutions (.edu) and organisations (.org) tends to be more reliable than information from commercial sites (.com).

Step 3 Think carefully about how your information can be presented as images rather than as numbers or complex lists. Look at the infographic in Source 5.15 and other infographics online for some ideas. Simple pictures tend to work better than complex ones.

Step 4 Think carefully about how you are going to set the information out on the page. Remember that people tend to read infographics in the same way they read a book – left to right and top to bottom. Some infographics use the idea of a journey to present their information and join together key pieces of information with roads, railway tracks or arrows.

Step 5 Put all of this together neatly. You may like to use an online program such as 'infogr.am' or 'easel.ly' to create your infographic. Alternatively, you can use coloured markers, print outs of images, paper and glue.

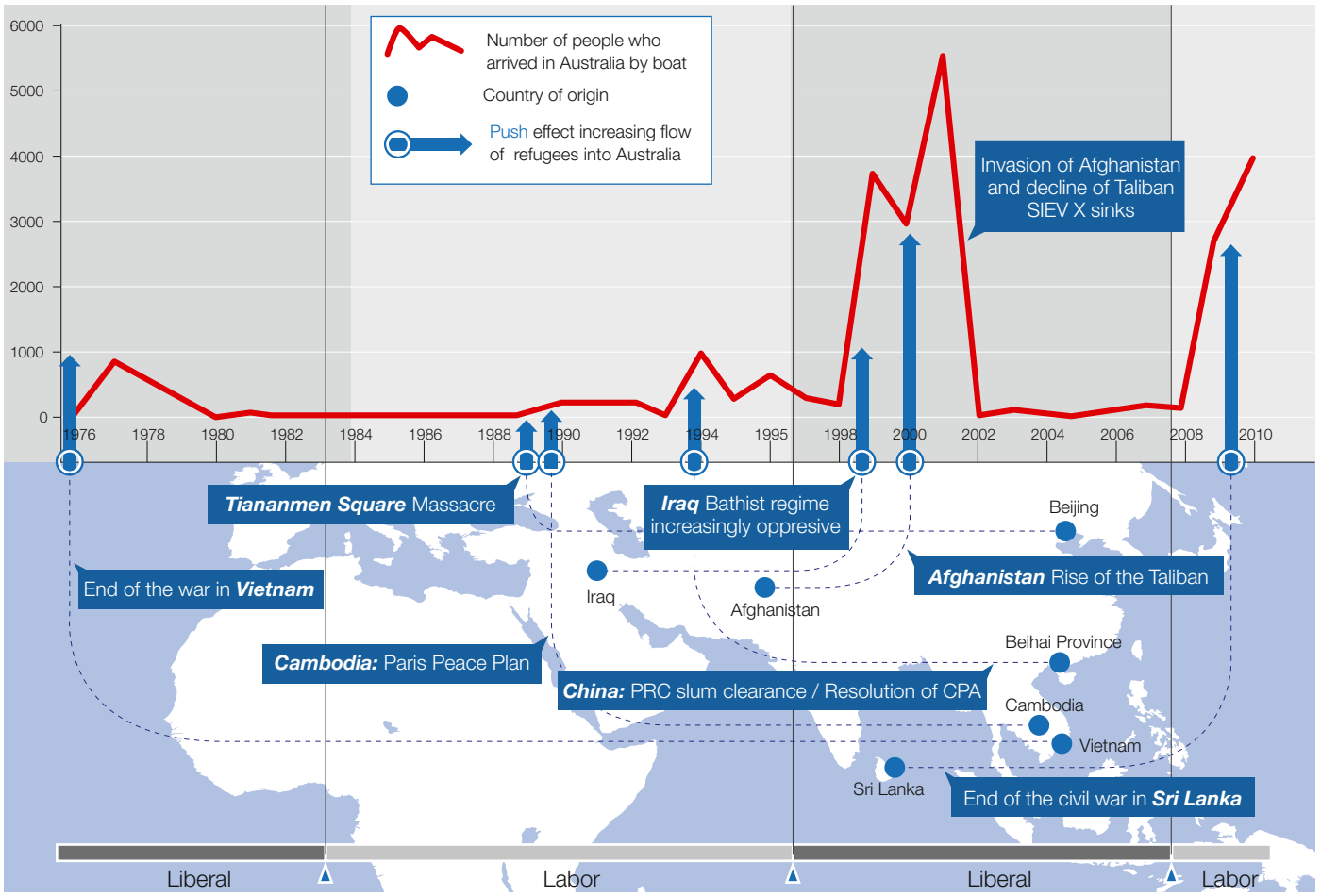
Apply the skill

1 Design and present an infographic using the facts and figures provided on the number of refugee arrivals to Australia from different parts of the world. You can do your own research or just use the figures presented here.

2 When completed, look closely at your classmate's infographics. Which techniques used by others did you find best presented the data in a visual way?

Extend your understanding

1 Research the numbers of asylum seekers in Australia's regional processing centres on Christmas Island, Nauru and Manus Island in Papua New Guinea. Find out how long they have been seeking asylum and where they have come from. Present this information using infographic techniques.



Source 5.15 'Why refugees come to Australia' – an infographic prepared by the organisation GetUp! Source: GetUp!

5.2 Who is working to improve wellbeing?

Organisations working to improve wellbeing

As we have learnt, the United Nations (UN) has a huge interest in improving wellbeing across the globe with its Millennium Development Goals. But the United Nations does not work alone. It works with individual governments and not-for-profit organisations, each of which set their own goals and develops their own programs. In this section, we will investigate the work of the UN and a range of other organisations working to improve wellbeing.

The role of the United Nations

The United Nations was founded at the end of World War II in 1945, to encourage countries to work together and maintain peace. Since that time it has grown into a vast organisation with multiple agencies working towards the key goals of 'maintaining international peace and security, developing friendly relations among nations and promoting social progress, better living standards and human rights'.

The United Nations has 193 member countries. These countries provide the funding to operate the UN's agencies and programs. Four key areas for the United Nations are peace and security, development, human rights and humanitarian aid.

Peace and security

The United Nations has continued with its initial aim of promoting peace and security among the nations of the world. It provides assistance in areas such as disarmament, mine clearance, counter-terrorism and peacekeeping forces as well as encouraging nations and communities in conflict to work towards a peaceful resolution.

Development

United Nations programs throughout the developing world are aimed at reducing poverty and improving the wellbeing of billions of people. In terms of promoting economic development, the UN works with countries to promote trade between countries and to build stable governments.



Source 5.16 UN peacekeepers pass groups of people fleeing conflict in the Democratic Republic of Congo.



Source 5.17 The United Nations works to provide free universal education, particularly among groups who have found this difficult to access. This includes the young girls of Pakistan.

Human rights

The United Nations seeks to uphold the values of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights throughout the world. Since the creation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, the UN has adopted several further declarations. These include conventions aimed at ending discrimination against women (in 1979) and further protecting the rights of children (in 1989). In 2006, the rights of Indigenous people were described in a further declaration. This aims to allow Indigenous groups to protect and strengthen their cultural identity.

The United Nations works towards ending violence against children, human trafficking, and the use of sexual violence as a weapon of war. It also promotes the freedom of Indigenous people to determine their own futures. The United Nations believes that every child has the right to an education.

Humanitarian aid

In those regions where food security is an issue, the United Nations works to improve farm productivity and provide food in times of famine. It also provides refuge for millions of people fleeing conflict in refugee camps and aid to those suffering from the impacts of disasters.

Check your learning 5.6

Remember and understand

1 What was the initial aim of the United Nations?

2 What types of discrimination is the United Nations now dedicated to eliminating?

Apply and analyse

3 Conduct research to find out more about the World Food Programme and answer the following questions:

- **a** Which areas received assistance from the World Food Programme in 2013? How many malnourished children received special nutritional support in 2013?
- **b** Which countries received emergency support in the past year? What was the cause of the emergency?
- **c** Who are the top five donor countries that support the World Food Programme?

Evaluate and create

4 Using Source 5.16 as a starting point, do some further research on UN peacekeepers in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and write a short news article about their role.



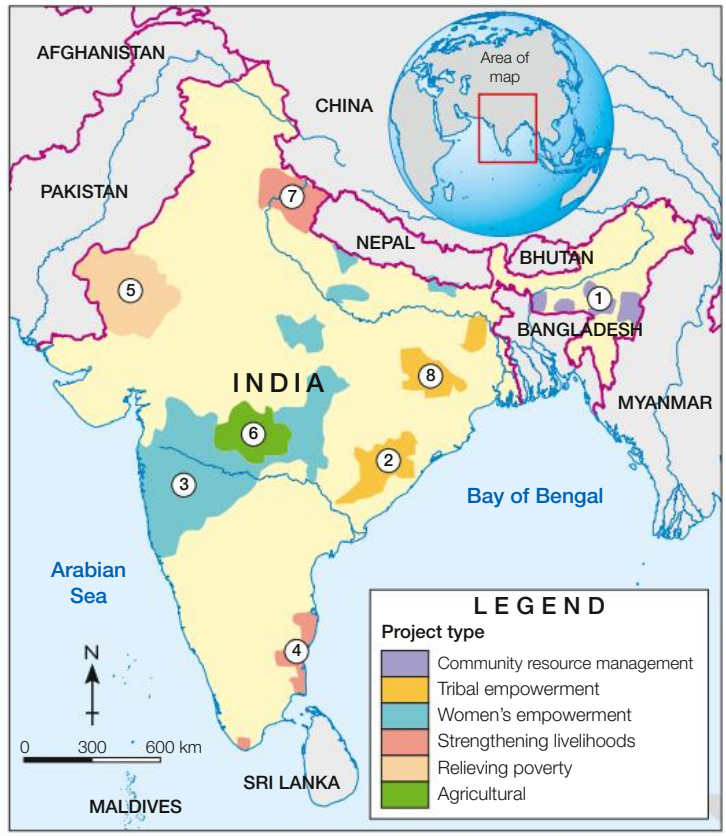
Source 5.18 The World Food Programme provides aid to almost 100 million people a year in over 70 countries.

IFAD: Helping to improve wellbeing in India

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) is an agency of the United Nations. It was created in the mid-1970s in response to a number of famines across Africa. The goal of the agency is 'to empower poor rural women and men in developing countries to achieve higher incomes and improved food security.' IFAD are active in poor rural communities throughout the world, particularly in the Asia–Pacific, Africa, Latin America and Caribbean regions.

IFAD's work in India is focused on groups identified as being the most disadvantaged among the nation's rural poor – women, tribal groups, small farmers, landless people and unemployed youth. There are currently several IFAD sponsored projects in operation across India directly benefiting more than 4 million households (see Source 5.19).

INDIA: LOCATION OF IFAD'S PROJECTS



1 This project aims to change farming practices in the hilly region of north-eastern India to increase food security (see the key concept box 'Farming in north-eastern India').

2 This project aims to reduce rural poverty particularly among tribal groups by providing micro-loans (small loans to encourage small-scale business ventures among the poor so they can become self-supporting and improve their wellbeing) and investments in new farming projects.

3 These vast projects, helping more than 1.2 million households, aim to increase the status of women through self-help groups and financial assistance, often in the form of microloans.

4 Coastal communities in this area are still trying to recover from the effects of the 2004 Boxing Day tsunami. This project is designed to aid this recovery.

5 In this harsh, arid landscape poverty is often the result of water and food insecurity. Projects in this region aim to provide jobs outside of farming to people so they are less affected by variations in rainfall.

6 Severe food insecurity and extreme poverty are being addressed by changing farming methods and moving to more sustainable practices such as organic farming, water conservation and fruit and vegetable production.

7 This project is promoting changes in farming methods along with new job opportunities in rural tourism.

8 One of the nation's most disadvantaged tribal groups is being assisted to develop systems of local self-government, increase rural productivity, manage resources more sustainably and develop alternative sources of employment.

Source 5.19

Source: International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)



Source 5.20 IFAD works to improve the lives of people in poor rural areas such as this woman in India.

key**concept:** sustainability

Farming in north-eastern India

Food insecurity in the hilly regions of north-eastern India has recently increased as the result of a growing population combined with unsustainable farming practices. Traditionally, farmers in this region used slash-and-burn farming techniques where a patch of forest was cut down, burned and used until the soil became infertile. The farmer would then move to a fresh patch of forest. But as the population increased, this sort of farming resulted in huge losses of forest, soil erosion and a fall in food production. Widespread food and water insecurity followed.

IFAD encouraged farmers to terrace their hillsides and protect their forests (see Source 5.21). This is a much more sustainable approach to farming. Soil erosion and forest clearing both fell dramatically resulting in a wide range of improved wellbeing outcomes for hundreds of thousands of people. The changes achieved better food security from crops, increasing fish populations in the streams and rivers of the forests and more varied diets for the farmers. As the terraced farms require less labour to maintain, a wider range of jobs have been developed, incomes have increased, children are more likely to attend school and infant mortality rates have fallen.

For more information on the key concept of sustainability, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 5.21 Rice terraces in Meghalaya, north-eastern India

Check your learning 5.7

Remember and understand

1 What is IFAD and what does it aim to do?
2 What particular groups are the most disadvantaged in India?

Apply and analyse

3 Describe the ways in which IFAD aims to reduce rural poverty by increasing food security.
4 Explain how the agricultural technique of terracing can help improve human wellbeing.

Evaluate and create

5 Construct an overlay map of India to explore the relationship between levels of wellbeing there and the location of IFAD projects. Use the HDI map of India in Source 3.31 as a base map and the data in Source 5.19 as the overlay. When you have completed your overlay map, describe the relationship between HDI and IFAD projects.

The government and foreign aid

In the 2012–2013 budget, the Australian government provided nearly $5 billion in overseas aid. Most of Australia's aid is spent on countries in the Asia–Pacific region, particularly Indonesia, Papua New Guinea and the small island nations in the Pacific.

Aid is given to poorer countries to improve the lives of those living in poverty and to make the countries in the Asia–Pacific region more stable. Not only does this aid help improve wellbeing in the region, it also supports Australia's economic and security interests by helping to build stronger, healthier countries in our region.

Aid is also given to countries outside the Asia–Pacific region when there is a humanitarian disaster such as famine or war. Source 5.22 shows the top 20 recipients of aid from Australia in 2011–2012.

Source 5.22 Top 20 recipients of Australian Government aid 2011–2012

Country	Australian aid (2011-2012)	Human Development Index value (2013)
Indonesia	$514 451 000	0.629
Papua New Guinea	$493 474 000	0.466
Solomon Islands	$235 025 000	0.530
Afghanistan	$198 394 000	0.374
Vietnam	$149 099 000	0.617
Philippines	$132 779 000	0.654
East Timor	$104 633 000	0.576
Pakistan	$95 275 000	0.515
Bangladesh	$95 015 000	0.515
Cambodia	$94 018 000	0.543
Somalia	$82 680 000	NA
Vanuatu	$66 757 000	0.626
Myanmar	$55 906 000	0.498
Zimbabwe	$51 217 000	0.397
Laos	$50 590 000	0.543
Sri Lanka	$50 493 000	0.715
Palestinian administered areas	$48 379 000	NA
Samoa	$40 736 000	0.702
Kenya	$38 143 000	0.519
Ethiopia	$36 685 000	0.396

What does foreign aid do?

Aid is delivered to these countries in a number of ways.

- Money is given to aid organisations such as World Vision that do work at the community level.
- Emergency aid, such as that provided after the Asian tsunami, is often provided in the form of food supplies, fresh water and medical teams.
- The Australian government works with other governments to assist in the delivery of important services such as policing and hospitals.

The sorts of aid programs that receive funding from the government are wide-ranging. There are programs that are directly improving the health of communities and saving lives. These include providing safe water and sanitation where it is not available, maternal and child health services and disease prevention (see Source 5.23).



Source 5.23 These women are registering their children for health checks at an Australian-funded clinic in East Timor.

There are programs that address inequalities by increasing access to education, helping people with disabilities and empowering women (see Source 5.24).



Source 5.24 Australia provides funding for schools throughout the Asia–Pacific region including here in Laos.

There are programs that support sustainable economic development, improve food security and employment and reduce the negative impacts of environmental change (see Source 5.25).



Source 5.25 This organic farm in the Philippines is supported by Australian aid.

There are programs that help other governments to improve their security, justice and human rights (see Source 5.26).



Source 5.26 An Australian electoral officer helps the Solomon Islands police force provide security in a general election.

There are also humanitarian aid and disaster response programs for communities impacted by crisis situations and natural disasters (see Source 5.27).



Source 5.27 A Queensland Fire and Rescue team inspect an earthquake-damaged building in Padang, Indonesia.

Check your learning 5.8

Remember and understand

1 Why does Australia provide aid to overseas communities and countries?

2 Name three concerns that are addressed by aid programs.

Apply and analyse

3 Why do you think that the Australian government does not simply send money to the leaders of each country?

4 Select one of the photographs showing Australian aid at work. Imagine that you are one of the people receiving assistance. Describe the ways in which the aid you receive has improved your wellbeing.

Evaluate and create

5 Construct a scatter plot using the data provided in Source 5.22. It shows the amount of aid given to each country and the HDI value for each of these countries. Use your completed scatter plot to test the theory that Australia gives the most aid to the poorest countries.

6 Construct a choropleth map of the top 20 recipients of Australian aid. Use your completed map to test the theory that Australia gives more aid to countries in our region than to countries further away.

The role of NGOs

While governments are important sources of aid that help to improve wellbeing, there are also hundreds of **non-government organisations (NGOs)** with a similar aim. NGOs range from vast international groups such as World Vision and the Red Cross to very small NGOs with only a few members working to make a difference in a single community. What NGOs do have in common, however, is that they are non-profit organisations, meaning all their money goes to support their work, and they all depend on donations from governments or private individuals and companies to fund their work.

Here we look at two organisations:

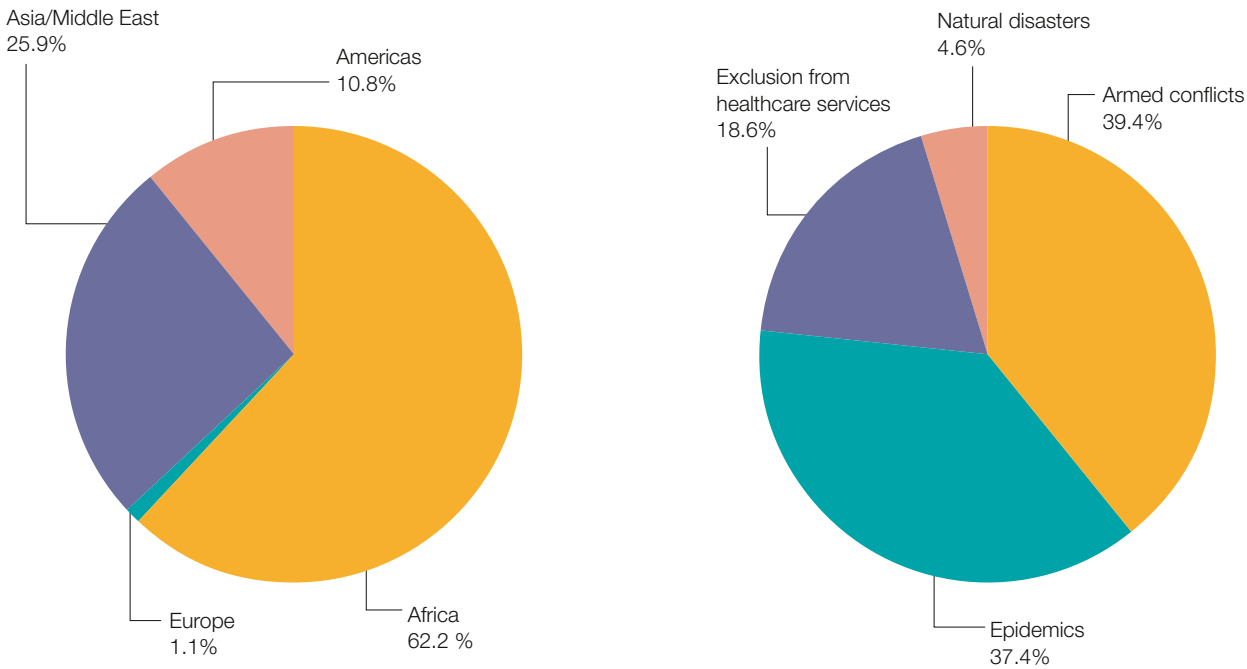
- *Médecins Sans Frontières* – an organisation that responds to emergency situations with medical assistance
- Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee – an organisation that works to reduce the causes of inequalities in wellbeing around the world.

Médecins Sans Frontières (Doctors Without Borders)

Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) was founded by 13 French doctors in 1971 to deliver 'emergency aid to people affected by armed conflict, epidemics, exclusion from health care and natural disasters'. They are currently active in 68 countries, many of them with unstable governments. In 2011, MSF took part in 436 programs, of these 271 were in Africa (see Source 5.28). MSF believes strongly in drawing attention to human rights violations and the lack of adequate responses to emergencies by governments in the areas in which they work. This does not always make them popular and means that virtually all of their funding must come from individual donations rather than from governments.

Source 5.29 Top 10 countries with the largest MSF programs in 2011

	Country
1	Democratic Republic of the Congo
2	Haiti
3	South Sudan
4	Somalia
5	Ethiopia
6	Niger
7	Kenya
8	Zimbabwe
9	Nigeria
10	Chad



Source 5.28 The programs of Médecins Sans Frontières in 2011 by location (left) and type of emergency (right)



Source 5.30 MSF volunteers often work in dangerous conditions.



Source 5.31 BRAC works to improve opportunities for women in Bangladesh and throughout the world. This volunteer is training local women to act as nurses and health advocates for their villages.

Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC)

The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) was founded in 1972 to alleviate poverty by providing micro-credit to the poor of Bangladesh. Micro-credit allows the poor to access small loans – as small as $20 – to allow individuals to finance projects such as machinery repair, hiring a new labourer, purchasing a sewing machine or shoe-repair kit so that they can start their own small businesses. The loan is then repaid with minimum interest.

From these small beginnings, BRAC is now the world's largest NGO. It has over 100 000 employees and helps to improve the wellbeing of around 126 million people, mainly in Bangladesh but also in 10 other countries in Asia and Africa. In addition to offering micro-loans, BRAC now also provides education to millions of children, public health programs aimed at reducing child mortality, services for the disabled, disaster relief and Internet connections to thousands of rural communities.

Check your learning 5.9

Remember and understand

1 What are the aims of *Médecins Sans Frontières* (MSF)? Why do they receive very little funding from governments?

2 What is micro-credit and what does it provide to the poor?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 5.29.
   - a Which of the countries listed is the odd one out in terms of its location?
   - b Select one of the top 10 countries supported by MSF. Use the 'World statistics' section on pages 504–515 to prepare a report on wellbeing levels in this country.
   - c Suggest how MSF could help address some of the wellbeing issues in this country.
   - d Visit the MSF website and use the international activity report page to research the type of assistance given by MSF in this country.
   - e Share your findings with your classmates and compare the assistance given by MSF in the country you chose with countries that others chose.

4 Visit the BRAC website. Use the 'Where we work' tab to explore the countries in which BRAC is active and the types of assistance they provide in each country. Summarise your findings and present them in table format.

5.2 big**ideas:** broadsheet

Charity

Many NGOs, including those you have learnt about in this chapter, are funded by donations from individuals and private companies. Donations vary from place to place depending on a wide range of variables including income. Of course, giving money to help other people is only one type of charity. Many people also give their time as volunteers. This can be of great assistance to others and can help to increase their level of wellbeing. Most of the doctors who work with MSF, for example, donate their time to work in areas where they are needed.

Source 5.33 shows the percentage of the population who donate money to charity in 20 selected countries.



Source 5.32 One of the world's largest charity organisations was started by Microsoft founder Bill Gates, one of the world's wealthiest men. The Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation has donated more than $25 billion to improve the wellbeing of people around the world. In this photograph Bill and Melinda Gates are chatting to Tatomkhulu-Xhosa, a South African man who is living with tuberculosis.

skill**drill**

Creating proportional circles maps

A proportional circles map is able to show the differences in the size or extent of various factors within a country or region graphically. This allows the data to be represented visually and understood quickly. A proportional circles map is commonly used to represent figures including imports, exports, or population. To draw a proportional circles map use the following steps. You will need a ruler and a compass.

Step 1 On an outline map of the world locate each of the places you wish to include in your proportional scale and mark them with a small dot.

Step 2 Choose an appropriate scale range for your map. If you were looking at population figures of big cities, for example, you might choose a scale that goes up by 500 000 people each time. Keep your data within a scale of five different values, so that you end up with a maximum of five different sized circles.

Step 3 Construct a scale on a horizontal line that is relatively short (about 5 cm), or the circles will become too big. Do this by dividing the scale into even values, starting at 0 and placing line markers every 2.5 or 5 mm. For example, at 2.5 mm mark 500 000, at 5 mm mark 1 000 000, and so on.

Step 4 Place the point of your compass on the horizontal line at 0 and the pencil of your compass on the horizontal line at the first marker point on your scale. Use the compass to draw a circle. This will be the radius size of the proportional circle for your first value.

Step 5 Create a legend for your map and draw a circle for your first value following Step 4. Enter the value next to the circle.

Step 6 Repeat steps 4 and 5 until you have circles for all your values entered into your legend.

Step 7 Now map your data. Set the compass to the radius size that matches the appropriate value. Draw the proportional circle on the map at the spot you marked in Step 1.

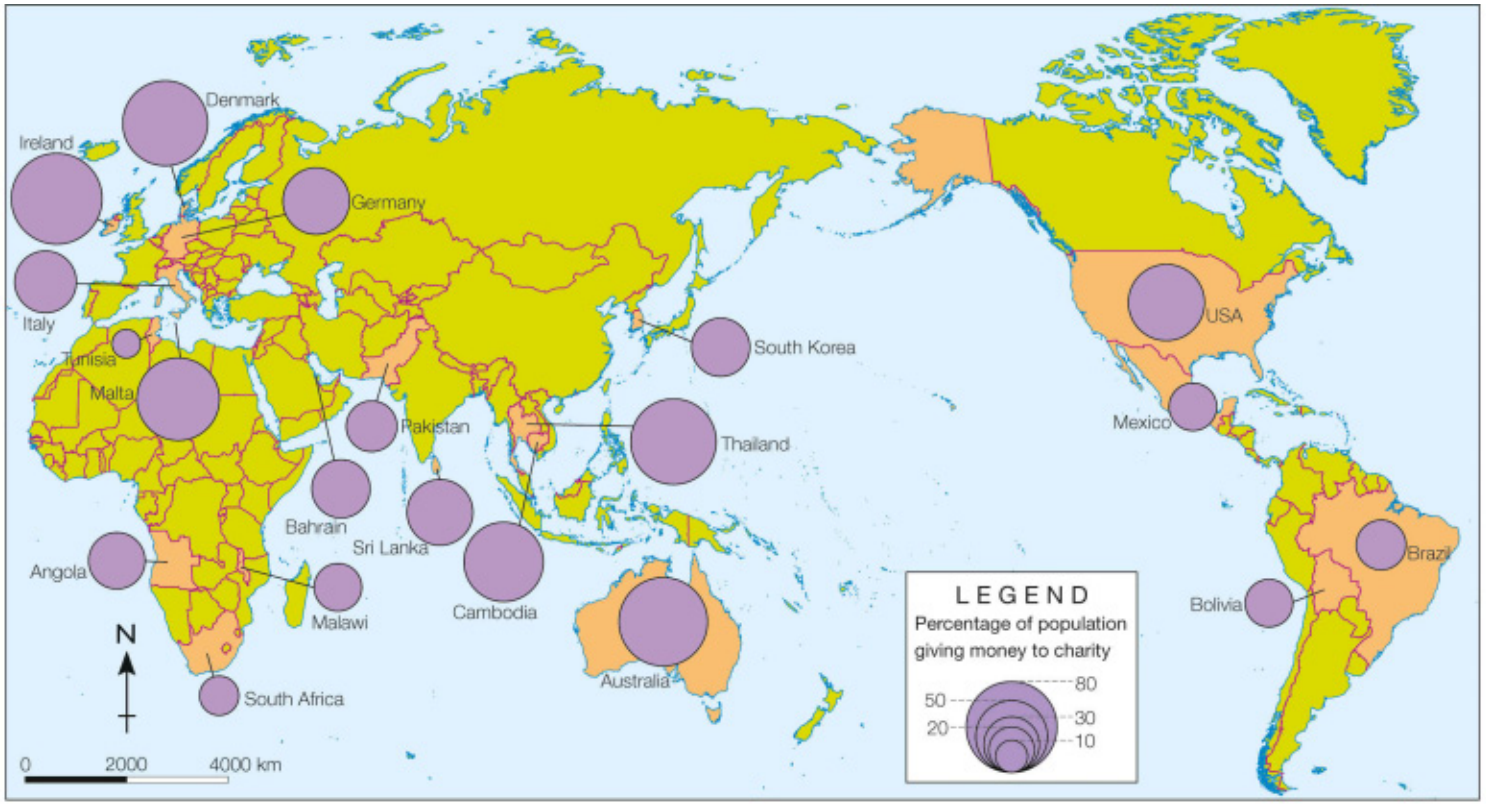
Step 7 Repeat these steps for the remaining dots on your map. As you draw your map you may find that some circles overlap. Label each circle with the name of the city.

Step 8 Complete your map with BOLTSS.

Apply the skill

1 Create a proportional circles map using the data provided in Source 5.22 relating to the amount of aid given to countries by the Australian government 2011–2012.

WORLD: CHARITABLE GIVING INDEX MAP



Source 5.33

Source: Oxford University Press

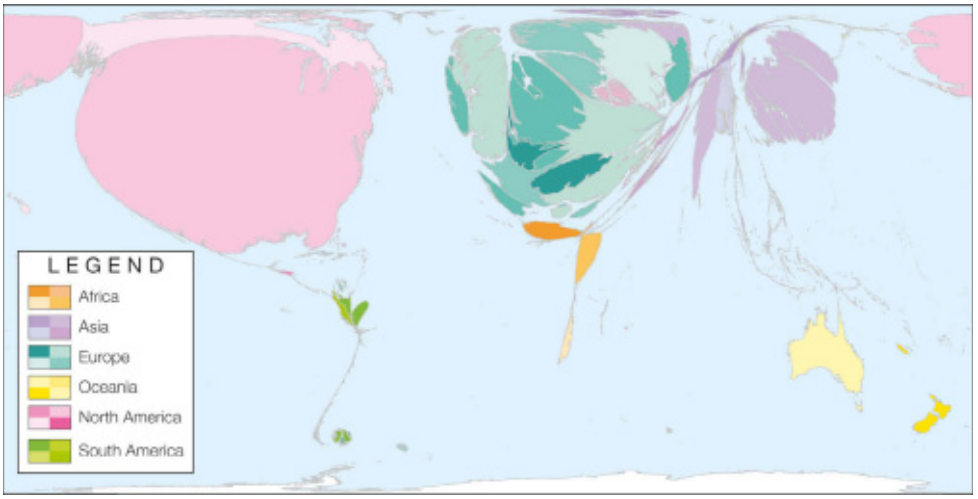
Extend your understanding

1 Examine Source 5.33.
   - a List the 10 countries on this map with the largest percentage of population who give money to charity.
   - b Compare this map to the GDP world map in Source 3.14. Describe any links that you can find between charitable giving and GDP.
   - c In a recent study of charitable behaviours, Australia ranked 2nd for donating money, 12th for volunteering and 10th for helping a stranger. Do you find these rankings surprising? Give some reasons for your answer.

2 Source 5.34 shows another technique that relies on the size of features to communicate a message. What similarities and differences do you notice between the two patterns shown on these maps?

3 Use the Internet to research the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. Select one of the areas where this aid organisation helps and describe what the foundation does in this area.

WORLD: INTERNATIONAL FOOD AID



Source 5.34

Source: Oxford University Press

oxford

big ideas

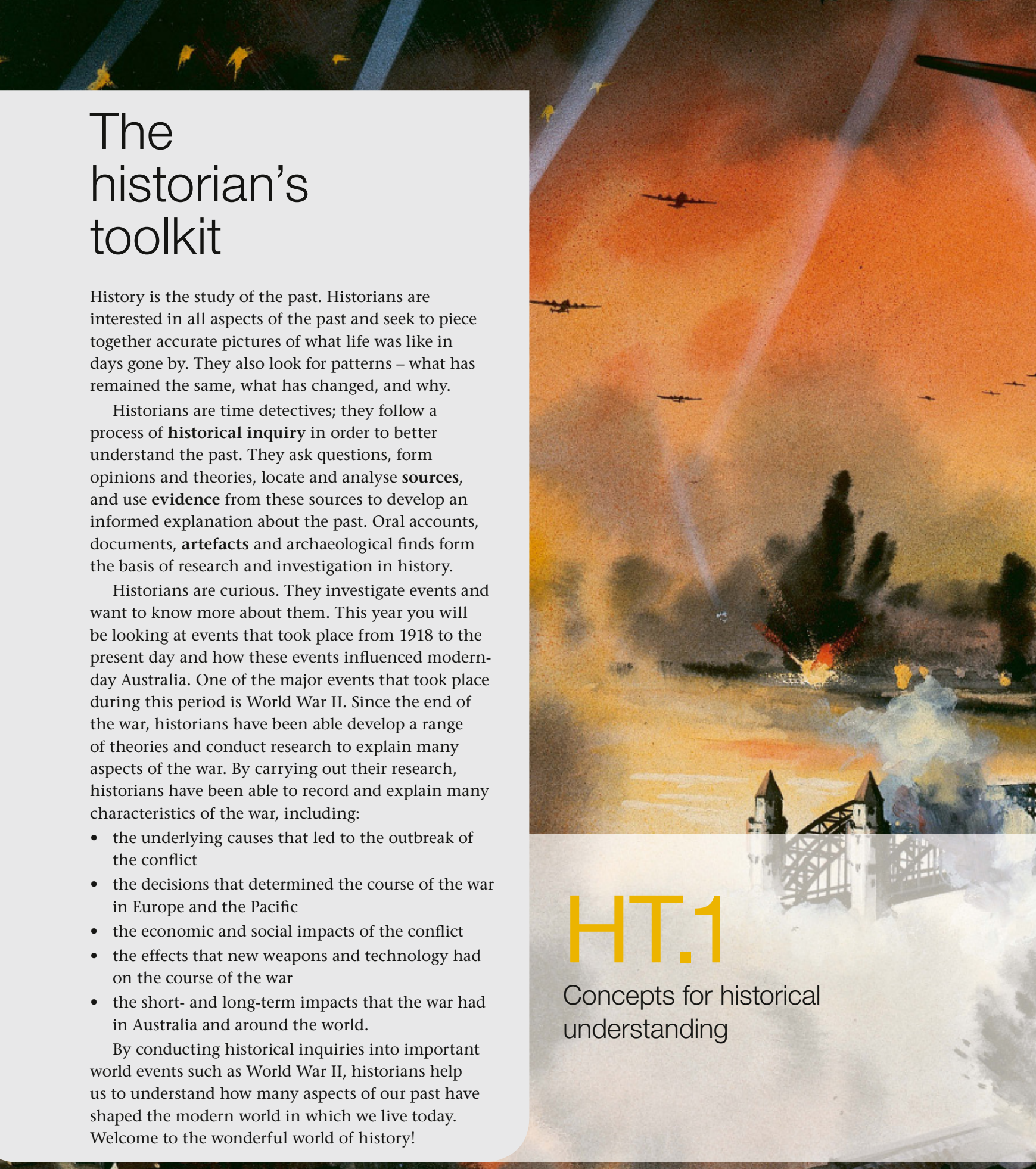
australian curriculum

history

10



The modern world and Australia



The historian's toolkit

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

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

Historians are curious. They investigate events and want to know more about them. This year you will be looking at events that took place from 1918 to the present day and how these events influenced modern-day Australia. One of the major events that took place during this period is World War II. Since the end of the war, historians have been able develop a range of theories and conduct research to explain many aspects of the war. By carrying out their research, historians have been able to record and explain many characteristics of the war, including:

- the underlying causes that led to the outbreak of the conflict
- the decisions that determined the course of the war in Europe and the Pacific
- the economic and social impacts of the conflict
- the effects that new weapons and technology had on the course of the war
- the short- and long-term impacts that the war had in Australia and around the world.

By conducting historical inquiries into important world events such as World War II, historians help us to understand how many aspects of our past have shaped the modern world in which we live today. Welcome to the wonderful world of history!

HT.1

Concepts for historical understanding



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

HT.2
Historical skills

HT.3
Careers in history

HT.1 Concepts for historical understanding

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

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

Perspectives

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

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

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



Source HT.2 Boat people fleeing Vietnam after the fall of Saigon and the end of the Vietnam War

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

Continuity and change

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

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

The use of **propaganda** in Australia during World Wars I and II provides some good opportunities to look at continuity and change. During both world wars, propaganda was used to encourage people to support the Australian war effort by enlisting to fight. Propaganda posters not only encouraged people to act, but also reminded those already serving in the war that their efforts were important to all Australians. Sources HT.3 and HT.4 are examples of recruitment posters from World War I and World War II. The objective of both posters (i.e. to recruit new soldiers), and the techniques used to meet that objective, are very similar. Both sources use images of mateship and honour to encourage men to enlist. They both also attach a sense of shame and disloyalty to the idea of not enlisting. All of these shared similarities are example of continuity.

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

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



Source HT.3 An Australian pro-conscription poster from World War I



Source HT.4 An Australian pro-conscription poster from World War II

Cause and effect

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

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

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

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

- feelings of humiliation and anger among the German people
- severe economic difficulties and instability led to hyperinflation (extreme price rises) and Germany's currency became almost worthless for a time (see Source HT.5)
- high unemployment
- unstable government
- the scapegoating of groups such as the Jews and communists for the country's economic problems.

Long-term effects included:

- the rise of Adolf Hitler and the election of the Nazi Party to government in Germany with promises to restore Germany to its former glory
- the start of World War II as Germany moved to 'reclaim' territories it had lost in Europe at the end of World War I
- the formulation of 'the Final Solution' which included a plan to exterminate all Jews living in Europe (an event known as the **Holocaust**).



Source HT.5 Hyperinflation was one of many short-term effects in Germany brought about by the Treaty of Versailles. For a time, the prices of goods such as food and heating oil increased so rapidly that money became worthless. These men are baling up billions of German Marks to be burned for heat.

Evidence

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

Evidence can be gathered from two types of sources:

- **primary sources** – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after. Examples of primary sources include official documents, such as laws and treaties; personal documents, such as diaries and letters; photographs or films; and documentaries. These original, firsthand accounts are analysed by historians to answer questions about the past.
- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation. Examples of secondary sources include writings of historians, encyclopaedia entries, documentaries, history textbooks, films, illustrations, reconstructions and websites.

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



Source HT.6 This photograph was taken in a London Underground station during the ***Blitz*** in December 1940. The *Blitz* was a time when Germany was carrying out nightly air bombing raids on cities across Britain. Train stations and tunnels in London were converted to air raid shelters after the attacks started on the city and many residents were forced to take shelter there each night. Primary sources such as this are very useful to historians because they provide a wealth of evidence about the conditions experienced by civilians during this time.



Source HT.7 Winston Churchill's Britain at War Experience was a temporary museum that operated in London from 2010 to 2012. The aim of the museum was to recreate the experience of daily life in London during World War II. The museum featured a reconstruction of a London Underground air raid shelter. Here, visitors could experience huddling together to the terrifying sounds of bombs falling above, just as civilians did during the *Blitz*. Secondary sources such as this reconstruction rely heavily on evidence from primary sources in order to be as historically accurate as possible.

Empathy

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

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

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

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



Homes Are Sought For These Children

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

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

Source HT.8 This newspaper clipping from 1934 is seeking homes for mixed-race Aboriginal children taken from their families. Children such as this later became known as the Stolen Generations.

Significance

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

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

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

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



Source HT.9 From the time of its introduction to Australia in 1956, television has had a significant impact on Australian society and culture.



Source HT.10 Popular television shows from the United States that are watched in Australia have a significant influence on our views and attitudes.

Contestability

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

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



Source HT.11 These Indigenous Australians, covered in traditional body paint, are shown taking part in a street protest against the Australian Bicentennial (200th anniversary) celebrations held in 1988. Many Indigenous Australians regard the arrival of British settlers as a day to be mourned rather than celebrated. Many historians today disagree with each other on the interpretation of events in the history of Australia since British colonisation (particularly relating to the impact that settlement had on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples). This debate is known as the history wars.

Other historians resisted this new approach to Australian history arguing that it was too negative and obscured the achievements of white Australia. Historians such as Geoffrey Blainey and Keith Windschuttle contest the extent of the harm inflicted on Indigenous Australians by white settlers on the frontier. On occasions they have accused other historians of falsifying evidence relating to the level of violence committed towards Aboriginal people, particularly in Tasmania. They also contest the extent of frontier violence against Aboriginals presented by Clark and Reynolds.

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

Check your learning HT.1

Remember and understand

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

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

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

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

Apply and analyse

5 Look again at the types of questions historians ask to decide if events, discoveries, people or sites are historically significant. For example:
- how important was it to people who lived at that time?
- how many people were affected by it?
- to what degree were people's lives affected by it?
- how widespread and long-lasting were its effects?
- can its effects still be felt today?

a Use each of these questions to determine the historical significance of the following:
- i the signing of the Treaty of Versailles at the end of World War I
- ii the release of the worldwide hit *Wrecking Ball* by Miley Cyrus in 2013
- iii the arrival of Vietnamese immigrants to Australia after the Vietnam War
- iv the introduction of television to Australia in 1956.

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

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

5 Examine Source HT.11 and complete the following tasks.

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

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

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

Evaluate and create

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

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

HT.2 Historical skills

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

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

Source HT.12 The five categories of skills used in a historical inquiry

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

You will now be familiar with many of these skills from your studies in junior history. This year you will revisit each of the skills and learn to apply them more effectively. Each of the skills you will be learning are organised into five broad categories (see Source HT.12). Each category represents the stages of a historical inquiry and contains a number of more specific skills that you will be practising.

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



Source HT.13 Historical skills help you to be a detective of the past.

Chronology, terms and concepts

Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events

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

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

Creating timelines

Timelines are used by historians to sequence time and order important events chronologically. They help divide large sections of time into smaller periods so that events (like the births and deaths of important people, wars and discoveries) can be arranged in the correct order.

Timelines can look quite different, but essentially they all work in the same way. There are some basic steps you need to follow when constructing timelines. You should already be familiar with these steps, but Source HT.14 provides a simple example and some basic reminders.



A portrait of Adolf Hitler

28 June 1919
The Treaty of Versailles is signed, leaving Germany weak and humiliated

30 January 1933
Hitler, leader of the National Socialist German Workers (Nazi) Party, becomes chancellor of Germany

1 September 1939
Germany invades Poland. France and Britain declare war on Germany. Australia, as part of the British Empire, also declares war on Germany.

10 May 1940
The fall of France, Belgium, Norway, Denmark and the Netherlands to Germany

22 June 1941
Germany invades the USSR

6 June 1944
D-Day landing of Allied troops in Europe marks the turning point in the war in Europe

8 May 1945
Victory in Europe Day – Germany is defeated and the war in Europe comes to an end

1915 | 1930 | 1935 | 1940 | 1945

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

To represent a large span of time, you may need to break your timeline into sections using a jagged line. This break shows that a section of time has been left out and will ensure that your timeline will fit on the page! Just make sure no important events fall during the time you are leaving out.

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

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

Source HT.14 A simple timeline of some key events from World War II

Use historical terms and concepts

Just like scientists and mathematicians, historians share a common language. They use historical terms and concepts to clarify what they are talking about and share their findings. Source HT.15 lists and defines some important historical terms you will come across during your study of the modern world and Australia.

Source HT.15 Some useful historical terms you will encounter while learning about the modern world and Australia

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

Check your learning HT.2

Apply and analyse

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

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

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

Evaluate and create

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

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

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

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

c Present your timeline electronically or as a poster.

Historical questions and research

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

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

The photograph in Source HT.16 shows a group of women working in a factory, assembling the wing of an aeroplane. Women workers on the home front were essential during World War II to maintain the supply of weapons and other goods to the men on the battlelines.



Source HT.16 Using sources such as this, historians can begin to develop a range of closed and open questions to frame a historical inquiry.

skill**drill**

Generating questions to inform a historical inquiry

Look closely at Source HT.16. This photograph could provide an interesting starting point for a historical inquiry into the roles of women during World War II. To start your inquiry, think of some questions that begin with the words 'what', 'where', 'how', 'when' and 'why'.

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

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

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

Apply the skill

1. Based on what you have read and seen, generate two closed and two open questions of your own that will help guide an inquiry into the women on the home front in Australia during World War II.
2. Once you have generated your inquiry questions, identify the information you will need to answer these questions and where you might be able to locate it.
3. Are there any questions for which you have not been able to find reliable evidence or answers? What reasons might there be for this?

Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

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

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

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

Using ICT to locate relevant sources

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

- Search engines such as Google are useful research tools, but much of the material on these sites is not reliable and may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information or material that is out of date. When using search engines like Google or Yahoo, be sure to define your search using keywords. Your librarian is a good person to ask for help and information. Most schools will also have a website devoted to providing information about developing good research skills.
- A reliable way of searching for sources is to use sites linked to government departments, reputable companies, museums, universities and educational institutions. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in the URL (Internet address). Some of the most common domain names are listed in Source HT.17 along with some information about their reliability.
- Avoid blogs posted by unknown individuals. If you happen to find information relevant to your investigation on a blog or social media site, always verify it by using a more reliable source.
- Never cut and paste information from the Internet straight into your own work. Taking someone else's work, ideas or words and using them as if they were your own is called plagiarism and can have very serious consequences.

Source HT.17 Some common domain names and their characteristics

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

Recording relevant sources

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

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

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

Example:

Easton, M., Carrodus, G., Delany, T., Smith, R., 2014, *Oxford Big Ideas Geography|History 10 Australian Curriculum*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.

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

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



Source HT.18 Most research today is conducted online.

Examples:

Australia's War 1939–1945, 'All in – Indigenous service', accessed 24 March 2013, http://www.ww2australia.gov.au/allin/indigenous.html.

Foley, Robert T, 2011, 'Blitzkrieg', BBC History, accessed 2 April 2013, <http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwtwo/blitzkrieg_01.shtml>.

Check your learning HT.3

Remember and understand[1]

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

Apply and analyse

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

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

3 Examine the following sites. Decide whether you think they are reliable and provide reasons why.
- a Australian War Memorial
  www.awm.gov.au/atwar/ww2
- b Microsoft
  www.microsoft.com
- c Griffith University
  www.griffith.edu.au
- d World War II Tours
  www.worldwar2tours.com

Evaluate and create

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

Analysis and use of sources

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

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

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

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

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

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

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





Source HT.19 The origin and purpose of these primary (A) and secondary (B) sources are very different, even though they are both related to the building of the Burma Railway by Allied prisoners of war (POWs) during World War II (under orders from Japanese forces).
(A) This aerial photograph, taken on 5 February 1945 of a bridge built as part of the Burma Railway over the River Kwai in Thailand, is a primary source. So is the bridge itself. The construction of the bridge started in October 1942 and it was completed by late October 1943. Sixteen thousand Allied POWs (including 2815 Australians) and 100 000 imprisoned slave labourers of Chinese, South Indian, Malay, Burmese, Japanese and Dutch–Indonesian origin lost their lives during the bridge's construction.
(B) This photograph, taken on location in Sri Lanka during the filming of the 1957 British–American war film *The Bridge on the River Kwai*, is a secondary source. The popular film (which is also a secondary source) won seven Academy Awards (including Best Picture). It gave a largely fictional account of events that took place during the construction of the bridge during World War II.

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

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

Process and synthesise information from a range of sources as evidence

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

Using graphic organisers to help you process and synthesise information

Graphic organisers are very useful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. A decision-making chart like Source HT.20 can help you do this.

Source HT.20 A decision-making chart showing an example of how you might process, compare and select sources

Research topic: What were the experiences of Allied prisoners of war during the construction of the Burma Railway? **Hypothesis: That Allied prisoners of war were treated so harshly that they died in their thousands.**			
Source 1: 'Changi' ABC website	Pros: • The entry is has some great primary sources • The entry is written by a reputable organisation – the ABC – and was developed to accompany a TV documentary on the subject	Category of source: Secondary source – special interest webpage	Reference information: http://www.abc.net.au/changi/history/burma.htm (Accessed 24 February 2013)
	Cons: • Not detailed enough • The website is focused mainly on conditions at the prisoner of war (POW) camp known as Changi. Only a pretty small section of the article talks specifically about the Burma Railway		
Source 2:	Pros:	Category of source:	Reference information:
	Cons:		
Source 3:	Pros:	Category of source:	Reference information:
	Cons:		
Source 4:	Pros:	Category of source:	Reference information:
	Cons:		
Source 5:	Pros:	Category of source:	Reference information:
	Cons:		
Recommended sources in order of relevance/usefulness: 1 2 3 4 5			

skill**drill**

Analysing propaganda posters

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

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

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

Source HT.21 A sample analysis of a National Socialist (Nazi) propaganda poster from 1934, *Germany awake!*

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

Step 1 Look for evidence of a range of visual techniques

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

- **colours** – often a combination of bright, bold colours (or dark, menacing colours) are used to convey a message, grab the viewer's attention and/or provoke some kind of emotional response
- **images and symbols** – a range of different images and symbols are used to convey the message and/or identify people and countries. It is common for flags, logos and animals to be used to represent countries. For example, Source HT.21 proudly displays the symbols of the German eagle and the swastika to represent German strength and unity. It is also common for enemies to be represented using racist or derogatory imagery.
- **text** – most often, a clear and simple message accompanies a propaganda poster. This is often a call to action or a warning of some kind. For example, HT.21 declares 'Germany awake! Vote List: 2 National Socialists'

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

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

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



Source HT.22 An Australian propaganda poster from 1942, *He's coming south* (AWM ARTV09225)

Source HT.21 has been done as an example.

Apply the skill

1. Use the steps provided to analyse the propaganda poster in Source HT.22.
2. List the similarities and differences between Source HT.21 and Source HT.22. Which do you think is more effective at achieving its goal? Provide reasons for your answer.

Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of sources

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

- Fact: The crossing over the River Kwai in Kanchanaburi, Thailand, was built by Allied prisoners of war and slave labourers under orders from the Japanese army during World War II.



Source HT.23 An illustration by Murray Griffin, a prisoner who was held at the Changi POW camp in Singapore, created in 1946. It depicts the kinds of punishments given to British and Australian prisoners of war by the Japanese during the construction of the Burma Railway. Griffin sought to make records of events and conditions based on the testimony of surviving POWs.

- Opinion: The 1957 film *The Bridge on the River Kwai* accurately portrays the type of harsh treatment received by British prisoners of war at the hands of the Japanese during the construction of the Burma Railway.

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

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

Check your learning HT.4

Remember and understand

1 Which of the following are examples of primary sources?
   a Source HT.23 – an illustration by Murray Griffin, a prisoner at Changi
   b Source HT.24 – a photograph of two Australian prisoners of war outside a hut at Changi.

   Give a reason for your answer.

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

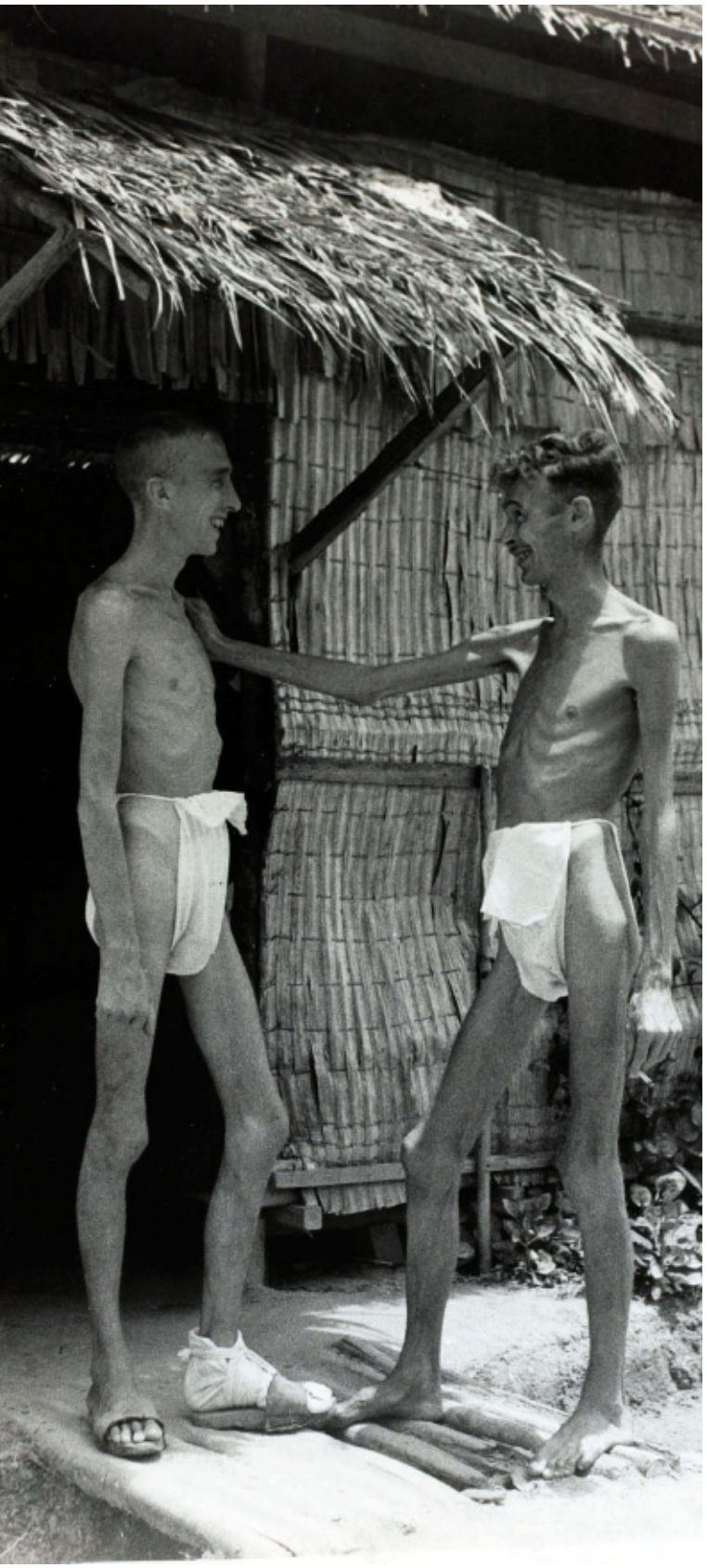
Apply and analyse

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

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

Evaluate and create

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



Source HT.24 This photograph shows two Australian prisoners of war outside one of the huts at Changi POW camp in Singapore, just after the camp was liberated in 1945.

Perspectives and interpretations

Identify and analyse perspectives and interpretations from the past

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

Source HT.25

> After capture I was taken to Changi Camp, where I was with approximately 12000 men, employed clearing the bombed area, also well sinking. Work was from 6 to 6, food was half a cup of cooked rice per man per day.
>
> From Changi was I marched with 500 men to Duckatinor Hills. Here we were employed clearing after bombing runs, building roads and hill levelling. Food supplies were as at Changi.
>
> Whilst working at the river camp I witnessed a guard (known as the Black Snake) bash Gnr Jack Francis with a heavy stick many times and finally brutally kicked him in the stomach and about the head. Francis died a few days later.
>
> I was severely beaten by the Black Snake with a heavy bamboo. He knocked me down several times, then kicked me. I vomited frequently following the bashing was unfit to work and generally was much knocked about. I was finally operated upon by Col. Dunlop for a damaged bladder and internal injury.
>
> Extract from an affidavit (sworn statement) by former Gunner (Gnr) Reginald Melbourne to the Australian War Crimes Registry recorded on 2 January 1948

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

Explanation and communication

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

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

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

Writing descriptions

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

Descriptions must be well planned. Use the structure in Source HT.26 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Descriptions must always follow a set structure, and events must be organised in chronological order.

Source HT.26

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

Writing explanations

The purpose of explanations is to tell how or why something happened. They provide the reader with a greater understanding of the causes and effects of past events. Use the structure in Source HT.27 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Explanations must be clear and factual. They should not contain opinions or emotional language. There must be supporting evidence from a variety of sources for each point made. These sources must be acknowledged in a bibliography using the correct referencing format.

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

Source HT.27

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

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

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

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

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

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

skill**drill**

Creating an audiovisual presentation

One of the most popular ways to present the findings of a historical inquiry is to create an audiovisual presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation there are several steps to follow.

Step 1 Gather your research

Make sure that you have collected everything that you have found out in your historical inquiry. This will include any written research or findings, a list of sources you have used, and a range of relevant images and/or photographs. If you have been working in a group, this may involve collating your research with other members of your class.

Step 2 Plan and create your presentation

Once you have gathered your research, you will need to decide on the best way to deliver your findings. You may choose to use Microsoft PowerPoint or Prezi. Alternatively, you may like to create a website or short film to show to the class. How you will present your findings may depend on the criteria set by your teacher. It is important to check these before your presentation so that you can ensure you are meeting all criteria.

Step 3 Deliver your presentation

Regardless of the format you have chosen, there are some things to keep in mind:

- Practice makes perfect – rehearse your presentation before coming to class, especially if you are working in a group. Make sure each member of the group knows exactly what they have to do.
- Prepare for the worst – make a backup copy of your presentation in case anything unexpected occurs, such as data loss.
- Engage the audience – make eye contact, do not read from your notes and prepare cue cards to help you remember your lines. Speak clearly and make sure your text and layout is as visually appealing as possible.
- Check for errors – make sure any audio and visual material is correct and contains no factual or spelling errors.
- Speak slowly – focus on the purpose of your presentation and do not allow yourself to be distracted.
- Finish strongly – your presentation should end on a high note!

Check your learning HT.5

Remember and understand

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

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

Apply and analyse

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

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

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

Evaluate and create

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

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

HT.3 Careers in history

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

Today, there is a wide range of career opportunities available for students of history (see Source HT.28). Some of these jobs relate to the study and preservation of our heritage, while others involve communicating and sharing aspects of our history.

Source HT.28 Studying history can lead to many interesting and exciting career paths.

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

Valuing and preserving our heritage

Historic preservation is an important field of history that seeks to preserve and protect artefacts, buildings, and other objects of historical significance. Older and rarer artefacts that are in good condition are generally considered to be more significant historically, and therefore more valuable. Unfortunately, however, the older an artefact is, the higher the chances that it has been damaged or changed in some way – for example, ancient buildings and monuments can be damaged through constant exposure to pollution or extreme environmental events (see Source HT.29). Likewise, delicate objects such as fine pottery can chip when being handled or moved and priceless works of art can be damaged through exposure to certain types of light and levels of moisture in the air.

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



Source HT.29 Art restorers work in the Papal Basilica of St. Francis of Assisi in the town of Assisi, Italy. The basilica (church) is one of the most important religious buildings in Italy and has been a UNESCO World Heritage site since 2000. These art restorers are busy repairing damage caused by two earthquakes that hit Assisi in 1997, damaging the basilica.

Communicating and sharing history

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

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

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

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

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

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



Source HT.30 Lucy Bracey, Associate Historian with Way Back When Consulting Historians, shares fascinating stories from the past with a wider audience.

Related opportunities

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

Check your learning HT.6

Remember and understand

1 Why is historical preservation such an important area of history?

2 A new and growing career path for historians today involves digital preservation. In your own words, define what this involves and why it is important.

Apply and analyse

3 Lucy Bracey works as an Associate Historian for Way Back When Consulting Historians. What types of activities does her job involve?

4 Why might a community group or organisation want Way Back When to research and record its history?

Evaluate and create

5 Learn more about the services offered by Way Back When Consulting Historians by visiting their website.

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

What factors shaped the world from 1918 to the present?

The years from 1918 to the present have been some of the most turbulent and significant in human history. The world has changed more over the last century than it has during any other period. The signing of peace treaties (such as the **Treaty of Versailles**) after the end of World War I in 1918 forced members of the defeated Central Powers, such as the German Empire, Ottoman Empire and Austria–Hungary, to admit fault for causing the war and agree to pay **reparations** (compensation) to the Allied powers. Once-great empires were broken up and new countries such as Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia were created in their place. Members of the Allied powers, such as Britain, France, Italy and the United States, dominated negotiations leading up to the signing of the Treaty of Versailles. At this time, Britain, France and Russia controlled vast empires around the world making them the most powerful nations on Earth (see Source O.1).

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

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

By the end of World War II in 1945, Europe was in ruins and crippled financially after years of fighting. In the years after the war, the map of Europe and the world was redrawn. Germany was divided into two separate countries, Russia took control over a number of countries in Eastern Europe such as Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, and a number of colonies controlled by the Japanese, Dutch, French and British empires all declared their independence. It was during this time that the USA and the Soviet Union emerged as the new 'superpowers' of the post-war world. With their opposing political and economic ideologies, the communist Soviet Union and the capitalist USA become bitter political and military rivals, involved in a **Cold War** that lasted from 1947 through to the early 1990s. Although no direct military action broke out during this time, the tension and paranoia of the Cold War years effectively split the world into two opposing regions of influence (see Source O.2).

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

WORLD: GLOBAL EMPIRES POST-WORLD W



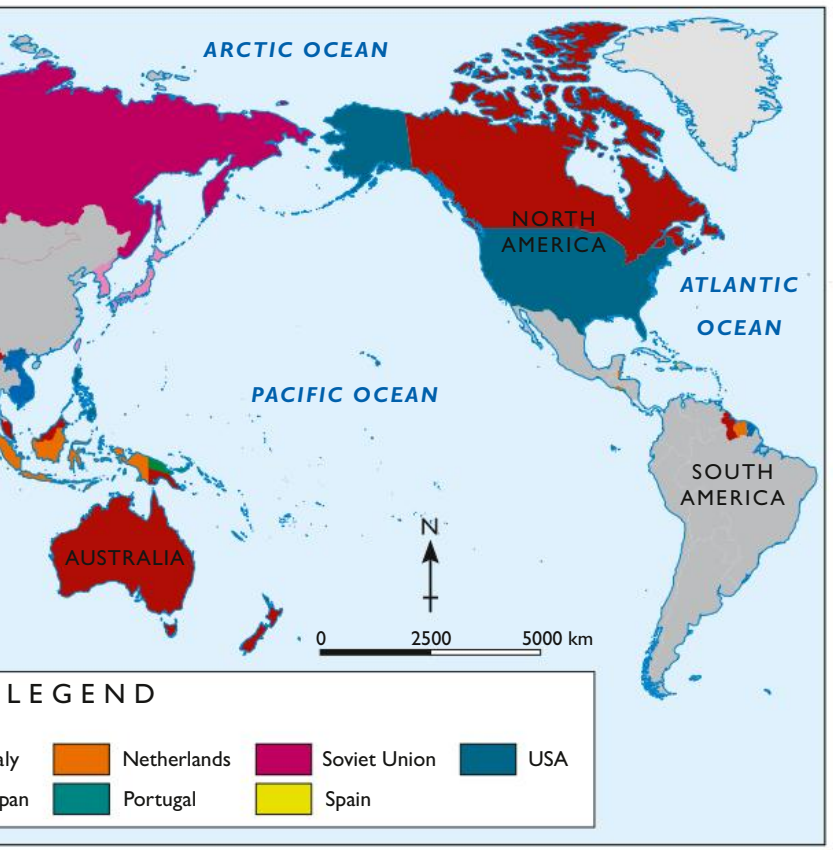
Source O.1

WORLD: USA AND SOVIET UNION AND ALLIE



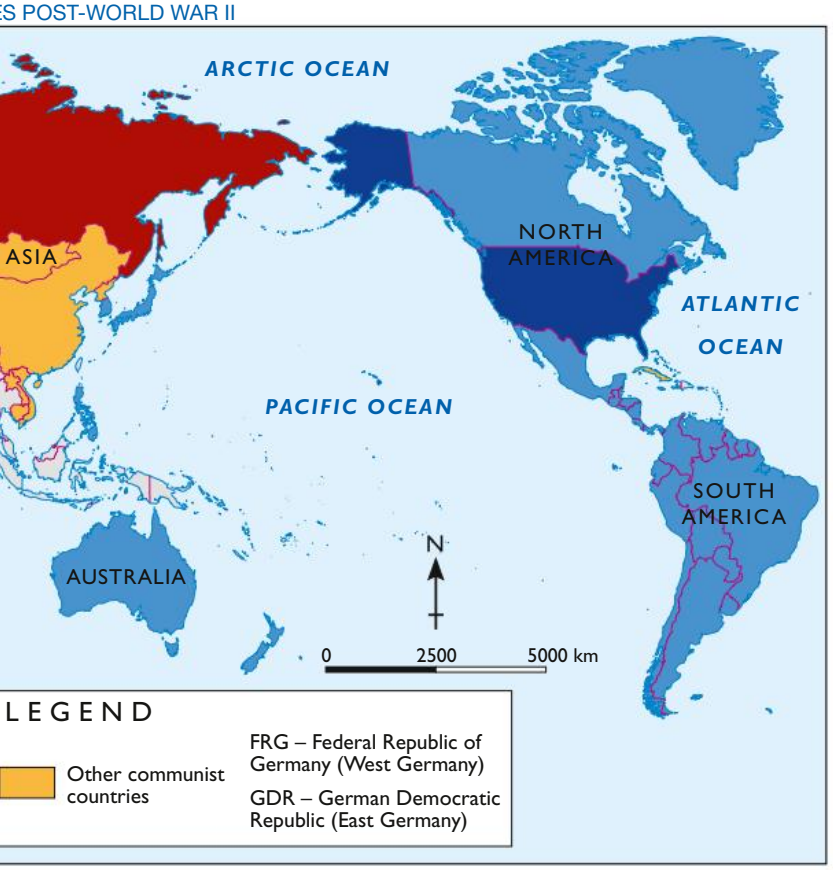
Source O.2

AR I



Source: Oxford University Press

ES POST-WORLD WAR II



Source: Oxford University Press

overview 1

Check your learning O.1

Remember and understand

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

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

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

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source O.2. Using an atlas, list all of the countries shown in orange on the map. Many of these countries had strong ties and alliances with the Soviet Union during the Cold War.
   a Why do you think this was the case?
   b Research one of these countries more closely. What did they gain through their alliance with the Soviet Union? What did they have to offer in return?

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

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

The aftermath of World War I

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

The Treaty of Versailles

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

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

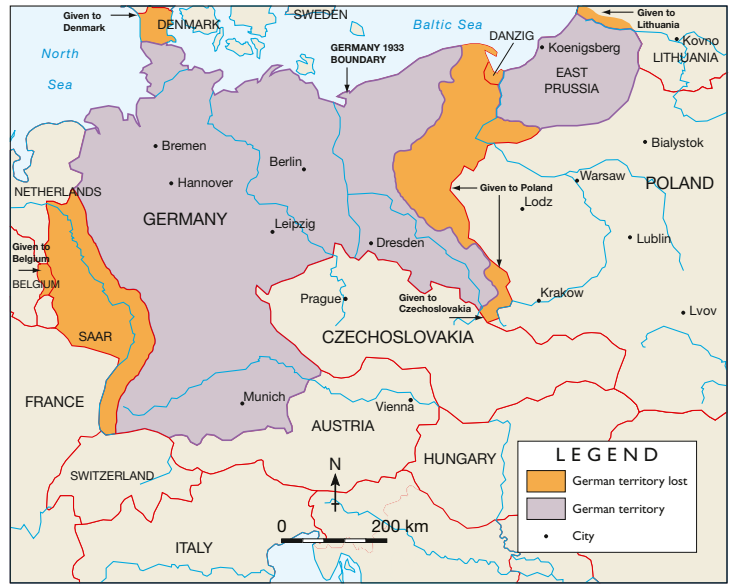
The French had suffered greatly during World War I, and wanted revenge and compensation for the damage done to their country. Clemenceau wanted to weaken Germany so it would never be able to take up arms again. President Wilson, on the other hand, wanted to achieve lasting peace with a treaty that punished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

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



Source O.3 French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau (left), American President Woodrow Wilson (middle) and British Prime Minister David Lloyd George (right) greet the crowd after signing the Treaty of Versailles on 28 June 1919

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



Source O.4 Source: Oxford University Press

The terms of the Treaty of Versailles

As part of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was required to surrender large sections of its territory (see Source O.4) and all of its overseas **colonies** (including the former German New Guinea which was given to Australia).

Under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was required to limit its army to 100000 men who were mostly volunteers. It was also prohibited from possessing an air force, tanks, submarines or heavy artillery. Germany was required to accept full responsibility for starting the war and forced to pay **reparations** (compensation) to the Allies. It was agreed that Germany should pay an amount close to £7 billion British pounds (the current equivalent of around $526 billion Australian dollars).

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



Source O.5 This cartoon, by Australian political cartoonist Will Dyson, was published in 1920. It is highly critical of the harsh terms of the Treaty of Versailles. It shows the French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau (together with Woodrow Wilson and David Lloyd George) leaving the Paris Peace Conference. Clemenceau, known as 'The Tiger', says 'Curious! I seem to hear a child weeping'. The child shown represents the '1940 class' – the German children of the 1920s who will become 'cannon fodder' (soldiers likely to die) by 1940 when the next war starts.

Establishment of the League of Nations

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

Check your learning O.2

Remember and understand

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

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

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

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source O.5 and complete the following tasks.
   - a Name the three men shown in the cartoon. Why has the cartoonist chosen to show one man more prominently than the others?
   - b Who is the child supposed to represent?
   - c Why do you think the child is shown naked?
   - d What comment is the cartoonist making in this source?

The Roaring Twenties

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

During the 1920s, the production of cars and consumer goods (such as household appliances) rose dramatically. Automated methods of mass production, using machinery and assembly lines, meant that large volumes of cars and a wide range of goods could be produced more quickly and efficiently. As a result, these items were no longer luxury products that could only be bought by the rich. For the first time since the war, people had regular work and money to spend. Advertising campaigns encouraged ordinary people to buy these new labour-saving appliances, with toasters, vacuum cleaners (see Source O.6) and refrigerators in high demand.

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

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



Source O.6 An advertisement for Electrolux vacuum cleaners from the 1920s

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

Fashion in the 1920s celebrated youth and freedom. Women in particular saw changes in the way they could present themselves publically. A boyish 'flapper' style became popular, with daringly short skirts (showing the knees), and waistlines slung low on the hip (see Source O.7). Women covered their short cropped hair under tight bell-shaped hats. For the first time, flappers danced, smoked and drank alcohol in public. They also

went out without chaperones (adults who supervised young unmarried women during social events), flaunting their disregard for more traditional codes of behaviour. This behaviour outraged more conservative elements of Australian society and churches called for a return to traditional family values. In many ways, flappers were rebelling against the social expectations that had been placed upon them during the war and shaking off traditional expectations of women that were common at the time.



Source O.7 A group of 'flappers' showing off fashion trends popular during in the 1920s

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

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

Check your learning O.3

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

4 The 1920s saw the rapid growth of the automobile industry. What effects do you think this growth had on people's everyday lives (and on society in general) at this time? Draw up a cause and effect flowchart.
5 Examine Source O.6 and complete the following tasks.
   a In what ways would the availability of this product have changed the lives of ordinary people at the time?
   b Compare this source with a modern advertisement for a vacuum cleaner. Identify as many similarities and differences between the two advertisements as you can.
6 Examine Source O.7 and complete the following tasks.
   a Describe the appearance of a typical 'flapper'. In what ways did this style of dress differ from more traditional women's fashions?
   b Why was the behaviour of many 'flappers' considered by some to be outrageous at the time? Why do you think they chose to act in this way?

Evaluate and create

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

The Great Depression

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



Source O.8 A family living in a shanty town in Sydney during the Great Depression

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

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

Australia and the Great Depression

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

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

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



Source O.9 A line of men receiving food handouts during the Great Depression in Australia in the 1930s

The susso

The government provided relief to the unemployed in the form of sustenance payments – more commonly known as the 'susso'. By 1932, more than 60 000 people depended on the susso merely to survive. It was only granted to the truly destitute; those who had been unemployed for a sustained period of time, and had no assets or savings. The susso was given in the form of food rations (such as bread and potatoes) or coupons. It became the subject of a popular children's rhyme from the time (see Source O.10).

Source O.10

We're on the susso now,

We can't afford a cow,

We live in a tent,

We pay no rent,

We're on the susso now.

A contemporary Australian children's rhyme from the Great Depression

Source O.11

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 O.4

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

5. Look carefully at Source O.8. What evidence does the source provide about the circumstances faced by typical Australians during the Great Depression?
6. Read Source O.11 carefully. What exactly do you think the author means by the 'shabby and humiliating compromises' people were being forced to make?

What were the key events of World War II?

Depth study 1
World War II

This depth study is core.

It must be completed by ALL students.

Although World War I had been called 'the war to end all wars', by 1939, just 20 years after the signing of the Treaty of Versailles, the world was once again at war. The nature and scale of this war was unlike anything that the world had ever seen. It took global conflict and 'total war' to new levels and was responsible for the deaths of around 60 million people – both civilian and military. Britain was among the first nations to introduce strategies to support a 'total war' effort. These included **conscription**, the rationing of food and supplies, and the introduction of a range of policies designed to encourage the British people to join the war effort (see Source O.12).

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



Source O.12 During World War II, nations on both sides used propaganda campaigns to rally public support for the war and influence people's behaviour. This propaganda poster produced in Britain from 1939 to 1945 was designed to encourage British military personnel and civilians to unite against Germany behind their wartime Prime Minister Winston Churchill.



Source O.13 Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party rose to power in Germany during the 1930s by rallying the support of the German people. Hitler was a charismatic and gifted public speaker who promised to restore Germany's reputation as a strong and proud nation after the economic hardships of the post-World War I era.

An overview of the causes of World War II, why men enlisted and where Australians fought		
Causes of World War II	Section 6.1	• A combination of short- and long-term factors contributing to the outbreak of conflict in 1939, including German resentment of terms in the Treaty of Versailles, economic depression, weakness of the League of Nations and unchecked acts of aggression by Germany and Japan in the 1930s • Rise of Adolf Hitler and the National Socialist (Nazi) Party in Germany • The actions of the Nazi government in the 1930s (including re-arming and regaining territories lost after WWI breach the terms of the Treaty of Versailles) • Invasion of Poland in September 1939, causing Britain and France to declare war
Why Australians enlisted to fight	Section 6.3	• Initially Australians were less enthusiastic to enlist (after the experiences of WWI), but numbers increased significantly after Germany's invasion of France in 1940 • Surge in recruitment after the fall of Singapore to the Japanese in 1942 when Australians felt more directly under threat
Where Australians fought	Section 6.2 Section 6.3	• Major campaigns involving Australian forces: Europe (Greece 1940–41), the Middle East (Syria and Lebanon 1941), Africa (Libya and Egypt) 1941–1942, South East Asia (Malaya and Singapore) 1942, Battle of the Coral Sea 1942, New Guinea 1942, Guadalcanal (South-west Pacific) 1942

The scope and nature of warfare during World War II		
The changing scope and nature of warfare	Section 6.1 Section 6.2	• Aircraft and long-range tanks are used for the first time in a German invasion tactic known as *Blitzkrieg* (a term meaning 'lightning war'); German forces invade France despite French 'super-trenches' known as the Maginot Line; bombing of civilians in strategic cities such as London • Code-breaking technology used to influence outcomes of battles
Where World War II was fought	Section 6.2	• The war in Europe 1939–1945: fighting took place in Western Europe, North Africa, the Middle East, Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union • The war in the Pacific 1941–1945: Allies opposed Japanese invasions in the Pacific region with fighting taking place in Singapore, Midway Islands, Coral Sea, and Papua New Guinea
The Holocaust	Section 6.2	• The deliberate and systematic persecution of Jews and other minority groups by the Nazi government in Germany in the lead-up to war, and in Nazi-occupied territories throughout World War II • Deaths in Nazi labour camps, systematic killings in concentration camps by means of poison gas and mass shootings.
Atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki	Section 6.2	• Allied campaigns in the Pacific recapture many Pacific Islands taken by Japan. Allies eventually push the Japanese back to Japan's 'Home Islands'. Heavy Japanese casualties and bombing of Japanese cities fail to force a Japanese surrender. • The first atomic bomb is dropped on Hiroshima on 6 August 1945 followed by a second bomb dropped on Nagasaki on 9 August. Both cities are devastated and Japan formally surrenders.

Significant events and experiences of Australians during World War II		
Significant events	Section 6.1	**In Europe** The Battle of France • In May 1940, Germany invades the Netherlands, Belgium and France using *Blitzkrieg* tactics. • On 22 June 1940, France surrenders to Germany. The Battle of Britain • After Germany invades France, it turns its attention to defeating Britain. • From July–October 1940, Germany launches a large-scale air attack on the UK targeting key industrial cities (a period known as the *Blitz*). • Germany fails to achieve its objective. Operation Barbarossa • On 22 June 1941, Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan) invade the Soviet Union. More than 3 million troops, 3600 tanks and 4300 aircraft take part in the campaign, making it the largest military operation in human history. It resulted in huge casualties. • The Axis powers won many battles but ultimately failed to take the capital Moscow, because of harsh winter and fierce resistance by Russian troops. **In the Pacific** The Fall of Singapore • On 15 February 1942, Singapore surrendered to the Japanese. Around 130 000 Allied troops (including 22 000 Australians) were taken as prisoners of war. The Kokoda campaign • In 1942, Japanese forces launch an assault to seize Port Moresby, a possible base of attack on Australia, via the Kokoda Trail. • A small force of soldiers from Australia's local militia and army reinforcements fight a series of battles in difficult conditions, forcing the Japanese to withdraw.
Prisoners of war	Section 6.1	• Over 8000 Australian prisoners in Europe, and over 22 000 Australians captured in South-East Asia, mainly after the fall of Singapore • Forced labour and poor treatment in prison camps led to a high death rate of prisoners captured by the Japanese
Participation of women	Section 6.3	• Australian women were encouraged to join the armed services after 1940; the majority joined auxiliary forces that operated on the home front. • Women were still not permitted to take combat roles or serve overseas, with the exception of nurses.
Participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples	Section 6.3	• During WWII, restrictions for Indigenous Australian volunteers were officially lifted or unofficially relaxed. • An estimated 3000 Indigenous Australians served in the armed forces. • On their return, many Indigenous soldiers found they were not eligible for soldier resettlement schemes that were offered to white Australians.



Source O.14 Australian women played an important role during the war, filling jobs at home left empty by men fighting overseas. This propaganda poster produced in 1943 by the Australian government emphasises the importance of work being done by women in clothing factories to support men working and fighting overseas.

Impact of World War II on the Australian home front		
Specific military attacks on Australia	Section 6.1	• Bombing of Darwin on 19 February 1942 and towns in northern Australia until November 1943 • Direct attack on an Australian ship (HMAS *Kuttabul)* in Sydney Harbour by a Japanese midget submarine on 31 May 1942 resulting in the deaths of 19 Australian sailors
Conscription	Section 6.3	• Conscription for overseas military service in the Pacific was introduced in 1943 with little opposition, as Australians felt the real threat of Japanese invasion.
Use of government propaganda	Section 6.3	• A range of propaganda produced by the Australian government was used throughout the war. It was designed to encourage Australians to enlist in armed forces, work and save for the war effort and unite against a common enemy. For the first time, propaganda posters, radio and newspaper campaigns were supported by the use of cinema newsreels.
The changing role of women	Section 6.3	• Some women served in the armed forces, and over 60 000 women served in auxiliary services on the home front. • With so many Australian servicemen deployed overseas, the work of women in the auxiliary services and civilian groups (such as the Women's Land Army) was increasingly important. • An increase in employment for women was crucial for Australia's war economy. After the war, women were expected to return to traditional roles, which happened for the most part.
The treatment of 'enemy aliens'	Section 6.3	• Some Australians of German and Italian heritage living in Australia were thought to pose a threat to national security. These people were declared 'enemy aliens' and detained in internment camps. • All people of Japanese heritage living in Australia during the war were thought to pose a risk and were sent to internment camps.
War-time controls and censorship	Section 6.3	• The *National Security Act 1939* gave the Australian government greater powers, including powers of censorship, the detention of 'enemy aliens', the banning of groups opposed to war, and other war-time controls.

Check your learning O.5

Remember and understand

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

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

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

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Sources O.12 and O.14 and complete the following tasks.
   - a What are these posters examples of and who were they produced by?
   - b What is the goal of each poster? What types of techniques are used to achieve these goals?
   - c Which poster do you feel is more successful at achieving its desired goal? Justify your point of view.

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

Evaluate and create

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

What was the significance of World War II?

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

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

An overview of the significance of World War II in Australia		
Impact of the war on returned soldiers and civilians	Section 6.3	• Nearly 600 000 Australians served overseas during WWII, with around 250 000 still serving in the Pacific and Europe when the war ended. Although there were fewer deaths in comparison to WWI, more than 20 000 returned servicemen suffered from the long-term effects of the brutal treatment they received from the Japanese as prisoners of war. • The government continued to support war veterans with medical care, pensions, home loans, training and education and employment assistance.
Changing relationship of Australia with other countries after World War II	Section 6.3	• The experiences of World War II altered the average Australian's view of their place in the world. Australia's relationship with Britain changed after the fall of Singapore. It caused the Australian government to build strategic relationships with other nations closer to home and form a partnership with the United States for extra military support in the Pacific region. • One million American servicemen came to Australia in the immediate post-war period, beginning a 'cultural invasion' of American cinema, music, language and popular culture in the decades after WWII. • The mass migration of people from Europe to Australia after WWII changed the nature of Australian society and influenced its relationships with the rest of the world. The arrival of immigrants from a wide range of countries ultimately led to the end of the discriminatory laws of **White Australia policy** and the birth of **multicultural** Australia.

An overview of the significance of World War II around the world		
Shift in world powers	Section 6.3	• WWII left the old powers of Europe (such as France, Britain and Germany) broke and in ruins. • Old empires started to break up post-WWII as former colonies saw a chance to claim independence. • New world powers emerged in the form of the USA and the Soviet Union. • Germany was divided into a capitalist West and the communist East. • The United Nations (UN) was formed with the goal of preventing future wars. • The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the UN in 1948.
Mass migration of refugees	Section 6.3	• Millions of Europeans were left homeless after WWII and many were looking for a fresh start in a new country. • The nation of Israel was formed in the Middle East to provide a home for Jews displaced by the war and who had survived the horrors of the Holocaust.
Nature of future warfare	Section 6.3	• The atomic bomb was unlike any other weapon used in human history. Its capacity to cause death and destruction on a massive scale would change the world forever. The threat of nuclear attack loomed large over the post-WWII world and fuelled the Cold War that lasted until the early 1990s.
Growth of US cultural influence	Section 6.3	• As the US emerged as a new superpower, its cultural influence grew and spread across the world through modes of mass communication like film, music and television.



World War II

depth study 1

depth study – core

World War II

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

Although the official numbers of those killed and wounded are impossible to confirm, it is clear that World War II was responsible for a devastating loss of life. Historians estimate that around 22 million soldiers died in battle and 38 million civilians were killed. Among the dead were around 6 million Jews murdered by the Nazis during the **Holocaust**.

6.1

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

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

6.2

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

1 The stone heads shown in Source 6.1 commemorate victims of an event known as the Holocaust. As a group, discuss your understanding of the term Holocaust. Why is it remembered as one of the most significant events of World War II?



chapter 6

Source 6.1 Many rows of stone heads now cover the ground at the Mauthausen war memorial in Austria, the site of a Nazi concentration camp during World War II.

6.3

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

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

World War II: a timeline

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

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



A Jewish-owned shopfront after *Kristallnacht*

1919 — 1933 — 1938 — 1939 — 1940 — 1941

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



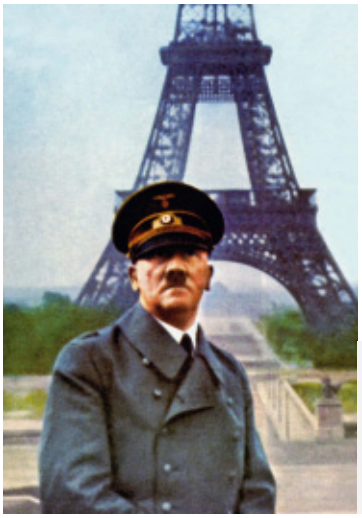
Signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919

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

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



Source 6.2 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to World War II



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



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



Kokoda Trail campaign

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

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

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

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

1942 | 1944 | 1945

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

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

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

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

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



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

Check your learning 6.1

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

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

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

Causes of World War II

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

The Paris Peace Conference and the Treaty of Versailles

Immediately after World War I ended in 1918, members of the victorious Allied powers (Britain, France, the USA and Italy) met at the Palace of Versailles just outside Paris to negotiate the terms of surrender for the defeated central powers (Germany, Austria–Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria) and agreed on a set of penalties. After months of tense negotiations, the Treaty of Versailles was signed. It imposed a series of harsh terms on Germany (see Source 6.3).

Source 6.3 Key outcomes of the Treaty of Versailles

- Article 231 (known as the 'War guilt clause') blamed Germany and its allies for starting World War I and declared that Germany was responsible to pay for 'loss and damages' – the payments Germany had to make were called **reparations**.
- Germany's army was limited to 100 000 men; conscription (compulsory military service) was banned, the German air force was disbanded, and the production of weapons and ammunitions in German factories was limited.
- German territory was given to neighbouring nations such as France, Denmark, Belgium, Poland – other German-controlled areas were reclaimed in order to create the country of Czechoslovakia (see Source 6.5) and Italy was also given two small areas.
- German colonies were divided between the Allies – this included Australia, which claimed German New Guinea and Nauru.
- The League of Nations was established – an organisation formed with the aim of preventing another war and maintaining world peace by settling disputes between nations through negotiation.

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

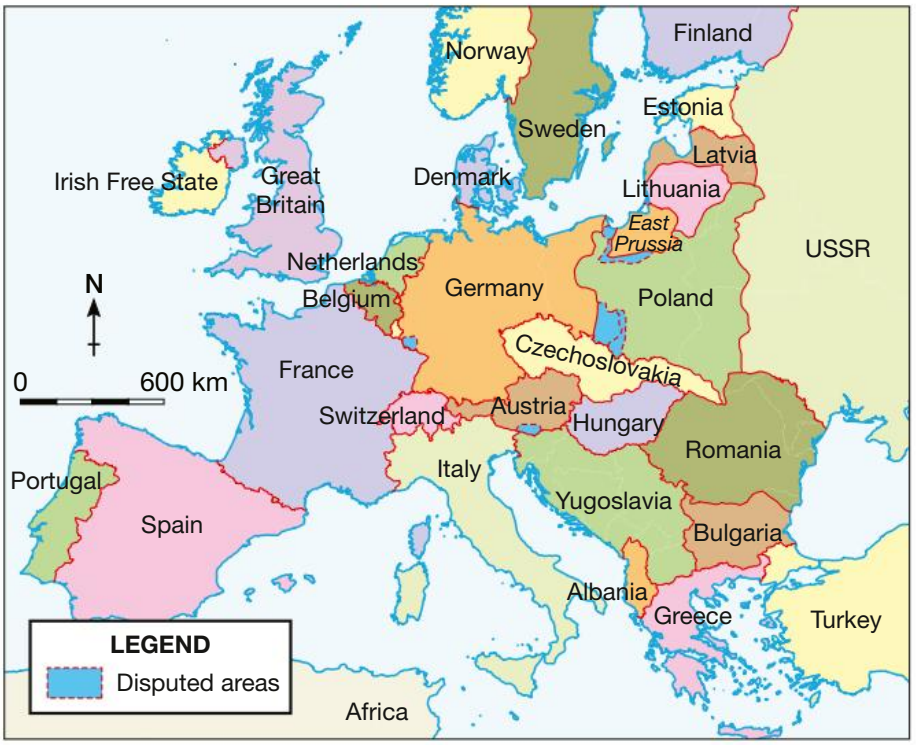
The Paris Peace Conference alienated some of the Allies. Italy was outraged that it received few benefits for joining the Allies.

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



Source 6.4 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

EUROPE: BORDERS AFTER THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES



Source 6.5 Source: Oxford University Press

keyconcept: significance

The League of Nations

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

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

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

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

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to section HT.1 in 'The historian's toolkit'.

The Great Depression and the rise of dictatorships

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

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



Source 6.6 A German housewife using millions of *Deutschmarks* to light her stove. During the hyperinflation of 1923, bank notes were worth so little that it was more useful to burn them than spend them

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

- the importance of the state over the individual
- support for a strong central leader
- public displays of power and authority, such as parades and rallies (see Source 6.9)
- a reliance on **propaganda** campaigns to promote the views of the party and suppress opposition
- a belief in the importance of national pride
- an ambition to increase the size of their territories
- the need for force in the struggle against foreign enemies.

The Nazi Party

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

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

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





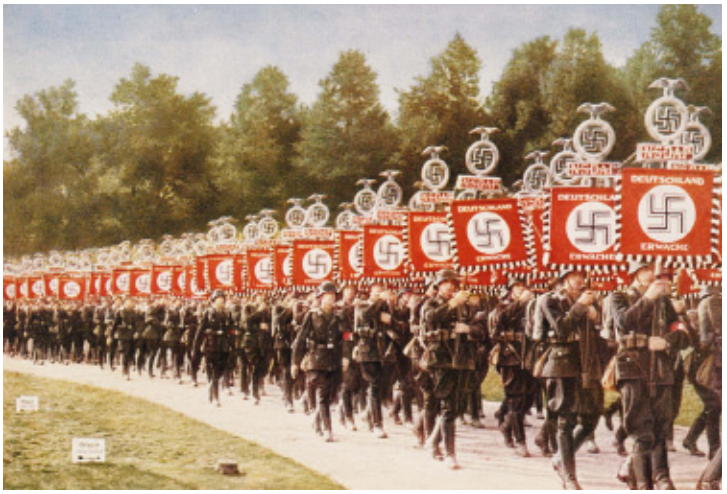
Sources 6.7 and 6.8 Nazi propaganda posters showing the swastika and the eagle (both symbols of the Third Reich)

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

The Third Reich

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

Ceremonies, uniforms, symbols, marches, music and rallies were used by the Nazis to create a sense of belonging and show strength. There was a particular attempt to gain the support of young people through organisations such as Hitler Youth. The huge Nuremberg rallies held in the 1930s played an important role in gaining popular support for the Third Reich (see Source 6.9).



Source 6.9 Members of the Nazi Party display their strength at the Nuremberg Rally, 1933

Check your learning 6.2

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

10 What were some of the early problems encountered by the League of Nations?
11 Explain how the outcomes of the Paris Peace Conference contributed to the outbreak of war in the Pacific.
12 Study the propaganda posters used by the Nazis at the Nuremberg Rallies (Sources 6.7 and 6.8), 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?
13 Imagine you are US President Woodrow Wilson in 1920. Write a short speech to deliver as part of your election campaign, in which you try to convince the American public of the importance of the League of Nations and why America should join. You will need to conduct some research to ensure that your speech accurately reflects Wilson's views.
14 Search the Internet to locate a map of Europe in 1917, just prior to the end of World War I. Compare your map with Source 6.5 that shows the borders of European countries brought about by the Treaty of Versailles. List the key differences.

Significant individual: Adolf Hitler

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

Early life

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

During his time in Vienna, Hitler was a drifter. He was twice rejected by the Academy of Fine Arts. Historians debate whether Hitler already held 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 'safe'. Nevertheless, he was wounded in October 1918, and was in hospital at the time of the armistice (ceasefire). He passionately opposed the armistice and believed that Germany should never have surrendered. This influenced his later ideology. During the war, Hitler's superiors thought he lacked leadership skills, so he was never promoted beyond the rank of corporal.

Key influences and ideas

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



Source 6.10 Hitler held crowds mesmerised for hours with his speeches

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

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

The Nazis wanted to make Germany great again after its defeat in World War I. As part of this goal, they used pseudoscientific theories about race that have since been discredited. These theories divided the human race into a hierarchy of distinct racial groups. The nationalist movement and the pseudoscientific **eugenics** movement (see 'Beginnings of the Holocaust' in section 6.2) 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 considered by the Nazis to be 'weak' or 'polluting' were to be removed from society. In addition to the Jews, these groups included Slavs and Sinti/Roma people (Gypsies), as well as non-racial groups

such as those with disabilities, Jehovah's Witnesses and homosexuals. While Nazi persecution of these groups was widespread, Jews in particular were made a scapegoat for many of Germany's problems.

Rise to power

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

On his release from jail, Hitler decided that the Nazis should try to gain power by exploiting the political system rather than attacking it. His party gained a small number of seats in the Reichstag (the German legislative assembly) during the 1920s, but it was the Great Depression that gave the party its real opportunity. By 1932 the Nazi Party was the largest single party in the Reichstag. Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany in January 1933 by President Hindenburg (see Source 6.11). After Hindenburg's death in 1934, Hitler combined the roles of Chancellor and President, making himself the *Führer* (supreme ruler) of Germany. Hitler's government then began implementing many of the plans and policies described in *Mein Kampf*. These included the expansion of the military, expansion of Germany's borders, systematic persecution of the Jewish community, and compulsory sterilisation for many Jewish and Sinti/Roma people, as well as those with disabilities.

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



Source 6.11 Hitler is sworn in as the new Chancellor in January 1933, taking over from President Hindenburg (right)

Check your learning 6.3

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

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

Evaluate and create

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

The course of the war in Europe

Appeasement

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

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

EUROPE: GERMAN TERRITORIAL EXPANSION 1936–39



Source 6.13 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 6.12 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'

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

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

In 1938, Hitler went a step further by annexing (taking control over) Austria (see Source 6.13). Once again, France and Britain did not react. In the same year, Hitler demanded that the Sudetenland region (part of the newly formed country of Czechoslovakia) be returned to Germany. The Sudetenland had a population of around three million ethnic Germans. Hitler used this fact to justify his claims to the region. In September 1938, representatives from Britain, France, Italy and Germany met in Munich (see Source 6.12). They agreed to return Sudetenland to Germany (see Source 6.14). In return, Hitler agreed not to make any further claims over disputed territory in Europe. Despite these assurances, Germany invaded the rest of Czechoslovakia in March 1939.

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



Source 6.14 Women respond to the arrival of Hitler's troops in the Sudetenland in 1938

Initial German success

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

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

The 'Phoney War'

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

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

The Battle of France

In May 1940, Germany invaded the Low Countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg) and France using *Blitzkrieg* tactics. Despite outnumbering the Germans, the Allied forces were unable to deal with the speed of the German attack. The British Government evacuated 338 000 British and French troops from the port of Dunkirk, in northern France (see Source 6.16). On 22 June 1940, France surrendered (see Source 6.17), although some military units outside of France rejected the surrender and continued fighting Germany as the Free French Forces.



Source 6.15 German troops drive into Poland in September 1939



Source 6.16 In May–June 1940, more than 300 000 Allied troops were cut off by the German Army and were evacuated from the French port of Dunkirk. This event became known as the Dunkirk evacuation.



Source 6.17 Adolf Hitler at the Eiffel Tower following the fall of France in 1940

The Battle of Britain

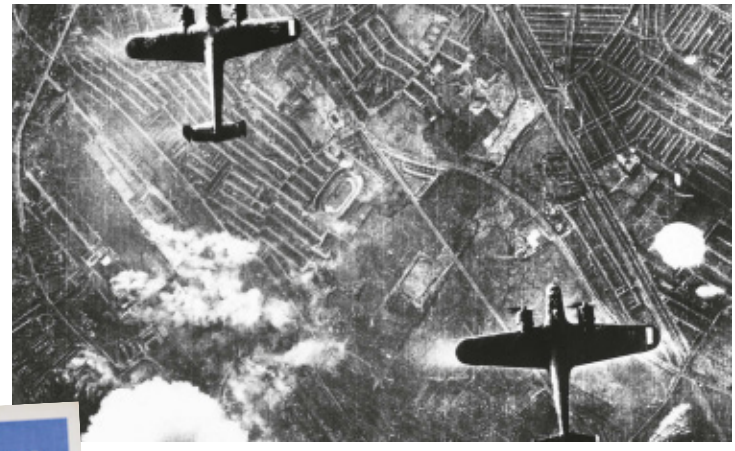
Germany turned its attention to defeating Britain. The plan for an invasion required the *Luftwaffe* to destroy Britain's air force, before a combined land and sea assault could be launched. If the Royal Air Force could be destroyed, the *Luftwaffe* could prevent the Royal Navy from interfering with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



Source 6.18 A British propaganda poster praising the efforts of the Royal Air Force during the *Blitz* featuring the famous words of British Prime Minister Winston Churchill

The Siege of Tobruk

Italy entered the war on Germany's side in June 1940. Its leader, Benito Mussolini, planned to conquer Egypt from the Italian territory of Libya. However, Australian troops led a British counterattack into Libya, capturing Bardia, Tobruk and Benghazi early in 1941. Hitler sent General Rommel, one of his most experienced officers, with German forces to support the Italians in Libya. Rommel drove the British back into Egypt, although a force of Australian and British troops held on to Tobruk. German propaganda described these men as 'rats', a name that was embraced by the Australian troops as a compliment. The 'Rats of Tobruk', as they became known, proved very aggressive and successful, despite primitive conditions and a complete lack of air support (see Source 6.20). Royal Australian Navy ships braved enemy air attack to bring in supplies and evacuate the wounded. By September 1941 most of the Australians had been replaced by Polish troops. Rommel did capture Tobruk in June 1942.



Source 6.19 German bombers during the Battle of Britain, 1940



Source 6.20 Australian troops, nicknamed the 'Rats of Tobruk', occupy a frontline position (AWM 041790)

Operation Barbarossa

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

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

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

However, the German forces were unable to capture Moscow. They were unprepared for the severity of the Soviet winter and were met by stubborn resistance (see Source 6.21). 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.



Source 6.21 German troops were defeated as much by the weather as by the Russian troops on the Eastern Front in 1941–42.

Check your learning 6.4

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

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

Evaluate and create

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

The end of the war in Europe

The tide of war turns in Europe

By 1943, the German *Blitzkrieg* tactics had lost the element of surprise and their wartime success had peaked (see Source 6.22). That year, Britain, the British dominions (including Australia), the USA, the Soviet Union and the Free French Forces formed an alliance to force Germany and its allies into an unconditional surrender.

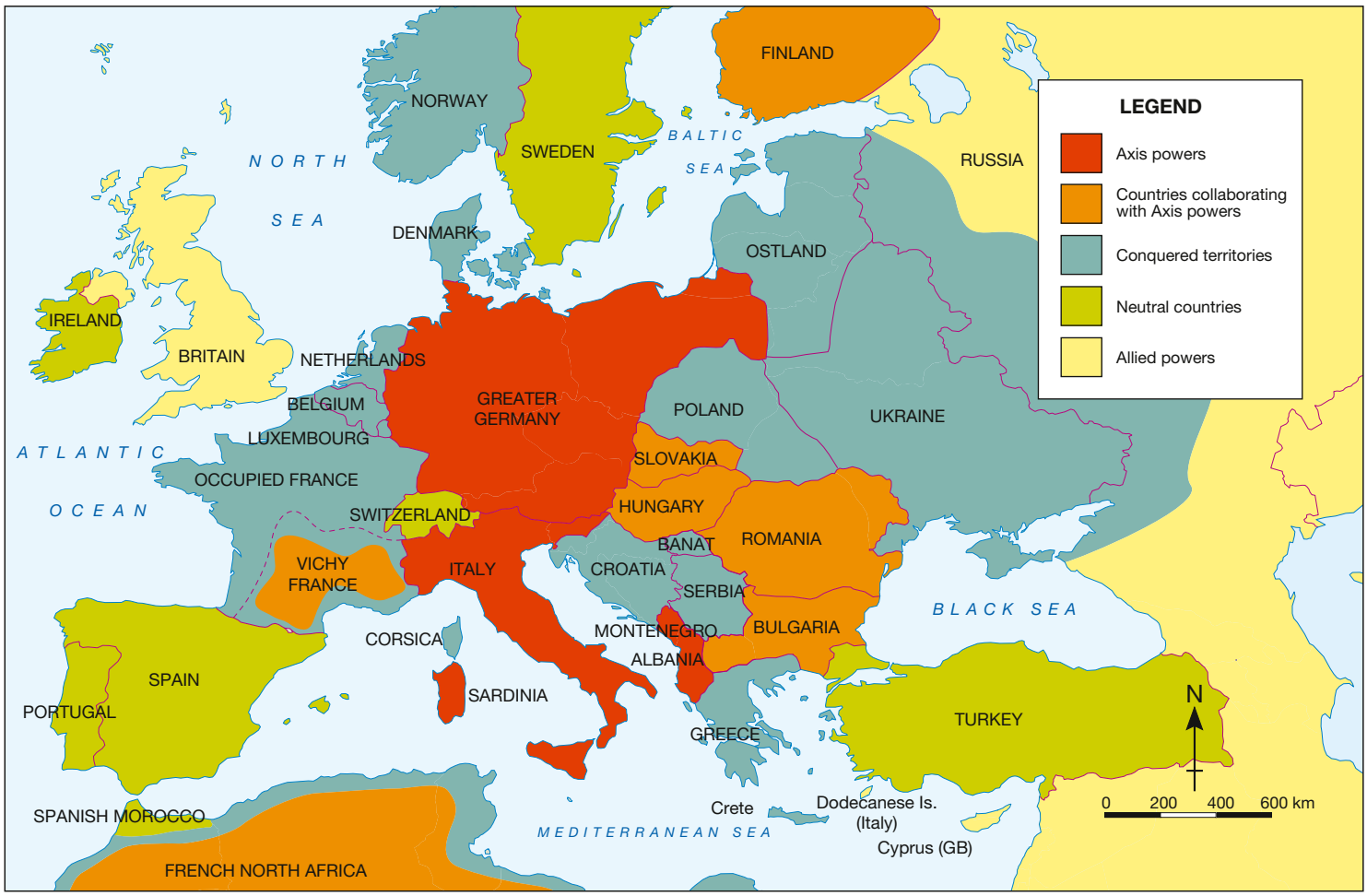
From 1943, the Soviet army won a series of battles against Germany. By 1945, Germany had been forced out of most of Eastern Europe, with Soviet troops occupying Russia, Poland, Romania, Czechoslovakia and the Baltic States. The Russians continued their advance into Germany, and reached the German capital,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

In Western Europe, the Allies began major bombing campaigns on Germany from 1942, initially focusing on destroying German airfields but later bombing industrial cities.



Source 6.23 American troops storming a beach at Normandy, France, on D-Day

EUROPE AND NORTH AFRICA: THE HEIGHT OF AXIS POWER 1942



Source 6.22

Source: Oxford University Press

This campaign failed to significantly affect German morale or industries, and on its own could not win the war. The Allies developed a plan to invade France. On 6 June 1944, around 160 000 Allied troops landed on the beaches of Normandy, in northern France. This operation, known as 'D-Day', led to the liberation of France in August 1944 (see Source 6.23).

The defeat of Germany

In September 1944, Allied ground troops invaded Germany from the west. The Allies continued bombing major German cities, including Berlin. In April, the Soviets encircled Berlin and launched a final assault. Hitler remained in Berlin, to direct the defence of the city from his underground bunker. Although most of Berlin's population was forced to take part in the fighting, the Soviets seized Berlin after a week of fighting in the streets. Hitler committed suicide on 30 April (see Source 6.24), and Germany officially surrendered on 7 May 1945.

key**concept:** contestability

Conflicting reports surrounding Hitler's death

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

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

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

For more information on the key concept of contestability, refer to section HT.1 in 'The historian's toolkit'.


News Chronicle

LATE LONDON EDITION

HITLER DEAD

Doenitz, new Fuehrer, says: We fight on

WEHRMACHT ORDERED TO MAINTAIN DISCIPLINE

All the generals must surrender

The man who now leads the Third Reich

Berlin's garrison herded together in last stand

Bernadotte tells his story

Hitler's birthplace overrun

FOOD GOING TO DUTCH BY SEA, AIR, ROAD

GERMAN NAVY MAY FIGHT ON

Her teeth are YOUR concern—

Source 6.24 The front page of the News Chronicle (London), 2 May 1945, announces the death of Adolf Hitler

Check your learning 6.5

Remember and understand

1. Which countries formed an alliance in 1943 in order to try and force Germany and its allies to surrender?
2. Using Source 6.22, list all of the countries that were controlled by the Axis powers by the end of 1942.
3. How did Hitler die?
4. Which country was eventually responsible for the capture of Berlin?
5. When did Germany officially surrender?

Apply and analyse

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

The course of the war in Asia and the Pacific

Background to Japan's involvement in World War II

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

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

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



Source 6.25 Source: Oxford University Press

The Great Depression of the 1930s caused massive unemployment and major social problems in Japan. This led to a military takeover of the government. The military rulers of Japan took a far more aggressive approach to solving their economic problems. Throughout the inter-war period, Japanese politics was dominated by nationalist and militarist movements. Out of these movements came the idea of a 'Greater East Asian Co-prosperity Sphere'. This was the idea that East Asia could exist free of Western influence. It proposed that Japan act as the leader of a bloc of Asian and Pacific nations working together. In reality though, it was designed to allow Japan greater influence and access to oil and rubber resources in neighbouring countries. In 1936, Japan signed an agreement with Germany known as the Anti-Comintern Pact. The following year, Japan invaded China (see Source 6.25). Finally, in 1940, Japan signed the Tripartite Pact, which cemented the alliance of the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan).

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



Source 6.26 The bombing of Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941

Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor

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

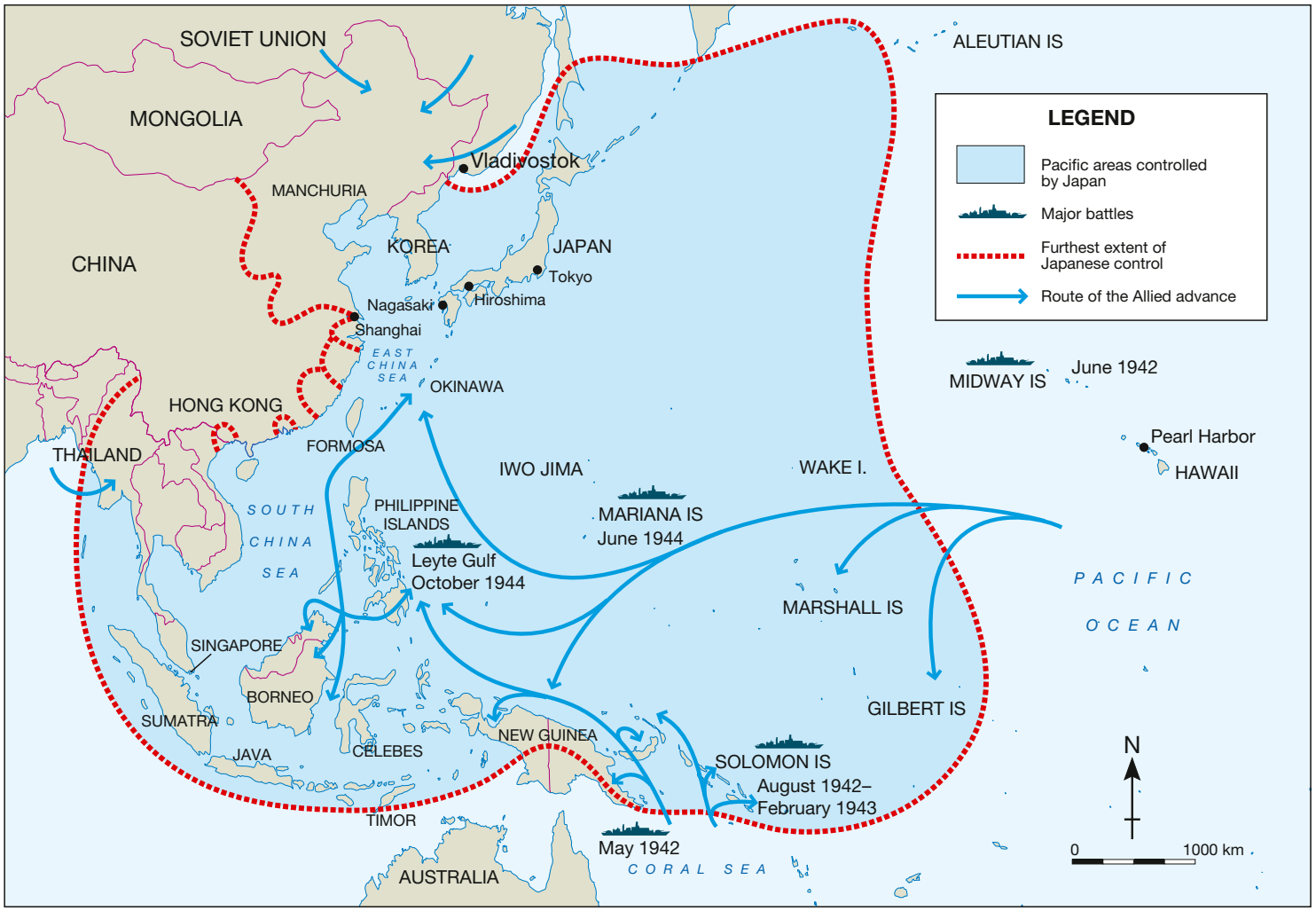
The attack on the American naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on 7 December 1941 changed this (see Source 6.26). It alerted the Allies to the nature of the Japanese threat. Japan hoped to destroy America's Pacific fleet, as a preventative strike to stop American interference in the Pacific. While the attack on Pearl Harbor seemed to be successful, the damage inflicted on the American fleet was less than originally thought. Rather than preventing American intervention, the attack caused the USA, Australia and the Netherlands to declare war on Japan. Germany (an ally of Japan) declared war on the USA. This brought the USA into the European war.

War in the Pacific

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

Japan also conquered Burma in the west, and pushed south through French Indochina (Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos) and the Dutch East Indies to reach Australia's doorstep in New Guinea (see Source 6.27). Britain and the USA had seriously underestimated Japan's military ability. This, together with the element of surprise and the imaginative use of combined naval and air forces by the Japanese, gave Japan an early advantage.

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC: THE JAPANESE EMPIRE IN 1942



Source 6.27

Source: Oxford University Press

The fall of Singapore

Singapore surrendered to the Japanese on 15 February 1942, and more than 130 000 allied troops, including 15 000 Australians, became Japanese prisoners of war. Controversially, a small number of soldiers, including the Australian commander Gordon Bennett, escaped on ships to avoid capture.

The fall of Singapore caused great concern in Australia. Singapore had been regarded as almost impossible to invade, and strong British presence there prior to 1942 had meant that Australia felt protected. The defeat of the British base in Singapore meant that there was nothing to stop the Japanese advance into Australia. Australia's leaders realised that they could no longer depend on Britain, and that they needed new allies against Japan.

Source 6.28

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

The Battle for northern Australia

The fall of Singapore brought the war much closer to Australia than had ever been anticipated. From December 1941, there began an evacuation of women and children from Darwin and surrounding areas in fear of a Japanese attack. On 19 February 1942, Japan launched an assault on Darwin (see Source 6.30). Officially, around 250 people were killed, although the real death toll continues to be debated. Most other Australians were unaware of the seriousness of the attack. The government played down the bombing and the number of deaths. A Royal Commission into the events surrounding the attack revealed that some people, including members of the defence forces, had panicked under fire. There were also stories that some people had looted bombed buildings or simply fled the city.

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



Source 6.29 A propaganda poster used to rally Australian support following the Japanese attack on Darwin (AWM ARTV09225)

War comes to Sydney Harbour

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

Turning points

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

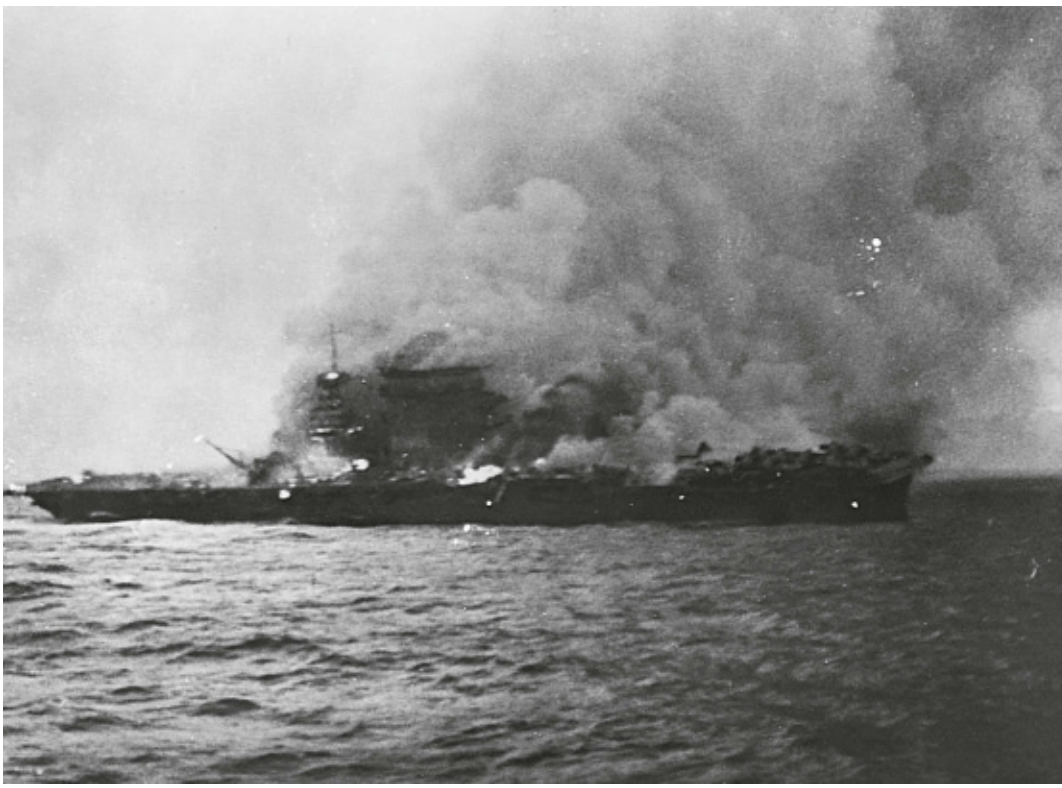
Several battles are identified as key turning points in the Asia–Pacific war zone. At sea the most significant were the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Battle of Midway. Both involved the navies of the USA and Australia in cooperative ventures.

The Battle of the Coral Sea (4–8 May 1942) was fought off the north-east coast of Queensland, just south of New Guinea. Although the Allies suffered a number of casualties (see Source 6.31), it prevented the Japanese from launching a sea-based assault on Port Moresby. This forced them to make a land-based assault via the Kokoda Trail.

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



Source 6.30 Bomb damage to the Darwin post office and surrounding buildings as a result of the first Japanese air raid



Source 6.31 The USS Lexington in flames after a Japanese attack during the Battle of the Coral Sea, 1942

The Kokoda campaign

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

The Kokoda Trail (sometimes called the Kokoda Track) is a roughly 96-kilometre-long narrow path in New Guinea, connecting Port Moresby to the village of Kokoda (see Source 6.32). Surrounded by steep mountains and jungle, the trail was frequently a river of sticky mud, and it was extremely slippery.

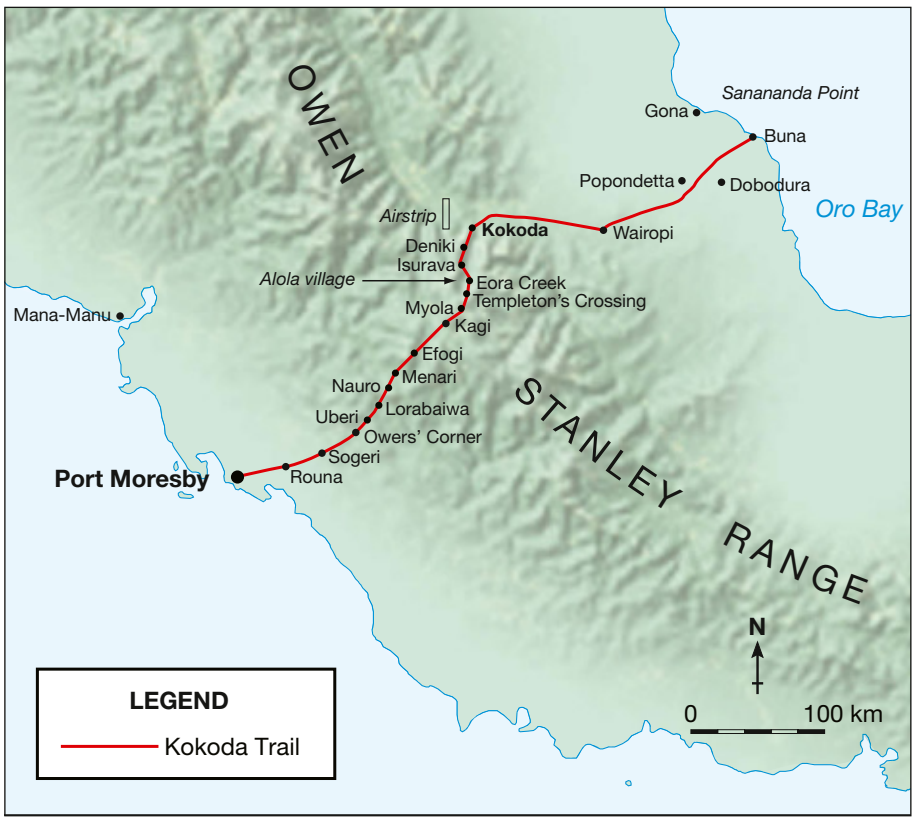
As the risk of a Japanese attack on Port Moresby increased, a military force had to be assembled. Because most Australian troops had been fighting for more than two years in Africa and the Middle East, or had been captured as prisoners of war in the Fall of Singapore, a new group of soldiers had to be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

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

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

The Battle of Isurava was a major turning point in the Kokoda campaign. Maroubra Force defended the trail valiantly, but was outnumbered and suffered heavy casualties on the first day of battle. At Isurava, however, the first substantial reinforcements from the AIF began to arrive, providing a vital boost for the depleted Maroubra Force. The battle lasted four days, before the Australians had to retreat further, mounting small-scale delaying actions along the way.

PAPUA NEW GUINEA: THE KOKODA TRAIL



Source 6.32 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 6.33 Steps on the Kokoda Trail (AWM 026821)

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

Approximately 625 Australians were killed fighting along the Kokoda Trail, while at least 16000 were wounded. More than 4000 also suffered from serious illnesses such as malaria. In the immediate aftermath of the campaign, members of Maroubra Force were hailed as 'the men who saved Australia'. The campaign also had an immediate impact on the organisation of both the American and Australian armies. The Australian troops on the trail had been poorly supplied because of the unreliability of air drops. Both the Australian and American militaries developed new techniques for dropping supplies after their experiences at Kokoda.

The drive to Japan

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

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

By late 1944, American B-29 bombers had bases from which they could strike Japan's home islands. These raids were highly effective because most Japanese buildings, made of paper and wood, burned easily. On 8 March 1945, a single raid on Tokyo killed 83000 people, mainly civilians. As US forces got closer to mainland Japan, they found that the Japanese defence was becoming tougher and more desperate. Japanese *Kamikaze* pilots would carry out suicide missions, crashing their planes into US ships. The US government, in an attempt to bring the war to a swift end, began to consider new options, including the use of nuclear weapons (discussed in section 6.2).

Check your learning 6.6

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

4 Using Source 6.27 identify and locate the countries and areas taken over by the Japanese between 1937 and 1942.
5 In your own words, explain why the fall of Singapore was such a significant event for Australians.
6 Analyse Source 6.28. What was Prime Minister Curtin saying about Australia's changing relationship with Britain and the United States?

Evaluate and create

7 Research the experiences of Australian **prisoners of war** (**POWs**) in the Pacific, and the experiences of Soviet POWs in Germany and Eastern Europe. Prepare a PowerPoint presentation that compares and contrasts the experiences of the two groups.
8 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. Using the information provided, and your own research, complete the following tasks:
   a Discuss with a partner 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?

Significant individuals: wartime leaders

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

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

President of the United States – Harry Truman

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



Source 6.34 Harry Truman

Prime Minister of Great Britain – Winston Churchill

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



Source 6.35 Winston Churchill

Premier of the Soviet Union – Joseph Stalin

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



Source 6.36 Joseph Stalin

French General – Charles De Gaulle

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



Source 6.37 Charles de Gaulle

Check your learning 6.7

Remember and understand

1 Did President Harry Truman regret his decision to authorise the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki? Why did he authorise the bombings?

2 What was different about Charles de Gaulle's role as an Allied leader?

Evaluate and create

3 Conduct further research on one of these Allied leaders, covering the following:

- a Identify how he came to power.
- b Decide what you think his most significant decision during World War II was.
- c Analyse his importance after World War II.

6.1big**ideas:** rich task

The Kokoda campaign

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

The campaign is made even more incredible by the conditions in which it was fought. Sources 6.38 and 6.39 provide an insight into the experiences of soldiers on the Kokoda Trail.

Source 6.38

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 6.39

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

Private Laurie Howson, 39th Battalion, diary entry

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



Source 6.40 A still from the film *Kokoda: 39th Battalion* showing members of the 39th battalion on the Kokoda Trail

skill**drill**

Writing a historical discussion

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source 6.41 Summary of the structure of a written discussion

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

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

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

Example:

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

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

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

Example:

James, K, 2009, 'The track: a historical desktop study of the Kokoda Track', Department of Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts, accessed 10 July 2013 <http://www.environment.gov.au/heritage/publications/pubs/awm-kokoda-report.pdf>

Apply the skill

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

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

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

Extend your understanding

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

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

3 Research the 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' mentioned by Private Howson in Source 6.39.

a What role did they play in the Kokoda campaign?

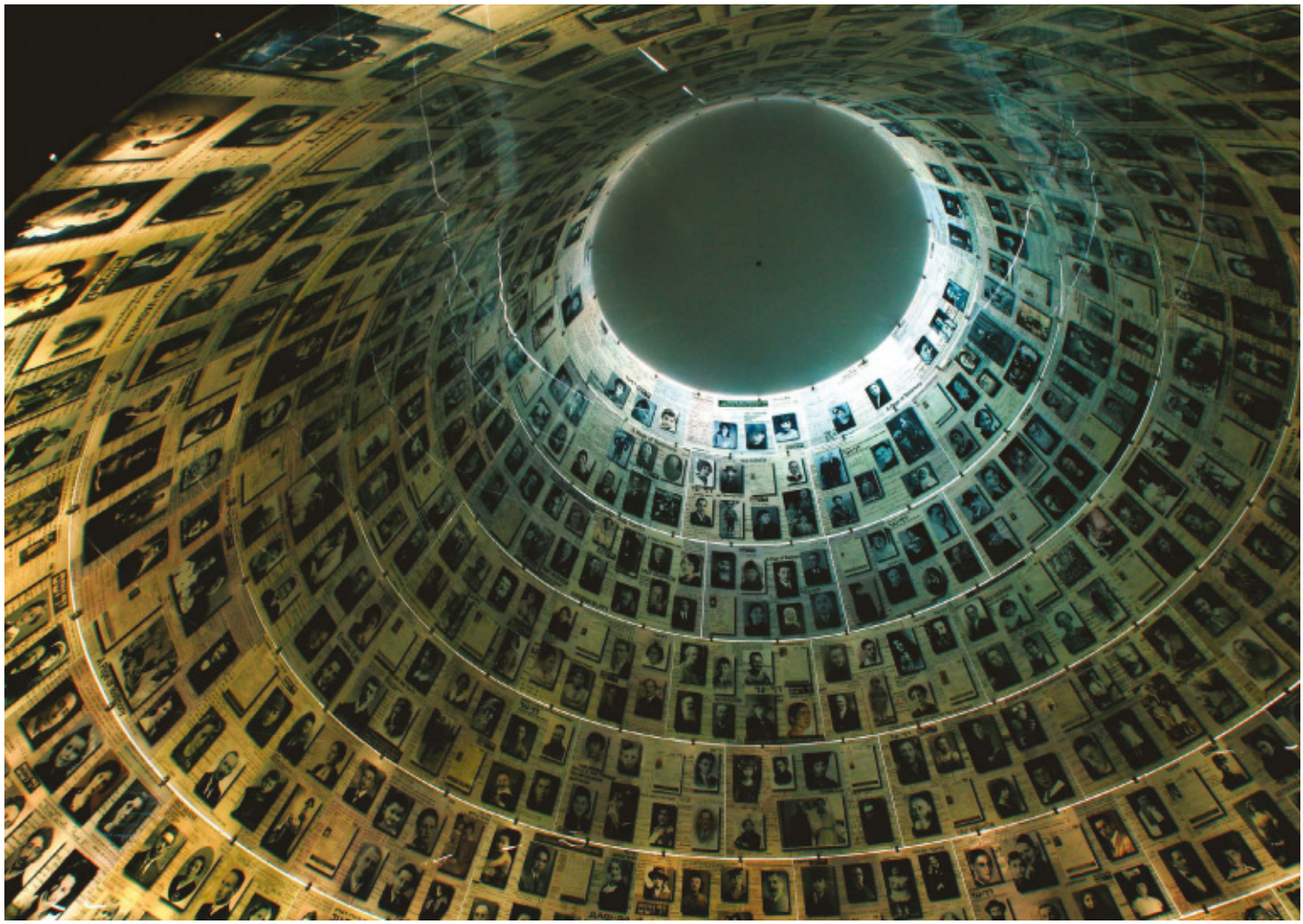
b Has the contribution of the Papua New Guineans to the campaign been officially recognised?

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

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



Source 6.42 The conical-shaped Hall of Names in the Holocaust History Museum in the Yad Vashem Holocaust complex in Israel – the Hall of Names shows around 600 portraits of Jewish Holocaust victims



Source 6.43 Nazi storm troopers (also known as brownshirts) outside a Jewish business, directing people to shop elsewhere, 1933

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

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

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

Anti-Semitism and eugenics eventually combined in Germany's racial policies. As well as violence against Jews and boycotts of Jewish businesses (see Source 6.43), the government refused to grant German citizenship to Jews and sought to remove all Jews from the government, the legal professions and universities. Laws limited the number of Jewish students allowed in public schools, banned Jews from many public places, expelled Jewish officers from the army, and transferred ownership of many Jewish businesses to non-Jewish Germans.

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

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



Source 6.44 A cloth Star of David badge that Jews were required to wear in public – the word 'Jude' means 'Jew' in German

Spread of anti-Semitism and the formation of ghettos

Soon after the invasion of Poland in 1939, **ghettos** were set up in Nazi-occupied territories, such as Poland, Hungary and the Soviet Union. Ghettos were small areas of larger cities that were used to isolate Jews from the rest of the population. They were bricked off or encircled with barbed wire to stop people from escaping. Over the course of the war, many Jewish people were rounded up and forced to leave their homes and move into ghettos. One of the largest ghettos was in Warsaw, Poland (see Source 6.46). Conditions inside the ghetto were extremely brutal. It was



Source 6.45 A Jewish youth selling Star of David armbands in Warsaw

very crowded and there was often no running water, or toilet facilities. Jews were often not allowed to leave the ghetto and had to depend on the few rations provided by the Nazis. One survivor described the Warsaw ghetto as 'a prison without a roof'. Approximately 800 000 Jews died in the ghettos from malnutrition, disease and forced labour. Others were murdered outright by shooting.

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

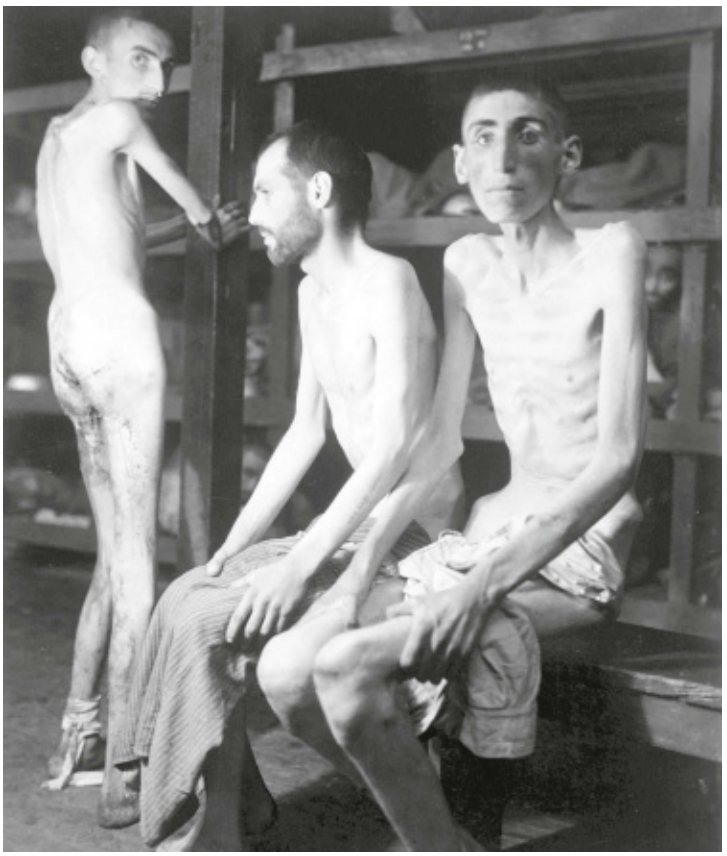


Source 6.46 The clearing of Jews from the Warsaw ghetto in Poland in 1943. Towards the end of the war, German troops cleared ghettos and transported those living in them to concentration camps either to work or to be killed.

Concentration camps

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

The camps varied in character. Some were forced labour camps where inmates were compelled to do hard physical labour such as mining and road building under harsh conditions (see Source 6.47). 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 designed for the sole purpose of murdering. Many camps, however, served a combination of these functions. The best known and largest of these camps was Auschwitz–Birkenau, where inmates considered unsuitable for forced labour were gassed and their bodies burnt in crematoria (giant ovens – see Source 6.48). More than one million Jews alone were murdered at Auschwitz.



Source 6.47 Russian, Polish and Dutch slave labourers interned at the Buchenwald concentration camp had an average weight of 75 kilograms each before entering camp. Eleven months later, when this photograph was taken, their average weight had dropped to 31 kilograms.



Source 6.48 Crematoria where the remains of people killed at Buchenwald concentration camp were cremated

Mass shootings

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

The 'Final Solution'

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

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



Source 6.49 Polish prisoners dig graves for their fellow prisoners after a mass execution by the Nazis, 1941

The Holocaust's legacy

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

After the war, many European Jews migrated to other countries, including Australia, where they have established vibrant new communities. After enduring the horrors of the Holocaust, many Jews wished to join their fellow Jews who were already living in their ancient homeland. So, in November 1947, the United Nations endorsed the establishment of an independent Jewish state in what became known as Israel (see 'Foundation of the United Nations' in section 6.3). Israel declared its independence in May 1948.

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



Source 6.50 These are the tracks along which trains took people to their death at the Auschwitz–Birkenau concentration camp in Oswiecim, Poland

Check your learning 6.8

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

9. Hitler outlined his anti-Semitic attitudes in his book *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?

Evaluate and create

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

The atomic bombings

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

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



Source 6.51 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 Potsdam Declaration

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

The Manhattan Project

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

Even before the USA entered World War II, it was dedicating huge resources to the Manhattan Project. By 1944, approximately 129 000 people were working on the Manhattan Project, including scientists, construction workers and military personnel. Included was a physicist named Robert Oppenheimer (see Source 6.51) who became known as the 'father of the atomic bomb' for his role in the project.

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

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

The Japan campaign

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

The Japan campaign began with a series of minor air raids. These raids soon developed into a major strategic firebombing campaign in late 1944, which involved dropping large numbers of small bombs designed to start fires. The change to firebombing tactics resulted in devastating attacks on 67 Japanese cities, killing as many as

500000 people. Despite the damage and the huge civilian death toll, the Japanese military refused to surrender.

America therefore continued to push towards the Japanese Home Islands (the islands that the Allies had decided would be the extent of Japan's territory after the 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 21000 Japanese soldiers were killed at Iwo Jima. The Battle of Okinawa (see Source 6.52) was the bloodiest in the Pacific, with 50000 Americans wounded, and 12000 killed. Approximately 95000 Japanese soldiers were killed, including many who committed suicide rather than surrender. It is unknown how many civilians were killed in the American invasion of Okinawa, but estimates vary from 42000 to 150000.

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



Source 6.52 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 6.53). Hiroshima was chosen because it was a large, urban, industrial city that also served as a military storage area and an assembly point for troops. No one knew how much damage the bomb would do, so Hiroshima was one of the few major cities not targeted by the American firebombing campaign. In that way the damage caused by the bomb could be more easily observed.



Source 6.53 'Little Boy' – the atomic bomb that destroyed almost 70 per cent of Hiroshima in August 1945

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 80000 people, or 30 per cent of Hiroshima's population, were killed, and another 70000 were injured. Roughly 69 per cent of the city's buildings were completely destroyed. The long-term effects of the bombing were even worse. People suffered from burns, radiation, cancer and many other side effects. The exact figures are disputed, but the total number of deaths caused by the bomb by the end of 1945 was between 90000 and 160000. By 1950, around 200000 people had died because of side effects from the bomb.

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

The bomb's impact on Nagasaki was just as devastating as it was on Hiroshima. Between 40000 and 75000 people were killed by the immediate effects of the bomb, and a further 74000 were injured. By the end of 1945, at least 80000 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.

keyconcept: empathy

The story of Sadako Sasaki

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

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

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

For more information on the key concept of empathy, refer to section HT.1 in 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 6.54 Statue of Sadako Sasaki holding a crane in the Peace Memorial Park in Hiroshima

Japan surrenders

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

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

Debate about the bombings

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

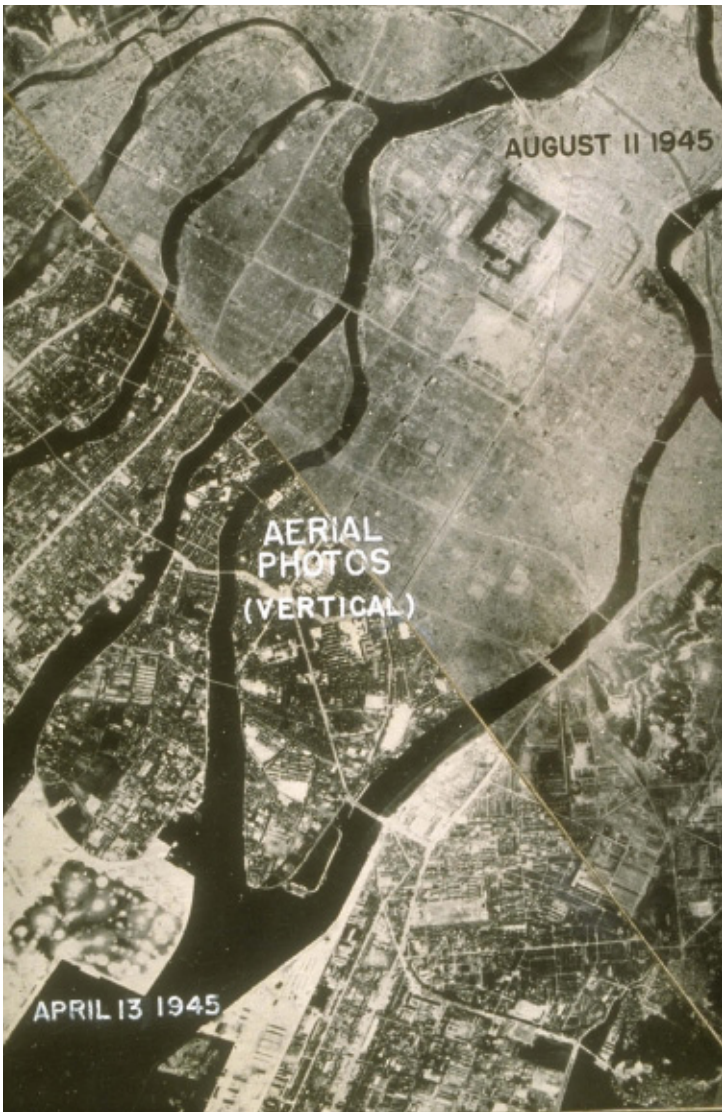
Some argue that the bombings saved millions of lives by preventing the need for an invasion of the Japanese Home Islands. The ferocity with which Japanese soldiers fought at Iwo Jima and Okinawa made this a popular view among American soldiers and their families. Other supporters of the decision to use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

$2 billion on the Manhattan Project, and then decide not to use the atomic bombs created to save American lives.

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



Source 6.55 General Sir Thomas Blamey, the commander of the Australian army, accepts the surrender of the 2nd Japanese Army on the island of Morotai, in September 1945 (AWM 115645)



Source 6.56 Hiroshima before (13 April) and after (11 August) the atomic bombing

Check your learning 6.9

Remember and understand

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

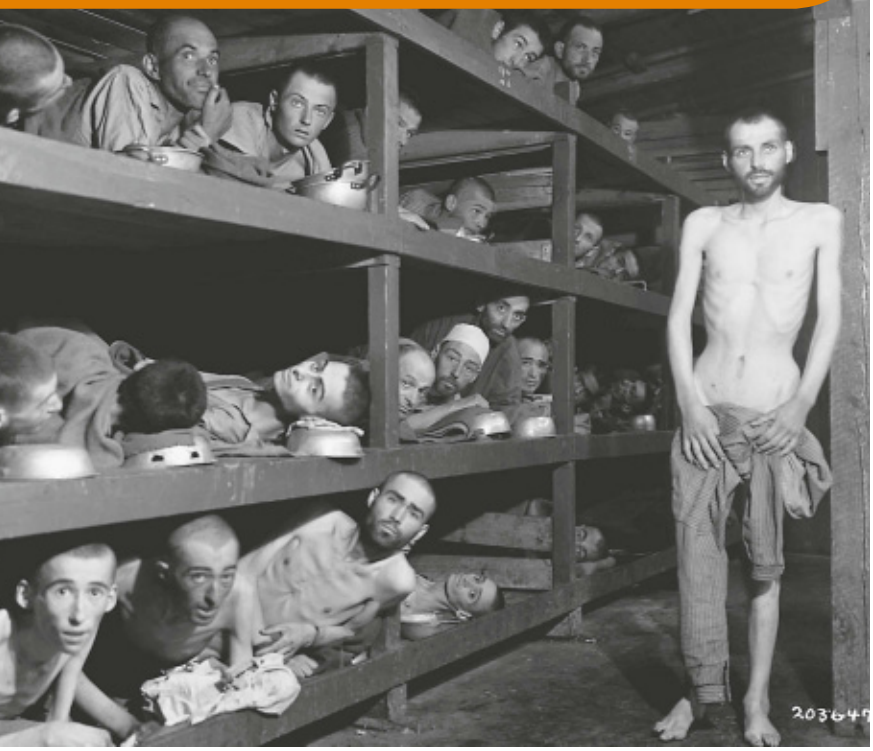
Evaluate and create

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

6.2 big**ideas:** rich task

Anti-Semitism in Nazi Germany

There is considerable evidence that shows the nature and complexity of the experiences of those who were subjected to anti-Semitism in Nazi Germany, before, during and at the end of World War II. Evidence includes the many laws passed in Germany during the 1930s. Once the war started, the Nazis took photographs in the ghettos and in concentration and extermination camps. Then, when the camps were liberated by the Allies in May 1945, there were more photographs taken and views recorded by those who liberated the camps. The soldiers were shocked at what they found. Still later, as Holocaust survivors began to readjust to life after the trauma, many of them documented their experiences and feelings.



Source 6.57 Buchenwald prisoners liberated by the US army in April 1945

Source 6.58

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 6.59

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 6.60

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 6.61

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

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

skill**drill**

Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources

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

Step 1 Evaluating reliability

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

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

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

Step 2 Evaluating usefulness

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

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

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

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

Apply the skill

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

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

Extend your understanding

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

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

3 Create a PowerPoint presentation that highlights your findings.

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

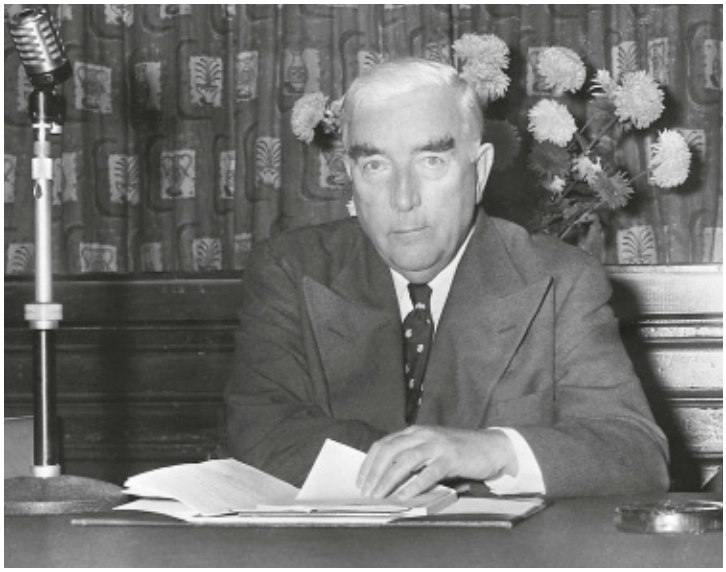
Australia's commitment to the war

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

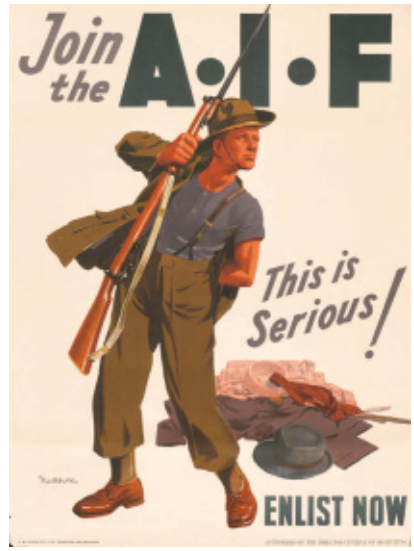
Source 6.62

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

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



Source 6.63 Robert Gordon Menzies (1894–1978), Prime Minister of Australia when World War II was declared



Source 6.64 Second AIF recruitment poster (AWM ARTV06723)

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

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



Source 6.65 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)

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

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

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

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

Source 6.66

> 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 6.30). The Prime Minister declared that Australia was now in a state of 'total war'.

Check your learning 6.10

Remember and understand

1 Why was Prime Minister Menzies initially reluctant to commit Australian troops to fight in Europe?

2 What were some of the reasons the AIF initially struggled to fulfil its commitment of supplying 20 000 soldiers to support British troops in Europe? What event boosted recruitment?

3 Why were conscripted members of the CMF nicknamed 'Chocos'?

Apply and analyse

4 What do Menzies' words (see Source 6.62) tell us about the relationship between Britain and Australia in 1939?

5 How and why did Australia increase its commitment to the war after 1941? Refer to Source 6.66 in your answer.

Australian experiences of the war abroad

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

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

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

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

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



Source 6.67 Australian Army Rising Sun Badges like this one from 1942 were issued to soldiers of the AIF during World War II. They helped identify Australians fighting abroad.

Prisoners of war

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

By far the highest number of Australian POWs were captured by the Japanese in the Pacific (see Source 6.70). Between January and March 1942, more than 22 000 Australian service personnel were captured by Japanese forces in the region, with 15 000 captured in Malaya and Singapore alone. By 1945, more than 8000 had died. The significantly higher rate of deaths among POWs captured by the Japanese can be attributed to Japan's attitude towards prisoners. Japanese military culture, shaped by traditional values, meant that the Japanese treated enemy prisoners poorly. Japan refused to follow the terms of the **Geneva Convention**, an international agreement on the treatment of captured civilians and military personnel.

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

The Japanese also made use of POWs as forced labour, most notably on the Burma Railway. Along with British, Dutch and American prisoners, 13 000 Australian POWs were used as forced labour to build the Thailand–Burma railway line, which was to supply the Japanese campaign (see Source 6.71). About 2800 Australians died from malnutrition, mistreatment and disease.

key**concept:** significance

Edward (Weary) Dunlop

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

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to section HT.1 in 'The historian's toolkit'.

Source 6.68

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

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



Source 6.69 Sir Edward (Weary) Dunlop, right, in Singapore, 1942



Source 6.70 Australian POWs in a Japanese prison camp at the end of the war (AWM 019199)



Source 6.71 Malnourished prisoners forced to work on the construction of the Thailand–Burma Railway (AWM P00761-011)

Check your learning 6.11

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

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

Evaluate and create

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

Life on the home front

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

National Security Act

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



Source 6.72 A campaign poster urging civilians in Australia not to gossip (AWM ARTV02497)

Censorship and propaganda

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

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

In addition to this, the Department of Information censored mail (see Source 6.73) and monitored phone calls to ensure that military information relating to troop movements and locations was not communicated to the enemy.



Source 6.73 Mail being censored (AWM 139316)



Source 6.74 Italian POWs at Liverpool Prisoner of War and Internment Camp, New South Wales, during World War II (AWM 123706)

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

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

Internment

During World War II, the Australian government took steps against people living in Australia who they believed threatened national security. Initially, this included the **internment** (detaining people in special camps) of Germans and Italians living in Australia who were believed to be pro-Nazi or pro-fascist (see Source 6.74). When war with Japan began, all Japanese who lived in Australia were also interned. Approximately 7000 'enemy aliens', many of whom had lived peacefully and innocently in Australia for decades, were interned in camps around the country.

Everyday life

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

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

Other government policies influenced many aspects of Australian life during the war years. The fear of air raids, for example, led to the introduction of blackouts, which plunged major cities into darkness. Streetlights were switched off, car headlights reduced to narrow beams, and houses were required to have blackout curtains to prevent light showing in the street (see Source 6.75). Failure to comply could result in fines.



Source 6.75 Preparing for the night-time blackout

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



Source 6.76 Ration coupons entitled civilians to certain goods

Rationing

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

The government issued civilians with ration books containing coupons, which had to be presented when paying for certain goods (see Source 6.76). Pregnant women and families with young children were given extra rations.

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

Men on the home front

Almost three-quarters of a million Australians (mostly men) enlisted in the Second AIF during World War II. However, a great many more men and women were engaged in the war economy. Many men were not allowed to enlist in the armed forces because they worked in reserved occupations, such as farming and manufacturing (see Source 6.77). 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 50 000 men served in the corps, which was mostly made up of labourers, carpenters and truck drivers.

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



Source 6.77 These men are shown producing munitions during World War II. Jobs such as these were known as reserved occupations because they were essential to the war effort.

Women's role in the war

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

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

This changed as the war came closer to Australia. From late 1940, women were not only permitted but were encouraged to join the services (see Source 6.78). Around 35 000 women served in the army, making up around 5 per cent of the entire force. The Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF) established in October 1940 was quickly followed by the women's army and navy forces. Women were not sent overseas to fight, but were trained in many of the home-front tasks so that more servicemen could be freed up to join the overseas forces.



Source 6.78 Recruitment poster to attract women into the services (AWM ARTV00332)



Source 6.79 Australian Women's Army Service mechanics

By the end of the war, the WAAAF was made up of 18 500 women; the Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) had 24 000 women (see Source 6.79); 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 6.80). Despite their new skills women were still not permitted to take on combat roles or serve outside Australia. The exception to this was the nurses who served in most areas where Australian troops were sent.



Even if women did not enlist in the Auxiliary Forces, it was argued that increasing women's employment would enable more men to enter military service. However, the understanding was that their employment was only for the duration of the war. Women entered new areas of work, acting as tram conductors, and taxi and truck drivers. As the war progressed, Australian women worked increasingly in war industries, such as manufacturing munitions and military equipment. Under Manpower regulations, women could be deployed in occupations that suited their skills. A woman trained as a florist could be compelled to work in a factory because of her skills with

wire; a dancer could be sent to work on a farm because she was agile and physically fit. By mid-1943, nearly 200 000 women were employed in roles that would assist the war effort. They were paid roughly two-thirds of men's pay rates.

As the war continued, and conscription called up more and more men, many farms were suffering from a shortage of workers. The Women's Land Army was set up to distribute female labour to farms and orchards to keep food production going (see Source 6.81). 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 6.80 Female plane-maintenance workers



Source 6.81 Members of the Australian Women's Land Army gather flax straw as part of their farm work (AWM P00784.128)

Check your learning 6.12

Remember and understand

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

Evaluate and create

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

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

Indigenous Australians at war

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

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



Source 6.82 Indigenous 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 such as the Australian Women's Army Service. Despite their important work, pay rates remained low for Indigenous workers. The RAAF briefly increased wages for Aboriginal workers, but was pressured to lower them again by the civilian government.

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

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

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



Source 6.83 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 6.13

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

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

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

Evaluate and create

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

Australia's international relationships

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

Australia and the USA

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

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

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

American General Douglas MacArthur would also establish his base for the south-west Pacific campaign in Australia (see Source 6.84). Until this point, Australia's foreign policy had largely been determined by the needs of the British Empire. This relationship with the USA was an important step in establishing an independent Australia and continues to have an important bearing on Australian foreign policy decisions.



Source 6.84 Australian Prime Minister John Curtin welcomes General Douglas MacArthur to Australia, 1942

Domestic changes

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

The presence of almost one million American service personnel in Australia during the war also had a significant cultural impact. For some Australian women these men would become boyfriends or husbands. The influence of

American cinema, language and culture made its first major inroads in Australia during this period. Australians had mixed feelings about this cultural 'invasion'. On one level, many feared the loss of Australian culture and traditions. On the other hand, for many younger Australians there was a fascination with American music, dress and slang.

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

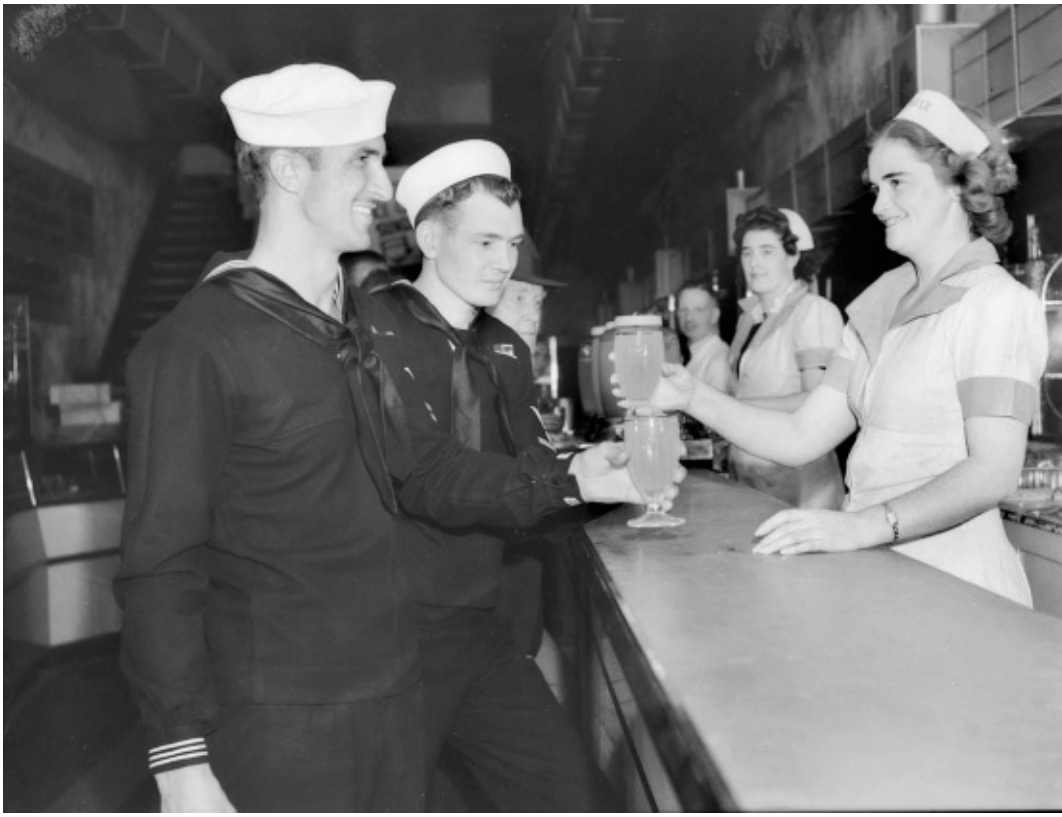
The experience of war and the death of roughly 28 000 Australian service personnel and civilians also shaped Australia's future. The commemoration of the 1939–45 fallen was incorporated into commemorations of World War I. Local communities recognised the sacrifice of the more recent deaths by extending and expanding the monuments originally constructed to remember the dead of the 1914–18 conflict, ironically described as 'the war to end all wars'.



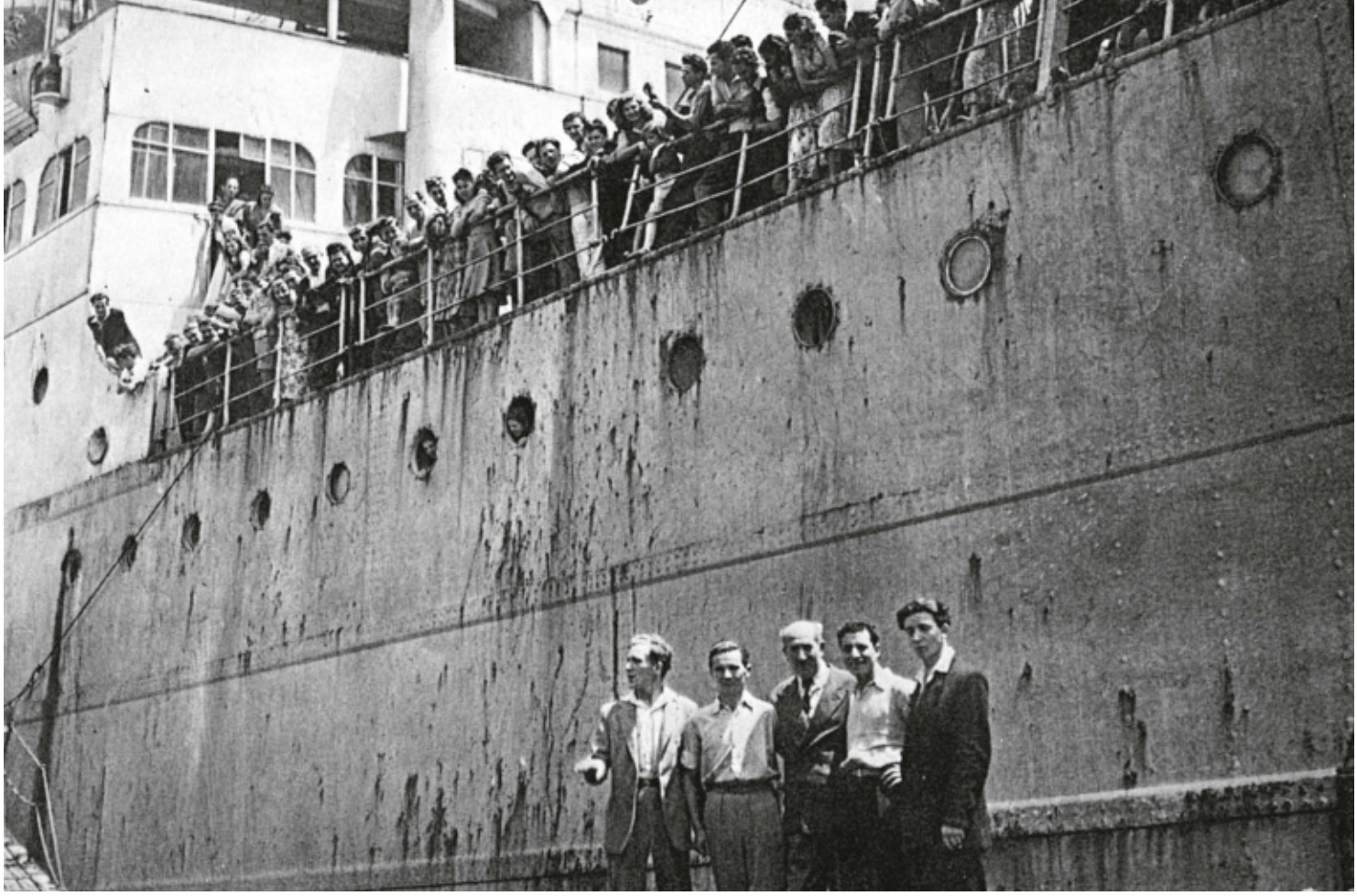
Source 6.85 Memorial to those who lost their lives in the bombing of Darwin, February 1942



Source 6.86 The first production-model Holden rolled off the assembly line in 1948.



Source 6.87 US sailors and soldiers on their arrival in Australia quickly made friends wherever they went, and were received with hospitality.



Source 6.88 Immigrants arrived from all corners of Europe as part of the 'Populate or perish' campaign.

Post-war migration

After World War II, many Australians felt that they had only narrowly avoided a Japanese invasion. The government, under the new Prime Minister Ben Chifley, decided that Australia needed to increase its population to protect itself from the threat of foreign invasion. The slogan 'Populate or perish' was coined by the Immigration Minister, Arthur Calwell, to promote this new immigration policy. The 'Populate or perish' campaign initially focused on encouraging British migrants, but this failed to increase the population enough. For the first time, Australia began to actively seek migrants from continental Europe (see Source 6.88).

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

In 1947, desperate to increase its population, Australia reached an agreement with the IRO to resettle 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.

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

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

Foundation of the United Nations

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

The **United Nations** officially came into existence in 1945, with 51 nations as founding members. The first major meeting to prepare the Charter of the United Nations was held in San Francisco in April 1945 (see Source 6.89). Australia's delegate, the then Minister for External Affairs, Herbert 'Doc' Evatt, played a key role in drafting the charter of the United Nations. The Charter outlined the role of the United Nations as an international organisation to prevent war. It also included provisions for the United Nations to aid refugees, support economic reconstruction after the war, and protect human rights.

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

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



Source 6.89 Australia's delegation to the United Nations Conference, San Francisco, 25 April 1945 – Herbert 'Doc' Evatt is seated second from the right

Check your learning 6.14

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

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

6.3 big**ideas:** rich task

Australian wartime propaganda posters

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



Source 6.90 An Australian propaganda poster produced by the Department of Aircraft Production (Beaufort Division) in 1942 – 'Beauforts' were the first all-metal aircraft built in Australia

skill**drill**

Analysing propaganda posters

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

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

Step 2 Check the context of the poster. Consider:

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

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

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



Source 6.91 Recruitment poster 1942

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

An example of the way in which propaganda can be analysed is provided in Source 6.91.

Apply the skill

1. Look carefully at Source 6.90 and analyse it using the steps above as a guide.
2. Write a short paragraph comparing and contrasting Sources 6.90 and 6.91 in terms of audience, message, intended effect and purpose.

Extend your understanding

1. What forms does propaganda take today that were not available during World War II? (For example, Twitter, Facebook etc.)
2. It is often assumed that propaganda contains false or untrue information. This is not always the case. Consider, for example, the many advertisements produced by the government to influence people to quit smoking. These can be defined as propaganda, given that they are an attempt to influence people's opinions and behaviour. Locate an example of modern-day propaganda, and analyse it using the steps outlined above.
3. Create your own propaganda poster to influence a specific audience to think or act in a particular way. Write a short paragraph explaining your intended audience, purpose, message and techniques used.

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

Depth study 2
Rights and freedoms
This depth study is core.
It must be completed by ALL students.

The aftermath of World War II in Europe

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

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

The division of Germany

In 1949 the British, French and American occupation zones in Germany were combined to create a new country called the Federal Republic of Germany (or West Germany). That same year, the Soviet zone was officially renamed the German Democratic Republic (or East Germany). A patrolled border fence was erected between East and West Germany and people living in the Soviet occupation zone at this time were no longer permitted to leave (see Source O.15). From this time onwards, the border between Soviet-controlled countries in Eastern Europe and democratic countries Western Europe became divided by what British Prime Minister Winston Churchill described as the 'Iron Curtain' (see Source O.16).

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

overview 2

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



Source O.15 Source: Oxford University Press

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



Source O.16 Source: Oxford University Press

The start of the Cold War

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

Although the USA and USSR had worked as allies against the Axis powers during the war, they actually shared a deep mistrust of one another, mainly because the two countries were founded on such different ideological approaches (see Source O.17):

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

Source O.17 A comparison of key features of capitalism and communism

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

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

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

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



Source O.18 Protecting yourself during the early years of the Cold War in the USA meant not only taking out insurance against natural disasters but also against the threat of a nuclear attack by the USSR.

The Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan

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

Truman believed that communism took hold when people faced financial hardship. In order to limit the spread of communism across Europe, the United States offered financial aid to European countries that had been badly affected by the war. This program was called the Marshall Plan and involved the distribution of around

$13 billion worth of US aid designed to get the economies of Europe going again. Food, machinery and many other things were shipped to democratic countries in Europe. The Soviet Union and its allies were also offered aid, but did not accept. The Premier of the USSR, Joseph Stalin, saw this as an attempt by the USA to dominate Europe by making it dependent on American handouts.

Berlin: a city divided

In the decades following the division of Germany, the differences between life in the communist East and capitalist West became very obvious. West Germany's economy grew rapidly and the standard of living there increased greatly. By comparison, personal freedoms in East Germany were severely limited and the economy struggled. As a result, around 3 million people left East Germany for West Germany between 1949 and 1961 despite attempts by the Russians to stop this. Most of these people were able to leave the East by crossing into West Berlin. This situation was humiliating for the government of East Germany, so on 13 August 1961 (one day after around 4000 East Germans had crossed into West Berlin), a temporary barbed wire fence was erected to stop people from leaving the East. This was soon replaced by a heavily-guarded concrete wall that entirely surrounded West Berlin, known as the Berlin Wall (see Source O.19). The division of Germany remained in place until 1990 when the country was reunified. Over that time, the Berlin Wall became the most enduring symbol of the Cold War in Europe.



Source O.19 Workers constructing the Berlin Wall in 1960. The wall became an enduring symbol of the Cold War in Europe.

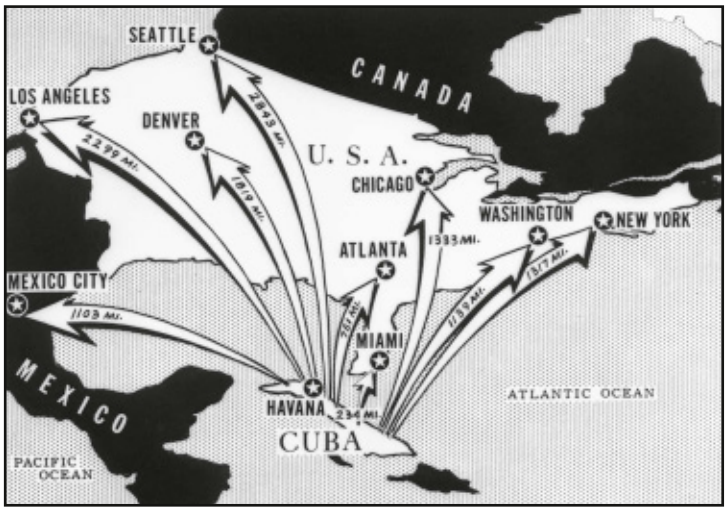
Growing tensions between the USA and the USSR

The Cuban Missile Crisis

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

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

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



Source O.20 Distances of major US cities from Cuba

In September 1961, Castro asked Russia for weapons to defend Cuba against any future US attacks. About a year later, photographs of Cuba taken by American spy planes revealed Soviet nuclear missiles under construction at various sites in Cuba. These sites brought every city and town in the USA within range of Soviet nuclear missiles (see Source O.20). President John F. Kennedy made a televised announcement to the American people on 22 October 1962 that they were under threat. He also proclaimed that any nuclear missile launched from Cuba would be regarded as an attack on the US by the USSR, and demanded that the Soviets remove all weapons from Cuba.

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

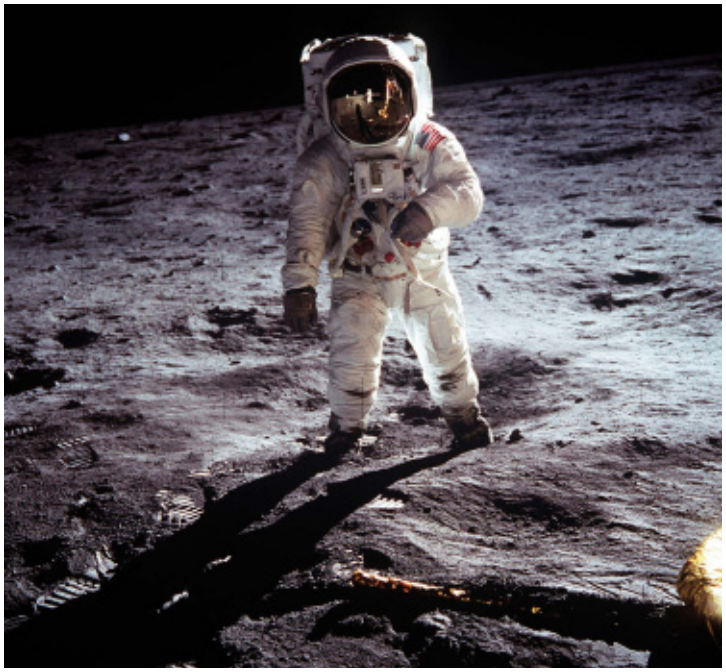
Luckily, President Kennedy and Premier Khrushchev were able to reach an agreement whereby the Soviets removed their missiles from Cuba in exchange for a commitment by the USA not to invade Cuba.

The space race

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

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

The following year, the USA sent a satellite into space and established the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) to coordinate and plan its future space program. Once again, the Russians moved ahead of the Americans in the space race by successfully sending the first manned flight into space in April 1961. This triggered a pledge from President Kennedy in May 1961 that the USA would be the first nation to land a man on the moon. This goal was achieved by *Apollo 11* on 20 July 1969 (see Source O.21).



Source O.21 Astronaut Buzz Aldrin was part of the first space mission to land men on the moon – *Apollo 11*.

The end of the Cold War

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

These initiatives rapidly improved relations between the United States and the USSR, ultimately bringing an end to the Cold War. What Gorbachev failed to anticipate, however, was that without the Communist Party and Soviet Army maintaining complete control of all the Soviet satellite states, the Soviet Union would soon break apart. Attempted political reforms at home left the Soviet Union unwilling to defend challenges to its authority in many countries across Eastern Europe. During 1989 and 1990, the Berlin Wall came down and Germany was reunified. Elsewhere in Eastern Europe, borders opened and free elections were held that ousted communist regimes. In August 1991, Gorbachev resigned as leader of the Soviet Union. By October of that year, 10 Soviet republics had declared their independence and the Soviet Union collapsed. With stunning speed, the Iron Curtain was lifted and the Cold War came to an end.



Source O.22 The fall of the Berlin Wall in November 1989 came to symbolise the triumph of democracy and the end of the Cold War.

Check your learning O.6

Remember and understand

1 Define the following terms in your own words:
   - a the international arms race
   - b the space race
   - c the Cold War.
2 Why did the East German government build a wall around the western part of Berlin?
3 What was the Cuban Missile Crisis and why is it regarded as such a significant historical event?

Apply and analyse

4 Why do you think Churchill referred to the border between East and West Europe as the 'Iron Curtain'?
5 Why was the USA so concerned about the relationship between Cuba and the USSR? Do you believe their fears were justified?

Evaluate and create

6 Examine Source O.21 carefully and complete the following tasks.
   - a Conduct research online to determine why this source was produced, who produced it, and when it was published.
   - b Do you think this source is an example of propaganda? Justify your response.

The formation of the United Nations

The 20th century was one of social change. The events of World War II highlighted the inequalities that existed around the world. The **Holocaust** was such a horrific example of discrimination and persecution that it prompted many individuals around the world to stand up and demand freedom and equal rights for all. Immediately following the end of World War II, the **United Nations (UN)** formed with the goal of preventing future wars. A few years later in 1948, a document outlining a set of rights to which all human beings are entitled was released. The **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**, as it was known, was the first international declaration of its kind. It marked a new era of international cooperation and outlined a vision for the post-war world.

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

Structure of the United Nations

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

The Charter established five separate branches of the United Nations:

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



Source O.23 Flags outside the current United Nations building in New York

4. The International Court of Justice (ICJ) – The ICJ is the main judicial body of the United Nations.
5. The Secretariat – This is the body that runs the United Nations. The Secretary-General is the chief administrative officer of the United Nations.

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

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

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

The struggle for rights and freedoms

A number of movements around the world were formed to fight for the recognition of a range of rights and freedoms. These included:

- independence movements – in the immediate post-war period, a number of former colonies around

the world fought for their independence from their imperial masters.

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

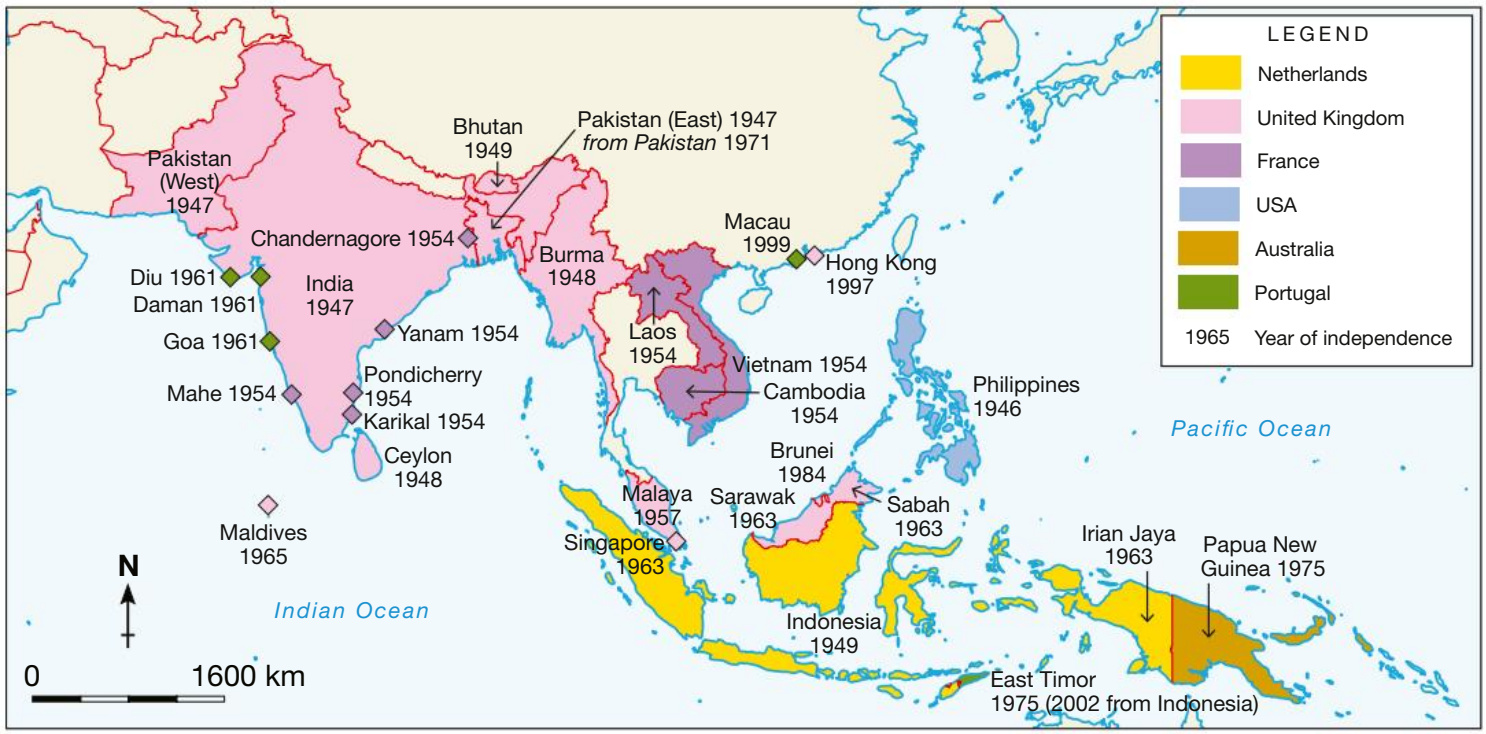
Together, these movements brought about enormous social and political changes that influenced the modern world. Many of these rights are taken for granted by people today, but the struggle for the acceptance and recognition of many of these rights took enormous courage and determination.

Independence movements

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

The immediate post-war years saw a wave of **decolonisation** sweep across the world. Once-powerful empires (such as Britain, France, the Netherlands and Spain) that had been weakened by the war faced growing opposition from those living under colonial rule. Over a few years, European powers were forced to withdraw from their colonies and recognise their independence (see Source O.24). The process of decolonisation began in India and Pakistan, both countries gaining independence from British rule in 1947. From here, the movement swept across Asia, with Indonesia breaking away from the Netherlands in 1949 and France giving up control of Vietnam in 1954. This desire for self-rule later swept across other parts of the world. By the early 1980s old colonial countries throughout Africa, Asia and the Caribbean had all gained their independence.

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



Source O.24

Source: Oxford University Press

Racial equality movements

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



Source O.25 Dr Martin Luther King, Jr after the March on Washington in 1963



Source O.26 Protesters outside the Aboriginal Tent Embassy

An overview of the struggle for rights and freedoms by African Americans		
Civil rights movements and actions	Section 7.2	• The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is passed by the United Nations in 1948 • **Segregation** (separation of blacks and whites) is widespread in the southern states of the USA • In 1954 (in *Brown vs the Board of Education*) the US Supreme Court rules segregation in US schools to be unconstitutional (illegal) • The case of Emmett Till in 1955, (in which a 14-year-old African-American boy was murdered for talking to a white woman) brings national attention to the issue of race relations in the USA • In 1955, Rosa Parks refuses to give her seat to a white woman on an Alabama bus • In 1957, nine African American students try to enrol at the all-white Little Rock Central High School, Arkansas. The US army is sent in to enforce their right to attend the school. • Early 1960s, a mixed group of African-Americans and white-Americans, ride buses throughout the Southern States testing the end of segregation. Known as the Freedom Riders, the group exposes that many southern states are ignoring the ruling of the Supreme Court. • The March on Washington in 1963 sees around 250 000 people travel to the US capital to hear Martin Luther King, Jr. (leader of the African-American civil rights movements) give his famous 'I have a dream' speech (see Source O.25).

An overview of the struggle for rights and freedoms by Indigenous Australians		
How Indigenous Australians were disadvantaged	Section 7.1	• In the first Australian census after Australian Federation in 1901, Indigenous Australians were not counted. • An **assimilation** policy was introduced in 1937 – Aboriginal people of mixed race were to be assimilated into white society. • Segregationist practices until the 1960s excluded Indigenous Australians from mixing with white people and from holding certain jobs. • **Stolen Generations** – from the late 19th century until the 1970s Indigenous children were removed from their families to be brought up in 'white' families or state-run institutions
Indigenous rights movements and actions	Section 7.2	• Indigenous Australians boycott sesquicentenary (150th anniversary) of British settlement in 1938 and instead hold a Day of Mourning. An address is given by Jack Patten, President of the Aborigines Progressive Association. • Australian Freedom Riders take a bus journey through rural NSW to protest segregation
Significant Indigenous Australians	Section 7.2	• Jack Patten, leader of the Aborigines Progressive Association (NSW) • William Cooper, leader of the Australian Aborigines League (Vic) • Albert Namatjira, Aboriginal artist • Doug Nicholls, VFL player for Carlton and Fitzroy • Eddie Gilbert, cricketer • Charles Perkins, leader of the Freedom Riders • Lowitja O'Donoghue, founding chairperson of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) and Order of Australia recipient
Indigenous land rights	Section 7.2	• The Wave Hill walk-off, 1966 – Indigenous pastoral workers demand equal pay and a return of traditional lands. This was the first land rights claim. • 1971 – the Aboriginal flag was designed • 1972 – Aboriginal Tent Embassy established on the grounds of parliament in 1972 (see Source O.26) • 1992 – Eddie Mabo wins native title to family land on Murray Island. This decision was followed by the *Native Title Act* in 1993 • 1996 – the Wik decision allows for native title on land under pastoral lease. The Native Title Amendment Bill in 1997 effectively overturns native title.
Changes to government attitudes	Section 7.2 Section 7.3	• 1967 Referendum gets a 'yes' to count Indigenous Australians in the census. This would lead to Indigenous Australians also getting full voting rights. • In Prime Minister Keating's Redfern Park speech in 1992, Keating acknowledged past injustices towards Indigenous Australians. • In 2008, Prime Minister Rudd says sorry to the Stolen Generations

Gender equality movements

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

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



Source O.27 Protesters at the International Women's Day march in Sydney, 1972

The 1970s saw the emergence of women's liberation movements, inspired by figures such as Germaine Greer (a prominent feminist writer and thinker). Greer's book *The Female Eunuch* (published in 1970) asserted that women were enslaved within society by discrimination and commonly accepted values of male superiority. Greer argued that women should strive to break free of these conditions and that the male domination of society must be fought (see Source O.27). Feminists achieved some notable successes in these years, including the passing of the *Maternity Leave Act 1973* and the *Sex Discrimination Act 1975* (South Australia). These pieces of legislation protected a woman's right by law to maternity leave and protected people against being victimised for complaining about discrimination.

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

Check your learning O.7

Remember and understand

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

Apply and analyse

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



Rights and freedoms

depth study 2

depth study – core

Rights and freedoms

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

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

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

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



7.1

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

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

7.2

How have Indigenous peoples in Australia achieved change?

1 The 1960s civil rights movement in the United States was very influential for Indigenous Australian activists. What do you think are some of the similarities and differences between the experiences of African Americans and Indigenous Australians?



Source 7.1 Indigenous Australians have struggled to have their rights and freedoms recognised under Australian law since the British established a colony here in 1788. This march for Aboriginal rights took place in Canberra in 2008.

7.3

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

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

Rights and freedoms: a timeline

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

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



Freedom Riders outside their bus

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

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

1935 | 1945 | 1960 | 1970

1942
Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by United Nations.

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

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

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



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

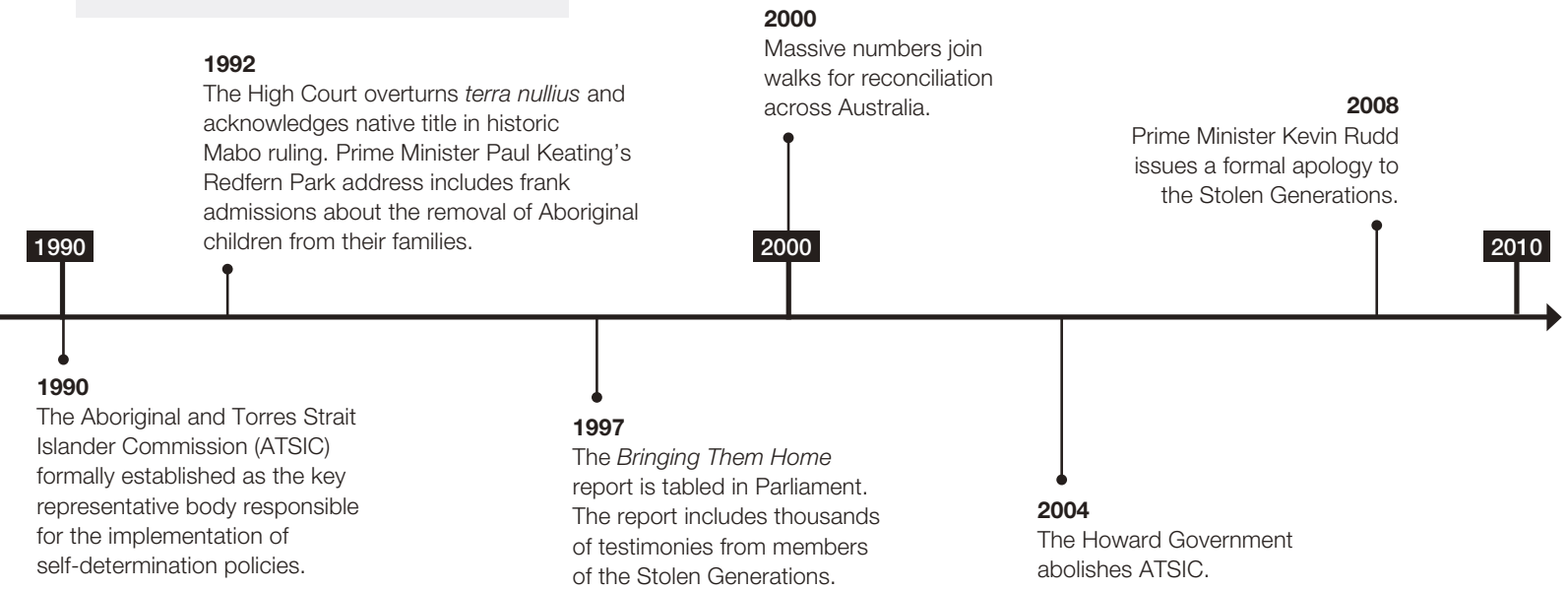
Source 7.2 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to civil rights and freedoms



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



Crossing the Sydney Harbour Bridge during the reconciliation march





Supporters at the Aboriginal Tent Embassy

Check your learning 7.1

Remember and understand

1. When was the 'Day of Mourning' held?
2. When was *terra nullius* overturned by the High Court?
3. When did Prime Minister Kevin Rudd make a formal apology to the Stolen Generations?

Apply and analyse

4. In what ways do you think the American Freedom Riders might have inspired and influenced the Australian Freedom Riders?
5. Using the timeline, calculate how long the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) existed for.

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

Background to the struggle for Indigenous rights

When British explorers and settlers arrived on the east coast of Australia in 1788, they did not understand the Indigenous population. The British looked for signs of permanent residence, and could find none, so they didn't negotiate any treaties. They also looked for evidence of farming, and could find none, so they proclaimed Australia *terra nullius* – a Latin term that literally translates as 'nobody's land'.

The negative effects of European settlement on Indigenous Australians that had started in 1788 continued with the policies of Australian colonial and state governments in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. The expansion of British colonial settlements into established Aboriginal lands destroyed traditional ways of life. High numbers of Indigenous Australian premature deaths were the result of violence and disease. By the time of **Federation** in 1901, European settlements dominated most of the continent.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures were not officially recognised, and public policy was dominated by ideas of **segregation** (separating blacks from whites) and **assimilation** (integrating blacks into white society). Both of these ideas were based on the assumption that Aboriginal people were inferior to Europeans.

Aboriginal Protection Boards

Before Federation in 1901, Aboriginal Protection Boards were established in the colonies around Australia to 'manage' Aboriginal populations. After Federation, these boards became the responsibility of state governments. Removing children was the core work of these boards. The new Commonwealth took no responsibility for the wellbeing of this significant minority. Chief Protectors were appointed to watch over the Aboriginal people in each state and oversee what many thought to be a 'dying race' of people.

Aboriginal **reserves** and **missions** were established by governments and religious organisations across Australia to support the assimilation policy (see Source 7.3). 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 7.3 Aboriginal children at the Catholic Little Flower Mission in Arltunga, Northern Territory, *c.* 1946

The situation at Federation

When the Australian colonies federated in 1901, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples remained politically and legally marginalised. Many of the rights extended to the citizens of the new Commonwealth of Australia were denied to the original inhabitants. A number of Acts passed by the new Commonwealth Parliament specifically excluded them. They were not entitled to vote in federal elections unless previously registered to vote in their state. They did not receive the basic wage and they were not eligible for aged and invalid pensions. Travel restrictions were often enforced on them. They were excluded from military training and Aboriginal mothers did not receive the baby bonus that was given to non-Indigenous mothers. When a **census** was held, Aborigines were not counted as members of the Australian population.

Western Australian Senator Alexander Matheson was one of the strongest opponents of Aboriginal people being given the right to vote (see Source 7.4).

After Federation, state governments and religious organisations continued to dominate Aboriginal policy. The new Commonwealth government took no responsibility for the wellbeing of this significant minority. The common trend to assimilation underpinned work by authorities in each state; however, insufficient resources meant that often work was simply neglected. Assimilation did guide two key areas of work – the Christian missions and the removal of mixed-race Aboriginal children.

Source 7.4

> 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 7.5 and 7.6). The removal of Aboriginal children continued and new powers were given to 'Welfare' officials to judge whether children were 'progressing'.

Source 7.5

> The destiny of the natives of aboriginal origin, but not of the full blood, lies in their ultimate absorption … with a view to their taking their place in the white community on an equal footing with the whites.

From a conference paper from the Aboriginal Welfare Conference of Commonwealth and State Authorities in 1937

New government resources were aimed at changing the ways that Aboriginal people lived. Traditional camps were demolished and additional assistance was given to missions to 'do the job'. Jackson's Track in Gippsland, Victoria, was a 'dry' sawmill settlement occupied by many Aboriginal families – including the family of Lionel Rose, Australia's first boxing world champion.

Daryl Tonkin, who married an Aboriginal woman and settled at Jackson's Track, recalls the idyllic life of those living there in his book *Jackson's Track*. However, from the 1940s, government and church officials began putting pressure on the Aboriginal elders to move their families to somewhere more 'civilised'. 'Welfare' would visit frequently, and in 1961 the community was dismantled (see Sources 7.6 and 7.7).

Source 7.6

> 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, teetotaller Aboriginal men began drinking for the first time in their lives to escape the boredom and depression of their new lives away from 'the Track'.



Source 7.7 Two dwellings at Jackson's Track, Victoria, *c.* 1947–1960 (Source: Museum Victoria. Photographer: Richard Seeger)

Segregation

Another effective means of controlling Aboriginal people was to prevent them from fully participating in society. 'Colour bars' – bans that prevented Aboriginal people from entering clubs, pubs, restaurants, theatres, public swimming pools or using public transport – resulted in a form of **apartheid**. Aboriginal people were also prohibited from working particular jobs – including working in post offices – and were expected to work for much less money. For the first 30 years after Federation, this segregation was applied quite consistently across the states and territories of Australia.

Despite assimilation being the official policy of the government, the practice of segregation continued until the 1960s. Separate sections in theatres, separate wards in hospitals, and denial of school enrolment to Aboriginal children were common. Aboriginal rights activists in the 1960s had plenty of evidence that obvious discrimination continued across Australia.

The Stolen Generations

From the late 1800s to the 1970s many thousands of Aboriginal children were forcibly removed from their families and placed into state care or placed with white families. These children, now referred to as the **Stolen Generations**, faced ongoing emotional and social difficulties because of their removal from their families.

In most states, it was believed that if mixed-race Aboriginal children could be brought up in a 'white' community, their Aboriginality could be overcome and their 'white' attributes would shine through. These children were taken from their families and raised in missions or with white families (see Source 7.8). Unfortunately, these children often ended up being rejected by both the Aboriginal and European communities.



Homes Are Sought For These Children

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

Source 7.8 A newspaper article seeking homes for children of mixed race

Full-blooded Aboriginal children were also removed from their families and put into state-run institutions where they were prepared for unskilled and semi-skilled work. For example, the Cootamundra Girls' Home in New South Wales trained girls to be domestic servants.

The *Bringing Them Home* report

The Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission collated the stories of the Stolen Generations for the Commonwealth Parliament in 1997. Their report, entitled *Bringing Them Home*, revealed the hurt felt by the many Australians who were affected by this policy (see Source 7.9).

Source 7.9

> Most of us girls were thinking white in the head but were feeling black inside. We weren't black or white. We were a very lonely, lost and sad displaced group of people. We were taught to think and act like a white person, but we didn't know how to think and act like an Aboriginal. We didn't know anything about our culture.
>
> We were completely brainwashed to think only like a white person. When they went to mix in white society, they found they were not accepted [because] they were Aboriginal. When they went and mixed with Aborigines, some found they couldn't identify with them either, because they had too much white ways in them. So that they were neither black nor white. They were simply a lost generation of children. I know. I was one of them.

Extract from *Bringing Them Home: Report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families April 1997*, Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission

The extent to which mixed-race Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children were forcibly removed from their families has recently been a subject of debate. Some historians and commentators question whether there is enough common ground in the experiences of the removed children for them to be thought of as a single group. For example, the removal of children to attend secondary schooling, unavailable in many remote locations, might not be considered in the same way as the removal of whole families of children without justification. Other justifications dominated discussions when *Bringing Them Home* was released. These included 'child protection', beliefs that Australia's Indigenous people would 'die out', and a desire



Source 7.10 Marita Ah Chee was taken from her family to Garden Point Mission on Melvin Island in 1947. After 13 years she came back to work as a nanny in Alice Springs and her Aboriginal mother, having heard through the nuns that she was in Alice Springs, went 'doorknocking' until mother and daughter were finally reunited after 15 years.

to 'civilise' Indigenous children through their assimilation into white society. However, the report dealt with many of these questions by making comparisons with non-Indigenous children removed from their families (see Source 7.11).

Source 7.11

> In contrast with the removal of non-Indigenous children, proof of 'neglect' was not always required before an Indigenous child could be removed. Their Aboriginality would suffice. Therefore, while some removals might be 'justifiable' after the event as being in the child's best interests, they often did not need to be justified at the time.
>
> Extract from *Bringing Them Home*, page 9

Proof that children were being neglected was not the main motive behind the forcible removal of Aboriginal children from their families. More often, it was the desire of European settlers to civilise or 'breed out' Aboriginality. Dr Cecil Cook, Chief Protector of the Northern Territory between the years of 1927 and 1939, was perhaps the most famous government official involved in the removal of Aboriginal children during this period. His views were that part-Aboriginal women should be elevated 'to white standard with a view to their absorption by mating into the white population'. This argument was used as motivation to remove thousands of Aboriginal children from their families.

Check your learning 7.2

Remember and understand

1. List some of the main ways in which Indigenous people were discriminated against in Australia from 1788 to the 1960s.
2. Describe the policy of assimilation.
3. What happened to the Jackson's Track community?
4. What does the term 'Stolen Generations' refer to?

Apply and analyse

5. Research the *Bringing Them Home* report. What was its purpose? What contribution to Australian history do you think it has made?

Evaluate and create

6. In your opinion, what was the greatest impact that the European settlers had on Indigenous Australians? Could this impact have been lessened if the policy of *terra nullius* had not been applied when Australia was colonised? Explain your point of view in a 200-word written response citing at least two historical sources.

Indigenous protests during the 19th and 20th centuries

Despite the many discriminatory policies of Australian colonial and state governments in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, Indigenous Australians made repeated attempts to have their traditions and rights recognised.

Many of the people who would go on to become important figures in the struggle for Indigenous **civil rights** came from the Aboriginal reserves and missions that had been set up by Aboriginal Protection Boards.

key concept: significance

The Cummeragunja Station: birthplace of a movement?

Cummeragunja Aboriginal Station was established in 1881 on the New South Wales side of the Murray River. It was set on 1800 acres of land not far from the Maloga Mission, which is where many of the original inhabitants came from. It was in the heart of the Yorta Yorta Nation, not far from Corowa where colonial leaders would meet 12 years later to plan for a 'new' Australian Commonwealth. Originally, the Aboriginal residents managed Cummeragunja Station with little interference from the government. It was a productive farm and was home to many Aboriginal families when neighbouring Maloga Mission closed down some years later.

For a time, the school at Cummeragunja Station allowed Aboriginal children to continue studying well beyond the legislated three years. The outcome of this was that in the early part of the century, a number of future Aboriginal leaders acquired knowledge and skills that would later support their efforts to bring greater rights and freedoms to their people. Jack Patten (see '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 the age of 72 in order to qualify for the aged pension. From his new home in Footscray, he joined together with many other Cummeragunja exiles – forming the Australian Aborigines League. Exiles who joined this league included Doug Nicholls, Margaret Tucker and Thomas Shadrach James, who had been one of the schoolteachers at Cummeragunja decades before.

In 1939, Cummeragunja was again the focus of the national Aboriginal Rights movement as more than 200 Aboriginal people walked off the mission and crossed the river to Victoria to protest against poor treatment and conditions. This was the first ever mass strike of Aboriginal people in Australia.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 7.12 William Cooper (left) and his family in 1936 – his cousin, Margaret Tucker, is standing next to him

The first protests

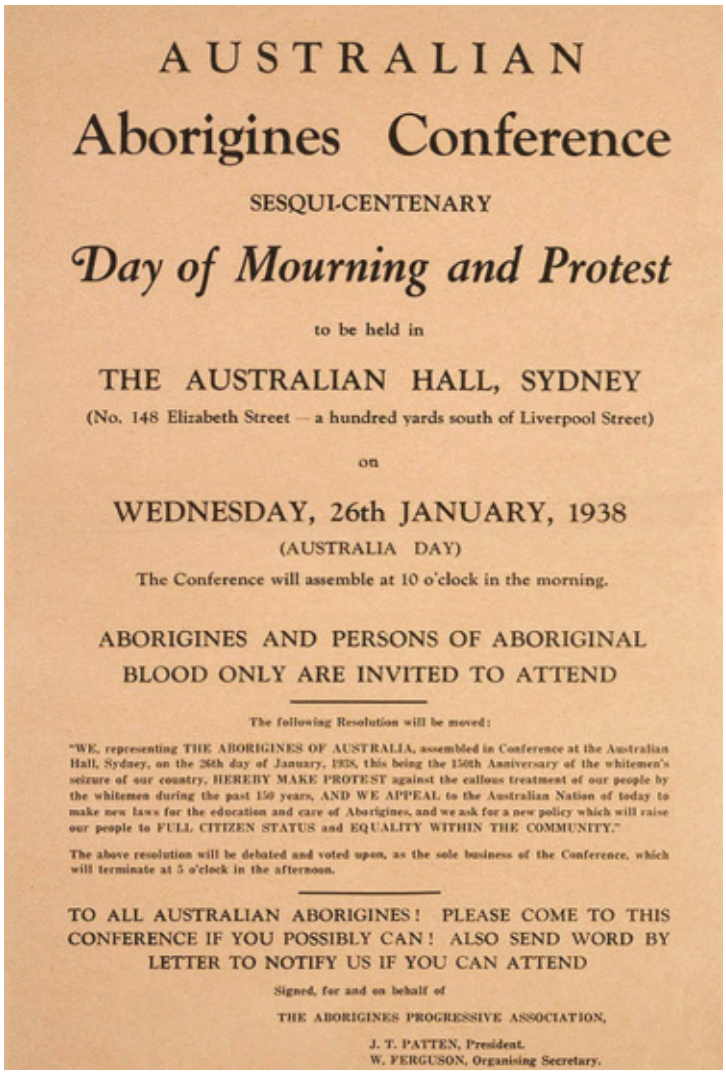
When the centenary (100th anniversary) of British colonisation in Australia was celebrated in 1888, little attention was paid to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. All colonies except South Australia proclaimed 'Anniversary Day' a public holiday in order to allow people to celebrate the European settlement.

Indigenous Australians boycotted celebrations, but very few people of European descent noticed. Indigenous people were excluded from public life and largely ignored. When the sesquicentenary (150th anniversary) of British settlement took

place in 1938, organised groups of Indigenous Australians decided to use it as a chance to protest for their rights. They referred to the celebrations as a Day of Mourning and Protest.

The Australian Aborigines League (in Victoria) and the Aborigines Progressive Association (in New South Wales) had been involved in previous petitions seeking civil rights for Indigenous Australians. They refused to participate in the re-enactment of the First Fleet's landing at Farm Cove in Sydney, which was the focus of white celebrations. Instead, the Indigenous groups planned a protest march from the Sydney Town Hall.

After they were refused permission to meet at the Town Hall, they decided to march to the Australian Hall in Elizabeth Street instead. Even though this was to be a meeting of only Indigenous Australians, they were refused entry to the Australian Hall through the front door and were forced to enter through a rear door. The meeting was the first really effective all-Indigenous civil rights meeting in Australian history. It was publicised as a Day of Mourning and Protest (see Source 7.13).



AUSTRALIAN

Aborigines Conference

SESQUI-CENTENARY

Day of Mourning and Protest

to be held in

THE AUSTRALIAN HALL, SYDNEY

(No. 148 Elizabeth Street — a hundred yards south of Liverpool Street)

on

WEDNESDAY, 26th JANUARY, 1938

(AUSTRALIA DAY)

The Conference will assemble at 10 o'clock in the morning.

ABORIGINES AND PERSONS OF ABORIGINAL BLOOD ONLY ARE INVITED TO ATTEND

The following Resolution will be moved:

"WE, representing THE ABORIGINES OF AUSTRALIA, assembled in Conference at the Australian Hall, Sydney, on the 26th day of January, 1938, this being the 150th Anniversary of the whitemen's seizure of our country, HEREBY MAKE PROTEST against the callous treatment of our people by the whitemen during the past 150 years, AND WE APPEAL to the Australian Nation of today to make new laws for the education and care of Aborigines, and we ask for a new policy which will raise our people to FULL CITIZEN STATUS and EQUALITY WITHIN THE COMMUNITY."

The above resolution will be debated and voted upon, as the sole business of the Conference, which will terminate at 5 o'clock in the afternoon.

TO ALL AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINES! PLEASE COME TO THIS CONFERENCE IF YOU POSSIBLY CAN! ALSO SEND WORD BY LETTER TO NOTIFY US IF YOU CAN ATTEND

Signed, for and on behalf of

THE ABORIGINES PROGRESSIVE ASSOCIATION,

J. T. PATTEN, President.
W. FERGUSON, Organising Secretary.

Source 7.13 Flyer advertising the Day of Mourning and Protest, 1938

key**concept:** significance

The Day of Mourning and Protest

The Day of Mourning and Protest is remembered as one of the most historically significant events in the struggle for Indigenous civil rights in Australia. A **manifesto** (written declaration) titled *Aborigines Claim Citizen Rights* was distributed at the meeting. The manifesto opened with a declaration that 'This festival of 150 years of so-called "progress" in Australia commemorates also 150 years of misery and degradation imposed on the original native inhabitants by white invaders of this country'. It was a powerful statement that introduced white Australians to an alternative view of their history. One of the protesters at the meeting, Jack Patten, delivered an address that marked a turning point in the fight for acceptance by Indigenous Australians (see Source 7.16). Patten would go on to be one of the most significant figures in this struggle.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Check your learning 7.3

Remember and understand

1 Describe the action taken by the Australian Aborigines League (in Victoria) and the Aborigines Progressive Association (in New South Wales) on 26 January 1938.

2 What event was to be the focus of white celebrations for Australia's sesquicentenary? Who refused to participate in this event?

Apply and analyse

3 Why do you think Cummeragunja Aboriginal Station produced so many important leaders of the civil rights movement in Australia?

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct some additional research to complete the following task.

a Choose one of the following individuals who (at some point) lived on Cummeragunja Aboriginal Station:

- Doug Nicholls
- Margaret Tucker
- William Cooper
- Thomas Shadrach James.

Create a short biography outlining some interesting facts about this person's early life and provide a summary of their key achievements in the struggle for civil rights by Indigenous Australians.

Significant individual: Jack Patten

Early life

Jack Patten was born on 28 March 1905 at Cummeragunja Mission in the Yorta Yorta Nation, near Moama on the New South Wales side of the Murray River. He was the eldest of six children to John James Patten, a blacksmith and police tracker, and his wife Christina Mary, a local farmer's daughter. As with many of his peers in the Aboriginal rights movement, Cummeragunja would remain an important place for Patten 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. Patten then took on a number of labouring jobs and joined a boxing troupe that travelled around Australia. On these travels, and on subsequent journeys around Australia, he developed a very clear picture of the issues facing Aboriginal people.

Political awakening

Patten moved with his family to Salt Pan Creek, Sydney, in 1929. At this Depression-era camp he joined a group of dispossessed Aboriginal people who were already beginning to organise themselves into a political movement. Patten would speak about Aboriginal citizenship and equality on Sundays in the Domain in Sydney and, in 1938, published the first Aboriginal newspaper, *The Australian Abo Call* (see Source 7.15).



Source 7.14 Jack Patten (right) at the Day of Mourning and Protest meeting in Sydney, 1938

With his political partner, William Ferguson, Patten founded the Aborigines Progressive Association in 1937, and worked with the Australian Aborigines League to coordinate the first Aboriginal Day of Mourning in Sydney on 26 January 1938. Five days later, Patten and the other Aboriginal leaders met with Prime Minister Joseph Lyons and presented their 10-point plan for citizens' rights.

In 1939, Patten heeded the call to support his relatives at Cummeragunja in their struggle against management. Patten and his brother George were arrested for inciting the Aborigines to leave the reserve. He was then labelled a Nazi agent by the Sydney press. Released from jail, Patten won another long battle as he convinced the government to overturn a ban preventing Aborigines from enlisting in the armed forces. Until then, Aborigines needed to lie about their aboriginality to be accepted. Patten was finally able to enlist and served in the Middle East with the 6th Division. He was wounded in 1942, and retired from active service. He returned to work in northern Australia, helping construct infrastructure as part of the effort to protect the area from invasion.

Stolen children

After the war, when Patten was clearing land where his family had settled in northern New South Wales, six of his own children were taken from him by the Aboriginal Protection Board. Patten was unable to secure the release of his five daughters, who were trained as domestic servants in Cootamundra, but he was able to find and release his son, John. Together they fled back to Cummeragunja.

His final years

Suffering depression from his war experience, Patten left his family and 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.

Patten was killed in a motor accident in Fitzroy in 1957. Unlike many of his contemporaries, he was not returned to a final resting place at Cummeragunja. He was buried at Fawkner Cemetery in an unmarked grave. That grave remains in much the same condition today.



OUR TEN POINTS

Deputation to the Prime Minister

A LONG RANGE POLICY FOR ABORIGINES.

SELECT COMMITTEE

DAY OF MOURNING

"THE ABO CALL"

MR. BRUNNER'S PROMISE

PACKSADDLE

Source 7.15 Part of the front cover of the newspaper *The Australian Abo Call – The Voice of the Aborigines*

Source 7.16

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 7.4

Remember and understand

2 Which Indigenous nation was Jack Patten a member of?

3 Why was Patten unable to join the Australian Navy?

4 What was the first Aboriginal newspaper in Australia called?

5 What happened to Patten's children?

Apply and analyse

6 Read Jack Patten's Day of Mourning address in Source 7.16.

a What were some of the main concerns he was addressing?

b What was he asking for on behalf of Australia's Indigenous population?

7 Write a short paragraph of 150 words explaining Jack Patten's main contribution to the Indigenous civil rights movement.

Evaluate and create

8 Create an entry for Jack Patten in a 'Biography of Great Australians'. Think about his most significant achievements and key biographical information that you want to draw attention to.

Indigenous achievements and contributions during the 19th and 20th centuries

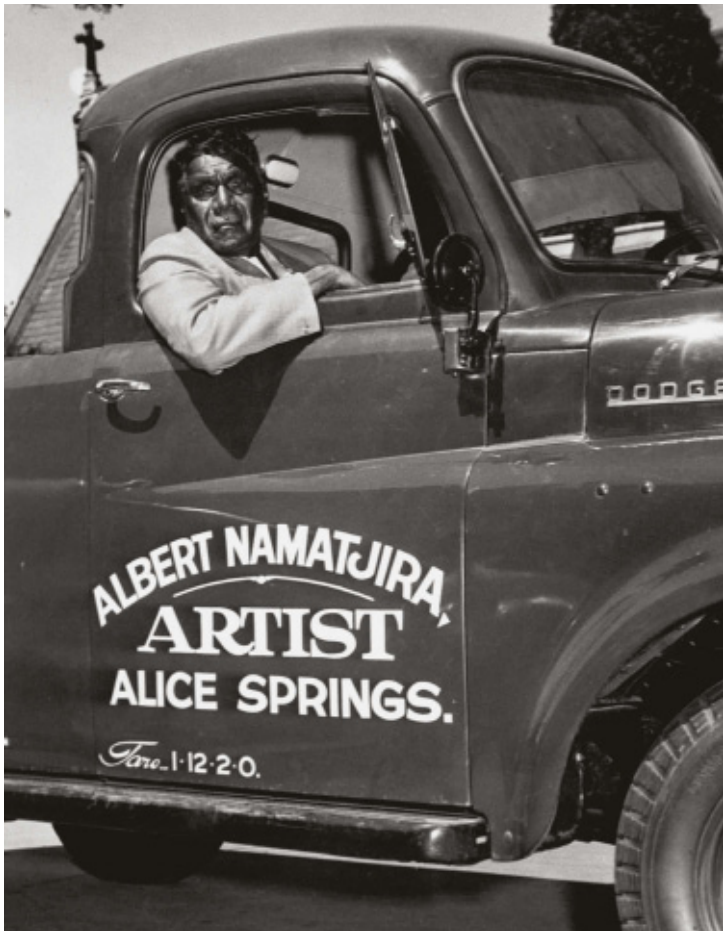
Despite the official government discrimination and control that affected most aspects of their lives, Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders participated in and contributed to Australian society in many ways during the 19th and 20th centuries. They were employed on cattle stations and other farms, and in other industries including fishing and timber milling. Despite discrimination and bans, many Indigenous Australians also fought in World War I and World War II. The period between these wars was particularly significant for Indigenous Australians, as it was during this time that many began to excel in areas of public life such as art and sport.

Achievements in art

In Melbourne in 1938, an Aboriginal artist by the name of Albert Namatjira held his first exhibition of European-style paintings. Namatjira was an Arrernte man living at the Hermannsburg Mission in southern central Northern Territory at the time. Over the next decade he sold hundreds of paintings and is still regarded as one of our most influential artists (see Source 7.17).



Source 7.17 Painting by Albert Namatjira, *Blue Haze over James Range*



Source 7.18 Albert Namatjira

Achievements in sport

During this period, a number of outstanding Indigenous athletes achieved some significant successes in the field of sport. Sir Doug Nicholls, from the Cummeragunja mission in southern New South Wales, was first recruited by the Carlton Football Club and then went on to play for the Fitzroy Football Club in 1932. He was also eventually selected to play for Victoria in State of Origin football. Nicholls was a pioneering campaigner for reconciliation and was also the first Aboriginal person to receive a knighthood and the first to serve as a governor general.

In Queensland, Indigenous cricketer Eddie Gilbert had been taken from his home as a three-year-old. He grew up on the Barambah Aboriginal Reserve, north of Brisbane, where he learned to play cricket. With a flexible wrist, he was able to generate a fearsome pace in his bowling (see source 7.19). 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.



Source 7.19 Aboriginal test cricketer Eddie Gilbert

Living on a reserve, Gilbert had to receive written permission to leave every time he was to play first-class cricket. In the end, he played 23 first-class matches for Queensland, but was never selected for Australia. However, there were calls for his inclusion when Australia was being defeated by England during the 'Bodyline' series of 1932–33, but this did not happen. Gilbert received belated recognition of his achievements in 2008 when a statue commemorating him was unveiled at Brisbane's Allan Border Field.

Contributions to military service

Another key contribution by Aboriginal people was in war. In both world wars, Aboriginal men saw active service. This was in spite of the fact that in World War I, Aboriginal men were barred from enlisting until 1917, at which point part-Aboriginals were accepted. At least 500 still managed to serve.

In 1940, after the outbreak of war in Europe and the Pacific, William Cooper, an Aboriginal Rights activist who had lost a son in World War I, wrote to the prime minister urging him to introduce citizenship rights for Aboriginal people. To Cooper, this was a sensible request that would help Australia's war effort. Cooper's attempt was not successful. However, Jack Patten, another Aboriginal activist, successfully lobbied for Aboriginal enlistment bans to be lifted. The creation of the *Commonwealth Electoral (War-time) Act* (1940) even gave Aboriginal servicemen a vote – but only for the duration of the war and six months afterwards.

Check your learning 7.5

Remember and understand

1 What is significant about Albert Namatjira's career?
2 What did Sir Doug Nicholls achieve during his lifetime?
3 What barriers did Eddie Gilbert face as an Aboriginal cricketer?
4 Who was responsible for allowing Indigenous Australians to enlist in the armed forces?

Evaluate and create

5 'Australia has missed out on identifying significant talent because of government policies.' Create a written response of around 250 words in support of this statement. Use Sir Doug Nicholls, Albert Namatjira and Eddie Gilbert as examples to support your argument.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The *terra nullius* ruling made by Sir Richard Bourke in 1835 meant that Indigenous Australians were not legally able to sell or acquire land. This ruling placed Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples at a legal disadvantage that also affected other aspects of their lives. By the time Australia celebrated 150 years of British settlement in 1938, it was difficult for Indigenous Australians to identify any positive outcomes from British settlement. It would only be after Australia's championing of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 that attention gradually turned towards the situation and status of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

The legacy of World War II

Millions of people were massacred during World War II. Many millions more never saw their families or homes again as a result of the destruction. During the war, many world leaders started to develop an ambitious, global response to these atrocities. The commitment to form the United Nations, a 'world government' of sorts, was designed to ensure that such events would never happen again. Part of this work involved establishing a set of international laws and treaties to protect people. Immediately after the end of World War II, the United Nations was formed and work started on formalising a set of basic human rights.

Australia's role

Because of the horrors brought about by World War II there was enthusiasm to begin the work of protecting certain human rights by law. Leaders of emerging powers, including Australia's Attorney General, Herbert 'Doc' Evatt (see Source 7.20), convinced traditional powers such as Britain and France that the General Assembly must be seen to take a leading role in the development of laws to protect human rights. The world could not afford to be caught up in another catastrophe such as World War II. Evatt was General Secretary of the United Nations in 1948 and 1949, during which time he led the drafting of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This landmark document has 30 articles and has informed many international and national treaties and covenants (agreements) relating to rights (some of which are outlined in Source 7.21). Most significantly, the declaration held that human rights are inalienable – meaning that they



Source 7.20 Attorney General Herbert 'Doc' Evatt

cannot be taken away from any one of us regardless of age, race, gender, religion, language or nationality.

Source 7.21

Article 1
All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2
Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3
Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4
No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5
No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6
Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

The first six articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

Evatt was supported by many other leaders including Eleanor Roosevelt, a US delegate and the widow of former US President Franklin D Roosevelt. Eleanor Roosevelt's speech to the United Nations General Assembly on 2 December 1948 impressed upon the world the need for action. Eight days later, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was ratified (endorsed) by the United Nations General Assembly.

The start of civil rights

Many historians argue that the Declaration of Human Rights set the scene for the civil rights struggles that would take place around the world in the coming decades. Germany was a developed economy with a functioning democracy before World War I, and yet, in less than a generation, it had become a fascist dictatorship where only the rights of certain people were protected. The fear was that unless action was taken in other places around the world to protect the human rights enshrined in the declaration, the same situation could once again develop elsewhere in the world.

The Australian context

Developments that took place in Australia from the 1960s can be seen as related to changes that were happening in a wider global context. Although Australia played a key role in arguing for the declaration on the world stage, the White Australia policy was still in force and was responsible for restricting the types of people arriving in Australia based on race and ethnicity.

At this time, there was only limited legal and public recognition of the rights of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. The acceptance of the rights contained in the Universal Declaration gave great encouragement to not only Indigenous Australians (see Source 7.22), but many other peoples whose access to basic human rights had been denied through war, conquest and colonisation.



Source 7.22 William Onus, President of the Australian Aborigines League, speaks at a meeting in the Domain, Sydney, 1949

Check your learning 7.6

Remember and understand

1 Why was it agreed a Universal Declaration of Human Rights was needed?
2 Who was General Secretary of the United Nations when the declaration was developed?
3 Who spoke in support of the declaration on 2 December 1948?
4 Which policy did Australia maintain despite the fact that it was against the spirit of the declaration?
5 What role did 'Doc' Evatt play in the creation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

Apply and analyse

6 Even though Australia had been involved in the development of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Australian Government policy failed to reflect the principles within it. Explain how this was so.

Evaluate and create

7 Did Senator Alexander Matheson's comments (see Source 7.4) support the need for the creation of a Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

7.1 big**ideas:** rich task

The Stolen Generations

At different times during the last 200 years a range of laws, practices and policies in Australia have resulted in the forcible removal of Indigenous children from their families. Analysis of relevant primary sources reveals there were a range of justifications and motives for this tragic and unjust practice that had serious and long-term effects. The *Bringing Them Home* report has now ensured that the perspectives and stories of members of the Stolen Generations can be heard and understood by members of the Australian public.

In 1937, government representatives from each state and territory (except Tasmania) attended the first Commonwealth and State 'Aboriginal Welfare' Conference to discuss Indigenous issues. This was the first time such discussions were held at a national level. Sources 7.23 and 7.24 are extracts from comments made by Chief Protectors at the conference.

Source 7.23

The number of half-castes in certain parts of Australia is increasing, not as a result of additional influx of white blood, but following on inter-marriage amongst themselves, where they are living under protected conditions, such as at the Government aboriginal stations at Point Pearce and Point McLeay, in South Australia. This may be the beginning of a possible problem of the future. A very unfortunate situation would arise if a large half-caste population breeding within themselves eventually arose in any of the Australian states. It seems to me that there can be only one satisfactory solution to the half-caste problem, and that is the ultimate absorption of these persons in the white population.

Extract from Cleland, *Aboriginal Welfare: Initial Conference of Commonwealth and State Aboriginal Authorities*, Commonwealth of Australia, 1937, page 10

Source 7.24

If the coloured people of this country are to be absorbed into the general community they must be thoroughly fit and educated to at least the extent of the three R's. If they can read, write and count, and know what wages they should get, and how to enter into an agreement with an employer, that is all that should be necessary. Once that is accomplished there is no reason in the world why these coloured people should not be absorbed into the community. To achieve this end, however, we must have charge of the children at the age of six years; it is useless to wait until they are twelve or thirteen years of age. You cannot change a native after he has reached the age of puberty, but before that it is possible to mould him … In Western Australia we have power under the act to take any child from its mother at any stage of its life, no matter whether the mother be legally married or not … Although the children were illegitimate, the mothers were greatly attached to them, and did not wish to be parted from them. I adopted the practice of allowing the mothers to go to the institution with the children until they satisfied themselves that they were properly looked after. The mothers were then usually content to leave them there, and some eventually forgot all about them.

Are we going to have a population of 1,000,000 blacks in the Commonwealth, or are we going to merge them into our white community and eventually forget that there ever were any aborigines in Australia?

Extract from Neville, *Aboriginal Welfare,* page 11

Source 7.25

It was winter 1957, seven o'clock in the morning. The sun was up and the sounds of birds drifted down into our small kitchen. My brother Lenny was sitting on the floor, eating toast; my brothers Murray and David and I, rubbing our eyes in a state of half sleep, were waiting for mum to smear Vegemite on our bread before we dressed for school. A routine day in the Simon household.

Someone rapped loudly on the door. My mother didn't answer it. We hadn't heard anyone come up the path. The knocking got louder, and finally my mother, who was reluctant to answer any callers when my father wasn't home, opened the door and exchanged words with three people. We strained to hear what they were saying. Three men then entered the room.

A man in a suit ordered my mother to pick up Lenny and give him to me. My mother started to scream. One of the policemen bent down and picked up my brother and handed him to me. My mother screamed and sobbed hysterically but the men took no notice, and forced my brothers and me into a car.

My mother ran out onto the road, fell on her knees and belted her fists into the bitumen as she screamed. We looked back as the car drove off to see her hammering her fists into the road, the tears streaming down her face …

An extract from the account of Bill Simon, an Aboriginal man who was forcibly removed from his family when he was 10 years old

skill**drill**

Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different perspectives, points of view, attitudes and values. People who create sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs, their life experiences and the time in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when practising this skill:

Step 1 Identify a historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify the role or position of these people and/or groups in society.

Step 4 Locate primary sources that provide evidence about the point of view these people and/or groups had on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? Was it meant for one person's eyes, or for the public? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? What ideas were they trying to get across? Is the message explicit (obvious), or are there implicit (subtle) messages as well? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What about the silences – what does the author choose *not* to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? For example, do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? (Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology etc). How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1. Identify as many different individuals and/or groups who were involved in or affected by the practice of forcibly removing Indigenous children from their families and communities. These people may have been affected directly or indirectly.
2. Describe the roles or positions that these people or groups held in society.
3. Consider the three sources provided. Who wrote or produced them? Identify and analyse the perspectives portrayed in each of these sources, using the process outlined in step 5.

Extend your understanding

1. Look again at your list of individuals and/or groups involved in or affected by the practice of forcibly removing Indigenous children from their families and communities. Of these groups and individuals, whose perspectives are *not* represented within the three sources provided?
2. Conduct some research to locate additional primary source documents that help to illustrate the perspectives of these other groups or individuals. Identify and analyse these perspectives, using the steps provided.

7.2 How have Indigenous peoples in Australia achieved change?

The US civil rights movement



Source 7.26 Martin Luther King Jnr waves to the crowd gathered for the March on Washington in 1963 in support of civil rights for African Americans

During World War II, considerable numbers of African Americans left the former slave-owning states in the south to work in war industries in California, Michigan and Pennsylvania. These states offered a better quality of life and more equality than the southern states. After the war, in 1948, **segregation** of black and white soldiers in the US army was officially abolished. Many African-American men had served in the war and many had died for their country. It was felt that they could no longer be denied their rightful place in their country and armed services.

In the southern states, segregation of the races had been legally enforced since the American Civil War ended in 1865. Following the action taken in the US army, the US Supreme Court began to rule against segregation generally. In 1954, the Supreme Court ruled that segregation in US schools was unconstitutional – meaning that it was illegal under US law. This ruling became famous as the *Brown vs the Board of Education* ruling. Although the Supreme Court found that segregation in schools was illegal, state governments, particularly in the south, continued to resist federal intervention.



Source 7.27 A separate waiting area for African Americans at a bus station in the USA



Source 7.28 Emmett Till's mother at his funeral in 1955

The case of Emmett Till

In August 1955, a 14-year-old African-American boy called Emmett Till was murdered near the town of Money in Mississippi. He had been brutally beaten and shot after being accused of flirting with a white woman. His body was dumped in the Tallahatchie River. Before the funeral in his home city of Chicago, Till's mother displayed his body in an open casket. She wanted the world to see the brutality of his murder. The white men accused of his murder were found not guilty in a trial conducted before an all-white jury in Mississippi.

The two men charged later admitted to the murder in a magazine interview, knowing they could not be tried twice for the same crime. The death of Emmett Till became a major turning point for the civil rights movement. The 1957 *Civil Rights Act* came from the momentum generated by the Emmett Till case. The Act aimed to ensure that all African Americans could exercise their right to vote, as well as providing resources for ongoing monitoring of civil rights abuses. It also called for a government report on race relations.

The Emmett Till case became a symbol for the civil rights movement across the United States. Authors used the case in many books to challenge public racism, and in 1962 the famous musician Bob Dylan recorded a song called 'The Death of Emmett Till'. Till's death was a tragedy that inspired thousands to change American society.

Bus boycotts and segregation

At roughly the same time, African Americans across the country began to assert their demands for equality in a number of different ways. In 1955, Rosa Parks was arrested in Montgomery, Alabama after refusing to give up her seat at the front of a bus for a white passenger. The arrest resulted in a boycott of the Montgomery bus service by African-American passengers, beginning in December 1955. One year later, the boycott ended when the City of Montgomery was ordered by the US Supreme Court to stop segregating black and white passengers on its bus services. This victory inspired further efforts to end segregation in America.



Source 7.29 Rosa Parks became a symbol of the US civil rights movement.

In 1957, nine African-American students tried to enrol in the all-white Little Rock Central High School in the state of Arkansas. Despite the 1954 Supreme Court ruling banning segregation of black and white children in schools, the Arkansas governor used armed officers to prevent the nine students from entering the school. They also had to face a white crowd threatening to hang them. President Dwight Eisenhower intervened, sending in the US army to allow the African-American students to enter the high school they were legally entitled to attend (see Source 7.30).

President John F Kennedy's inaugural address in 1961 inspired many African Americans. Among these was Mississippi student James Meredith who exercised his democratic right by attempting to enrol in the Oxford Campus of the University of Mississippi. This action prompted riots at the campus and threats from the **Ku Klux Klan**. (The Ku Klux Klan is a group of white Protestants who have historically been opposed to rights for people of colour, Catholics, Jews and immigrants. The organisation has been responsible for many hate crimes.) Eventually, President Kennedy was forced to bring in the US Marshals and the Mississippi National Guard to control the crowd. Two people were killed and hundreds of soldiers and protesters were injured. Despite these violent protests, James Meredith was eventually enrolled.

The Freedom Riders

The US Freedom Riders was a group of activists who wanted to test the effect of the US Supreme Court's 1960 decision to end racial discrimination on public transport. The first group of Freedom Riders (seven African Americans and six white Americans) boarded public buses from Washington to the southern states of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana. The riders' strategy was a simple one. They would sit side by side, black and white, and at least one black rider would sit in the front section, previously reserved for 'white' passengers. They ate in restaurants together and ignored segregation signs when using toilets and drinking fountains.

The Freedom Riders' journeys were interrupted by frequent mob attacks – usually organised by the



Source 7.30 The Little Rock Nine entering Little Rock Central High School under the protection of the US army

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.



Source 7.31 Freedom Riders sitting on board an interstate bus escorted by Mississippi National Guardsmen (a reserve military force of the US army)

These victories resulted largely from the courage of ordinary US citizens, brave enough to participate in the civil rights struggle. They also helped to make leaders such as Martin Luther King household names. King went on to be acknowledged as the main leader of the American civil rights movement (see 'Significant individual').

In 1963, King led the March on Washington, which was attended by 250 000 people, many of whom demanded an end to segregation. King redefined the rights movement. While the US Supreme Court had delivered a legal plan for desegregation, King's famous 'I have a dream' speech delivered at the March on Washington was a moral plan for change.

After President Kennedy's assassination in November 1963, President Lyndon Johnson accepted the challenge that Martin Luther King's success had created. On 2 July 1964, the US Congress enacted the *Civil Rights Act*, which outlawed discrimination based on race or gender. It was landmark legislation, but the challenge of changing racist attitudes among members of the general public still remained.

Check your learning 7.7

Remember and understand

1. What was the *Brown vs Board of Education* case? Why was it so significant in the US?
2. What happened to Emmett Till?
3. In which state did the US army get called in to help African-American students attend an all-white high school?
4. In what year was the *Civil Rights Act* passed by US Congress?

Apply and analyse

5. Explain what the Freedom Riders hoped to achieve, and by what means.

Evaluate and create

6. Conduct research about Rosa Parks, and create a short PowerPoint presentation that provides information about her life, characteristics as a person and contribution she made to the American civil rights movement.

Significant individual: Dr Martin Luther King Jnr

Martin Luther King Jnr was born in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1929. As a student he engaged in civil rights debates and followed the peaceful resistance methods of Mahatma Gandhi with interest. By 1954, King was pastor of the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama.

After Rosa Parks was arrested for not giving up her bus seat to a white man, King became a leader of the Montgomery Bus Boycott, a significant and successful protest against segregation. King was arrested during this protest and his house was attacked. He used his success with the bus boycott to help establish the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, which became one of the most important groups of the growing civil rights movement.

King's book about the Montgomery Bus Boycott, *Stride toward Freedom,* gave direction to the civil rights movement. It inspired protests against segregation across the USA, including the sit-in at a Woolworth's lunch counter by black students and, more famously, the Freedom Riders. King also lobbied candidates for the 1960 presidential election and achieved significant political influence, despite many trying to accuse him of being a communist. The Director of the FBI, J Edgar Hoover, was particularly opposed to King, and used his influence to try and undermine him.

King's major impact was delivering his 'I have a dream' speech at the March on Washington rally on 28 August 1963. King was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for his work towards ending segregation in 1964, the same year that the US Congress passed the *Civil Rights Act*.

The *Civil Rights Act* was a turning point in race relations in the USA, but King felt there was still much to achieve. He worked to establish support among the poor African Americans in the north. Although equality may have been guaranteed by federal law, social and economic equality still had to be fought for. King also led opposition to the Vietnam War, arguing, 'we have been repeatedly faced with the cruel irony of watching Negro and white boys on TV screens as they kill and die together for a nation that has been unable to seat them in the same schools'.

King was campaigning for striking garbage workers in Memphis, Tennessee, when he was assassinated on 4 April 1968 at the age of 39. The assassin was a white man, James Earl Ray, who was arrested in London two months later, on his way to white-dominated Rhodesia (now known as Zimbabwe). President Johnson declared 7 April a national day of mourning.

After campaigning by activists, including singer Stevie Wonder, President Ronald Reagan created a public holiday for King in 1986. By 2000, every American state recognised the third Monday of January as Martin Luther King Day and a public holiday.

King's dream, as he explained in Washington in 1963, was that 'One day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal."' King's legacy of non-violent resistance became an ongoing inspiration, not only for the American civil rights movement, but also Australia's. King's reputation was international, and activists such as Charles Perkins and the Australian Freedom Riders looked to him for inspiration.



Source 7.32 Dr Martin Luther King Jr speaks at the March on Washington, 28 August 1963



Source 7.33 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 7.8

Remember and understand

1. Why was Rosa Parks' action in refusing to give up her bus seat to a white person significant in Martin Luther King's career?
2. Who was the Director of the FBI who was so opposed to King' views?
3. Where did the 'I have a dream' speech take place?
4. Why was King in Memphis when he was assassinated?

Apply and analyse

5. What actions and beliefs of King's do you think would inspire Indigenous Australians and their supporters?
6. Why was King such a significant figure in the US civil rights movement?

Australia's civil rights movement

Australia's Aboriginal rights leaders in the 1960s inherited a movement that had evolved from the Day of Mourning protests a generation before. The success of the US civil rights movement also inspired many non-Indigenous Australians to fight for greater equality for Aborigines.

By the 1960s, Indigenous Australians had a life expectancy almost 20 years less than non-Indigenous Australians. In 1959, the government agreed to provide welfare payments to Aborigines under the *Social Services Act*, though the Act required that these payments be paid to a third party. In 1962, all Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders were given the right to vote in federal elections. In 1968, they achieved equal pay with other Australians. Unfortunately this had some unintended consequences. Until that time, most Aboriginal workers had only been receiving half the minimum wage paid to white Australians. In some areas, particularly in farming communities, some Aborigines were sacked because their bosses could not afford to pay the higher wages.

Despite these legislative changes, racist attitudes towards Aborigines were still prominent in society. As in the United States, the small steps of some brave individuals created a momentum for genuine change.



Source 7.34 Vincent Lingiari

The Wave Hill walk-off

Arguably, one of the most significant turning points in the struggle for Indigenous rights was the Wave Hill Station walk-off. The walk-off on 23 August 1966 was initially in response to the British Vestey Company's refusal to pay the Gurindji farm workers wages of $25.00 per week. The Commonwealth had granted 'equal pay' to Aboriginal workers a year earlier, but there was little evidence that companies were complying with the new law, and the Wave Hill workers chose to take a stand.

The walk-off highlighted the entrenched discrimination that existed in Australian society. But it also brought attention to the issue that would become central to Aboriginal claims for the next two generations – land rights.

Vincent Lingiari, who entered public life dramatically when he led the Gurindji people in the walk-off, quickly ensured that this protest had a more fundamental goal – returning traditional lands. Lingiari and other Gurindji leaders petitioned the Governor General in 1967, arguing that morally the land was theirs and should be returned to them. This claim was refused by the Governor General.

In 1971, a song called 'The Gurindji Blues' was written and released by white folk artist Ted Egan. It was created in response to the Wave Hill walk-off. The lyrics of the song supported the fight for acceptance of the Gurindji people. It features the voice of Galarrwuy Yunupingu and is introduced by Vincent Lingiari.

Although the song received very little radio play due to racist attitudes of the time, it continued the battle for recognition of the rights of the Gurindji people.

The walk-off finally ended in 1973, and in 1975 one of the decisive moments in Indigenous Australian history took place. Prime Minister Gough Whitlam symbolically poured earth into Vincent Lingiari's hand as he handed over 3300 square kilometres of land to the Gurindji people (see Source 7.35). The *Aboriginal Land Rights* (Northern Territory) *Act 1976* granted the Gurindji and other Aboriginal tribes in the Northern Territory title to some of their traditional land. For the first time, a specific group of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples had recognition of their connection to their land.



Source 7.35 Lingiari and Gough Whitlam, 1975



Source 7.36 The route taken by the Australian Freedom Riders

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.

The Australian Freedom Riders

The Australian Freedom Riders who toured regional New South Wales in early 1965 had a similar agenda to their American Freedom Rider comrades. The tour began as a fact-finding mission by a group officially known as Student Action for Aborigines, and ended as a genuine protest against segregation across Australia. The students were mostly non-Aboriginal and had been involved in organised protests in Sydney. Many of them probably did not know what to expect.

The Freedom Riders were led by a man called Charles Perkins. Perkins modelled the Australian rides on the 1961 American Freedom Rides. He took a bus into parts of rural New South Wales where racist attitudes were most prominent. The Australian Freedom Riders left Sydney on 12 February 1965 and headed initially for Wellington and Gulargambone (see Source 7.36).

Walgett and Moree

In Walgett, Aborigines were banned from entering the town's Returned and Services League (RSL) Club. This 'home' of the Anzac spirit was a symbolic target for the Freedom Riders who protested outside the club (see Source 7.37). The actions of the Freedom Riders angered some in the town and their bus was run off the road as they left.

In Moree, Aborigines were banned from swimming in the council swimming pool. The Freedom Riders staged protests at the Town Hall and the local swimming pool – ensuring that Aboriginal children could enter the swimming pool alongside their non-Aboriginal peers. Again, the Freedom Riders were attacked by up to 500 locals and were forced to leave town. By this stage, the Freedom Rides were being followed closely



Source 7.37 Freedom Riders protesting outside the RSL Club in Walgett

by journalists (including television reporters), and as a result their protests were known countrywide.

While the Australian Freedom Rides did not stop these racist actions, they highlighted the practice to millions of urban Australians who were not aware that this type of discrimination was common in many Australian country towns. The media coverage they attracted helped develop a movement for further change. As Australians moved towards a referendum to include Aboriginal people in the **census** and enable the Commonwealth to deliver direct services to Aboriginal people, the media played an important role in the Indigenous rights campaign.

The 1967 referendum

In 1967, the Liberal government of Harold Holt had rejected the land rights claim of the Gurindji people at Wave Hill in the Northern Territory. However, recognising that there were inequalities to address, Holt called a **referendum** seeking authority to count Aborigines in the Australian census that same year. The referendum would also allow the federal government to legislate for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples rather than leaving this to different state governments.

All major political parties supported the proposal. The referendum was the most successful ever passed, with more than 90 per cent of Australians agreeing to the proposal (see Source 7.39). (However, the 'Yes' vote was closer to 80 per cent in Queensland and far lower in some rural areas.) In Australian political history, this was an extraordinary result. Between 1901 and 2011 there have been 44 referendums, of which only eight have been carried.

As in all referendums, campaigns were organised and leaders mobilised to explain the reasons for and against change (see Source 7.38). 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.

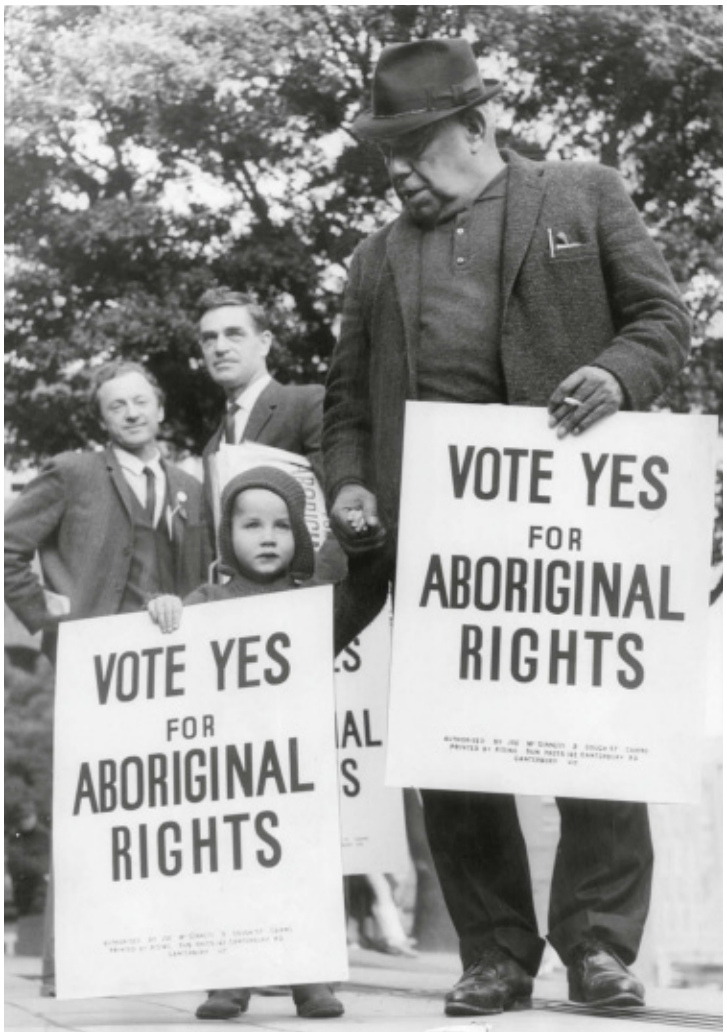
During the lead-up to the referendum, both major political parties publicly endorsed the 'Yes' case and the Federal Council for the Advancement of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (FCAATSI) arranged a number of public actions in Canberra and the capital cities to promote the cause. The churches were also big supporters.

One of the main issues of discrepancy was the confusion that was created by having different state laws. Indigenous Australians, who were acting within the law in New South Wales, could be arrested for doing the same thing in Queensland. Others voted 'Yes' because there was a view that resources for Aboriginal people, including welfare, would be more readily available if delivered by the

Commonwealth. A more conservative argument related to the inclusion of Aboriginal people in the census – people simply thought it was fair that Aboriginal people be counted as human beings in the Commonwealth of Australia.

Contrary to popular belief, this referendum did not 'give Aborigines the vote'. That right had already been granted in all states by an Act of Parliament in 1962. In fact, between 8000 and 10000 Aboriginal people voted in the referendum.

Many Indigenous leaders today question the success of the referendum in changing attitudes. Mick Dodson, an Indigenous leader and member of the Yawuru people of north-west Australia, expressed concerns that when native title was being debated in federal parliament in the late 1990s, few Aboriginal leaders were even consulted – even after 30 years of public land rights campaigns.



Source 7.38 Campaigning for 'Yes' in the 1967 Referendum

Source 7.39 Referendum results by state

State	YES		NO		Informal (invalid votes)
	votes	%	votes	%	
New South Wales	1 949 036	91.46%	182 010	8.54%	3 461
Victoria	1 525 026	94.68%	85 611	5.32%	19 957
Queensland	748 612	89.21%	85 611	10.79%	9 529
South Australia	473 440	86.26%	75 383	13.74%	12 021
Western Australia	319 823	80.95%	75 282	19.05%	10 561
Tasmania	167 176	90.21%	18 134	9.79%	3 935
Total for Commonwealth	5 163 113	90.77%	527 007	9.23%	91 464

Check your learning 7.9

Remember and understand

1 On which Indigenous people's land was the Wave Hill Station?
2 Which prime minister ceremonially gave the land to its Indigenous inhabitants?
3 Who led the Australian Freedom Riders?
4 How were the Australian Freedom Riders received by rural Australians in 1965?
5 What did the 1967 Referendum achieve?

Apply and analyse

6 Search for the lyrics to 'From Little Things Big Things Grow' by Kev Carmody and Paul Kelly, and 'Gurindji Blues' by Ted Egan featuring Galarrwuy Yunupingu. Looking at the content of the songs, what do the two songs have in common?

Evaluate and create

7 Write a diary entry from the perspective of one of the students on the Freedom Ride of 1965. Make sure you describe:
   a your motivation for joining the Freedom Riders
   b what you hoped the Freedom Ride might achieve
   c some of your key experiences, for example, in the Moree baths.

Land rights: a continuing struggle

The Indigenous struggle for land rights has a long and important history in Australia. Throughout the 19th century, the 'frontiers' of British settlement continued to expand onto Aboriginal land almost without restriction. The concept of *terra nullius* established at the time of British settlement, and reinforced by the declaration of Governor Bourke in 1835, ensured that there would be no recognition of Aboriginal rights to land. Early farmers leased large amounts of land, including traditional Aboriginal land, from the Crown (British Government) and white occupation of the land equated to ownership.

However, there is some evidence that this situation was challenged from time to time. From the 1840s onwards, the British Colonial Office wanted the Australian colonies to give formal recognition to native title and to grant rights for Aborigines to share rural lands. Farmers and their allies rejected this. In the 1870s, Indigenous groups in parts of New South Wales petitioned for their right to own farming land.

The challenges faced by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples were immense. The 1970s offered some hope for activists. The Whitlam Government was elected in 1972 and announced **self-determination** as the framework for Aboriginal Affairs policy. This introduced the idea that Aboriginal people were best placed to determine what happened to them and their lands. This approach put an end to applications for mining licences on Commonwealth Aboriginal Reserves – but only for a short time. In 1976, after Gough Whitlam had left office, the Fraser Government passed the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act*, which officially granted land title to the Gurindji and other tribes in the Northern Territory. This represented the beginning of a powerful shift in the Indigenous rights movement.

While these power shifts provided some hope to Aboriginal people, Indigenous leaders knew they still had a long way to go. State governments continued to negotiate directly with mining companies to grant leases without consulting traditional land owners. The civil rights movement and land rights campaigns of the 1960s and 1970s laid the basis for great change, but many issues remained unresolved.

Tent embassy

Before Whitlam's election, an Aboriginal Tent Embassy was established on the lawn in front of the Australian Parliament in 1972 (see Source 7.40), where it has remained in order to keep the issue of Aboriginal rights in the public eye.

The embassy was erected in response to the slow progress being made on Aboriginal land rights. The 1967 referendum had delivered administrative responsibility for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples to the Commonwealth, but many felt that there still needed to be an acknowledgement of traditional ownership. In particular, radical 'black' groups, such as 'Black Power', considered militancy to be the next step. For a short time, an Australian branch of the Black Panthers (a militant activist group based in the United States) operated in Melbourne and Sydney.

Key figures of the embassy, including Roberta (Bobbi) Sykes, Gary Foley and Michael Anderson, established the Tent Embassy in the middle of the night on Australia Day in 1972. As well as highlighting significant symbolic goals, the embassy leaders had a list of practical demands that they wanted to negotiate. These included:

- legal and title rights to land currently being mined
- •the preservation of all sacred sites



Source 7.40 The Tent Embassy in 1972

- •compensation for lands not returnable – a $6 billion down payment plus an annual percentage of gross national income.

The demands were rejected and the police removed the tents and arrested a number of activists.

Over the next five years, the embassy was erected, demolished and re-erected several times until Charles Perkins negotiated its temporary removal on the promise of action on land rights. In that time, a number of commitments by the Commonwealth led many to believe that progress was being made. Whitlam established a significant bureaucracy to support Aboriginal welfare and land rights claims and 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 7.41 The Tent Embassy was re-established in 1992 and remains in place today

keyconcept: significance

The Aboriginal flag

In 1971, Aboriginal artist Harold Thomas designed the Aboriginal flag. The colours of the flag have been interpreted in different ways. The black is seen as either representing Aboriginal people or the night sky. The red is seen as either representing the red earth or the Aboriginal blood that was shed when the Europeans arrived. The yellow is usually interpreted as representing the sun.

The flag is one of the most significant symbols of Aboriginal rights because it is so powerful visually and provides a single banner under which all Aboriginal nations can unite. The flag was flown when the Tent Embassy was set up in Canberra on 26 January 1972. The embassy sought to draw attention to wrongs carried out against Aboriginal people and air their grievances. It did so successfully. One of its placards linked it to land rights, reading: 'White Australia you are living on stolen land'.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 7.42 The Aboriginal flag

Eddie Mabo

Eddie Koiki Mabo was a Torres Strait Islander born in 1936 on Mer Island (known as Murray Island in the Torres Strait). His mother died shortly after his birth and he was adopted by his mother's brother, Benny Mabo, and his wife.

Mabo learned from a young age that he would inherit his father Benny's land and he knew exactly where the boundaries were by looking at land features, trees and rocks. After breaking Island law as a teenager, Eddie was exiled and it was many years before he returned to his land.

On the mainland, he worked on pearling boats and on the railways. He became involved in the trade union movement and began speaking out for Aboriginal people. A few years after marrying Bonita Neehow at 23, he secured a job as a gardener at James Cook University in Townsville, where he began to read and attend lectures.

When the 1981 Land Rights Conference was held at James Cook University, Eddie Mabo made an important speech about his ownership of land on Mer Island. He was immediately encouraged to test his ownership claims in the courts. When he told the people of Mer Island they were very supportive, and a 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 v Queensland* and, in the course of proceedings, officials of the Queensland Supreme Court visited Mer Island to clarify details of Mabo's claim. He was able to show the judges (and the media) exactly where his land started and finished.

The legal battle took a toll on Eddie Mabo's health. In 1991, he became ill and in January 1992 he died of cancer. The High Court of Australia ruled in favour of Mabo five months later. His name has become linked with the most important legal judgment for Indigenous Australians in the 20th century. When his body was reburied on Mer Island after his grave in Townsville had been vandalised, he was given a chief's ceremony, which had not been seen in the islands for 80 years.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 7.43 Eddie Mabo on Mer Island



Source 7.44 Mabo decision in 1992 – High Court celebrations

Mabo decision and *Native Title Act*

In June 1992, a group of Torres Strait Islander people led by activist Eddie Mabo won a historic land rights case in the High Court of Australia. The judgment meant that the Islanders had a right to their traditional land because they had been the original owners before European settlement. The court ruled that **native title** may apply to all claims to land that had not been sold or given away; in other words, **Crown land** (land considered to belong to the state). The ruling stated that 'there may be other areas of Australia where an Aboriginal people maintaining their identity and their customs are entitled to enjoy their native title'.

In December 1993, the government passed the *Native Title Act* to place the *Mabo* decision in Australian law. The *Native Title Act* also addressed some concerns of non-Indigenous Australians who felt their ownership of property could be challenged as a result – it confirmed land ownership for those who had purchased property. It also declared that future native title claimants must prove that Indigenous people had an unbroken link with the land in question. The federal government established a National Native Title Tribunal and developed a research process that was necessary before a native title application could be made. This was done to reassure groups such as landowners and miners who feared that their titles or claims might be taken from them.

The Wik decision

In 1996, the question of native title on pastoral leases was raised and investigated in the High Court of Australia in the Wik case. Pastoral leases are unique to Australia as they allow publicly owned land to be used by farmers and graziers but do not grant them sole tenure. As these leases account for 42 per cent of the Australian land mass, it was a major issue in the land rights campaigns.

The Wik people of Cape York argued in court that native title could exist alongside a current or defunct pastoral lease. The court agreed but stressed that where pastoralists' rights and Indigenous rights were in conflict, the rights of the pastoralist would prevail. The court pointed out that pastoralists had the exclusive right to pasture but not exclusive rights to the possession of land.

Because of criticism and concern expressed by pastoralists and conservative leaders, the Howard Government introduced a Native Title Amendment Bill in 1997. This legislation effectively extinguished native title, not only on pastoral land but also on most other Crown land. The United Nations Committee for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination demanded that Australia explain its stance. Australia was the first Western nation to have to explain its human rights position to this UN committee.

Check your learning 7.10

Remember and understand

1. Who was prime minister when the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act* was introduced in 1976? What did this Act mean for Indigenous people?
2. When was the Tent Embassy first established?
3. What was the purpose of the Tent Embassy? List the key demands.
4. Where was Eddie Mabo's traditional land?
5. What was the High Court's ruling in the Wik case?
6. What do the colours on the Aboriginal flag symbolise?

Evaluate and create

7. The Mabo case represents one of the most significant moments in Australian history. Explain why this is so.
8. Research the Torres Strait Islander flag and its history. Prepare a brief presentation for the class using PowerPoint or Prezi. Be sure to explain the origins of the flag, the symbolism in the design, and any significant individuals who had a role in the development of the flag, up to its final acceptance as a flag of Australia.

Towards reconciliation

Reconciliation is best understood as a continuing process and not a single event. It is the way in which Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians can come together and share common objectives collectively as unified Australians. The acceptance of the 1967 referendum, a bipartisan commitment to land rights in the mid-1970s and the passage of the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976* saw the Gurundji people achieve land recognition. These events were seen as steps towards genuine reconciliation.

These small successes paved the way for more organised and consistent efforts to acknowledge the wrongs committed by governments and individuals against Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the past.

ATSIC and Indigenous rights movements

The Hawke Government established the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) in March 1990. ATSIC was an elected body selected by Indigenous Australians. It was designed to be an organisation through which all Indigenous peoples could be formally involved in government processes. It was also seen as a first step towards Aboriginal self-determination – that is, Aboriginal people taking control of their own affairs.

ATSIC was to have both representative and executive roles, with 35 regional offices and a budget. The Hawke Government saw it as an important vehicle for managing Aboriginal affairs.

The *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission Act 1989* was passed by the Parliament in early November. Its objectives were designed to ensure full participation by Aboriginal people in decision making:

- to ensure maximum participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in government policy formulation and implementation
- to promote Indigenous self-management and self-sufficiency
- to further Indigenous economic, social and cultural development
- to ensure coordination of Commonwealth, state, territory and local government policy affecting Indigenous people.

By the early 2000s, however, criticism was growing in regard to what was seen as a lack of achievements by ATSIC for Aboriginal communities. Some felt that there were problems due to the structure of ATSIC and that the Western democratic process did not sit easily with traditional Indigenous values, where family group relationships are most important.

Lowitja O'Donoghue, first chairperson of ATSIC (see Source 7.46), described the problems this way: 'You elect your own mob [and they] vote for funding for their own mob rather than those who have the greater need … What I've always said is, "We're dealing here with taxpayers' money. This is a white fella organisation, not a black fella one. And so we've got to operate in a different way." That's the dilemma.'

But ATSIC was also constrained in regard to its funding. In 2003–04, ATSIC only received 46 per cent of the total budgeted Commonwealth expenditure for Indigenous affairs. ATSIC was not given responsibility for the areas of health care, social security or education. This severely limited what ATSIC could achieve.

In its last few years, the majority of ATSIC's budget was spent on economic development programs, including the Community Development Employment Project (CDEP) scheme. Supporters saw it as providing genuine work for young Indigenous people who chose to live in traditional communities. Others were concerned that it could never deliver the skills training and economic benefits that it set out to.

Following continued concerns over mismanagement and funding discrepancies, ATSIC was abolished in 2004 by the Howard Government. The CDEP continued to operate, although a number of CDEP programs were abolished in 2007 as part of the Howard Government's 'intervention'.



Source 7.45 Aboriginal people protesting against the abolition of ATSIC

key**concept:** significance

Lowitja O'Donoghue

Lowitja O'Donoghue, who was born in 1932, was taken away from her mother at the age of two and did not see her again for 33 years. She never knew her father, who was white and of Irish descent. O'Donoghue grew up away from her community in Indulkana, South Australia (Granite Downs Station). She struggled to become a nurse after winning admission to the nursing school at the Royal Adelaide Hospital, where she was the first Indigenous Australian to qualify. She worked as a public servant in Aboriginal Affairs, first in South Australia and then for the Commonwealth. Since that time, she has been involved in various senior positions, gaining a voice for the Indigenous people of Australia. She was the founding chairperson of ATSIC and co-chairperson of the Australian Citizen's Parliament.



Source 7.46 Lowitja O'Donoghue

For her work, she was awarded an Order of Australia in 1976, when she became the first Indigenous woman to receive this award. She became a Commander of the Order of the British Empire in 1983. In 1984, she was named Australian of the Year. In 1992, at the launch of the United Nations International Year of Indigenous People, O'Donoghue was the first Australian Aboriginal person to address the UN General Assembly. Since then, she has been further honoured by awards of the Companion of the Order of Australia in 1999 and the Papal Award (Dame of the Order of St Gregory) in 2005. Prime Minister Kevin Rudd stood with O'Donoghue beside him as he made the nation's apology on Sorry Day, 13 February 2008.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Check your learning 7.11

Remember and understand

1 What was ATSIC? Who established it, and when?
2 What was the main objective of the *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission Act 1989*?
3 List some of Lowitja O'Donoghue's main achievements.

Apply and analyse

4 Explain what reconciliation means in an Australian political sense.
5 Explain why criticism of ATSIC began in the early 2000s. What other factors were responsible for limiting ATSIC's achievements?
6 Why do you think Kevin Rudd asked Lowitja O'Donoghue to stand next to him at the Sorry Day ceremony?

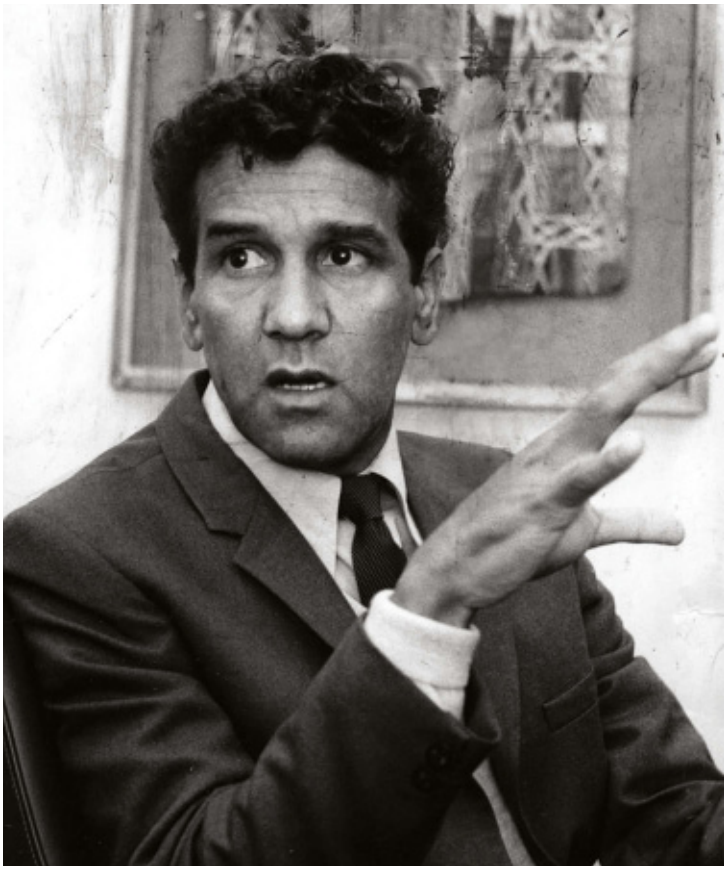
Evaluate and create

7 Did Kevin Rudd's apology in 2008 mean that reconciliation had been achieved in Australia? Explain your response.

7.2 big**ideas:** rich task

Charles Perkins: a significant individual

In 1965, Charles Perkins was the first Aboriginal person to graduate from an Australian university, receiving a Bachelor of Arts from the University of Sydney. A former professional soccer player with a charismatic personality, he became one of the most important Australian Aboriginal activists and leaders. His involvement in the Australian Freedom Ride through New South Wales in the 1960s played a significant role in bringing to attention the racial discrimination that was so rife in rural Australia.



Source 7.47 Charles Perkins as a Commonwealth Public Servant in 1974

skill**drill**

Create and deliver an audio-visual presentation

It is likely that as part of your school work, you have already created many PowerPoint presentations. You may have also tried out some other audio-visual presentation software, such as Prezi, which is freely available on the Internet. Whichever program you choose, it is important to use it effectively, and avoid the common problems of these types of presentations. Use the following steps to help you avoid these typical problems.

Step 1 Design your presentation

- Plan your presentation carefully so it has a clear beginning, middle and end.
- Make sure you present the content in clear, concise bullet-point form, *not* huge slabs of information in paragraph form.
- Do not just fill up your PowerPoint with heaps of random pictures that are only loosely related to the content. Include visuals that relate to the content on that particular slide. Make sure each visual is accompanied by a caption that explains why it is relevant to the presentation.
- A common mistake is to have objects and texts moving on the screen in a way that distracts the audience. Use graphics, sound, video, animations and transitions *only* if they add value to the point being made, not just because you think it will look good.
- Use a design that ensures your audience can clearly see and read the slides. Make sure there is enough contrast between the text colour and the background colour on the slide, and make sure your font size is large enough.

Step 2 Deliver your presentation

- When delivering an audio-visual presentation to an audience, do not merely stand up and read out the text on each slide. Rather, talk in a way that develops and expands upon the points on each slide. Carefully plan in advance what you are going to talk about during each slide. Record this plan on cue cards, and refer to these cue cards during your speech to remind you of what to say.
- Remember: one thing at a time. At any moment, what is on the screen should be the thing that you are talking about. Your audience will quickly read every slide as soon as it is

displayed. If there are four points on the slide, they'll have read all four points while you are still talking about the first point. Plan your presentation so just one new point is displayed at any given moment. Click to go to the next point only when you are ready to talk about that next point.

- Speak clearly – not too fast, not too slow. Vary your tone and pitch to make your presentation more interesting.
- Make eye contact with different members of your audience. Do *not* just look down at your cue cards.

Apply the skill

1 Prepare and deliver an audio-visual presentation about Charles Perkins and his role in achieving change for Indigenous people in Australia. Use the following questions to guide you:

a What was Perkins' childhood like and how did this motivate him with regard to his later activism?
b What were some of his sporting and academic achievements?
c What was the Australian Freedom Ride and what was Perkins' role in it?
d How was he influenced by the American Freedom Riders?
e What were some key features of his political career in the years after the Freedom Ride?

2 Your presentation should be well researched and based on relevant and reliable sources. For detailed information on this skill, refer to section HT.2 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Extend your understanding

1 As you listen to the presentations of your classmates, complete a peer assessment. Use Source 7.48 as a guide. You could create a pro forma and ask your teacher to photocopy several copies so that you can complete one for each presentation you listen to.

2 Give each classmate your completed peer assessment. Collect the peer assessments that your classmates completed as they listened to your presentation. Read their feedback, and then complete a short self-assessment by responding to the following questions:

a What did I do well in terms of my presentation design?
b What could I improve in terms of my presentation design?
c What did I do well in terms of my oral presentation?
d What could I improve in terms of my oral presentation?

Source 7.48 Peer assessment form

Name of presenter:	*Name of person completing peer assessment:*
Component of presentation:	*What did the presenter do well in this regard?*
	What could the presenter improve upon in this regard?
Presentation design	
Oral presentation	

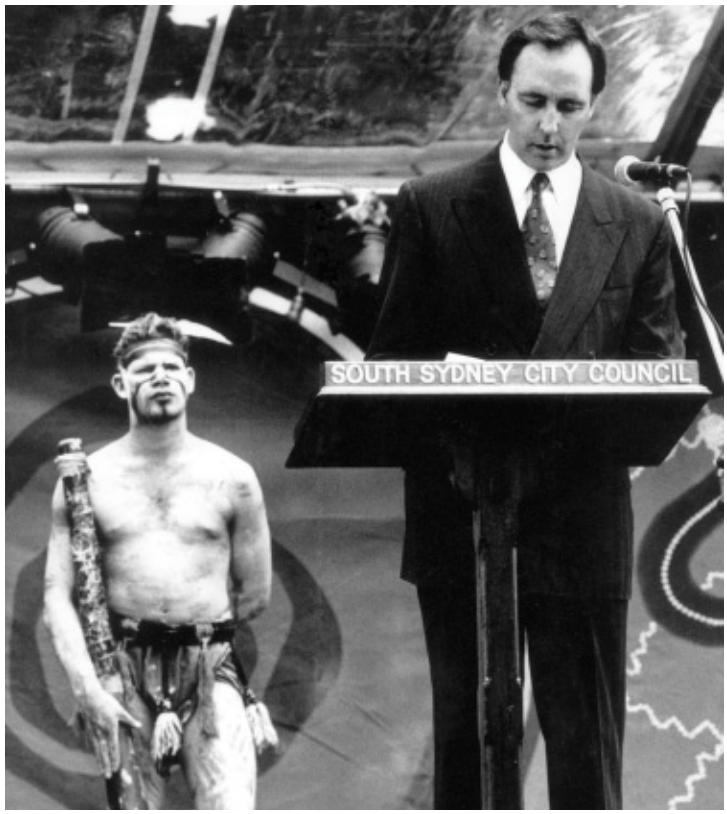
7.3 In what ways do activists continue to struggle for civil rights and freedoms in Australia and around the world?

Two speeches, two perspectives

Civil rights remains a divisive and contentious issue for some people to this day. This division, and the different positions taken by political parties in Australia over the years are clearly reflected in two major speeches made by two different prime ministers in Australia during the 1990s.

The Redfern Park speech

Six months after the Mabo decision – in December 1992 – Prime Minister Paul Keating launched Australia into what the United Nations had declared the 'International Year of the World's Indigenous People'. Keating spoke to a mainly Indigenous audience in the Sydney suburb of Redfern (see Source 7.49). Keating's speech is now seen as one of the most significant delivered by an Australian prime minister on Indigenous issues. It challenged Australians to imagine what it would have been like if they had experienced such injustices. It kept the reconciliation debate alive by keeping the issue in the public eye.



Source 7.49 Paul Keating giving his Redfern Park speech in December 1992

It was historic because it was the first time an Australian prime minister had publicly acknowledged the injustices Indigenous people had experienced because of past policies. The speech was written by one of Keating's main speechwriters, Don Watson. In 2007, Radio National listeners voted the Redfern Park speech as the third most unforgettable speech in history, behind those of Martin Luther King and Jesus.

Official recognition

Perhaps the most powerful moment of the speech was when Keating said: 'Recognition that it was we who did the dispossessing. We took the traditional lands and smashed the traditional way of life. We brought the diseases. The alcohol. We committed the murders. We took the children from their mothers. We practised discrimination and exclusion.'

They were the words many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples never thought they would hear from an Australian prime minister.

It was thought the Redfern Park speech heralded a major breakthrough on the path to reconciliation by honestly recognising the injustices of Australia's past.

Rejection of an official apology

In 1997, Prime Minister John Howard rejected the idea that an official apology to Indigenous people was needed. During his term as prime minister, John Howard made it clear that no apology would be made to Australia's Indigenous people for the past actions of non-Indigenous people or to groups such as the Stolen Generations.

Contrary to this view, a groundswell of opinion saw state premiers offering such apologies. Queensland started the process with a parliamentary apology on 26 May 1997. Western Australia followed on 27 May, South Australia on 28 May, the ACT on 17 June, New South Wales on 18 June, Tasmania on 13 August, Victoria on 17 August and the Northern Territory on 28 October 2001.



Source 7.50 John Howard's speech at the Reconciliation Convention upset some delegates who responded by turning their backs on him.

The federal government, however, did speak of reconciliation. On 26 August 1999, John Howard said that Parliament expressed '… its deep and sincere regret that Indigenous Australians suffered injustices under the practices of past generations, and for the hurt and trauma that many Indigenous people continue to feel as a consequence of those practices'.

The leader of the Opposition, Kim Beazley, spoke emotively of the need to '… unreservedly [apologise] to Indigenous Australians for the injustice they have suffered, and for the hurt and trauma that many Indigenous people continue to suffer as a consequence of this injustice'.

Prime Minister Howard and other conservative political and social leaders argued that previous generations were responsible for the experience of Australia's Aboriginal peoples. An apology was therefore not necessary from members of today's society and would place 'blame' on those who were not responsible. They also argued that the intent of those who initiated the actions or events was good, even if the result was damaging.

The Australian Reconciliation Convention

In May 1997, Howard gave a speech at the Australian Reconciliation Convention in Melbourne. This was designed to celebrate the 30 years since the famous referendum of 1967. The aim was to achieve reconciliation by 2001. As prime minister, Howard was to deliver the keynote address. His stance against a formal apology had angered delegates, and when he spoke some turned their backs on him, while others booed (see Source 7.50).

Howard made his position clear when he stated: 'In facing the realities of the past, however, we must not join those who would portray Australia's history since 1788 as little more than a disgraceful record of imperialism, exploitation and racism.'

He also made it clear that, 'Australians of this generation should not be required to accept guilt and blame for past actions and policies over which they had no control'.

For those who saw such hope in Keating's Redfern Park speech, Howard's approach seemed a step backwards. As prime minister he controlled the political agenda, and Australia had to wait until he lost his seat in the 2007 election to move towards a formal apology to Indigenous Australians.

Check your learning 7.12

Remember and understand

1 Why did Prime Minister Keating make the Redfern Park speech?

2 How was Prime Minister Howard's Reconciliation Convention speech received?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain Prime Minister Howard's reasoning for not wanting to make an official apology. Do you agree or disagree? Why?

Evaluate and create

4 Use the Internet to locate the full text of both Prime Minister Paul Keating's Redfern Park speech and Martin Luther King's 'I have a dream' speech. Create a Venn diagram to identify the similarities and differences between these two speeches.

The reconciliation movement



Source 7.51 Sorry Day March in Sydney, 2007



Source 7.52 Cathy Freeman lights the Olympic Torch at the opening ceremony of the 2000 Olympics in Sydney



Source 7.53 The rock band Midnight Oil performs a concert wearing 'Sorry suits' at the closing ceremony of the 2000 Olympics in Sydney

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 7.51). 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 its movement by a wide range of Australians.

Popular culture and the 2000 Olympics

The reconciliation movement stimulated wide-ranging creative expression, from films such as *Rabbit-Proof Fence* to songs by Archie Roach and Ruby Hunter, and works by performance artists such as the Bangarra Dance Company. Roach's award-winning album, *Charcoal Lane*, contained the heartbreaking song, 'Took the Children Away'. Roach had been removed from his family as a young child and the honesty of his songwriting awoke a wide audience to the pain and trauma that would later surface in the *Bringing Them Home* report.

The 2000 Sydney Olympics also provided a stage for popular support of reconciliation. Cathy Freeman became one of the most popular individuals in Australia when she both lit the Olympic flame at the opening ceremony and then won the 400-metres final (see Source 7.52). Her victory lap, where she draped herself in both the Aboriginal and Australian flags, was seen as a decisive moment in the history of reconciliation.

The closing ceremony of the Sydney Olympics provided one further step towards reconciliation. The rock band Midnight Oil performed as part of the ceremony. The band chose to perform its song *Beds Are Burning*, a statement of support for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. To Prime Minister Howard's chagrin, the band also performed in specially designed 'Sorry suits' (see source 7.53).

The international scene

The 2000s saw significant global interest in Indigenous rights. In New Zealand, Māori people had secured more historic rights than Indigenous Australians, yet problems linked to poverty within the Māori population remained significant throughout the 1990s. The film *Once Were Warriors* highlighted the degrading influence of alcohol and violence on poor Māori families.

Government efforts over the following decade saw some gains made, particularly with respect to cultural reconciliation and politics. A Māori Party was formed in 2004 and won five seats at the 2005 election. Māori television began broadcasting in Te Reo (Indigenous language) in 2004.

In Canada, formal recognition of First Nations, Inuit and Métis people was marked by a Statement of Reconciliation in 1998. In 2008, the Canadian government established the Truth and Reconciliation Commission to investigate the impacts and consequences of the Indian Residential Schools on Indigenous Canadian children during the 20th century.

The United Nations declared 2007 the International Year of Indigenous People. By 2010, most governments around the world endorsed the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous People.

The apology to the Stolen Generations

In his first week in parliament in 2008, the new Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, apologised to Indigenous Australians for poor or unwise treatment from the time of European settlement through to recent years. No offer of compensation was made but a nation recognised that Indigenous Australians had been wronged. This had been one of the key election promises, and a moment that many people had been waiting for. Brendan Nelson, the leader of the Opposition, affirmed Rudd's sentiment.

The parliament was packed as the apology was made, and many people gathered in public spaces, schools and offices, all over the country, to view the live telecast of the speeches.

Source 7.54

> We apologise especially for the removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children from their families, their communities and their country.
>
> For the pain, suffering and hurt of these Stolen Generations, their descendants and for their families left behind, we say sorry.
>
> To the mothers and the fathers, the brothers and the sisters, for the breaking up of families and communities, we say sorry.
>
> And for the indignity and degradation thus inflicted on a proud people and a proud culture, we say sorry.
>
> An extract from Rudd's speech

These were words that many Indigenous Australians had died without ever hearing. It was a turning point in our national history, and brought Australia into line with other Commonwealth countries, such as Canada, who had already dealt with this issue and moved on.

Many prominent Aboriginal Rights leaders were in Parliament, including Pat Dodson – sometimes described as the father of the reconciliation movement. Media coverage of the apology continued for many days, with the word 'Sorry' featuring prominently on all major newspapers on 14 February. Opinion polls showed that a significant number of Australians rated Rudd's apology as 'good', 'great' or 'excellent'.

The major criticism of the apology was the ambiguity over compensation. Many in the community still regarded this as a major challenge that the government would have to meet. Others saw the symbolism of the apology as meaningless unless it was immediately accompanied by practical measures to remove Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander disadvantage and implement true reconciliation.



Source 7.55 Kevin Rudd giving the apology

Looking to the future

The path to reconciliation is a long one. It requires much effort to deal with the continuing misery, poverty, poor physical and mental health, low life-expectancy, and general social and political marginalisation of Australia's Indigenous peoples.

Following Prime Minister Rudd's address it was noted by Indigenous leaders that although an official apology is an important step, practical things need to be done as well. They argue that practical measures, rather than symbolic gestures, will be necessary for Aborigines to be in a position where they are on an equal footing with other Australians. Only once health, education and job opportunities are similar to those of non-Aboriginal Australians will it be possible to feel that a true reconciliation has come about and that Indigenous Australians have been recognised fully.



Source 7.56 Public sentiment at the time of the Apology – the word 'sorry' appeared everywhere



Source 7.57 Aboriginal Australians at one of the camps in Alice Springs, Northern Territory, 2007

Source 7.58 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

Unfortunately, the apology to the Stolen Generations and the Mabo victory were not accompanied by improvements in social outcomes for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. In fact, there has been significant worsening of social wellbeing in many communities. Disadvantage is particularly concentrated in rural Aboriginal communities around Australia.

This was certainly not expected by Aboriginal leaders who fought for improved rights from the 1960s onwards. In *The Politics of Suffering*, Peter Sutton chronicles how well-intentioned Aboriginal Affairs policies in Australia from the 1970s, including improved services and welfare, inadvertently resulted in increased child abuse, domestic violence, and drugs and alcohol use. Sutton's message has been difficult to comprehend by politicians and non-Indigenous Australians. How could self-determination, the opposite of the enforced assimilation of generations past, not deliver significant improvements?

Obviously the answers to this question are complicated. Fundamentally, while the policies provided some funding and other resources to Aboriginal communities, they did not provide lasting employment, effective education, adequate policing or regulations against the sale of alcohol – the cause of many of the problems.

The Intervention

In 2007, the Northern Territory Government's *Little Children Are Sacred* report was released. The report highlighted the extent of disadvantage, particularly among children. The Howard Government quickly intervened in this issue. The result was the Northern Territory National Emergency Response – or 'the Intervention'. This policy package included restrictions on welfare payments to ensure money was spent on food and other necessities rather than alcohol; immediate bans on the sale of alcohol and hard-core pornography in many Indigenous townships; medical checks for evidence of sexual abuse; and additional police assigned to investigate claims of sexual abuse of children.

While some people in the community expressed concern about the 'heavy-handed' nature of the Intervention, both sides of parliament and many Indigenous leaders ultimately supported it.

Noel Pearson, founder of the Cape York Land Council, was one of the first to give 'qualified' support for the Intervention, and had already argued for a decade that the so-called 'progressive' policies were failing young Aboriginal people. Pearson's 'Light on the Hill' speech, delivered in 2000 to a Labor Party audience, included a frank and honest assessment of the difference between white and black Australia.

The Intervention was not supported by all Aboriginal leaders. Some raised concerns that it would be a return to the **paternalism** of old and that it represented an infringement of the human rights of Aboriginal people, as the laws relating to welfare restrictions and the possession of alcohol applied only to Aboriginal people.



Source 7.59 Noel Pearson (left) with politician Mal Brough

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 7.60 Protesters in Alice Springs march against the Intervention

Check your learning 7.13

Remember and understand

1 Who won the women's 400-metres event at the Sydney Olympics?
2 How did Midnight Oil upset John Howard at the Sydney Olympics?
3 When was the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous people?

Apply and analyse

4 Were the Sydney Olympics a significant landmark on the path to reconciliation? Provide evidence to support your view.
5 Look at the data in Source 7.58. What various reasons do you think would account for such a difference in life expectancy and infant mortality?

Evaluate and create

6 Do you think that we should try to record and teach all sides of our history, or only the parts we are proud of? Give reasons for your answer.
7 Create a closing ceremony for an Olympics held in Australia this year that shows the world the state of reconciliation in Australia.

7.3 big**ideas:** rich task

The Yirrkala Bark petitions

In the late 1950s, the Australian Government removed more than 300 square kilometres of land from the Arnhem Land Aboriginal reserve in the Northern Territory so that mining company Gominco could extract bauxite. Requesting an inquiry and asserting their ownership of land, the Yolngu people created petitions framed by painted bark to demand that Yolngu rights be recognised. The petitions contained a typed document written in two Yolngu languages and translated into English, surrounded by clan designs of all that was threatened by the mining. They were signed by 12 clan leaders from the Yolngu region and submitted to the Australian Parliament in August 1963.

The Yirrkala bark petitions were the first traditional documents prepared by Indigenous Australians that were recognised by the Australian Parliament, and are therefore the first documentary recognition of Indigenous people in Australian law.

Politicians presented the two petitions to the House of Representatives on 14 and 28 August 1963. A parliamentary committee of inquiry acknowledged the rights of the Yolngu set out in the petitions. It recommended to parliament on 29 October 1963 that compensation for loss of livelihood be paid, that sacred sites be protected and that an ongoing parliamentary committee monitor the mining project. Despite this, mining did go ahead near Yirrkala, and by 1968 a massive bauxite refinery was built at Gove, 20 kilometres to the north. Appeals to both parliament and to the courts were also rejected. The petitions, however, led to wider awareness of the problems of Aboriginal people throughout Australia, and set off a debate that would eventually lead to the *Aboriginal Land Rights Act* in 1976 and, in 1992, to the High Court's *Mabo* decision. The petitions also paved the way for the 1967 referendum.

There have been a number of further bark petitions created by Indigenous Australians since the Yirrkala bark petitions of 1963, and all have contributed to a gradual but steady change in the Australian view of the significance of traditional culture and law. In July 2008, for example, Galarrwuy Yunupingu, the son of one of the painters and signatories of the 1963 petition, presented Prime Minister Kevin Rudd with another petition by various Yirrkala artists, requesting 'full recognition of Indigenous rights in the Australian Constitution'.



Source 7.61 The Yirrkala bark petition was made by the Yolgnu people to protest against mining on traditional land (Yirrkala artists, Dhuwa moiety: Museum of Australia).

skill**drill**

Generate different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry

One of the first and most important steps in conducting a historical inquiry is to generate or pose key questions. The questions that you generate will frame or direct the research that you then undertake.

Step 1 Usually, historians generate one broad, overarching question for their inquiry for example:

'What was the historical significance of the Yirrkala bark petitions in terms of past and present efforts to secure civil rights for Aboriginal Australians?'

After that, you need to generate more specific questions that are related to your overall inquiry question. You will need to generate a mixture of:

- closed or simple questions – for example, *when* did event X occur?
- open or probing questions – for example, *why* did event X occur?
- questions that relate to the process of historical inquiry – for example, *what* evidence is there?, *what* other sources might be needed?

Step 2 The next step in generating questions is to think about what you already know about the topic. Use this knowledge as a springboard for questions that will help you understand the topic in more depth.

- Use a table similar to Source 7.62 to brainstorm all the things you know in bullet-point form in one column.
- In the second column, use each dot point from the first column to generate related questions that will help to deepen or build your understanding. Remember to include a mix of the three question types described in Step 1.

Source 7.62

Overarching inquiry question	
What I already know	**Questions to help deepen or build my understanding**
Point 1	Question/s related to point 1
Point 2	Question/s related to point 2

Apply the skill

1 Use the process described above to generate a range of questions related to the overarching historical inquiry question: 'What was the historical significance of the Yirrkala bark petitions in terms of past and present efforts to secure civil rights of Aboriginal Australians?'

a Copy Source 7.63 into your notebook. Identify what you already know as a result of reading the information in this section. List these ideas in bullet points in the first column.

b In the second column, generate related questions that help to deepen or build your understanding. The first one has been done for you.

Source 7.63

Overarching inquiry question: What was the historical significance of the Yirrkala bark petitions in terms of past and present efforts to secure civil rights of Aboriginal Australians?	
What I already know	**Questions to help deepen or build my understanding**
• The Yirrkala bark petitions were created by Indigenous Australians to protest against the Australian Government's decision to allow part of Arnhem land to be mined.	• Who were the signatories to the petition? (Simple or closed question) • Why did they decide to respond to the government's decision in this way? (Open or probing question) • What was written and drawn on the petitions and what evidence does this provide about Indigenous perspectives on native title? (Question related to the process of historical inquiry)
Point 2	
Point 3	
Point 4	

Extend your understanding

During July 2013, when Australia celebrated the 50th anniversary of the petitions, Prime Minister Kevin Rudd compared them with the 1215 Magna Carta, one of the founding documents of the British legal system:

These bark petitions are the Magna Carta for the Indigenous peoples of this land. Both [are] an assertion of rights against the crown and both therefore profound symbols of justice for all peoples everywhere.

Prime Minister Kevin Rudd, July 2013

1 Conduct some research into the Magna Carta and its significance to the British legal system. Write a short report comparing and contrasting the nature, impact and overall historical significance of the Magna Carta and the Yirrkala bark petitions.

How did Australia's role in global conflicts change during the 20th century?

Depth study 3
The globalising world

This depth study offers the choice of three options:

- Popular culture
- The environment movement
- Migration experiences.

You are required to choose ONE of these options and learn in detail about particular aspects of it.

The involvement of Australian troops in Europe and the Pacific during World War II, together with events such as the Fall of Singapore and the bombing of Darwin by the Japanese, encouraged Australians to think more closely about issues of national security in the post-war environment. In order to protect Australia from future attacks, Prime Minister Robert Menzies (who served in office from 1949 to 1966) set out to build stronger relationships with our neighbours in the Asia region and ally Australia more closely with the United States.

Communism in Asia and the domino theory

In 1949, after years of civil war, Mao Zedong became the communist leader of the People's Republic of China. This was the first powerful communist revolution to take place in Asia. Many people in Australia feared that a communist government in China would have an influence on other countries in the region. As a result, Australia's key foreign policy objective was to increase national security and stop the spread of communism in Asia by joining regional treaty organisations. In 1951, a treaty – known as the ANZUS Pact – was signed by Australia, New Zealand and the USA. The pact was a military alliance that committed the three nations to assisting each other in terms of defence. In September 1954, another alliance – known as the South-East Asian Treaty Organisation (SEATO) – was formed between the USA, Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Thailand and the Philippines. The members of SEATO were all anti-communist countries. Like ANZUS, SEATO was essentially a Cold War pact designed to limit or stop the spread of communism around the world. At this time, many leaders in the Western world believed that if one country fell to communism, neighbouring countries would follow. This became known as the **domino theory** because if one country was allowed to fall to communism the rest of South-East Asia would quickly follow, just like dominoes falling one after another.

The Australian government's belief in the domino theory encouraged them to support Britain and the USA in a number of conflicts across South-East Asia in the 1950s and 1960s, especially when communist rebels were attempting to seize power. The most significant of these were Australia's involvement in the Korean War and the Vietnam War.

The Korean War

When Japan surrendered at the end of World War II, the area of land it controlled on the Korean peninsula was divided into two halves – North Korea and South Korea. North Korea was occupied



Source O.28 Australian troops fighting in the Korean War *c.* 1951

overview 3

by the USSR, and South Korea was occupied by US-led UN forces.

In June 1950, the leader of the Soviet Union, Joseph Stalin, encouraged the leader of North Korea, Kim Il Sung, to invade South Korea. The US president, Harry Truman, immediately called on the United Nations to take action. The UN ordered the North Korean army to retreat, but they refused. In response, the UN sponsored a military intervention that was led by US troops under the command of General Douglas MacArthur. Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies, who was strongly anti-communist, believed that if communism was not stopped in Asia, it would eventually spread to Australia. Thousands of Australians enlisted and volunteered to fight in Korea (see Source O.28).

The fighting eventually ended with a negotiated ceasefire on 27 July 1953, which left Korea a divided country, just as it had been before the Korean War broke out. It remains this way today.

The Vietnam War

Since the mid-19th century, a large section of Indochina (including modern-day Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia) had been part of the French Empire. During World War II, Japanese forces invaded this region and occupied it. A communist group, known as the Viet Minh, formed under the leadership of Ho Chi Minh to fight the Japanese.

After Japan's surrender in 1945, the Viet Minh formed a government and declared Vietnam's independence. However, the French wanted to take Vietnam back as one of their colonies. By December 1946, the French and the Viet Minh were involved in a war that would last for nine years.

By 1952, Vietnam had become divided. The Viet Minh had control of the north, and the French had set up a rival government in the south under the Vietnamese Emperor Bao Dai. The Soviet Union and China offered support and recognition to the Viet Minh in the north, while the USA and Britain did the same for Bao Dai in the south. Bao Dai was ousted from power in the south by Ngo Dinh Diem, a corrupt landowner who had little support from within Vietnam. However, because he was anti-communist, he had the support of the USA. Diem's police tortured and killed peasants suspected of supporting the Viet Minh.

In 1957, the Viet Minh in North Vietnam began a guerrilla war (a war fought by small, independent groups of fighters) against South Vietnam in order to reunify their country. The United States, under President Kennedy, started sending American advisers to support the anti-communist government of South Vietnam.

In December 1960, the National Liberation Front for South Vietnam was formed in opposition to Diem's government in South Vietnam. It allied with North Vietnam and became known as the Viet Cong. North Vietnam dramatically increased its military assistance to the Viet Cong, which then began attacking South Vietnamese military units. The Viet Cong continued to use guerrilla warfare against the government of South Vietnam and the United States through the war.

US military involvement in the Vietnam War increased from 300 military advisers in 1955 to over 500 000 US troops by 1968. To justify this level of intervention, US President Eisenhower, and presidents following him, all declared their belief in the domino theory.



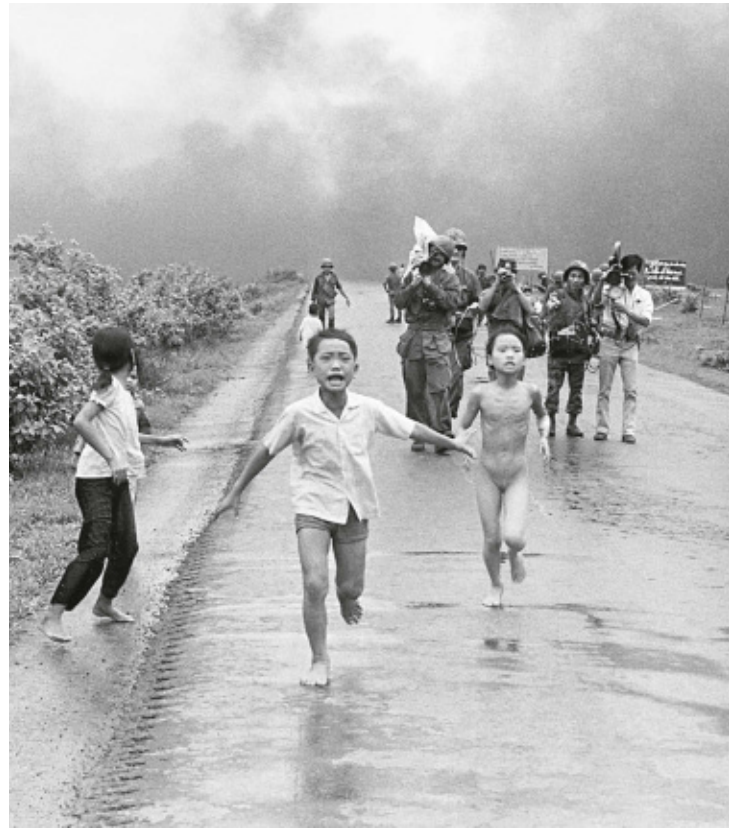
Source O.29 The Viet Minh led by Ho Chi Minh fought for Vietnamese independence.

Australia's involvement in Vietnam

Australia's prime minister at the start of the Vietnam conflict was Robert Menzies. Menzies fully supported the United States' anti-communist policy, and was a committed ally throughout the war. Menzies was also a strong believer in the domino theory. In 1962, the Australian government committed its first military advisers to South Vietnam. The initial commitment of 30 men would grow to 60000 over the next decade and would lead to the introduction of **conscription** in Australia for overseas military service. Public opinion polls at this time indicated that most Australians supported the government's decision. This would change dramatically in the coming years (see Source O.30). By 1970, there were mass demonstrations held in the major capitals of Australia to demand a suspension of the war to allow peace talks.

When the USA began withdrawing troops from Vietnam, Australia followed suit. Between 1970 and 1972, all Australian combat troops were withdrawn. On 27 December 1972, the newly elected Labor government ended all Australian military aid to South Vietnam.

Five hundred Australians died during the Vietnam War, including 185 National Servicemen who had been conscripted to fight. Until the deployment of Australian soldiers to Afghanistan in 2001, Vietnam had been Australia's longest war.



Source O.30 Images of the Vietnam War such as this one of children fleeing a village bombed with napalm (a flammable sticky jelly used in bombs and flame-throwers) caused many Australians to turn against the war.

Australian involvement in the UN

Australia was a founding member of the UN and played an active role in the drafting of the Charter of the United Nations at the San Francisco Conference of 1945. The Australian delegation, led by Dr Herbert Evatt, actively promoted the rights of smaller nations. Since then, Australia has served five terms on the Security Council: 1946–1947, 1956–1957, 1973–1974, 1985–1986 and 2013–2015. During 1946, Labour politician Norman Makin served as the first Australian to act as President of the Security Council. Dr Evatt was also elected President of the General Assembly in 1948.

Australia has played an active role in the UN Commission on Human Rights and has been a strong supporter of the work of the expert UN bodies dealing with the implementation of international human rights conventions. Australia also has a long history of contributions to UN peacekeeping operations. Australia currently has peacekeeping forces in many places around the world, including the Persian Gulf and East Timor (see Source O.31).



Source O.31 An Australian peacekeeping soldier patrols a street in East Timor.

Source O.32 Australia's peacekeeping missions, 1947–2011

Australia's involvement in peacekeeping missions, 1947–2011, including military and policing operations	
Indonesia	1947–1951
Kashmir	1950–1985
Middle East (Israel and surrounding areas)	1956–present day
Cyprus	1964–present day
Zimbabwe	1979–1980
Iran	1988–1990
Namibia	1989–1990
Pakistan–Afghanistan	1989–1993
Persian Gulf	1990–present day
Iraq	1991–1999
Western Sahara	1991–1994
Cambodia	1991–1998
Somalia	1993–1995
Rwanda	1994–1995
Bougainville (Papua New Guinea)	1994, 1998–2003
East Timor	1999–present day

Enduring allies

Despite the best efforts of the UN Security Council, the world remains an unpredictable and uncertain place. Since the end of the Cold War, the United States has served as the last superpower of the 20th-century. On 11 September 2001, the world looked on as a series of deadly coordinated attacks on key targets in the United States took place, including the deliberate crashing of two passenger jets into the World Trade Center towers in New York and another into the Pentagon in the state of Virginia. The events of 11 September marked the beginning of a new era in global conflict that became known as the 'War on Terror'. Military action since 2001 has centred on wars in both Iraq and Afghanistan. Throughout the War on Terror, Australia has continued to be a strong ally of the USA. Australian troops have served both in Iraq and Afghanistan and specialist military advisors and strategists have worked closely with US command. Australian troops were withdrawn from Iraq in 2008 but continued fighting in Afghanistan until 2013. During the 12 years of fighting there, 40 members of the Australian Defence Force were killed and 261 were seriously wounded.

Check your learning O.8

Remember and understand

1. What were the key motivators behind Australia's involvement in overseas conflicts during the Cold War period?
2. Why do you think the Soviet Union and China supported the Viet Minh during the Vietnam War?
3. Why did the USA support Ngo Dinh Diem during the Vietnam War?
4. Explain what is meant by the domino theory.

Apply and analyse

5. Describe the two treaties that Australia signed to help combat the spread of communism.
6. Examine Source O.30.
   a. What type of source is this?
   b. Why do you think this source (and others like it) caused many Australians to reconsider their views on the war?

Evaluate and create

7. Do you think the Australian government made the correct decision to become involved in the Vietnam War? Conduct research and locate at least two reliable sources to support your view.
8. Design and create an anti-communism poster encouraging the Australian public to support the commitment of Australian troops to the conflict in Vietnam during the Menzies era.

How was Australian society affected by other significant global events and changes in this period?

Technological change

The 20th century was a time of extraordinary technological change and innovation. The first half of the century saw the first powered aeroplane flight, the expansion of industrialisation and mechanisation, the invention of penicillin and advances in theoretical physics that laid the groundwork for the nuclear age. By the second half of the century, people had orbited the Earth and walked on the Moon, developed new treatments for many medical conditions, eradicated diseases like smallpox and witnessed the birth of the Internet.

All of these changes have had a profound effect on the modern world in which we live. In many ways, they have revolutionised our daily lives. Appliances have replaced hours of back-breaking work around the house, smartphones enable us to communicate with people all over the world, mass media provides us with a range of entertainment and leisure activities, and aeroplanes make international travel faster and more comfortable than ever before. All of these changes, however, come at a cost. The rapid increase in world population and unprecedented growth in the consumption of resources has placed serious strain on the planet.

Technology in the home

Some of the technological innovations that had the most immediate impacts during the 20th century were designed for the home. From the 1920s, the growing availability of electricity in ordinary homes allowed people to change traditional housekeeping routines. Electric ovens and hot water services freed people from the need to burn wood and clean chimneys. Vacuum cleaners meant that rugs and carpets no longer had to be taken up and beaten by hand to remove dust (see Source O.33).

By the 1950s, a wide range of appliances and whitegoods were available. Electric kettles, toasters and mixers transformed the kitchen, but the invention of the washing machine and the electric refrigerator were arguably the most important of the time. Before the washing machine, laundry was commonly washed by hand using a copper boiler, soap and a washboard. After that, it was wrung out in a hand-wringer and hung out to dry. The first washing machines had no spin or rinse cycles but still represented enormous savings in time and effort.



Source O.33 An advertisement for Hoover vacuum cleaners from the 1940s

Various methods of refrigeration existed prior to 1950, but were far less effective than the type of refrigerators we are used to today. Before the 1950s, food could be stored in a Coolgardie safe, where it was kept cool by the evaporation of water from gauze covering. Alternatively it could be stored in an ice chest, but this method relied on a daily delivery of a slab of ice from the local ice-works. The invention of the electric refrigerator allowed people to store food for much longer periods than ever before. This changed their shopping and eating habits. Later, electric refrigerators were followed by electric freezers and microwaves that once again revolutionised food preparation in the home.

Home entertainment

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

Television arrived in Australia in 1956. At first, TV was offered in black and white only. By 1975, colour TV became available. In the 1980s the VCR (or video cassette recorder) arrived, allowing people to record TV shows to watch at their leisure. Together, these technologies provided much greater opportunities for people to entertain themselves at home.



Source O.34 Television revolutionised home entertainment for families in Australia from the 1950s onwards.

Travel and trade

Just a century ago, the world was a much less mobile place than it is today. Horse-drawn transport was still in use in Australia at the start of the 20th century, international travel and trade was only possible by sea, and most Australians spent their holidays much closer to home.

Road travel

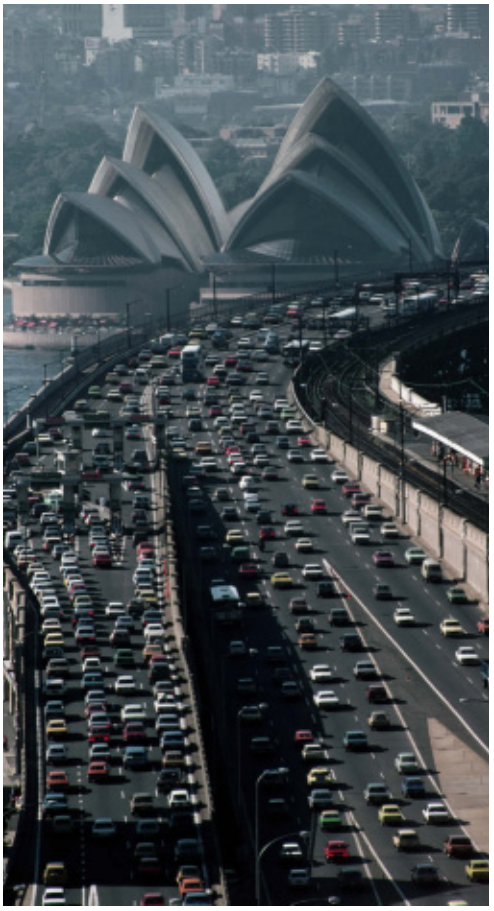
In the post-war period, the motor car became much more affordable and more common. The first traffic lights in Australia were installed in Melbourne in 1928 and the first Australian-produced car, the Holden FX, went on sale in 1948 (see Source O.35). Roads were sealed to reduce dust from the ever-growing 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 O.36).

Air travel

Passenger aviation arrived in Australia in the 1920s (see Source O.37). Qantas was established in 1921 and by the 1950s other commercial airlines were operating domestically, including Trans Australian Airlines (TAA) and Australian National Airways (ANA). Up until the first jet aeroplane arrived in Australia, aeroplanes were propeller-driven. The jet age began in 1959 with the arrival of Qantas's first Boeing 707 and expanded during the 1970s. The arrival of the Boeing 747, 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.



Source O.35 The Holden FX, the first Australian-produced car, went on sale in 1948.



Source O.36 Traffic congestion in Sydney 2011



Source O.37 In 1922, Alexander Kennedy, an 84-year-old cattleman, was the first paying passenger on Qantas.

Trade

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

Communications

The way that Australians communicate with each other and the world has transformed entirely since 1900. At the start of the century, Australians often had to wait for significant lengths of time to receive news from interstate friends and relatives overseas. Mail was the main form of communication, transported by ship from overseas or by rail within the country. However, as aviation technology improved postal services began to use airmail.

The other main method of sending messages was the telegraph. Although instantaneous, a telegram still had to be delivered by a messenger to the recipient. Furthermore, messages tended to be short, as the technology was expensive.



Source O.38 Early mobile phones

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

Then, in the last part of the 20th century, another communications revolution began with the invention of the microchip. Mobile phones, computers and the Internet changed personal correspondence and the way people conducted business. The number of emails and SMS messages sent around the world now far outnumber traditional letters. In addition, households are now shifting away from fixed lines ('landlines') in favour of mobile telephone and wireless Internet services. Satellite communication now allows the transfer of data, voice and images instantaneously around the globe. Together, these technologies have allowed people from all over the world to communicate and carry out a range of tasks in real time – something that could never have been imagined at the end of World War II.

Check your learning O.9

Remember and understand

1 Summarise some of the key developments in household technology that occurred in the first half of the 20th century.

2 What is meant by the term 'containerisation' and what impact did its introduction have on society?

Apply and analyse

3 Of the inventions discussed in this unit, select two that you believe are the most significant. Justify your decisions.

Evaluate and create

4 What do you consider to be the most serious problem raised by technology? Why is it a problem and how do you think it could be best addressed?

Health and population

World population

At the end of World War II in 1945, the world's population stood at approximately 2.2 billion people and Australia had a population of around 7 million. Less than 70 years later, the world's population exceeded 7 billion and Australia's population had tripled to more than 21 million. Based on current trends, experts believe that world population will reach 9 billion by 2050.

World population has increased so rapidly for many reasons. Advances in agricultural production (leading to better food supply), better sanitation and improvements in health and medicine have all played a role. Life expectancy has also increased in many parts of the world, meaning that many people (particularly in the developed world) are living longer than ever before.

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

Changes in life expectancy across the globe

Australia has one of the highest life expectancies in the world. A non-Indigenous Australian boy born in 2006 can expect to live for 78.7 years, and a girl for 83.5 years. Unfortunately, the picture is not so good for Indigenous Australians. The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare estimated in 2007 that an Indigenous person born in the period 1996–2001 has a life expectancy that is 16–17 years shorter than that of a non-Indigenous person.



Source O.39 A child suffering from HIV in Africa. The spread of HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa has dramatically affected the life expectancy of people living there.

By contrast, the United Nations estimates that people living in Swaziland have the lowest life expectancy in the world. There, on average, men only live to the age of 40 and women only live to the age of 39.

Measures of life expectancy are not static, and many areas of the world have seen dramatic increases since the end of World War II. For example, life expectancy rates in developing countries such as China and Brazil have risen substantially over the past 60 years, almost doubling by some estimates. Sadly, life expectancy has also decreased in some places. The AIDS pandemic has been devastating for Sub-Saharan Africa (see Source O.39). Botswana, Zimbabwe and South Africa all saw life expectancy drop significantly from the late 1980s as infection rates soared. By 2006, life expectancy in Zimbabwe was only 44 years for men and 43 years for women.

Improvements in public health and standards of living

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

In spite of these examples, many of the advances in public health have been due to simple factors like improved sanitation, better urban planning and better nutrition. The **Green Revolution**, beginning in the 1950s, vastly increased the food output of farms in all continents except Africa, leading to improved nutrition and food supply. The Green Revolution involved a combination of methods: increased mechanisation (e.g. 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.

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

Environmental pressures

The 20th century has seen continued urbanisation and industrialisation. As a result of this change, more and more people are now engaged in the production of goods and services rather than the production of food. Urban populations drain energy resources, and create large amounts of waste and pollution. Industry, previously concentrated in Western countries, has become more global since the end of World War II, due to the growth of industries in Germany, Japan, South Korea, and more recently in China and India.

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

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



Source O.40 'Greenies' in Melbourne protest against the logging of old-growth forests in Tasmania

In the post-war period, environmental movements developed in response to the belief that governments were not dealing with environmental threats appropriately. Individuals formed activist groups to focus attention on issues at a range of scales – local, regional, national, international and global. International non-government organisations like Greenpeace have brought a range of environmental issues to the world's attention, from nuclear testing in the Pacific to whaling in the Southern Ocean. Local conservation groups in Australia have also fought to protect endangered species and the natural environment against development.

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

Check your learning O.10

Remember and understand

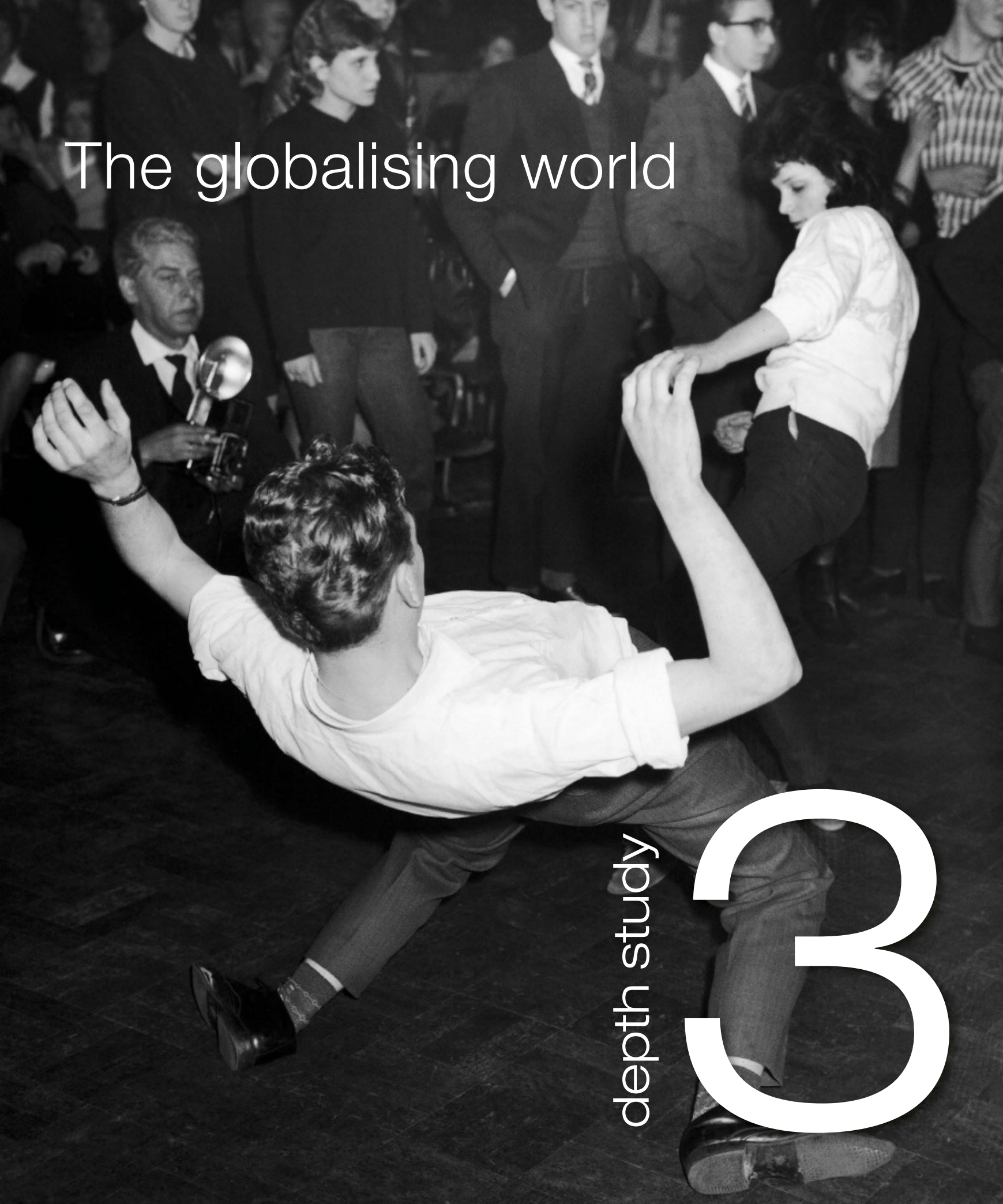
1 Give three reasons for the rapid growth in world population since 1945.
2 What is the estimated life expectancy of an Aboriginal person born in the period 1996–2001?
3 Which disease was eradicated by 1977?
4 In your own words, define the Gaia hypothesis.

Apply and analyse

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

The globalising world

depth study 3



depth study – option

Popular culture

Popular culture includes a wide range of activities that a large number of people in a society engage in. Since World War II, Australia has developed strong industries in four key areas of popular culture: music, film, television and sport.

Television and rock'n'roll music both arrived in 1956 and have had a strong influence on all groups within Australian society – this continues today. Sport has retained an important role in Australian life and has become closely tied to our sense of identity. The Australian film industry has also emerged to tell uniquely Australian stories that entertain and inform.

While British, American and, more recently, European and Asian cultures have influenced us, Australia has developed its own distinct culture. Music, film, television and sport have not only become ways of reflecting who we are, but have also enabled Australia to engage with the rest of the world.



8.1

What was the nature of popular culture in Australia at the end of World War II?

1 How do you think people's experience of popular culture would have been different in 1946 compared to now?

8.2

What developments in popular culture most affected Australia after World War II?

1 The introduction of television and rock'n'roll in 1956 changed Australian culture forever. What would have been some of the immediate effects on Australian society?



chapter 8

Source 8.1 'Hello possums' – one view of Australia's contribution to popular culture is Barrie Humphries as Dame Edna Everage.

8.3

How have the music, film and television industries in Australia changed since World War II?

1 How have developments in the music, film and television industries during the last 60 years changed the way that Australians access popular culture?

8.4

What contributions has Australia made to international popular culture?

1 List as many Australian songs, bands, sporting teams, films or television shows you can think of that have made a significant contribution to popular culture around the world.

Popular culture 1945–the present: a timeline



Australia's Betty Cuthbert (third from left) crosses the finish line to win the Women's Final 100 metre event in the Melbourne Olympic Games

1946
England tours Australia to resume the Ashes cricket tests after World War II.

1956
TV starts in Australia as the Olympic Games open in Melbourne.

1964
The Beatles arrive in Australia.

1972
The TV serial *Number 96* premieres.

1975
Colour TV arrives in Australia.

1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970

1955
The film *Jedda* is released.

1957
Bill Haley and the Comets headline the first rock'n'roll tour of Australia.

1966
The Easybeats record 'Friday on My Mind' in London.

1967
ABC TV starts the first evening soapie, *Bellbird*.

1971
Walkabout and *Wake in Fright* released.

1977
The rock band The Go Betweens forms in Brisbane.



The Easybeats

A film still from *Walkabout*



Source 8.2 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to popular culture



Paul Hogan as Crocodile Dundee



Chris Lilley as identical twins Daniel and Nathan Sims

1980

1986
Crocodile Dundee released.

1988
BBC moves *Neighbours* to a late afternoon timeslot to counteract school truancy.

1990

1995
Pay TV introduced to Australia.

2000

2009
Neighbours is the first Australian TV show to have characters with Twitter accounts.

2010
Australian women's national soccer team, the Matildas, wins the Asian Cup.

2010

2011
Angry Boys premieres on television.

2013



Ryan Moloney and Morgan Baker, two of the cast of *Neighbours*

Check your learning 8.1

Remember and understand

1. When was the film *Jedda* released?
2. When was *Friday on My Mind* recorded, and by whom?
3. When was the first soapie shown in Australia?

Apply and analyse

4. Consider the pictures of Paul Hogan as Mick Dundee in the film *Crocodile Dundee* and Chris Lilley as identical twins Daniel and Nathan Sims in the television series *Angry Boys*. Compare and contrast the personalities and traits of these fictional 'Australian' characters. Do you think they demonstrate a change in the way Australians see and portray themselves to the world? Explain your answer using examples from other popular Australian films and television series.

8.1 What was the nature of popular culture at the end of World War II?

Defining popular culture



Source 8.3 Young men and women in 1950s Sydney – American youth culture became popular in Australia after the end of World War II

Culture is the 'glue' that binds any society together. The values, beliefs, ideas and artefacts that give meaning to any society are its culture. Culture takes in a wide variety of human activities including language, food, religion and art, as well as values such as a belief in democracy or equal rights.

By comparison, popular culture has a slightly narrower definition. The term was first used in the 19th century to describe the 'unofficial culture' of the lower classes in society as opposed to the 'official culture' of the higher classes. Over time, however, the meaning of the term evolved to describe more widely accepted ideas, attitudes and practices transmitted via mass media and aimed particularly at younger people.

People can access popular culture easily, and it lasts for a period of time. When defining popular culture it is important to not simply describe it as 'culture that is popular'. If that simplistic definition is used, it is difficult to tell the difference between cultural activities that are popular for a brief historical moment and those that have a major influence on a society.

Four distinguishing characteristics can be used to recognise an activity as popular culture:

- the activity moves from local to national to global significance
- the activity is associated with commercial products
- the activity continues to change and evolve over time
- the activity allows consumers easy and widespread access through mass media.

Check your learning 8.2

Remember and understand

1 Define the term 'popular culture' in your own words.
2 List four characteristics that distinguish popular culture activities from those that fall under a wider definition of culture.

Radio and film

The link between technology and popular culture was clearly established in the 1920s. In the period before the arrival of television and rock'n'roll, radio and film were the main sources of popular culture. The impact of technology on popular culture became a consistent theme throughout the second half of the 20th century. Ongoing developments in technology also help to explain the ways in which popular culture is able to change and evolve.

Radio

By 1946, radio was established as the most accessible communication medium in Australia. All capital cities and most regional centres had one or more radio stations, which helped overcome the great distances involved in communicating across the country. Radio first took off during the 1930s, and was the perfect medium for introducing audiences to new forms of recorded music coming from the USA.

The increasing popularity and accessibility of radio led to change. Until World War II, pianos and pianolas (self-playing pianos) were the centrepieces of home entertainment. Sales of sheet music boomed as families gathered to entertain themselves at home. When radio station 2GF in Grafton, New South Wales, first went on air in December 1933, it was the 63rd radio station in the country. When the World War II broke out, radio became a crucial means for Australian people to keep updated with military news from overseas and at home. Apart from war-time news and updates from the troops, radio stations broadcast music and drama programs which were important for entertaining the Australian public and keeping up morale.

By the 21st century, radio had split into AM and FM, community and digital broadcasting. Contrary to some expectations, the medium of radio continues to thrive as an important means of entertainment and information.



Source 8.4 This photograph was taken in the late 1940s and shows a group of young friends sunbaking at Bondi Beach, Sydney, while listening to the radio.

Film

In 1906, the world's first full-length feature film was produced in Australia, titled *The Story of the Kelly Gang*. Until governments banned bushranger films in 1912, Australia led the world in feature film production. The federal government set high import **tariffs** on films during World War I. When they lifted them in 1918, the Australian film industry was destroyed by American imports. There was a brief revival in Australian films in the 1930s, when the influence of Hollywood and the introduction of 'talkies' (films with sound) began to dominate the film industry.

A newsreel documentary, *Kokoda Front Line*, won Australia's first Academy Award in 1943, but the Australian film industry struggled in the years after World War II. Although major Australian stars such as Errol Flynn, Peter Finch and Chips Rafferty became famous in Australia and experienced success overseas, as a general rule American actors were far more successful internationally. American magazines played a major role in this. Around this time, magazines became a popular medium through which popular culture was transmitted and advertised. As a result, Australian actors began to travel to Hollywood to further their careers. Although films were made in Australia in the 1940s and 1950s, these were usually co-productions with American and British film companies. The 1955 film *Jedda* stands out as a significant milestone in Australian cinema because it had two Indigenous lead actors. It was also the first Australian film to be shot in colour (see Source 8.5). By introducing a mainstream audience to Indigenous issues, it also showed the potential of film to generate debate and stimulate social change.

The Disney studio became the main source of children's entertainment. The animated films *Dumbo* and *Bambi* had been major hits during the war, and by the 1950s Disney films were clearly established as 'must sees' for Australian children. American serials and cartoons also emerged as staples of Saturday afternoon picture shows, and ensured that Australian children in the post-war period were introduced to a constant diet of American popular culture.



Source 8.5 *Jedda* was the first Australian film to star Aboriginal actors in lead roles.



Source 8.6 *Smiley* was one of the films that featured the Australian star 'Chips' Rafferty. Like many films made in Australia around that time, it was a US–UK co-production.

These animated cartoons and serials merged different American popular culture influences. They frequently drew on printed comic strip heroes such as Batman, the Phantom and Green Hornet for ideas.

It must be remembered that before television, newsreels at picture theatres were the only way people could actually see major news events in moving pictures. Serials and newsreels were the main reasons why people in the post-war period kept coming to the cinema week after week. As a result, local picture theatres became major sources of popular culture. It also explains why newsreels remained popular even after the Australian film industry went into decline after World War II. In fact, newsreel production continued until television was introduced to Australia in the mid-1950s.

Check your learning 8.3

Remember and understand

1. When radios were introduced into Australian homes during the 1930s, what other forms of home entertainment did they replace?
2. How did Australians see news items before the arrival of television?
3. Why was *Jedda* such an important film?

Apply and analyse

4. Explain the significance of radio for Australian popular culture in the 1940s.
5. Why do you think older Australians in the 1950s would have worried about Disney films and serials becoming so popular with Australian children?

Evaluate and create

6. Conduct research on the Internet into the career of *one* of the following Australian actors: Errol Flynn, Peter Finch or Chips Rafferty. Write a 250-word historical description outlining the contributions your chosen person made to the film industry both in Australia and internationally. Include at least one primary source and reference it.

Post-war sport

Sport was very popular in Australia in the post-war period, much as it is today. Many historians argue that sport played a key role in restoring normality after the traumas of the war. Cricket was the most widely played sport at the time, perhaps because it provided a strong link with England. The Ashes series with England developed into one of our great sporting traditions. These contests had been disrupted by the war. Both England and Australia were keen to see the contest resume as a sign of life returning to normal.

An English team toured Australia in the summer of 1946–47 on a goodwill tour. Australia played with a determination to show the 'mother country' how strong they were. The result was a 4–1 series win to Australia, a superiority that was confirmed when Don Bradman led the team to England in 1948, and his team (which became known as the 'Invincibles') remained undefeated for the entire tour.

Rugby league was another form of popular culture drawn from Britain. It was popular in New South Wales and Queensland, and the most prestigious competition was the New South Wales rugby league premiership. Unlike many sports, rugby league continued throughout World War II. Balmain won the 1946 grand final against St George in a match marred by refereeing controversies.

Rugby league was matched in the southern states by Australian Rules football, a truly home-grown sport. Like rugby league, it had been played throughout the war, providing some sense of normality, as many young men went off to fight. Unlike rugby league, however, Australian Rules football at the time could not technically be classed as a form of popular culture due to the fact that it failed to gain popularity at a global level.



Source 8.7 Australian cricketer Sir Donald Bradman, 1930s



Source 8.8 The first Australia vs England Rugby League test, 12 June 1950

key**concept:** continuity and change

The changing face of sport in Australia

Sport provides a strong cultural continuity in Australian society. Cricket, the football codes, tennis, golf and horse racing are all easily recognisable as cultural activities that continue to engage the Australian public to this day. Cricketers still play regularly for the Ashes, the MCG is still the venue for the Australian Rules grand final, and the Melbourne Cup remains the 'race that stops a nation'.

Beneath those continuities, however, are changes that reflect a more modern society. Professionalism has been a major change. In many sports today, playing at the top level is a full-time job. Time required for training and rehabilitation mean that maintaining other work is no longer practical.

The racial and ethnic backgrounds of Australia's multicultural society are now also reflected by our sporting men and women.

Domestically, Australian Rules and rugby league have moved towards national competitions that are financed by lucrative television and sponsorship deals. Rugby union was the last football code to go fully professional, and has focused on international competition. In 2005, soccer (known as football in most other countries around the world) established a national competition known as the A-League. In addition to this national league, Australia has participated in FIFA World Cups for both women and men.

For more information on the key concept of continuity and change refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 8.9 Quarter-final match of the FIFA women's football World Cup, Sweden *vs* Australia, on 10 July 2011

Check your learning 8.4

Remember and understand

1. Why did England send a cricket team to tour Australia so soon after the end of World War II?
2. What is the name of the cricket test series between Australia and England? Why do you think it became one of our greatest sporting traditions?
3. In which states was rugby league most popular in the late 1940s?
4. In which states was Australian Rules football popular?
5. Why was Australian Rules football technically not regarded as a popular culture activity? Do you believe that this is still the case today? Justify your response.

Apply and analyse

6. Conduct research on the Internet to collect evidence on the role Don Bradman played during the immediate post-war period in Australia.
   a. Use the information you have gathered to write a short response outlining the contributions he made to the sport of cricket as well as the importance he played in broader Australian society.
   b. Prepare an argument for or against the case to name Don Bradman as the most important Australian sports person of the post-war period.

8.1 big**ideas:** rich task

America's cultural influence

World War II had a major effect on Australia. During the war, Australia had been under the direct threat of invasion for the first time. The old certainty of relying on Britain for protection had been swept away with the fall of Singapore. Although 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 strongest, American influence was rapidly gaining importance and popularity.

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 also 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, helping to popularise jazz here.



Source 8.10 Jazz at the Dr Carver Club, Brisbane, during World War II (AWM 015578)

In the years immediately after the war, clubs such as these also helped Australian music pioneers to develop their own reputation and careers overseas. For example, Graeme Bell, popularly considered 'the father of Australian jazz', conducted his first overseas tour in 1947.

Source 8.11

[Jazz] certainly did have dirty connotations. Yes, because it grew up in the brothels and the speakeasies and the cellars. I think that's why my original band was accepted so well when we finally did go to Europe, in that we brought a sort of fresh, open-airness about the music as slightly happy Australian larrikinism. Because our music had grown up quite differently from the cellars and bordellos of America.

An extract from an interview with Graeme Bell on ABC's *Talking Heads* program

White American war-time performers such as Frank Sinatra and Bing Crosby also influenced Australian popular taste.

Source 8.12

Bing Crosby to Visit Australia

Bing Crosby will arrive in Australia in 1949 for three months' holiday. He will visit all States.

According to Paramount Studio's foreign representative, Mr H Haughton, his partner, Bob Hope, influenced him to come over. Hope told Crosby that on his visit during the war he has never been in a more friendly nation than Australia, and 'they are so friendly they even listen to your crooning'.

The Northern Miner, 9 September 1948

American influence even carried over into sport. After a seven-year interruption caused by the war, baseball resumed with the 1946 Claxton Shield tournament between NSW, Victoria and South Australia. It is thought that baseball arrived in Australia with American gold miners during the Victorian gold rush of the 1850s. Baseball has been most successful as a winter sport, complementing rather than competing with cricket, a summer sport.

Source 8.13

The American sailors will play baseball at the Showground this afternoon against a team from the City Houses Association. Play will begin at 2.30.

Baseball is the national game of the United States, and local baseball authorities have always welcomed United States warships to these shores as there have been some highly interesting and enjoyable games.

Sydney Morning Herald, 22 March 1941

skill**drill**

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

Historians use primary and secondary sources to gather evidence about the past. Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but sources will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of the time they were created in. All sources are affected by the author's own point of view, and in some cases an author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or encouraged to ignore certain facts. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate sources. Historians need to identify:

- what a source is and where it came from (origin)
- what life was like when the source was created (context)
- why the source was created (purpose).

Follow these steps when identifying the origin, context and purpose of a source:

Step 1 Identify the origin by asking these questions:

- What type of source is it?
- Who wrote, produced or made the source? What do you know about their age, gender, occupation, position in society, or religious background?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
- How old is the source?
- Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
- Is the source complete?

Step 2 Identify the context by asking these questions:

- What was life like when this source was created?
- What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?
- What was the political environment like at the time the source was created?
- What sort of common prejudices and social norms existed at the time that may have influenced the author or the source?

Step 3 Identify the purpose by asking these questions:

- Why was the source written or created?
- Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
- Does the author have anything to gain personally from the source?
- Does it give a detached, balanced account?
- Were there political reasons for the creation of the source?
- Is it propaganda?

Apply the skill

1 Consider any two of the written sources that appear in this section. For each source, write a 150-word summary outlining:
   a what the source is and who was responsible for creating it
   b what life was like in Australia at the time the source was created
   c the reason why the source was created.

   Your summary should answer each of the questions that appear under the descriptions for origin, context and purpose above.

Extend your understanding

1 Interview three people who were teenagers in Australia in the immediate post-war period. You may have a grandparent who was a teenager in the late 1940s–1950s, or your teacher may help you with ideas to find people to interview.
   a Ask them what they liked and disliked about America and American popular culture between 1940 and 1955. Record their responses and summarise them in a table of pros and cons.
   b How do the responses and experiences of these people compare with other Australian sources (such as newspaper articles, magazines and television shows) produced during the same period?
   c How do their experiences of America and American popular culture compare with yours today? Prepare a Venn diagram to examine the similarities and differences.

8.2 What developments in popular culture most affected Australia after World War II?

The arrival of rock'n'roll



Source 8.14 Saxophone player Len Austin and the Recaps band perform at a rock'n'roll dance in the Manly RSL Hall organised by the Salvation Army, in 1959.

On the surface, Australian society in 1956 did not appear to be too different from Australian society 10 years earlier in 1946. Cricket, rugby league, Australian Rules football, tennis and horse racing were all popular sports that showed the influence of our largely British cultural heritage. Radio continued to be the most popular and important medium for communication. In addition to this, most city suburbs and country towns had a picture theatre showing American and British films along with newsreels and serials. Then something changed – rock'n'roll arrived in Australia.

The Sun, a Sydney-based newspaper, reported on 21 June 1956 that 'rock and roll raised no more than a flutter' in Australia. Three weeks later, Elvis Presley's *Heartbreak Hotel* was released locally, and the same newspaper published the first rumour that Elvis was to tour Australia. By December, Bill Haley's *Rock Around the Clock* had established an Australian sales record of 175 000 45s and 78s, and 12 000 LPs (all are types of vinyl records). On 20 December, a 'rock dance' was held at Sydney's Redfern Oval, and within six months rock'n'roll had become part of popular cultural for good.

There is no doubt rock'n'roll brought about many changes in 1950s Australia. Teenagers had a different outlook from the generation that had experienced the **Great Depression** and World War II. Attending rock'n'roll concerts became a symbol of the fact that teenagers were different from earlier generations and signalled a break with their parents. It also showed how enthusiastically they adopted American popular culture. As Australian musicians such as John Manners and Johnny O'Keefe absorbed these influences, they also started practising playing rock'n'roll and developing their skills in this new form of popular culture. Eventually these artists would start writing and performing uniquely Australian rock songs to sell-out crowds, but in 1957 rock'n'roll was only just starting to bring about social change in Australia.

key**concept:** significance

Bill Haley's tour

Rock'n'roll became one of the most distinct products designed specifically for teenagers. Radio, television and film all helped spread the music, and tours by live acts were the next step. Although Australia was geographically isolated in the 1950s, an American promoter living in Australia called Lee Gordon realised the potential of rock'n'roll. He organised the first rock'n'roll tour outside North America when he booked Bill Haley and the Comets, Big Joe Turner, The Platters, LaVern Baker and Freddie Bell and the Bell Boys on a package tour of Australia.

As an indication of just what a major undertaking this first tour was, in January 1957 it took Bill Haley six days to travel from the east coast of the United States to Sydney. There were three stops on the trans-Pacific flight for this first ever tour that included mixed races and genders – both certain to attract controversy in a 'white' Australia where women were yet to achieve any kind of equality.

The tour was a huge success, playing to 330 000 people at a time when Australia's population was still under 10 million. Teenagers danced in the aisles before ushers made them sit down. A reviewer called it 'the noisiest show to ever hit Sydney'. It was reported that 'plates rattled half a block away, dogs cringed in their kennels and the boxing stadium at Rushcutters Bay loosened its nails'.

A second tour including Little Richard, Eddie Cochran, Gene Vincent and Alis Lesley arrived in October 1957, and it was clear that rock'n'roll was creating a wide generation gap.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 8.15 A poster promoting the Bill Haley tour of 1957



Source 8.16 Police hold back Beatles fans at Sydney airport in June 1964, as Ringo Starr and Brian Epstein (manager of The Beatles) arrive – the pair missed the early part of the Australian tour because Ringo needed to have his tonsils removed.

The Beatles tour Australia

On 11 June 1964, The Beatles arrived in Australia for their first and only visit. By June 1964, The Beatles were the most famous people on the planet. Concerts in Adelaide had been added because of public demand, and 350000 people lined the entire drive from the airport to the centre of Adelaide. The crowds were repeated wherever The Beatles went. For two weeks, Australia was the centre of the popular culture universe.

The Beatles' tour had a direct impact on Australian society. Teenagers disobeyed authority for the first time in their lives, ignoring police instructions as they massed anywhere that The Beatles might appear. The mobilisation of so many teenagers was an early sign of the mass movement that went on to play an important role protesting against the Vietnam War.

The tour also showed that Australia retained very strong cultural links with Britain. The Beatles entered the Australian charts six months before the American charts. British migrants arriving in Australia would bring their records with them, ensuring that Australia was kept up to date with the pop boom that was exploding in England.

The Beatles' tour changed the face of Australian music. Groups replaced singers almost instantly, and pop music became the quickest way for many migrants to assimilate into Australian culture. The Easybeats in Sydney and The Twilights in Adelaide were two bands who formed in the aftermath of The Beatles tour, and both consisted mainly of migrants. These bands would go on to create original Australian music, as well as to tour England.

Check your learning 8.5

Remember and understand

1 What evidence is there to suggest that rock'n'roll became an almost instant success in Australia?

2 Who staged the first rock'n'roll concert tour of Australia? In what year was the tour staged?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain why Bill Haley's and The Beatles' tours of Australia were important developments in Australian popular culture.

4 In which ways did Australian teenagers during the 1950s adopt aspects of American culture? How different do you think this is from the way American popular culture influences Australian teenagers today?

Evaluate and create

5 Listen to the music of some of the artists who toured Australia in the 1950s. Create a line-up for a concert by some of these artists.
   a Design a poster to advertise the concert.
   b Write two reviews of the imaginary concert – one for a daily newspaper and one for a teenage magazine – demonstrating the different attitudes held by older and younger generations of Australians towards rock'n'roll.

6 Research an Australian pop group from the 1950s or 1960s and one current Australian pop artist. Write 2–3 paragraphs comparing their careers and impact on the international music scene.

The impact of changing technology: television and film

Television had proved critical in the United States in allowing rock'n'roll to develop from local to national acceptance. Regardless of distance, television meant that teenagers across the country could turn on their sets and see Elvis Presley on nationally broadcast shows such as *The Ed Sullivan Show* (originally called *Toast of the Town*) and *The Milton Berle Show*.

Television had the same potential in a country the size of Australia, especially because of its small population, vast distances and physical isolation from the rest of the world. Legal and political arguments in Australia about the ownership model of television stations delayed introduction of television here. After much discussion it was finally decided that Australia would have a joint government (based on the British model) and private (based on the American model) television station ownership model. This compromise between British and American influences was typical of Australian society in the 1950s.

The Melbourne Olympic Games in November 1956 were the main motivation for the introduction of television. Government and commercial stations were operating in Sydney and Melbourne in time to televise the games, and by 1960 Brisbane, Adelaide and Perth also had stations. As with many new technologies, television sets were expensive in the beginning. In 1956, a new set could cost more than $400; this at a time when the average weekly wage was around $30 a week. As a result, it is estimated that only about 5 per cent of households in Melbourne and 1 per cent of households in Sydney had television sets by 1960.

To encourage investment in television stations, the Menzies Government had decided not to have a local content **quota** for programming. As a result of this decision, the early years of television in Australia were dominated by American programs. There were few television studios and other facilities to produce local programs in Australia at the time and very little equipment to record and broadcast material. Therefore, most local content had to be broadcast live. It consisted mainly of quiz and game shows that had been popular on radio. When a Senate Committee reported on Australian television content in 1963, it estimated that 97 per cent of all television drama shown between 1956 and 1963 was American. These programs had a significant influence on Australian society over the period.

With rock'n'roll and television established in Australia by the end of the 1950s, they became major vehicles for social and cultural change around the country. Both enabled the transmission of American popular culture in a more immediate and direct way than either film or the visits of American troops during World War II had been able to achieve.



Source 8.17 A family watches a television in the television lounge at a department store in Sydney on 24 November 1956



Source 8.18 The Melbourne Olympics, held in 1956, were one of the main motivating factors for the introduction of television in Australia. The games were broadcast as a test transmission by all three television stations operating in Melbourne at the time.

key**concept:** contestability

'Welcome to television'?

For historians, one of the difficulties in studying the early years of Australian television is that so little primary source material survives. With no videotape or equipment to record television shows, live broadcasts were unique events lost to time. There is even controversy surrounding the historic first words spoken on Australian television.

On 16 September 1956, Bruce Gyngell greeted the Australian people in the first television broadcast from TCB 9 in Sydney: 'Good evening and welcome to television.' Although these are the first words spoken on Australian television, if you were to watch this footage today, the chances are you'd be watching a fake. According to Gerald Stone (a respected Australian television and radio journalist), the original kinescope film of the event was lost. The version we see today showing Gyngell standing in front of a world map (see Source 8.19) was recreated a year after the original broadcast. As a result, it probably looks quite a bit more rehearsed and professional than the image that originally went to air on 16 September 1956.



Source 8.19 Bruce Gyngell shown re-enacting his introduction to the first regular television broadcast service that aired in 1956

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

The great film revival

Australia has had a vibrant film industry at various times throughout its history, and film has become a significant way for Australians to reflect on their national identity and confront aspects of Australian life. The early 1970s saw the emergence of what has been called the 'new wave' of Australian film.

The timing of the new wave reflected a growing interest in Australian culture and had the political support of two Australian prime ministers. The Liberal MP John Gorton was prime minister from 1968 until 1971, and Labor's Gough Whitlam from 1972 until 1975. These two politicians laid the groundwork for Australian film to emerge as a major contributor to a national popular culture in the early 1970s.

Gorton established the Australian Council for the Arts, the Australian Film Development Corporation, and the National Film and Television Training School. Whitlam continued the support by creating the Australian Film Commission to help finance and produce films that could reach an international market. This was the first time film had received such specific government support and the result was a boom in Australian films.

The 1970s saw films as diverse as *Walkabout* and *Wake in Fright* in 1971, *Alvin Purple* in 1973, *Picnic at Hanging Rock* in 1975 and *Mad Max* in 1979. Directors such as Peter Weir, Gillian Armstrong, George Miller and Bruce Beresford got their start during this period. Actors also thrived under the system. Future international stars such as Mel Gibson, Jacki Weaver and Judy Davis all got their start in the 1970s new wave.

The themes the films in this period covered also signalled a new confidence in Australian culture. *Stork*, *The Adventures of Barry McKenzie* and *Alvin Purple* celebrated the larrikin Australian spirit. Uniquely Australian stories such as *Picnic at Hanging Rock*, *Caddie* and *Sunday Too Far Away* all received overseas attention. The vastness of the Australian outback was captured in *Walkabout*, which introduced Australians to the Indigenous actor David Gulpilil. *Wake in Fright* focused on the darker side of country life. This theme was taken to apocalyptic lengths in the *Mad Max* series, which led to international success for the *Mad Max* films, actor Mel Gibson and director George Miller. The sinister depiction of the Australian countryside was a recurrent theme throughout the 1970s, and paved the way for 21st-century successes such as *Wolf Creek*.

Australian literature also became a rich source for film makers, and showed the capacity of Australian culture to change and evolve. *Walkabout*, *Picnic at Hanging Rock*, *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 continued to build 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 films that use historical events as backdrops such as *The Dish* and *Australia*.



Source 8.20 Film poster for *Picnic at Hanging Rock*, 1975



Source 8.21 *Red Dog* was a hit with Australian audiences in 2011.

Check your learning 8.6

Remember and understand

1. Explain how television helped the development of rock'n'roll in America.
2. Why was the introduction of television in Australia delayed?
3. What event was the main motivating factor for the introduction of television in Australia in 1956?
4. Which Menzies Government decision allowed television to introduce American culture into Australia?

Apply and analyse

5. Select an Australian film that has been released since World War II. Analyse it to explain the image of Australia it portrays. Discuss the ways in which the film you have chosen has contributed to Australian popular culture.

Soapies and mini-series

The term 'soap opera' was originally used in reference to ongoing radio serials. They were called soap operas because they were usually sponsored by soap companies and featured commercials for soap throughout. Over time in Australia, soap operas simply became known as 'soapies'. These serials were aired during the day when housewives were the main audience. The idea transferred to television originally in the United States in the early 1950s. Television soapies are characterised by an ongoing storyline that runs across a number of episodes. Soapies often try to depict 'real life', but require viewers to suspend reality. Cliffhanger endings are frequently used to end individual episodes or seasons to encourage the audience to tune in again for the next instalment.

Australia's first television soapie was *Autumn Affair*, which ran on Channel 7 for 15 minutes a day in 1958 and 1959. In 1967, the ABC launched the first early evening soapie, *Bellbird*, dealing with life in a fictional rural town of the same name (see Source 8.22). The 15-minute episodes were the lead-in to the ABC news. *Bellbird* drew a large and loyal following at a time when the ABC was the only network to broadcast nationally. It was broadcast until 1977 when it ended abruptly as a result of government budget cuts to the ABC.



Source 8.22 The locals gather in a pub in *Bellbird*. From 1967 to 1977, Australians were glued to their television sets watching the first early evening soapie in Australia on the ABC.

Soapies in the 1970s

The 1970s can be seen as a time of social, political and cultural change in Australia. By this time, there had been 23 years of conservative government by the Liberal–Country Party coalition. Australia at the end of the 1970s was largely unrecognisable from Australia during the 1960s – the 1960s was a time of black-and-white televisions, conscription of young people to fight in Vietnam, and a refusal by the government to allow most Asians to settle here.

The sense of excitement and social change of early 1970s Australia was reflected in television programs at the time. *Number 96* was launched in 1972. The series explored the relationships of the residents of a small, inner-city apartment block named Number 96. It caused a sensation by dealing with issues that had previously been considered taboo (offensive and distasteful) and unsuitable for showing on television. Topics such as nudity, divorce, homosexuality, racism and drugs were explored in the storylines.

Number 96 brought previous cultural barriers crashing down (see Source 8.22), and it was followed in 1974 by *The Box*. Set in a television station, *The Box* tried to take the sexual themes and nudity of *Number 96* a step further.

The first soapie aimed at teenagers, *The Class of '74*, was launched in the same year, and attracted considerable attention. Set in a high school, it suggested that teenagers had an interest more in social activities than schoolwork. This meant that the program was subject to intense legal scrutiny. The Broadcasting Control Board would often demand script changes to make it more 'acceptable' for early evening viewing.

The first Australian soapie, *Bellbird*, had produced a film version as early as 1971, and films based on *Number 96* and *The Box* soon followed. Film versions of television soapies had several advantages – they could be filmed in colour and they were able to show more nudity than was allowed on television at the time. The arrival of colour television to Australia in 1975 took away some of the advantages held by movie theatres before then.

A new style of soapie was introduced in 1976 when *The Sullivans* was launched. Set in World War II-era Melbourne, it ran until 1982, and drew viewers into following the lives of its fictional family. *The Sullivans* echoed the success of Australian films in the 1970s, and reflected an interest in Australians exploring their own culture. Its success was echoed in the 1980s by *A Country Practice*, which revived a *Bellbird*-style of storytelling set in a country town. *Prisoner* and *Sons and Daughters* also found long-running success in the 1980s, and reinforced the dominant position of television in Australian popular culture.



Source 8.23 Actors Abigail and Joe Hasham in a scene from the television show *Number 96*

Mini-series in the 1980s

The election of Bob Hawke in 1983 returned the Labor Party to power. Hawke portrayed a down-to-earth Australian image. He had won a beer-drinking competition while a student at Oxford University, and was able to draw a wide following in the community. He still holds the record for the highest approval rating of any prime minister. He was re-elected in 1984, 1987 and 1990.

The Hawke years were characterised by economic reform and a confidence in Australian popular culture. Television launched a number of mini-series that showed aspects of Australian life. Mini-series were longer than traditional films, but limited to a single, self-contained story rather than an open-ended narrative that had previously been the basis of long-running television series.

Mini-series boomed during the 1980s as Australian history and culture became hot topics for the producers to explore. These included *Bodyline*, which looked at the events behind the 1932–33 cricket series between Australia and England; *The Dismissal*, which examined the sacking of the Whitlam Government; *The Cowra Breakout*, a famous incident from World War II; and *Vietnam*, which was a major examination of a war that was still a hotly debated topic in Australian society.



Source 8.24 A still from *Bangkok Hilton* starring Nicole Kidman which aired on Australian television in November 1989

Australian novels such as Ruth Park's *The Harp in the South* and *Poor Man's Orange*, memoirs such as Albert Facey's *A Fortunate Life*, and novels about Australia such as *A Town Like Alice* all provided material for successful mini-series. Indigenous issues were firmly placed on the television agenda with the acclaimed *Women of the Sun*, while *Bangkok Hilton* starring Nicole Kidman (see Source 8.24) fictionalised the experience of young Australians caught smuggling drugs from Asia.

Neighbours and *Home and Away*

Australia's interest in gathering around the television to share the lives of fictional soap characters culminated in two extraordinarily long-running shows that aired for the first time in the 1980s – *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* (see Sources 8.25 and 8.26). When *Neighbours* was first shown in 1985, Ronald Reagan was president of the United States, the Cold War still pitted the United States and Soviet Union against each other, and Bruce Springsteen was touring Australia for the first time. A 15-year-old who watched the debut episode of *Neighbours* turned 40 in 2010. *Home and Away* followed shortly after, premiering in January 1988 – the same year that Australia celebrated its bicentennial (200th anniversary) of British settlement.

These two television soapies have, between them, aired nearly 12 000 episodes. As with the mini-series boom, they emerged from an Australia that was becoming increasingly confident in using popular culture to explore its own stories. As the bicentennial of Captain Cook's landing in Australia approached, there was a focus on national reflection, and a questioning of what being Australian meant. The lives of 'ordinary' Australians shown in fictionalised settings such as Erinsborough (*Neighbours*) and Summer Bay (*Home and Away*) were now seen as a valid source of entertainment. Teen audiences emerged as a major target for advertisers. This helped both soapies to dominate Australian and international ratings throughout the 1990s and early 2000s.

They have proved a rich training ground for aspiring actors and musicians. Among the talent to have emerged from *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* are Guy Pearce, Kylie Minogue, Jason Donovan, Natalie Imbruglia, Delta Goodrem, Melissa George and Julian McMahon. All played recurring roles in the soaps before moving on to major international success.

Although celebrating the life of average Australians, both shows have been criticised for focusing on a 'white' view of Australia. And while both series have dealt with controversial social issues such as drugs, sexuality and

teen pregnancy, race and ethnicity have rarely featured. Token attempts at introducing minor characters have failed to challenge criticism that the racial composition of Erinsborough and Summer Bay fails to reflect that of modern Australia.

Both series project a vision of Australia that has proven extremely attractive to overseas viewers. *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* have had extraordinary success being sold internationally. The image of Australia as a country of sunshine, surf and white faces proved irresistible in many markets. *Neighbours* was so 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 8.25 Morag Bellingham (Cornelia Francis), Alf Stewart (Ray Meagher) and Eric 'Ric' Dalby (Mark Furze) in the long-running Channel 7 soapie *Home and Away*



Source 8.26 Scott Robinson (Jason Donovan) and Charlene Robinson (Kylie Minogue) in a wedding scene from *Neighbours*, 1987

Check your learning 8.7

Remember and understand

1. Explain where the term 'soap opera' comes from.
2. What are the main characteristics of soap operas?
3. What was the first Australian soapie?
4. How did Australian soapies change during the 1970s?

Apply and analyse

5. Why do you think Australian soapies have become so popular overseas?

Evaluate and create

6. Do you think Australian soapies such as *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* should include characters from a broader range of racial/ethnic backgrounds? Explain your response.

8.2 big**ideas:** rich task

The influence of popular culture in Australia

Many of us today have a television in our bedroom and watch movies online. It's hard to believe that only 60 years ago radio was the main way Australians accessed news and entertainment. The nature of entertainment has evolved radically over that time. The growth of television and new forms of music reflect upheavals in values and culture that our society has undergone since the end of World War II.

For the generation who grew up before the 1950s, the only way to watch moving images was to visit a cinema. The arrival of television in Australia in the 1950s relocated the movie screen into people's living rooms and fundamentally changed the ways in which people accessed popular culture.

Source 8.27

When television itself first started in 1956, because television sets were, I suppose, very expensive, most people didn't have one, and all of the major department stores would have a television set in their window … People would actually gather outside the department stores at night-time, children in their pyjamas and dressing gowns, adults would bring their own seats and sit there and watch the television in the store windows.

Extract from a 2006 special episode of the *Science Show* on ABC Radio National, 'Celebrating 50 years of television'

With the birth of rock'n'roll around the same time, popular music was undergoing a revolution of its own. Rock'n'roll became more than just another music trend – it came to influence fashion, lifestyle, language and attitudes, especially among teenagers and young people.

Popular culture in the 1950s would come to exemplify the gap between the culture of youth and that of their parents. Older Australians were concerned that the popularity of rock'n'roll through television and radio was encouraging young people to challenge boundaries around taboo topics, such as sex.



Source 8.28 Bill Haley on tour in 1957 – this and other tours by famous rock'n'roll bands not only influenced music but also fashion, language and attitudes

This letter to the editor appeared in *The Sun* newspaper in January 1957, while Bill Haley was touring Australia. It was printed under the heading 'Menace of rock and roll':

Source 8.29

It will be interesting to note the effects of the visit to Sydney of a band of American entertainers. Reports of the way 'rock and roll' has been received by overseas audiences, coupled with the almost unanimous acceptance of Elvis Presley who, despite his repulsive antics, is now the current idol of the younger set, lead one to believe that the arrival of Mr Haley could be regretted for years to come.

We have only to glance through the daily papers to read the shocking manner in which teenagers of today, throughout the world, carry on.

The morals of the modern generation, with the exception of a small minority, have nearly reached an all time low, and 'rock and roll' has done nothing to improve them.

Already the general outlook of the Australian teenager has begun to deteriorate rapidly and to such an extent that something must be done to prevent the low level which they are gradually approaching, being attained.

Strongly opposed by most leading musicians, both modern and classical, 'rock and roll' represents a serious threat to the community.

In both Britain and the United States riots are prevalent where this form of entertainment is played. We must see that it is not given the same opportunity to take a grip on our own youth.

Letter to the editor by John J Sutton, *The Sun*, Sydney, January 1957 (reprinted *in My Generation. Growing up in Australia 1950s to 1980s*, Bernie Howitt, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne, 1992, pp. 25–6)

skill**drill**

Identify and analyse different historical interpretations

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

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

Much of the historical study and research you will complete in secondary school will involve you reading secondary sources (for example, textbooks and websites about the historical period you are studying). While these secondary sources at first glance may appear to provide an objective, unbiased and balanced view of the historical events or periods they are writing about, this is not always the case. All historians write from a particular perspective. There is no objective 'truth' that historians uncover; rather, all historians must interpret historical events and issues using their own perspective. Of course, historians must use evidence to justify their interpretations, but there is no absolutely 'correct' way of interpreting evidence, and historians can also use (or disregard) different sources of evidence to support many different interpretations. For example, many historians writing in the early 1900s about the British settlement of Australia presented it in a very positive light, and virtually ignored the negative experiences of Indigenous Australians.

It is therefore very important that you are able to identify and analyse different historical interpretations. To do this, ask yourself the following questions:

- What historical event is being interpreted?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as important in this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as positive in this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are ignored or left out of this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as negative in this interpretation?
- What motives or characteristics are being attributed to the humans involved in this interpretation?
- What primary sources are used to support the interpretation? How?
- What primary sources might have been left out or ignored by this interpretation?
- Does this interpretation involve a critique of other interpretations? If so, what is being said about other interpretations?

Apply the skill

1 Use the questions above as a guide to prepare a 250-word report explaining the changing nature of popular culture in Australia since the 1950s. Explain how each of the sources presented in this section offer different interpretations of the changes.

Extend your understanding

1 Consider how the sources in this section provide such different interpretations of the arrival of rock'n'roll in Australia. What technology or trends do you see in society today that might compare to the upheaval older generations of Australians faced when television and rock'n'roll emerged?

2 Prepare a presentation for your class on a modern trend or technology of your choice (such as Facebook or Twitter), describing:

a what benefits the trend is bringing to society

b what problems the trend could have for society

c what effects you believe the trend might have on society in 15 years' time.

8.3 How have the music, film and television industries in Australia changed since World War II?

Changes in the music industry



Source 8.30 Rock icon 'Molly' Meldrum, host of the influential television music show, *Countdown*, which screened from 1974 to 1987

From its earliest days in Australia, rock'n'roll was branded as rebellious music for teenagers. The link between rock'n'roll and teenage misbehaviour was established even before there were any rock'n'roll bands in Australia. The first rock'n'roll film, *Rock Around the Clock*, was released in Sydney on 14 September 1956. Ten days later two youths were fined for dancing in Pitt Street after viewing the film.

The origins of Australian rock

In the early years of the Australian rock industry most songs were covers of American artists and bands. The first original Australian song was probably *Rock'n'Roll Washboard* by the Schneider Sisters, written in November 1956. The Schneider Sisters came from a country music background. This was typical of the early Australian rock acts, with established artists from other music genres attracted to rock'n'roll because of its novelty value and links to the emerging teenage market.

key concept: contestability

George Assang – Australia's first rock'n'roll star?

To this day there is considerable debate about who released Australia's first rock'n'roll record. The unlikely pioneer of Australian rock'n'roll was an Indigenous Australian called George Assang. He was born on Thursday Island, and his smooth singing voice got him regular work fronting jazz and swing bands on the Australian circuit. On 12 July 1956, under his stage name of Vic Sabrino, he released a version of *Heartbreak Hotel* simultaneously with Elvis Presley's version. There is still some debate about when he recorded an earlier cover of Bill Haley's *Rock Around the Clock*. Whether it was 1955 or 1956, the Vic Sabrino jazz/swing version of *Rock Around the Clock* could make a case for being Australia's earliest attempt at rock'n'roll.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Johnny O'Keefe

Johnny O'Keefe is remembered as one of the most significant Australian rock'n'roll performers of all time. O'Keefe was born in 1935 and began his singing career in the 1950s. His life changed forever in 1955 after seeing and hearing Bill Haley singing *Rock Around the Clock*. O'Keefe met Bill Haley at his 1957 tour and impressed Haley so much that Haley gave him a song to record. From that point onwards, O'Keefe knew that he wanted to perform this style of music and dedicated himself to becoming a rock'n'roll singer and star. From humble beginnings, O'Keefe went on to have national and international success with songs such as *Wild One*, *Shout!* and *She's My Baby*.

One riotous night of partying was the inspiration for O'Keefe's 1958 release, *Wild One*. This was the first genuinely Australian rock'n'roll hit record. After hearing

it performed on tour with O'Keefe, Buddy Holly and the Crickets took it back to the United States where it was released as *Real Wild Child*. It has subsequently been recorded by artists as diverse as Jerry Lee Lewis, Joan Jett, Status Quo and most famously Iggy Pop. In fact, the Iggy Pop version has been used as the theme to ABC TV's *Rage* for more than 20 years.

In his 20-year career, O'Keefe released more than 50 singles, 50 EPs (extended play records) and 100 albums. To this day he remains Australia's most successful chart performer, with 29 Top 40 hits to his credit in Australia between 1959 and 1974.



Source 8.31 Johnny O'Keefe performing on stage in 1963

Surf music

The massive popularity of surf music that started around 1962 launched the next phase of Australian music. Sydney band The Atlantics created a huge local hit, *Bombora*, which was released internationally, even receiving the US *Cashbox Magazine*'s Record of the Week award. Suddenly surf bands were everywhere, playing suburban dances and sending teenage boys in search of guitars so they could imitate their favourite band and be 'cool'.

The classic rock line-up of guitars, bass and drums emerged at this point, and major international recording labels such as CBS and HMV began investing in the local Australian music industry. As The Beach Boys made the charts, vocals started to influence surf music. A 14-year-old Australian singer by the name of Little Pattie entered the charts with *He's My Blonde Headed Stompie Wompie Real Gone Surfer Boy* late in 1963. The summer of 1963–64 was the highpoint of the surf music craze in Australia.

The beat boom

The 'beat boom' was a period during the early 1960s when a style known as beat music became popular in the charts. Put simply, beat music was a fusion of rock'n'roll and rhythm and blues (R&B) that developed in Britain at this time and led to a 'British invasion' of the music charts around the world. The overwhelming popularity and success of The Beatles was one example of the British invasion. Their Australian tour in June 1964 revolutionised the Australian music industry (see Source 8.32). Overnight it seemed as if instrumental groups and solo singers were out, and rock'n'roll bands were in. Smaller, independent recording companies such as W&G in Melbourne, Clarion in Perth and Alberts in Sydney prospered in the wake of Beatlemania. Teenagers across the country were hungry for new records and live concerts. As a result, many new Australian rock bands formed and the music industry in Australia boomed from 1964.



Source 8.32 The Beatles arrived in Adelaide on 12 June 1964.

A vibrant national scene made up of suburban dances in the major cities and concerts in country towns, gave a number of performers the opportunity to make a career in music. Some of these performers and bands were The Easybeats, and Ray Brown and the Whispers (from Sydney); The Twilights and Masters Apprentices (from Adelaide); Bobby and Laurie, The Loved Ones, and Normie Rowe and The Playboys (from Melbourne); Tony Worsley and The Blue Jays, and The Five (from Brisbane); and Johnny Young Kompany (from Perth).

By 1966, The Easybeats and Normie Rowe, two of the biggest names on the local scene, had moved to England in search of international fame and success. The Easybeats recorded *Friday on My Mind* in London in 1966. It reached the Top 20 in the US and Top 10 in the UK, and would go on to be voted best Australian song of all time in 2001. Normie Rowe recorded a number of songs in London that were huge hits back in Australia.

The 1970s: *Countdown* and Double J

Australian music became much more diverse in the 1970s as a new range of acts replaced the bands popular during the beat boom. Experimental acts such as Tully, Tamam Shud and Levi Smith's Clefs reflected changes in society as drug use and alternative lifestyles mirrored similar trends overseas. Festivals such as Ourimbah and Sunbury were where the young gathered. Music was growing with the baby boomer generation (those born between 1946 and 1965). And then the ABC launched a television show that brought young people's music to an even wider audience.

Television had played a significant role in allowing access to rock music since Johnny O'Keefe was given a show called *Six O'Clock Rock* in 1959. Because the ABC was the only national broadcaster at the time, any show on the ABC was key in broadcasting information to the more remote areas of Australia.

When a new music program called *Countdown* started on 8 November 1974, its host, Ian 'Molly' Meldrum, became a household name – and he is still one of Australia's most famous television personalities. *Countdown* provided a national stage for promoting new Australian acts to young people. Sunday evenings became primetime viewing for teenagers wanting to know what was happening in Australian music. The show made stars of acts such as Skyhooks, Sherbet and John Paul Young. The show went to air from 1974 until 1987 and became the most popular music program in Australian television history.

In 1975, the Whitlam Government granted the ABC the first new radio licence in an Australian capital city since 1932. The ABC used the licence to set up Australia's first non-commercial rock radio station – known as Double J. Double J started broadcasting in January 1975. Committed to alternative music and challenging the commercial monopoly on rock, Double J started broadcasting with Skyhooks' *You Just Like Me 'Cos I'm Good in Bed*, which had been banned by commercial radio.

Double J changed its name to Triple J in 1980 when the FM band was opened for radio broadcasting. The dream of a national youth radio network was finally realised in 1989, when Triple J became a national network. Since its first broadcast, it has played a crucial role in championing



Source 8.33 *Countdown* provided a national stage for promoting new Australian acts to young people.



Source 8.34 Radio presenters Adam Spencer and Helen Razer in the Triple J studio in Ultimo, 1998 – both Spencer and Razer moved from Triple J to careers in more mainstream media and Triple J continues to give new young radio presenters an opportunity.

Australian music, often playing music that commercial radio programmers deemed unsuitable. The annual Triple J Hottest 100 has become a staple of Australian music. It gives Australian bands the opportunity to compete with international artists. The 2010 Hottest 100, for example, was topped by Australian acts Angus and Julia Stone and Little Red and the number one track in 2011 was by Gotye. Perhaps the greatest indicator of Triple J's contribution to the Australian music industry is its support for emerging independent Australian bands. Sydney band The Jezabels reached number 16 with *Mace Spray* and number 49 with *Easy to Love* in the 2010 Hottest 100. This was despite being a totally independent band without the backing of a major label. Providing opportunities for bands such as The Jezabels and thousands of others over the years indicates why the government's support for a youth radio network was such a critical decision in the development of the Australian music industry.

By harnessing new technological developments such as colour television (*Countdown*) and FM broadcasting (Triple J), Australian music was able to enter an era of genuine international acceptance.

Australian music goes global

From Johnny O'Keefe's attempt to get into the American market in 1959 to The Jezabels' independent assault on Europe and North America in 2011, Australian acts have always attempted to test themselves against the rest of the world. The 1980s saw an explosion of Australian acts that had a genuine global impact on the music scene. From the early 1980s, bands such as Brisbane's The Go-Betweens developed a cult following across Europe and North America. Following their path were bands such as INXS, Midnight Oil, AC/DC, Nick Cave and the Bad Seeds, Jet, The Vines and Savage Garden who have achieved global recognition representing a diversity of sounds. More recently, Gotye won three Grammy Awards in 2013 – an indication of the wider success and acceptance of Australian music on the world stage.

Australian popular music is critical for Australia's cultural life. It allows for a range of Australians to express views and opinions, and establishes an understanding of modern Australia on a global scale. It has also grown from a cultural form that was despised by an older generation into a major contributor to the Australian economy. It was estimated that music-related activities added $1.55 billion value to the Australian economy in 1984–85, and $6.82 billion in 2005–06. That is an enormous change from the days when Vic Sabrino recorded a cover of *Rock Around the Clock*.

The next step in securing the future of rock music as an Australian popular culture came on 5 October 2011, when Triple J launched Triple J Unearthed, a new station devoted entirely to promoting the music of unsigned Australian bands. The digital and online station was set up to help the next generation of musicians prepare to follow in the footsteps of artists ranging from Johnny O'Keefe to The Jezabels.



Source 8.35 The Vines perform in Los Angeles as part of their 'Aussie Invasion' tour of the USA, 2004

Check your learning 8.8

Remember and understand

1. When was surf music popular in Australia?
2. What impact did The Beatles' tour of Australia have on the local music industry?
3. How did the Whitlam Government help the Australian music industry?
4. Name at least three Australian acts that have achieved musical success overseas.

Apply and analyse

5. How do The Jezabels highlight the importance of Triple J to Australian music?

Evaluate and create

6. Create a digital museum exhibition that highlights the changing nature of the Australian music industry since World War II.

Changes in the film industry

By the 1950s most Australian cities and suburbs had access to a picture theatre. Going to the 'flicks' was a popular pastime for people of all ages and generations. Signs of change were apparent in 1954 when the first drive-in cinema opened in Melbourne. This reflected the emergence of the private car as the main means of transport, as suburbs expanded in the post-war baby boom era. The most significant change for the Australian film industry at this stage was the emergence of television from 1956. With families able to stay at home to watch entertainment, many suburban theatres had closed by the end of the decade.

Liberal Prime Minister John Gorton was responsible for saving the Australian film industry. His introduction of a Film Development Corporation and National Film and Television Training School encouraged a new wave of film makers. The Whitlam Government built on Gorton's work with the Australian Film Commission, and these two prime ministers ensured that the 1970s would be a boom period of Australian film.

The 1970s generation of Australian film makers and actors repaid the government's investment in culture many times over by making a major impact on the international film industry. Directors such as Peter Weir, Gillian Armstrong and Bruce Beresford, and actors such as Mel Gibson, Judy Davis, David Gulpilil and Jack Thompson have gone on to win awards and attain international success.

The *Crocodile Dundee* phenomenon

On 30 April 1986, the film *Crocodile Dundee* premiered in Australia. It was produced on a budget of about $10 million and starred the Australian comic actor Paul Hogan, who had risen to prominence after winning on *New Faces* – a popular talent contest broadcast on television. Two versions of *Crocodile Dundee* were released at the time: an Australian version and an international version that replaced Australian slang with more easily understood words.

Hogan's Mick Dundee became a huge hit in Australia with his 'blokey' humour and 'no worries' attitude. The international appeal of such an obviously Australian character was put to the test when *Crocodile Dundee* was released in the USA on 26 September 1986. It proved a sensation, eventually becoming the second highest grossing film of the year in the United States, taking more than $174 million at the box office. Hogan also won a Golden Globe award for his performance, and the film was shown worldwide, from Argentina to Zimbabwe.

It placed Australian film firmly on the world stage, and was arguably the greatest boost to the Australian tourist industry ever. Hogan became the face of Australian tourism with his 'put another shrimp on the barbie' campaign. *Crocodile Dundee* 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 achieve anything like the success of the original film, it is unquestionably the most popular Australian film series of all time in terms of international success.



Source 8.36 Paul Hogan as Mick Dundee in *Crocodile Dundee*, 1986

Towards a global film industry

The American film industry – often referred to simply as 'Hollywood' after the Los Angeles suburb where their modern film industry started – is the most dominant force in world film. Its sheer financial power and deals with distributors mean that independent theatre owners in Australia are often disadvantaged financially if they do not show major Hollywood films. The power exerted by Hollywood has meant that government support and financial assistance has become essential for the Australian film industry to survive.

The success of small-scale films such as *Animal Kingdom* prove that this ongoing support for the Australian film industry is not wasted. *Animal Kingdom* won the 2010 AFI award for best film, and saw Jacki Weaver receive an Academy Award nomination for best supporting actress. Government support has allowed Australia to retain a viable and relevant film industry, essential for genuine cultural expression in the 21st century.

An alternative to Hollywood domination has emerged in the 21st century with the development of Australian links with India's thriving Bollywood film industry. The term Bollywood is a combination of two words: **B**ombay (the city at the heart of the Indian Hindi film industry – the city is now known as Mumbai) and H**ollywood** (a reference to the similarities between the industries in India and the USA). Indian film producers have prepared a handbook for working with Australian film producers and media, and many Bollywood films have started using Australia as an exotic backdrop during filming. By late 2006, major Indian films such as *Love Story 2050*, *Heyy Babyy* and *Chak De! India* were being filmed in Australia, and crews were routinely moving between Australia and India.

The development of major film production studios in Sydney, Melbourne and Queensland has meant that Australian studios have developed a high skill level, and major blockbusters such as *The Matrix* series and *Star Wars* episodes 2 and 3 have been made in Australian studios.

Australia's increasing cultural links with Asia have also seen *anime* (Japanese animated cartoons) emerge as an important element of the film scene. The Japanese *anime* film *Akira* (1988), became a cult hit in Australia, and was the predecessor of an art form that has gained increasing attraction in popular culture through the rise of video and computer games.



Source 8.37 A still from Bollywood movie *Love Story 2050*, shot in Australia in 2008

Check your learning 8.9

Remember and understand

1. What caused the slump in the Australian film industry from the 1950s?
2. What roles did John Gorton and Gough Whitlam play in changing the Australian film industry?
3. What is Australia's most successful film? How successful was it?
4. Why has government support been so important for Australian film makers?

Apply and analyse

5. What evidence is there from the film industry that Australia is moving closer to Asia?
6. How important is film in promoting Australia as a tourist destination? What films would you show overseas to promote Australia?

Changes in the television industry

The arrival of television in Australia in 1956 was a major catalyst for change. It ensured easy access to American popular culture, and the Menzies Government's decision not to apply any local content requirements meant that early television was dominated by American shows. Australian children grew up with the *Mickey Mouse Club* and *The Wonderful World of Disney*, while cowboys such as Roy Rogers and Hopalong Cassidy meant Australians became more familiar with the Wild West than with the outback. Crime-based shows such as *Perry Mason* and *Dragnet* were popular adult fare, and situation comedies (**sitcoms**) such as *Father Knows Best* and *I Love Lucy* also attracted large audiences.

Television expands

The early 1960s saw the expansion of television into more markets with the introduction of regional stations in places such as Gippsland in Victoria in 1961, and Newcastle in New South Wales the following year. The ABC also continued to expand nationally, and in 1964 a new commercial station 0 (Melbourne) and 10 (Sydney) commenced broadcasting. The introduction of a coaxial cable between Sydney and Melbourne paved the way for closer networking between stations in the two major Australian markets. This allowed for such innovations as a split screen that would allow Graham Kennedy in Melbourne and Don Lane in Sydney to appear



Source 8.38 A still from *Father Knows Best*, a 1950s US television program shown in Australia

simultaneously on the Nine network's *In Melbourne Tonight* (see Source 8.39).

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.

Television and 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 Australian Rules grand final between Collingwood and North Melbourne was the first shown live in Melbourne. The exciting draw showed that all football codes could be major drawcards in attracting viewers.



Source 8.39 Graham Kennedy hosting the television show *In Melbourne Tonight*, 1973



Source 8.40 The late Kerry Packer

Multicultural programming

The composition of the Australian population had changed significantly since World War II, and the establishment of the Special Broadcasting Services (SBS) in Melbourne and Sydney in 1980 under the Fraser Government was the first real mainstream media recognition of this. Broadcasting in a wide range of languages, it played a crucial role in helping immigrants adjust to Australian life. By the mid-1980s, SBS had expanded throughout most of the country.

Children growing up in 1960s Australia had been watching **multicultural** television without the term ever being used. Channel Nine had started showing a Japanese series called *The Samurai* in 1964 to cash in on the interest generated by the forthcoming Olympic Games in Tokyo. They invited viewers to write in if they wished to see more episodes and were deluged with positive replies. *The Samurai* became a massive hit in Australia.

The sight of children jumping from trees while flinging imaginary star knives became commonplace, as Australian viewers were introduced to the intricacies of medieval Japanese society. The success of *The Samurai* revealed the generation gap as vividly as had rock music. For the older people in Australian society, World War II had finished fewer than 20 years earlier, and inviting Japanese culture onto Australian television was unimaginable. For children brought up in the **Cold War**, the communist Russians were a more logical enemy than the Japanese; and Shintaro, hero of *The Samurai*, became a major popular culture figure in Australia.

Japanese *anime* was also introduced to Australian television viewers in the 1960s. *Astro Boy* was a mid-1960s favourite, and the Japanese-style drawing marked it as significantly different to the traditional American cartoons that were the staple of most afternoon television (see Source 8.41). Its futuristic plot where robots and humans coexist peacefully had resonance with the post-Cuba Cold War influenced world Australian children were growing up in. The cooperation theme was echoed in the other Japanese cartoon series to be a 1960s hit in Australia, *The Adventures of Kimba the White Lion*. By the time *Sailor Moon* arrived on Australian television screens in the 1990s, Australian viewers had long accepted *anime* as a form of television popular culture.



Source 8.41 A scene from *Astro Boy* (*Tetsuwan Atomu* or 'Iron Arm Atom'), 1963

Pay TV

The early 1990s saw two major changes to the Australian television landscape. A policy introduced by the Hawke Government meant that regional areas suddenly had access to three commercial channels rather than one. This meant that for the first time regional Australia was able to view virtually the same programs as people living in major cities.

The other change was the introduction of subscription (pay) television. The idea of paying for extra services was a major change to the way Australians viewed television. Paying for something that had always been free (except for television licenses, which had been removed in 1974 by the Whitlam Government), went against the general Australian understanding of the medium.

The first pay TV provider was Galaxy, which commenced operation in 1995. Foxtel, Optus and Austar were introduced to the market in 1995, and by 1998 Foxtel had absorbed Galaxy. The first major impact of pay TV was the Super League rugby league war. Rugby league had proved a popular sport on television, and Rupert Murdoch's News Ltd realised it would be a key to their investment in Foxtel being profitable. In an attempt to secure exclusive broadcast rights, News Ltd secretly signed clubs and players to create a breakaway competition. Court action during 1995 and 1996 failed to resolve the dispute, and two competitions existed in 1997. The warring parties came together in 1998, with

News Ltd gaining a 50 per cent partnership in the running of rugby league as well as obtaining broadcast rights for most games for their Foxtel network.

Sport has been the main driver in encouraging people to sign up for pay TV, but numbers have stabilised. By the end of 2010, 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.



Source 8.42 Sport has been the main driver in encouraging people to sign up for pay TV

The digital revolution

The Australian Government committed the country to a digital-only television platform by mid-2010. This was a new means of broadcasting which was slowly implemented across the country from January 1, 2001. Digital broadcasting meant higher quality of image and sound, as well as additional channels. Free-to-air stations were given the opportunity to broadcast smaller niche channels, and each commercial network has developed a number of spinoff channels. The Ten network for example, launched 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 variety of free-to-air options on pay TV is one of the big questions facing Australian television.



Source 8.43 In Australia there are five major networks that broadcast digital television.

Check your learning 8.10

Remember and understand

1. Why was the development of communication satellites so important for Australian television?
2. What was the first sporting event broadcast live in Australia?
3. What was the 1960s television show that looked at Japanese medieval history?
4. Name the two sports that had major splits over the purchase of television rights.

Apply and analyse

5. Why is sport so important to Australian television? What examples could you use to prove this?
6. Explain why 1960s Australian children's television indicates that there was a generation gap in Australian society.

Evaluate and create

7. Which events do you think should be guaranteed free-to-air television broadcasting?

8.3 big**ideas:** rich task

Singles charts

Singles charts have been around for almost as long as there has been recorded music. Rock'n'roll record charts are a valuable primary source for historians. They can give a valuable insight into what was popular at a particular time, the origin of popular culture influences, and names of significant individuals and groups that had an impact in a specific time and place. Like all sources, they then have to be interpreted.

In 1966 the Melbourne pop music newspaper, *Go-Set*, introduced the first national Top 40 song charts in Australia. By doing so, *Go-Set* helped young people stay entertained and informed about the latest news in the pop culture scene.

The *Go-Set* charts were succeeded in 1974 by the Kent Music Report, which published national top 100 charts. In 1988 these charts were taken on by the Australian Recording Industry Association (ARIA), which continues to publish today.

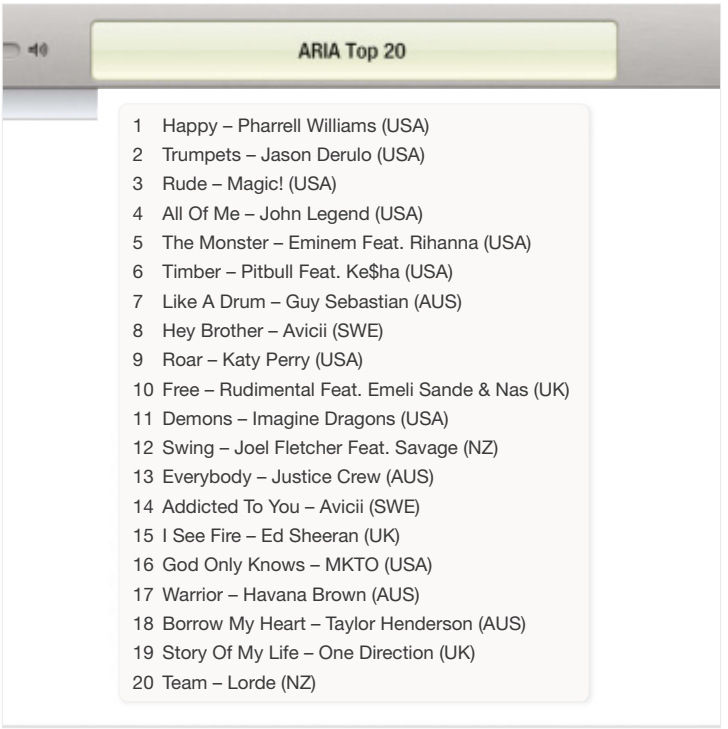
By using sales data from radio stations and retail stores, singles charts are an accurate way of keeping track of the most popular music from a particular time in history. However, songs that were extremely popular in their time do not always seem so significant years later.

In 1980, Australian singer Joe Dolce's single, *Shaddap You Face*, went to Number 1 on the Australian pop charts. It eventually sold more than 350 000 copies Australia-wide and was the most successful Australian-produced single for 33 years. Despite this, many people born in the years since *Shaddap You Face* was released have never heard it played.

By contrast, rock band Cold Chisel's song, *Khe Sanh*, peaked at 41 on the national charts when it was released in 1978. In the decades since, *Khe Sanh*'s significance as a song about a Vietnam War veteran trying to cope with Australian life has been increasingly recognised. In 2001 the Australian Performing Rights Association ranked *Khe Sanh* eighth in its Top 10 Australian Songs of All Time. It is commonly heard in music venues and on the radio.



Source 8.44 *Go-Set* Australian Top 20, 17 August 1974



Source 8.45 ARIA Australian Top 20, January 2014



Source 8.46 Joe Dolce's 1980 single, *Shaddap You Face* went to number 1 on the Australian pop charts.

skill**drill**

Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different perspectives, points of view, attitudes and values. People who create sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs, their life experiences and the time in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when applying this skill:

Step 1 Identify the historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify their role or position in society.

Step 4 Locate some primary sources that provide evidence about their point of view or opinion on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? Was it meant for one person's eyes, or for the public? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? What were they trying to get across? Is the message explicit (obvious), or are there implicit (subtle) messages as well? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What about the silences – what does the author choose *not* to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? For example, do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? (Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology etc.) How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 In one paragraph, explain why the Top 20 charts are primary sources.

2 Select and listen to three songs from each of the two Top 20 charts provided in Sources 8.44 and 8.45. In one or two paragraphs for each question, use the steps shown above to answer the following:

a How can music charts help us to learn more about the perspectives of people from the past?

b What limitations do music charts present to anyone seeking to make conclusions about cultural perspectives?

Extend your understanding

Refer once again to the two Top 20 charts provided in Sources 8.44 and 8.45 and use the information you have learned in this chapter to complete the following:

1 Identify the elements of continuity and the elements of cultural change that have occurred between the two charts.

2 Explain how a historian investigating the impact of American and British popular culture on Australia could use these sources.

8.4 What contributions has Australia made to international popular culture?

Australian music reaches the world



Source 8.47 The Jezabels performing in 2011 at the Great Escape Festival in Brighton, England – bands such as the Jezabels are taking Australian rock'n'roll to the world

Rock'n'roll established itself as a significant part of Australian popular culture by the late 1950s. Rock'n'roll quickly became associated with teenagers, and the challenge would be whether it could change and adapt as these teenagers grew older.

The first wave of Australian rock'n'rollers, who followed Johnny O'Keefe's example in the 1957–63 period, stayed in Australia. Rock'n'roll was still considered a novelty, and many musicians were amazed they could get paid for having such fun. The Beatles and other bands made famous during the beat boom of the 1960s made rock'n'roll an international business and broke the American monopoly on originality. The explosion of Australian acts after The Beatles' tour of Australia in 1964 developed a uniquely Australian take on rock'n'roll.

Widespread success

The significant contribution that Australian music has made to international popular culture could not always be measured in record sales. Brisbane band The Go-Betweens became the favourite band of music lovers across three continents without ever having a major hit record. Bands such as Men at Work, INXS and Midnight Oil certainly sold more records internationally, but The Go-Betweens, whose music was described as 'striped sunlight sound', took Brisbane to the world.

Despite this, the desire to achieve overseas success has continued to drive Australian acts to this day.

key**concept:** significance

The Easybeats

The Easybeats are regarded by many as the greatest Australian rock'n'roll band of the 1960s. The band formed at Villawood Migrant Hostel in Sydney. After becoming the biggest band in Australia in 1965, they travelled to England in search of international success. They recorded their song *Friday on My Mind* in London in 1966. Not only did the song reach the Top 10 in England and Top 20 in the USA, but it made The Easybeats major European stars. The song is still played regularly on many classic hits radio stations across America, and was a feature of the 2009 British film, *The Boat that Rocked* about a pirate radio station in the 1960s. Arguably the greatest recognition of the song's impact on a global stage was a tribute found on Bruce Springsteen's 1980 album *The River*. At the end of the second verse of the popular song *Out in the Street*, Springsteen sings, 'I've already got Friday on my mind'. For an artist with Springsteen's deep understanding of rock'n'roll history, this showed just what a major contribution The Easybeats made to international popular culture.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 8.48 Australian rock band The Easybeats photographed on 17 November 1966

This type of success 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 a key venue is another measure of cultural achievement. INXS at Wembley Stadium in London in 1991 and the John Butler Trio in 2010 at Red Rocks in Colorado are two examples. It has been a continuity in Australian cultural life that overseas success is widely regarded as the measure of 'making it'. A study of the tour itinerary of 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 8.49 Daniel Jones and Darren Hayes of Savage Garden perform on stage at the Melbourne Glasshouse in 1998

Check your learning 8.11

Remember and understand

1. What evidence is there that Australian musicians achieved international success in the 1960s?
2. Which Bruce Springsteen song is linked to The Easybeats' *Friday on My Mind*?
3. In what ways can international success for Australian musicians be measured?

Evaluate and create

4. Research the career of *one* of the following: The Easybeats, The Twilights or Normie Rowe. How important do you think your chosen subject is in Australian cultural history?
5. With a partner, debate the suggestion that music is Australia's most significant cultural export since World War II.

Significant individuals: The Go-Betweens

The Go-Betweens' story started in Brisbane when university students Robert Forster and Grant McLennan met in 1977. A shared interest in popular culture, particularly American music and film, led to the formation of a band in 1978. Brisbane at this time was quite conservative. The atmosphere contributed to the band's decision to move overseas.

Political climate in Brisbane

The Queensland Government of Joh Bjelke-Petersen (Premier from 1968 to 1987) was well-known for suppressing opposition political activity. As Premier, Bjelke-Petersen extended the rights of police to deal with any dissent. Youth and Indigenous Australians were specific targets, and creative artists such as The Go-Betweens found it easier and safer to leave Brisbane. (A number of police and government ministers were later found to be corrupt in the Fitzgerald Inquiry.)

Early successes

In 1980, The Go-Betweens were joined by Lindy Morrison on drums, Robert Vickers on bass guitar and Amanda Brown on oboe, violin and guitar. The group initially moved to Melbourne, and then England, where their second album, *Before Hollywood*, was recorded in 1983. A series of



Source 8.50 The Go-Betweens in 1988 – from left to right Amanda Brown, John Wilsteed, Grant McLennan, Robert Forster and Lindy Morrison

critically acclaimed albums followed in the 1980s. Based in London for most of the decade, the band toured constantly, expanding their base of supporters from Europe to include North America. The final album of the original band was *16 Lovers Lane*, released in 1988, which saw their greatest commercial success with the single *Streets of Your Town*.

The group disbanded in 1989, but Forster and McLennan continued to occasionally perform together at a variety of venues around the world. A new line-up of The Go-Betweens emerged in 2000, and a further three albums were released. *Oceans Apart* finally won mainstream recognition with an ARIA award in 2005. The band formally disbanded after Grant McLennan died in 2006 in Brisbane.

Impact of The Go-Betweens

In terms of record sales, The Go-Betweens had minimal impact on world popular culture. Yet there were messages from 18 different countries on the band's website after the death of McLennan. That alone shows the impact they had on the lives of individuals on a global scale.

To understand the true impact of The Go-Betweens, however, it is important to consider their influence on artists. Obvious tributes included a Swedish rock band called Kent playing *Quiet Heart* as a tribute to McLennan at a Swedish festival, the Splendour in the Grass Festival naming one of its performance sites the GW McLennan tent, and a new bridge opened in 2010 across the Brisbane River being named the Go-Between Bridge after a public competition.

All these examples indicate a band that had a major effect. However, Robert Christgau's proclamation in New York's influential *Village Voice* that 'Robert Forster and Grant McLennan are the greatest song writing partnership working today' indicated their ongoing contribution at the highest level. Christgau is widely regarded as an important rock critic, and no Australian musical act had ever received such extravagant praise in such an important publication. Even the American television show *24* included a company called McLennan-Forster as a tribute to the band.



Source 8.51 The Go-Between's second single, *People Say*, released in 1979

When U2 started the final leg of their *Vertigo* tour in Brisbane in 2006, they dedicated the show to Grant McLennan. Bono sang *Streets of Your Town* twice during the band's concert, moving smoothly into the song during both *Elevation* and *Where the Streets Have No Name*. U2 have also named The Go-Betweens' 1982 song *Cattle and Cane* on their list of the greatest rock'n'roll songs of all time.

As a popular culture, rock'n'roll has to change and evolve to survive. U2 have been able to do that, and the contribution of bands such as The Go-Betweens to inspire U2 is part of the global evolution of rock'n'roll as a popular culture.



Source 8.52 Surviving members of The Go-Betweens with Brisbane Mayor Campbell Newman (second left) – they are shown walking across the Go-Between Bridge in inner-city Brisbane, named in their honour in 2010

Check your learning 8.12

Remember and understand

1. What did Robert Forster and Grant McLennan have in common?
2. What made The Go-Betweens leave Brisbane?
3. With which song did they have the greatest success?
4. Explain why U2 dedicated their 2006 show in Brisbane to Grant McLennan.

Apply and analyse

5. What evidence is there to support the view that The Go-Betweens had a major impact on popular culture on an international level?

Evaluate and create

6. What makes The Go-Betweens significant?

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.

As discussed, in 1986 *Crocodile Dundee* became the highest grossing Australian film of all time because of its international success. Its celebration of Australia as a laid-back culture with a vast outback full of strange wildlife and interesting characters became a highly marketable vision of Australia. This was followed up with 1994's *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert* (see Source 8.53). Although also bringing Australia's outback scenery onto the screen, the film has been both praised and condemned for its presentation of a variety of sexual preferences and approaches. Its positive depiction of cross-dressing entertainers certainly helped to make it a significant film, and contributed to its international success.

The film gave rise to a musical version, *Priscilla Queen of the Desert* in 2006. This was another example of popular culture changing and evolving over time, and marked a further Australian contribution to international popular culture. The show, based on the film, has mounted successful productions in London, Toronto and New York, with plans for a further American and an Italian tour. The film won an Academy Award for costume design, and the stage versions won a further award on New York's Broadway in 2011.



Source 8.53 A still from *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert*, 1994, starring Hugo Weaving, Terence Stamp and Guy Pearce

key**concept:** contestability

Gallipoli (1981)

The 1981 film *Gallipoli* was a major example of the revival of the Australian film industry. Directed by Peter Weir, and starring Mark Lee and Mel Gibson, it not only dramatised the role of Australian troops at Gallipoli, but also linked the Australian soldiers to Australian cultural values such as mateship, larrikinism and a disdain of authority.

The film focused on Western Australian members of the Australian Light Horse enlisting, training in Egypt and finally participating in World War I. The film shows the attempt to capture The Nek on the Gallipoli Peninsula from the Turks. Written by playwright David Williamson, it placed the blame for the needless slaughter of Australian troops firmly on the shoulders of the British leadership. Criticisms of the factual content of the film have been made. These include: The Nek was a diversion for New Zealand troops, not the British; other groups such as the Royal Welsh Fusiliers also suffered losses trying to support the Australians at The Nek; the failure to call off the attack was an Australian, not a British decision.

The film has proved just how influential popular culture can be. Historical inaccuracies have been shrugged off, and it has become a staple of high school history lessons since its release. It has contributed to the elevation of Gallipoli to almost mythical status in Australian history. Since 1981, successive curriculums have focused on Gallipoli as the most significant campaign of World War I for Australia. This is despite its unsuccessful outcome and the far greater losses and higher stakes on the Western Front in France.

By linking the Gallipoli campaign so closely to Australian identity and values such as 'mateship', the film also fostered the politicisation of the Gallipoli campaign. Before 1981, it was an important part of Australia's historical story, but was not politicised or mythologised. In 1990, Prime Minister Bob Hawke travelled to Gallipoli for a Dawn Service with veterans and called the site 'a part of Australia'. John Howard visited there in 2000 and 2005, although his 2005 visit attracted criticism because of his decision to attend a barbecue with Australian soldiers on the beach rather than attend the New Zealand service. The downplaying of the New Zealand contribution to the Anzac legend and the criticism of British leaders have been two aspects of the politicisation of the Gallipoli campaign since the release of the film in 1981. Former Prime Minister Paul Keating ignited further controversy in 2008 when he said, 'the truth is that Gallipoli was shocking for us. Dragged into service by the imperial government in an ill-conceived and poorly executed campaign, we were cut to ribbons and dispatched – and none of it in the defence of Australia'. Keating was roundly condemned for expressing a sentiment that was common in the 1970s.

Perhaps the best evidence of the lasting impact of the film is that it was denied government funding because it was seen as 'uncommercial'. A decade later the Australian government started the process of linking Gallipoli, Anzac Day and Australian identity tightly together with the Dawn Service.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 8.54 A still from *Gallipoli,* 1981, starring Mel Gibson

Check your learning 8.13

Remember and understand

1 What image of Australia have the films mentioned here portrayed?

Apply and analyse

2 Argue whether you think the film *Gallipoli* did or did not change attitudes to the Gallipoli campaign.

Evaluate and create

3 Is historical accuracy important for a film such as *Gallipoli*?

4 Develop an advertising campaign to attract visitors to Australia using images from *The Adventures of Priscilla, Queen of the Desert.*

Australian television

Australian television suffered initially because of the Menzies Government's decision to not require a **quota** of locally produced shows when television was launched in 1956. As a result, Australian television was filled by American, and to a lesser extent, British popular culture. Despite occasional hit shows, and moments of real originality, such as *The Mavis Bramston Show*, it is difficult to talk about an Australian industry with the potential to contribute globally until the 1980s.

Skippy the Bush Kangaroo

Australians had finally accepted Australian stories on television with the success of *Bellbird* from 1967, and the great soapie boom of the 1970s with *Number 96*, *The Box*, *The Sullivans* and *The Restless Years*. *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo*, which had been made in Sydney between 1966 and 1968, went international. The stories of the adventures of an incredibly perceptive kangaroo that guided his human friends to safety and captured baddies with ease presented a distinctly Australian vision to the world.

Skippy's international success was unique at the time. It was sold to the United States and Canada, was translated into Spanish and sold throughout Latin America, where it gave many people their only knowledge of Australia. It was sold in countries as culturally diverse as Spain and Iran. The one country *Skippy* could not get into was Sweden, where authorities refused to show it because they were afraid it would give children false ideas about the capabilities of animals.



Source 8.55 Actor Garry Pankhurst as Sonny Hammond with Skippy in a scene from the television show *Skippy the Bush Kangaroo*

From *Prisoner* to *Wilfred*

While Australian music and film had made inroads into the American market, Australian television had traditionally been more closely linked to Britain. Culturally the links to Britain had always been strong, and a shared sense of humour often meant that British and Australian shows were incomprehensible to American audiences.

The premiere of *Prisoner* in 1979 was the start of Australia producing shows that had some potential to influence the global marketplace. *Prisoner* ran from 1979 to 1986 in Australia, but developed strong audiences in Britain and Sweden particularly. By being set in a women's prison it often dealt with controversial social topics such as sexuality, drugs and domestic violence. Despite its often grim content, *Prisoner* generated at least two different stage productions in Britain, and provided employment for many of its actors on the British theatre circuit.

The success of *Prisoner* paved the way for the *Neighbours* and *Home and Away* phenomenon that began in the 1980s. The attractiveness of the Australian lifestyle depicted in these two shows helped boost their popularity in the gloomier climates of northern Europe.

At the start of the 21st century, the hit comedy *Kath and Kim* was remade for American audiences. The show's success in European markets had alerted the Americans to its potential, but they felt the Australian slang and humour would make it incomprehensible in the United States. The American version lasted only a season, and was a failure both in the USA and when shown on Australian television.

A more recent Australian export to the United States is *Wilfred* (see Source 8.56). 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.

key**concept:** significance

Chris Lilley

Chris Lilley started parodying Australian life in 2005 when *We Can Be Heroes* appeared on Australian television. It was followed in 2007 with *Summer Heights High*. Both shows created controversial but memorable characters that reflected aspects of the Australian character. Both shows were also sold to overseas markets, including the USA and UK, and *Summer Heights High* reached markets as far afield as Togo and Kenya.

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 showings should be included in ratings figures. The sense of anticipation for the show was highlighted by the emergence of *Angry Boys* and 'Gran' as worldwide trending topics on social media network Twitter as the first episode went to air. The rich characterisations ensured that Lilley will continue to be a pivotal figure in the contribution of Australian television at an international level.



Source 8.57 Actor comedian Chris Lilley as character Ja'mie King from the television program *We Can Be Heroes*

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 8.56 A still from the television program *Wilfred*

Check your learning 8.14

Remember and understand

1. What was the first Australian television show to have any real impact internationally?
2. Why did Sweden refuse to show *Skippy*?
3. Which two Australian shows have been remade in the United States in the 21st century?
4. How have the settings of Chris Lilley's series changed as he has moved from *We Can Be Heroes* to *Angry Boys*?

Apply and analyse

5. Why would *Summer Heights High* sell in Togo and Kenya?

Evaluate and create

6. What do you think Chris Lilley has contributed to international popular culture?
7. Select one of Chris Lilley's characters and prepare a Facebook page for them.

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 Charles Perkins (soccer) used sport as an entry into broader public life.

The Australian cricket team dominated international cricket for much of the 1990s and 2000s, and contributed a great deal to the sport in terms of preparation, professionalism and developing technology. After the television-driven split of the late 1970s, Australia has led the world in presenting cricket as a television sport to a mass audience. These innovations had a particular influence in South Asia, where the broadcasting of cricket is a highly valued marketing opportunity.

The major football codes have all struggled to establish a strong national foothold in Australia. State rivalries have seen different codes have stronger appeal in specific states. Australian Rules has its heartland in the southern and western states, while the two rugby codes have traditionally been strongest in New South Wales and Queensland. Australian Rules has proved particularly popular with Indigenous Australians, with such illustrious names as Doug Nicholls, Graham 'Polly' Farmer, Adam Goodes and Lance 'Buddy' Franklin establishing outstanding reputations as footballers.



Source 8.58 Australian cricketers with captain Michael Clarke (front right) celebrate their victory following the fifth and final One Day International match against Sri Lanka in Colombo in August 2011

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 more than 200 member associations. Football's World Cup is only rivalled by the Olympics for global interest, and estimates of more than 3 billion followers worldwide allow it to claim the title of the 'world game'.

Football in Australia has a long history, with the first recorded game being played in 1879. This was only 20 years after Australian Rules football became organised in Melbourne, and 15 years after Sydney University established the first rugby union club in Australia. Rugby league, in contrast, did not start until 1908.

Football in the 20th century has largely been regarded as a 'migrant sport', meaning that only people from overseas played it. Former Australian football captain Johnny Warren, who played in Australia's first World Cup finals team in 1974, called his memoir *Sheilas, Wogs and Poofters*. This reflected the way many mainstream Australians mocked football for most of the 20th century.

The irony of football being perceived as mainly a game for migrants in the 20th century was that the composition of the various football leagues was a much more accurate reflection of post-World War II Australia than any other sport. As a nation built on migration, football represented the greatest opportunity for any single sport to truly represent modern Australia.

World Cup finals qualification has traditionally been the greatest prize in world football, and Australia qualified only once in the 20th century – in 1974 in West Germany. The team failed to score a goal during those finals, with a draw against Chile providing its only point. Subsequent campaigns promised much, but ultimately failed as Australia was drawn to play against teams in Europe, Asia and South America in the final stages of qualifying.

In 2005, a new national competition, the A-League, was launched as part of a rebranding of Australian football. 'Old soccer' became 'new football', and even the term 'Socceroos', was briefly abandoned. However, the public refused to let the name go and it was as the Socceroos that Australia attempted qualification for the 2006 World Cup finals – again held in Germany.



Source 8.59 The Socceroos in 2011

To reach the World Cup finals, Australia had to defeat Uruguay in a two-legged qualification final. As two-time World Cup winners, Uruguay had a proud footballing heritage, and had knocked Australia out at the same stage of qualification in 2001.

Australia lost the first leg in Montevideo 1–0. The team flew back to Australia to play the game that would decide the final qualification spot for the 2006 World Cup. In front of more than 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. It secured Australia a spot in the World Cup finals.

The squad that represented Australia against Uruguay mirrored the audience that cheered them on in the stadium and on television. Although all proudly Australian, the team represented the post-war Australian migration boom. There were Australians of Croatian, German, Slovenian, Italian, Samoan, English, Greek and New Zealand heritage.

The joy that greeted Australia's qualification represented recognition of the unique role football plays in Australian society. As the most popular sport to play, it also captured the aspirations of a multicultural Australia in a way no other component of Australian society has.

The Matildas

The Matildas is the name given to the Australian women's football (soccer) team. Formed in 1978, it was named after the famous Banjo Patterson lyric 'Waltzing Matilda'. Like many women's sporting teams, it has struggled for mainstream media attention. This was highlighted by the decision of the 1998 Matildas to compile a nude calendar as an attempt to raise funds and lift the team's profile. Although it did generate media coverage to support its qualification for the 1999 World Cup, in some circles it was seen as demeaning and a setback for women's sport.

The World Cup has been a much more achievable target for the Matildas than it has for the Socceroos. The team has qualified for each World Cup since 1995, and in 2011 played arguably the best football played by any Australian team in reaching the last eight in the world. This followed its success in winning Australia's first major international football trophy, when the team 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.



Source 8.60 The Matildas, 2011

Check your learning 8.15

Remember and understand

1. What has Australian cricket contributed to the sport internationally?
2. When did Australia first qualify for football's World Cup? How long did it take to qualify again?
3. Name some of the backgrounds represented in the Socceroos team that defeated Uruguay in 2005.

Apply and analyse

4. In what ways do the Socceroos and Matildas represent a modern Australia?
5. Explain why Johnny Warren called his memoir *Sheilas, Wogs and Poofters.*

Evaluate and create

6. Design a campaign that could convince FIFA to award a future Women's or Men's World Cup to Australia to host.

8.4 big**ideas:** rich task

‘Ozploitation’

The Australian New Wave movement of the early 1970s through to the mid-1980s marked the revival of Australian cinema. Nearly 400 movies were produced during these years, more than had ever been made in the history of the Australian film industry. The Australian New Wave movement is best remembered for critically acclaimed movies such as *Picnic at Hanging Rock* (1975) and *Gallipoli* (1981). However, at the same time, a series of low-budget B-grade movies were being produced.

These films exploited controversial themes such as sex, horror, adrenalin-fuelled action and ocker comedy in order to excite audiences and become hits at the box office. Hollywood director Quentin Tarantino became a fan of these Australian ‘exploitation films’ like *Patrick* (1978) and *Mad Max* (1979). In a 2008 documentary, *Not Quite Hollywood*, Tarantino used the term ‘Aussiesploitation’ to describe these films. This was later shortened to ‘Ozploitation’. Tarantino even cited *Patrick*, the 1978 Australian horror film about a coma patient with psychic powers, as influencing his own blockbuster *Kill Bill* films (2003–04).

Today, ‘Ozploitation films’ are remembered as some of the most defining artefacts of Australian popular culture.

Violence, car chases and nudity were common themes in these films. The films were frequently R-rated. Many critics also viewed them as having less ‘artistic merit’ than other mainstream Australian films being made at the same time. In a 1979 article titled ‘The Pornography of Violence’, film maker and commentator Phillip Adams expressed his reaction to the new post-apocalyptic road movie, *Mad Max*.

Source 8.61

I saw a preview of *Mad Max* one Friday morning and was still feeling shaken with revulsion 12 hours later. My first reaction was to ring Ken Watts at the Australian Film Commission for fear there may have been government money in this diabolical opus.

The *Bulletin*, 1 May 1979, pages 38–41

Source 8.62

I always remember that actor. I thought he was amazing looking, with his eyes wide open and everything, and in the original script I had it written like that. I showed it to Uma, and she goes ‘I’m not gonna do that’, and I go ‘Why?’ She goes ‘You wouldn’t have your eyes wide open like that if you were in a coma. That’s not realistic.’

And I go ‘Actually, I never thought was it realistic or not, it’s just Patrick did it, and it looked really cool!’

An extract of an interview with Quentin Tarantino from the documentary *Not Quite Hollywood*, 2008

Despite their often poor reputation at home, many Australian action films did well overseas. *Mad Max* was immensely successful, earning $100 million worldwide and spawning a trilogy of high-budget films. It also launched the international careers of lead actor Mel Gibson and director George Miller.



Source 8.63 Director Quentin Tarantino was heavily influenced by 'Ozploitation' films like *Patrick* (1978) when writing and filming the blockbuster *Kill Bill* films (2003–04).

skill**drill**

Identify and locate relevant sources using ICT and other methods

Being able to locate relevant primary and secondary sources using the Internet is an important historical skill. However, you need to keep in mind that not all information you find on the Internet is necessarily true, accurate, reliable or credible. So, in addition to being able to find source material online, you need to be able to evaluate the reliability and credibility of the information you find. Use the following steps to apply this skill:

Step 1 Identify key words related to your topic and type these into a search engine such as Google. (Use only key words – do not type in whole sentences or questions.)

Step 2 Add further relevant key words to refine your search if you cannot find what you want on your first attempts.

Step 3 Look beyond the first page of results. The best results do not always appear first.

Step 4 Assess the reliability of each site by asking yourself the following questions:

- Who is the author or creator? If it is an individual, does this person have credentials listed (for example, a degree, title?) If it is an organisation, is it a reputable organisation such as a government or university department?
- What is the purpose of the website? Is it trying to inform, persuade or sell?
- Is the site objective? Is the author's point of view biased?
- Is the information accurate? Can the information be verified if you cross-check it with other sources of information?
- Does the site contain spelling mistakes or grammatical errors? (If so, this is usually an indication that the site is not particularly reliable.)
- Is the information current? Can you find evidence of recent updates?

Apply the skill

1 Using the steps outlined above, conduct an Internet search to find relevant, credible and reliable source material about the making and reception of:
   a three Australian action or thriller films created and released between 1971 and 1985
   b three other more famous Australian films of the new wave era.

2 Copy the data chart in Source 8.63 into your notebook. Read the source material you have located and record the key points in the appropriate column. Make sure you also record the URLs of the sites you have used.

Source 8.64

Action films						
	URL	**Title**	**Budget**	**Distribution**	**Reception**	**Earnings**
Source 1						
Source 2						
Source 3						
Mainstream new wave films						
Source 1						
Source 2						
Source 3						

Extend your understanding

Refer to the information about Australian New Wave cinema in this chapter and use the Internet to find posters of two highly acclaimed films from this era (for example, *Picnic at Hanging Rock* or *My Brilliant Career*).

1 Write a report explaining how a historian could use the differences in how the films are promoted to draw conclusions about the different perspectives of audiences during that era.



depth study – option

Migration experiences

Australia is a nation built on migration. Since the end of World War II, more than seven million new migrants have settled here. Some have come seeking better opportunities. Others have come to escape conflicts, disasters or persecution elsewhere. Major world events, such as the Vietnam War, have influenced the range and number of people arriving in Australia. As a result, government policies have evolved under successive leaders to manage the numbers and types of people wishing to settle here. With time, policies that discriminated on the basis of race have been replaced by a system based on skills and eligibility. With one in four Australians born overseas, migration has made Australia the culturally and ethnically diverse nation it is today.

9.1

How have world events influenced migration to Australia since World War II?

1 Brainstorm three important world events that have taken place since 1945 and discuss how these events might have affected migration to Australia. Do you know anyone who came to Australia as a result of these events?

9.2

How have government policies influenced migration to Australia since World War II?

1 At the end of World War II, most Australians supported immigration policies that restricted people's entry based on their race. Today, people from all over the world are accepted. What factors do you think led to this change?



chapter 9

Source 9.1 Refugees fleeing the war in Vietnam for the safety of Australia during the 1970s often had to escape on cargo boats. Many were forced to wait at sea before disembarking and being sent to refugee camps.

9.3

How did the Vietnam War affect migration to Australia?

1 What affect do you think the Vietnam War had on the types of people coming to Australia?

2 Why do you think so many Vietnamese people risked their lives by travelling on boats to Australia during the Vietnam War?

9.4

How has migration shaped Australia's identity and global relationships?

1 Australia is now a culturally diverse society made up of people from many different cultural, religious and ethnic groups. List some of these groups and think about the contributions they have made to Australian culture in terms of food, art, sport, entertainment and so on.

Migration experiences: a timeline



Arthur Calwell was appointed Australia's first Minister for Immigration in 1945

1901
Australia federates; Commonwealth Parliament passes the *Immigration Restriction Act* limiting immigration to Australia based on race; this policy together with others forms the basis of the White Australia policy (which included a dictation test to prevent non-whites from gaining entry to Australia).

1939–1945
World War II; migration to Australia effectively stops.

1945
Chifley Government begins post-war 'populate or perish' program to boost migration; Australia's first federal Minister for Immigration is appointed.

1946
International Refugee Organization founded; Australia seeks displaced persons from post-war Europe.

1947
'Ten Pound Pom' scheme begins; Big Brother Movement and child migration increased.

1949
Construction begins on Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme employing thousands of migrant workers.

1950
Colombo Plan to assist regional development in Asia begins.

1955–1975
The Vietnam War lasts for 20 years.

1955
Australia joins SEATO (Southeast Asia Treaty Organization), an organisation that aimed to contain the spread of communism.

1958
Revised *Migration Act* passed, introducing a simpler system of entry permits and as a result the dictation test is abolished – this had been a barrier for many non-Europeans attempting to migrate to Australia.

1973
Whitlam Government formally abolishes White Australia policy.

1975
Racial Discrimination Act passed.

1976–1982
First wave of 2000 Vietnamese refugees arrives in Australia by boat.

1900 | 1940 | 1950 | 1970



This badge from 1910 was produced by the Australian Natives' Association, a group made up of Australian-born whites – the prime minister at the time, Alfred Deakin, was a member



Vietnamese refugees aboard the fishing vessel *Song Saigon* arriving in Darwin in 1979

Source 9.2 A timeline of some key events and developments regarding migration in Australia

Crowds at North Cronulla on the day of the Cronulla riots



In 2013, Tony Abbott was elected Prime Minister of Australia after a campaign that focused heavily on stopping the flow of asylum seeker boats to Australia



1977
Multiculturalism becomes the official Australian Government policy.

1989
Second wave of boat arrivals, from Cambodia, Vietnam and Southern China.

1992
Keating Government introduces mandatory detention of asylum seekers.

1997
One Nation Party launched on anti-immigration platform.

1999
Third wave of boat arrivals, predominantly from the Middle East.

2001
Yearly asylum seeker boat arrivals exceed 5000 people; the Howard Government's handling of Tampa and 'children overboard' affairs spark local and international condemnation.

2001–2007
Howard Government implements Pacific Solution (offshore processing of asylum seekers in Nauru and Manus Island, Papua New Guinea).

2005
Cronulla riots in Sydney cause racially-motivated violence.

2009–2013
Huge spike in asylum seeker boat arrivals to Australia during this period; more than 17000 arrivals in 2012 alone.

2013
Rudd Government implements the PNG Solution, resettling all new boat arrivals in Papua New Guinea; Tony Abbott elected to government after a campaign focused on 'stopping the boats'.

1990 2000 2010

Check your learning 9.1

Remember and understand

1 How did Australia's migration policies change in the five years following World War II?
2 When did the White Australia policy begin and when was it formally abolished?
3 Identify some of the military conflicts Australian troops have fought in during the 20th century. How did these conflicts affect migration to Australia?

Apply and analyse

4 A number of events are highlighted in the timeline relating to asylum seekers arriving in Australia by boat. Using the timeline, identify how patterns of boat arrivals have changed since the 1970s. How do you think these patterns have affected government policy?
5 Use the timeline to determine the number of years the White Australia policy was enforced in Australia.

9.1 How have world events influenced migration to Australia since World War II?

Australia: an immigration nation

Modern Australia has been created and shaped by national and international population movements. From the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788 – loaded with almost 1500 convicts, sailors and soldiers – Australia has been populated by waves of immigrants. First, penal colonies at Sydney, Port Arthur and Fremantle were established. Then large numbers of migrants from Great Britain and Ireland came to establish towns and farms. By the 1860s more than 75 per cent of the population was of Anglo–Celtic origin. This figure remains at about 70 per cent to this day. From the middle of the 19th century, immigrants arrived from across Asia and the Pacific, and new settlers continued to flow from Europe.

During the 1900s, immigrants from Britain continued to dominate. An immigration policy that discriminated against all non-white migrants – known as the **White Australia policy** – was enacted in the first days of the new nation in 1901 and remained in place until the 1970s.

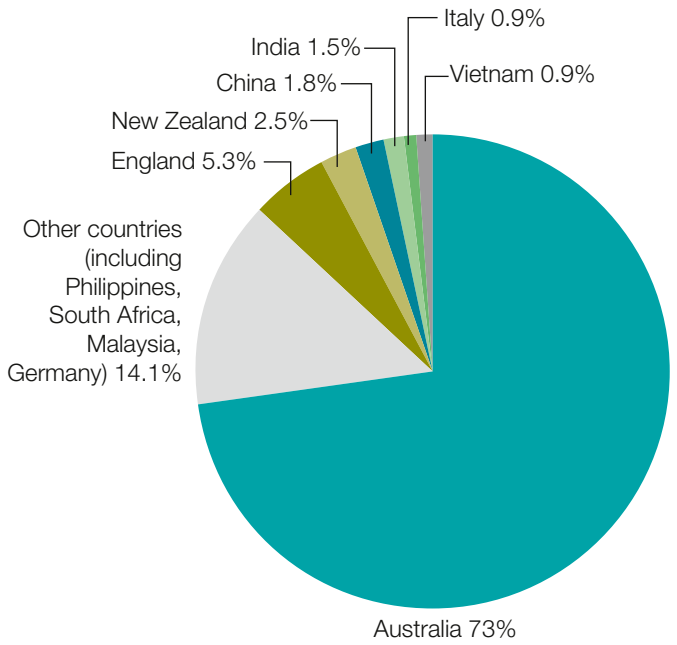
The end of World War II in 1945 saw waves of migrants come to Australia from southern European countries such as Italy and Greece. As immigration policies evolved, these waves were followed by others from the Middle East, Asia and South America.

Because of our history, the Australian population is much more racially and ethnically diverse than other long-established countries in Europe and Asia such as France and Japan. Just like the United States, Canada, New Zealand and Argentina, modern Australia is a nation of immigrants.

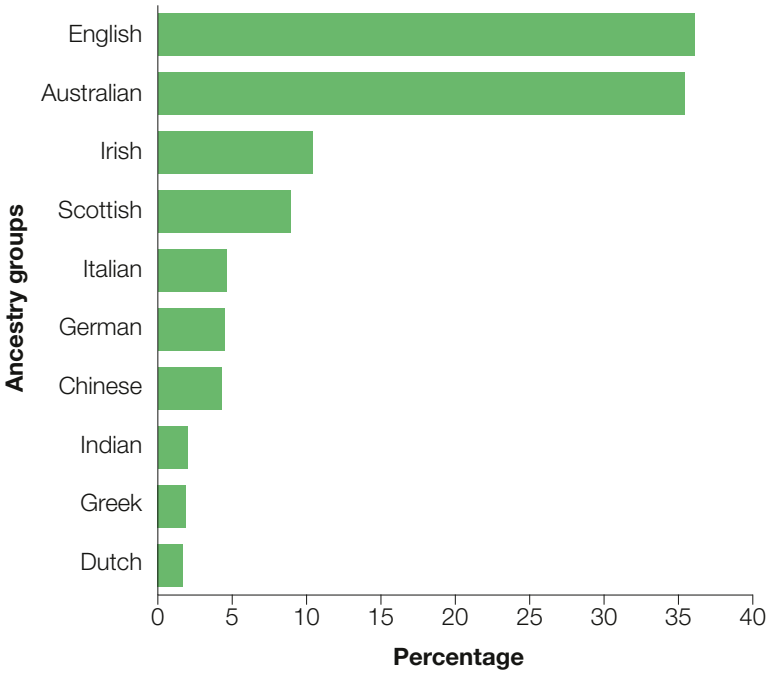


Source 9.3 Today, Australians speak more than 260 languages and identify with more than 270 ancestry groups.

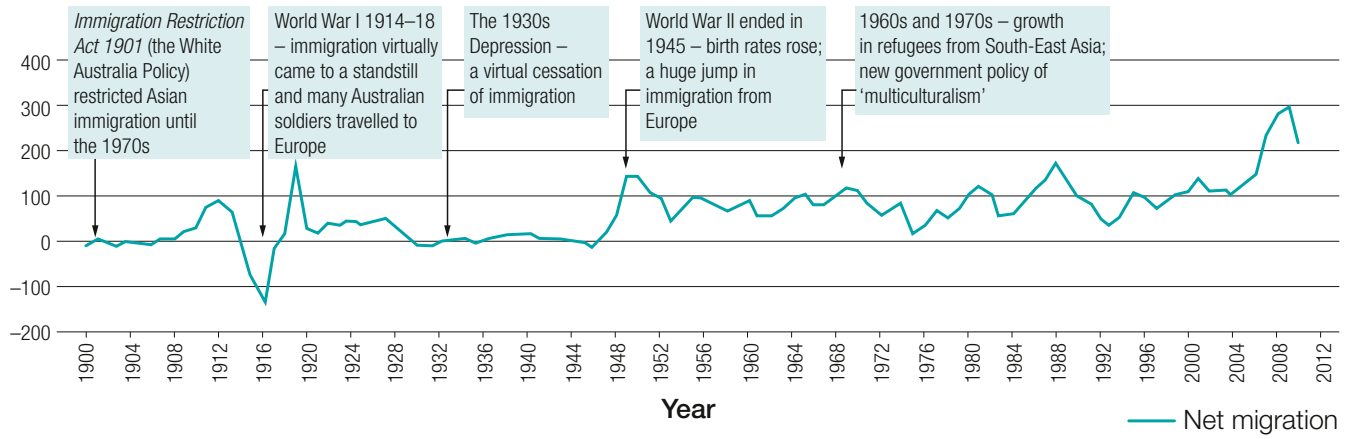
Today, Australia is considered by many to be a **multicultural** country. In fact, Australia has one of the highest rates of immigration in the developed world (see Sources 9.4 and 9.5). This description acknowledges that the people of Australia come from a wide range of ethnic and cultural backgrounds. In *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, released in 2011, the Australian Government states that 'multiculturalism is in Australia's national interest and speaks to fairness and inclusion. It enhances respect and support for cultural, religious and linguistic diversity'. Although this view is shared by the majority of Australians today, it was not always the case. Since the end of World War II in 1945, Australia's immigration policies have changed in response to major world events. In particular, we will consider the impact that World War II and the Vietnam War had on Australian migration and modern culture. Finally, we will look at how migration has helped shape Australia's global relationships and the contributions migrants of all backgrounds have made to our country and modern cultural identity.



Source 9.4 Australian citizens by country of birth, 2011: Australia's population today is culturally and linguistically diverse – more than one in four Australian residents were born overseas, with people born in the United Kingdom making up the largest group of overseas-born residents, followed by New Zealand, China, India, Italy and Vietnam



Source 9.6 Graph showing ancestry groups that Australians most commonly identify with, 2011



Source 9.5 Net migration (total arrivals less total departures) to Australia during the period 1900–2010

Defining different types of migration

When discussing migration, there are a number of key perspectives that need to be considered. These perspectives are influenced by how different people view different events. In order to appreciate these perspectives it is first necessary to define some key terms:

- **Migrant:** a person who moves from one country or region to another to settle there; includes both **emigrants** (people leaving a country) and **immigrants** (people entering a country)
- **Economic migrant:** a person who migrates for reasons such as seeking employment or an improved financial position
- **Assisted migrant:** a person who migrates under a targeted government assistance program
- **Skilled migrant:** a migrant granted preferential treatment for their skill or profession
- **Illegal migrant:** a person who enters or remains in a country without a legal right to do so; does not include asylum seekers and refugees
- **Displaced person:** a person forced to leave their home region or country due to war, persecution or natural disaster
- **Refugee:** a person who has fled their home country to another country due to a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons recognised by law
- **Asylum seeker:** a person who has applied for recognition (or sought protection) as a refugee
- **Boat people:** a common term used to describe people who travel by sea to seek asylum, rather than by land, air or via local processing centres.

For more information on the key concept of perspectives, refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Early migration

The earliest people arrived on the Australian continent around 40000 years ago. By the time the First Fleet arrived in 1788, Australia's population had reached between 350000 and 1 million.

After the British established the first Australian colonies, migration was dominated by arrivals from Britain – both **convicts** and **free settlers**. Migration increased with growth of the wool industry in the 1820s and again during the gold rushes of the 1850s, which saw a major influx of new arrivals. Many people chose to migrate to Australia in search of a better life and greater opportunities. Other events also encouraged people to settle in Australia, such as social changes in Britain brought about by the **Industrial Revolution**, or the disaster of the Irish famine of the 1840s.

Although the majority of early migrants came from Britain, migrants did arrive from other parts of the world, including Asia. For example, during the gold rush immigrants from China were the largest non-British group. Labourers were also recruited from Melanesia to work on plantations in Queensland in the 1860s. In the later part of the 19th century, divers from Japan assisted in establishing Australia's pearling industry. Another important contribution was made by Afghani, Pakistani and Turkish camel handlers in the construction of telegraph and railway lines in central Australia in the early 1900s (see Source 9.7).

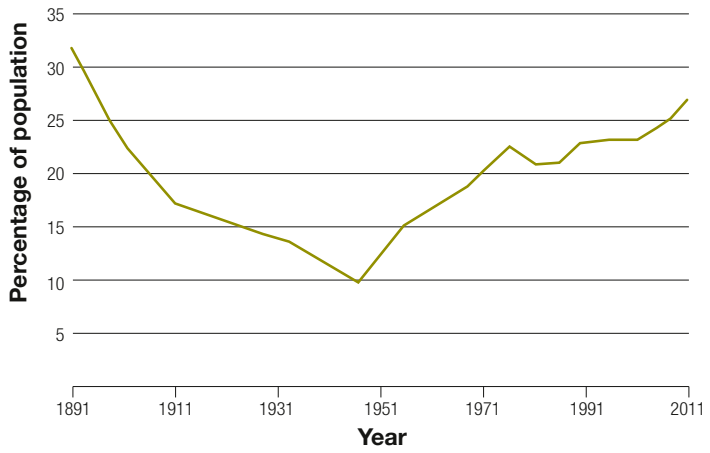


Source 9.7 Afghan cameleers transporting timber during the construction of the Trans-Australian railway from Port Augusta in South Australia to Kalgoorlie in Western Australia in 1912

Pre-World War II migration

The number of Australians born overseas declined dramatically at the end of the 1800s. This trend continued until the end of World War II in 1945 (see Source 9.8). After this, immigration rates increased dramatically.

Many factors had contributed to this decline. For example, at the end of the 19th century Australia experienced a major economic depression. Hostility towards Chinese labourers grew because people believed that cheaper labour would decrease jobs and wages for British Australians. This resulted in colonial governments



Source 9.8 Graph showing the percentage of Australians born overseas 1891–2011. Migration to Australia increased sharply after the end of World War II and continues to do so today (Source: ABS)



Source 9.9 The Great Depression of the 1930s saw an end to assisted migration programs in Australia and a downturn in migration that would continue until 1945.

introducing legislation to restrict entry and impose high taxes on any Chinese people arriving in the colonies. More restrictive legislation was introduced upon Australia's Federation in 1901 with the *Immigration Restriction Act*. This Act formed the basis of a number of policies referred to as the White Australia policy. These will be discussed in detail later in the chapter.

When World War I broke out in 1914, migration to Australia came to a standstill. After the war, the government offered assisted migration programs so British ex-servicemen could immigrate to Australia in large numbers. In the 1920s and 1930s there was an increase in migrants from Italy and Greece seeking to establish lives in Australia, as well as a rise in Jewish people seeking to escape persecution in Europe. However, the **Great Depression** in the 1930s saw an end to government assistance programs (see Source 9.9) and when World War II broke out in 1939, migration effectively came to a standstill again as travel became difficult, if not impossible.

Post-war migration

The end of World War II marked a turning point in migration in Australia. In the aftermath of World War II, Australians reflected on their role in the new world order. The Australian government reassessed its policies on immigration and began to introduce major policy changes that still influence Australian society and culture to this day. The government opened Australia up to a much broader program of immigration – introducing massive increases in assistance packages, establishing Australia's first immigration department, signing international agreements to begin a regular humanitarian intake program, and accepting displaced persons and refugees from other countries and regions. These changes will be discussed in detail later in the chapter.

Over time and through successive governments, these changes were gradually introduced. Often, they came in response to major world events and as a result of changing needs and attitudes in Australia. As a result of these changes, since the end of the war in 1945 more than 7 million new permanent migrants have settled in Australia, from regions all around the world. Australia's population has since increased from about 7 million people in 1945, to around 23 million people today.

Check your learning 9.2

Remember and understand

1 According to latest Australian Census statistics, what are the largest groups of overseas immigrants in Australia?

2 What were the main factors driving early migration to Australia? How is this different to today?

Apply and analyse

3 Using Source 9.8, comment on how the rate of Australia's overseas-born population has changed since 1891, 1945 and 2011.

Evaluate and create

4 Terms relating to migration are sometimes confused or misused in everyday conversation and in the media. In groups, use the timeline in Source 9.2 and the terms listed in the key concepts box to evaluate how world events and government policies have influenced the types of migrants arriving in Australia.

The influence of world events

World events have had a lasting effect on the types and numbers of people arriving in Australia. World War II had a profound effect on people in Europe and Asia, resulting in large numbers of displaced persons fleeing from conflict, persecution and poverty in the post-war period. This in turn affected migration to Australia in the post-war years, as it combined with a shift in Australia's immigration policies and plans to create a larger Australia.

War and conflict, natural disasters, changing economic and political conditions and other **push factors** have historically driven people to seek a better or safer life elsewhere. Australia's migration programs, including assisted migration and refugee programs, have adapted in response to these events and, together with other **pull factors**, have helped to draw migration to Australia.

Since the end of World War II, there have been many significant world events that have influenced the types of new migrants coming to Australia and the places from which they have come. Some of these major events include the **Cold War** (including the Korean War, the Vietnam War and the fear of communism spreading across parts of Asia in the mid-20th century), conflict and famine in parts of Africa in the 1980s, and the Yugoslav conflicts in the 1990s. All of these events saw a large influx of new migrants from these regions. In more recent years, major events influencing migration have included the US-led 'War on Terror' in Iraq, Afghanistan and Pakistan, the global financial crisis in 2008 (which has created a new wave of economic migrants) and civil uprisings in the Middle East from 2010 (collectively called the 'Arab Spring'). Again, these events have all resulted in different groups of people seeking to migrate to Australia for a variety of reasons.

The key concept box below sets out some of the main push and pull factors that can affect people's decisions to migrate. Source 9.13 highlights some of the key world events and changes in Australian government policy affecting migration since 1945.



Source 9.10 Following the Chinese Government's suppression of pro-democracy demonstrators in Tiananmen Square, 1989, the Australian government granted permanent residency to 2000 Chinese students studying in Australia at the time.



Source 9.11 Refugees fleeing conflict in Afghanistan seek asylum in Australia *c.* 2001



Source 9.12 100 000 people protest in Ireland during the Irish recession of 2009–13, following the global financial crisis – the recession has resulted in an unprecedented influx of Irish economic migrants to Australia, with 40 000 arriving in 2011 alone.

Source 9.13 Table of significant world events and Australian Government policies influencing migration since World War II

Significant world events	Key immigration legislation	Key government policies and programs	Prime ministers
1945 World War II ends **1947** Cold War begins (fear of communist threat in the West) **1949** People's Republic of China founded **1950–53** Korean War **1950–60** Malayan Emergency **1955–75** Vietnam War **1956** Unrest in Eastern Europe – Hungary **1968** Unrest in Eastern Europe – Czechoslovakia **1973** Unrest in South America – Chile **1979** Unrest in South America – El Salvador **1975** Indonesian take-over of East Timor **1975–90** Civil war in Lebanon **1980** Robert Mugabe Prime Minister of Zimbabwe **1983–2009** Sri Lankan Civil War **1989** Tiananmen Square protests, China **1990–91** Gulf War **1991–99** Yugoslav conflicts **2001–** 'War on Terror' **2003–11** Iraq War **2008** Global financial crisis **2010–** 'Arab Spring' **2012–** Civil war in Syria	**1901** *Immigration Restriction Act* (forms the basis of White Australia policy) **1958** *Revised Migration Act* (introduced a simpler system of entry permits and abolished the dictation test that had been a barrier for many non-Europeans attempting to migrate to Australia) **1975** *Racial Discrimination Act* (making racial discrimination illegal) **1992** *Migration Reform Act* (allowing all people not holding valid visas to be held in mandatory detention)	**1945 onwards** • 'Populate or perish program' • Assisted migration for British citizens • Displaced persons program • Most non-Europeans refused entry **1966** • Holt Government changes migrant entry conditions, effectively ending White Australia policy • Abolition of dictation test • Increasing acceptance of non-Europeans **1973** • White Australia policy officially abolished **1976** • Acceptance of Vietnamese refugees arriving by boat and refugee intake program **1989** • Reinforcement of multicultural policy by Bob Hawke **1992** • Mandatory detention of illegal migrants **2001** • The Pacific Solution **2008** • Offshore processing centres closed **2011** • The Malaysia Solution **2013** • Offshore processing centres reopened **2013** • The PNG Solution	**1945–49** Ben Chifley (Labor) **1949–66** Sir Robert Menzies (Liberal coalition) **1966–67** Harold Holt (Liberal coalition) **1967–68** John McEwen (Country coalition) **1968–71** John Gorton (Liberal coalition) **1971–72** William McMahon (Liberal coalition) **1972–75** Gough Whitlam (Labor) **1975–83** Malcolm Fraser (Liberal coalition) **1983–91** Bob Hawke (Labor) **1991–96** Paul Keating (Labor) **1996–2007** John Howard (Liberal coalition) **2007–10** Kevin Rudd (Labor) **2010–13** Julia Gillard (Labor) **2013–13** Kevin Rudd (Labor) **2013–** Tony Abbot (Liberal coalition)

key**concept:** cause and effect

Push and pull factors

Migration is influenced by a combination of factors that cause people to leave their home country or region (push factors) and factors that draw people to a new location (pull factors). When analysing historical migrations, the historian needs to be able to understand these reasons in context at the relevant time. Some of the main factors are listed below.

For more information on the key concept of cause and effect, refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 9.14 The effects of famine or drought can be a strong push factor for migration.

Source 9.15 Main push and pull factors that can affect migration.

Push factors	Pull factors
Lack of opportunities	Safety and security
War and conflict	Family links
Famine or drought	Government incentives
Fear of persecution	Hope of better employment
Unemployment	Shelter, food and money
Lack of political or religious freedom	Better living standards
Natural disasters (earthquakes, floods)	Better medical care
Poor medical care or education	Educational opportunities
Lower standard of living	Political or religious freedom



Source 9.16 The prospect of better employment opportunities can be a strong pull factor for migration.

Check your learning 9.3

Remember and understand

1 How do push factors connect with pull factors to influence migration?

2 Looking at the lists of push and pull factors, why do you think the events of World War II so heavily influenced migration to Australia?

3 Which world events have created refugees since the end of World War II?

Apply and analyse

4 In pairs and using the table in Source 9.13, research three major world events since 1945. What push and pull factors, including migration policies, were present at the time? How do you think these events would have shaped migration to Australia?

Evaluate and create

5 'Australia's immigration policy has responded fairly to world events.' Write a short argument outlining why you agree or disagree with this statement. To assist, you can use the table of events in Source 9.13 and the timeline in Source 9.2.

Migration to Australia after World War II

In the years following World War II, the Australian government introduced bold new policies and programs designed to boost Australia's population. These changes would transform the face of Australian society forever. The period saw a massive boost in immigration from Britain and Europe, particularly countries such as the Netherlands, Italy, Greece, Latvia and Estonia. Government policies began to actively encourage and assist migrants wishing to make the journey from Europe, and sought to recruit the skills of migrant workers to begin a number of large-scale construction projects. Despite this increase in migrant numbers, restrictions on migrants from non-European backgrounds remained strictly enforced.

Australia after World War II

The threat of Japanese invasion during World War II came as a shock to Australia. Never before had the government and the Australian people felt so vulnerable to a foreign attack. As part of the government's strategy to strengthen the country and recover from the loss and devastation of World War II, it proposed to increase the size of the population and improve military defences. By following a 'safety in numbers' approach, it was believed that Australia would be less vulnerable to any future attacks. As Australia's population was still relatively small, the quickest means of achieving this was to increase Australia's intake of new migrants. Prime Minister Ben Chifley took over as Labor leader in 1945, soon after the death of Australia's war-time Prime Minister John Curtin. In 1946 Chifley was re-elected to lead Australia's post-war recovery. His government decided that a larger population was necessary in order to protect Australia's security and economic future. It developed a slogan to describe this new policy on immigration – 'populate or perish'.

The Chifley Government created Australia's first Department of Immigration in 1945. The first immigration minister was Arthur Calwell who, in his first months as minister, made the government's intentions regarding the size of Australia's population clear (see Source 9.18). These beliefs were shared by ministers on both sides of politics. As a result, new policies were implemented by the Labor government in the immediate post-war period and continued under the Liberal Menzies Government from 1949.



Source 9.17 The Habets and their eight children, who came out from Holland aboard the HMS *Otranto* on an assisted passage scheme to Australia in 1954, are seen here having lunch in one of the immigrants' hostels.

Source 9.18

> If Australians have learned one lesson from the Pacific War, now moving to a successful conclusion, it is surely that we cannot continue to hold our island continent for ourselves and our descendants unless we greatly increase our numbers.

Minister for Immigration Arthur Calwell, extract from *Hansard House of Representatives*, 2 August 1945, pages 4911–15

The government began to actively promote Australia as an attractive destination to resettle for people affected by World War II (see Source 9.19). As part of this plan, the government began offering new incentives for those looking to make a new start away from the difficulties and challenges facing post-war Europe.



Source 9.19 This 1948 poster encouraging Europeans to relocate to Australia – the 'land of tomorrow' – was displayed in migration and refugee camps across Europe at the end of World War II.

Bringing out the Britons

By the end of World War II, the Australian government had made its intentions for a larger Australia known. Tens of thousands of **displaced persons** across Europe had lost their homes and livelihoods during the turmoil of World War II. While resources and services were overstretched in Britain and Europe, Australia was looking to rapidly grow its population and economy. Even before the end of the war, discussions began between Britain and Australia to establish a large-scale migration program to Australia. Australia's close ties with Britain made this an obvious first choice for immigrants to boost the population. Immediately after the war, large numbers of people from across Britain set sail for Australia. After the wide-scale devastation of World War II, reconstruction in Europe was a massive task and, in Britain, many felt a fresh start in Australia was the best option for their families.

In 1947, the British and Australian governments launched large programs to subsidise the cost of British migrants' voyages to Australia – a process known as assisted migration. Travel for children was free and for adults the fare was reduced to just ten pounds (£10), giving rise to the label 'Ten Pound Pom'. This became a common way of describing British migrants coming to Australia during this period. Assisted migrants were expected to stay for two years. If they did not, they were required to repay their fare and fund their own return home (costing about £120). Although migrants were promised employment and high-quality housing, often the accommodation and circumstances did not meet expectations.

In 1957 the government also launched a popular campaign called 'Bring Out a Briton' (see Source 9.22). This campaign encouraged Australians to nominate British friends and families to come to Australia. Local committees were formed to sponsor and recommend new migrants to the Department of Immigration for assisted passage. The successful campaign continued into the 1960s.



Source 9.20 A family gets information about emigrating to Australia from an official at the Department of Immigration at Australia House, 1953.



Source 9.21 A British family of 15 disembark from their ship as they arrive in Australia, 2 July 1957



Source 9.22 The government's 'Bring Out a Briton' campaign urged Australians to nominate British friends for assisted migration to Australia.



Source 9.23 Arthur Calwell, Minister for Immigration (1945–49), welcoming the one hundred thousandth British immigrant to Australia in 1949

Child migrants

Children and young people were also encouraged to migrate to Australia after World War II. Although most children would arrive with their families under the assisted migration schemes, there were many who emigrated alone. This included children who were orphaned or deprived after the war. In some cases these children were taken from families and communities against their will.

Younger migrants were attractive to the government. They were seen as more adaptable and able to provide a long-term contribution to the country. They were also seen as a source of cheap labour. The best interests of the children were often not the first priority.

The emigration of children was controversial and had occurred for years in the former British colonies, including in the US, Australia and New Zealand. It was revived in Australia following the war. In 1944 the acting prime minister proposed to seek out 50 000 children from Britain and Europe in the first three years after the war. This figure proved impossible, with many countries refusing. Nevertheless, thousands of child migrants did arrive from Britain and Malta between 1947 and the end of the scheme in 1967. Although many had positive experiences, there are reports that many others suffered terrible living and working conditions. In a few cases conditions were reportedly worse that those they had left behind. The governments of Australia and Britain recently gave an official apology to children and families affected by these child migration schemes.



Source 9.24 A group of migrant children from the 'Bring Out a Briton' scheme aboard the SS *Oronsay*, 1957

Big Brothers and Little Brothers

The migration of teenagers also boomed after the war. One significant government scheme to encourage this was called the 'Big Brother Movement'. This was based on a similar scheme from the 1920s and 1930s. The scheme allocated boys emigrating from Britain ('Little Brothers') with a responsible adult in Australia ('Big Brothers') who would provide support and advice to help them adjust to their new life in Australia. This provided reassurance and encouragement to youth migrants and their parents who were reluctant to let them go. The scheme was very successful and saw about 500 youths a year arriving under this arrangement throughout the 1950s and 1960s.

Europe: a new source of migrants

As well as attracting new migrants from post-war Britain, the government decided to look toward other areas of post-war Europe to target with new programs of assisted migration for displaced persons affected by the war. The government entered into agreements with many European countries, including the Netherlands, Italy and Greece, to accept post-war migrants. In 1946 the International Refugee Organization (IRO) was also founded as a specialised agency of the new United Nations, with Australia one of its founding members. Part of the IRO's work was to deal with the vast number of displaced persons that had been affected by the war, and Australia's membership enabled it to select displaced persons from camps in Europe and offer them passage to Australia. The government would assess and accept people from camps of displaced persons from across Europe if they were deemed suitable for migration to Australia. The Australian government agreed to accept at least 12000 refugees per year from the European camps.

In particular, the government viewed people from the Baltic states of Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia as a suitable source of new migrants. These countries had suffered invasion from both Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union during the war, so were viewed kindly by Australians. In addition to filling much needed labour shortages, people from these regions were seen as appealing because, according to Minister Calwell, they 'were red-headed and blue-eyed [and] there were also a number of natural platinum blondes of both sexes'. These physical characteristics earned them the nickname 'Beautiful Balts' (see Source 9.25). As these groups were Caucasian and often wanted to escape communism, they were the perfect candidates for Calwell's 'new Australia'. The government believed these people would more easily fit into the British culture and values of Australia at the time.

In addition to migrants from the Baltic states, large numbers of refugees arrived from Poland, Yugoslavia, Ukraine, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. There was also a large wave of post-war economic migrants from Italy, Greece, Malta, Croatia and Turkey seeking employment and better living conditions. These new migrants were placed in migrant camps across Australia, with allocated huts and often crowded conditions, to undergo training and resettlement. Although circumstances were sometimes difficult, many of these migrants would go on to make significant contributions to post-war Australia.

Post-war construction

As well as being motivated by a fear of invasion, the Australian government was keen to increase the population in order to meet an ambitious post-war building and construction program. Projects proposed by the Australian government required a much larger workforce than was available and the way to increase the workforce and fill the labour shortages was to increase the population. One of these major building projects was the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme, which alone required 10000 new workers. New immigrants from migration camps could be required to work for a period of two years wherever the Australian government decided. As a result, many were sent to work on the large Snowy Mountains scheme and similar projects.



Source 9.25 This photograph, taken in 1948, shows a group of 'Beautiful Balts', some of the first displaced persons from Europe to arrive in Australia. Albury's *Border Morning Mail* described the new arrivals as 'attractive, cheery, eager to work and neatly clad'; the women had 'surprisingly good complexions and figures' with 'splendidly formed white teeth'.



Source 9.26 Snowy Mountains Scheme labourers in 1968 – many of these workers had migrated from countries across war-torn Europe

key**concept:** significance

The Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme

As part of the post-war development of Australia, the nation's most ambitious infrastructure project was proposed. The Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme proposed the development of a complex series of tunnels and dams to divert the Snowy River in south-east Australia. Hydro-electric power stations would provide electricity from the water flow, and the water would then be used to irrigate inland Australia. This project would require about 100 000 new workers, and the huge amount of labour required would mainly come from the wave of European immigrants the government was proposing to bring to Australia.

In Source 9.27, journalist, commentator and broadcaster Glenn A Baker gives his perspective on why the scheme, and the people who worked on it, were so important in shaping post-war Australia.

Source 9.27

> Not that many years ago we marked the 50th anniversary of what was the largest engineering project in the world – the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme – which, in ways that had nothing at all to do with power generation, changed the face of this country.
>
> The almost exclusively white Anglo-Saxon character of society was opened up to new ideas, customs, cuisines and celebrations by the men and their families who came from all over the world.
>
> I am, I suppose, a baby boomer and, for my generation, the post-war migration surge provided a defining dimension.
>
> Extract from Australia Day ambassador Glenn A Baker, speech given at Lithgow, 2010

Today, the scheme is not only considered significant because it remains one of Australia's largest-ever construction projects, but also because those who worked on it came from a range of different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. These men, their families and their descendants continue to have a significant impact on the cultural diversity of Australian society to this day.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Check your learning 9.4

Remember and understand

1. Who was Australia's first Minister for Immigration? Which political party did he represent?
2. Where did most migrants come from in the immediate post-war period?
3. What were the two main requirements to be accepted as a migrant to Australia in the period after World War II?
4. In your own words, explain what was meant by the term 'populate or perish'.

Apply and analyse

5. Former Prime Minister Julia Gillard arrived in Australia with her family in the 1960s under the assisted migration scheme. Research some well-known Australians whose families arrived under the 'Ten Pound Pom' assisted migration scheme from Britain. Discuss the impact of this scheme on Australia today.
6. What does Arthur Calwell's speech (Source 9.18) tell you about immigration policy after World War II? What limits were there on the types of people Australia was willing to accept?
7. Explain what you think Glenn A Baker (Source 9.27) meant when he said that the Snowy Mountains Scheme 'changed the face of this country'.

Evaluate and create

8. Design a poster similar to Source 9.22 encouraging displaced persons in Europe to emigrate to Australia at the end of World War II. Your poster should include a slogan and use iconic imagery to portray Australia as a land of opportunity.

9.1 big**ideas:** rich task

The census

A census collects evidence about the population of a country. Governments have used censuses since ancient times. Census information is collected for a variety of reasons, including allowing governments to determine taxation amounts and more accurately distribute services. The Australian government conducts the Australian Census every five years. A census can reveal the origins of a population, occupations, beliefs, age and gender. As such, it contains a wealth of detailed information for historians, but this information must be interpreted.

The following evidence allows us to look for continuities and changes in the birthplace of the Australian population during the 20th century.

As an official record collected at a specific time, a census is a primary source. Interpreting the results of a census is always a challenge, however, as two historians can examine the same statistics and come to very different conclusions. The data found in a census also needs to be placed in its historical context in order to interpret it fairly and correctly. For example, the 1901 census indicates that 3.5 per cent of Australian citizens who were born overseas came from China. A historian using only those figures might take this to show that the White Australia policy did not exist. Therefore, we also need an understanding of the new immigration laws that emerged at the time of Federation to be able to view that statistic in its proper context.

Source 9.28 gives statistics on the birthplace of immigrants living in Australia at three distinct points in 20th-century Australian history: at Federation (1901), post-World War II (1947) and at the end of the 20th century (1996). Since other censuses were also held between these events, the material shown here would only be a starting point for a historian. Nevertheless, it provides an interesting opportunity to take a brief look at the changes in immigration to Australia during the 20th century.

Source 9.28 Top 10 countries of birth at selected Australian censuses of the 20th century

1901 census				1947 census			1996 census		
Ranking	**Birthplace**	**Number**	**Percentage**	**Birthplace**	**Number**	**Percentage**	**Birthplace**	**Number**	**Percentage**
1	United Kingdom	495 074	57.7	United Kingdom	496 454	66.7	United Kingdom	1 072 562	27.4
2	Ireland	184 085	21.5	Ireland	44 813	6.0	New Zealand	291 388	7.2
3	Germany	38 352	4.5	New Zealand	43 610	5.9	Italy	238 246	5.9
4	China	29 907	3.5	Italy	33 632	4.5	Vietnam	151 053	4.5
5	New Zealand	25 788	3.0	Germany	12 291	1.7	Greece	126 520	3.2
6	Sweden and Norway	9 863	1.2	Greece	9 863	1.2	China	111 009	2.8
7	India	7 637	0.9	India and Sri Lanka (Ceylon)	8 160	1.1	Germany	110 331	2.8
8	USA	7 448	0.9	Poland	6 573	0.9	Philippines	92 949	2.4
9	Denmark	6 281	0.7	China	6 404	0.9	Netherlands	87 898	2.2
10	Italy	5 678	0.7	USA	6 232	0.8	India	77 551	2.0
	Top 10 total	810 113	94.5	Top 10 total	672 736	90.4	Top 10 total	2 359 507	60.4
	Other	47 463	5.5	Other	71 451	9.6	Other	1 548 875	39.6
	Total overseas born	857 576	100.00	Total overseas born	744 187	100	Total overseas born	3 908 382	100.00

1901, 1947 and 1996 census statistics from the Australian Government, Department of Immigration and Citizenship website

skill**drill**

Generating questions about the past to inform a historical inquiry

One of the first and most important steps in conducting a historical inquiry is to generate or pose key questions. The questions that you generate will frame or direct the research that you then undertake.

Usually, historians generate one broad, overarching question for their inquiry, for example: 'What do census results from different times tell us about Australia's migration policies?' After that, you need to generate more specific questions that are related to your overall inquiry question. You will need to generate a mixture of:

- **closed** (or simple) questions – for example, 'When did event X occur?'
- **open** (or probing) questions – for example, 'Why did event X occur?'
- questions that relate to the **process** of historical inquiry – for example, 'What evidence is there?' and 'What other sources might be needed?'

The first step in generating questions is to think about what you already know about the topic. Use this knowledge as a springboard for questions that will help you understand the topic in more depth. Use a table, similar to Source 9.29, to brainstorm all the things you know in dot-point form in one column. In the second column, use each dot point in the first column to generate related questions that will help to deepen or build your understanding. Remember to include a mix of the three question types described above.

Source 9.29

Overarching inquiry question:	
What I already know:	**Questions to help me deepen my understanding:**
Point 1	Question/s related to point 1
Point 2	Question/s related to point 2
Point 3	Question/s related to point 3

Apply the skill

1 Use the process described above and the census data in Source 9.28 to generate a range of questions related to the overarching historical inquiry question: 'How does the census reflect key events in the history of migration to Australia?'

a Copy Source 9.30 into your notebook.

b Identify what you already know as a result of reading this chapter and the information in this section. List these ideas in dot points in the first column.

c In the second column, generate related questions that help to deepen or build your understanding. The first one has been done for you.

Source 9.30

Overarching inquiry question: 'How does the census reflect key events in the history of migration to Australia?'	
What I already know:	**Questions to help me deepen or build my understanding:**
Australia sought to attract more migrants from war-ravaged Europe during the post-World War II recovery.	What countries were the biggest source of migrants in 1901, 1947 and 1996? (Simple or closed question) How did the countries of origin for migrants change from 1901 to 1996? (Open or probing question) What evidence can be applied to the census data to produce an alternative interpretation? (Question related to the process of historical inquiry)
Point 2	
Point 3	

Extend your understanding

1 Conduct some research online to find the latest census statistics and use the results to make a table of the top 10 countries of origin for new Australian migrants. Next, use one or two paragraphs to answer the following questions:

a What are the major changes in migration that have occurred since the 1996 census?

b What continuities does your table reveal about migration to Australia since Federation in 1901?

c Which world events of the 21st century can you see reflected in your table?

2 Using what you have learned in this chapter, make a new table that features your forecasts of the top 10 countries of origin for new Australians in the next census.

9.2 How have government policies influenced migration to Australia since World War II?

The White Australia policy

The White Australia policy was not a single policy – the term refers to a series of migration policies in Australia that gave favourable treatment to immigrants from Europe (predominantly Britain) and discriminated against those from other parts of the world. The *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*, along with other pieces of legislation, became the basis of the White Australia policy after Federation. Although the original Act did not specifically ban people based on race, it was designed to exclude migrants who were considered 'undesirable'.

Since the British colonised Australia in the late 1700s, Australia's relationship with its Asian and Pacific neighbours had at times been tense. The large numbers of Chinese migrants who arrived during the gold rushes of the 1850s often clashed with the British majority over access to resources and competing claims. A period of severe economic depression in Australia during the 1890s also saw a rise in anti-Asian sentiment. Many in Australia feared that cheap immigrant labour would take jobs away from British Australian workers. Sources from the time provide many examples of the kind of racial prejudice and fear held by many Australians towards foreigners (see Source 9.31).



Source 9.31 'The Mongolian Octopus – His Grip on Australia', cartoon by Phillip May in *The Bulletin*, 1886, showing some of the fears Australians had about Chinese migration

This ethnic tension combined with a new sense of **nationalism** that grew in the lead up to Australia's Federation. One of the first acts of the new federal government in 1901 was to create laws that could grant access to European migrants, mainly British, and exclude all others. Australia's first Prime Minister, Edmund Barton, expressed this sentiment at a speech in 1902: 'We can bring in, without delay, our kinsmen from Britain and, if the numbers be insufficient, such other white races as will assimilate with our own. Or we can … see the doors of our house forced, and streams of people from the lands where there is hardly standing room pour in and submerge us.'

The dictation test

The *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* did not mention race or include any reference to excluding migrants based on their ethnic or racial background. This type of openly discriminatory behaviour was frowned upon by Britain and its allies at the time. Instead, the Act included a less obvious legal mechanism to ensure immigration officials could exclude migrants they considered 'undesirable'. A simple 'dictation test' allowed officials to dictate a 50-word passage in any language they chose for potential migrants to write down. Initially this was any European language, but later it could be given in any language at all.

To restrict access to potential migrants, Australian officials simply chose languages that they knew would be unfamiliar – guaranteeing failure. This was particularly used against Chinese migrants, but other Asian and African migrants were also targeted.

The White Australia policy after World War II

As we have learned, at the end of the World War II Australia began to actively pursue a policy of population expansion under the slogan 'populate or perish'. New migration policies focused almost exclusively on new migration from Britain and elsewhere in Europe. In line with the White Australia policy,



Source 9.32 A poster from King's Theatre *c.* 1909, promoting the play 'White Australia or the Empty North' – the play illustrated the role that race had in creating a national identity after Federation.

the government's approach was to target whites from European countries that it believed could assimilate easily into Australian society. In particular, the new program of accepting displaced persons focused on Europe, particularly the Baltic States and Eastern Europe. It deliberately excluded those displaced by the conflict in Asia, Africa or the Middle East.

The threat of Japanese invasion during World War II, together with the threat of communism spreading across Asia, added to the fears of many Australians. The harsh effects of these fears were felt particularly by migrant families who had been granted permission to live and work in Australia during the war as displaced persons or refugees or to assist with the war effort. These included thousands of migrants from Asia, including Malays, Indonesians and Filipinos. Once the war was over, Immigration Minister Arthur Calwell controversially sought to eject migrants who did not meet the strict requirements of the White Australia policy.

In a speech to the House of Representatives on 2 December 1947, Calwell made clear the government's views on continuing the White Australia policy.

Source 9.33

> The government has decided that all persons who came to Australia as evacuees or refugees during the war and who, under our immigration laws, are not eligible to become permanent residents of this country, must leave. We have been very tolerant of these people. We could have asked them all to go immediately the war ended, but we have allowed them to stay for a certain period, in some cases so that they may wind up their affairs here and in other cases so that they might get decent shipping facilities to take them back to their own countries. In all 15 000 evacuees of all nationalities came to Australia during the war. Of that number, 4400 were Asiatics. Most of the evacuees, including the Asiatics, have gone. There are about 500 Chinese, mostly seamen, and about fifty Malays left. All of these people will have to leave Australia … What this government proposes to do is not unusual. I am carrying out the policy of every Australian government since Federation, and, as far as I am concerned, it will not be altered …
>
> Cited in *Well May We Say … The Speeches That Made Australia*, Sally Warhaft (ed.), Black Inc., Melbourne, 2004, pages 245–6

It was not until the second half of the 20th century that the White Australia policy finally began to unravel and Australia's modern immigration policies began to take shape. This will be discussed in the following sections.

Check your learning 9.5

Remember and understand

1. In your own words, describe the impact of the *Immigration Restriction Act.*
2. What was the legal mechanism used by immigration officials to exclude non-Europeans from entering Australia?
3. What reason does Arthur Calwell give for deporting Asian migrants in Australia in Source 9.33? How does he justify the decision?

Evaluate and create

4. Use the Internet to research the well-known story of Egon Kisch and the dictation test. Write a 300-word explanation describing the events and explaining how the dictation test was used by the Australian government to deny entry to 'undesirable' migrants. Outline the relevant background, describe how the test was applied (and challenged) and discuss the implications for other migrants.

The end of White Australia

During World War II and in the years after it ended, the Australian government made its intentions regarding the White Australia policy clear – the policy was and would continue to be central to Australia's migration program. But as time moved on, this position became increasingly difficult to maintain. Dissatisfaction with the policy was growing in parts of Australian society and the international community. The government's attempts to expel displaced persons after the end of the war were not well received and Australia's growing involvement in Asia was in direct conflict with its policies at home. The years that followed saw the policy gradually dismantled, before finally being abolished in 1973.

Initial steps

In 1949 a new Liberal government was elected under Prime Minister Robert Menzies. Menzies appointed Harold Holt as Minister for Immigration, replacing Arthur Calwell.



Source 9.34 Prime Minister Robert Menzies making a radio announcement *c.* 1950

The new Minister for Immigration would oversee a period of change. Shortly after taking office Holt made the historic decision to allow the remaining 800 non-European refugees to stay in Australia. Assisted migration schemes were expanded in parts of Europe including Italy, West Germany, Belgium, Greece and Spain.

Holt also made the historic decision to grant permission to a number of Japanese wives of returned Australian soldiers to settle in Australia. By the end of 1956, more than 650 Japanese women had migrated to Australia as wives and fiancées of Australian soldiers. In 1957, rules were changed to allow non-European residents over 15 years of age to become Australian citizens.



Source 9.35 Japanese war brides and their husbands in the garden of the Parker family home, Ringwood, 1953

In the following year, the government passed the *Migration Act 1958*. This Act introduced the most significant changes to Australia's migration laws since Federation, replacing the longstanding *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*. Importantly, the Act abolished the dictation test, for so long used as a way of restricting immigration of non-European migrants. The revised Act removed questions of race, instead focusing on qualifications as a primary criterion for selection. This opened the door to highly skilled Asian migrants. As then Immigration Minister, Sir Alec Downer, stated that 'distinguished and highly qualified Asians' could begin to immigrate. In 1959, Australian citizens were also allowed to sponsor Asian spouses for citizenship.

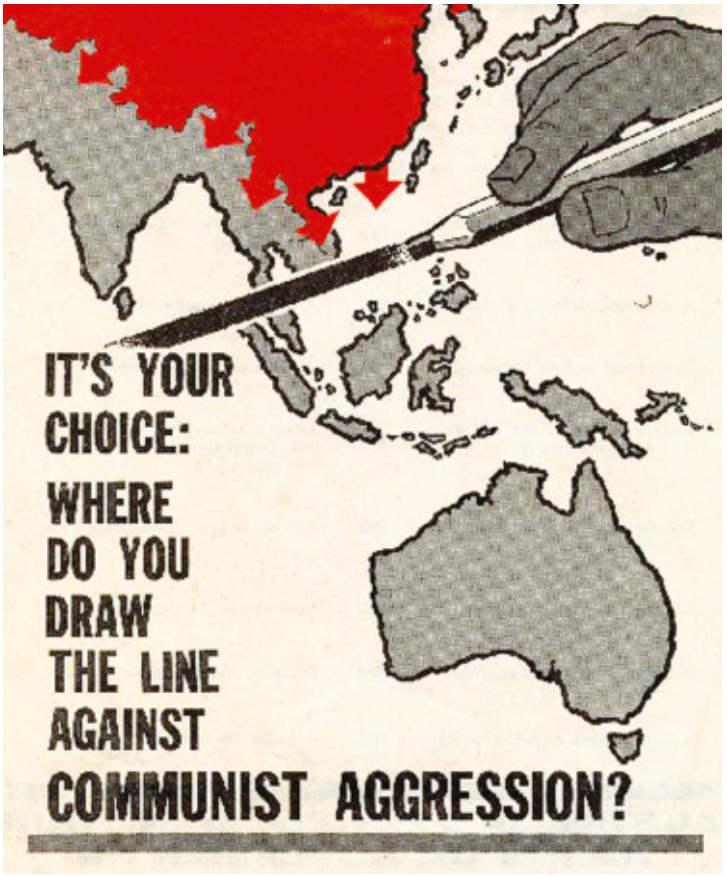
Increasing ties with Asia

In 1950, the government set up a fund with other countries in the Asian region to help improve the economic and social development of people in need of assistance. This fund became known as the Colombo Plan. The Colombo Plan was an important step towards increasing Australia's ties with Asia and improving stability in the region. The original signatories to the Colombo Plan were Australia, Ceylon (Sri Lanka), India, Canada, New Zealand, Pakistan, the United Kingdom, North Borneo and Malaya. Australia would donate more than $300 million to the scheme, in expertise, food and equipment. The scheme also provided funding for thousands of Asian students to study or train in Australian universities. Although students were supposed to leave Australia after their studies, many would end up settling in Australia permanently.

Domino theory and the fear of communism

One of the reasons Australia and other countries gave support to the Colombo Plan was the belief that improving development and stability would help stop the rising spread of communism in the Asian region. The spread of communism was of particular concern to Australia. Many Australians feared that a communist victory in one country would lead to a chain reaction of communist takeovers in neighbouring states, including Australia. This became known as the **domino theory**. It was highly influential on US and Australian foreign policy in the 1950s.

In 1949, fear of China grew when the Chinese Communist Party under Mao Zedong claimed victory after a long civil war, founding the People's Republic of China. The Menzies Government came to power just two months later and its response was to follow the lead of the American government by refusing to officially recognise the existence of China. This was a policy that continued for decades, until Richard Nixon in the US and Gough Whitlam in Australia finally gave formal recognition to communist China in 1972. The Australian government exploited the fear of communism, with post-war propaganda portraying communism as a disease spreading through Asia (see Source 9.36). Australia's fear of communism was not just confined to events occurring overseas. During the 1950s within Australia, there was a growing fear of communist spies infiltrating the government and union movement. This fear of 'Reds under the bed' resulted in the government attempting to ban the Communist Party of Australia in 1951.



Source 9.36 The Australian government exploited the fear of communism, with post-war propaganda portraying communism as a disease spreading through Asia.

Communism and conflict in Asia

As the fear of communism spread in the 1950s, Australia became increasingly involved in conflicts across Asia. This would have a significant influence on domestic migration policies as ties across the region increased, leading to the eventual abolition of the White Australia policy in the 1960s and 1970s.

Conflict broke out on the Korean Peninsula in 1950 as tensions boiled over between the capitalist south (which had been aligned with the West since the end of World War II) and the communist north (which was aligned with the Soviet Union). This was the first major war of the larger worldwide conflict known as the Cold War. The Cold War was a political, economic and military contest between the two post-war superpowers, the USA and the Soviet Union. Australia quickly offered military assistance after the United Nations resolved to protect the south from invasion by the north. About 17 000 Australians served in the Korean War from its beginning in 1950 to the ceasefire of 1953, with 339 Australian casualties. At the time, this was Australia's largest military involvement since World War II.



Source 9.37 Korea, 9 June 1953. Men of C company, 2nd Battalion, The Royal Australian Regiment (2RAR), at Majon'ni in the trenches of left forward Company position on The Hook after relieving the 1st Battalion King's Regiment



Source 9.38 Members of 5 Platoon, B Company, 7th Battalion, The Royal Australian Regiment (7RAR) preparing to be airlifted by US helicopters after completing a military operation during the Vietnam War, 1967

Australia also became involved in a regional conflict known as the Malayan Emergency. This was a **guerrilla war** (a war fought by small, independent groups of fighters) fought between British armed forces and the Malayan National Liberation Army, the military arm of the Malayan Communist Party. Australian military forces were sent to Malaya from 1950 until 1960, to support the British and Malayan governments in opposing communists, with dozens of Australians killed and wounded.

In 1955, as part of regional efforts to stem the spread of communism, Australia joined the Southeast Asian Treaty Organization (SEATO). This was an alignment of Western powers and Asian countries intending to block communist gains in South-East Asia. The alliance lasted 20 years but achieved very little in practical terms due to internal conflicts, except for its educational programs, which had a lasting effect in the region.

The fear of communism culminated in the Vietnam War, a conflict in Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia lasting from 1955 to 1975. Strongly influenced by the domino theory and intending to contain the threat of communism, the US increased its involvement in the war throughout the 1960s. Australia became heavily involved in the conflict between 1962 and 1975, sending about 60 000 troops. In total, 521 Australian soldiers were killed and more than 300 wounded. The war was ultimately unsuccessful and, after 1975, communism arose in Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia, but failed to spread any further as had been suggested by the domino theory. The Vietnam War and its effect on Australian migration is discussed in detail later in this chapter.

Abolishing the White Australia policy

Australia's increased ties with the local region and involvement in successive wars inevitably led to the removal of the White Australia policy. After the gradual relaxing of restrictions following the *Revised Migration Act 1958*, the Holt Liberal Government in 1966 introduced major changes to the system of non-European immigration. This changed the criteria for migration to that of suitability as settlers, ability to integrate into Australian life, and possession of qualifications useful to Australia. This was a critical breakthrough because it finally removed race as a determinant when assessing the suitability of a migrant to enter Australia. As a result, non-European settler arrivals rose from 746 in 1966 to 2696 in 1971.

In October 1971, Gough Whitlam made an address to the press in which he outlined three changes he would be making to the Labor Party's immigration platform ahead of the 1972 Federal election (see Source 9.40).



Source 9.39 Mitsuru and Keiko Maeda and their son were among the first Japanese migrants to settle in Australia after changes to immigration laws in 1966.

Source 9.40

> We removed the assertion that a primary national objective must be to increase population. We removed the commitment to expand the immigration program. We related our immigration needs simply to the capacity of Australia to provide 'employment, housing, education and social services' – in other words a very specific instruction to the incoming Labor Government that people, the welfare of people, the people already here and the people who may come, must be the prime consideration, not mere numbers. And thirdly we said unequivocally that there must be no discrimination on grounds of race or colour or nationality.
>
> G. Whitlam, *The Whitlam Government 1972–1975*, Penguin Books Australia Ltd, Melbourne, 1985, pages 497–500

After winning the election and becoming prime minister in 1972, Whitlam and the Labor Government formally removed the last remnants of the White Australia policy in 1973 when it issued new instructions to totally disregard race as a factor in selecting migrants. This was supported with legislation that all migrants, regardless of origin, could apply for citizenship after three years' permanent residence. In addition to this, the government ratified (signed) all international agreements relating to race and immigration. In 1975, this was followed by the introduction of the *Racial Discrimination Act* which made the use of racial criteria for official purposes illegal.



Source 9.41 The Australian Prime Minister, Gough Whitlam (centre) meets the Chinese Premier, Chairman Mao Zedong, 3 November 1973

Check your learning 9.6

Remember and understand

1. Explain the term 'Cold War'.
2. What was the name of the Minister for Immigration who allowed the first non-European immigrants to remain in Australia after World War II?
3. What changes did the *Revised Migration Act 1958* introduce to Australia's immigration policy?
4. What was the Colombo Plan and how did it affect migration?
5. In what year was the White Australia policy officially abolished? What did the Whitlam Government do to formally end the policy?

Apply and analyse

6. Communism played a major role in Australia's involvement in the region and its immigration policies between the 1950s and 1970s. Discuss how the domino theory, fear of communism and Australia's military engagements might have affected the development of Australia's immigration policies at the time.

Evaluate and create

7. Write a 500-word response arguing for or against the following statement:
   'The abolition of the White Australia policy in 1973 is one of the most significant events in Australia's history.'
   Your response should include the following:
   - a. a brief account of how and why the policy was first introduced
   - b. arguments raised at the time for its continuation
   - c. arguments raised at the time against its continuation
   - d. at least two primary or secondary sources referenced appropriately.

Towards a multicultural Australia

As the White Australia policy was gradually dismantled during the 1950s and 1960s, new policies began to take its place. Initially, a policy of **assimilation** was introduced, followed by one of **integration**. These policies were based around the idea that new migrants should conform to the attitudes, values and beliefs of the wider population and abandon or hide their traditional customs and languages. Over time, it became clear that these approaches were neither possible nor appropriate. As a result, the current policy of **multiculturalism** was adopted. Multicultural policies aim to recognise and embrace different cultures and traditions.



Source 9.42 Sydney's Indian community celebrates the Diwali festival at Parramatta Stadium as part of the Parramasala Festival, 2011

Monoculturalism, assimilation and integration

Immigration policy in the 1950s was based on the concept of assimilation. Broadly, this meant migrants were expected to give up their old culture and adopt Australian culture and customs. Assimilation was part of a push to preserve a single Australian culture by excluding the influence of other cultures and traditions – a practice known as **monoculturalism**. By the 1960s, assimilation gave way to a policy of integration. Under this policy, migrants were encouraged to celebrate their own cultures at home but to adopt mainstream Australian values and customs while in public.

The problem with assimilation as a policy was that it demanded people deny the culture, beliefs and values they had grown up with. This is an inherent part of an individual's identity, not easily changed by government policies that discourage cultural and ethnic diversity. The advantages of a monocultural society over one made up of diverse cultures were also unclear.

Even British arrivals, with similar language and culture, would experience a type of culture shock on arrival in Australia, and could often find it difficult to adapt to new life here. When language and cultural difficulties were added to the mix, it is easy to understand why many migrants struggled to assimilate and integrate. Italian migrant and musician Mario Millo provides a view of assimilation in Source 9.43. In an interview, he shares some of the difficulties he encountered as a new migrant in the school playground in the early 1960s.

Source 9.43

> For me, growing up with the name 'Mario' was a hassle most of the time. I remember my first horrific day at school barely knowing how to speak English, I only knew a few words here and there taught to me by my older sister Rosanna, who must have been through the same ordeal. I was in fourth class primary school (guess I was about 9 years old) – we lived very close to the public school and one day I invited one of my best friends home for some lunch. It was my mum's day off and she prepared spaghetti and also an Italian native lettuce (radicchio) which looks like leaves. He thoroughly enjoyed the food but a few days later the gossip in the playground was, 'Mario Ovaltine eats worms and grass'. From that point on we were no longer friends.
>
> From an interview with musician Mario Millo, whose family emigrated from Italy in 1954

Even integration was difficult where appropriate support was not available. Migrants would often find that their education, skills and qualifications were not officially recognised in Australia. Instead, they had to work in physically demanding labouring jobs in order to earn money. Mario Millo remembered the experience of his Italian father, who had emigrated to Australia after border changes in Europe after World War II had meant that his home town was no longer in Italy but had become part of Yugoslavia. 'My father was a qualified diesel mechanic, but as a result of not being able to read or write English, spent his working years in Australia as a factory hand, on the lowest of wages.' This was the reality of assimilation and integration for many migrants in the 1950s and 1960s.

The beginnings of multiculturalism

By the mid-1960s there was an increasing awareness of the difficulties migrants faced when adjusting to a new life, new language and new culture in Australia. The end of the White Australia policy and the influx of new migrants to Australia from all parts of the world meant Australians were increasingly exposed to new cultures, traditions and beliefs that challenged the concept of a monocultural Australia.

Multiculturalism involved accepting and embracing the cultural practices and traditions that migrants brought with them to Australia. It was a natural transition from the White Australia and assimilation policies that had rejected other cultures and ignored the importance of culture to individuals and social groups. Multiculturalism allowed Australians to accept diversity and cultural uniqueness, and the benefits of interaction between people of different backgrounds. For migrants, it allowed them to celebrate their cultural origins while still embracing their adopted country.

Multiculturalism was officially recognised by the government in 1973 when the Whitlam Labor Government's Minister for Immigration, Al Grassby (see Source 9.44), issued a reference paper called 'A multi-cultural society for the future'. Grassby had been instrumental in formalising the end of the White Australia policy and calling for increased migration from non-English speaking countries. Although Grassby's seat was targeted by anti-immigration groups in 1974, causing him to lose his seat, Whitlam appointed him the first federal Commissioner for Community Relations, responsible for administering the new *Racial Discrimination Act 1975*.

Both Prime Minister Whitlam and Opposition Liberal leader Malcolm Fraser embraced the vision of a multicultural Australia in a **bipartisan** manner. This cooperation was significant during one of the most divisive periods in Australian politics (see Source 9.45) and, when the Fraser Government replaced the Whitlam Government in 1975, this approach continued. In 1977 the Ethnic Affairs Council, set up by the Fraser Government, recommended multiculturalism become official public policy. The first official programs were implemented the following year, and in 1979 the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs was established by an act of parliament to raise awareness of cultural diversity and promote social cohesion, understanding and tolerance.



Source 9.44 Al Grassby speaking at the Griffith Wine Festival in 1973



Source 9.45 Prime Minister Gough Whitlam and Liberal leader Malcolm Fraser at an ethnic affairs meeting, 29 July 1975

Check your learning 9.7

Remember and understand

1. Describe the difference between monoculturalism and multiculturalism.
2. Who was Al Grassby, and what role did he play in developing a multicultural Australia?
3. What evidence does Source 9.43 provide that the policy of assimilation adopted in 1950s Australia was difficult for new migrants?

Apply and analyse

4. Why do you think the Whitlam and Fraser governments introduced and supported a multicultural policy for Australia?
5. Create a flowchart to illustrate the different immigration policies implemented in Australia since the 1950s. Include the dates for each and a brief description of what ideas the policies were based around.

The migration debate since 1980

After the government's acceptance of multiculturalism in the 1970s, migrants of different backgrounds had largely become accepted in Australian life. Officially Australia continued to support a migration policy based on skills and not race, and Australia significantly expanded its intake of refugees and displaced persons from around the world.

The arrival of the first Vietnamese refugees by boat in the late 1970s, following the end of the Vietnam War, marked a turning point in Australia's humanitarian migrant intake. By the mid-1980s Australia was accepting tens of thousands of Vietnamese refugees under international arrangements (refer to section 9.3 of this chapter on the Vietnam War), and migration from ordinary channels was still increasing. Over the next two decades, the number of asylum seekers arriving by boat each year would also increase as conflicts broke out around the world, reaching 5500 in 2001 and sparking heated public debate in government, the media and society. This would set the scene for a new Australian debate on immigration relating to refugees and asylum seekers that continues to this day.

New political debate

In 1983, Bob Hawke was elected prime minister. The Hawke Labor Government remained in power from 1983 to 1991 and maintained the political and legislative support it needed to keep multiculturalism as a central immigration policy. In 1984, historian Geoffrey Blainey delivered a speech in which he argued that the rates of Asian immigration to Australia were too high, threatening the social cohesion of Australian society. This helped spark a media and political debate that broke the bipartisan support on migration levels that had characterised much of the previous decade. Although the White Australia policy had long since been abolished, the debate on levels of Asian immigration continued. Increasingly it became linked to debate on the acceptance of refugees.

The debate reached its peak at the end of the 1980s, when then Opposition leader John Howard developed a new Liberal Party policy on immigration and ethnic affairs called 'One Australia'. When discussing it on radio in 1988, Howard suggested the rate of Asian immigration should be slowed. He questioned multiculturalism, arguing it meant that it was impossible to have an Australian ethos or common Australian culture under the policy. He also commented that 'multiculturalism suggests that we can't make up our minds who we are or what we believe in'.



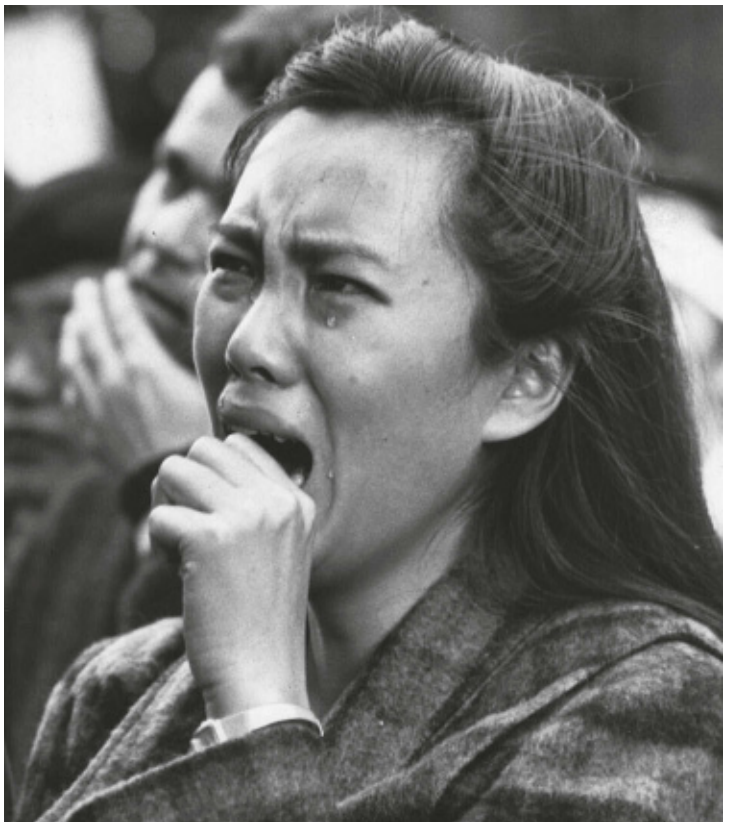
Source 9.46 Australian Prime Minister Bob Hawke in 1983

The Hawke Labor Government quickly reacted to this, introducing a parliamentary motion rejecting the use of race to select immigrants. In 1989 the government released a statement titled *National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia*, which defined the principles of multiculturalism based on three rights and three obligations (see Source 9.49). New initiatives also included a National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition, improved access to government services for all groups, greater support for English language teaching and second language learning, and stronger relationships between government and ethnic communities through a community relations campaign.



Source 9.47 John Howard in 1988, as Leader of the Opposition

In 1989, after the Chinese government's brutal suppression of pro-democracy demonstrators in Tiananmen Square, Beijing, Prime Minister Hawke granted permanent residency to 2000 Chinese students in Australia at the time, and refused China's request to force the students to return home.



Source 9.48 A Chinese student in Sydney in tears on hearing of the pro-democracy uprising taking place in Tiananmen Square, 1989

Source 9.49

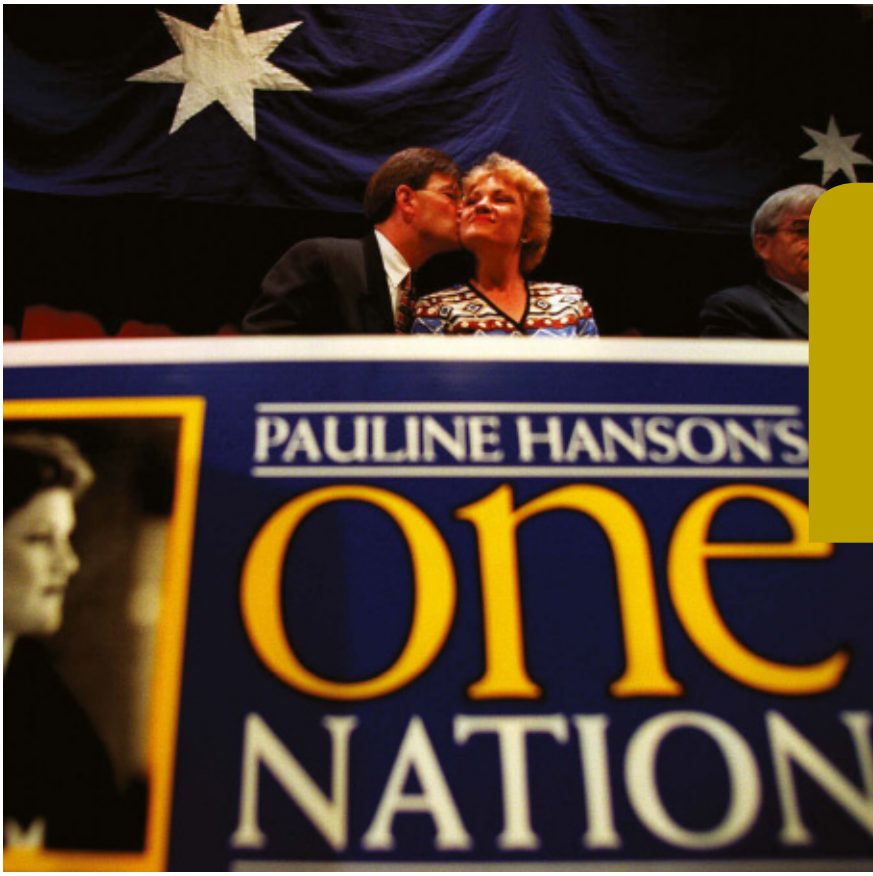
> The right to cultural identity (expressing and sharing one's individual cultural heritage, including their language and religion); social justice (equality of treatment and opportunity, and the removal of barriers of race, ethnicity, culture, religion, language, gender or place of birth); and economic 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

Mandatory detention

In 1991, Prime Minister Paul Keating took over as leader of the Labor Government and introduced the next major policy change for migration. In response to the increasing number of Vietnamese, Chinese and Cambodian refugees seeking asylum in Australia and the apparent levels of community concern, the Keating Government in 1992 introduced a system of **mandatory detention** of asylum seekers. This meant anyone arriving in Australia without a valid visa would be detained immediately on arrival until they underwent relevant checks and assessments. The government wished to signal that 'migration to Australia may not be achieved by simply arriving in this country and expecting to be allowed into the community'. In 1994, the initial time limit on detention was also removed, meaning asylum seekers could be detained indefinitely.

One Nation

Despite the government's attempts to control the migration debate, the issue continued to grow. It became central to the 1996 federal election, when the Howard Liberal Government was voted into power. Queensland member Pauline Hanson was also elected to federal parliament.



Source 9.50 Pauline Hanson and One Nation, 1996

Initially a Liberal candidate, she became an Independent after being disendorsed (no longer supported by the party) due to comments she made about the 'special treatment' of Indigenous Australians. In her maiden speech after being elected as the Member for Oxley, Hanson said, 'I and most Australians want our immigration policy radically reviewed and that of multiculturalism abolished. I believe we are in danger of being swamped by Asians'. Hanson went on to form her own political party, One Nation, which attracted support in the late 1990s in her native Queensland. Although never returned to federal parliament, her divisive policies on immigration and ability to play on the fears of some voters permanently affected the political landscape.

Migration during the Howard years

Since his time as opposition leader in the 1980s, Liberal politician John Howard had rejected multiculturalism. Howard saw an 'Australian tradition' at the centre of national identity and argued that migrants should embrace that tradition. In 1996, Howard was elected prime minister of Australia. He remained in power until 2007. During his time in office he attempted to implement a citizenship test that required migrants to demonstrate an understanding of Australian history and sport. He also argued for a new preamble to the Australian Constitution that recognised God and 'mateship'. Howard summarised his beliefs on multiculturalism in a 2006 Australia Day address to the National Press Club (see Source 9.52).

Source 9.52

> Most nations experience some level of cultural diversity while also having a dominant cultural pattern running through them. In Australia's case, that dominant pattern comprises Judeo-Christian ethics, the progressive spirit of the Enlightenment and the institutions and values of British political culture. Its democratic and egalitarian temper also bears the imprint of distinct Irish and non-conformist traditions.
>
> John Howard, excerpt from address to the National Press Club, 26 January 2006



Source 9.51 A Nicholson cartoon reflecting on the Howard Government's immigration policies, *The Australian,* 11 June 2000

key**concept:** contestability

The 'Children overboard' affair

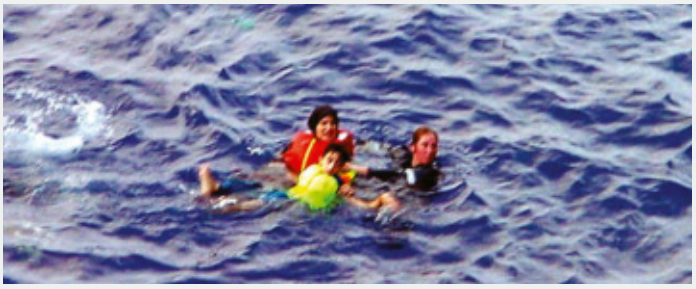
On 6 October 2001, the HMAS *Adelaide* intercepted a boat, the *Olong*, carrying Iraqi asylum seekers towards Australia. This event took place the day after Prime Minister Howard had called a federal election in which the question of asylum seekers was to be a key issue.

Two days later the *Olong* started to sink, and some of the *Adelaide*'s crew dived into the water to help rescue the passengers. Confused reports meant that Canberra was originally told that parents on the *Olong* had threatened to throw or actually had thrown their children overboard so they would be rescued by the *Adelaide*.

Prime Minister Howard, Minister for Immigration Ruddock and Minister for Defence Reith all condemned the asylum seekers for such cruel treatment, and used this as a reason to be harsh on all asylum seekers. Investigations indicated that there was real doubt about whether children had been thrown overboard, but the government continued to insist they had. The government also refused to release most photographs from the *Adelaide*, other than those that showed the crew of the *Adelaide* in the water with children.

A Senate committee later found no children had been at risk of being thrown overboard and that the government had known this prior to the election. The government was criticised in the media for misleading the public and cynically exploiting voters' fears of a wave of illegal immigrants. The sailor shown in Source 9.54 later had her aunt tell ABC News, 'at no stage was anybody throwing anyone overboard'.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 9.54 This picture, taken with a mobile phone, shows Able Seaman Laura Whittle rescuing a mother and son from the water – they were among those who had been on the *Olong* on 8 October 2001



Source 9.53 Photograph taken by a naval officer of rescued asylum seekers on board the HMAS *Adelaide* after the so-called 'Children overboard' incident – West Australian-based Project SafeCom acquired this and other photographs anonymously several weeks after the sinking of the *Olong* on 8 October 2001, and the rescue of the vessel's 219 passengers (AAP Image/SafeCom)

During Howard's time as prime minister, asylum seekers and refugees became the main focus of Australia's migration debate because the numbers of arrivals continued to rise. During his 2001 campaign for re-election, Howard famously stated 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come' in reference to boat people arrivals. Later that year, the issue of asylum seekers became highly controversial during the *Tampa* and 'Children overboard' affairs.

During his first term in office, Howard continued the mandatory detention policy introduced by the Keating Government. The Howard Government took this one step further by also introducing a tough new approach to 'deter and deny'. Central to this approach was the 'Pacific Solution' – a policy that involved transporting asylum seekers to offshore detention centres set up on the Pacific islands of Nauru and Manus Island (in Papua New Guinea) where their refugee status would be determined. The government also increased border surveillance and patrols. Islands where boat arrivals usually attempted to land (such as Christmas Island) were also legally excluded from Australia's migration zone. This allowed the Australian government to avoid being subject to ordinary legal processes that refugees would otherwise be entitled to by law.



Source 9.55 This cartoon by Bill Leak represents John Howard as Captain Cook arriving in Australia

Check your learning 9.8

Remember and understand

1 How did the Hawke Government respond to the 1989 Tiananmen Square protests?

2 What was the main argument of One Nation's Pauline Hanson in her maiden speech to parliament? How does this relate to the White Australia policy of the mid-20th century?

3 How did the Howard Government react to the increased number of asylum seekers arriving by boat? Why was the government's reaction to the 'Children overboard' affair controversial?

Apply and analyse

4 In pairs, consider how the debate about multiculturalism changed between its acceptance in the 1970s to the position held by the Howard Government. Debate the advantages and disadvantages of the approach promoted by the Hawke Government and the Howard Government.

Evaluate and create

5 What was the significance of John Howard's 2001 election statement: 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come'? Write a short paper evaluating whether this statement reflected any significant change in Australia's approach to immigration since the time of Federation.

The ongoing migration debate

Since the Howard years, 'boat people' and refugees have become the defining feature of the Australian political debate around migration. This is largely because the number of boat arrivals has continued to rise. Discussions around the reintroduction of the White Australia policy – although briefly revived by the One Nation party in the 1990s – have now been consigned to history. In its place is a policy of multiculturalism established in the 1970s by the Whitlam (Labor) and Fraser (Liberal coalition) governments. Despite the commitment to multiculturalism in Australia, debate still continues about the best ways in which to manage the numbers of new migrants arriving each year.

Boat people

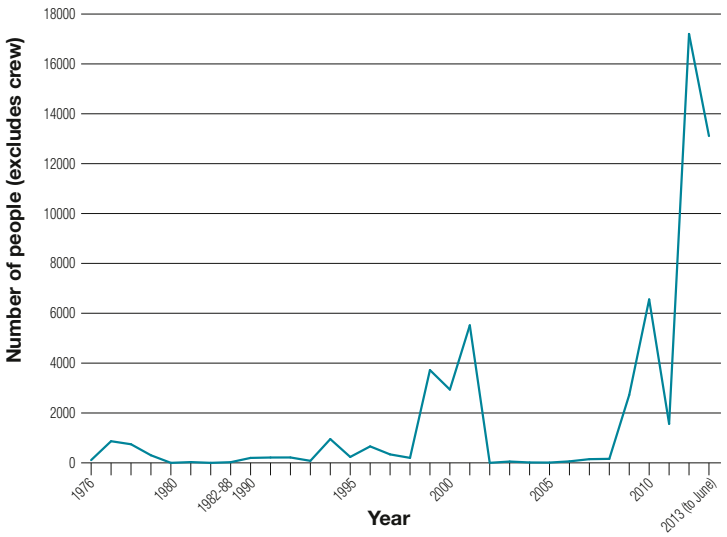
The term **'boat people'** was introduced with the arrival of the first wave of Vietnamese refugees in the late 1970s and early 1980s, fleeing Vietnam through neighbouring Asian countries after the end of the Vietnam War. A second wave of asylum seekers arrived in 1989 and in the early 1990s, mainly from Cambodia, Vietnam and Southern China, at the time the Keating Government introduced its policy of mandatory detention. This was followed by a third wave in 1999 and in the early 2000s, mainly from the Middle East. The numbers of arrivals were larger than ever before, triggering the Howard Government's tough response – the Pacific Solution and 'deter and deny' policy described in the previous section. A fourth wave would soon arrive, bigger than any before, reaching 17 000 people in 2012 alone, and triggering another intense political debate. Source 9.57 illustrates this pattern of boat arrivals and the increase since 1976.

A noticeable difference with the recent waves is that asylum seekers often arrive with the help of intermediary 'people smugglers', people who arrange for refugees to make the voyage in return for a fee. These voyages are extremely dangerous, with overcrowded boats and equipment in terrible condition not fit for high seas, and trips often result in many people drowning. During the third and fourth waves, regular stories arose of tens or even hundreds of people dying from the sinking of a single ship at sea. Many of these boats sank near the shore of Australia's Christmas Island, close to Australia's maritime border with Indonesia and the most common destination. As these drownings became increasingly visible to the public via the media, the political debate became one of deterrence for reasons of safety, as much as slowing the number of arrivals.

Despite regular changes in Australian government policy and repeated attempts to deter arrivals, the issue of boat arrivals is hugely complex. Push factors from source countries are outside the control of Australian policy, and for many people outweigh the risks and dangers of attempting the voyage. Although the number of arrivals has increased significantly since 1976, relative to the rest of the world the number remains comparatively small.



Source 9.56 Children and women on a boat from Vietnam arrive in Darwin, November 1977



Source 9.57 Boat arrivals in selected years since 1976 (adapted from information at the Australian Parliamentary Library)

The increase in people seeking asylum has raised concerns globally, with many destination countries facing much larger numbers. For example, in 2011 in Italy alone there were more than 61000 irregular boat arrivals, via North Africa, Greece and Turkey. The number of asylum seekers arriving by land, a problem that does not affect Australia, is even higher and often falls on the world's poorest countries. For example, in 2011, Pakistan hosted 1.7 million refugees and Iran almost 900000.

The Malaysia Solution

Successive Australian governments since the Howard years have attempted to address the issue. In 2007, the newly elected Labor Government led by Prime Minister Kevin Rudd set about softening Australia's policies. Soon after taking office, Rudd closed offshore processing centres in Nauru and Manus Island (Papua New Guinea).

As new waves of boat arrivals increased, the Australian government (now under the leadership of Prime Minister Julia Gillard) set about toughening these policies again. In 2011, the government reached a deal with Malaysia to send a quota of boat arrivals to resettle in Malaysia, in exchange for Australia accepting a much larger number from Malaysia through normal refugee processing centres. The 'Malaysia Solution' was soon challenged by refugee advocates in the High Court of Australia. The court ruled by a large majority that the proposed arrangement was legally invalid. In response, the Gillard Government soon reopened detention centres in Nauru and Manus Island and introduced a new 'No advantage' policy in an attempt to deter people from making the voyage.

The PNG Solution

After Kevin Rudd took over from Julia Gillard as Prime Minister in 2013, one of the government's first actions was to announce a new refugee resettlement plan. The plan, which was developed in agreement with the Papua New Guinean Prime Minister Peter O'Neill, was called the 'Regional Resettlement Arrangement between Australia and Papua New Guinea'. This new plan became known simply as the 'PNG Solution'. Under the PNG Solution, any asylum seeker arriving by boat without a valid visa would be refused settlement in Australia, even if found to be a refugee. Instead the asylum seeker would be resettled in Papua New Guinea. The intent of this plan was to remove any attraction or pull factor for asylum seekers to make the voyage to Australia, and in turn dismantle the business of people smugglers offering voyages.

Both major parties welcomed the PNG Solution in an effort to appear tough on boat people, but the policy was strongly opposed by the Greens and there were several public demonstrations in major cities.

'Stop the boats'

Boat arrivals and refugees were central to the 2013 federal election campaign between the Rudd Labor Government and Liberal Opposition, led by Tony Abbott. During the election campaign, the Liberal Party proposed a range of policies that were even 'tougher' than the PNG Solution. Central to the policy was a promise to 'Stop the boats'. The policy proposed a military-led response, similar to the one proposed by the Howard Government in 2001. It involved either 'towing' or 'turning' back any boats discovered on course for Australia, and included new proposals to buy any boats from people smugglers in Indonesia.

After being elected prime minister in 2013, Tony Abbott set about implementing these new policies. During his first days in office, the policy created some diplomatic tensions with Indonesia. Indonesian officials complained publicly that their government had not been consulted on the policy and argued that the plan could interfere with Indonesia's sovereignty as a country.

Commitment to multiculturalism

Even though the political debate on migration in recent years has focused almost exclusively on boat people, Australia's commitment to a policy of multiculturalism has remained strong and is widely seen by Australians as successful. Despite some attempts by the Howard Government to revert to a policy of integration, multiculturalism has remained the dominant migration policy for almost 40 years and has been reinforced by successive governments.

In 2008 the Rudd Government announced the creation of the Australian Multicultural Advisory Council (AMAC). The council's purpose was to advise the government on 'practical approaches' to overcoming racism and intolerance and promoting diversity. The Gillard Government reaffirmed its commitment to multicultural policy in 2011, as illustrated by the quote in Source 9.59. It remains to be seen how future governments will approach the issue, but the success of multiculturalism in Australia today suggests any going back to the historical policies of the 20th century is unlikely.



Source 9.58 People from all over the world have chosen to become Australian citizens.

Source 9.59

Australia's multicultural policy embraces our shared values and cultural traditions. It also allows those who choose to call Australia home the right to practise and share in their cultural traditions and languages within the law and free from discrimination.

Australia is a multicultural nation. In all, since 1945, seven million people have migrated to Australia. Today, one in four of Australia's 22 million people were born overseas, 44 per cent were born overseas or have a parent who was, and four million speak a language other than English. We speak [more than] 260 languages and identify with more than 270 ancestries. Australia is and will remain a multicultural society.

From *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, Australian Government, 2011

Check your learning 9.9

Remember and understand

1 What was the Malaysia Solution and why did it fail?

2 Explain the differences between the Pacific Solution, the PNG Solution and the policy of 'Stop the boats'.

Apply and analyse

3 Look at the information provided in Source 9.57 showing boat arrivals. How does your study of history help you explain the variations in boat arrivals in Australia between 1976 and 2010?

4 Looking at this section and the last section, analyse how successive governments since the 1970s have viewed multiculturalism.

Evaluate and create

5 Governments since the early 1990s starting with the Keating Government have proposed tougher and tougher measures to deter asylum seekers arriving by sea. Looking at the graph of boat arrivals in Source 9.57, and considering the push and pull factors looked at earlier in this chapter, evaluate how effective you think these policies have been.

9.2 big**ideas:** rich task

The *Tampa* crisis

On 23 August 2001, two vessels set sail from different ports. A Norwegian freighter called the *Tampa* left Fremantle headed towards Singapore. The *Palapa* left Java, heading towards Australia. On board the *Palapa* were 438 asylum seekers, most of whom were fleeing the Taliban regime in Afghanistan. The paths of the two vessels would cross in the Indian Ocean, creating an incident that would see Australia attract international criticism for the way it was handled.



Source 9.60 Many of the asylum seekers on board the *Tampa* feared returning to Afghanistan.

On 25 August, the *Palapa* was spotted drifting without power, and the Australian Coastwatch called for shipping to help rescue its passengers. Captain Arne Rinnan on board the *Tampa* diverted his ship to assist the *Palapa*. Australian authorities told Rinnan to take those he had rescued to Indonesia. They informed him he would be prosecuted if he attempted to take the asylum seekers to Australian territory.

Rinnan attempted to turn towards Indonesia, despite Christmas Island being the closest land. However, the asylum seekers on board the *Tampa* became distressed and demanded to be taken to Australia. Responsible for ensuring the safety of his vessel, and with several asylum seekers becoming increasingly ill, Rinnan turned for Christmas Island.

The context of the incident was an impending federal election in Australia. To show firm leadership against asylum seekers arriving by boat, Prime Minister Howard rejected Rinnan's request to land the refugees. When the *Tampa* refused to leave, the Howard Government ordered troops from the Australian Army's Special Air Services Regiment to board the vessel. Norway responded by condemning Australia in the United Nations as 'inhumane and contravening international law'.

Source 9.61

> I have seen most of what there is to see in this profession, but what I experienced on this trip is the worst. When we asked for food and medicine for the refugees, the Australians sent commando troops onboard. This created a very high tension among the refugees. After an hour of checking the refugees, the troops agreed to give medical assistance to some of them … The soldiers obviously didn't like their mission.
>
> Excerpt of an interview with the *Tampa*'s captain, Arne Rinnan, in *Norway Today*

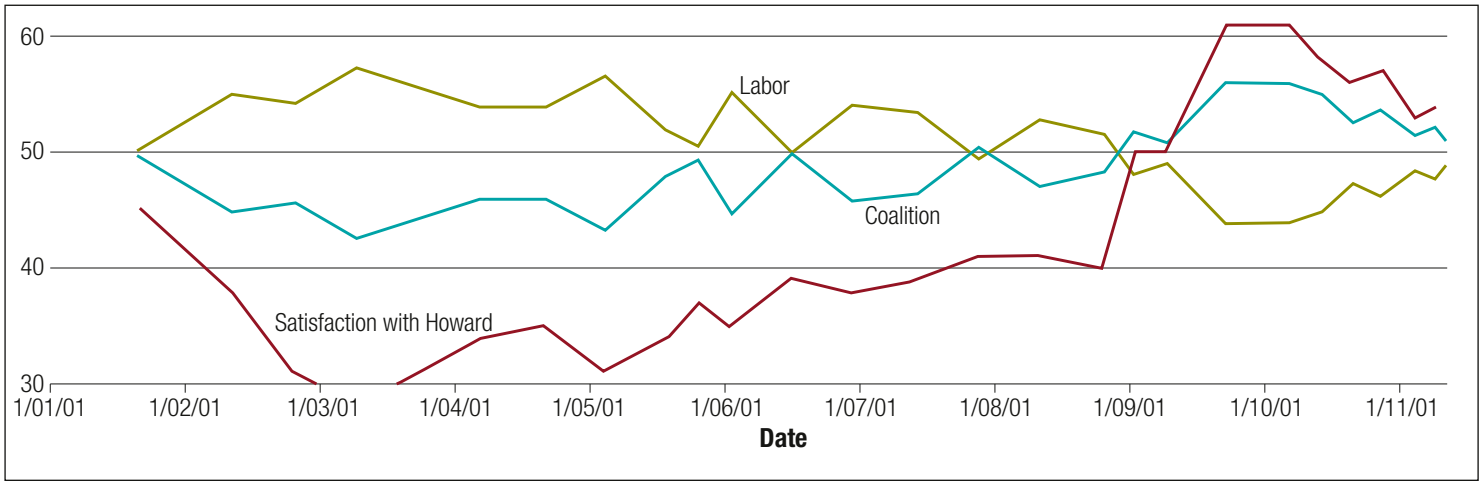
After frantic negotiations, Howard organised a $16.5 million deal to allow the asylum seekers to land on the tiny Pacific island of Nauru, his 'Pacific Solution'. A Nielsen poll showed that 74 per cent of Australians approved of Howard's handling of the *Tampa* affair (see Source 9.62). On 5 October, Howard called an election for 10 November, and ran on the slogan, 'We will decide who comes to this country, and the circumstances in which they come'.

From Nauru, New Zealand took 208 asylum seekers. Sweden, Canada and Norway each took 10; a further 179 Afghans, four Sri Lankans and three Pakistanis were convinced to return home. Australia ended up accepting just 28 of the 438 asylum seekers from the *Palapa*.

skill**drill**

Process and synthesise information from a range of sources for use as evidence in a historical argument

The primary sources that historians use to form opinions and arguments about the *Tampa* crisis can tell different stories. It is the job of historians to analyse these sources, identify what evidence they provide to support or refute particular arguments, and come to a conclusion about their usefulness and reliability. It is important to identify who created each



Source 9.62 Newspoll showing Prime Minister John Howard's approval ratings in 2001 – approval increased significantly around the time of the *Tampa* incident (the *Australian*, November 2001)

source and the reason why it was created. That way you can identify any potential bias. Once you have done this, you can write your argument, using the sources as evidence. You should explain why particular sources support your argument, and give reasons why the sources that disagree with you are not as important or valid.

Apply the skill

1 Examine Sources 9.60, 9.61, and 9.62 carefully. Copy the table in Source 9.63 into your notebook.

Source 9.63

	Source 9.60	Source 9.61	Source 9.62
What evidence does this source provide about the *Tampa* crisis?			
Who wrote or created it?			
Why was the source created?			
Is the source reliable?			

2 Once you have completed the table, use the information you have gathered to write a historical argument about the *Tampa* incident, using the plan provided below.

Title: Was Australia's treatment of asylum seekers aboard the *Tampa* justified?

Introduction: The *Tampa* crisis occurred when … (introduce the context of your piece and focus on the origins of the asylum seekers and the political situation in Australia at the time).

Paragraph 1: Some sources say … (explain which sources describe the asylum seekers' background and give examples of some of the conditions they were fleeing in Afghanistan).

Paragraph 2: However, other sources say … (explain which sources indicate that Australia's response to the situation was acceptable or necessary and give examples of some of the arguments provided).

Paragraph 3: We have to be careful about which sources we use because … (explain the problems with some of the sources in terms of reliability and bias).

Conclusion: Overall, the evidence suggests … (summarise the evidence and give your informed opinion about Australia's response to the *Tampa* incident).

Extend your understanding

1 The treatment of asylum seekers who reach Australia by boat continues to provoke debate and divide public opinion today. Do some research on the Internet to find out more about:

a how and why the countries of origin for asylum seekers have changed since 2001

b how Australian Government policy towards asylum seekers has changed during this period.

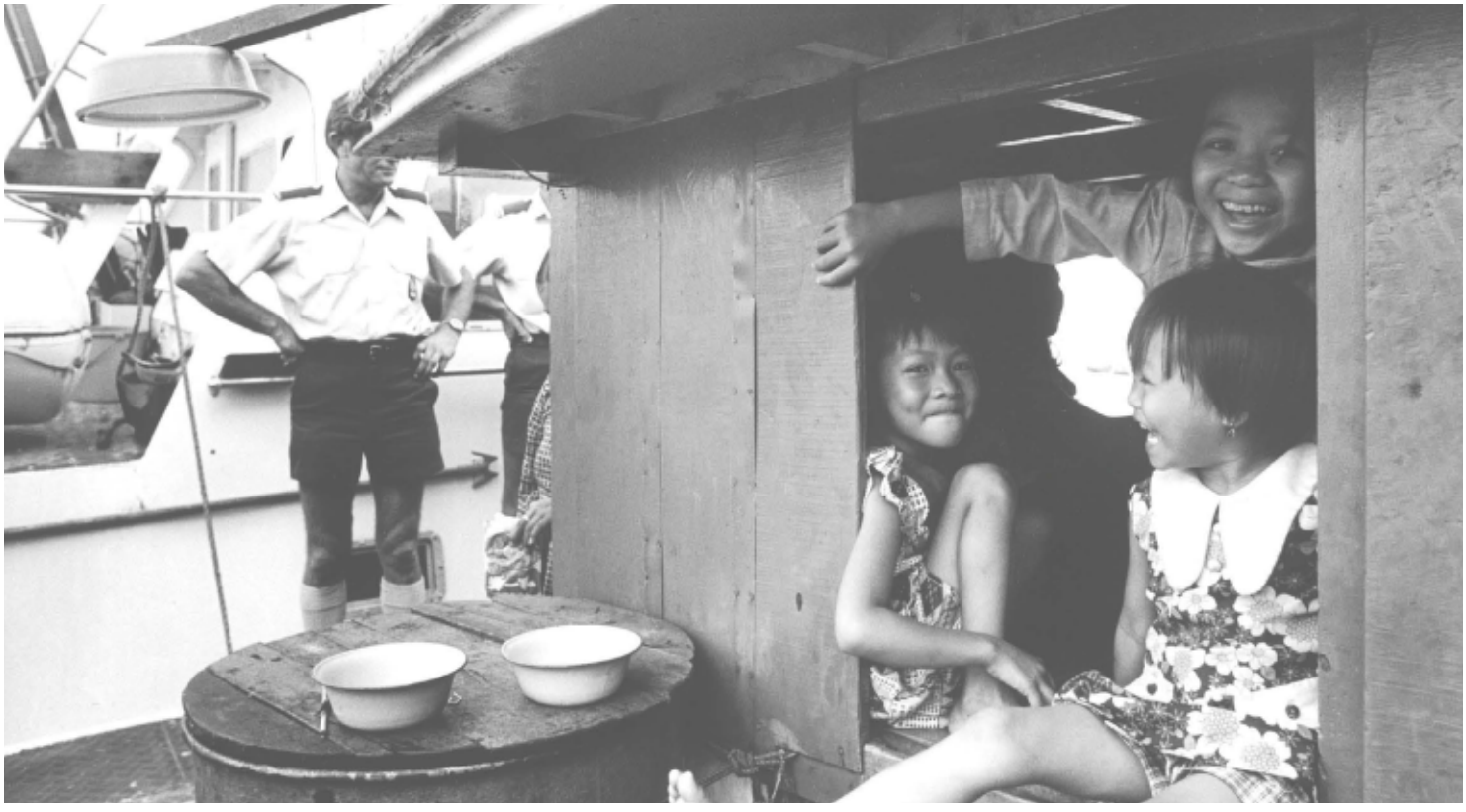
Present a report of your findings in class.

9.3 How did the Vietnam War affect migration to Australia?

The impact of the Vietnam War on migration

Before the end of the Vietnam War there were less than 2000 Vietnamese-born people living in Australia. These people were mainly tertiary students, the wives of Australian servicemen or orphans of the war. After the end of the war, when US and Australian troops withdrew and South Vietnam was overtaken by the communist North, people fleeing through neighbouring Asian countries began to arrive in Australia by boat after perilous voyages by sea.

During the war years it is estimated more than half the Vietnamese population was displaced. Huge numbers of Vietnamese would leave Vietnam to seek asylum in countries around the world and Australia would enter international agreements to accept refugees in large numbers not seen before. Most of the people would remain in Australia and begin new lives here, leaving a permanent impression on Australian culture and making positive contributions to the country. This section will proved a detailed case study of the Vietnam War and how if affected migration to Australia. We will look briefly at the background and how it unfolded, and its affect on Vietnamese migration to Australia. It will also look at some important Vietnamese and the contributions they have made to Australian culture and society today.



Source 9.64 Refugees from Vietnam land safely at Darwin Harbour, November 1977

Background to the Vietnam War

The Vietnam War was a military conflict fought between North Vietnam and South Vietnam. The conflict broke out in 1955 between pro-communist and pro-capitalist countries and was part of the Cold War. North Vietnam was supported by the USSR, China and North Korea, while South Vietnam was supported by the United States with its allies: Thailand, Australia, New Zealand, and the Philippines. The war was part of the American effort to prevent the spread of communism in Asia. Australia strongly supported this anti-communist stance and became involved in the war in 1962. During the Vietnam War – referred to in Vietnam as the American War – Australia fought alongside the United States, intervening in what was an internal conflict in Vietnam.

Historians have traced the beginnings of Vietnamese society back to as early as 2879 BCE. Since then, the Vietnamese have fought to preserve their independence. A failure of other countries to understand this fundamental element of Vietnamese society was at the root of the Vietnam War. Since the mid-19th century, Vietnam had been part of the French Empire. During World War II, however, Japan invaded Vietnam and treated the Vietnamese very badly. During this time, a Vietnamese communist revolutionary by the name of Ho Chi Minh led a resistance group to fight both the Japanese and the French occupation. In May 1941, Ho Chi Minh founded a communist coalition (known as the Viet Minh) to fight for Vietnamese independence from Japan.

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

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

Bao Dai was ousted from power in the south by a man named Ngo Dinh Diem in 1955. Ngo Dinh Diem was a corrupt landowner who had little support from the Vietnamese people. However, because he was against communism, he had the support of the USA. Diem's police tortured and killed peasants suspected of supporting the Viet Minh.

In 1957, the Viet Minh in North Vietnam began a guerrilla war (a war fought by small, independent groups of fighters) against South Vietnam in order to reunify their country. The United States, under President Kennedy, sent American advisers to support the anti-communist government of South Vietnam. It also sent military advisers to help train and support the South Vietnamese army.

In December 1960, the National Liberation Front for South Vietnam was formed in opposition to Diem's government in South Vietnam. It allied with North Vietnam and became known as the Viet Cong. North Vietnam dramatically increased its military assistance to the Viet Cong, which then began attacking South Vietnamese military units. The Viet Cong continued to use guerrilla warfare against the government of South Vietnam and the United States through the war.



Source 9.65 Captured Viet Cong member, 27 January 1967

Australian involvement in the war

Australia's prime minister at the start of the Vietnam conflict was Robert Menzies. He fully supported the United States' anti-communist policy, and was a committed ally throughout the war. Menzies was a strong believer in the domino theory – the belief that, if Vietnam was allowed to fall to communism, then the rest of South-East Asia would quickly follow, just like dominoes falling one after another. In 1962, the Australian government committed its first military advisers to South Vietnam. That initial commitment of 30 men would grow to 60 000 over the next decade. It would also lead to the reintroduction of **conscription** for overseas military service, an issue that divided Australian society.



Source 9.66 Australian troops during the Vietnam War, 8 June 1965

Five hundred Australians died during the Vietnam War, including 185 National Servicemen who had been conscripted to fight. By fighting for the South Vietnamese, the Australian military worked closely with many Vietnamese. Until the deployment of Australian soldiers to Afghanistan in 2001, Vietnam had been Australia's longest war.

How the war ended

Over the years, the Vietnam War became increasingly drawn out. Although it was a guerrilla war, all levels of the armed forces were involved. The conflict is referred to as the 'first television war' because television news crews accompanied soldiers into the field. News bulletins reported ever-increasing death tolls. Politicians continued to speak of a 'light at the end of the tunnel', while television viewers were becoming depressingly familiar with the sight of body bags and coffins.

In 1968, North Vietnamese and Viet Cong troops launched one of the largest military campaigns of the war against South Vietnam, the United States and its allies. It was known as the Tet Offensive and involved a series of surprise attacks on cities in the south. Although the offensive was eventually repelled, many troops were killed and any illusions that the war effort was going well for the United States and its allies were shattered. With public confidence and support dwindling in both the United States and Australia, politicians looked for ways to remove themselves from a conflict that looked to have no end.

Australia pulled out of the war in 1972, and the United States followed in 1973. All foreign support personnel and advisers pulled out in 1975 as the North Vietnamese approached Saigon. As the tanks rolled into the former Presidential Palace in Saigon, the USA calculated the cost of involvement in the conflict. More than 58 000 Americans had died.

The final result of the conflict was the collapse of the South Vietnamese government in 1975. That year, North Vietnamese troops gained control of South Vietnam and the country was reunified. In the aftermath of the war, both the United States and Australia opened their doors to refugees from the conflict. As a result, the Vietnam War changed the nature of migration to Australia.

Check your learning 9.10

Remember and understand

1 Who did the Vietnamese side with during World War II?
2 When did Australia pull out of Vietnam?
3 In what ways did the South Vietnamese provide support to the Americans and Australians during the Vietnam War?
4 In what year did the North finally overtake the South?

Apply and analyse

5 Why was the Tet Offensive of 1968 so important in the Vietnam War?
6 What was the 'domino theory'? Do you think it provides an appropriate justification for Australian involvement in the Vietnam War?

Vietnamese emigration: moral obligations

While fighting in Vietnam, the US and Australian troops had relied heavily on the South Vietnamese people for supplies and support. They required translators, administrative support staff and guides simply to function as an armed force. There were also a range of support services used to maintain the army in the field, such as shopkeepers, bar owners, taxi drivers and owners of accommodation used by soldiers. When the war ended, many people in the United States and Australia felt they owed a debt to these people and wanted to help them.

Re-education camps

At the end of the war, anyone who had worked with the United States was regarded as a traitor by North Vietnamese and Viet Cong troops. The victorious communists set up re-education camps to force those influenced by the West to change their previous loyalties. Investigations in the USA have concluded that about one million Vietnamese were imprisoned in re-education camps after the end of the war in April 1975, but there are many debates about the actual statistics. It is thought that about 165 000 people died in these camps, and that torture and ill treatment did take place. Generally, people were held in these camps from 3 to 10 years, but some people were locked up for up to 17 years. About 150 camps were built, and in the years following the war around one in three Vietnamese families had a relative in a prison.

As the re-education camps were set up, it appeared to many in the former South Vietnam that the West had simply abandoned them. The lucky ones had managed to secure passage with the Americans during the frantic final hours of the evacuation of Saigon. It was the million left behind who were to be the greatest test of moral obligation for the West.

Vietnamese displaced persons, refugees and asylum seekers

Given the horrors of war and the fear of imprisonment in re-education camps after reunification, many Vietnamese became desperate to leave the country. Some chose to leave because they feared political persecution because of their pro-American beliefs. Others felt their opportunities to prosper in a communist Vietnam would be limited by the new political system.

The United Nations Human Rights Commission (UNHCR) places people who flee from their country in various categories. Internally displaced persons are those who have been forced to flee their residence because of armed conflicts while they were still living within their country. Stateless people are those who are not considered a citizen of a particular state. Vietnam in the late 1970s had people in both these situations.

The greatest number who fled, however, were refugees (see Source 9.67) and asylum seekers (see Source 9.68). The UNHCR is regarded as the authority in determining the status of people after armed conflicts. These two definitions are still used today when assessing the victims of conflicts throughout the world who seek safer lives and more secure futures for their families.

Source 9.67

> [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 9.68

> [An asylum seeker is] an individual who is seeking international protection. In countries with individualized refugee status determination procedures, an asylum-seeker is someone whose claim has not yet been finally decided on by the country in which he or she has submitted it. Not every asylum-seeker will ultimately be recognized as a refugee, but every refugee is initially an asylum-seeker.
>
> UNHCR guidelines

Boat people

As discussed earlier, the term boat people, has become highly politicised in Australian society since the 1970s. Border security has long been a concern for our island nation with a relatively small population. Boats have been arriving in Australia since first settlement, but the arrival of Vietnamese refugees began a new era of foreign migration.

The first boat refugees from Vietnam to arrive in Australia landed in Darwin in April 1976. This was a year after the end of the Vietnam War, and these new arrivals were driven by fear and desperation. According to government figures, the initial boat was followed by a further 2058 boats from Vietnam, with the final boat arriving in August 1981. The composition of the Australian population was changing, and the stereotype of a 'real Australian' was being challenged.

The journey to Australia

For most Vietnamese boat people the journey was horrendous. After bribing local officials, they took to dangerous seas, often on makeshift boats and rafts. The main hope was to drift into open sea lanes, and be picked up by a vessel that could take them to a safe destination. Sturdier vessels did make it as far as Australia, but many only made it as far as neighbouring countries such as Thailand.

Before leaving Vietnam, families had to sell all their belongings, and any money was usually converted to gold, which was easier to carry. Unfortunately, that made the boats prime targets for pirates, particularly along the coast of Thailand. Pirates became a major risk for potential refugees, and added further danger to a voyage that was already risky with storms and rough seas.

There are no clear statistics, but estimates suggest 250000 to 500000 refugees perished in their attempts to leave Vietnam. There are graphic accounts by survivors of robbery, rape and murder by Thai pirates. Families were typically split before leaving Vietnam in the hope that at least one would survive and reach safety. Those fleeing survived on very little food and water, and with a voyage to Darwin lasting four weeks, many arrived in Australia in an emaciated condition.



Source 9.69 This boat containing Vietnamese refugees was moored in Darwin Harbour on 5 October 1981.



Source 9.70 A refugee camp in Asia for Vietnamese refugees

Refugee camps

The UNHCR recognised the scope of the tragedy that was unfolding and established refugee camps in Malaysia, Hong Kong, Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia to try and process the claims of the fleeing Vietnamese. Their work won the UNHCR the Nobel Peace Prize for 1981. From these camps, refugees were processed and resettled in countries willing to accept them.

The main countries to accept Vietnamese refugees were the United States (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 9.11

Remember and understand

1 When did the first boat refugees from Vietnam arrive in Australia?
2 Why might it be so difficult to get accurate historical information on the 're-education' period in Vietnamese history?
3 In what countries did the UNHCR establish camps for the Vietnamese who were fleeing?

Apply and analyse

4 In what ways can Australia be seen to have had a moral obligation to accept Vietnamese refugees at the end of the war?
5 What is the difference between a refugee and an asylum seeker? How are they similar? How are they different? Use a Venn diagram to organise your ideas.

Significant individuals: the contribution of immigrants to Australia

One of the great achievements of Australia's acceptance of Vietnamese boat people has been the number of outstanding young Australians of Vietnamese heritage that have gone on to contribute to Australian life. Two Young Australians of the Year were Vietnamese refugees, and Vietnamese Australians have made major contributions to Australian culture.

Vietnamese immigrants have spread throughout Australia, enriching local communities when they start businesses. They have introduced new flavours with traditional Vietnamese cooking and brought new ideas to Australian thinking. The Vietnamese immigrants have established a reputation for hard work and an enthusiasm for community life.

A study of the significant contributions that talented young Australians of Vietnamese background have made reveal the true value Australia has gained from accepting the first 'boat people'.

Tan Le

Tan Le was named Young Australian of the Year in 1998 for her work in the community as well as outstanding contributions to telecommunications and business. Born in Vietnam in 1977, she arrived in Australia as a refugee in 1982. By the time she was 18 she was president of the Vietnamese Community of Footscray, finding jobs for Vietnamese Australians. In 2000 she was admitted as a barrister and lawyer, and in 2003 co-founded Emotiv, the neuro-engineering company that developed a breakthrough interface technology for digital media, taking inputs directly from the brain. It is regarded as technology that utterly transforms the way we interact with computers. By 2011 Tan Le was named by *Forbes Magazine* as one of 50 names to watch because of her work on a headset that takes orders directly from the brain.



Source 9.71 Tan Le was named Young Australian of the Year in 1998.

Anh Do

Anh Do was born in Vietnam in 1977 and arrived in Australia in 1980 after leaving Vietnam on a fishing boat and reaching a refugee camp in Malaysia. Do chronicled the family's journey from Vietnam to Malaysia crammed aboard a fishing boat in his award-winning memoir *The Happiest Refugee*. After a degree in Business/Law, Anh Do decided that life as a stand-up comedian was preferable to the corporate world, and he developed a reputation on Sydney's comedy circuit as a witty observer of life as an immigrant. His acceptance into mainstream Australia is reflected by his popularity. He has made appearances on television shows such as *Dancing with the Stars* and *The Footy Show*. The popular and critical success of *The Happiest Refugee* showed the Australian public's willingness to engage with refugee stories.

Khoa Do

Khoa Do is Anh Do's brother, and was born in Ho Chi Minh City in 1979. He has a passion for drama, and this was the vehicle he used to reach other Vietnamese youths in Sydney's western suburbs. His first short film, *Delivery Day*, looked at the problems for a Vietnamese girl of balancing demands in Australian society. It was nominated for an AFI award in 2001. He was named Young Australian of



Source 9.72 Anh Do and Khoa Do



Source 9.73 Nam Le at the Melbourne Writer's Festival, 24 August 2008

the Year in 2005 for showing 'leadership, compassion, a will to inspire and inform Australians on issues that affect our communities'. In 2006, his film *Footy Legends* used his experience of Rugby League as a comedic bridge across cultures and featured his brother in the starring role. He has continued to use film to focus on Australian life, and his 2011 film *Falling for Sahara* details the lives of Ethiopian and Somali refugees in Melbourne.

Nam Le

Nam Le was born in Vietnam in 1977, and came to Australia by boat as a refugee when he was less than a year old. He grew up in Melbourne, graduating from the University of Melbourne with Honours in Arts and Law. He worked briefly in law, but discovered his passion for writing. In 2004, he attended a writing workshop in Iowa, and completed a Masters degree in Creative Writing. His first book, *The Boat*, dominated literary awards in 2008. It is a collection of short stories, ranging from material that echoes his memories of Vietnam to stories of a Hiroshima orphan and a 14-year-old Colombian assassin. Among the host of international awards Le received was the Dylan Thomas Award for writers under 30. It confirmed his arrival as one of the most exciting writers of his generation.

Check your learning 9.12

Remember and understand

1 How did each of these four people reach Australia?
2 What contribution has each made to Australia?

Apply and analyse

3 What do you think would happen to each of these people if they arrived in Australia the same way today?
4 Watch Khoa Do's film *Footy Legends*. How does it help you understand the experiences of migrant groups when they come to Australia?

Evaluate and create

5 Do you think these successes justify the post-Vietnam War immigration policy?
6 Undertake some further research and do some reading on the Internet about other significant Vietnamese Australians. Prepare a one-page profile including a photograph, outlining this person's achievements and contribution to society.

9.3 big**ideas:** rich task

SBS and the *Thoi Su* controversy

A large proportion of Vietnamese Australians are either refugees or related to the refugees who fled to Australia after the collapse of the South Vietnamese government. Many of them are still haunted by the ill treatment and persecution they received from the communist government before they escaped. This issue came back into public attention in October 2003 when Australian multicultural broadcaster SBS began screening a Vietnamese-language news service, *Thoi Su* (which translates as Current Affairs).

The 35-minute bulletin was produced by the state-controlled VTV4 and broadcast by SBS as part of its WorldWatch line-up of news and current affairs from around the world. On 16 October 2003 the Melbourne *Herald Sun* published an opinion piece by Vietnamese Community in Australia (VCA) national president, Trung Doan, who criticised SBS for acting as a mouthpiece for state propaganda.

Source 9.74

> SBS TV's target audience are Vietnamese Australians, the great majority refugees or their reunited relatives. Many were among the one million put into labour camps when Saigon fell, or the millions whose houses and other properties were confiscated by the regime. They do not have to go far to see their former tormentors' faces and propaganda – it's right there, in their home.
>
> … I have met and heard of scores of non-viewers around Australia who have lost sleep or had nightmarish flashbacks just because they know the program is there.

Extract from 'Every Day SBS Twists the Knife', Trung Doan, *Herald Sun*, 16 October 2003

Over the following two months, thousands of Vietnamese Australians protested outside SBS's offices in Melbourne and Sydney to demand an end to the *Thoi Su* broadcasts.



Source 9.75 Members of the Vietnamese community protesting outside the SBS office in Sydney, 2003

SBS Television initially resisted the complaints. Appearing before a Senate estimates committee, SBS managing director Nigel Milan argued for editorial independence and suggested that VCA did not represent the majority of the Vietnamese community.

Source 9.76

> Mr Milan: It is a bit hard to say in terms of individuals because the no campaign is highly organised. There are coupons to cut out on the front of the Vietnamese language newspapers and send in to SBS, whereas the yes campaign is –
>
> Senator Conroy: Are you suggesting that this is like TV Week – one person is cutting out 10 coupons and sending them in? Is that what you think is happening?
>
> Mr Milan: Yes. The switchboard identified 23 calls from the same person on one evening. So it is quite an organised campaign. Up until this week, the numbers have been running substantially in favour of the no vote, probably on a 10 to one ratio, but since the demonstration and the issue getting broader community awareness, the yes vote is beginning to increase.

Extract from a meeting of the Senate Environment Communications Information Technology and the Arts Legislation Committee, 3 November 2003

The campaign against *Thoi Su* was well organised and had the support of high profile media commentators, including Alan Jones and Andrew Bolt. VCA delegations visited the offices of at least 20 MPs, including Communications Minister Daryl Williams and Labor's spokesman Lindsay Tanner.

In December 2003 SBS conceded to pressure and withdrew *Thoi Su* from broadcast. It also amended its code of practice 'to provide guidance for future additions to the WorldWatch line-up'.

Source 9.77

> [SBS] Television really acted very much as a broadcaster, you know: 'We will determine what goes to air based on quality and our charter', and they never really talked directly to people. What the Vietnamese were trying to say was, 'We'd really like to talk before you put something like that on the air!' They're not saying, 'Never, ever put this on, or else!' They were trying to have a conversation with us.
>
> SBS Radio presenter Olya Booyar. Quotation from *The SBS Story: The Challenge of Cultural Diversity*, Ien Ang, Gay Hawkins and Lamia Dabboussy, 2008, page 43

skill**drill**

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

Historians use primary and secondary sources to gather evidence about the past. Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but sources will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of the time in which they were created. All sources are affected by the author's own point of view, and in some cases an author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or persuaded to ignore certain facts. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate sources. Historians need to identify:

- **origin** – what a source is and where it came from
- **context** – what life was like when the source was created
- **purpose** – why the source was created.

Follow these steps to identify the origin, context and purpose of a source:

Step 1: Identify the origin

To identify the origin of a source, ask yourself:

- What type of source is it?
- Who wrote, produced or made the source? What do I know about their age, gender, occupation, position in society or religious background?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
  - How old is the source?
  - Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
  - Is the source complete?

Step 2: Identify the context

To identify the context of a source, ask yourself:

- What was life like when this source was created?
- What other events may have been happening at the time that might have influenced the author or source?
- What was the political environment like at the time the source was created?
- What sort of common prejudices and social norms existed at the time which may have influenced the author or the source?

Step 3: Identify the purpose

To identify the purpose of a source, ask yourself:

- Why was the source written or created?
- Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
- Does the author have anything to gain personally from the source?
- Does it give a detached, balanced account?
- Were there political reasons for the creation of the source?

Apply the skill

1. Write a 400-word report analysing two of the sources that appear in this section. For each source, make sure you explain:
   a. what the source is and who was responsible for creating it
   b. the political environment in Australia at the time the source was created
   c. the reason why the source was created.

   Be sure to work through each of the questions listed above while conducting your research.
2. Conduct some further research into the history of Australia's relationship with Vietnam since the end of the Vietnam War and add anything you consider relevant to your original report.

Extend your understanding

1. The *Thoi Su* controversy spread outside the Vietnamese–Australian community and led to arguments within the public at large both for and against its continued broadcast. Write a letter to the editor presenting your opinion on the issue. Your argument should take into account the perspectives presented by both sides.

9.4 How has migration shaped Australia's identity and global relationships?

The changing face of Australia

Australia has always been a culturally diverse continent. Before the arrival of the British, it is estimated that there were around 700 Indigenous cultural groups speaking more than 250 different languages across Australia. When the First Fleet arrived in Sydney Cove in 1788, there were around 60 different nationalities among the crew and convicts. Although the White Australia policy of the early 20th century sought to promote a monocultural Australia by restricting entry to non-Europeans, this was ultimately unsuccessful. Over time, Australia opened up and embraced a diverse society made up of many cultures, backgrounds and traditions.



Source 9.78 Australian cricketer Usman Khawaja – one of many Australian sporting personalities born overseas

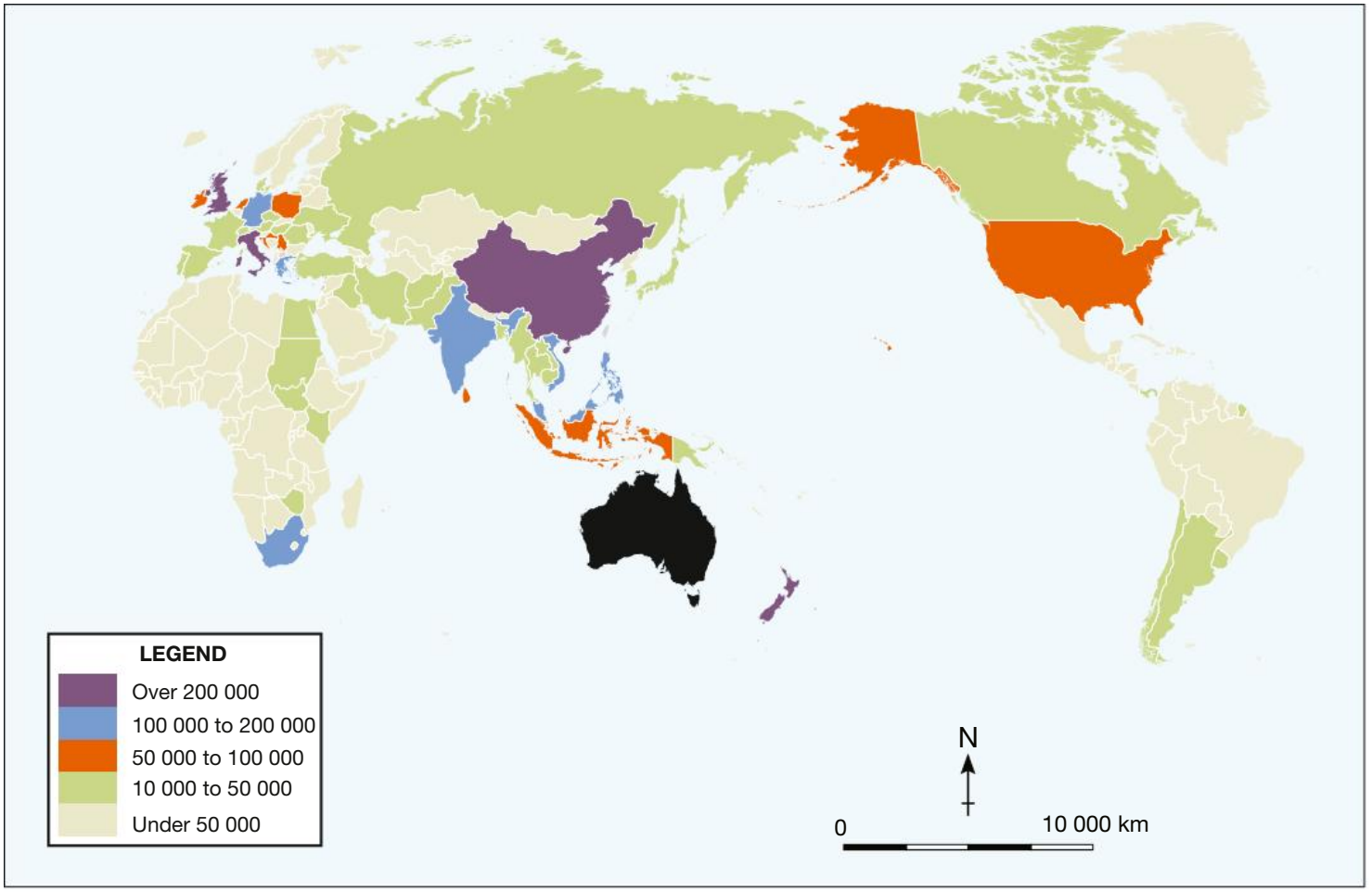
Multiculturalism at work

Source 9.79 shows the origins of people who make up the population of modern Australia. As we have seen, the countries of origin of Australia's migrants have changed continuously since the time of Federation in response to world events and changes in government policies. For example, in the 1960s around 45 per cent of all immigrants to Australia were born in Great Britain and Ireland. Although British-born immigrants were still the largest group in 2011, this number had declined to about 19 per cent. In addition to people from Britain, significant numbers of migrants now also come from New Zealand, China, India, Italy and Vietnam to settle in Australia. More recently, the Philippines, South Africa, Malaysia and Germany have also become major sources of migrants to Australia. These changes represent a significant departure from previous eras of Australian immigration history. As the White Australia policy was dismantled, other groups of non-European migrants increased. For example, Vietnamese immigration after the Vietnam War increased and Chinese and Indian immigrants also began to arrive. After the migration reforms of the 20th century and the establishment of multiculturalism, refugees from various trouble spots around the world, including Lebanon, Somalia, Sudan, Iraq and Afghanistan, began to arrive, making Australia their home.

Embracing diversity

In 2011, the Labor Government launched a new policy called *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*. The policy was designed to reaffirm the importance of a culturally diverse and socially cohesive nation. As an indication of the changes in Australia since 1945, it was released in 11 different languages: Arabic, Chinese (simplified and 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.

NUMBERS OF AUSTRALIAN PERMANENT RESIDENTS IN 2006 BY COUNTRY OF BIRTH



Source 9.79

Source: Oxford University Press

In a speech at the time, Prime Minister Julia Gillard acknowledged her own immigrant roots. Gillard was the sixth Australian prime minister to have been born overseas:

Source 9.80

> Australia is a multicultural country. We sing 'Australians all' because we are. Our country's story is the story of our people in this place. Australia has provided a new home and a chance at a better life for millions of people. I am a migrant. My family embraced the sense of opportunity and community that they found in Australia and the possibilities for their children that this multicultural country offered them. I remember the debates in the family home as my parents decided to become citizens of this nation. And having chosen this country, my family have loved it with a fierce determination and passion ever since.
>
> Prime Minister Julia Gillard in the foreword to *The People of Australia: Australia's Multicultural Policy*, Australian Government, 2011



Source 9.81 As a young girl, Julia Gillard came to Australia with her family from Wales.

Migration and global relations

Throughout Australian history, migration has been closely tied to its relationships with other countries around the world. Australia's history as a British colony and maintenance of close political ties has seen Britain retain its position as Australia's dominant source of migrants. Australia's close historical, political and cultural links to New Zealand, together with its close proximity, has seen a rise in the number of New Zealand immigrants – now second only to Britain as a source of Australia's migrants. Australia's historical relationships with countries in the Asian region such as Vietnam and China have also influenced the numbers of migrants choosing to settle here.

The influence of migration on foreign relations has also been two-way – close foreign relations have encouraged certain groups of migrants to travel to Australia, but the arrival of certain migrant groups has had the effect of strengthening ties between the two countries. For example, Australia's close ties with Britain have enabled it to take advantage of its membership of the Commonwealth of Nations, an international organisation of 53 countries with ties to the former British Empire. This relationship has permitted close links on trade, travel, foreign policy and encouraged other cooperation.

The arrival of large numbers of migrants has also improved Australia's relations with other countries around the world. The close familial and community bonds between people in Italy, Greece, China and Vietnam and migrant families from those countries in Australia have led to closer trade ties, cultural understanding and international cooperation. Informal estimates quoted by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade suggest Australia's Greek community could be as large as 600 000, with Melbourne often described as the third largest Greek 'city' in the world after Athens and Thessaloniki.



Source 9.82 Close familial ties between people in Italy, Greece and other countries with migrants who live in Australia have led to deeper understanding and better international cooperation.

key**concept:** significance

The Indian student controversy

Although Australia's international ties have been strengthened through migration, these ties can also result in new challenges. In 2009 the Australian and Indian media published reports of crimes and robberies against Indians living in Australia (particularly in Melbourne and Sydney). Australia has close ties with India and a significant Indian population (more than 1.5 per cent of all Australians). India is also the second largest source of international students for Australian institutions, and in 2009 there were more than 120 000 Indian students enrolled to study in Australia.

Although police evidence suggested that a number of crimes may have been racially motivated, a number were also opportunistic. Although it does not appear that any of the crimes were linked, the Australian and Indian media reported them all as racially motivated. This led to an Indian government investigation into the attacks. The investigation concluded that out of the 152 reported assaults against Indian students in Australia that year, 23 incidents had involved 'racial overtones'.

The findings received widespread media coverage and resulted in a strong negative reaction in India against Australia. As a direct result of these events, there was a 46 per cent drop in Indian students applying to study in Australia. As international education is Australia's second largest export after mining, the events had significant consequences for the Australian Government and Australian educational institutions.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 9.83 There were 152 assaults against Indian students reported in Australia in 2009. Of those, 23 were believed to have 'racial overtones'.

Check your learning 9.13

Remember and understand

1 How many different Indigenous cultural groups are estimated to have lived in Australia before the arrival of the British in 1788?
2 Which countries are the largest sources of migrants to Australia today?
3 How did Australia's close immigration ties affect the Indian student controversy of 2009? What effect did the incident have on Australia's economy?

Apply and analyse

4 Research the background of one wave of migrants arriving in Australia since 1975. What are the push factors that caused the group to leave their homes for Australia? How were they received in Australia and what influences has the group had on Australia's culture today?

Challenges and positive developments

Any migrant attempting to build a new life in an unfamiliar country will inevitably face challenges. Trying to adapt to a new language, culture, laws, values, food and other ways of life can be difficult. But the reverse can also present challenges – the arrival of new or unfamiliar people and customs into another group's culture can lead to misunderstandings, or in some cases suspicion and tension. While multiculturalism aims to embrace these differences, sometimes community tensions can arise and increase. While some see such tensions as a sign of failure on the part of multicultural policy, others see these problems as an opportunity to look closely at ourselves and draw strength from our differences.

One such event that drew widespread media attention and polarised certain sections of the community took place in the Sydney suburb of Cronulla in 2005.

Embracing diversity

The ability of Australia to openly discuss issues and adapt to the changing cultural mix of its citizens is a sign of its success as a multicultural nation. The following examples show how two of Australia's well-known institutions are making concerted efforts to be inclusive of other cultures and more representative of their communities.

After the Cronulla riots a program called 'On the same wave' was established to encourage Muslims to train as lifesavers. It was run by Surf Life Saving Australia in partnership with Sutherland Council (where Cronulla is located) and the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs. Lifesavers are an iconic part of Australian beach culture and this program was designed to make surf lifesaving clubs more inclusive and multicultural.

Surf Life Saving Australia has more than 300 clubs and around 115 000 lifesavers patrolling the country's beaches. Young volunteers from the Muslim community were asked to complete a three-month training course in summer before obtaining bronze medallions and commencing patrols.

But for Muslim girls, there was an additional barrier. The outfits worn by female lifesavers were too revealing and were against traditional Muslim beliefs. So a local designer, who is of Lebanese background, came up with the 'burqini'.

key concept: significance

The Cronulla riots

In December 2005, Australia was shocked by a series of riots that erupted in the Sydney beachside suburb of Cronulla.

Conflict broke out on 4 December mainly as a result of a large influx of visitors to Cronulla beach. The riots first began as a result of a dispute between a group of young men of 'Middle Eastern appearance' and volunteer lifesavers patrolling Cronulla beach. The week after the 4 December incident saw increasing tensions, partially fuelled by talkback radio programs in Sydney.



Source 9.84 A police officer trying to separate two men fighting at Cronulla

A series of SMS texts was widely circulated during the week calling on 'Aussie pride' to come to a 'Leb and wog bashing day' at North Cronulla on Sunday 11 December. A crowd of about 5000 assembled at North Cronulla beach chanting slogans and wearing clothing with racially offensive messages. A number of people were injured in violent attacks and beer bottles smashed, as police moved to restore order.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

It is a full-length lycra suit, which is loose enough to fulfil Muslim dress requirements and light enough to enable Muslim lifesavers to swim. It comes with a built-in hijab (headscarf).

Mecca Laalaa is one of the female volunteers who completed her training to qualify as a lifesaver. Like many others, she grew up hanging out at the beach with her friends and wanted to contribute by becoming a lifesaver. She received worldwide attention when she went on patrol in her burqini (see Source 9.85).



Source 9.85 Mecca Laalaa on Cronulla Beach

Victoria Police is also actively looking at ways to attract recruits from a range of cultural backgrounds into the police force. The state of Victoria is one of Australia's most multicultural, and Victoria Police is keen for its recruits to reflect the mix of groups in the community. In 2011, the first officer of the Sikh faith was inducted into Victoria Police.

Constable Amitoj Singh wears a newly designed police-issue turban, featuring the service's checkerboard pattern (see Source 9.86).



Source 9.86 Constable Singh in his adapted police uniform

Multicultural broadcasting

In 1975, the government launched two multilingual radio stations (2EA in Sydney and 3EA in Melbourne). Following their success, the government announced a new television channel that would provide programs aimed specifically at the growing number of Australian citizens for whom English was not their first or native language. This new television channel, operated by the Special Broadcasting Service (SBS), would also be a reflection of Australia's multicultural society.

The new television service made its first broadcast in April 1979 with a test transmission broadcasting a compilation of special multicultural programs on the ABC. On 24 October 1980, SBS (then called Network 0/28), made its debut with its first program, a documentary called *Who are we?*

SBS's charter is to 'provide multilingual and multicultural radio and television services that inform, educate and entertain all Australians and, in doing so, reflect Australia's multicultural society'. Since its launch, SBS has provided news programs and other shows in many different languages as well as special interest programs, including sports telecasts, for cultural minority groups.

SBS now broadcasts in more languages than any other broadcaster in the world: more than 68 on radio, more than 60 on television, and more than 50 online.

Check your learning 9.14

Remember and understand

1. What evidence is there that the Cronulla riots were motivated by racism?
2. What program was started after the Cronulla riots to promote multiculturalism on Cronulla beach?
3. How is Victoria Police attempting to ensure a police force that is representative of multicultural Australia?
4. In what year did SBS start broadcasting?

Apply and analyse

5. What evidence is there that technology played a role in the Cronulla riots? What problems does this pose for future historians researching the riots?

9.4 big**ideas:** rich task

Big Australia

Australia has undergone tremendous change since the Chifley Government announced its 'populate or perish' immigration policy at the end of World War II. Our population has grown from less than 8 million in 1947 to nearly 22 million by the time of the 2011 census. As the first 'baby boomers' born in the decade after World War II enter retirement, Australia has relied on an influx of younger skilled migrants to help replace the ageing workforce. An increasing proportion of these migrants are from China and India.

In 2009, Treasury forecasts showed that Australia's population was likely to increase to more than 35 million by 2050. Much of this growth was expected to come from high rates of immigration. Labor Prime Minister Kevin Rudd stated his support for high immigration and population growth and used the term 'Big Australia' to describe the policies needed to react to it.

Rudd's support for high population growth built on high immigration was controversial. Many agreed that support for Big Australia was vital to drive innovation and the economy. However, some high profile Australians, including Greens leader Bob Brown and entrepreneur Dick Smith, questioned the sustainability of a big Australia. Others believed high immigration would damage Australian culture.

Source 9.87

> One in two exporters are born overseas, two thirds of our entrepreneurs, one in four Australians. Just look at a city skyline and you see Westfield, Myer, Bing Lee. Everyone who's come here has been a migrant who's created great jobs for everyone.

Excerpt of an interview with UNSW economist Tim Harcourt, on ABC's Radio National's 'Mongrel Nation' program, 4 August 2013

Source 9.88

> [M]uch of southwest Sydney and the suburbs of Dandenong, Sunshine and Broadmeadows in Melbourne, are now dominated by low-income NESB (non-English speaking background) migrant communities.
>
> This is not a pretty picture. Social divisions are becoming more obvious and geographically concentrated. NESB areas are being overlain by an ethnic identification …
>
> Australia is being transformed. We are losing core elements of what was once shared. Almost all could once aspire to a house and land – living in gardencity settings different only in scale from their better-off counterparts, and sharing a common language, sporting culture, and heritage.
>
> Once we go down the high-migration pathway, there may be no going back.

Sociologist Bob Birrell in an article, 'The Risks of High Migration', *Policy*, Autumn 2010

After winning the Labor leadership in June 2010, Prime Minister Julia Gillard publicly distanced Labor from Rudd's endorsement of a high migration intake. However, the government resumed its support for rapid population growth after the 2011 election.

Source 9.89

> [Dry Liberal says: 03:32pm | 28/09/12]
>
> I'm sick of this xenophobia masquerading as Chicken-little doomsday-ism. Whenever this topic gets raised, we have all the negative-nellies coming out of their crank-hovels to shake their heads and tut-tut about the 'dire predicament' of having a larger population in our country …
>
> We ought to be proud our Country is growing healthily like it is! What these negative-nellie chicken-little dooms-day shrieksters inexplicably fail to understand is that every new addition to our population adds net potential to our wealth and power …
>
> So we'll have more migrant workers … Awesome! Now we can undertake big projects like the Snowy river hydro scheme again, perhaps a network of Dams in the tropical north and a series of pipes running inland into the interior to create a huge inland sea and irrigate the desert.

Online comment responding to an article titled 'We're Hurtling Down the Track to a Big Australia'

skill**drill**

Writing historical discussions that use evidence from a range of sources

Historians study the past to figure out what happened, why things happened, and how specific events and developments affected individuals and societies. The more we know about

the past, the better we can understand how societies have evolved into what they are today.

The answers historians offer are all more or less educated guesses about the past, based on interpretations of various primary and secondary sources of information. Historians also revise earlier explanations of the past, adding new information.

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. They consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence. This involves considering not only various primary sources (such as newspapers, photographs or political and legal documents from the period being studied), but the ideas of other historians, presented in secondary sources such as textbooks and on websites. Historical discussions conclude with the writer's own point of view on the question or issue, and include a bibliography which references all sources used in the discussion.

Source 9.90 Summary of the structure of a written discussion

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

Any sources that you have used in your written discussion must be referenced. First, you need to mention in your writing where information is coming from. Some examples of how you can do this include:

'According to the economist Tim Harcourt …'

'The depiction of migrants from non-English speaking backgrounds in the article 'The Risks of High Migration' shows that …'

You then need to include any sources you have referred to in your discussion in a bibliography. When citing a book in a bibliography, include the following information, in this order:

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

Example: Easton, M and Saldais, M, 2011, *Oxford Big Ideas Geography/History 9 Australian Curriculum*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19

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

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

   Example: Birrell, B, 2010, 'The Risks of High Migration', accessed 30 March 2013, <http://www.cis.org.au/images/stories/policy-magazine/2010-autumn/26-1-10-bob-birrell.pdf>

Apply the skill

1. Write a 500-word discussion tracking the history of arguments for and against high immigration and population policies in Australia. Some points to consider:
   a. When planning your essay you should use the information and sources included in this section.
   b. You will also need to conduct your own research to locate a range of primary and secondary sources of information that provide evidence about other factors, events and attitudes that contribute to the debate.
   c. Make sure you include a bibliography that references all your sources using the conventions outlined above.

Extend your understanding

1. Consider how Sources 9.87, 9.88 and 9.89 in this section present quite different perspectives on the contribution that migrants have made to Australian society. Does one of the perspectives seem more reliable to you than the others?
   a. Write a paragraph explaining what evidence would be needed to support the source you have chosen.
   b. Prepare a presentation for your class in which you defend the source you identify with. Your presentation should take into account the points raised by the competing perspectives included in this section.

world statistics

Country	Population	Male/female life expectancy (years)	Birth rate (per 1000 people)	Death rate (per 1000 people)	Fertility rate (births per woman)
OCEANIA					
Australia	22 262 501	79/84	12.47	6	1.78
Cook Islands	10 447	71/77	16.18	—	2.49
Fiji	896 758	68/73	21.92	5.66	2.65
Kiribati	103 248	60/66	30.2	7.85	4.04
Marshall Islands	69 747	69/73	30.7	4.49	3.59
Micronesia, Federated States of	106 104	69/73	23.1	4.46	2.89
Nauru	9434	61/68	23.9	6.42	2.85
New Zealand	4 365 113	78/82	13.94	7.05	2.1
Niue	1229	—	—	—	—
Northern Marianas	51 170	74/79	21.97	3.05	2.24
Palau	21 108	68/75	11.2	7.89	1.82
Papua New Guinea	6 431 902	64/68	27.57	6.67	3.62
Samoa	195 476	69/75	28.06	5.79	4.16
Solomon Islands	597 248	71/76	27.69	3.77	3.52
Tonga	106 322	68/73	19.84	5.02	2.25
Tuvalu	10 698	67/72	23.11	6.95	2.91
Vanuatu	261 565	62/66	21.53	7.55	2.5
ASIA					
Afghanistan	31 108 077	44/45	38.37	17.83	5.6
Armenia	2 974 184	69/77	12.65	8.39	1.36
Azerbaijan	9 590 159	63/71	17.62	8.3	2.04
Bahrain	1 281 332	73/78	17.01	4.29	2.5
Bangladesh	163 654 860	58/63	24.68	9.23	2.74
Bhutan	725 296	65/67	20.07	7.39	2.38
Brunei	415 717	74/78	18.2	3.29	1.91
Cambodia	15 205 539	60/64	25.73	8.08	3.04
China	1 349 585 838	72/76	14	7.06	1.79
Cyprus	1 155 403	75/80	11.32	6.4	1.45
East Timor (Timor-Leste)	1 172 390	65/70	26.25	5.98	3.28
Georgia	4 555 911	73/80	10.66	9.65	1.44

Male/female literacy rate (% of people who can read and write)	Doctors per 100 000 people	Access to clean water (% of population)	Infant mortality (deaths per 1000 live births)	GDP per capita (US$)	Poverty (% of population below the poverty line)	Human Development Index ranking 2012
99/99	247	100	4.75	38 500	—	2
—	118	94	16.9	9100	—	—
95/92	45	47	11.58	3800	25.5	96
—	23	65	43.48	5300	—	121
94/94	47	87	25.45	2500	—	—
91/88	—	94	26.1	2200	26.7	117
—	77	—	9.25	5000	—	—
99/99	213	97	4.92	27 700	—	6
—	200	100	—	5800	—	—
97/96	—	99	6	12 500	—	—
93/90	158	85	13.14	8100	—	52 equal
63/51	5	39	45.9	2300	37	156
99.5/99.5	28	88	24.22	4700	—	96 equal
—	13	70	19.03	2600	—	143
99/99	29	100	11.58	4600	24	95
—	—	—	18.43	1600	—	
—	14	60	49.45	4800	—	124
43/13	20	39	153.14	800	36	175
99.5/99	370	92	20.21	5900	26.5	87
99.5/98	363	77	54.6	9900	11	82
88/84	272	—	15.09	38 400	36.3	48
54/41	30	74	59.02	1600	23.2	146 equal
60/34	2	62	49.36	6200	—	140
95/90	114	—	12.27	50 100	35	30
85/64	16	41	54.79	1900	2.8	138 equal
95/86	142	77	20.25	6500	—	101
99/96	230	100	9.7	21 200	42	31
—	10	58	40.65	2400	31	134
100/100	456	82	16.22	4500	25	72 equal

Country	Population	Male/female life expectancy (years)	Birth rate (per 1000 people)	Death rate (per 1000 people)	Fertility rate (births per woman)
India	1 220 800 359	65/67	21.72	7.6	2.68
Indonesia	251 160 124	68/73	18.84	6.25	2.31
Iran	79 853 900	70/73	17.17	5.72	1.71
Iraq	31 858 481	69/71	30.09	5.03	3.86
Israel	7 707 042	79/83	19.77	5.43	2.75
Japan	127 253 075	79/86	7.64	9.45	1.21
Jordan	6 482 081	79/81	27.38	2.61	3.46
Kazakhstan	17 736 896	63/73	16.6	9.39	1.88
Kuwait	2 695 316	77/79	21.79	2.31	2.76
Kyrgyzstan	5 548 042	65/74	23.44	6.91	2.65
Laos	6 695 166	54/59	33.96	10.76	4.41
Lebanon	4 131 583	71/76	17.1	6.03	1.85
Malaysia	29 628 392	71/76	22.24	5.02	2.95
Maldives	393 988	72/76	14.55	3.65	1.9
Mongolia	3 226 516	65/70	21.05	6.12	2.23
Myanmar	48 137 741	61/66	16.97	9.14	1.89
Nepal	30 430 267	64/67	23.18	6.97	2.64
North Korea	24 720 407	61/67	14.82	10.52	1.96
Oman	3 154 134	72/77	34.79	3.65	5.53
Pakistan	193 238 868	64/67	25.89	7.21	3.43
Philippines	105 720 644	68/74	26.01	5.1	3.27
Qatar	2 042 444	74/77	15.61	2.46	2.45
Saudi Arabia	26 939, 83	74/78	28.55	2.47	3.83
Singapore	5 460 302	79/85	8.82	4.66	1.09
South Korea	48 955 203	75/82	8.93	5.94	1.21
Sri Lanka	21 675 648	73/77	16.26	6.13	1.99
Syria	22 457 336	72/77	25	3.72	3.12
Taiwan	23 299 716	75/81	8.99	6.76	1.14
Tajikistan	7 910 041	62/69	26.9	6.83	2.99
Thailand	67 448 120	71/76	13.38	7.12	1.65
Turkey	80 694 485	70/74	18.66	6.1	2.21
Turkmenistan	5 113 040	65/71	19.69	6.31	2.22
United Arab Emirates	5 473 972	74/79	16.02	2.11	2.42
Uzbekistan	28 661 637	69/75	17.58	5.29	1.95
Vietnam	92 477 857	69/74	17.73	5.98	1.98
Yemen	25 408 288	61/65	35.32	7.46	5

Male/female literacy rate (% of people who can read and write)	Doctors per 100 000 people	Access to clean water (% of population)	Infant mortality (deaths per 1000 live births)	GDP per capita (US$)	Poverty (% of population below the poverty line)	Human Development Index ranking 2012
73/48	60	86	50.78	3100	17.8	136 equal
94/87	13	77	29.97	4000	18	121 equal
83/70	89	94	35.78	12 900	25	76
84/64	66	81	44.65	3600	25	131
98/98	367	100	4.22	28 400	23.6	16
99/99	212	100	2.79	32 600	—	10
95/85	236	97	17.38	5300	14.2	100
99.5/99	388	86	25.73	11 400	12.1	69
94/91	180	—	8.97	55 800	—	54
99/98	239	77	31.26	2100	40	125 equal
77/61	35	51	77.76	2100	26	138 equal
93/82	236	100	21.82	11 500	28	72 equal
92/85	71	99	15.87	14 700	5.1	64 equal
96/96	92	83	29.53	4200	16	104
98/97	263	62	39.88	3400	36.1	108 equal
94/86	36	78	47.61	1200	32.7	149
63/35	21	90	47.61	1200	24.7	157
99/99	329	100	51.34	1800	—	—
87/73	167	80	16.88	20 300	—	84
63/63	80	91	67.36	2600	24	146 equal
92/93	115	85	20.56	3300	32.9	114 equal
89/89	264	100	12.66	121 400	—	36
85/71	137	90	11.57	20 300	—	57 equal
97/89	150	100	2.31	50 300	—	18 equal
99/97	157	92	4.26	27 700	15	12
92/89	55	79	18.57	4500	23	92
86/74	53	93	16.69	4700	11.9	116
—	—	—	5.35	30 200	0.95	—
99.5/99	201	59	41.03	1800	60	125
95/90	37	99	17.48	8100	9.6	103
95/80	156	96	25.78	11 200	17.11	90
99/98	249	72	45.36	6700	30	102
76/82	169	100	12.7	41 800	19.5	41 equal
99.5/99	265	82	23.34	2800	26	114 equal
94/87	56	85	22.26	2900	12.3	127
70/30	33	67	58.4	2500	45.2	160

Country	Population	Male/female life expectancy (years)	Birth rate (per 1000 people)	Death rate (per 1000 people)	Fertility rate (births per woman)
EUROPE					
Albania	3 011 405	75/81	15.29	5.55	2.01
Andorra	85 293	80/85	10.35	5.89	1.33
Austria	8 221 646	77/83	8.65	9.98	1.39
Belarus	9 625 888	65/77	9.71	13.86	1.24
Belgium	10 444 268	76/83	10.15	10.44	1.65
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3 875 723	75/82	8.85	8.63	1.25
Bulgaria	6 981 642	69/77	9.15	14.31	1.41
Croatia	4 475 611	72/79	9.64	11.75	1.42
Czech Republic	10 162 921	74/80	8.83	10.74	1.24
Denmark	5 556 452	76/81	10.54	10.22	1.74
Estonia	1 266 375	67/79	10.37	13.42	1.42
Finland	5 266 114	75/83	10.38	10.07	1.73
France	65 951 611	78/84	12.57	8.56	1.98
Germany	81 147 265	76/82	8.18	10.9	1.41
Greece	10 772 967	77/82	9.45	10.51	1.37
Hungary	9 939 470	69/78	9.51	12.94	1.35
Iceland	315 281	79/83	13.43	6.85	1.9
Ireland	4 775 982	76/81	14.23	7.75	1.85
Italy	61 482 297	77/83	8.18	10.72	1.31
Kosovo	1 847 708	—	—	—	—
Latvia	2 178 443	67/78	9.78	13.62	1.3
Liechtenstein	37 009	77/84	9.75	7.39	1.52
Lithuania	3 515 858	70/80	9.11	11.18	1.23
Luxembourg	514 862	76/83	11.73	8.44	1.78
Macedonia (FYROM)	2 087 171	72/77	11.97	8.83	1.58
Malta	411 277	77/82	10.36	8.38	1.51
Moldova	3 619 925	67/75	11.12	10.78	1.27
Monaco	30 500	76/84	9.1	12.74	1.75
Montenegro	653 474	—	11.14	8.63	—
Netherlands	16 805 037	77/82	10.4	6.48	1.66
Norway	4 722 701	77/83	10.99	9.29	1.78
Poland	38 383 809	72/80	10.04	10.05	1.28
Portugal	10 799 270	75/82	10.29	10.68	1.49
Romania	21 790 479	69/76	10.53	11.88	1.39
Russia	142 500 482	59/73	11.1	16.06	1.41
San Marino	32 448	77/85	9.68	8.55	1.36

Male/female literacy rate (% of people who can read and write)	Doctors per 100 000 people	Access to clean water (% of population)	Infant mortality (deaths per 1000 live births)	GDP per capita (US$)	Poverty (% of population below the poverty line)	Human Development Index ranking 2012
99/98	115	96	18.62	6200	25	70
100/100	364	100	3.76	44 900	8	33 equal
—	366	100	4.42	39 400	6	18 equal
99.5/99	478	100	6.43	11 600	27.1	50
99/99	423	100	4.44	36 600	15.2	17
99/94	142	98	9.1	6300	25	81
99/98	366	99	17.87	12 600	14	57 equal
99/97	247	100	6.37	17 600	17	47
99/99	358	100	3.79	25 100	—	28
99/99	359	100	4.34	36 200	12.1	15
99.5/99.5	333	100	7.32	18 800	19.5	33 equal
100/100	330	100	3.47	34 900	—	21 equal
99/99	341	100	3.33	32 800	6.2	20
99/99	344	100	3.99	34 200	11	5
98/94	500	—	5.16	32 100	—	29
99.5/99	304	99	7.86	18 800	8.6	37
99/99	377	100	3.23	39 800	—	13 equal
99/99	294	—	5.05	42 200	4.2	7 equal
99/98	370	—	5.51	30 200	—	25
97/87	—	—	—	2500	35	—
99.5/99.5	314	99	8.77	14 500	—	44
100/100	—	—	4.25	122 100	—	24
99.5/99.5	395	—	6.47	15 500	4	41 equal
100/100	273	100	4.56	77 600	—	26 equal
98/94	255	—	9.01	9000	28.7	78 equal
91/93.5	388	100	3.75	23 900	—	32
99.5/98.5	266	92	13.13	2400	29.5	113
99/99	581	100	5	30 000	—	—
—	203	93	—	9800	7	52 equal
99/99	371	100	4.73	39 000	10.5	4
100/100	377	100	3.58	59 300	—	1
99.5/99.5	194	—	6.8	17 800	17	39
95/91	344	—	4.78	21 700	18	43
98/96	192	57	22.9	11 500	25	56
99.5/99	431	97	10.56	15 200	15.8	55
97/95	4735	—	5.35	41 900	—	—

Country	Population	Male/female life expectancy (years)	Birth rate (per 1000 people)	Death rate (per 1000 people)	Fertility rate (births per woman)
Serbia	7 243 007	71/77	9.19	13.86	1.38
Slovakia	5 488 339	71/80	10.6	9.53	1.35
Slovenia	1 992 690	73/81	8.97	10.62	1.28
Spain	47 370 542	77/84	9.72	9.99	1.31
Sweden	9 119 423	79/83	10.13	10.21	1.67
Switzerland	7 996 026	78/84	9.59	8.59	1.45
Ukraine	44 573 205	62/75	9.6	15.81	1.26
United Kingdom	63 395 574	76/81	10.65	10.02	1.66
AFRICA					
Algeria	38 087 812	72/76	16.9	4.64	1.79
Angola	18 565 269	37/39	43.69	24.08	6.12
Benin	9 877 292	58/60	39.22	9.45	5.49
Botswana	2 127 825	62/62	22.89	8.52	2.6
Burkina Faso	17 812 961	51/55	44.33	13.3	6.28
Burundi	10 888 321	56/59	41.76	10.14	6.33
Cameroon	20 549 221	53/55	34.1	12.2	4.33
Cape Verde	531 046	68/75	23.5	6.22	3.07
Central African Republic	5 166 510	44/45	32.75	17.84	4.14
Chad	11 193 452	47/49	40.86	16.09	5.31
Comoros	752 288	61/66	35.23	7.57	4.84
Congo	4 492 689	53/55	41.37	12.01	5.84
Congo, Democratic Republic of	75 507 308	53/56	42.63	11.63	6.2
Djibouti	792 198	58/63	26.34	8.53	2.92
Egypt	85 294 388	70/75	25.43	4.88	3.05
Equatorial Guinea	704 001	61/63	36.52	9.49	5.08
Eritrea	6 233 682	60/64	34.2	8.43	4.72
Ethiopia	93 877 025	53/58	43.66	11.55	6.12
Gabon	1 640 286	52/53	35.57	12.76	4.65
Gambia	1 883 051	53/56	37.8	12.21	5.04
Ghana	25 199 609	59/61	28.74	9.13	3.68
Guinea	11 176 026	56/59	37.52	11	5.2
Guinea Bissau	1 660 870	46/50	35.97	15.79	4.65
Ivory Coast	20 617 068	55/56	32.11	10.78	4.12
Kenya	44 037 656	57/58	36.64	9.72	4.56
Lesotho	1 936 181	41/40	24.14	22.2	3.06
Liberia	3 989 703	41/43	42.25	20.73	5.79
Libya	6 002 347	75/80	25.13	3.41	3.08

Male/female literacy rate (% of people who can read and write)	Doctors per 100 000 people	Access to clean water (% of population)	Infant mortality (deaths per 1000 live births)	GDP per capita (US$)	Poverty (% of population below the poverty line)	Human Development Index ranking 2012
99/94	199	93	6.75	10 400	6.5	64 equal
99.5/99.5	312	100	6.84	21 100	21	35
99.5/99.5	240	100	4.25	28 200	12.9	21 equal
99/98	330	100	4.21	33 700	19.8	23
99/99	328	100	2.75	36 800	—	7 equal
99/99	397	100	4.18	41 600	—	9
99.5/99	313	96	8.98	6400	37.7	78 equal
99/99	230	100	4.85	35 400	14	26 equal
79/60	113	85	27.73	7100	23	93
83/54	8	53	180.21	8800	40.5	148
48/23	4	67	64.64	1500	37.4	166
80/82	40	95	12.95	12 100	30.3	119
29/15	5	61	84.49	1200	46.4	183
67/52	3	79	64.86	300	68	178 equal
77/60	19	66	63.34	2300	48	150
86/69	49	80	41.35	3900	30	132
65/33	8	75	80.62	700	—	180
41/13	4	42	98.69	1500	80	184
64/49	15	86	66.57	1000	60	169
90/78	20	58	79.78	4200	—	142
81/54	11	46	81.21	300	—	186 equal
78/58	18	73	58.33	2800	42	164
83/60	243	98	27.26	6000	20	112
93/80	30	43	81.58	36 100	—	136 equal
70/48	5	60	43.33	700	50	181
50/35	3	22	80.8	900	38.7	173
74/53	29	88	51.78	13 700	—	106
48/33	11	82	68.84	1300	—	165
66/50	15	75	51.18	1500	28.5	135
43/18	11	50	65.22	1100	47	178 equal
58/27	12	59	99.82	600	—	176
61/39	12	84	68.06	1700	42	168
91/80	14	61	54.7	1600	50	145
75/95	5	79	77.4	1500	49	158
74/42	3	61	138.24	500	80	174
92/72	125	71	21.7	14 600	7.4	64 equal

Country	Population	Male/female life expectancy (years)	Birth rate (per 1000 people)	Death rate (per 1000 people)	Fertility rate (births per woman)
Madagascar	22 599 098	61/65	38.14	8.14	5.14
Malawi	16 777 547	49/51	41.68	14.23	5.59
Mali	15 968 882	50/54	46.44	14.96	6.62
Mauritania	3 437 610	58/63	34.11	9.16	4.45
Mauritius	1 322 238	71/78	14.41	6.59	1.81
Morocco	32 649 130	72/79	19.72	4.74	2.27
Mozambique	24 096 669	42/41	37.98	20.07	5.18
Namibia	2 182 852	52/51	22.51	13.3	2.69
Niger	16 899 327	51/54	51.6	14.83	7.75
Nigeria	174 507 539	46/48	36.65	16.56	4.91
Rwanda	12 012 589	55/58	38.06	10.57	5.12
Sao Tome and Principe	186 817	67/70	38.54	5.8	5.33
Senegal	13 300 410	57/61	36.84	9.75	4.95
Seychelles	90 846	68/78	15.87	6.93	1.93
Sierra Leone	5 612 685	53/58	39.08	12.22	5
Somalia	10 251 568	48/52	43.7	15.55	6.52
South Africa	48 601 098	50/48	19.93	16.99	2.38
Sudan	34 847 910	50/52	33.74	12.94	4.48
South Sudan	11 090 104	60	29.9	21.2	5.54
Swaziland	1 403 362	48/48	28.09	15.03	3.32
Tanzania	48 261 942	51/54	34.29	12.59	4.46
Togo	7 154 237	57/62	36.49	8.95	4.79
Tunisia	10 835 873	74/78	15.42	5.2	1.72
Uganda	34 758 809	52/54	47.84	12.09	6.77
Zambia	14 222 233	39/39	40.24	21.34	5.15
Zimbabwe	13 182 908	46/45	31.49	16.19	3.69
NORTH AMERICA					
Antigua and Barbuda	90 156	73/77	16.59	5.94	2.07
Bahamas	319 031	67/72	16.41	7.16	2
Barbados	288 725	72/76	12.55	8.41	1.68
Belize	334 297	66/70	27.33	5.8	3.36
Canada	34 568 211	79/84	10.28	7.74	1.58
Costa Rica	4 695 942	75/80	17.43	4.34	2.14
Cuba	11 061 886	75/80	11.13	7.24	1.61
Dominica	73 286	73/79	15.73	8.2	2.09

Male/female literacy rate (% of people who can read and write)	Doctors per 100 000 people	Access to clean water (% of population)	Infant mortality (deaths per 1000 live births)	GDP per capita (US$)	Poverty (% of population below the poverty line)	Human Development Index ranking 2012
75/62	29	46	54.2	1000	50	151
76/50	2	73	86.01	900	53	170
53/40	8	50	115.86	1100	36.1	182
59/43	11	53	63.42	2100	40	155
88/80	106	100	12.2	12 400	8	80
66/40	51	81	29.75	4600	15	130
63/33	3	43	105.8	900	70	185
87/83	30	87	45.51	6400	34.9	128
43/15	2	46	116.66	700	63	186 equal
76/61	28	48	94.35	2400	70	153
76/65	5	74	67.18	1000	60	167
92/78	49	79	37.12	1400	54	144
51/29	6	76	58.94	1700	54	154
91/92	151	88	12.3	19 400	—	46
47/24	3	57	81.86	900	70.2	177
50/26	4	29	109.19	600	—	—
87/86	77	88	44.42	10 000	50	121 equal
72/50	30	70	82.43	2300	40	171
40/16	—	56	69.97	900	50.6	—
83/81	16	62	69.74	4400	69	141
77/62	2	62	69.28	1400	36	152
75/47	4	52	56.84	900	32	159
83/65	134	93	22.57	8000	7.4	94
77/58	8	60	64.82	1300	35	161 equal
87/75	12	58	101.2	1500	86	163
94/87	16	81	32.31	200	68	172
—	17	91	16.25	18 100	—	67 equal
95/96	105	97	14.84	29 800	9.3	49
99.5/99.5	121	100	12.29	18 500	—	38
77/77	105	91	23.07	8200	33.5	96 equal
99/99	191	100	5.04	38 400	10.8	11
95/95	132	97	8.77	11 300	16	62
99.5/99.5	591	91	5.82	9700	—	59 equal
94	50	97	13.65	10 200	30	72 equal

Country	Population	Male/female life expectancy (years)	Birth rate (per 1000 people)	Death rate (per 1000 people)	Fertility rate (births per woman)
Dominican Republic	10 219 630	72/76	22.39	5.28	2.76
El Salvador	6 108 590	69/76	25.31	5.47	3
Grenada	109 590	64/68	21.32	6.09	2.23
Guatemala	14 373 472	68/72	27.98	5.11	3.47
Haiti	9 893 934	59/62	29.1	8.65	3.81
Honduras	8 448 465	69/72	26.28	4.96	3.27
Jamaica	2 909 714	72/75	19.68	6.43	2.25
Mexico	116 220 947	73/79	19.71	4.8	2.34
Nicaragua	5 788 531	69/74	23.25	4.3	2.57
Panama	3 559 408	74/80	20.18	4.66	2.53
St Kitts and Nevis	51 134	70/76	17.67	8.05	2.26
St Lucia	162 781	74/79	15.1	6.8	1.84
St Vincent and the Grenadines	103 220	72/76	15.27	6.91	1.98
United States of America	316 668 567	76/81	13.83	8.38	2.05
SOUTH AMERICA					
Argentina	42 610 981	73/80	17.94	7.41	2.35
Bolivia	10 461 053	64/70	25.82	7.05	3.17
Brazil	201 009 622	68/76	18.43	6.35	2.21
Chile	17 216 945	74/81	14.64	5.84	1.92
Colombia	45 745 783	71/78	18.09	5.22	2.22
Ecuador	15 439 429	72/78	20.77	4.99	2.51
Guyana	739 903	62/70	18.31	7.34	2.48
Paraguay	6 623 252	73/78	28.17	4.46	3.75
Peru	29 849 303	69/73	19.38	6.14	2.37
Suriname	566 846	71/77	16.8	5.51	1.99
Trinidad and Tobago	1 225 225	68/74	14.36	8.11	1.72
Uruguay	3 324 460	73/80	13.91	9.09	1.92
Venezuela	28 459 085	71/77	20.61	5.12	2.48

Male/female literacy rate (% of people who can read and write)	Doctors per 100 000 people	Access to clean water (% of population)	Infant mortality (deaths per 1000 live births)	GDP per capita (US$)	Poverty (% of population below the poverty line)	Human Development Index ranking 2012
87/87	188	95	25.96	8200	42.2	96 equal
83/78	124	84	21.52	6000	30.7	107
—	98	95	13.23	12 700	32	63
75/63	90	95	27.84	5200	56.2	133
55/51	25	54	59.69	1300	80	161 equal
80/80	57	87	21.68	4200	59	120
84/92	85	93	15.22	8300	14.8	85 equal
92/90	198	97	18.42	13 200	18.2 (47+ if asset based rather than food based)	61
67/68	37	79	25.02	2800	48	129
92/91	150	90	12.67	11 900	28.6	59 equal
—	110	99	13.94	18 800	—	72
89/91	517	98	13.43	10 900	—	88
96/96	75	93	15.14	18 100	—	83
99/99	256	100	6.22	46 400	12	3
97/97	301	96	11.44	13 800	13.9 (non government estimate 30–35)	45
93/81	122	85	44.66	4600	60	108
88/89	115	90	22.58	10 200	26	85 equal
96/96	109	95	7.71	14 700	18.2	40
90/91	135	93	17.37	9200	49.2	91
92/90	148	94	20.9	7300	38.3	89
99/98	48	83	39.11	3900	—	118
95/93	111	86	24.68	4100	32	111
96/89	117	83	28.62	8600	44	77
92/87	45	92	18.81	8800	70	105
99/98	79	91	29.93	23 300	17	67 equal
98/98	365	100	11.32	12 600	27.4	51
93/93	194	83	21.54	13 200	37.9	71

glossary: geography

A

annotate to add notes that explain, comment or clarify

aquifer an underground water supply consisting of a layer of rock or other permeable materials that hold water

arid a term used to describe land and climate conditions that are too dry to support vegetation

B

bar graph a graph that shows information as a series of horizontal bars

biodiversity the variety of living organisms (i.e. plants, animals, bacteria and fungi) found in an environment

biological pollutant a term used to describe the negative effects of invasive species (such as bacteria, parasites and invasive plants and animals) that do harm to an environment

biome a large area of the Earth that is home to similar plant and animal communities that have adapted to a particular environment over time (e.g. desert, forest, grassland, etc.)

breakwater a wall constructed out into the sea to help prevent waves from reaching the coastline and causing erosion

C

carbon emissions carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide released into the atmosphere by vehicles and industry contributing to global warming

cartogram a type of map that is distorted to show a representation of statistical data (e.g. access to water, rates of obesity, etc.) rather than land area

change a key concept in geography: the dynamic nature of all processes on Earth, whether slow or fast, small or large

chemical pollutants a term used to describe a range of heavy metals, oils, pesticides, industrial chemicals and salts that do harm to the environment

child mortality rates a measure of the number of deaths among children under five years of age per 1000 children born

choropleth map a map that shows changes in particular data or characteristics across an area (e.g. population density, GDP per capita, etc.) by using shades of the same colour (e.g. light green through to dark green)

climate change a change in global or regional climate patterns; in particular a change apparent from the mid to late 20th century onwards and attributed largely to the increased levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide produced by the use of fossil fuels

climate graph a combination bar and line graph that shows the rainfall and temperature of a given place; also known as a climograph

complex map a type of map that displays more than one set of data or information

compound column graph a type of column graph that features two or more sets of related data at the same time so that they can be compared; information provided in each column is sub-divided for further comparison

confluence the place or junction where two rivers meet

contour line a line on a map (e.g. topographic map) joining points of equal height above or below sea level; contour lines can also be used to show the steepness of the land on a map

correlation a statistical measure that indicates the extent to which two or more variables are related or interlinked

culture a term used to describe the shared characteristics (e.g. language, food, religion, beliefs, etc.) of a population or group of people

D

deforestation the removal of trees and other plant life from a forested area, either by cutting down or burning; usually carried out to clear the land for farming

demographics the statistical data of a population or of particular groups within a population, especially those related to average age, gender, income, education level, etc.

demographic transition model a geographic model designed to help explain changes in populations over time, especially the transition from high birth and death rates to low birth and death rates as countries becomes more developed

deposition the laying down of solid material that has been eroded and transported from another part of the Earth's surface

desertification the transformation of fertile land into relatively dry desert

developed country an industrialised country with a well-developed economy and relatively high standard of living that is able to support the needs of its citizens (*see also* developing country)

developing country a non-industrialised (i.e. largely agricultural) country with a relatively fragile economy and low standard of living that is not always able to support the needs of its citizens (*see also* developed country)

digital terrain model a topographic illustration (or digital model) that uses a range of data to generate a 3D representation of the Earth's surface

dot distribution map a type of map that uses dots or other shapes to show the location and size of particular features

E

easting the lines that run vertically on a topographical map

economic (adjective) a term used to describe a range of issues relating to employment, income and trade

ecosystem a complex community made up of living organisms that interact with each other and with their environment; an abbreviation for 'ecological system'

ecosystem services a term used to describe a range of important resources, processes and benefits that healthy ecosystems provide to humans; there are four categories of ecosystem services: 1. **sources** (or provisioning services) such as providing food and materials, 2. **sinks** (or regulating services) such as purifying air and water, 3. **services** (or supporting services) such as seed dispersal and nutrient cycling, 4. **spirituality** (or cultural services) such as spiritual enrichment and recreation

ecotourism a form of responsible and sustainable tourism that involves travel to areas of natural or ecological interest with the goal of conserving the environment and improving the wellbeing of the local people

environment a key concept in geography: a specific place on Earth and all the things, both animate and inanimate, that are there

erosion the wearing away of the Earth's surface by wind, water or ice

estuary a wide tidal mouth of a river

extinction the dying out and complete disappearance of a species (e.g. plant or animal)

F

false colour image an image that depicts an object or area in colours that differ from those seen in nature; false colour images use colours that are different or more exaggerated than those shown in standard photographs, in order to make the thing being shown easier to interpret

fertility rate a statistical measure of the average number of children that all women in a particular area or population will have throughout the course of their lives; expressed as births per 1000 women

fieldwork geographical study that takes place outside the classroom at the site of inquiry

flow diagram a diagram that shows the sequence or stages in a process

flow map a type of map that shows the movement of objects (e.g. people or goods) from one place to another

food insecurity a term used to describe a condition in which not all people have access to enough safe nutritious food to sustain a healthy life (*see also* food security)

food security a term used to describe a condition in which all people at all times have access to enough safe nutritious food to sustain a healthy life (*see also* food insecurity)

fossil fuel a fuel made from the decomposed (fossilised) remains of plant and animals that lived millions of years ago (e.g. coal, oil, gas)

G

gender inequality unequal treatment of individuals within a society based on their gender, whether male or female

Geographic Information System (GIS) a software application designed to capture, store, manipulate, analyse, manage and present all kinds of geographical information

geographical sketch a sketch focusing on those parts of the environment relevant to the geographic study; often completed in the field but also from photographs

Global Positioning System (GPS) a device that uses satellites to accurately pinpoint the location of an object on the Earth's surface (e.g. a car, satellite navigation device, mobile phone) and provide data and directions to help with navigation

global warming a gradual increase in the overall temperature of the Earth's atmosphere generally attributed to the release of greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide, CFCs and other pollutants into the atmosphere

grasslands a biome of wide open spaces, where the vegetation is dominated by grasses; sometimes called a prairie, steppe or savanna

greenhouse gas a gas, such carbon dioxide, that absorbs radiation from the Sun's rays trapping heat in the Earth's atmosphere

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) the total monetary value of all the good and services produced by a country over a specific time period (usually a year)

ground level photograph a photograph taken from ground level (i.e. the photographer is standing on ground level and camera lens is parallel to the ground)

groyne a man-made barrier that juts out from a beach into the water, built to prevent erosion of the beach from the power of destructive waves and longshore drift

H

Human Development Index (HDI) a tool developed by the United Nations to grade and rank the social and economic development of the world's countries in order from most to least developed; used as a measure of human wellbeing

I

infant mortality a statistical measure of the proportion of children in an area or population under the age of 12 months who die; expressed as deaths per 1000 live births

interconnection a key concept in geography: the relationship between all things, both animate and inanimate, and all processes, both natural and human

Internally Displaced Person (IDP) a person who has been forced to flee their home to escape conflict, but who remains within their own country's borders

invasive species a plant, animal or other organism that is not native to an area, and whose introduction has negative effects on its new environment

irrigation the watering of otherwise dry land by artificial means (e.g. pipes, ditches, sprinkler systems) to help in the growing of crops

L

land reclamation the process of creating new land from oceans, bays, harbours and estuaries by dumping rocks, silt from the sea bed or other materials into the water

landfill a method use to dispose of rubbish by burying it; also used to describe the place where rubbish is buried

landform a natural geographical feature or shape that appears on the Earth's surface (e.g. dune, hill, valley, beach and cave)

life expectancy a statistical measure of the average number of years a person in an area or population can expect to live; expressed in years

line graph a type of graph that displays data as a line

literacy rate a statistical measure of the percentage of people in an area or population that can read and write

location a place or position on the Earth's surface

longshore drift the process that moves sediment in a zigzag pattern along a beach by wash and backwash of waves approaching the shore at an angle

M

map a simplified plan of an area shown from directly above the area (i.e. plan view)

N

national park an area of natural beauty which is protected by law for the use of the general public and the protection of the environment

non-government organisation (NGO) any not-for-profit organisation independent of the government which is organised and administered on a local, national or international level; NGOs often rely on the support of volunteers

O

oblique aerial photograph a photograph of an object or area taken from a high point (i.e. a hilltop or aircraft) on an angle that is neither horizontal (see ground level photograph) nor directly above (see vertical aerial photograph)

ocean acidification the ongoing decrease in the pH level (a measure of acidity and alkalinity) of the Earth's oceans, caused by the uptake of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere by the water

overlay map a type of map that uses information on a piece of transparent paper or plastic (known as an overlay) placed over a base map; used to show the relationship between features or processes taking place on the Earth's surface

P

physical map a type of map that shows the locations and names of physical features of the Earth, such as mountains and rivers

physical pollutants a term used to describe a range of substances (e.g. particles of soil, chemicals, plastic bags, cigarette butts and other rubbish) that do harm to an environment

place a key concept in geography: a part of the Earth's surface that is identified and given meaning by people

political map a type of map that shows the locations and names of built features of the Earth, such as cities, roads, dams and railways

pollution any substance that is released into the environment that causes damage

population pyramid a type of graph that displays the percentage of males and females in a region or population grouped by age

primary data data collected first-hand for a geographical inquiry by the person conducting the inquiry (e.g. survey data, hand-drawn maps or photographs)

Q

qualitative data any information that can be recorded in words (e.g. Uluru is very large)

quantitative data any information that can be recorded as numbers (e.g. Uluru is 3.6 kilometres long)

R

radial pattern a pattern with its features spreading out like spokes on a wheel

rainforest a dense forest area found in tropical areas with warm temperatures and heavy rainfall

raw material the basic organic resources from which things are made; often used to refer to the Earth's natural materials such as oil, wood and water

refugee a person who travels from one country to another country to escape the effects of a natural disaster or conflict or to avoid persecution

relief the variations in elevation (height) of areas on the Earth's surface; on maps, the relief of an area (e.g. the hills and valleys) are often shown more clearly by shading rather than by using contour lines alone

S

salinity a measure of the amount of salt present in the soil

satellite image an image of an object or area taken from a satellite orbiting above the Earth's surface

savanna a biome of wide open spaces, where the vegetation is dominated by grasses; sometimes called a prairie, steppe or grassland

scale a key concept in geography: the level at which a geographical inquiry take place – personal, local, regional, national or global

scale (mapping) a system used to give an indication of distances on a map and the corresponding actual distances in the real world (e.g. line scale, written scale, ratio scale)

scatter plot a type of graph that shows two sets of data by plotted points along two axes, the pattern of which shows their correlation; also called a scatter graph or scattergram

secondary data data used for a geographical inquiry not collected by the geographer conducting the inquiry (e.g. textbooks, atlases and government websites)

semi-arid a term used to describe land and climate conditions that only receive enough rainfall to support limited vegetation (*see also* arid)

services one of the four categories of ecosystem services (also known as supporting services); processes that take place in the environment that support life (e.g. seed dispersal and absorption of carbon dioxide by trees and oceans)

sinks one of the four categories of ecosystem services (also known as regulating services); processes that take place in the natural environment that absorb waste (e.g. microorganisms in the soil and water breakdown waste from humans and animals)

sources one of the four categories of ecosystem services (also known as provisioning services); these are natural products that can be used or converted by humans for use (e.g. wood from trees)

space a key concept in geography: the way things are arranged on the Earth's surface

spatial variation a term used to describe differences in the way built and natural features (e.g. towns, cities, rivers, mountain ranges, farming regions) are arranged on the Earth's surface

spirituality one of the four categories of ecosystem services (also known as cultural services); a sense of wellbeing and spiritual connection offered by the environment (e.g. aesthetic appreciation of certain landscapes, deep connections to the land)

spit a curved build-up of eroded material that forms at the mouth of a river

sustainability a key concept in geography: the ongoing capacity of Earth to maintain all life

T

thematic map a type of map that shows details of a particular topic or data set (e.g. land use or the distribution of resources)

topographic map a type of map that shows the shape of the land, its relief and landforms

V

vertical aerial photograph a photograph taken from a high point directly above the object or area being photographed (i.e. plan view)

W

water scarcity a term used to describe a lack of sufficient water to meet the demands of an area or population

water table the highest underground level at which the rocks and soil in a particular area are completely wet with ground water

weather map a type of map that show conditions in the Earth's atmosphere, such as air pressure, wind speed, wind direction, and warm and cold fronts

wellbeing the ability of human beings to access the things they need in order to live happy and healthy lives (e.g. food, water, education, safety and security)

glossary: history

A

anti-Semitism prejudice, hatred or discrimination against Jews

apartheid a system of racial segregation enforced in South Africa from 1948 to 1994; literally meaning 'the state of being apart'

appeasement a policy adopted by Britain and France towards Germany from the mid-1930s until 1939; the policy was designed to avoid a second world war by granting certain allowances to Hitler and the Nazi government

arms race, the a situation in which rival countries compete to build and possess the largest stockpile of weapons; commonly used during the Cold War to refer to the competition between USA and USSR to stockpile nuclear weapons

artefact any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, the remains of a building)

assimilation (in Australian history) the process by which a minority group adopts the language and customs of a dominant population; in the mid-1900s assimilation of Indigenous Australians into white society became official government policy in Australia

assisted migrant a person wanting to settle in Australia whose transportation costs were paid by the government in exchange for a set period of unpaid work on arrival

asylum seeker a person who has applied for recognition (or sought protection) as a refugee

B

baby boomer someone born between 1946 and 1964; this was the time when there was a spike in birth rates after World War II (known as a baby boom)

bias a particular view or attitude towards someone or something, especially one that prevents the fair and reasonable consideration of an issue; prejudice

bipartisan (in a two-party political system such as Australia) an action or vote involving agreement from both parties

Blitz, the a term used to describe a period during World War II when major cities across the United Kingdom were the target of sustained bombing campaigns by the German air force

Blitzkrieg a German term meaning 'lightning war'; a military tactic adopted by German forces during World War II that involved launching sudden, intense attacks on enemies using fighter aircraft and tanks followed by the advance of ground troops

boat people a common term used to describe people who travel by sea to seek asylum (as opposed to gaining entry by land, air or via local processing centres)

C

cause and effect a key concept in history: the link between what causes an action and the outcome of that action; an appreciation of the fact that events that take place (both short-term and long-term) are linked and can have impacts on people and places for many years to come

censorship the act or practice of banning or limiting access to information, books or ideas that are considered sensitive or damaging

census a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can often include age, occupation, income, religious beliefs, etc.

chronology a record of events in the order they took place

civil rights the rights belonging to every individual including civil liberties, due legal process, equal protection under the law and freedom from discrimination; a term commonly used in the United States to refer to a set of rights and freedoms guaranteed by Amendments to the US Constitution and by subsequent acts of Congress

Cold War, the the state of political conflict and hostility that existed between the USSR (and its allies) and the USA (and its allies) from 1945 to 1990; characterised by threats, propaganda, public competition (*see* arms race) but not resulting in direct fighting or military conflict

colony a country or area under the full or partial political control of another country and occupied by settlers from that country

communism a way of organising a society in which the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned (by the state) and goods are distributed equally according to need; as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as capitalism

conscription the compulsory recruitment of people to serve in the armed forces, often during times of war

contestability a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that some historians may challenge or dispute particular interpretations of historical sources, historical events or issues put forward by other historians

continuity and change a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that while some aspects of a society stay the same over time (continuity), others will develop and transform (change)

convict a person found guilty of a crime and sentenced by a court to serve some kind of punishment

Crown land land belonging to the monarch or to the state in a dominion (i.e. a self-governing country that is part of the British Commonwealth)

D

decolonisation the process by which a country that was previously a colony of an imperial power becomes politically independent

displaced person a person forced to leave their home region or country due to war, persecution or natural disaster

dispossession to deprive a person or people of the possession or occupancy of land and property; when the British colonised Australia in the 18th century large numbers of Indigenous Australians were dispossessed of their ancestral lands, their hunting grounds and water resources; they were also cut off from their spiritual and cultural heritage as a result of dispossession

domino theory, the the theory put forward by US President Eisenhower that if one nation in South-East Asia adopted communism, others would follow; just like a row of dominoes topple once the first one is pushed over

E

economic migrant a person who migrates for reasons such as seeking employment or an improved financial position

emigrant a person who departs (leaves) their native country or region in order to settle permanently in another

emigration the act of leaving one country or region in order to settle in another

empathy a key concept in history: the ability to understand another person's point of view, way of life, or decisions by taking their special circumstances and values into consideration

eugenics the belief in (and practice of) improving the genetic qualities of the human race by discouraging people with genetic defects or negative genetic traits (characteristics) from reproducing and/or encouraging people with positive genetic traits to reproduce

evidence a key concept in history: the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

F

fascism a way of organising a society in which a government ruled by a dictator has complete power over the lives of the people, commerce and industry and in which any criticism of or opposition to the government is suppressed by force; an extreme form of nationalism

Federation the process by which separate colonies or states form a unified nation with a central government; the Commonwealth of Australia was established in 1901 after the six colonies were joined

free settler a person who leaves their homeland by choice to settle in a new country or colony

G

Geneva Convention, the a term used to describe a number of international treaties and agreements that established a code of conduct for all countries during times of war; the agreement outlines the rights of prisoners (both military and civilian), and outlines protections for the wounded, and for civilians living in or around war zones

genocide the deliberate and systematic (planned) mass killing of people based on their race, ethnicity, religion or culture

ghetto a section of a town or city established by the Nazis during World War II to confine and isolate Jews and other 'undesirables' from the wider population

globalisation the increasing interconnections between countries all around the world, particularly economic, political, trade and cultural exchanges

Great Depression, the a period of severe economic downturn between 1929 and 1934, that affected most countries around the world

Green Revolution, the a period of research, development and alteration of agricultural techniques that took place between the 1940s and 1960s, most markedly in the developing world, which saw global increased agricultural production

guerilla war a form of warfare in which small and independent groups of combatants (known as guerillas) take part in non-traditional fighting methods such as ambushes, sabotages and raids

H

historical inquiry the process of examining historical evidence, conducting research and asking questions about it to find out about the past

Holocaust, the the deliberate and systematic (planned) mass murder of Jews and other 'undesirables' by the Nazis during World War II (*see also* Shoah)

hypothesis a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and evidence, about something that has not been proven

I

illegal immigrant a person who enters (arrives in) a country or region illegally in order to settle permanently

immigrant a person who enters (arrives in) a country or region to which they are not native in order to settle permanently

immigration the act of entering and settling permanently in a country or region to which a person is not native

Industrial Revolution, the the name given to the period of rapid development in manufacturing and industry from 1750 to 1900, particularly in Britain

integration (in Australian history) an immigration policy introduced during the 1960s after the failure of assimilation; integration was based around the belief that new migrants should conform to the attitudes, values and beliefs of the wider society while concealing their traditional cultures and languages

internment the detention or imprisonment of people (commonly in large numbers) without trial, especially during times of war

K

Ku Klux Klan a secret society of white supremacists originally formed in the southern states of the USA after the American Civil War to protest against the granting of civil rights to freed black slaves; the group uses violence and acts of intimidation to achieve its goals

L

League of Nations, the an international organisation established at the end of World War I to maintain world peace and prevent the outbreak of future wars by encouraging nations to negotiate with one another; the League of Nations had some early successes but ultimately failed in its primary purpose of preventing future wars

M

mandatory detention (in Australian history) a feature of Australian immigration policy under which the Australian Government legislated for the compulsory detention of all persons entering the country without a valid visa while security and health checks are undertaken and the legitimacy of their claims are processed

manifesto a public document outlining a set of principles, policies, or intentions, especially of a political nature

migrant a person who moves from one country or region to another to settle there permanently

migration the movement of people from one place to another

militarism a focus within a country on boosting the strength of the military by growing the armed forces and spending on military equipment

militia a term used to describe a fighting force that is made up of non-professional (civilian) fighters

mission (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century (usually by Christian missionaries) to accommodate, educate and convert Indigenous Australians into Christians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

monoculturalism the practice of actively preserving a single national culture through the exclusion of external influences; a policy of monoculturalism aims to achieve a single, homogeneous society without diversity through approaches like assimilation and integration

multiculturalism the practice of a doctrine that several different cultures can coexist peacefully and equitably in a single country; a policy of multiculturalism aims to achieve a society in which a range of different cultures are made to feel included, accommodated and protected by law

N

nationalism a sense of pride in, and love of, one's country; also the idea that one nation's culture and interests are superior to those of another nation

native title (in Australian history) the recognition by Australian law that some Indigenous people have rights and interests to the land that come from their traditional laws and customs; native title overturned the long-held legal position that Australia was *terra nullius* ('land belonging to no one') when European settlement occurred

P

perspectives a key concept in history: a point of view about an event or issue; a person's perspective is often influenced by their knowledge, culture or beliefs

popular culture film, television, music, sport, etc., that has broad appeal and is international in scope

primary source a source that existed or was made at the time being studied

prisoner of war (POW) a person (particularly a member of the armed forces) who is captured and held by enemy forces during times of war

propaganda information or material that attempts to influence the behaviour or opinions of people within a society; propaganda can take many forms (e.g. posters, flyers, advertising campaigns, films) and is designed to promote a particular cause or course of action and/or damage the cause of an enemy

protection (in Australian history) a government policy introduced in Australia from 1850 onwards, designed to give the government extensive power over the lives of Aboriginal people (including the regulation of where they lived, where they worked, who they married and what languages they spoke); under this policy, a number of reserves and missions were established around Australia and many Aboriginal people were forced to move and live there

protectorate a section of land under the control of a protector (a government official responsible for administering the affairs of the Indigenous population)

pull factors factors or characteristics that are attractive about a place that a person is considering moving to

push factors factors or characteristics that are unattractive about a place that a person is considering moving away from

Q

quota an official limit on the number or amount of people or things that are allowed

R

rationing the carefully controlled distribution of resources, goods, or services that are scarce; during World War II, rationing systems were introduced by the governments in Britain and Australia to ensure that the limited supplies of basic goods were distributed among the population evenly

reconciliation (in Australian history) a term used to refer to the bringing together of Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians; reconciliation is a process that involves working to overcome past divisions and address inequalities between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians

referendum (in Australian history) a national vote of the people on actions proposed by the government; any proposed changes to the Australian Constitution must be put to a vote in a referendum

refugee a person who has fled their home country to seek safety in another country as a result of conflict or persecution (or a range of other reasons recognised by law)

reparations money paid by one country to another as compensation for damage, injuries and deaths it has caused during war

reserve (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century in Australia (usually by colonial powers) to accommodate, educate and 'civilise' Indigenous Australians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

S

secondary source a source created after the time being studied

segregation (in Australian history) the government policy and practice of separating the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples from the European settlers

self-determination the right of the people in a particular place to choose the form of government they will put in place and the course of action they will take

Shoah a Hebrew word meaning 'catastrophe', used to describe the extermination of Jews by the Nazis during World War II (*see also* Holocaust)

significance a key concept in history: the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

sitcom an abbreviated term used to describe a 'situation comedy'; a television show with set characters who, every episode, find themselves in humorous situations

skilled migrant a type of migrant granted preferential treatment based on their skill or profession

source any item (e.g. artefact, building, document) that has been left behind from the past; historical sources can be divided into two categories depending on when they were created (*see* primary source and secondary source)

Stolen Generations, the the children of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander descent who were forcibly removed from their families by government officials and church missions in Australia and raised by white Australians; this practice was part of official government policy between around 1909 and 1969

superpower a very powerful and dominant nation; especially used during the Cold War era to refer to the USA and the USSR (both nuclear powers considered to be most powerful nations on Earth)

sustainability a concept that relates to the ongoing capacity of the Earth to maintain all life; this means developing ways to ensure the Earth's resources are used and managed responsibly so they can be maintained for future generations

T

tariff a tax (usually applied to goods being imported or exported)

timeline a visual representation of time showing a sequence of related historical events in chronological order

Treaty of Versailles, the a treaty (binding agreement) that ended World War I and forced Germany to accept responsibility for starting the war and to pay reparations

U

United Nations (UN), the an intergovernmental organisation founded on 24 October 1945 after the end of World War II to promote peace and prevent the future outbreak of armed conflicts around the world

Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the an international document that outlines basic rights and fundamental freedoms to which all human beings are entitled; the Declaration was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948

W

White Australia policy, the a term used to describe a series of government policies introduced after Federation in 1901 that prevented 'non-white' immigrants from settling in Australia, favouring instead those from certain European nations (especially Britain); these policies were progressively overturned between 1949 and 1973

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