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Source 6.1 Historians use a variety of primary and secondary sources when conducting historical inquiries. By examining artefacts such as propaganda posters, war medals and photographs taken on the battlefields, they can gain a more complete understanding of the heroic sacrifices and day-to-day experiences of Australians during times of war.

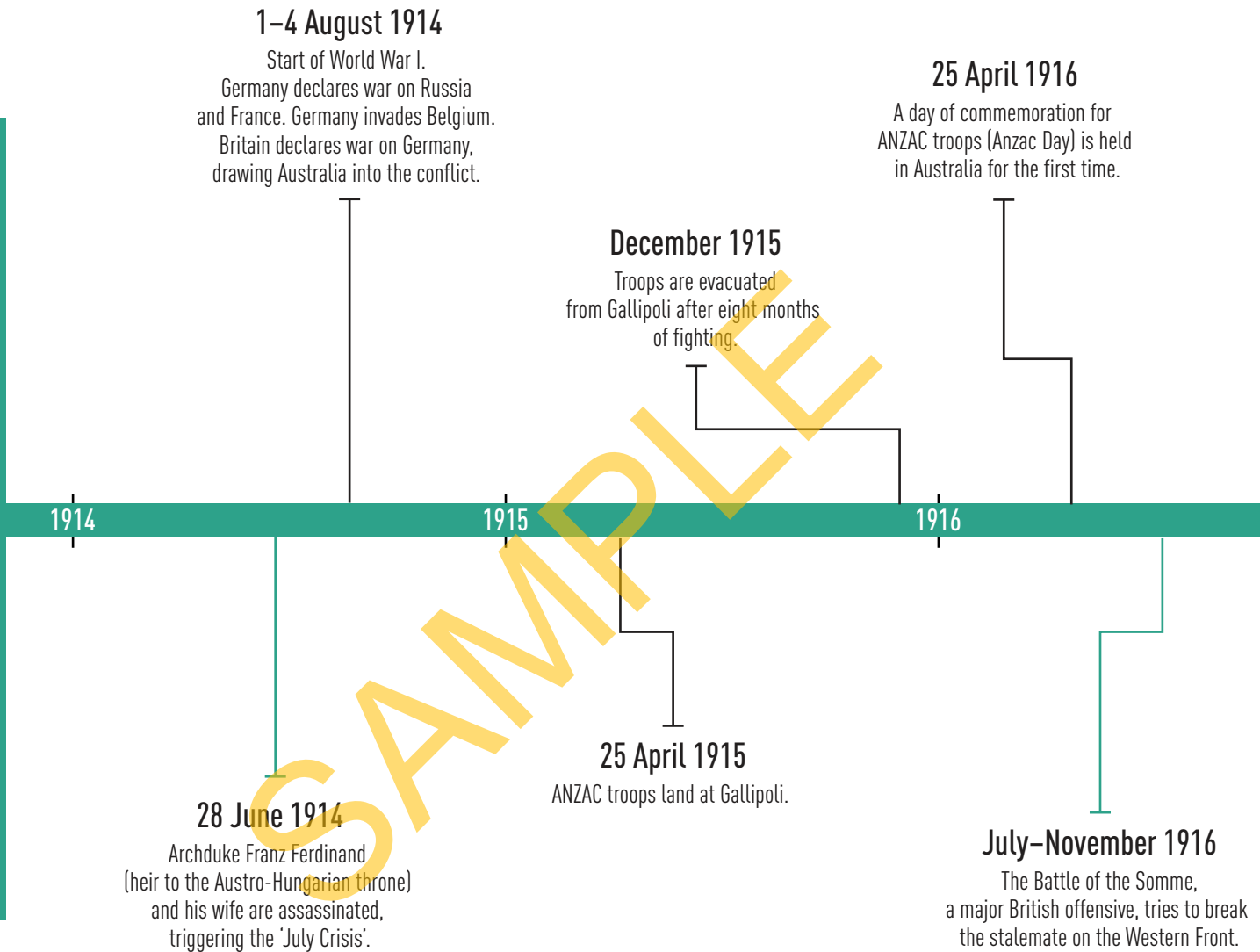
AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WARS I AND II)

In this chapter, we investigate key aspects of World War I (1914–1918) and World War II (1939–1945), providing a particular focus on how Australians experienced these wars. We will also investigate the impacts of these wars, both in Australia and around the world.

World War I became known as a ‘total war’ because, for the first time, nations around the world committed not only their armed forces to the war effort but also their industries, resources and people from all sectors of society. World War II took fighting to new levels and remains one of the defining events of the 20th century. It played out across Europe, the Pacific, the Middle East, Africa and Asia.

AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WAR I) – A TIMELINE

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Source 6.2 Franz Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria

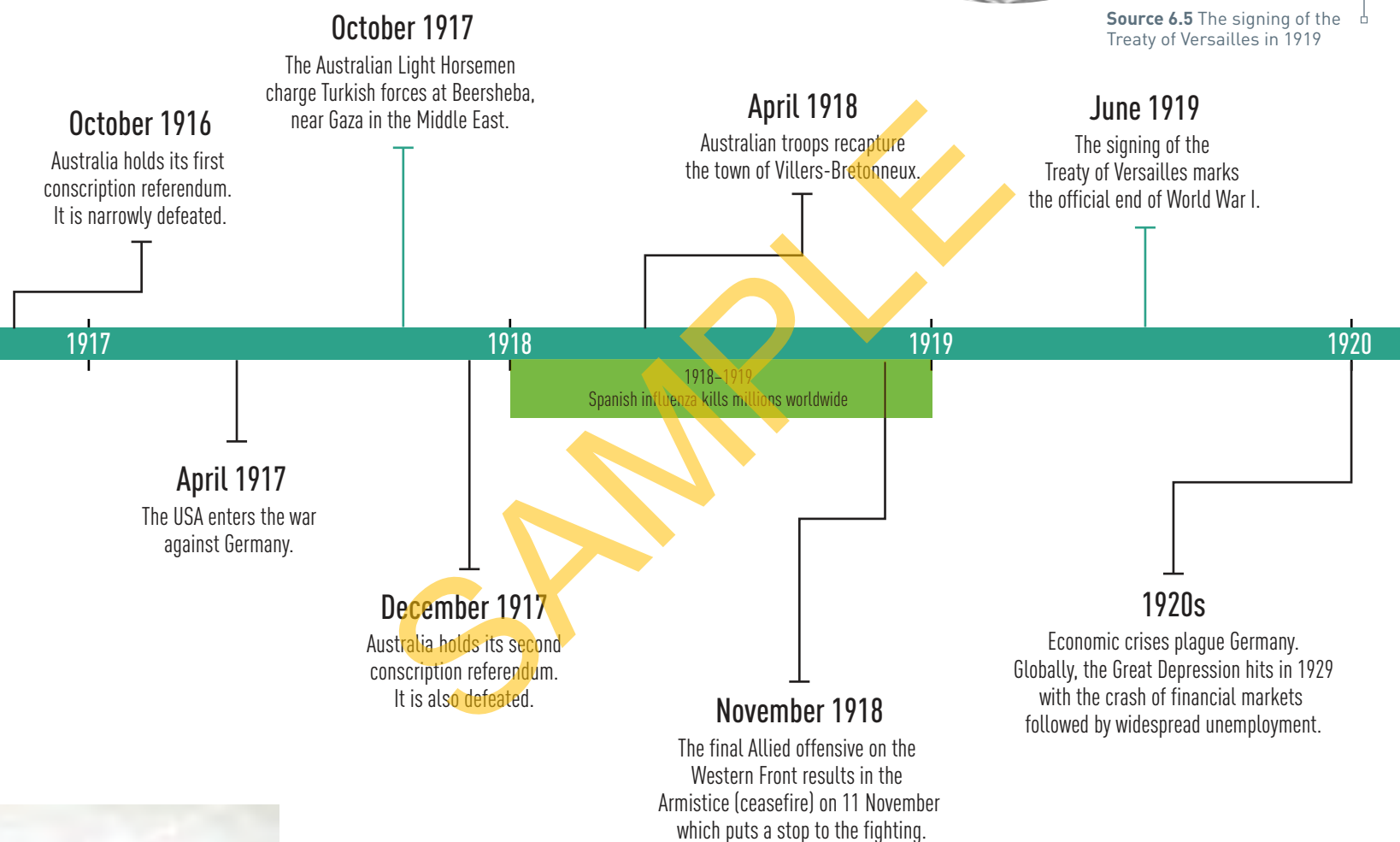




Source 6.4 An Australian soldier of the Light Horse leads a group of Turkish prisoners after the Battle of Beersheba in October 1917.



Source 6.5 The signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919



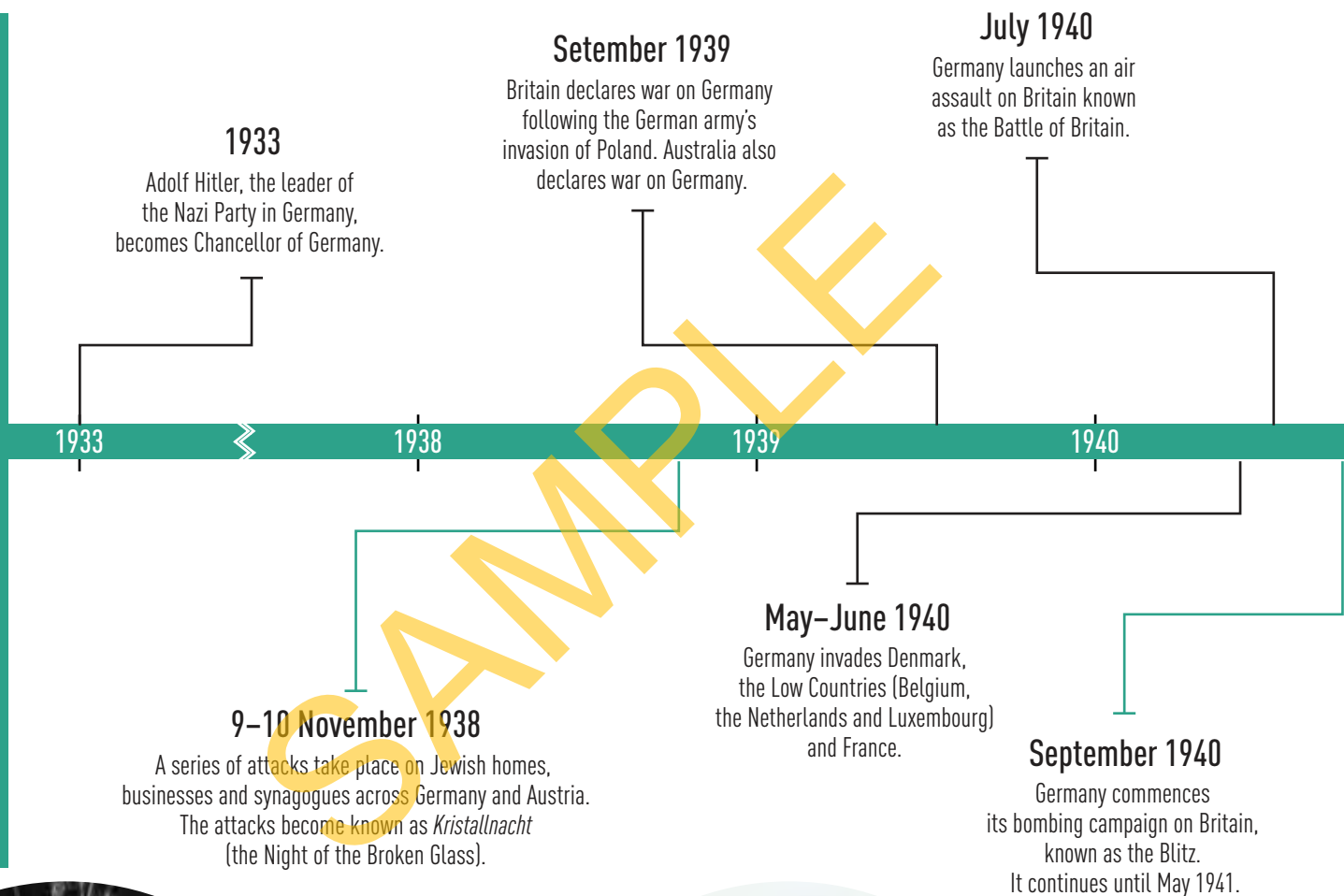
Source 6.3 Allied soldiers at the Battle of the Somme, 1916

REVIEW 6.1

- 1 In what year did Australia join World War I against Germany?
- 2 What was Australia's reason for joining the conflict?
- 3 When was Anzac Day first held in Australia? How long was this after ANZAC troops landed in Gallipoli?
- 4 How many times did Australia hold referendums on conscription during World War I? What were the results of these referendums?
- 5 How long after the Armistice did World War I officially end?

AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WAR II) – A TIMELINE

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Source 6.6
A Jewish-owned shopfront after *Kristallnacht*



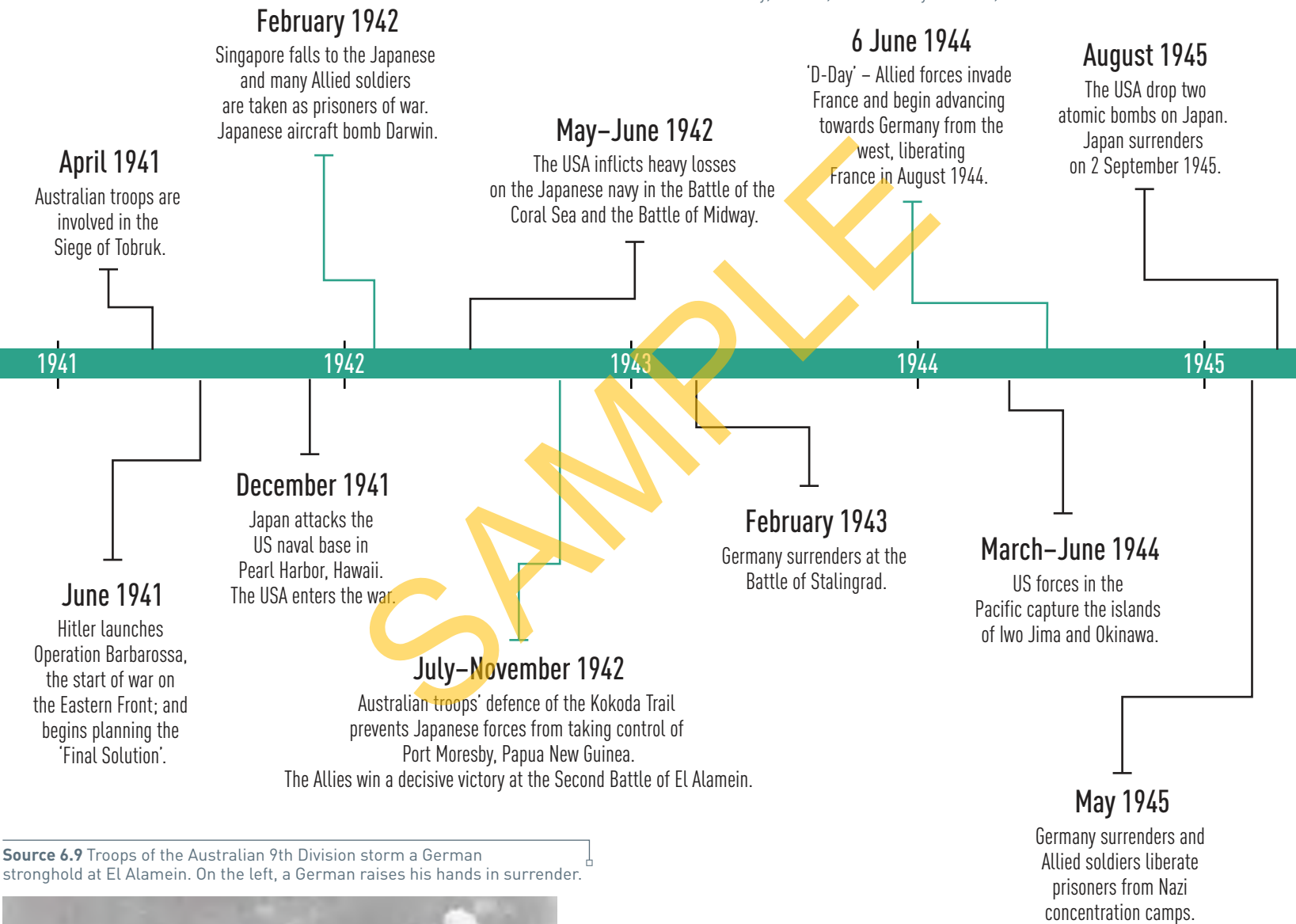
Source 6.7 The Blitz caused massive destruction to London and other major British cities.



Source 6.8 Some of the British, Australian, Indian and Chinese soldiers captured by the Japanese after the Fall of Singapore in February 1942



Source 6.10 American troops in landing craft in Normandy, France, at the D-Day invasion, 1944



Source 6.9 Troops of the Australian 9th Division storm a German stronghold at El Alamein. On the left, a German raises his hands in surrender.



REVIEW 6.2

- 1 How many months did Germany's bombing campaign on Britain last for?
- 2 Where were many Australian soldiers captured and taken as prisoners of war?
- 3 When did the USA enter the war and why?
- 4 What was *Kristallnacht* and when did it take place?

6.1

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES, SCOPE AND NATURE OF WORLD WAR I?

In this section, you will learn about the main causes of World War I. We will also explore the nature of warfare in this period and follow the course of World War I. Finally, we will investigate the locations in which Australians fought, and learn about their experiences there.

CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I

A simple list of causes can never adequately explain why wars start between nations. Even today, the causes of World War I remain hotly contested by historians. In this section we will consider the background and events leading up to the outbreak of World War I. We will then look at some of the different explanations that have been offered for its causes.

Europe in the lead-up to World War I

At the start of 1901, the countries of Europe (see Source 6.8) appeared peaceful and prosperous. Queen Victoria had occupied the British throne for over 60 years and many of her children and other relatives had married into royal houses all over Europe. As a result, many of the royal families of Europe were closely related. In the lead-up to World War I, many thought it was unlikely that these close relations would become involved in an armed conflict at all – let alone fight on opposing sides.

The **Industrial Revolution** had transformed societies across Western Europe. New production methods and technologies affected almost every sector of society and industry. Governments had made improvements in health care, sanitation and relief for the poor. Roads, canals and railways made transport easier and more accessible, and literacy rates were rising.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany and Britain's King George V were all first cousins and the grandsons of Britain's Queen Victoria. Victoria died in 1901. Kaiser Wilhelm II always said that if she had still been alive in 1914, she would never have allowed her grandsons to go to war.



Source 6.11 Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, King George V of Britain and Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany (from left to right)

However, the outward signs of prosperity masked both international and domestic tensions. Issues related to the size of colonial empires and the development of weapons, armies and ships all caused rivalries beneath the surface. Rates of economic progress, together with improvements in the standard of living, were unevenly spread across Europe. The benefits of the Industrial Revolution that were being enjoyed in Western Europe had so far had little impact on the nations of Eastern Europe such as Austria–Hungary, Russia, and a group of countries known as the Balkan states, which included Serbia, Bulgaria and Romania (see Source 6.13).



Source 6.12 Europe before World War I (inset box shows the location of the Balkan states)



Source 6.13 Detail of the Balkan states in 1914

The 'July Crisis' of 1914

The start of World War I was marked by Germany's declaration of war against Russia and France, followed immediately by its decision to invade Belgium. While these events all took place in the first days of August 1914, they were the direct result of a number of events that took place earlier that year.

On 28 June 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria–Hungary, and his wife were assassinated in the city of Sarajevo. At that time, Sarajevo (now the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina) was part of Austria–Hungary. The **assassination** led to a frantic and confused period of bluff, threat and negotiation between several European powers in July 1914. This period became known as the 'July Crisis' of 1914.



Source 6.14 An artist's impression of the assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo. The Archduke was shot by a group who wanted to see all the Slavic peoples united in a single country and hoped for the breakup of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

After the assassination, Austria–Hungary blamed the government of neighbouring Serbia. The Austrians, with the support of their ally Germany, issued a series of 10 harsh demands to Serbia. Serbia agreed to nine of the 10, but to accept all of the demands would have meant that Serbia lost any real independence. Serbia turned to its ally Russia for support. Russia – a nation with strong ethnic, cultural and linguistic links to the Slavic Serbs – promised to protect Serbia against any threat from Austria–Hungary and Germany.

A month after the assassination, Austria–Hungary declared war on Serbia. From that point on, a localised conflict in the Balkan region of south-eastern Europe became a general European war. The key to the spread of the conflict into a world war was the complex ‘system of alliances’ that developed in Europe between the 1870s and 1907.

The alliance system

The **alliance system** was created by the European powers from the 1870s onwards to maintain a ‘balance of power’. The thinking behind the balance of power was that if the rival European powers were all more-or-less equal in strength, then none of them would risk going to war because no one could be sure of winning.

By 1914, Europe was divided into two rival alliances. On one side there was the **Triple Alliance**, made up of Austria–Hungary, Germany and Italy. On the other side there was the **Triple Entente**, made up of Britain, France and Russia (*entente* is a French word meaning an ‘understanding’ or alliance.) Each participating nation promised to provide military support if one of its members was attacked. In addition to the key European countries shown in Source 6.15, many other countries, colonies and territories around the world were attached to one or other of the alliances. Japan, for example, had signed a treaty with Britain in 1902 making it a member of the Triple Entente. In addition to Japan, all British colonies (such as India) and dominions (such as Australia and New Zealand) automatically became part of the Triple Entente. This meant that they could all be drawn into conflict if war broke out.

The same fears that had led the major European powers to set up alliances ended up dragging them into war. When Russia offered to support Serbia against Austria–Hungary, Germany threatened Russia. Russia responded by calling on its ally France.

At this point, Germany was faced with hostile forces preparing for war on both its Eastern and Western borders. This was a situation that Germany had feared ever since France and Russia had become allies in 1894. When faced with the threat, the German response was to devise a special military plan (known as the Schlieffen Plan) and to launch an all-out attack on France. The aim of the Schlieffen Plan was to put a quick end to the threat from France before the huge Russian army was ready for war.

In order for the Schlieffen Plan to work, the German army needed to attack France by passing through neutral Belgium. However, although it was not a member of the Triple Entente, Belgium had an alliance with Britain. When the German army invaded Belgium, Britain declared war on Germany.



Source 6.15 European alliances in World War I

The alliance system and events leading to World War I

SOURCE STUDY

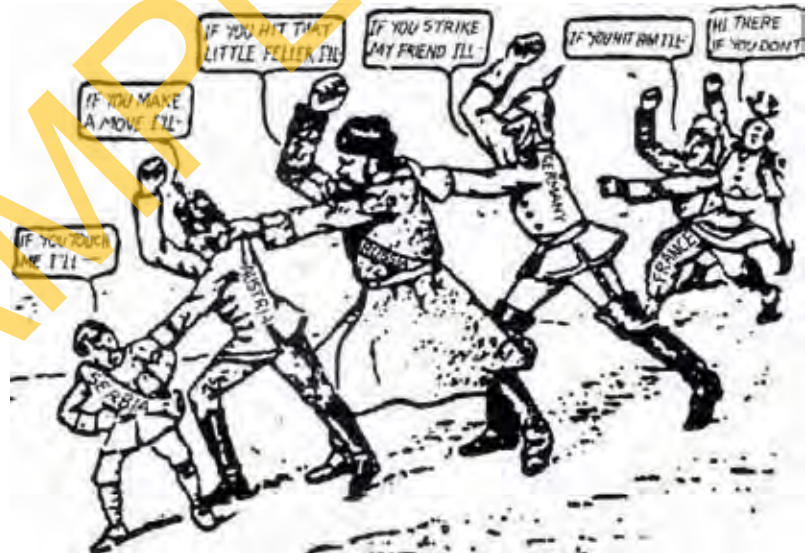
Source 6.16

Key dates in the lead-up to World War I	
28 June 1914	Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in the city of Sarajevo
23 July 1914	Austria–Hungary presents 10 demands to Serbia
25 July 1914	Serbia agrees to only nine of the 10 demands
28 July 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Serbia
29 July 1914	Russia promises military support to Serbia
1 August 1914	Germany declares war on Russia
3 August 1914	Germany declares war on France and invades Belgium
4 August 1914	Britain declares war on Germany (Australia becomes involved)
6 August 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Russia
23 August 1914	Japan (as an ally of Britain) declares war on Germany
29 October 1914	The Ottoman Empire (Turkey) enters the war on the side of Germany
23 May 1915	Italy enters the war on the side of the Triple Entente (breaking the Triple Alliance)

INTERPRET 6.1

- 1 Is it possible to identify a clear perspective on the causes of World War I in either of these sources?
- 2 Explain how these sources could be used to support the argument that World War I was caused by the alliance system.
- 3 What would be the weakness of relying on these sources to explain the causes of World War I?

Source 6.17 This cartoon offers a representation of how the war escalated as a result of the alliance system.



The causes of World War I – contestability

One of the ways in which you can develop a detailed understanding of the different views about what caused World War I is to ask yourself the question: Was World War I just a terrible accident or should one or more countries be blamed?

Ever since the end of World War I, historians have studied and debated exactly what caused it. During the 1920s, the general view was that Germany was more responsible than any other country, even though most people accepted that other factors also played a part. We will look at a range of these factors now. Your role as a historian is to analyse each of these factors individually and as part of a group in order to decide how important they were in leading to the outbreak of World War I.

Factors that led to the outbreak of World War I

- **Nationalism** – Put simply, nationalism is a sense of pride in and love of one's nation. It grows out of an understanding that the people of a nation share a common language, culture and history. Nationalism can unite the people of a nation or region. For example, feelings of nationalism contributed to the unification of many small Germanic kingdoms to form the German Empire in 1871. A sense of nationalism also encouraged cooperation between Germany and Austria–Hungary, because German-language speakers ruled both empires.

Nationalism can also divide people in a region; for example, the French and the Germans – both very nationalistic peoples – were long-time rivals.

- *Rivalry over colonies* – In the years leading up to World War I, there was fierce competition between powers in Europe to claim and control territories and resources in different parts of the world. This was largely driven by nationalism and **imperialism** (the process of acquiring and administering **colonies** for financial and strategic reasons). European powers including Britain, France and Germany had colonised much of the world between the 15th and 19th centuries, and they often competed for control over different parts of Africa, Asia and the Pacific.
- *The arms race in Europe* – No war can be fought without guns, ammunition and soldiers. In the early 20th century, modern battleships and submarines were also important weapons of war. Despite claims by European powers that they were not preparing for war, most were training armies and building up their stores of ships and weapons. Some historians argue that tension between the European powers was made worse by the build-up of military forces. A more specific and important aspect of the arms race was the decision of the German government to dramatically increase the size of its navy. Britain saw this as a major threat.
- *The alliance system* – Although the system of alliances was meant to maintain a 'balance of power' and help to keep the peace, it backfired. The alliances, in fact, expanded the war and turned a limited, local conflict into a wider European and world war.
- *Military plans* – Prior to World War I, all major European powers had military plans in place in case war broke out. These plans had strict timetables for what is known as **mobilisation** (the process of preparing armed forces and resources and getting them in position to fight). These plans put pressure on the politicians and diplomats from all countries during the July Crisis. None of them could afford to let another country get a head start in mobilising. The British historian AJP Taylor referred to this situation as 'war by timetable'.

EXTEND 6.1

- 1 Conduct research on the regions in the world that were colonies of Britain, France, Germany and Belgium in the lead-up to World War I, and create a list of territories for each country. Which country had the most colonies?

APPLY 6.1

- 1 List what most historians regard as the causes of World War I. Which one would you argue contributed most to the outbreak of the war? What evidence supports your viewpoint?

APPLY 6.2

- 1 Was Germany to blame for causing World War I? Make up your own mind by conducting your own research and taking part in discussions in class and at home. Present your evidence and arguments either through a class debate that puts Germany 'on trial', or write a 150–200 word persuasive text arguing the case for Germany's guilt or innocence.

REVIEW 6.3

- 1 What was the 'July Crisis' and how did it lead to the outbreak of World War I?
- 2 Explain the meaning of the term 'balance of power'. How was it meant to prevent a war?
- 3 List the three members of the Triple Entente.
- 4 List the three members of the Triple Alliance.
- 5 What was the Schlieffen Plan and how did it bring Britain into the war?

AUSTRALIA'S ENTRY INTO WORLD WAR I

When World War I broke out, Australia had been a united (federated) country for only 13 years. Although Australia was self-governing, it was still a **dominion** of the British Empire and was obliged to follow Britain's instructions in many areas of government. When Britain declared war on Germany, Australia and other countries in the British Empire were also drawn into war.

Very few Australians had been engaged in wars and, possibly because of this, there was a perception that war was glorious, exciting and heroic. A wave of enthusiasm for the war effort swept through the country and men rushed to enlist in the armed forces, which at the time were known as the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). Around 50 000 men enlisted by the end of 1914. According to popular opinion expressed in newspapers at the time, many of the men enlisting for war were concerned that it might be over before they got to Europe.

The reasons for enlistment were varied and complex. Some men were driven by a desire to show what their young nation could contribute to a world conflict. Others went to war because of loyalty to 'the mother country'. Some joined out of a spirit of adventure and for the opportunity to leave home and see the world. For some, their incentive was to earn a good income, and the promise of regular pay motivated many unemployed men to volunteer. As the war progressed, hatred of the enemy also became a motivation for enlistment. Propaganda stories (often exaggerated) of German atrocities were used in recruiting campaigns.



Source 6.18 An Australian recruitment poster from 1915 (AWM ARTV00021)

Why Australians enlisted

Source 6.19

I wasn't eighteen. I was working on the lathe, next to another chap ... I said to him 'why don't you enlist?' I said, 'I'll enlist if you do'. I went right up to Victoria Barracks and enlisted. We left the factory and I had to get my father's signature. Well, I forged that.

Stan D'Altera, in A Thomson, *Anzac Memories*, Oxford University Press, p. 27

Source 6.20

I couldn't help myself. Mum was a widow and she needed me to help run the farm. But I read what Andrew Fisher said and I went, 'Fisher's message to England was that Australia would stand behind her to the last man and the last shilling.'

Unnamed soldier, in P Adam-Smith, *The Anzacs*, Penguin, p. 17

Source 6.21

I have joined the Australian Army it's not bad money here, 5/- [5 shillings] a day and clothes and food ... nearly as good as cabinet making and not half as hard. You may [think] it funny [my] turning up such a good job, but ... this [employer] had only about three days work left for us ... so I [thought] I would join the army.

Corporal RE Antill in a letter to his parents, 1914, *defencemagazine*

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 6.2

- 1 Read Sources 6.19–6.21 and identify the different motivations and attitudes of the writers.
- 2 Create a conversation between the unnamed soldier in Source 6.20 and his brother who has been left to run the farm. Your conversation should include three arguments 'for' and 'against' enlisting in 1914.

REVIEW 6.4

- 1 Describe the attitude of most Australians to war before 1914. Why might they have held this attitude?
- 2 How many men did Australia initially promise Britain before the end of 1914? How many had actually enlisted by then?
- 3 Explain the techniques used by the government to encourage men to enlist.

EXTEND 6.2

- 1 Conduct research to identify inventions and innovations during the Industrial Revolution that led to the development of the new weapons technologies used during World War I.

THE NATURE OF WARFARE IN WORLD WAR I

World War I was fought across a larger area than any previous conflict. Theatres of war (a term often used to describe an area or place where important military events take place) were in the Middle East, the Western Front in France and Belgium, Italy, Eastern Europe, the North Sea, Turkey and northern Africa. Each region produced its own unique demands, tactics and conditions of warfare. The common feature across all regions and theatres of war was the emergence of new technologies.

Much of this technology is blamed for escalating and intensifying the war, as the conflict quickly became an evenly matched test of military technology, hardware and tactics, with neither side willing to break the deadlock. War was also fought in the air and under the sea for the first time – terrorising civilian populations in cities and along coastlines.



Source 6.22 British machine-gunners bring during the Battle of the Somme

Guns and artillery

Machine-guns, which had been used for the first time during the American Civil War, were improved for use in World War I. Many were capable of firing up to 600 rounds of ammunition per minute in short bursts. Facing one World War I machine-gunner was similar to facing 250 soldiers with rifles. Despite their increased fire power, these new guns often overheated and were heavy and difficult to move through the mud. Nonetheless, they were devastating when used against oncoming troops.

Heavy artillery guns could fire large shells over a long distance, usually projecting them through the air in an arc in order to hit a target from above. Like machine guns, artillery weapons were heavy and difficult to move. They were usually mounted on wheels that often became bogged down in the mud or got stuck in craters.

EXTEND 6.3

- 1 Why do you think that the use of poison gas was banned under the Geneva Protocol while the use of other types of weapons was not?



Gas

In April 1915, Germany introduced poison gas as a weapon of war. Chlorine, which was blown over the enemy trenches, burned and destroyed the airways of anyone not wearing a gas mask (see Source 6.23). Exposure to this type of gas caused terrible pain and often resulted in death. Other gases were introduced throughout the war, including mustard and tear gas. Poison-gas attacks during World War I were so horrific that their use was banned in 1925 under a treaty known as the Geneva Protocol.

Source 6.23 A soldier and dog search for wounded soldiers in areas affected by poison gas.

Tanks

The British army introduced the first tanks into the war in September 1916 at the Battle of the Somme in France. While they were successful at overcoming barbed wire obstacles and trenches, the mechanical unreliability of early tanks limited their effectiveness. Because they had been designed and built quickly, they frequently broke down or became stuck in muddy ditches. The crews inside the tanks had to endure unbearably hot and noisy conditions, almost constantly choking on fumes inside the cabin. By the end of 1917, improvements in tank technology and tactics meant that tanks were becoming more effective.

Aircraft

Large-scale aerial warfare was conducted for the first time during World War I. At first, small planes were used to scout enemy positions. Later, planes armed with machine guns were used in aerial combats, known as **dogfights**. Huge airships called **zeppelins**, named for their inventor Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin, were used by the Germans in the first air raid over England in January 1915. Made of a cylindrical metal frame covered with fabric and filled with gasbags, a zeppelin was able to fly higher than conventional aircraft and drift almost silently over its targets. The zeppelins' ability to hit their targets accurately was poor though, and they were also vulnerable to strong winds that could blow them off course. Towards the end of the war, zeppelins were largely replaced by multi-engine bomber planes, such as the Gotha GV. Britain responded with its equivalent, the Handley Page Type O bomber.

Communications

Advances in communication allowed faster contact between commanding field officers behind the front line and soldiers at the front line. The development of telephone and wireless (radio) systems allowed instant front-line reports and quick decisions. However, phone lines, which had to be laid in each new location, were easily damaged by the artillery, and the wireless radios were heavy and difficult to move. Despite the increasing use of these new technologies, soldiers still acted as runners to relay information. Motorbike couriers, carrier pigeons and even dogs were used at times.



Source 6.24 Early World War I tanks, built by the French manufacturer Renault, moving through Belgium, 1918



Source 6.25 German airmen attach a 100-kilogram bomb to the underside of a Gotha bomber.



Source 6.26 Dogs were sometimes used to carry messages to and from the front. This one brings news to a soldier in the trenches.

REVIEW 6.5

- 1 Identify three ways in which World War I was different from preceding wars.
- 2 Did new developments in technology actually extend the war?
- 3 What were the advantages and disadvantages of new developments in communications?

WHERE WORLD WAR I WAS FOUGHT

The most common image of World War I is that of soldiers in the trenches, covered in mud and blood, and surrounded by barbed wire. These images were characteristic of the drawn-out war on the **Western Front** in France and Belgium, where Australian troops fought from 1916 to 1918. Although this was generally regarded as the most important theatre of war, there were many others (see Source 6.27).

There was fighting on the Eastern Front (also known as the Russian Front) between Germany and Russia in Eastern Europe. This continued until the Russians made a separate peace with Germany in 1917. There was also fighting in northern Italy, where the Italians (who left the Triple Alliance) fought against Austria–Hungary. Fighting also took place in the Middle East, where Allied forces, including the Australian Light Horsemen, fought against the Turks. Perhaps best known to all Australians was the Gallipoli Campaign, where Australian and New Zealand (ANZAC) troops joined with other units of the British army in a failed invasion of Turkey.

Stalemate on the Western Front

In 1914, the widely held view was that World War I would be a short war. However, after the initial movement of the German army, which marched through Belgium and deep into France, the war on the Western Front became a stalemate. The stalemate was primarily due to the fact that from 1914 to 1918, the weapons and technology available to the armies in the form of artillery, machine guns and barbed wire gave the advantage to the defender. (It was not until World War II that this changed.) On the Western Front, the consequence of this was that the British and French could not drive the Germans out of France and the Germans could not advance any further.



Source 6.27 The countries involved in World War I and the sites and years of major battles. The Allies included Britain, France, Russia and their member countries. The Central Powers were Germany, Austria–Hungary and their allies.

Stalemate on the Western Front

SOURCE STUDY



Source 6.28 The Western Front in 1915, where German and Allied forces faced each other across a line of trenches that stretched from the Belgian coast to Switzerland.



Source 6.29 British soldiers waiting in a French trench on the Western Front during World War I. Note the camouflaged periscope at the centre of the photograph.

INTERPRET 6.3

- Using the scale on Source 6.28, work out approximately how long the line of trenches was in 1915.
- List the information you gain about trenches from examining Source 6.29.

REVIEW 6.6

- Locate and name the three main 'theatres of war' in World War I on Source 6.27.
- In which area did Australian troops first fight: Gallipoli or France?
- What style of warfare is most closely identified with the Western Front?
- Did available weapons and technology advantage the attacker or defender in World War I?
- Where was the initial advance in World War I? Who was it by? Where did it stop?
- Explain the meaning of the term 'stalemate'.

THE GALLIPOLI CAMPAIGN



Source 6.30 The Gallipoli peninsula

In an attempt to break the stalemate that had developed on the Western Front, Winston Churchill (Britain's First Lord of the Admiralty and the man in charge of the Royal Navy) argued for an attack on Turkey. As part of the Ottoman Empire, Turkey was a German ally. Churchill believed that the British Navy could force its way through the narrow passage of water known as the Dardanelles and bombard the Turkish capital of Constantinople (modern-day Istanbul). It was hoped that this would force Turkey out of the war and open the way for Britain and France to move supplies, via the Black Sea, to the Russian army fighting the Germans on the Eastern (Russian) Front (see Source 6.27). Although the idea was a good one, the planning for the campaign was poor.

The operation began in March 1915 when British and French warships unsuccessfully attempted to pass through the Dardanelles (See Source 6.30). They were stopped by Turkish guns along the shore and mines placed in the water. The next step,

almost as an afterthought, was to use the army and make a landing. The Gallipoli campaign began on 25 April when British, French and ANZAC troops made separate landings. British, Indian and ANZAC troops landed on the Gallipoli peninsula, while the French made a diversionary landing at Kum Kale to distract the Turkish forces (see Source 6.30).

The Gallipoli landing

Both the ANZAC's landing, at what is now called Anzac Cove, and the British landing at Cape Helles went badly from the start. The ANZACs found themselves ashore at a narrow beach facing steep cliffs. During the first hours after landing, there was a great deal of confusion as small groups of men acted independently. Some stayed on or near the beach, others advanced inland until they were halted by Turkish forces of the 19th Division. More than 600 Australian soldiers were killed on the first day of the campaign, with barely one kilometre of progress achieved.

The Turkish 19th Division was led by the brilliant Colonel Mustafa Kemal. Kemal recognised the importance of holding the high ground above the beaches. His decision on the first day did much to determine the outcome of the campaign, as the ANZACs never did gain the high ground despite repeated efforts.



Source 6.31 A photograph taken in 1916 of Mustafa Kemal Ataturk



Source6 .32 Anzac Cove following the landing of Australian and New Zealand troops on 25 April 1915

Source6 .33

Off at one this morning & about dawn we heard a terrific bombardment ... our battalion packed on three or four barges & a destroyer towed us towards the shore as far as she could ... then cast us adrift. That position was scarcely safe for bullets were flying all round hitting the boat, but we had only one casualty. Some of us waded neck high to shore ... The whole trouble was we had no artillery on land & the warships with their field guns could not reach the enemy's guns ... our losses from their shrapnel was severe ... The country is brutal ... besides being hilly & broken, the ground is covered with scrub from 4 to 6ft high & you cannot see an enemy if he does not wish it ... One other trouble is that the snipers [expert marksmen], seem to be numerous & deadly. One of the consequences of this is that the losses in Officers is out of proportion to the men ... Our battalion must have lost close on half its strength. We could not stand many days like this.

An account of the first landing at Anzac Cove from Acting Sergeant Adrian Wilmot Delamore of the Auckland Infantry Battalion

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The first name suggested for the combined corps (a grouping of two or more divisions) of Australian and New Zealand forces was the Australasian Army Corps, but this was rejected by New Zealand. ANZAC (Australian and New Zealand Army Corps) was eventually adopted instead.

INTERPRET 6.4

- 1 List the elements mentioned in Source 6.33 that you can identify in Source 6.32.
- 2 After studying Source 6.32, describe the difficulties you think you would face trying to transport weapons and supplies for the battle at Anzac Cove on 25 April 1915.
- 3 Use Source 6.33 to list the problems the original ANZACs faced when landing at Anzac Cove.

'The mystery current': a contested aspect of the Gallipoli landing

A story that is regularly retold about the Gallipoli campaign is that the ANZACs came ashore at the wrong beach because their boats were swept away from the planned landing place by a 'mystery current' in the ocean. However, evidence from Royal Navy records of ocean currents and weather, together with soldiers' accounts, refute this idea (e.g. one soldier noted in his journal that 'there was no wind and the sea was dead calm'). The story of the 'mystery current' appears to have begun with General Birdwood, who was in charge of the landing. It may have been created in order to turn attention away from the fact that ANZAC troops came ashore at a difficult landing place. This made it challenging, if not impossible, for the ANZAC part of the Gallipoli campaign to succeed.



Source 6.34 An illustration from *The War Illustrated Album deluxe*, of Lance Corporal Albert Jacka single-handedly defending a trench, and killing seven enemy soldiers at Courtney's Post, Gallipoli peninsula. Jack, who was awarded the Victoria Cross, went on to serve in France and became an officer.

EXTEND 6.4

- 1 Conduct research on the life of Albert Jacka and create a suitable obituary that summarises his achievements.

Offensives and counter-offensives

Many celebrated people, events and legends in modern Australian history achieved fame during the eight months of fighting at Gallipoli. Some of the most commemorated events of World War I in Australia are the **offensives** and **counter-offensives** that took place in Gallipoli. After the ANZAC troops landed in Anzac Cove in May 1915, the Turks launched a major counter-offensive to drive off the invaders. During this action, the now legendary Albert Jacka became the first Australian to receive a Victoria Cross during World War I for single-handedly defending and holding the position of a trench against enemy fire. The Victoria Cross is the highest Commonwealth military award for acts of bravery in wartime.

In August 1915, the ANZACs launched two famous diversionary attacks. The Australians captured Lone Pine in fighting so fierce that seven Victoria Crosses were awarded to soldiers involved in the attack. At the Nek, a charge by Light Horsemen cost the lives of 234 soldiers on an area the size of three tennis courts.

Despite these offensives and counter-offensives, the situation on Gallipoli was to remain essentially unchanged for the eight months of the campaign. On the battlefield, respect grew between the Turkish soldiers and the ANZAC troops. Each side saw the other as honourable, and agreements were made to hold

fire and bury the dead respectfully (see Source 6.33). Both sides had an amnesty to allow a number of dead Turkish soldiers to be buried under the Red Crescent flag of their nation. Over time, the two sides even began trading with each other.

Conditions at Gallipoli

Conditions at Gallipoli were extremely difficult for the ANZACs. As the Turks held the high ground, the ANZACs were always exposed to enemy fire. Nowhere was safe. They were in constant danger, day and night, from snipers (expert marksmen) or artillery bombardment from the Turkish guns. More Australians and New Zealanders died or were forced into hospital, however, as a result of disease than enemy action. Conditions in the trenches were rough, with variations in weather from extreme heat to cold winds and snow. Food supplies were basic but plentiful, but living in close quarters with poor sanitation and unreliable drinking water encouraged the spread of diseases such as dysentery and gastroenteritis.

Conditions at Gallipoli

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.35

We landed on Gallipoli in what we were wearing and continued to wear it day and night until the socks were the first garments to become unwearable, and they were cast out and we went barefoot in our boots.

We discarded our tunics during the day as the weather became hotter, and working and living in earthen trenches, while sometimes sweating profusely caused our pants and thick pure woollen shirts to become even worse than filthy.

We got only sufficient fresh water, in fact, on some days barely enough to drink, so washing garments was out of the question, and so the only alternative was to get down to the beach and wash our garments and ourselves in the brine, which as far as our garments was concerned made little difference.

There were parasites which caused an abominable itch to which ever part of the skin where they operated. They lived and bred mainly in the seams of the inner garments. The best control means available was to wear the clothing inside out and then there were no seams next to the skin for the pest to hide away in and breed. This I did with my flannel shirt, but I simply could not come at wearing my trousers inside out, even though many of the other men did. It simply looked too awful.

An extract from a letter that Lieutenant Frank Boyes wrote about conditions at Gallipoli



Source 6.36 Australian soldiers resting in a trench at Gallipoli.

INTERPRET 6.5

- 1 Do you think that Source 6.35 is a reliable source of evidence for an investigation of living conditions at Gallipoli? Give reasons for your opinion.
- 2 What features can you identify in Source 6.36 that support the description provided in Source 6.35?
- 3 What evidence is there in either source that the ANZACs weren't really prepared for conditions at Gallipoli?
- 4 Using these two sources as evidence, describe conditions for the ANZACs at Gallipoli.
- 5 Would you require any further information to make your description more complete?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

To hide the fact they were leaving, the ANZACs rigged up ríjes to pre at random. They did this by attaching tins to the ríje triggers with string. When the tins plled with water, dripping from other tins strung up above, their weight pulled the triggers down and the ríjes pred.

Withdrawal

By December 1915, the decision was made to withdraw all ANZAC troops from the Gallipoli Peninsula. For the Australian forces, the campaign had cost 8709 lives, with a further 19 000 wounded. Their enemy, the Turks, had been just as brave in the defence of their homeland, with a total of around 80 000 Turks dying in the fighting at Anzac Cove and against British troops at Cape Helles. The last Australians were evacuated on 19 and 20 December. Because of its efficiency, their silent withdrawal is usually remembered as the most successful part of the Gallipoli campaign.

EXTEND 6.5

- 1 Conduct research on the achievements of the Australian Light Horse after leaving Gallipoli, including their role at the Battle of Beersheba.

After Gallipoli

After the ANZACs withdrew from Gallipoli, most of the infantry (foot soldiers) were sent to France to continue fighting, while members of the Light Horse Brigade (mounted soldiers) were sent to the Middle East to serve with British forces fighting the Turks. One of the most famous battles that involved the Australian Light Horse was the charge against Turkish forces at Beersheba (a city located in what is now the south of Israel). It was a battle in which the Light Horse took part in a surprise attack on Turkish positions in October 1917.

Gallipoli from the Turkish perspective

Just as the teaching and commemoration of Gallipoli is an important part of culture and history in Australia and New Zealand, so too is it an important part of culture and history in Turkey today. The stories and events of the Gallipoli campaign are widely taught and remembered by Turks, and are regarded as a significant point in the development of their country. To the Turks, the ANZACs were seen as invaders who needed to be stopped in order to protect their homeland and defend their way of life. Although Turkish children learn about a different set of heroes at school, and their teachers tell different stories of victories and defeats, the teaching and commemoration of these events is no less important to Turks than it is to Australians and New Zealanders.

SOURCE STUDY

A tribute to the ANZACs

Source 6.37

Those heroes that shed their blood and lost their lives... You are now lying in the soil of a friendly country. Therefore rest in peace. There is no difference between the JoŪnies [the Australians] and the Mehments [the Turks] to us where they lie side by side now here in this country of ours... you, the mothers, who sent their sons from faraway countries wipe away your tears; your sons are now lying in our bosom and are in peace. After having lost their lives on this land they have become our sons as well.

A tribute, written by Mustafa Kemal AtatŪrk (the first president of Turkey) in 1934, to the ANZACs killed at Gallipoli

INTERPRET 6.6

- 1 At whom is the tribute aimed?
- 2 How might the tribute be a comfort to Australians and New Zealanders who had lost loved ones at Gallipoli?
- 3 What do you think the tribute says about Mustafa Kemal AtatŪrk as a person?

APPLY 6.3

- 1 Visit the Australian War Memorial website to find out about Mustafa Kemal, the first President of modern Turkey in 1923.

REVIEW 6.7

- 1 Why did the British decide to attack Turkey in 1915?
- 2 Who led the Turkish forces opposing the ANZACs at Gallipoli and why did the operation fail?
- 3 When was the decision made to withdraw ANZAC troops from Gallipoli? Where were these troops sent?

THE WESTERN FRONT

As we have seen, warfare on the Western Front quickly reached a stalemate. Troops on both sides were largely confined to the trenches, using machine guns, trenches, barbed wire and artillery to defend their positions. This stalemate meant that war on the Western Front became bogged down in a senseless series of attacks and counter-attacks, each achieving little but costing millions of lives.

These attacks tended to follow a pattern. Initially, one side would launch a long and sustained artillery attack, during which enemy trenches would be bombarded with explosive shells. These attacks could go on for a few hours or many days. The aim of these bombardments was to force the defending troops underground, destroy their fortifications and clear the way for attacking troops to cross **no man's land** (the narrow strip of land between opposing trenches that belonged to neither army) and gain enemy ground.

One major problem, however, was that no man's land was very difficult ground to cross. Soldiers struggled through mud-filled shell holes created by their own artillery, and were weighed down with heavy equipment. Once they had started to cross no man's land, they might learn that their bombardment had not destroyed the barbed wire obstacles between the trenches. More frightening still was the possibility that the artillery attack had failed to destroy the enemy's fortifications. As attacking soldiers made their way across no man's land, the enemy could emerge from deep bunkers to fire on them with machine guns.

Generally, these types of attacks on enemy trenches failed to achieve their goals. Confusion, smoke, noise and death quickly turned complex military plans into chaos. If attackers reached enemy lines, close combat with rifles, bayonets, pistols and grenades often followed. If ground was gained, it could be retaken in counter-offensives only weeks later. The only real result of most of the battles that took place on the Western Front over the four years was death and injury.



Source 6.38 A photograph taken on 1 October 1917 showing the battlefield in Ypres, Belgium. Note the shell-hole bogs and pill boxes (concrete bunkers) that protected German soldiers from Australian artillery fire.

Australians on the Western Front

From 1916 to 1918, Australian troops took part in many of the most important battles on the Western Front:

- the Battle of Fromelles
- the Battle of the Somme in northern France
- assaults on the towns of Pozieres and Villers-Bretonneux
- the Battle of Passchendaele in Ypres, Belgium
- the Battle of Hamel
- the Battle of Amiens.

The Battle of Hamel

The Battle of Hamel was an attack on German trenches to the east of Amiens, France, by the Australian 4th Division under the command of General John Monash. It has been described by some military historians as a textbook battle because of Monash's careful planning. Just before dawn on 4 July 1918, and without using the typical artillery bombardment, Australian troops and a small detachment of Americans attacked the German lines. The attack took the Germans by surprise, and the Australians gained ground and inflicted major losses on the Germans.

EXTEND 6.6

- 1 Who was Sir John Monash? Conduct research on his military achievements and reputation. How did the Battle of Hamel differ from the other battles on the Western Front?

APPLY 6.4

- 1 Investigate one of the important battles involving Australians on the Western Front listed above. Use visual and text sources to present an outline of the battle's objectives, events and results. Do you believe it was a significant battle? Explain your response.
- 2 Investigate the primary school in the French town of Villers-Bretonneux, and explain why the townspeople there remember Australia.

Women on the Western Front

The only women allowed to enlist and serve overseas during World War I were nurses. Over the course of the war, 2562 Australian nurses joined the AIF as members of the medical units. Out of this number, 2139 served overseas in the Middle East and on the Western Front. Twenty-five women lost their lives while serving overseas and 388 received military honours.

Life in the trenches

Life in the trenches along the Western Front could vary, but for most soldiers conditions were appalling. In most cases, trenches were two metres deep by two metres wide, and during the winter months, rainfall turned low-lying trenches into mud pits. In some cases, the water reached waist height, leading to a condition called trench foot, which caused soldiers' feet to rot. During the summer months, rats, lice and flies infested the trenches.

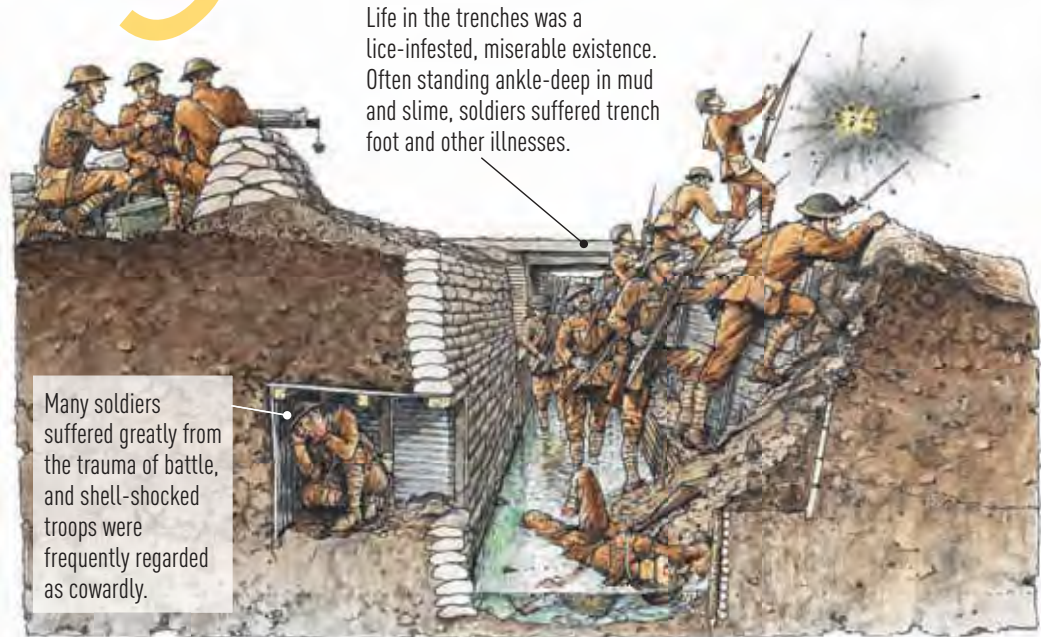
To avoid snipers (marksmen trained to 'pick off' enemy soldiers from concealed locations), soldiers spent most of the daylight hours under the trench line – most attacks took place at dusk or in the early morning when visibility was poor. Soldiers were often bored during the day, and caught brief moments of sleep when they could.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The winter of 1916 was one of the harshest on the Western Front. The cold was so intense that water was carried to the troops as blocks of ice. Water that had been boiled to drink would develop a crust of ice after only a minute or two.

Life in the trenches was a lice-infested, miserable existence. Often standing ankle-deep in mud and slime, soldiers suffered trench foot and other illnesses.

Many soldiers suffered greatly from the trauma of battle, and shell-shocked troops were frequently regarded as cowardly.



Source 6.39 An artist's impression of life in the trenches on the Western Front.

Life in the trenches

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.40

We are lousy [infested with lice], stinking, ragged, unshaven, sleepless. Even when we're back a bit we can't sleep for our own guns. I have one puttee [fabric strip wound around the lower leg for protection], a dead man's helmet, another dead man's gas protector, a dead man's bayonet. My tunic is rotten with other men's blood and partly splattered with a comrade's brains. It is horrible but why should you people at home not know.

Extract from a letter from John Alexander Raws to his family. Raws was a South Australian soldier who spent only four weeks on the Western Front before he was killed in shelling on 23 August 1916.

Source 6.42

I kept calling for the orderly to help me and thought he was funk[ing] [showing cowardice], but the poor boy had been blown to bits. Somebody got the tent up, and when I got to the delirious pneumonia patient, he was crouched on the ground at the back of the stretcher. He took no notice of me when I asked him to return to bed, so I leaned across the stretcher and put one arm around and tried to lift him in. I had my right arm under a leg, which I thought was his, but when I lifted I found to my horror that it was a loose leg with a boot and a puttee on it. It was one of the orderly's legs which had been blown off and had landed on the patient's bed. The next day they found the trunk about 20 yards away.

Sister Kelly, an Australian nurse in France, described her experiences when a bomb hit a casualty clearing station behind the lines



Source 6.41 A photograph taken on 22 January 1918 shows members of a British Tunnelling Company attached to the Australian Corps making a dugout in the slimy mud beneath an artillery observation post near Messines, in Belgium.



Source 6.43 Nurses working in a makeshift field hospital, such as were often set up in trenches on the Western Front

INTERPRET 6.7

- 1 What makes Sources 6.40 and 6.42 reliable sources of evidence for a historian trying to understand conditions in the trenches of the Western Front? What limitations are there for a historian researching conditions across the entire Western Front?
- 2 Explain how Sources 6.41 and 6.43 help you understand the conditions in the trenches of the Western Front.

REVIEW 6.8

- 1 Identify similarities between the Gallipoli campaign and the Western Front.
- 2 List the problems associated with living and working in the trenches of the Western Front.
- 3 Describe the conditions Australian nurses on the Western Front could find themselves working under.

6.1

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES, SCOPE AND NATURE OF WORLD WAR I?

» Outline the main causes of World War I

- 1 Identify the long-term causes of World War I and explain how they contributed to the outbreak of war. (10 marks)
- 2 Outline the links between the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and the outbreak of World War I. (5 marks)

» Explain why Australians enlisted to fight

- 3 Identify reasons why Australians enlisted to fight in World War I. (5 marks)

» Locate and sequence the places where Australians fought

- 4 Identify the three main theatres of war that Australians fought in during World War I. (5 marks)
- 5 Place these three theatres of war in chronological order according to Australian involvement. (5 marks)

» Describe the nature of warfare during the Gallipoli campaign

- 6 Describe the landing at Gallipoli. Argue whether it was a success or failure. (15 marks)
- 7 Describe the conditions the ANZACs experienced during the campaign on the Gallipoli peninsula. (10 marks)
- 8 Identify the reasons so many Victoria Crosses were awarded to Australians at Gallipoli. (5 marks)

» Explain the outcome of the Gallipoli campaign

- 9 Outline the outcome of the Gallipoli campaign for both Australia and Turkey. (10 marks)
- 10 'Their silent withdrawal is usually remembered as the most successful part of the Gallipoli campaign'. Discuss the accuracy of this statement, making reference to Australia's involvement in the Gallipoli campaign. (15 marks)

» Investigate the significant experiences of Australians in World War I

- 11 Describe the conditions Australians found themselves fighting in on the Western Front. Refer to at least two sources in your response. (10 marks)
- 12 Select a World War I battle you are familiar with, and explain the role Australians played in it. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

Gallipoli – the power of film

The Australian film *Gallipoli* (1981) is described on the Australian War Memorial website as a 'powerful depiction of personal struggles and experience of Gallipoli in 1915.' It credits the film for bringing 'this important national story to an international audience.' It then goes on to claim that 'the climax of the movie occurs on the ANZAC battlefield at Gallipoli and depicts the futile attack at the Battle of the Nek on 7 August 1915.'

- 1 In groups, conduct research on the following topics:
 - a the life and career of Private Wilfred Harper of the 10th Light Horse
 - b the recruitment campaign in Australia in 1914–1915
 - c the landing at Gallipoli
 - d the Battle of the Nek
 - e the making of the film *Gallipoli*.

- 2 As a class compare and discuss the results of your research.
- 3 View the film *Gallipoli* as a class.
- 4 Write an individual report on the film's historical accuracy.
- 5 Discuss the film's historical accuracy as a class. What are your conclusions? Does a film like *Gallipoli* have to be historically accurate? Does it matter if a film about a historical event is accurate?

The Battle of Lone Pine

- 1 Conduct research on the Battle of Lone Pine at Gallipoli. Write a report of about 500 words that describes the aim and results of this ANZAC offensive, and explain why seven Australians were awarded Victoria Crosses as a result of their actions during this battle.



Source 6.44 Private Wilfred Harper, 10th Light Horse Regiment of Guildford, Western Australia



Source 6.45 A scene from the film *Gallipoli*, made in 1981

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.2

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF WORLD WAR I ON AUSTRALIA?

This section outlines the ways in which World War I had an impact on Australia. It explores how the war affected people's lives on the Australian home front, including the impacts on the Australian government and economy.

THE IMPACT OF WORLD WAR I ON AUSTRALIA

Source 6.46

Australia's involvement

Enlisted and served overseas: 331 781

Dead: 61 720

Wounded: 155 000 (all services)

Prisoners of war: 4044 (397 died while captive)

Source: Australian War Memorial website

World War I had a significant impact on Australia. A young nation with a population of less than five million in 1914 lost over 60 000 young men as a result of the war (see Source 6.46). Many of these men were the fittest and most able of the male population. As a percentage of total troops sent to war, Australia's losses were the highest of any of the Commonwealth nations (see Source 6.47). A summary of the numbers of those who served and of the numbers of deaths and other casualties makes it clear that Australia made a major sacrifice for the Allied war effort.

Source 6.47 A comparison of British Commonwealth casualties, World War I

Country	Total soldiers sent to war	Total casualties (captured, missing, wounded or killed)	% of casualties
Britain	5 000 000	2 535 424	50.71
Canada	422 405	210 100	49.74
Australia	331 781	215 585	64.98
New Zealand	98 950	58 526	59.01
India	1 096 013	140 015	12.77

Statistics from *Australian Campaigns in the Great War*, Lt. The Hon. Staniforth Smith

Impact of war on the Australian home front

Despite the significant loss of Australian lives, World War I did not touch the Australian home front to anywhere near the same degree as it did in the countries where fighting had taken place, such as France, Belgium, Italy, Russia, Turkey and Britain. In these countries, civilians suffered food shortages or were driven from their homes because of the conflict. All the European nations introduced some form of **conscription** (compulsory military service). In Australia, conscription was one of the most divisive and bitter arguments of the war.

The conscription issue

By 1916, most of the initial enthusiasm for the war effort had been replaced by the grim realisation that war meant suffering and death. Although there was a peak in enlistments after Gallipoli, from late 1915, numbers of enlisting soldiers steadily declined. Because of the decline in the number of Australian volunteers, heavy Australian losses and the critical state of the war on the Western Front, Labor Prime Minister Billy Hughes announced

that there would be a national referendum (a special national vote). If it had passed, the Commonwealth Government would have had the power to force men of military age to join the army for service in the war overseas.

Hughes first put the referendum to the Australian people in October 1916. They voted 'no' by a small margin. Under pressure for Britain, Hughes held a second referendum in December 1917, with the same result.

The most important reason for the failure of the conscription referendum was that despite government **propaganda** (see Sources 6.52 and 6.53), the official support of the Protestant Churches and an energetic campaign by the Prime Minister, the Australian people were not convinced that Australia was at risk. The war was half a world away. Australians also believed that, for the size of its population, the country had done more than its fair share to support Britain and the Empire. The conscription debate divided the country, and highlighted existing divisions along the lines of religion and social classes. Supporters of conscription were more likely to be upper-class people of British and Protestant background. Opponents of conscription were more likely to be working class, Catholic and of Irish background. Some of the factors that played a role in the defeat of the referendums are summarised in Source 6.48.

Source 6.48 Factors leading to the defeat of the conscription referendums

Anti-British sentiment among the Irish Catholic community: There was strong anti-British feeling among the Irish Catholic community in Australia. The first referendum was held not long after the Easter Rebellion in Ireland, when Irish nationalists staged an armed uprising as part of their long campaign for independence from Britain.

The Labor Party split over the issue: Some elements of the party agreed with Hughes. Others, of Irish background and with strong links to the trade union movement, opposed conscription. Many trade unionists opposed conscription because they feared that if even more able-bodied Australians were taken into the army, then the country would have to rely on non-union labour at lower wages. This suspicion was strengthened by the arrival of a party of immigrants from Malta in 1916.

Perception of unfair burden: Many working-class Australians felt that they had contributed the most in terms of enlisting soldiers, and that they were also being exploited at home, as wages fell and the cost of living rose. There was a perception that middle and upper-class people were less affected by the war. Some were even seen to be profiting from lucrative government war contracts.

Impact on supply of workers: Some farmers and other employers with skilled workers opposed conscription because they feared it would hurt their businesses.

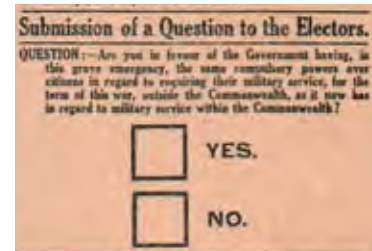
Expansion of Commonwealth government power

In 1914, the newly elected Australian Labor government, under Prime Minister Andrew Fisher, passed two items of legislation to extend Commonwealth power. These were known as the *Trading with the Enemy Act* and the *War Precautions Act*. These two pieces of legislation represented a significant increase in the central authority of the Federal government – a move that continued in many areas of law even after the war ended in 1918. These Acts gave the government power to:

- collect income tax (necessary to meet the costs of weapons, ammunitions and other army supplies)
- increase **censorship** of letters, telegraph cables, newspapers and magazines, with the goal of preventing information about military operations from reaching the enemy. The government also censored reports and statements that 'might cause disaffection or alarm or prejudice the recruiting, training [or] discipline' of Australia's armed forces
- set prices for certain goods
- control the movements of 'enemy aliens' – in other words German-Australians – and even intern (imprison) them
- ban trade with companies from enemy countries fighting against the Allies.



Source 6.49 William Morris (Billy) Hughes



Source 6.50 Part of the ballot paper leading to the 1916 conscription referendum

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Billy Hughes was hit by an egg while speaking to a noisy crowd in Warwick, Queensland, in support of the conscription referendum. The culprit was not caught and Hughes, not happy with the efforts of the Queensland police, hatched plans to establish the Australian Federal Police force, which would have certain powers over all Australian states and territories.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Aspro is an Australian product that was developed as a direct result of World War I. It replaced Aspirin, a pain relief medication that became unpopular in Australia because it was made by the German company Bayer.



Source 6.51 An advertisement for Aspro that appeared during World War I

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Before the war, a processed meat commonly known as German sausage was popular. In South Australia it was known as 'Fritz', but during the war its name was changed to the more English-sounding 'Devon'.

Impact of World War I on Australia's economy

The redirection of raw materials to the war effort caused inflation (price rises) across Australia, with the cost of living rising by up to 50 per cent during the war years. On the positive side, Australia developed new industries to manufacture products that could no longer be imported because of naval blockades and the use of cargo ships for military purposes rather than for the transportation of consumer goods.

There were also changes in the structure of the economy. While agriculture continued to be important, there was also significant growth in Australian secondary industry (manufacturing) such as the expansion of the BHP Steel Works and the Sulphide Corporation. Both these companies were involved in smelting and processing metals that were vital to the war effort. The Australian National Shipping Line and the Commonwealth Bank also expanded their roles in the economic life of the country.

Impact of World War I on Australian women

Before the war, most women had been homemakers, with a small number working in traditionally female roles such as teaching, nursing, dressmaking and domestic work. However, with over 300 000 men fighting overseas, women wanted to support the war effort at home. Unlike women in Britain and Germany, Australian women did not move into factory work in significant numbers. They did, however, move out of their traditional roles, taking up jobs in banks and offices that had previously been male occupations. By the end of the war, the percentage of women working outside the home had risen by 13 per cent.

When the war was over, there was an expectation that women who had moved into traditional male roles would go back to the home, making way for returned soldiers. Most women were willing to do this. However, there were roles such as secretaries, typists and telephonists that continued to be regarded as women's work.

Wartime propaganda

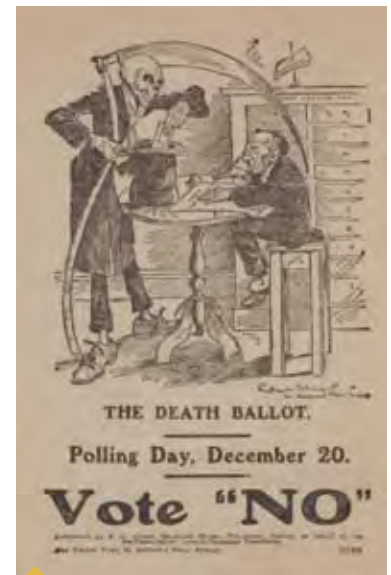
Wartime propaganda was aimed at encouraging people to support the war effort by enlisting to serve or by working on the home front. Another key objective of propaganda was to generate negative feelings and emotions towards the enemy, which in Australia meant fuelling anti-German sentiments in the general public. During World War I, Germans and Turks were demonised in the Australian press, in posters and in day-to-day life. Even soldiers with German names who enlisted in the Australian army sometimes faced hostility and suspicion, and many German-Australians changed their names to more English-sounding ones to avoid discrimination. Anti-German sentiment also led many towns across Australia with German-sounding names to change their names to more English-sounding ones. For example, in New South Wales, Germantown was renamed Holbrook, and Mount Bismarck was renamed Mount Kitchener after Lord Kitchener (the British Field Marshal).

APPLY 6.5

- 1 Use your research skills to locate a further example of Australian propaganda from World War I.
 - a Analyse it by identifying its origin, purpose, audience and techniques.
 - b What techniques are used in order to achieve its goal?
 - c How effective do you think it would have been at achieving this goal?



Source 6.52 A pro-conscription poster from 1917 encouraging Australians to enlist



Source 6.53 An anti-conscription cartoon printed in 1917 produced by the No Conscription Council Campaign Committee

INTERPRET 6.8

- 1 Identify the perspectives on the conscription debate being promoted by both of these sources.
- 2 Select one of these sources and outline the argument it is presenting and the types of techniques it is using to promote its point of view and achieve its aim.
- 3 Explain which source you think would have been the most effective at achieving its aim. What features or elements do you think would have made it more effective than the other source?

Internment of 'enemy aliens'

From the 1850s onwards, German settlers coming to Australia had formed communities in places such as the Barossa Valley in South Australia and the Riverina in New South Wales, as well as across parts of south-east Queensland and Western Australia. During World War I, the Australian government set up **internment camps** in remote places around Australia and sent thousands of 'enemy aliens' – primarily from these established German-Australian communities – to be detained there. The government of the time regarded enemy aliens to be any men, women or children born in countries at war with Australia who were thought to pose a threat to Australia's security. In New South Wales, internment camps were located in Trial Bay Gaol, Berrima Gaol and Holsworthy Army Barracks. About 4500 people were interned during World War I, and many more were secretly kept under observation by police and neighbours in their communities.

EXTEND 6.7

- 1 To what extent do you think the restriction of enemy aliens under the *War Precautions Act* is an example of the key concept of continuity or change in Australian history?



Source 6.54 Private Douglas Grant (left) in his AIF uniform. Grant fought on the Western Front during the war. He was rejected when he first tried to enlist in 1916, then was accepted in 1917. Grant became a prisoner of war after capture at Bullecourt, France, and returned to Australia in 1919.

Participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples

Even though Indigenous Australians could not vote and were not even counted as Australian citizens during World War I, well over 400 volunteered and fought in the AIF. When the war broke out, many Indigenous Australians who attempted to enlist were turned away because of their race. By 1916, however, around the time of the conscription debate, the government's position on the inclusion of Indigenous Australians in the armed forces had changed dramatically. By that time, Australia was desperate for more men. Restrictions were eased and a new military order was issued that said, 'Half-castes may be enlisted in the Australian Imperial Force provided that the examining Medical Officers are satisfied that one of the parents is of European origin.' At the time, Australian government policy judged people by the colour of their skin rather than their courage, the quality of their character or their **patriotism**. When Australian soldiers returned from World War I, there were many benefits available to them to help them re-adjust to civilian life. Aboriginal soldiers who enlisted and fought for Australia, however, were denied access to these benefits when they returned home.

Armistice and peace

At 11 a.m. on 11 November 1918, fighting stopped on the Western Front, and World War I officially ended with the signing of the **Armistice** (an agreement between opposing forces to cease fighting and pursue a course of peace).

The following year, the Paris Peace Conference was held at the Palace of Versailles, just outside Paris. The Conference brought together the leaders of the Allies to set the terms of peace for the defeated Central Powers. Representatives of the German government signed a treaty – known as the **Treaty of Versailles** – in which Germany admitted fault for causing the war and agreed to pay **reparations** (money and goods to compensate for damage and loss of lives during the war). As part of the terms of the Treaty, Germany also lost some of its territories and was forced to limit the size of its army.

There were two key results of the Treaty of Versailles for Australia. Australia had independent representation at the conference, separate from Britain, and was granted a mandate over New Guinea by the **League of Nations** – an organisation that was formed at the Paris Peace Conference with representatives from many world powers. The League's primary mission was to maintain world peace and prevent future wars. The Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes insisted on Australian control over New Guinea because he didn't want it to be granted to Japan, who had been a favoured candidate for the role. As it turned out, New Guinea proved to be vital for Australian security during the Pacific part of World War II.

REVIEW 6.9

- 1 How many Australians lost their lives fighting in World War I?
- 2 Outline some of the ways in which the Commonwealth government expanded its powers during World War I.
- 3 What was the result of the two conscription referendums held in 1916 and 1917?
- 4 Explain why some Australian companies were able to expand during World War I.
- 5 To what extent did the number of Australian women working outside the home increase during World War I?
- 6 Explain what Trial Bay Gaol, Berrima Gaol and Holsworthy Army Barracks had in common during World War I.
- 7 What were the key results for Australia from the Treaty of Versailles and Paris Peace Conference?

6.2

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF WORLD WAR I ON AUSTRALIA?

» Outline the types of controls that were introduced on the home front by the Australian government

- 1 Explain the result of the two conscription referendums held in Australia during World War I. (5 marks)
- 2 Explain the important role that propaganda played in influencing the outcomes of the conscription debates in Australia in World War I. (5 marks)
- 3 Identify the two pieces of legislation that gave the Australian government extended powers during the war, and describe the pre wartime controls (powers) that they brought into law. (10 marks)
- 4 Explain the ways in which Australian women were able to contribute to the war effort. (10 marks)
- 5 Comment on how permanent the changes to the lives of Australian women were after World War I. (5 marks)
- 6 List examples of some of the actions taken by the Australian people, Australian companies and the Australian government during World War I to show that they opposed the Germans and were loyal to the British Empire. (5 marks)
- 7 What type of people were considered 'enemy aliens' in Australia during World War I? Explain what happened to them. (5 marks)
- 8 Explain the role of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in World War I. Discuss whether the war changed attitudes towards (and treatment of) Indigenous Australians. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

The conscription debate

- 1 Divide the class into two groups. One will represent the pro-conscription group, the other the anti-conscription group.
- 2 Each group is responsible for designing a campaign to support their point of view. The campaign should include speeches, posters and newspaper articles based on historical research. Roles should be allocated to enable a strong case to be established. Both sides should have an equal opportunity to make their case.
- 3 A vote should be held within the class, with ballot papers based on Source 6.50.
- 4 As a class, discuss the results of your vote.

The 'other soldiers'

This activity explores the role of women and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders during World War I.

- 1 As a class, discuss how much you know about the role of women and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders during World War I.
- 2 Make a decision about whether you wish to conduct research on a woman or an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander in World War I. Use an appropriate search engine to start your research of either 'Australian women in World War I' or 'Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in World War I'. Try to find a specific woman or Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander to research. Create a folio of information using as many different sources as you can find, that outlines this individual's wartime experiences, as well as their life after the war, if appropriate.
- 3 As a class, discuss your findings, and then answer question 1 again.

6.3

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES, SCOPE AND NATURE OF WORLD WAR II?

In this section you will learn about the major causes of World War II, and discuss different historical interpretations of how the war began. You will also explore the changing nature of warfare by investigating significant events such as the **Holocaust** and the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

CAUSES OF WORLD WAR II

Within only 20 years of signing the Treaty of Versailles, Europe was once again at war. At that time, and in the decades following, many historians and commentators blamed the actions of the allied 'peacemakers' at the end of World War I for what was to come. In particular, the strict terms of the Treaty of Versailles with which Germany was required to comply are seen by many as the main cause of World War II. In reality, the causes of World War II were more complex than that, with many short- and long-term factors contributing to the outbreak of conflict in 1939.

Germany and the Treaty of Versailles

The Treaty of Versailles imposed a series of harsh terms on Germany (see Source 6.56). Over time, many Germans developed the belief that they were being unfairly treated. Germans bitterly resented the nature of the peace settlement, and this resentment was exploited by a number of German politicians during the 1920s and 1930s.



Source 6.55 This photo shows the signing of the treaty at Versailles Palace, Paris, in 1919. French Premier Georges Clemenceau is standing, with US President Woodrow Wilson seated to his right.

Source 6.56 Key terms of the Treaty of Versailles

'War guilt clause' blamed Germany for starting World War I. Germany forced to pay massive reparations. An initial amount of over US\$33 billion was set by a Reparations Commission in 1921.

The German army was limited to 100 000 men, the German air force was disbanded, and the production of weapons and munitions in German factories was strictly controlled.

Territories controlled by Germany were given to the neighbouring nations of France, Denmark, Belgium, Poland, as well as the newly formed country of Czechoslovakia. Italy was also given two small areas (see Source 6.61).

German colonies in Africa and across the Pacific were divided between the Allies, including Australia which claimed German New Guinea and Nauru.

Japan was permitted to keep Chinese territory it had seized from Germany. Japan also wanted to include a 'racial equality' clause to ensure its equality with the other powers but was unsuccessful.

The League of Nations was established with the aim of preventing another war by settling disputes between nations using sanctions.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Germany's World War I debts, as set out in the Treaty of Versailles, were finally cleared in 2010, with final payments made by the German government, in October of that year – 92 years after World War I.

The rise of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party in Germany

After World War I, the economic situation in Germany and around the world worsened. The money Germany was required to pay in reparations to the Allies caused serious economic difficulties for the German government and people. During the 1920s, inflation rose at a staggering rate, unemployment rates soared and the German standard of living fell dramatically. Across Europe, political movements such as **fascism** and **communism** were becoming more and more popular because they offered people the hope of a way out of these troubled times.

Out of this social and economic climate Adolf Hitler came to power. In July 1921, Hitler became the chairman of the Nationalist Socialist German Workers' Party (*Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei*) – a political party that was established in 1920 with extreme views and fought against the rise of communism in Germany. (The term 'Nazi' is the abbreviation of the word *Nationalsozialistische*.) Hitler was a very talented and persuasive speaker, able to mesmerise crowds for hours.

Hitler had served in the army during World War I. He was convinced that the German army had not really lost the war, preferring the idea that its soldiers had been betrayed by the German politicians who had signed the Treaty of Versailles. Hitler's argument ignored the fact that German army generals had admitted to the Kaiser (emperor) before the **armistice** that the war was lost. It also ignored the fact that Germany's economy was in a state of near collapse by the end of World War I, meaning that German representatives at the Paris Peace Conference had no choice other than to sign.

Hitler found support for his extreme views and policies among the German people by blaming scapegoats, such as Jews, for Germany's troubles, in spite of the fact that many Jews had fought bravely in the German army. He also blamed **communists** (people who believed in an economic system in which all property is publicly owned) for adding to Germany's troubles. As mentioned, the global economy also played into Hitler's hands. Germany suffered a series of economic problems after World War I. A period of **hyperinflation** (extreme inflation) raged in the early 1920s. The German currency became worth so little that people often preferred to burn it for cooking and heating than to spend it (see Source 6.57). On top of this, Germany was hit hard by the **Great Depression**, a period of severe global hardship and high unemployment that started in 1929 after the New York stock market crash. In his speeches to the German people, Hitler blamed Germany's defeat in World War I (and the reparations it had to pay under the Treaty of Versailles) for hyperinflation, the depression and the high rate of German unemployment.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

During his time as a German army message runner on the Western Front, Hitler's superiors thought he lacked leadership skills, so he was never promoted beyond the rank of corporal (a low-ranking officer).



Source 6.57 A
German housewife using millions of Deutschmarks to light her stove in 1923

EXTEND 6.8

- 1 What is hyperinflation? Conduct additional research and discuss how it affected the lives of ordinary Germans in the 1920s.

APPLY 6.6

- 1 Conduct some online research and prepare a 200-word summary of Hitler's main ideas, views and ideology. It is important to be very careful when researching a controversial figure like Hitler online. There are many unverified statements and unsubstantiated opinions about his life and actions. Be sure that you base your research on reputable sources and cross-check the information you find against two or more sources to ensure it is accurate.

End of democratic government in Germany and the start of the Third Reich

Kaiser Wilhelm II had abdicated (resigned) his rule of Germany and fled to the Netherlands before the armistice that ended World War I. A new democratic government, known as the Weimar Republic, was established in his place. It was an unpopular government because many Germans blamed it for agreeing to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. It also had serious economic problems to deal with during the 1920s. Workers went on strike, the value of the German currency fell dramatically, and the economy suffered as foreign investors moved their money elsewhere.

The new government also had to deal with the threat of violence from **paramilitary** groups. These included the private army of the Nazi Party, known as stormtroopers or Brownshirts who were gaining popularity (see Source 6.58). At the 1932 elections, the Nazi Party became the largest single party in the **Reichstag** (German legislative assembly), and in 1933, Hitler was sworn in as Chancellor of Germany. After the death of Germany's President Hindenburg in 1934, Hitler combined the role of Chancellor and President, making himself **Führer** (supreme leader) of Germany.

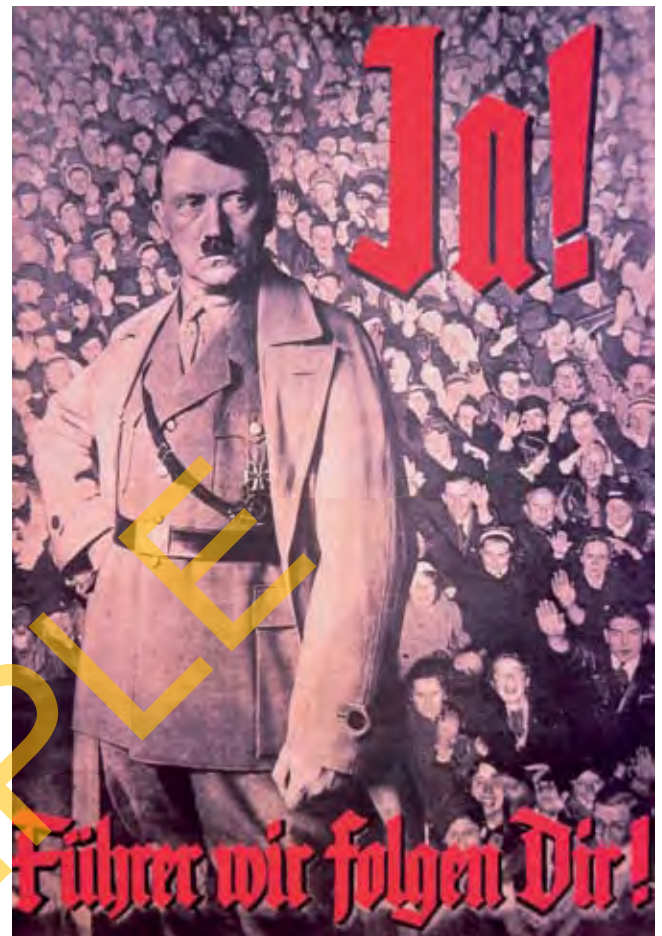
During the years of Nazi rule in Germany (a period commonly referred to as the **Third Reich**), there was little or no personal freedom. People were encouraged to report on friends, neighbours and even family members suspected of disloyalty to the regime. **Propaganda** was used to convince citizens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



Source 6.58 Adolf Hitler salutes a parade of Nazi Brownshirts in Nuremberg, Germany, 1927.



Source 6.59 A 1932 Nazi Party poster, *Germany Awake!* It features the swastika and the eagle, both symbols of the Third Reich.



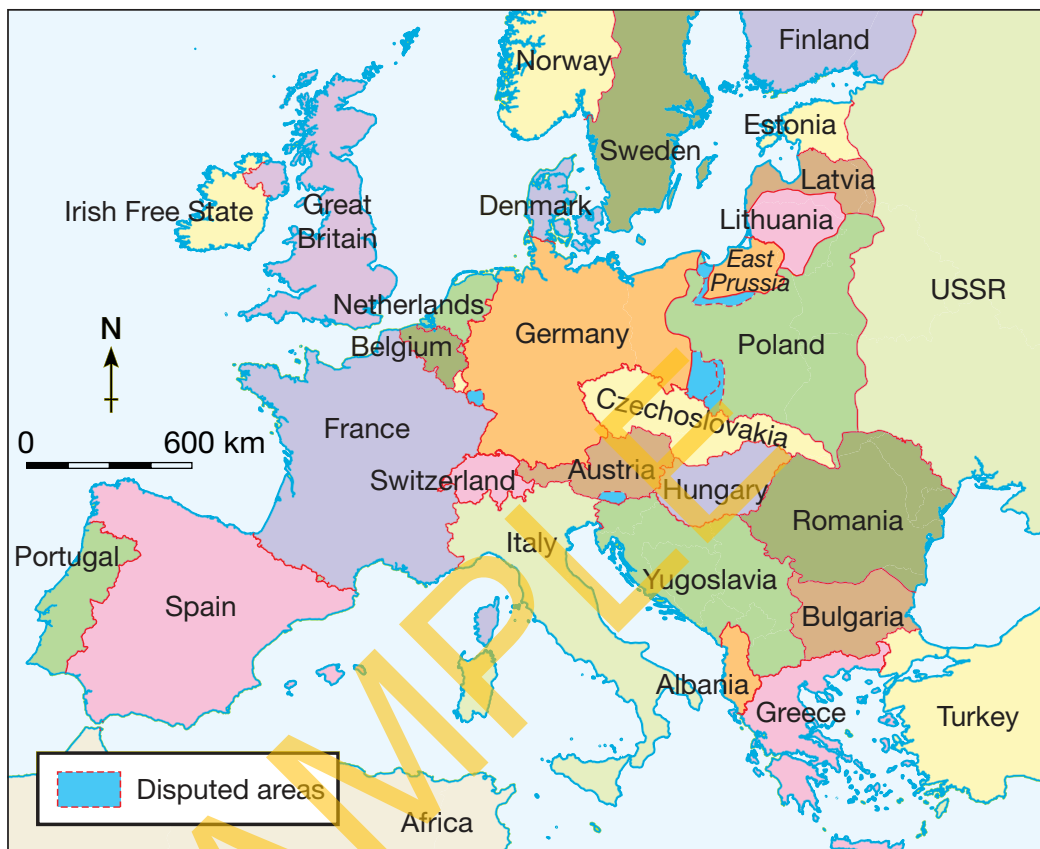
Source 6.60 A 1934 Nazi Party poster, *Yes! Führer we follow you!*

INTERPRET 6.9

- 1 What is your reaction to the two posters presented here? Can you isolate some of the reasons why you may have reacted to them in this way? What are the origins of your views?
- 2 Identify the dominant symbols used in Sources 6.59 and 6.60. What message are they trying to convey?
- 3 Conduct some to locate an image of the current German coat of arms. Which of the symbols presented here has been retained to represent the modern nation of Germany?
- 4 Source 6.59 was released in 1932, and Source 6.60 in 1934. What had changed in Germany over those two years? Is this change obvious when you compare both sources?

Under Hitler's command, the Nazi government violated the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. Germany built up its army, created a modern air force and built new modern warships and submarines. Between 1936 and 1939, German troops also recaptured territories lost in World War I. They even added new territories by threatening to go to war (see Source 6.62).

During this time, the British and French did little to stop Hitler. On one level, they were preoccupied with economic problems of the Great Depression; on another, they were reluctant to confront Hitler because they suspected that the situation would escalate into another bloody and costly war – a situation they were keen to avoid. This policy of inaction became known as **appeasement**. They ‘appeased’ or gave into Hitler’s demands in the hope that they could avoid another world war.



Source 6.61 Europe in 1919 after the Treaty of Versailles



Source 6.62 Germany's territorial expansion, 1936–1939

When Germany began to make demands on territory in Poland, however, the British and French finally acknowledged that Hitler had bigger plans and would not be easily satisfied. In response, France and Britain promised to support Poland if they were attacked by Germany. In September 1939, the German army invaded Poland. Britain, France and the British dominions, including Australia, declared war on Germany. The world was at war for a second time.

Causes of World War II – contestability

As is the case with World War I, historians have different opinions about the ‘primary’ or most important causes of World War II. In addition to the German people’s reaction to the Treaty of Versailles, the most often mentioned causes of World War II are:

- *The Great Depression* – One of the consequences of the Great Depression was that dictatorial governments with extreme political views and military ambitions came to power in Germany, Italy, Spain and Japan. The Depression also distracted the democratic powers of Britain, France and the United States and made them pay more attention to affairs at home, rather than watch international developments.
- *The weakness of the League of Nations* – The League of Nations did not have a military force of its own to back up its efforts to keep the peace and halt aggression. It was weakened from the outset, after the world’s strongest democracy, the United States, refused to become a member.
- *The aggression of Germany and Japan* – The aggression of these powers against neighbouring countries began in the 1930s and went unchecked. The lack of action on the part of Britain, France and the United States only encouraged Germany and Japan to continue on this course.
- *The policy of appeasement* – The policy of inaction towards Hitler adopted by the British and French assumed that the aggressive attitude of the dictator would pass if his initial demands were met. This was also the policy adopted in the face of Japanese aggression in Asia, when Japan invaded China in the 1930s.

EXTEND 6.9

- 1 Conduct research on the causes of World War II, investigating the significance of:
 - German resentment over the terms of the Treaty of Versailles
 - the Great Depression in Europe and Japan
 - the failures and successes of the League of Nations
 - Germany’s and Japan’s military aggression
 - the policy of appeasement.Each point should be supported with specific examples from your research.
- 2 Rank the five causes listed above from most important to least important. Explain your rankings and support your decisions with specific examples.

REVIEW 6.10

- 1 Explain why the German people resented the Treaty of Versailles.
- 2 Identify the party and leader who came to power in Germany in the 1930s.
- 3 Outline the reasons why Britain and France tried to appease Hitler in the early 1930s.
- 4 Which event triggered the outbreak of World War II?

WHERE WORLD WAR II WAS FOUGHT

World War II was fought in Europe, North Africa, Asia, the Pacific region and in all the oceans. Despite the global nature of the war, historians often separate its various events according to the two main geographic regions in which they took place:

- The war in Europe and Africa – Across Europe, the Allied powers (which included Britain and the Commonwealth, France, the United States and Russia) fought the Axis powers (which included Germany and Italy) on land, at sea and in the air. Battles were fought between the Allied and Axis powers in Western Europe, North Africa and on the Eastern Front after Hitler invaded Russia in 1941.
- The war in the Pacific – Across the Pacific region, the Allied powers fought the Japanese (a member of the Axis powers). Battles were fought on land, at sea and in the air across a vast area of ocean that extended from Japan in the north to New Guinea in the south.

The war in Europe and Africa: September 1939–April 1945

Source 6.63 shows the countries and other territories controlled by Germany and its allies in Europe and North Africa at the height of its power in 1942. Source 6.64 outlines the major events, battles and campaigns during the course of the war in Europe.



Source 6.63 The extent of territories controlled by Axis and Allied forces, at the height of Axis power in mid-1942

Source 6.64 The war in Europe and Africa – key events and battles

September 1939– May 1945	British warships and German U-boats fought for control of Atlantic Ocean routes. Both sides attempt to prevent enemy merchant ships with war supplies from reaching their destinations.
September 1939– April 1940	There are no major land battles in the seven months after the declaration of war in 1939, a period known as the 'Phoney War'.
June 1940	Italy enters the war on Germany's side and captures territories in south-eastern France.
June 1940– November 1941	Italian forces attack and take control of British territories in Africa until counter-attacks allow Allied forces to regain control.
May–June 1940	Germany attacks and invades Denmark and Norway, the Low Countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg), and France. In their invasion of France, the Germans' <i>Blitzkrieg</i> tactics forced France and its allies to evacuate troops from Dunkirk.
July 1940–May 1941	After invading France, Germany turns its attention to defeating Britain. Their plan is for the Luftwaffe (German air force) to destroy British planes and air fields, ahead of the German navy's invasion fleet. Instead, they face stiff resistance from the British and are forced to change tactics. The Germans start a bombing campaign, known as the Blitz. London and Britain's industrial cities suffer heavy and continuous bombing over nine months. By mid-1941, Germany focuses on their invasion of Russia, and the threat to Britain has passed.
September 1940– January 1941	Italy attempts to invade Egypt from its territories in neighbouring Libya. Allied troops, including Australians, vastly outnumber the Italians who are forced to withdraw back to Libya. The Allies also capture the Libyan port of Tobruk. Soldiers under the German General Rommel in turn force the Allies to retreat, but the Allies hold on to Tobruk.
October 1940– May 1941	Italian troops attempt to invade Greece but retreat from Greek and Allied defenders. Hitler orders ground and air assaults which succeed in forcing Allied troops, including Australians, to withdraw.
June–July 1941	Allied forces, including Australian troops, successfully invade Syria and Lebanon. These territories had been controlled by the pro-German Vichy French government and had been used by the Germans as a base in the eastern Mediterranean.
April 1941– June 1942	Rommel lays siege to Tobruk, to take back control of this strategically important port. Allied soldiers, including Australians, known as the 'Rats of Tobruk' hold on until November, when reinforcements arrive. Rommel eventually recaptures Tobruk in a counter-attack in June 1942.
June 1941	Hitler turns his attention to the Soviet Union and launches a massive attack known as Operation Barbarossa. Germany is now involved in a war on two fronts, on the western and the eastern fronts. Hitler asks for a plan to complete the 'Final Solution' – the destruction of the Jewish population of Europe, known as the Holocaust.
1942–1945	The Allies carry out major bombing campaigns on German air fields and industrial cities, including civilian populations in Hamburg, 1943, and Dresden, 1945 (see Source 6.66). They target Berlin in February 1945.
August 1942– February 1943	German forces advance into the Soviet Union, but Soviet troops succeed in their defence of Stalingrad. The German surrender at the Battle of Stalingrad marks the start of German retreat from the east, although Nazi forces still occupy a great area of the USSR (see Source 6.69).
July 1942	Allied and German forces fought each other to a standstill in the First Battle of El Alamein. Despite heavy losses, the Allies succeed in halting Germany's advance into Egypt and threatened control of the Suez Canal.
October– November 1942	The Second Battle of El Alamein ends in a decisive Allied victory. Rommel's army retreats and eventually withdraws from North Africa.
July–August 1943	The Battle of Kursk, a great tank battle between German and Soviet troops, ends in German defeat.
June–August 1944	The Allied invasion of western Europe begins on 6 June 1944, known as 'D-Day', with the landing of 160 000 Allied troops on the beaches of Normandy, northern France. Allied forces and resistance fighters attack the Germans and force them to retreat. France is liberated from their German invaders in August 1944.
September 1944	Allied ground troops invade Germany from the west.
April–May 1945	Soviet troops encircle Berlin and launch a final assault. They seize Berlin after a week of street fighting. Hitler commits suicide on 30 April 1945, and Germany officially surrenders on 7 May 1945.

EXTEND 6.10

- 1 The Allied bombing of Dresden has caused controversy since it occurred in February 1945. In 2005, a group of historians was commissioned to conduct research on the number of people killed. In 2010, they announced a total of up to 25 000, yet this figure is still disputed by some groups. Conduct research on the controversy over the bombing of Dresden and, as a class, discuss the Allies' motives and the impact of the bombing.



Source 6.65 German bombers during the Battle of Britain, 1940

APPLY 6.7

- 1 Explore Bomb Sight, a website with an interactive map showing locations across London where bombs fell during the Blitz. Find statistics for different areas, read the recollections of Londoners and view images from the Imperial War Museum. Use these sources of evidence to write a 300-word report or diary entry from the perspective of a person living in London during that period of history.



Source 6.66 The city of Dresden, in ruins after the Allied bombing



Source 6.67 Soldiers of the 11th Battery of Australian artillery in the Palestine Hills, February 1941



Source 6.68 Russian marines are landed from submarines onto enemy territory on the Eastern Front, July 1942



Source 6.69 A German Panzer (battle tank) in the snow during a Soviet attack against Axis forces in February 1943

APPLY 6.8

- 1 Describe the types of warfare, and the different conditions soldiers faced in the European and North African theatres of war. Reference different sources of evidence in your response, such as the images in this unit and other relevant material from the text and your own research.
- 2 On a blank map of the world, indicate the locations and dates of battles or campaigns involving Australian forces in Europe and North Africa. Use the information in the text and your own research to complete this activity.
- 3 Choose one of the battles or campaigns outlined in Source 6.64. Investigate and report on your selected event in detail, including maps and relevant written and photographic sources that describe:
 - the nature of the warfare
 - the course and result of the battle or campaign, including key individuals and events
 - why the battle or campaign was a significant event.

The war in the Pacific: December 1941–September 1945

Source 6.70 shows the territories in Asia and the Pacific that were under the control of the Japanese Empire, at the height of its power in July 1942. Source 6.71 outlines the major events, battles and campaigns during the course of the war in the Pacific.



Source 6.70 The extent of territories controlled by the Japanese Empire in Asia and the Pacific in 1942

APPLY 6.9

The Pacific War represented a direct threat to Australia. In a major research presentation:

- 1 Create a timeline of the war in the Pacific. Highlight the entries where Australians were involved.
- 2 Locate the areas of Australian involvement on a map.
- 3 Select one of the battles involving Australia, and research it in depth, explaining:
 - a what was at stake
 - b Australia's involvement
 - c the involvement of other nations
 - d the outcome
 - e the significance of the outcome.

Source6 .71 The war in the Pacific – key events and battles

December 1941	The Japanese attack the US naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on 7 December 1941, hoping to destroy the USA's Pacific fleet. The USA declares war on Japan and Germany declares war on the USA, drawing it into the European war. Australia also declares war on Japan. Soon after the attack on Pearl Harbor, Japan also begins attacks on the Malay peninsula and invades Hong Kong, the Philippines, Guam and other islands in the Pacific.
February 1942	The Fall of Singapore to the Japanese follows battles in Malaya (now Malaysia) between the Japanese army and Allied forces. The vast majority of Allied soldiers cannot escape the island and are taken prisoner, including thousands of Australian soldiers. One third of them do not survive the Japanese prisoner of war (POW) camps.
February 1942–November 1943	Japanese air raids target Darwin and towns in the Northern Territory, Queensland and Western Australia. In May 1942, Japanese midget submarines carry out an attack in Sydney Harbour before being sunk.
March 1942	Japanese forces establish bases on mainland New Guinea, with plans to advance to Port Moresby – a location from which bombing raids could be launched against northern Australia. By this time, Japanese forces have also defeated Allied forces and occupied the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia).
May 1942	The Battle of the Coral Sea is fought off the north-east coast of Queensland and south of New Guinea. The US and Australian navies prevail, which stops the Japanese from launching a sea-based assault on Port Moresby.
June 1942	In the Battle of Midway, Japanese naval forces attempt to capture the strategically important Midway Islands (near the Hawaiian islands). US code-breakers intercept Japanese communications of an ambush, which leads to a historic victory by the US navy in which four Japanese aircraft carriers and over 200 aircraft are destroyed. It is said to be a turning point in the Pacific war.
July–November 1942	As the Japanese navy was halted at the Battle of the Coral Sea, Japan's only option to seize Port Moresby is an overland assault along the Kokoda Trail. Australian troops stall their advance until reinforcements arrive.
August–September 1942	Members of the AIF and CMF (Citizen Military Forces) hold off a Japanese attack at the Battle of Milne Bay, New Guinea. It is the first decisive defeat of Japan in the Pacific war, and the Australians are the first army to halt Japan's relentless drive through the Pacific.
August 1942–February 1943	The US and Allied forces, including support from the Royal Australian Navy, launch a surprise attack on the Japanese in the Solomon Islands, including the island of Guadalcanal. Both sides suffer severe casualties in the land, sea and air battles, but eventually Japan is forced to withdraw from the islands.
June 1943–1945	The US and Allied forces, including Australians, retake key islands from the Japanese. This strategy is known as 'island hopping'; the aim is to position US forces close enough to Japanese territory to launch bombing raids. In March and June 1945, US forces take the islands of Iwo Jima and Okinawa after major land battles. American planes bomb Tokyo and other Japanese cities in the hope of forcing a surrender. However, as US forces close in, the Japanese defence becomes stronger and more desperate, including suicide missions (kamikaze) of Japanese pilots who crash their planes into US ships.
August 1945	US planes drop atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki with devastating effect. The Japanese Emperor Hirohito broadcasts his surrender speech on Japanese radio on 15 August 1945.
September 1945	Japan signs a formal declaration of surrender on 2 September 1945.



Source6 .72 Australian soldiers on the Kokoda Trail in 1942



Source6 .73 The bombing of Darwin in February 1942



Source6 .74 US Torpedo Squadron 6 preparing to launch an attack against four Japanese carriers on the first day of the Battle of Midway. Ten of the 14 *Devastator* aircraft were lost during the attack.



Source6 .75 The mushroom cloud over Hiroshima on 6 August 1945

REVIEW 6.11

- 1 Identify the two main geographic regions where World War II was fought.
- 2 List the regions mentioned in the text in which Australian troops fought during World War II.
- 3 Why was the Battle for Singapore important for Australia?
- 4 Explain why the Battle of Midway and the Battle of the Coral Sea were significant for Australia.
- 5 What was the strategy of seizing key Japanese-held islands in the Pacific called?
- 6 What single event put an end to World War II?

THE CHANGING NATURE OF WARFARE

As discussed earlier in this chapter, a range of new weapons and technologies – such as machine guns and artillery, poison gas, tanks and aircraft – were all used for the first time during World War I. Despite this, neither side had the upper hand because the weapons and tactics of the Allies and Germans were fairly evenly matched. This meant that war along a line of trenches that stretched across France and Belgium – known as the Western Front – was defensive and quickly reached a stalemate.

By contrast, many new weapons and military tactics were used by Germany for the first time during World War II. German forces introduced longer range tanks and aircraft, unveiled new methods of combat and pioneered new ways of encrypting messages. These improvements initially gave Germany a strong advantage over the Allied forces.

The Maginot Line

In the 1930s, the French government, having learned from the experiences on the Western Front in World War I, embarked on a plan to safeguard their border with Germany. They built a line of ‘super trenches’, known as the Maginot Line. Massive steel reinforced concrete bunkers were constructed to keep their soldiers safe, deep underground. Unlike the trenches of World War I, huge artillery posts and hundreds of machine guns would stand behind bulletproof metal plates, lines of barbed wire and tank traps – all designed to keep French troops safe.

The only problem was that the German generals also saw the effectiveness of the Maginot Line. When they invaded France, German forces came through the Ardennes, a thickly forested region in Belgium to the north of the Maginot Line – effectively bypassing it. The French had failed to realise that weapons in 1939 were no longer the same as they had been in 1914–1918 during World War I. Aircraft and tanks by that time were faster and more powerful, with much longer ranges. Regardless of how strong reinforcements along the Maginot Line were, there would be no repeat of the World War I stalemate because the weapons available in World War II now favoured the attacker.

Blitzkrieg – the Battle of France 1940

A military tactic known as **Blitzkrieg** (lightning war) was used for the first time by the Germans in their invasion of Poland in September 1939. It involved rapid and well-coordinated air and land attacks to surprise and overwhelm the enemy. After an initial assault from the air, slower-moving ground forces ‘mopped up’ the overwhelmed defenders and took control their territory (see Source 6.77).

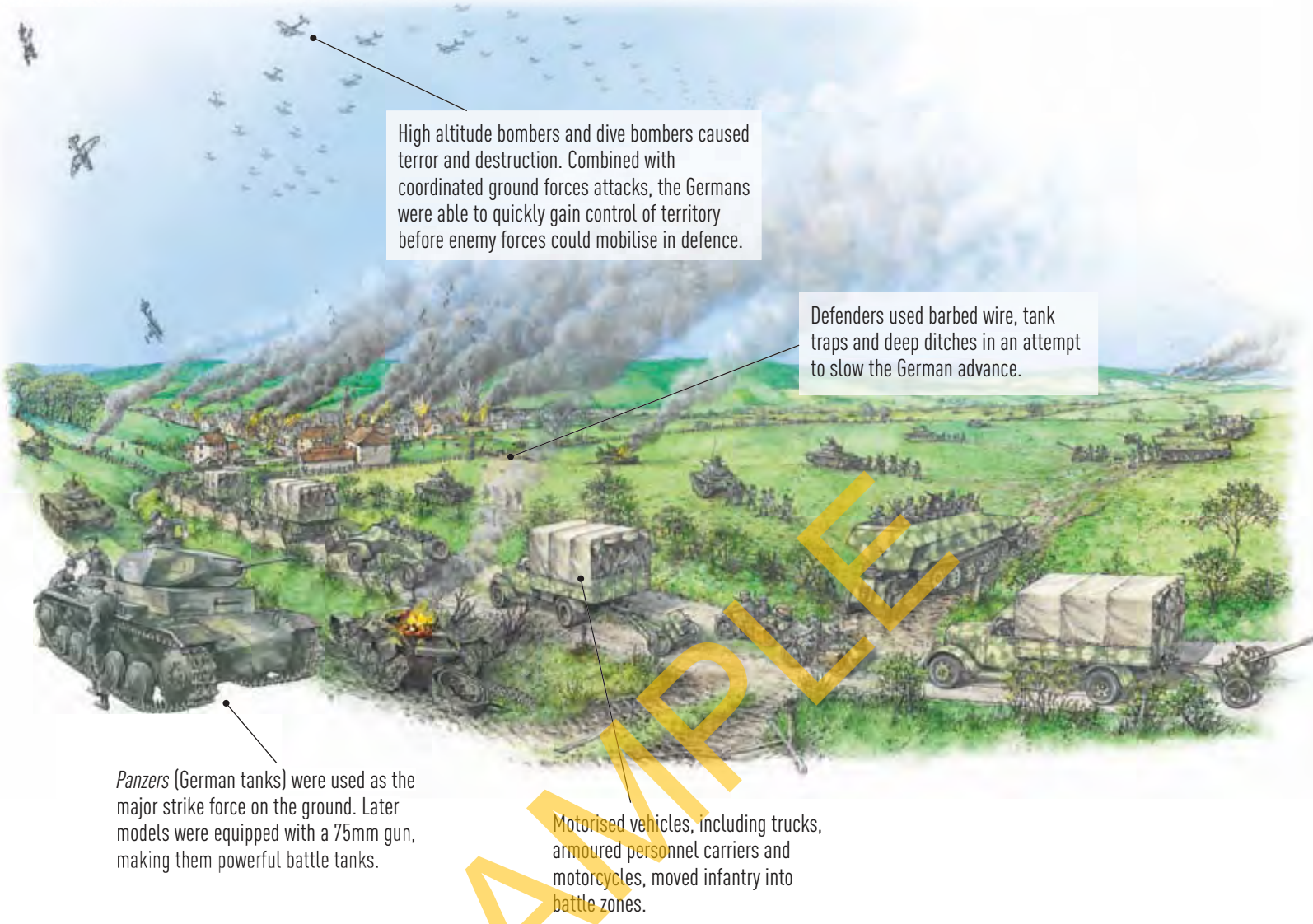
The Germans again used *Blitzkrieg* tactics in their May 1940 invasion of France, which resulted in the French surrender on 22 June 1940. Despite outnumbering the Germans, the Allied forces were unable to deal with the speed of these German attacks. The British government scrambled to evacuate 338 000 British and French troops from the port of Dunkirk in northern France.

The code breakers

In addition to using *Blitzkrieg* tactics, the Germans also used sophisticated new ways of sending secret messages during World War II. The most common machine used by the Germans to encrypt and decrypt messages sent between army headquarters and troops was the Enigma. For a long time, Allied powers could not break the Enigma code. Then, a team of British code-breakers (in particular Alan Turing) developed a machine called the bombe that could decipher (break) the code. It allowed the Allies to intercept German communications on the battlefield.



Source 6.76 A German Enigma machine.



Source 6.77 An artist's impression of a Blitzkrieg assault on a French town

The changing nature of war – the Holocaust and the atomic bombings

Two significant events that also represented a radical change in the way World War II was fought compared with World War I: the Holocaust and the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. These will be examined in detail in the units that follow.

REVIEW 6.12

- 1 Explain why the Maginot Line was not an effective defence for France in World War II.
- 2 What does *Blitzkrieg* mean? Which countries were the victims of German *Blitzkrieg* tactics in 1939 and 1940?
- 3 Explain why code breaking was significant:
 - a during World War II
 - b after World War I.

THE HOLOCAUST

The Holocaust was the systematic persecution and murder of Jews and other groups in Germany during World War II and throughout Nazi-occupied territories of Europe. It represented a radical change in the way wars were fought. Although **genocide** – the deliberate and systematic extermination of a religious, racial or ethnic group – had been practised before, the scale of Hitler’s campaign against the Jews was unprecedented.

By the end of the war in 1945, more than half of all European Jews – six million people – had died under the command of Adolf Hitler. The word ‘Holocaust’ is of Greek origin and means ‘sacrificed by fire’ or ‘burnt’. Today, out of respect, Jewish communities use the Hebrew word **Shoah** – meaning ‘catastrophe’ – to describe the event instead.

In addition to the persecution and murder of Jews, the Nazis targeted the Sinti and Romani people (often referred to as gypsies), who were seen by the Nazis as racially inferior. An estimated 500 000 gypsies were killed. Other victims of the Holocaust included homosexuals, people with physical or intellectual disabilities and people who challenged Nazi policies.

EXTEND 6.11

1 *Kristallnacht* (‘night of the broken glass’) is the term given to a series of attacks directed against Jewish people and businesses in Germany and Austria in November 1938. Conduct research on the events of *Kristallnacht* and discuss the German government’s involvement in and response to these incidents.

Beginnings of the Holocaust

Anti-Semitism (hostility or prejudice against Jews) has its origins in the ancient world, and was widespread throughout Europe in the Middle Ages. At least a decade before he became Chancellor of Germany, Hitler had outlined the development of his anti-Semitic ideology, and even proposed some of his policies for dealing with ‘the Jewish problem’ in his manifesto (a book declaring political principles and policies) titled *Mein Kampf* (‘My Struggle’).

As well as violence against Jews, the government denied all Jews German citizenship and sought to remove them from all positions in the government, the universities and the army. Businesses owned by Jews were given to non-Jewish Germans and laws limited the number of Jewish students allowed in public schools.

Soon after the invasion of Poland in 1939, **ghettos** were set up in Nazi-occupied cities in Poland, Hungary and the Soviet Union. These ghettos 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 these ghettos. Conditions inside the ghettos were extremely brutal. Approximately 800 000 people died in the ghettos from malnutrition, disease and forced labour. Others were murdered outright in shootings.

Concentration camps

For a large part of World War II, the Nazi government used a network of **concentration camps** to contain Jews and other ‘undesirables’. The exact number of concentration camps is not known. However, it is generally accepted that there were between 2000 and 8000 camps. Some were forced labour camps, where inmates were forced to do hard physical labour, such as mining and road building. Others functioned as extermination camps where, after a period of time, prisoners were murdered.

One of the largest concentration camps was Auschwitz–Birkenau. It was both a labour and an extermination camp. Here, inmates considered unsuitable for forced labour were gassed and their bodies were burnt in giant ovens known as crematoria (see Source 6.83). Over the course of World War II, more than one million Jews were murdered at Auschwitz–Birkenau camp alone.



Source 6.78 The Nazis used badges to identify different types of prisoners. These red triangle badges from Auschwitz–Birkenau were used to identify political prisoners.

Beginnings of the Holocaust

SOURCE STUDY



Source6 .79 Nazi soldiers clearing the Warsaw ghetto after an uprising in 1943



Source6 .80 A cloth Star of David badge that Jews were required to wear in public. The word *Jude* means 'Jew' in German.

INTERPRET 6.10

- 1 Outline the way these sources could be used as evidence to support an argument that the Nazis persecuted people.
- 2 Why do you think Nazis forced Jews to wear Star of David badges? What effect do you think this would have had on Jews as well as on non-Jews who saw the badges?

There is a considerable amount of evidence about the treatment of Jews during the Holocaust. The Nazis took many photographs in the ghettos, and at concentration and extermination camps. When the camps were liberated by the Allies in May 1945, many more photographs were taken and eye-witness accounts were recorded by soldiers who were shocked at what they found. Many Holocaust survivors later recorded their experiences and feelings.

Source6 .81

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, in an interview in 2000



Source 6.82 Slave labourers interned at the Buchenwald concentration camp. Inmates averaged a weight of 75 kilograms each before entering camp (11 months before this photo was taken). The average weight by then had dropped to 31 kilograms.



Source 6.83 Crematoria where the remains of people killed at Buchenwald concentration camp were cremated (burned).

INTERPRET 6.11

- 1 Sources are used to provide evidence to support historical arguments. Explain the extent to which each of these sources could be used to support the argument that the Nazis engaged in the systematic mistreatment and murder of Jews in concentration camps during World War II.
- 2 A small but vocal group of people around the world today continue to deny the existence of the Holocaust. Use evidence from the sources provided to compose a letter to one or more of these Holocaust deniers, explaining why their views are historically inaccurate and unsupported by the body of evidence available.

Mass shootings and the 'Final Solution'

Nazi policy towards the Jews began to move into its most extreme phase after the invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941. Roughly 1.6 million eastern European Jews were executed in mass killing campaigns, mainly conducted by the *Einsatzgruppen* (mobile killing squads). In January 1942, Nazi officials identified a 'final solution to the Jewish question' which combined forced deportation and transportation of Jews to labour camps before extermination.

REVIEW 6.13

- 1 Define the word 'anti-Semitism'.
- 2 In your own words, define 'genocide'.
- 3 What was the Holocaust?
- 4 Name some of the groups who were victims of the Holocaust.
- 5 Explain what concentration camps were and why they were set up during World War II.

ATOMIC BOMBING OF HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI

New technology developed during World War II was highlighted by the emergence of the atomic bomb. The actual dropping of the atomic bombs was a significant event, not only because it immediately ended the war, but because it marked the dawn of the nuclear age.

The Manhattan Project

A US research program to develop an atomic bomb had been underway before the USA entered World War II. In 1942, the program was placed under the command of the American military, and became known as the Manhattan Project. By 1944, approximately 129 000 people were working on the Manhattan Project, including scientists, construction workers and military personnel.

An ultimatum to Japan

After the end of the war in Europe, the Allies turned their attention to forcing Japan's surrender in the Pacific. At the Potsdam Conference in July 1945 – a meeting held in the German city of Potsdam to negotiate terms for the end of World War II – the Allied leaders issued the Potsdam Declaration – an ultimatum threatening that if Japan did not unconditionally surrender it would face 'prompt and utter destruction'.

In addition to the ultimatum outlined in the Potsdam Declaration, US troops had been planning an offensive codenamed 'Operation Downfall' towards the end of the war. The offensive outlined the US Army's plan to recapture Pacific islands that had been taken by the Japanese, then push back towards Japanese home islands (the islands the Allies had decided would remain as Japanese territory after the war). The battles for the islands of Iwo Jima and Okinawa were particularly fierce. The Battle of Okinawa was the bloodiest battle in the Pacific, with 50 000 American soldiers injured and 12 000 killed. An estimated 95 000 Japanese soldiers were killed, including many who committed suicide rather than surrendering. Estimates of the number of civilians killed vary from 42 000 to 150 000.

The USA also carried out a major firebombing campaign of Japanese cities in late 1944, which devastated 67 cities and killed as many as 500 000 Japanese civilians. Firebombing was a technique introduced during World War II that involved dropping large quantities of small bombs specifically designed to start fires on the ground. Despite this, Japan rejected the terms of the Potsdam Declaration and the Japanese military refused to surrender. US President Truman authorised the atomic bombing of Hiroshima on 6 August 1945, and Nagasaki on 9 August 1945. Truman stated that his hope was that these bombings would ultimately save lives on both sides.

The bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki

Hiroshima was a large, urban, industrial city that also served as a military storage area and assembly point for troops. At 8:15 a.m. on Monday, 6 August 1945, an atomic bomb nicknamed 'Little Boy' was dropped on Hiroshima. The city's residents had been given no warning of the atomic bombing and the bomb's immediate impact was incredible. Approximately 80 000 people, or 30 per cent of Hiroshima's population, were killed, and another 70 000 were injured. Roughly 69 per cent of the city's buildings were completely destroyed.

The Japanese government still did not respond to the Potsdam Declaration. On 9 August, a second atomic bomb nicknamed 'Fat Man' was dropped on the port city of Nagasaki. The bomb's impact in Nagasaki was just as devastating, killing between 40 000 and 75 000 people immediately and injuring a further 74 000 people.

Debate about the bombings

Immediately after World War II ended, most Americans supported the use of the atomic bombs to force Japan to surrender. 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. Other supporters of the decision to use the atomic bombs say that Japan's 'never surrender' culture meant that, without the bombings, Japan would not have surrendered. Some critics of the bombings argue that the surprise bombing of civilians with atomic weapons was fundamentally and morally wrong.

SOURCE STUDY

The atomic bombing of Hiroshima

Source6 .84

Of more than 200 doctors in Hiroshima before the attack, over 90 per cent were casualties and only about 30 physicians were able to perform their normal duties a month after the raid. Out of 1780 nurses, 1654 were killed or injured ... [Hospitals] within 3000 feet of ground zero were totally destroyed ... Effective medical help had to be sent in from the outside, and arrived only after a considerable delay. Firefighting and rescue units were equally stripped of men and equipment ... 30 hours elapsed before any organized rescue parties were observed

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



Source6 .85 A severely burned teenage Hiroshima atomic bomb victim lays wounded



Source 6.86 The Genbaku Dome in Hiroshima after the bombing

INTERPRET 6.12

- 1 Outline the way Sources 6.85 and 6.86 support or contradict the information contained in Source 6.84.
- 2 Explain how Sources 6.85 and 6.86 help you understand the reactions of the Americans who dropped the bombs and of the Japanese who were the victims.
- 3 How does Source 6.84 help you understand:
 - a the devastating impact of atomic bombs?
 - b the reasons why casualties were so high?

EXTEND 6.12

- 1 Conduct research on the short- and long-term physical effects of the atomic bombs on the people of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

REVIEW 6.14

- 1 What was the Manhattan Project?
- 2 Explain the implications of Japan's rejection of the Potsdam Declaration.
- 3 Which battle is recognised as the bloodiest of the Pacific War?
- 4 Explain why the United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

AUSTRALIA'S ENTRY INTO WORLD WAR II

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Members of the CMF were given the derogatory nickname 'Chocos' (short for 'chocolate soldiers' because it was thought that these militia would 'melt' in the heat of battle). Despite this assumption, CMF members performed admirably under the difficult conditions in the Kokoda and Milne Bay campaigns in New Guinea.

When World War II began, it was not greeted by Australians with the same level of enthusiasm as they had shown in 1915. Because of this public reaction, then Prime Minister Robert Menzies was initially reluctant to commit Australian troops to fight in Europe, despite Australia's declaration of war. Australia's military was in a depleted state, and Menzies wanted to ensure that Australia could defend itself if the need arose.

The first Australian Imperial Force (AIF) had been disbanded after World War I. In 1939, the Australian army consisted of only around 3000 professional soldiers and a voluntary **militia** called the Citizen Military Force (CMF) which could only serve in defence of Australia. These units were mainly equipped with weapons brought home from World War I by the first AIF.

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. In fact, AIF wages were even lower than the dole. For this and many other reasons, most members of the CMF were reluctant to transfer to the AIF. The Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) was 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, a 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 and three new divisions of the AIF were formed. After the Fall of Singapore, when Australia felt directly under threat for the first time, Australia's perception of the war again changed. The whole population mobilised to support the war effort. Women were encouraged to enter the workforce, industry was regulated, and coastal defences were extended and reinforced.



Source 6.87 A recruitment poster for the second AIF produced between 1939 and 1942 [AWM ARTV06723]

Australia's declarations of war

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.88

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.

Excerpt from a speech made by Prime Minister Robert Menzies, 3 September 1939, in a radio broadcast to the nation only a few hours after Britain declared war on Germany



Source 6.90 Soldiers of the Second AIF leaving Australia to serve in the war, January 1940. Their helmets show their enlistment numbers and the cases on their chests hold their gas masks. [AWM 011141].

Source 6.89

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 imperiled 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.

Excerpt from an address to the nation by Prime Minister John Curtin, in a radio broadcast, 8 December 1941

INTERPRET 6.13

- 1 Explain the differences between the two declarations of war by Australian Prime Ministers during World War II.
- 2 What justification for war does Menzies give in Source 6.88?
- 3 What justification for war does Curtin give in Source 6.89?
- 4 How could you use these sources in a historical investigation of whether Australia needed to be involved in World War II?

REVIEW 6.15

- 1 How many soldiers did Australia have available for overseas service when war was declared in 1939?
- 2 How many soldiers did Menzies initially promise Britain?
- 3 What was the CMF?
- 4 What nickname was given those serving in the CMF? Why?
- 5 Which two events changed Australians' perception about the seriousness of the war?

EXPERIENCES OF AUSTRALIANS AT WAR – PRISONERS OF WAR

Prisoners of war in Europe

Australian service personnel were captured by the enemy in all the major areas of war. Roughly 8184 Australians were held as **prisoners of war (POWs)** in German and Italian camps. Of these, 269 died. These men had largely been captured in Greece and North Africa, while many members of the RAAF had been shot down in bombing raids over Germany and captured.

Most Australian POWs in Europe were imprisoned in specific POW camps in decent conditions. Nine Australians were, however, among a group of 168 Allied pilots shot down over France and imprisoned in the Buchenwald concentration camp.

Prisoners of the Japanese

The majority of Australian POWs were captured by the Japanese. Over 22 000 Australian service personnel were captured by Japanese forces in South-East Asia between January and March 1942. The majority of POWs were army personnel captured at the Fall of Singapore, with 15 000 captured in Malaya and Singapore alone. By 1945, over 8000 POWs had died. The significantly higher rate of deaths among POWs captured by the Japanese can be attributed to Japan's attitude towards prisoners.

Japanese military culture, shaped by traditional values, meant that the Japanese regarded prisoners poorly. Japan refused to follow the terms of the **Geneva Convention**, an international agreement on the treatment of captured civilians and military personnel.

Changi, in Singapore, was the main prison camp holding the Allied POWs. From here, Japanese commanders sent working parties to other locations where POWs were used as forced labourers, most notably on the Burma–Thailand railway. Along with British, Dutch and American prisoners, 13 000 Australian POWs were used as forced labour to build a railway line from Thailand to Burma to supply the Japanese campaign. About 2800 Australians died from malnutrition, mistreatment and disease.

APPLY 6.10

- 1 Compare the statistics for Australian prisoners of war captured by the Germans and Italians with those captured by the Japanese. Calculate the percentage of deaths of Australian prisoners in each group.

SOURCE STUDY

Treatment of prisoners

Source 6.91

After capture I was taken to Changi Camp, where I was with approximately 12 000 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 Gnr Reginald Melbourne to the Australian War Crimes Registry



Source 6.92 An illustration by Murray Griffon, a prisoner at Changi. It depicts a scene witnessed by Colonel Dillon, of the bashing of British and Australian prisoners of war by Japanese on the Burma–Thailand railway construction. Griffon sought to make records of events and conditions based on the testimony of surviving POWs.



Source 6.93 This photograph shows two Australian prisoners of war outside one of the huts at Changi, Singapore, just after being liberated in 1945.

INTERPRET 6.14

- 1 Read the caption for Source 6.93. Explain how it helps you understand why this is a valid source for the study of the conditions Australian prisoners of war endured under Japanese control.
- 2 Discuss whether Source 6.92 supports your impressions of conditions for Australian prisoners of war under the Japanese.
- 3 Identify the details in Source 6.91 that show you that it was a first-hand account by someone who was there.
- 4 Outline the value sources such as photographs and first person accounts have in helping you understand the experiences of Australian prisoners of war captured by the Japanese.

EXTEND 6.13

- 1 Source 6.91 mentions an operation performed by Colonel Dunlop. This is a reference to Edward 'Weary' Dunlop. Conduct research on his life and career, and explain his significance in Australian history.

REVIEW 6.16

- 1 Explain the major differences between conditions in European and Japanese prisoner of war camps for Australians.
- 2 What was the *Geneva Convention*? Which country refused to follow it?
- 3 Describe the conditions Australian prisoners of war had to endure in Japanese camps.

EXPERIENCES OF AUSTRALIANS AT WAR – THE KOKODA TRAIL

The Kokoda Trail is an approximately 96-kilometre narrow path connecting Port Moresby to the village of Kokoda in Papua New Guinea (see Source 6.95). In 1942, the Japanese navy had been frustrated in its attempts to seize Port Moresby from the sea, so the Japanese army was forced to launch an overland assault on the town via the Kokoda Trail. If Japan had successfully seized Port Moresby, it could have used the town as a base for attacks on northern and eastern Australia. Australia's Prime Minister JoŪ Curtin recalled the AIF to defend Australia, but it took time for these troops to be transported to Papua New Guinea. This meant the Kokoda campaign was initially fought by under-equipped militia units, known as the 'Maroubra Force'. This force was composed entirely of CMF and local Papuan infantry units. As a result, it was under-prepared for frontline combat. The soldiers had received little training in jungle warfare, and were equipped with old, outdated weapons. Many of these young men had only recently turned 18. The key events of the Kokoda campaign are outlined in Source 6.94.

Source 6.94 The Kokoda campaign 1942 – key events and battles

23 July	A small Australian platoon slows the Japanese advance across the Kumusi River, before falling back to Kokoda.
29 July	The Japanese attack Kokoda, defended by 80 men who suffer heavy casualties in hand-to-hand fighting. On the next morning, they retreat along the trail.
8 August	Australians suffer heavy casualties attempting to retake Kokoda. There is a two-week break in the fighting, when survivors from the defence of Kokoda meet with reserves from Port Moresby and prepare to defend the trail at Isurava.
26–31 August	The Battle of Isurava is a victory for Japanese forces with the Maroubra Force outnumbered and suffering heavy casualties on the first day. The battle lasts four days, before the Australians are forced to retreat further, mounting small-scale actions along the way. However, the Japanese do not succeed in their aim of destroying the Australian force. The first substantial reinforcements from the AIF begin to arrive, providing a vital boost for the depleted Maroubra Force.
September	Australians retreat after actions at Efogi (also known as Mission Ridge–Brigade Hill) and Ioribaiwa Ridge. During September, after being defeated by the Allies at Guadalcanal, Japanese commanders in Tokyo decide to withdraw their Kokoda campaign. Japanese forces retreat to Templeton's crossing.
October	The Australians defeat the Japanese in a series of attacks at Templeton's Crossing, Eora region.
2 November	Australians retake Kokoda.



Source 6.95 The Kokoda Trail

The significance of Kokoda

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

Conditions on the Kokoda Trail

SOURCE STUDY



Source 6.96 A wounded soldier being carried to safety

Source 6.98

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



Source 6.97 Australians plod along the trail

INTERPRET 6.15

- 1 Explain what these sources reveal about conditions for soldiers along the Kokoda Trail.
- 2 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' are shown in Source 6.96 and mentioned in Source 6.98. Compare both sources to infer what the term 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' refers to.

The legacy of Kokoda

Approximately 625 Australians were killed fighting along the trail, while at least 16 000 were wounded and more than 4000 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.

REVIEW 6.17

- 1 Where was the Kokoda Trail?
- 2 What was 'Maroubra Force'? What did it achieve?
- 3 Explain why the Kokoda campaign is such a significant moment in Australian history.

EXPERIENCES OF AUSTRALIANS AT WAR – WOMEN AND INDIGENOUS AUSTRALIANS

Women in the Australian armed forces

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

This changed as the war came closer to Australia. From late 1940, women were not only permitted to join the services, they were encouraged to do so. Many served as nurses in one of the branches of the armed forces. The majority joined auxiliary services, where they were trained in many of the home-front tasks, so that servicemen could be freed up to join the fighting overseas. These services included the Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF), the Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) and the Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS). Over 66 000 women served in these women's services during the war, which represented around 7 per cent of the entire force.

Most commonly, women's roles in the armed services 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. Women were still not permitted to take on combat roles or serve outside Australia. The exception to this was nurses, who served in most areas where Australian troops were sent. A contingent of AWAS was also posted to New Guinea near the end of the war.

Many women joined the Women's Land Army, a civilian organisation, where they replaced male farm workers who had left to serve in the armed forces.



Source 6.99 Recruitment poster to attract women into the services during World War II (AWM ARTV01049).

EXTEND 6.14

- 1 Conduct research to identify the number of women in permanent full-time roles in the Australian Defence Force now, and the percentage of the entire force that this represents. How does this compare with the number of Australian women who served during World War II?

SOURCE STUDY

Roles of Australian women in the armed services



Source 6.100 Members of an Australian Women's Army Service anti-aircraft gun crew (AWM1 36831)



Source 6.101 Signallers of the Australian Women's Army Service (AWM 137466)



INTERPRET 6.16

- 1 What evidence do Sources 6.100–6.102 provide about the roles that Australian women took on during World War II?

Source 6.102 Members of the Australian Women's Army Service checking equipment for an Australian army tank [AWM1 37615]

Indigenous Australians in the Australian armed forces

At the start of the war, the AIF officially only accepted Aborigines who were of 'substantially European descent' while the RAAF accepted Aborigines from the outset. Due to the early shortage of recruits, many recruiters may have simply accepted Aboriginal volunteers into the AIF despite official restrictions. After the bombing of Darwin, the restrictions on Aborigines joining the AIF were relaxed.

It is estimated that around 3000 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers served in the Australian armed forces. However, it is impossible to know precisely, as the number who enlisted under another nationality was probably much higher than official figures. A small number of Torres Strait Islanders were also recruited into the United States army.

Other Indigenous Australians were also employed by the army in a variety of roles. They worked on farms and in butcheries, built roads and airfields, and 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.



Source 6.103 Aboriginal soldiers on parade in 1940 [AWM P02140.004]

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit were 51 Aboriginal and 100 white Australians who patrolled the northern Australian coast. In the event of a Japanese invasion, they were to conduct a guerrilla campaign using traditional Aboriginal weapons. The Aborigines were not formally enlisted in the army, and received goods such as tobacco rather than monetary pay. In 1992, they were finally awarded back-pay and medals.

REVIEW 6.18

- 1 Why did the role of women in the armed services change from World War I to World War II?
- 2 How did women's roles differ between World War I and World War II?
- 3 Among women who joined the armed forces during World War II, which group were permitted to serve outside Australia?
- 4 What was the Australian government's purpose in forming the women's auxiliary services?
- 5 Why is it difficult for historians to estimate the number of Indigenous Australians who enlisted in the armed forces during World War II?
- 6 When and why were restrictions against Aborigines enlisting in the AIF relaxed?

6.3

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES, SCOPE AND NATURE OF WORLD WAR II?

» Outline the main causes of World War II

- 1 Explain why the Treaty of Versailles is often regarded as a cause of World War II. Do you agree? Explain why or why not. (10 marks)
- 2 Who became leader of Germany in the 1930s? Outline the ways he used the Treaty of Versailles and the Allied policy of appeasement to achieve his own aims. (5 marks)
- 3 Outline what historians consider to be the main causes of World War II. (10 marks)
- 4 Outline arguments for and against Germany being held responsible for the outbreak of World War II. (15 marks)

» Explain why Australians enlisted to fight

- 5 Explain why Australians didn't embrace the outbreak of World War II as enthusiastically as World War I. What evidence can you use to support your explanation? (10 marks)
- 6 Explain how and why public support for involvement in World War II changed. (10 marks)

» Locate and sequence the places where Australians fought

- 7 Identify the two major theatres of war in World War II, and give examples of specific battles that took place in each of them. (10 marks)
- 8 Label a blank world map to identify the major sites where Australians fought in World War II. (10 marks)
- 9 List the major battles Australians were involved in during World War II. Place these battles on a timeline in correct chronological order. (10 marks)

» Outline and sequence the changing scope and nature of warfare from trenches in World War I to the Holocaust and the use of the atomic bomb to end World War II

- 10 Look at the map below. Explain how the Maginot Line provides evidence that France was preparing for a war that was similar to World War I. (5 marks)



- 11 Outline the types of weapons the Germans used to make their tactic of *Blitzkrieg* effective. (5 marks)
- 12 Outline how the use of coded messages by both sides during the war led to advances in technology. (5 marks)
- 13 Outline the ways in which the Holocaust is evidence of a change in the nature of warfare from World War I to World War II. (10 marks)
- 14 Briefly outline the development of the atomic bomb. (10 marks)
- 15 Explain why the atomic bombs ended World War II. (5 marks)
- 16 Use a timeline to summarise how the scope and nature of warfare changed from World War I to the end of World War II. (10 marks)

» Investigate the significant experiences of Australians in World War II

- 17 Outline the major differences between the experiences of Australians held as prisoners of war in Europe and in the Pacific war. (5 marks)
- 18 Describe the treatment Australians received as prisoners of war under the Japanese, and support your response with specific examples. (10 marks)
- 19 Explain why the Kokoda Trail is significant in Australian history. (15 marks)
- 20 Describe the role of women in Australia's armed services during World War II, including where they served and the main types of jobs that they were involved in. (15 marks)
- 21 How were Aborigines restricted from joining the armed services during World War II, and how did many get around this restriction? (5 marks)
- 22 What roles did Indigenous men and women have in the armed forces during World War II? (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/200]

RICH TASKS

Understanding the Holocaust

There are a large number of sites available to increase your understanding of the Holocaust and its legacy. Select one of these sites for a virtual site study and outline:

- 1 any additional information you were able to learn about the Holocaust
- 2 how the site helps you understand the legacy of the Holocaust.

Using weapons of mass destruction – the atomic bomb

The atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki sparked a debate about both the necessity and morality of using a weapon capable of causing so much destruction. This task asks you to investigate the debate and draw your own conclusions based on research.

- 1 Start by finding websites that provide arguments for and against dropping the bombs. Once you have made up your own mind, you may like to cast your own vote on a site such as www.debate.org.
- 2 Conduct research on the arguments for both sides of the debate. Create a summary of the main arguments and the evidence used to support them. Exclude any arguments that are based only on opinion and fail to produce evidence (one example is the press release outlining President Truman's justification). A good starting point outlining the argument against the bombings can be found at the website of Roger Hollander.
- 3 Consider the emotional impact of sources such as those shown in Sources 6.85 and 6.86. Discuss whether the impact of the bombs is a necessary part of the debate about whether they should have been dropped.
- 4 Explain your own position. Do you think the dropping of atomic bombs was justified? Outline the evidence you are using to support your argument.
- 5 Come together as a class and discuss your opinions and evidence.
- 6 Conduct a poll to discover what the overall opinion of the class is.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.4

SECTION

DETAILED STUDY: WHAT WERE THE ORIGINS, NATURE AND IMPACT OF THE HOLOCAUST?

The Holocaust was one of the most dramatic and tragic events of World War II. Millions of innocent people suffered greatly and died at the hands of Germany's Nazi government, under the leadership of Adolf Hitler. This section explores the origins, nature and impacts of the Holocaust and provides additional content and activities that extend on the information relating to the Holocaust provided in Section 6.3. This detailed study is not a compulsory component of Depth Study 3 'Australians at War: World Wars I and II' but can be used to help students understand and appreciate the scale and significance of the Holocaust. Additionally, it can be used as part of a school-developed topic on the Holocaust in Depth Study 6.

WHY STUDY THE HOLOCAUST?



Source 6.104 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.

In the previous unit, we learned that the Holocaust was the consequence of the Nazi Party's 'Final Solution' – a systematic plan to exterminate all Jews in Europe. Although Jews were not the only victims of the Nazi Party's racial policies, they were a prime target of Nazi hatred and violence. Hostility towards the Jews was central to Nazi ideology and was also the main theme of Hitler's manifesto *Mein Kampf* ('My Struggle').

A study of the Holocaust is important because it is a time in world history that needs to be remembered. Remembering significant events such as this is one of the only ways we have of making sure they do not happen again in the future.

It is also important to study the Holocaust because many important historical and legal developments took place in response to it. For example, military trials set up in the German city of Nuremberg by Allied forces at the end of the war – known as the Nuremberg war crimes trials – tried and convicted many top Nazi leaders with crimes against humanity. As a direct result of the Holocaust and the Nuremberg trials, the International Criminal Court was established and the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights came into existence. In addition, the events of the Holocaust ultimately led to the creation of the state of Israel in 1948.

REVIEW 6.19

- 1 In your own words, explain what is meant by the term 'Final Solution'.
- 2 Why is it important for important events such as the Holocaust to be remembered?
- 3 Describe some of the important historical and legal developments that came about as a result of the Holocaust.

ORIGINS OF THE HOLOCAUST

The Holocaust was the result of both action and inaction. Ideologies built on the hatred, racism and prejudice of Adolf Hitler and brought into law by the Nazi Party led to active persecution of Jews across Germany. Along with communists, socialists, Gypsies (Roma), homosexuals and other 'undesirable' groups, Jews became the focus of Nazi policies and control. The activities and policies of Hitler and the Nazi Party, however, were allowed to continue because of the inaction on the part of others – both in Germany and elsewhere. Source 6.105 is a well-known quote from German church leader Martin Niemöller, one of the many people who stood by and did nothing to support the Jews being persecuted by the Nazis. In the end, he himself was imprisoned in a Nazi prison camp.

Source 6.105

First they came for the communists,
and I didn't speak out because I wasn't a communist.

Then they came for the socialists,
and I didn't speak out because I wasn't a socialist.

Then they came for the trade unionists,
and I didn't speak out because I wasn't a trade unionist.

Then they came for the Jews,
and I didn't speak out because I wasn't a Jew.

Then they came for me,
and there was no one left to speak for me.

Martin Niemöller

As previously noted, hostility towards the Jews (known as **anti-Semitism**) had its origins in the ancient world and was common throughout Europe in the Middle Ages. However, the persecution and murder of Jews across Nazi Germany, and the territories it occupied, took place on a much larger scale and in a much more systematic way than ever before. Government policies set aside funds for the identification, isolation and extermination of Jews, and laws were passed to ensure that these policies were carried out.

Persecution of Jews in Nazi Germany in the 1930s

The Holocaust started with Nazi persecution of Jews in Germany after Hitler came to power in 1933. In 1935, the Nazis passed the Nuremberg Laws, which officially discriminated against Jews. These laws prohibited Jews from marrying non-Jews and denied them German citizenship, protection under the law, access to education, and positions in government, universities and the army. Under the same laws, businesses owned by Jews were disrupted by Nazi storm troopers (see Source 6.106) or were simply confiscated and handed over to non-Jewish Germans.

By November 1938, this persecution intensified with the infamous series of coordinated attacks by Nazi Party members on synagogues and Jewish businesses across Germany. This became known as *Kristallnacht* ('Crystal Night' or 'Night of broken glass'). While these attacks took place, the police stood by and did nothing. On that night, according to British historian Martin Gilbert, many Jews were beaten and some were murdered; at least 1000 synagogues were burned; and Jewish shops and business were wrecked and looted. All of this was widely reported throughout Germany and in other countries. Despite the well-documented instances of murder, arson and robbery, none of the Nazis responsible were charged for their actions against Jews. Instead, the police blamed the victims.

Persecution of Jews in German-occupied territories

What began as an attack on German Jews turned into the attempted systematic and calculated mass murder of Jews across Europe, which progressively came under Nazi rule as Germany expanded its territory across much of the continent from 1939. From November 1939, all Jews in Poland and other German-controlled territories in Europe were ordered to wear a yellow star to identify themselves, just as Jews in Germany had been made to do (see Source 6.80). In the same year, Jewish inhabitants of major towns and cities began to be herded into ghettos, which were fenced off to contain and isolate Jews from the rest of society.

As we saw in the previous unit, ghettos were set up in Nazi-occupied cities in Poland, Hungary and the Soviet Union soon after the start of the war. In these 'prisons without a roof', many people died from disease or malnutrition, while others were shot.

SOURCE STUDY

Origins of the Holocaust



Source 6.106 Nazi storm troopers outside a Jewish business, directing people to shop elsewhere, 1933



Source 6.107 Pedestrians glance at the broken windows of a Jewish-owned shop in Berlin after the attacks of *Kristallnacht*, November 1938



Source 6.108 Members of a family wear Stars of David to indicate that they are Jews. Scenes such as this were common in Germany after *Kristallnacht*.

INTERPRET 6.17

- 1 Explain how these sources provide evidence of a systematic policy of persecution against Jews brought about by the Nazi Party.
- 2 Is there any evidence to suggest that these photos may have been staged or set up by the Nazis? If so, what may they have stood to gain by doing so?

REVIEW 6.20

- 1 What was the purpose of Jewish ghettos in Nazi Germany?
- 2 Explain what made the Holocaust different from earlier anti-Jewish hostility in Europe.
- 3 Identify the steps that were taken to persecute Jews in Germany and in German-occupied territories before the outbreak of World War II.
- 4 What was *Kristallnacht*? How did the authorities react to these attacks?

THE NATURE OF THE HOLOCAUST

Much of the knowledge we have about the Holocaust comes from the testimony and stories of survivors, as well as from Nazi records and photographs. At the Nuremberg war crimes trials held after the war, Nazi leaders were found guilty of crimes against humanity and mass murder. In fact, they were convicted on the basis of their own well-kept and meticulous records.

Forced-labour camps

The Nazi government used **concentration camps** to contain Jews and other 'undesirables'. Some were forced-labour camps, where inmates were compelled to do hard physical work, such as mining and road building, under harsh conditions. Many camps, such as Buchenwald and Bergen-Belsen, were places where inmates were simply worked to death (see Source 6.82). With a heavy work load and starvation rations, many of these people fell victim to malnutrition and disease. As soon as they were unable to work, they were left to die or were put to death.

Extermination camps

In addition to forced labour camps, the Nazis set up camps for the sole purpose of killing people and disposing of their bodies. These camps were known as extermination (or death) camps. One of the largest extermination camps was called Auschwitz-Birkenau. This camp was actually made up of a series of smaller camps and served as both a labour camp and an extermination camp.

When inmates first arrived at Auschwitz-Birkenau, they were subjected to a thorough screening process. Those with work skills, or those who looked strong and able-bodied, went to one side. They would go to the labour part of the camp. Those who were unfit, too young or too old were sent immediately to the gas chambers. These were built to look like showers, so as not to cause an immediate panic or encourage resistance.

Over one million Jews alone were murdered at Auschwitz. There were so many bodies that burial would have been inefficient. With so many decaying corpses, there was also a risk that they might contaminate the water table and pollute the water supply. Cremation in giant, specially designed ovens was therefore the Nazis' preferred method of disposing of the bodies (see Source 6.83).

After people had been killed, the Nazis put the by-products of death to use. Gold fillings were taken from the teeth of the corpses, melted down and sent to the Reich Treasury. In some cases, the hair was removed from bodies to be used for stuffing mattresses. There is also at least one reliable documented account of fat from cremated bodies being used to make soap.



Source 6.109 Jewish women and children, some wearing the yellow Star of David patch on their chests, at Auschwitz-Birkenau concentration camp in Poland



Source 6.110 Mug shots show boys imprisoned at the Auschwitz–Birkenau concentration camp, Poland. The boys wear striped uniforms, like criminals.



Source 6.111 Jews taken to the death camps were told they were being re-housed. They packed their most important possessions, which were confiscated on arrival.



Source 6.112 Eyeglasses confiscated from prisoners at Auschwitz extermination camp. The glasses were recycled and issued to members of the German army.

INTERPRET 6.18

Look at Sources 6.110 to 6.112.

- 1 How do these sources explain the attitudes of the Nazis towards Jews?
- 2 How can pictures such as these serve to convince people of the extent to which Jews were persecuted by the Nazis during World War II?

EXTEND 6.15

- 1 Conduct research on the activities of the *Einsatzgruppen*. What evidence is there of their activities?

Mass shootings of Jews in Eastern Europe

When Hitler attacked the Soviet Union in 1941, Nazi persecution of Jews intensified. When the German army swept across Soviet-occupied Poland and into the Soviet Union itself, the army was followed by groups of *Einsatzgruppen* (specialised killing squads). The *Einsatzgruppen*, which operated under the leadership of the *Schutzstaffel* (better known as the SS), numbered about 3000 men in total, with orders to kill all Jews remaining behind German army lines. Hitler's elite forces, the *Schutzstaffel*, along with 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 across the occupied territories and within Germany itself.

Death toll of the Holocaust

Historians generally agree that around three million Jews were killed in Nazi concentration and extermination camps across Europe during World War II. In addition it is generally accepted that another three million died in violent or oppressive circumstances outside the camps. All six million deaths were a result of Nazi extermination policies. Many other non-Jewish inmates were murdered or died of maltreatment, disease and starvation.

APPLY 6.11

- 1 Statistics for deaths in war can be controversial. Add the figures for the Jewish death toll during World War II in Source 6.114. Conduct research to compare that figure to that given by at least three other sources. How close are they? What does this research tell you about the reliability of wartime statistics?
- 2 What reasons might there be for these inconsistencies?

Contested history – the Holocaust deniers

As you have seen, there is a significant body of evidence about different aspects of the Holocaust, including sworn testimony of Nazi officials provided during the Nuremberg trials. Despite this evidence, a small but vocal group of people (known as Holocaust deniers) maintain that many of the claims made about the Holocaust are exaggerated or false.

British writer David Irving is perhaps the most well-known Holocaust denier. Despite the fact that he has published a number of books on this aspect of German history, and claims to be an authority, his credibility about the Holocaust has been challenged by many, including American historian Deborah Lipstadt. A court found that Irving repeatedly used only parts of sources, and handpicked isolated pieces of information that supported his hypothesis. This aspect of Holocaust denial is discussed further in the 'Perspectives and interpretations' section of 'The historian's toolkit'.

REVIEW 6.21

- 1 Explain the difference between a forced-labour camp and an extermination camp.
- 2 Describe the role of the *Einsatzgruppen* in the Soviet Union and Poland in 1941.
- 3 What figure is generally accepted as the death toll of European Jews during the Holocaust?



Source 6.113 Polish prisoners dig graves for their fellow prisoners after a mass execution by the Nazis, 1941



Source 6.114 The Jewish death toll in Europe, 1939–45

THE IMPACT OF THE HOLOCAUST

Any historical event as momentous as the Holocaust had to have significant and ongoing impacts on societies around the world. In terms of impact, the Holocaust:

- resulted in the Nuremberg war crimes trials
- contributed to the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- influenced the creation of the state of Israel
- has become one of those contested areas of history because a small number of Holocaust deniers have attempted to deny the truth about the real horrors of the Holocaust.



Source 6 .115 Defendants in the dock at the Palace of Justice, during proceedings against leading Nazi figures for war crimes at the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg, Germany, 1945. They include (in the front row, left to right): Hermann Göring, Rudolf Hess, Joachim von Ribbentrop and Wilhelm Keitel.

The Nuremberg war crimes trials 1945–49

Because of the enormous scale and brutality of the Holocaust, by the time the war ended in 1945, international pressure on the Allied forces to punish those responsible was mounting. To ensure that those guilty of crimes against humanity and of waging wars of aggression be brought to justice, a series of military trials were set up in the German city of Nuremberg. At these trials, a new legal definition was introduced – **genocide** – in order to clearly describe the deliberate and systematic extermination of a race of people.

The Nuremberg trials established and re-defined many principles of international law. The Nuremberg principles included the following:

- It is **not** a defence to say 'I was only following orders'. Each individual is responsible for his or her **own** actions and moral decisions.
- Murder, extermination, enslavement, deportation and other inhumane acts done against any **civilian** population are a crime against humanity.

The other important difference between the trials at Nuremberg and the way in which other wars had concluded was that the winners did not summarily punish their defeated enemies. The Nazi leaders were given a public trial and the chance to put forward a defence, like any other people charged with a crime.

United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

In December 1948, the **United Nations** agreed to a Universal Charter of Human Rights. The 30 articles of the charter were prompted by various aspects of World War II, among them the massive abuse of human rights by the Nazis in their treatment of the Jews. The spirit of the charter was summed up by the first line of Article 1: 'All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights'.

The creation of the state of Israel, 1948

At the end of the war in 1945, hundreds of thousands of survivors of the Nazi concentration camps were moved into temporary refugee camps. By 1946, 250 000 Jews still remained as displaced persons in Europe. With their homes destroyed and family members gone, many had nowhere safe to resettle. A solution to this situation needed to be found. With great international support, Jewish survivors of the Holocaust argued that for humanitarian reasons Jewish refugees from Europe should be allowed to enter Palestine (a region in the Middle East that had been controlled by the British since 1920).

The idea of a separate Jewish homeland and state was particularly popular in the United States at this time. Since the 17th century, Jews had settled in the USA. By the end of the war in 1945, well-established Jewish communities and business groups across the USA lobbied their government for the right to a separate Jewish state in Palestine. In 1946, an Anglo-American Committee of Inquiry recommended that 100 000 Jews be allowed into Palestine. The recommendation was supported by the American president, Harry Truman, but rejected by Ernest Bevin, the British foreign secretary. Arabs continued to oppose increased Jewish immigration to Palestine, arguing that as they had not been responsible for the recent persecution of the Jews, they should not bear the brunt of Jewish resettlement.

Jewish refugee ships

Despite numerous disagreements between governments around the world, ships filled with European Jews seeking a new life continued to arrive off the coast of Palestine. Many were unseaworthy and were overloaded with illegal immigrants from Europe. The most famous of these ships was the *SS Exodus*, which was transporting 4550 survivors of the Nazi death camps when it was intercepted, rammed and boarded by the British Royal Navy (see Source 6.117). At the port of Haifa, the passengers were forced to disembark and were immediately placed on board ships returning to Europe. When the passengers refused to disembark in France, the British government sent them back to Lubeck, Germany. From there, they returned in locked trains to the old Nazi concentration camps. Public opinion around the world condemned Britain for these actions. Despite this setback, approximately 40 000 Jews entered Palestine illegally between August 1945 and May 1948.

The UN partition plan

During this time, the actions of a number of Jewish resistance groups (formed in order to fight for a separate Jewish homeland) meant that around 100 000 British troops had to remain in Palestine to ensure British control. This situation was very unpopular with the British public, given that the war was over and people expected their troops to return home.

In February 1947, Britain decided to return their troops home and hand control of Palestine to the United Nations. A UN special committee recommended that Palestine be partitioned into a Jewish state and an Arab state, with Jerusalem administered as an international zone (see Source 6.116). Of the 26 000 square kilometres of Palestine, the Arabs retained 44 per cent, although they had 67 per cent of the population.

Arabs across the Middle East objected to the UN plan for partition. The Jews accepted the plan but argued that Jerusalem should be part of the new Jewish state. The Partition Plan gave the Jews 56 per cent of the land area of Palestine, although they constituted only 33 per cent of the population. The United Nations voted on the Partition Plan on 29 November 1947. Thirty-three nations supported the plan, including the USA, France, Australia and the Soviet Union. Thirteen nations opposed the plan, including Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Yemen, Egypt and India. Ten countries abstained from taking part in the vote, including Britain. The Jewish people had obtained a national homeland.

Despite the decision, much uncertainty remained. Questions remained about who would oversee the creation of the two new states. Britain made it clear that its command of the area would come to an end on 15 May 1948, and that no authority would be handed over before that date. The USA was unwilling to involve itself in the transition, leaving Jews and Arabs to enter into a period of armed conflicts that eventually led to the first Arab–Israeli war.

On 14 May 1948, David Ben-Gurion, Executive Head of the World Zionist Organization and a passionate advocate of an independent Jewish state in Palestine, proclaimed the establishment of the state of Israel. Ben-Gurion would go on to become known as ‘Israel’s founding father’ and hold the office of Prime Minister from 1948–1954.

SOURCE STUDY

The creation of Israel



Source 6.116 The UN Partition Plan



Source 6.117 This photo taken at Haifa port on July 18, 1947 shows the crowded upper deck of the illegal immigration ship *SS Exodus*. The image shows Jewish refugees from war-torn Europe before being forced onto a British navy ship and transported back to Europe.

INTERPRET 6.19

- 1 Explain how these sources contribute to your understanding of the situation in the Middle East today.
- 2 Examine Source 6.116. What potential difficulties can you see in implementing this division of Palestine?
- 3 Outline the ways in which sources such as 6.117 could have influenced public attitudes towards Jewish refugees and the creation of Israel after the war.

REVIEW 6.22

- 1 List three short-term and three long-term impacts of the Holocaust.
- 2 Explain the implications of the Nuremberg war crimes trials.
- 3 Why was the state of Israel created?
- 4 Explain the significance of the *SS Exodus* and the experiences of the passengers on board.
- 5 What, in your view, lessons can be learned as a result of the Holocaust?

6.4

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

DETAILED STUDY: WHAT WERE THE ORIGINS, NATURE AND IMPACT OF THE HOLOCAUST?

- 1 Explain why the Holocaust is an important topic to study. (10 marks)
- 2 To what extent does Martin Niemöller's quote (Source 6.105) explain why the Holocaust was able to take place? (10 marks)
- 3 Identify one historical source in this section that clearly shows Jews being persecuted by Nazis in Germany in the 1930s. Write a detailed description of the kinds of evidence it provides. (10 marks)
- 4 Describe the role played by forced-labour camps and extermination camps in World War II. (10 marks)
- 5 Discuss whether you believe the impacts of the Holocaust had been dealt with by the end of 1948. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Investigating the claims of Holocaust deniers

Examine the evidence and make your own historical judgement about the claims of Holocaust deniers.

- 1 Source 6.118 shows an aerial photograph of the Birkenau part of the vast Auschwitz–Birkenau concentration camp, taken by the US Air Force late in the war. The area at the top left of the photograph shows the remains of the crematorium. David Irving – arguably the most well-known Holocaust denier – denies this was a crematorium, instead claiming that these are the remains of air raid shelters for camp guards. Irving's view is disputed by many, including historian Robert Jan van Pelt. These people point out that soldiers' barracks are located about five kilometres away (seen



Source 6.118 An aerial view of Auschwitz-Birkenau taken on 31 May 1944

- at the bottom right of the photograph). As a class, discuss whether the distance between the crematorium/air raid bunkers and barracks supports Irving's or van Pelt's view.
- 2 Conduct research, examining evidence closely and impartially, to investigate Irving's claims that although people did die in Nazi concentration camps:
 - deaths were the result of diseases and shortages that were the normal results of war
 - heating fuel supplies delivered to Auschwitz were far too small to keep the cremation ovens going.Identify the evidence that supports the conclusion that you come to.
 - 3 As a class, discuss the validity of Holocaust denial. Given the evidence that is available, why would people continue to deny the existence of the Holocaust?

6.5

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF WORLD WAR II ON AUSTRALIA?

In 1939, the Australian government once again mobilised for war. The whole population supported the war effort – particularly after the Fall of Singapore in 1942 when, for the first time, Australia felt directly under threat. This section explores wartime controls on the home front during World War II.

THE IMPACT OF WORLD WAR II ON AUSTRALIA

APPLY 6.12

- 1 Compare the figures given here with those given for World War I (see Source 6.46). List the conclusions you feel you can draw from the comparison.

During World War II, almost a million Australians served in the armed services. Roughly half this number served in Europe, North Africa, the Middle East and the Pacific. The bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941 and the Fall of Singapore in 1942 brought about an escalation of Australia's wartime involvement and an increase in the number of soldiers sent overseas.

Source 6.119 A summary of the numbers who served, along with numbers of prisoners of war, deaths and casualties during World War II

Numbers involved	
Total population	7 million
Australians who served in the armed forces	993 000
Australians who served overseas	550 000
Killed in action	27 073
Wounded	23 477
Prisoners of war	30 560 (8296 died in captivity)

Source: National Australian Archives

Conscription

In World War II, **conscription** into Australia's armed forces was revived to create a militia for home service only. In 1942, the issue of conscription for service overseas arose under Prime Minister JoÚ Curtin. Although there was debate among the members of his Labor party, a form of conscription for overseas service was introduced in 1943 with a majority vote in the party. The area in which conscripts could serve was extended to islands held by the Japanese south of the equator. There was little opposition in the Australian community. Because of the real threat of Japanese invasion, the issue of conscription was much less divisive than it had been during World War I.

Wartime controls

One of the first steps taken by the Australian government in September 1939 was the passing of the *National Security Act*. This Act 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 Japanese people living in Australia. It also banned groups that opposed the war, such as the Communist Party of Australia and Jehovah's Witnesses.

Censorship

During the war years, the Australian government believed that strict censorship was necessary to maintain national security and boost public morale. The Department of Information censored mail and monitored phone calls to ensure that military information relating to troop movements and locations was not communicated to the enemy.

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 American–Australian relations.

Wartime propaganda

Closely related to censorship was propaganda. Throughout the war, newspapers, radio, posters and other forms of mass communication (such as the short newsreels shown before feature films in cinemas) encouraged people to think and act in particular ways. This was viewed as a technique for maintaining morale. The way in which the bombing of Darwin and the 'Battle of Brisbane' were reported might be described as propaganda as the news was reported in such a way as to slant popular opinion in a particular direction. Posters encouraged people to enlist in the armed forces, or reminded them that their everyday efforts were an important part of war. Some posters used prejudicial stereotypes of the Germans or Japanese to ensure that Australians remained supportive of the war (see Sources 6.121 and 6.122).



Source 6.120 Mail being censored by Department of Information staff during World War II (AWM1 39316)

EXTEND 6.16

- 1 As a class, discuss the effect the Internet would have had on propaganda and censorship in Australia during World War II if it had been around then. Do you think censorship on this level would have been possible?

SOURCE STUDY

Australian government propaganda posters



Source 6.121 (AWMT EP3 93543)



Source 6.122 (AWMA RTV04332)

INTERPRET 6.20

- 1 Examine Sources 6.121 and 6.122 (see also Source 6.124). These sources are all examples of posters used by the Australian government to encourage support for the war effort.
 - a What sorts of images, words and techniques are common to all three sources? Which techniques (if any) are particular to each of them?
 - b How effective do you think posters such as these would have been during World War II?
 - c Do you think one of these sources could have been more successful than the others? Give reasons for your response.

Internment of enemy 'aliens'

As in World War I, the Australian government again took steps against people living in Australia who were believed to threaten national security. Initially, this involved the internment of Germans and Italians living in Australia who were thought to be pro-Nazi or pro-fascist. 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 various locations around Australia.

EXTEND 6.17

- 1 Use the National Archives to conduct research on a specific internment camp in Australia during World War II. Find out where the internees were from, and their experiences while living in that particular camp.

Impact of World War II on Australian women

New types of work possibilities opened up for women during World War II. Before the war, Australian women were not permitted to serve in the military, and most working women were employed in factories, shops or in family businesses. Women were expected to resign from their employment once they had children.

With so many servicemen deployed overseas, the role of women in Australia changed to meet the needs of the armed forces and the war economy. As we saw in Section 6.3 under 'Women in the Australian armed forces', from the late 1940s women were encouraged to enlist in the women's auxiliary services. Even if women did not enlist in the auxiliary forces, it was argued that increasing women's employment would allow more men to enter military service. Women were employed in a variety of new roles, such as truck and taxi-drivers and tram conductors (see Source 6.123).

As the war progressed, Australian women worked increasingly in war industries, such as manufacturing munitions and military equipment. They were paid roughly two-thirds of men's pay rates.

It is important to note that, while there was only an increase of about 5 per cent of women involved in the workforce between 1939 and 1945, what was significant was the types of work they were beginning to perform.

As the war continued, and more men were conscripted, the Women's Land Army was set up, and its 3000 members were sent out to farms and orchards to keep food production going. 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Under The Directorate of Manpower regulations, women could be deployed in occupations that suited their skills. For example, a woman trained as a forger could be compelled to work in a factory because of her skills with wire; or a dancer could be sent to work on a farm because she was agile and physically fit.



Source 6.123 A photo taken in 1944 shows a woman employed in the work force as a taxi driver for Yellow Cab (AWMO 45099).

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 their traditional roles.



Source 6.124 An Australian government poster during World War II encouraging women to enter the workforce (AWM ARTV01064)

APPLY 6.13

- 1 Conduct research on an aspect of government control over life during World War II. Possible topics include: rationing, blackouts, recycling, censorship, evacuation drills and conscription. In an explanation text of 250 words, analyse the impact that this aspect of government control had on daily life.
- 2 Create a World War II recruitment poster designed to boost the number of men enlisting in the Australian armed forces. Consider the types of techniques, both visual and verbal, that were used during World War II, such as:
 - the use of racial stereotypes to tap into the fears about foreign invaders held by many Australians
 - the use of national symbols (such as the Australian jagg) to arouse feelings of pride and nationalism
 - the use of techniques to generate positive and negative emotions in Australians, such as references to family pride, honour or cowardice.
 - a Complete your poster by hand or on computer, making sure to include one or more of these techniques.
 - b Explain which of the techniques used in your poster were more or less successful.
 - c Explain why it is unacceptable to use racist stereotypes in modern Australian society.
 - d As a class, vote to decide on the poster that is the most successful in achieving its goal.

REVIEW 6.23

- 1 Why was conscription introduced in Australia in World War II?
- 2 List the ways in which the government controlled and monitored daily life in Australia during World War II.
- 3 List some of the roles women had to take on during World War II.

6.5

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF WORLD WAR II ON AUSTRALIA?

» Outline the types of controls that were introduced on the home front by the Australian government

- 1 Identify some of the additional powers and wartime controls introduced by the Australian government during World War II following the passage of the *National Security Act 1939*, in response to the threat of war. (10 marks)
- 2 How did conscription in Australia during World War II differ from conscription during World War I? Explain the differences. (5 marks)
- 3 In your notebook, copy and complete the following table to show how the Australian government controlled public information during World War II. Do you believe it is accurate to describe this type of control as a form of propaganda? (10 marks)

Incident	Government reaction	What the public wasn't told.
The Bombing of Darwin		
The 'Battle of Brisbane'		

- 4 In your notebook, rule up a page with the heading 'The changing roles of women', and create three lists: Pre-World War II, World War II and Post-World War II. Add examples to each list that will help explain the way World War II contributed to changing roles for women in Australia. (15 marks)
- 5 What were 'enemy aliens'? Outline the way Australia dealt with 'enemy aliens' during World War II. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Women and World War II – exploring continuity and change

- 1 Sources 6.125 to 6.128 are covers taken from the women's magazine *The Australian Women's Weekly*.
 - a Examine the covers in chronological order and note the aspects of life they are displaying.
 - b Comment on what these primary sources tell you about the impact of World War II on the social expectations of women in Australia.
 - c What limitations are there in drawing historical conclusions based *only* on these sources?
 - d Using these sources, along with others from your own research, argue whether the changes in women's lives during the 1940s in Australia reject continuity and/or change.
 - e Did life for Australian women change in the 1940s as a result of World War II? As a class, discuss your conclusions.



Source6 .125 Cover A (26 September 1942)



Source6 .126 Cover B (3 November 1945)



Source6 .127 Cover C (10 February 1940)



Source6 .128 Cover D (13 May 1950)

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.6

SECTION

WHAT WAS THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WARS TO AUSTRALIA?

In this section, we investigate the impact of World War I and World War II on Australia's returned soldiers and civilians, and look at the changing relationship between Australia and other countries after World War II.

IMPACT OF THE WARS ON RETURNED SOLDIERS AND CIVILIANS

After World War I

At the end of World War I, around a quarter of a million Australian servicemen were returned home. This process is known as **repatriation**. The returned soldiers, known as **diggers**, had been away from home for up to four years, and many were injured, sick or had suffered psychologically. To add to the difficulties, in 1919, ships carrying returning soldiers were quarantined when they arrived in Australia to prevent the spread of Spanish Influenza. This flu became a global pandemic that ravaged populations around the world, with estimates of 20 million to 30 million deaths worldwide.

Ex-soldiers were also returning to a changed society. Women had taken on roles that were traditionally men's, and technological advances during the war meant there were fewer jobs for unskilled labourers. Initially, most diggers found employment, but the difficult economic conditions of the 1920s saw the unemployment rate in Australia increase to over 5 per cent during the decade.

At first, patriotic funds raised money to help diggers with their immediate financial needs. However, it became clear this was inadequate for the number of diggers who needed assistance to adjust back into peacetime life. In 1917, the government set up the Repatriation Department which provided health care, compensation, housing, and job training, and looked after the families of servicemen who had been killed.

SOURCE STUDY

Impact of World War I on civilians and returning soldiers

Source 6.129

In the Legislative Council yesterday, the Colonial Secretary ... stated that it was a fact that police constables were being employed to interview and make enquiries from returned soldiers in receipt of pensions as to their occupations and circumstances. This was being done at the request of the Registrar of Pensions. The Minister added that he was not aware that this procedure was having a detrimental effect on recruiting.

Extract from *The West Australian*, 8 March 1917, p. 7

Source 6.130 Repatriation assistance given to World War I ex-servicemen and their families by the late 1930s, 20 years after the end of the war. The cost of this was just under one-fifth of all Commonwealth expenditure.

- 257 000 Australians being assisted by a war pension
- 3600 receiving service pensions
- 1600 men still in hostels and homes for the permanently incapacitated
- 23 000 outpatients in repatriations hospitals each year
- 20 000 children had received educational assistance
- 21 000 homes built
- 4000 artificial limbs fitted
- 133 000 jobs found for returned servicemen
- 28 000 had undergone training courses
- 40 000 placed on the land

Extract from Stephen Garton, *The Cost of War: Australians Return*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1996, pp. 83–84

Source 6.131

Some [employers] respected their wartime promises about returned heroes ... But the requirements of business usually came first, and employers were loath [reluctant] to demote or replace men and women who had proved to be good workers during the war.

Extract from Alistair Thomson, *ANZAC Memories*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1994, p. 114

Source 6.132

[H]idden in homes all over Australia were men who had gone to World War I and who were never the same again. For most the disabilities were physical, but there were plenty who were by turn remote or morose or who shouted all the time. For the worst affected, family life became punctuated by sudden rages, drinking bouts and black depressions, but even for the most stable, there was always a shadow

Extract from Janet McCalman, *Journeys*, Melbourne University Press, 1993, pp. 80–81



Source 6.133 Returned soldiers in a post-World War I repatriation program, undertaking training in a pipe-making factory (AWM P00158.035)

INTERPRET 6.21

- 1 After reading Sources 6.129 to 6.132, how likely do you think it would have been for World War I veterans to re-enlist for service in World War II?
- 2 Closely examine Source 6.133. Outline the difficulties the returned soldier shown would have had adjusting to peacetime life and working in factories such as the one shown.
- 3 Explain how Source 6.129 provides evidence for the argument that support for war veterans was not automatically granted.
- 4 How do these sources support or challenge the suggestion that readjusting to civilian life was difficult for many soldiers after World War I?

After World War II

At the end of World War II, the Australian armed services had 224 000 personnel serving across the Pacific and about 20 000 in Britain and other places. Their repatriation took a frustratingly long time for many servicemen, with pressures on the limited number of ships available to take servicemen home. By December 1945, 76 000 personnel had returned to Australia by sea. Demobilisation (releasing servicemen and women from the armed services) was also a massive undertaking, which was not completed until February 1947. After World War II, the government gave free passage to wives and children of servicemen who married while serving overseas. Between 1944 and 1949, 110 'bride ships' made 177 journeys to Australia.



Source 6.134 A returned serviceman from the Royal Australian Navy is reunited with his British bride in Australia (AWM 080984)

Around twice as many servicemen and women had served overseas as they did in World War I. There were roughly half as many deaths compared to World War I, and much lower numbers wounded. However, unlike World War I, over 20 000 returning servicemen had been prisoners of war.

The Australian government supported World War II veterans with medical care, war gratuities and pensions, war service home loans, training and education grants, and assistance with finding employment.

As in the period after World War I, returning soldiers came home to a society where women had expanded their roles and responsibilities during the war. As explored in Section 6.5, 'Impact of World War II on Australian women', some women happily returned to their traditional roles, while some women retained their jobs. There is also evidence that some women were pressured to resign in favour of men who had families to support.

Perspectives of returned POWs after World War II

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.135

A few days ago my brother came home. Home, after three and a half years as a prisoner of war in Malaya. I had pictured a dramatic meeting; but all he said was 'how are you?' It sounds casual, conventional; but what is there to say at such a moment? I recall what Tom had said to me a little earlier, 'You never heard a man sing or laugh on the Thailand railway turnout. It was a ghost town.'

Extract from *Australian Women's Weekly*, 27 October 1945, p. 10

Source 6.136

The former Japanese prisoner J T Haig found the family circle difficult to fit into; his mother had died while he was away, and he hankered restlessly after the company of his own kind, his fellow ex-prisoners. One of those prisoners ... returned with badly impaired vision and to a wife who felt she no longer loved him: she had become withdrawn from him after hearing nothing in three years, except that he was almost certainly dead. Their marital problem was finally overcome, but the damage to his sight was permanent.

A summary of interviews of World War II veterans from *We Were There*, John Barrett, Viking, Melbourne, 1987, pp. 379–387

INTERPRET 6.22

- 1 Use the evidence from this chapter, including Sources 6.135 and 6.136, to write a paragraph about the difficulties former prisoners of war would have faced after returning to civilian life. What difficulties would their families have faced? How do these sources help you to understand their difficulties?

Indigenous Australians

It is estimated that 1000 Indigenous Australians enlisted during World War I and 3000 in World War II, where they fought together with non-Indigenous Australians without the racism they experienced in Australia. On their return, however, they came back to a segregated society, where they were not permitted to enter a public bar, own property or vote. One ex-soldier, Tommy Lyons who had served at Tobruk in 1917, 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.'

APPLY 6.14

- 1 Explain the different perspectives of the returned soldier looking for a job to support his family and the woman who was forced to resign to give him a job. Which perspective do you think would have been most accepted in Australia in the late 1940s? Do you think this attitude has changed today?
- 2 Conduct research into the treatment of Indigenous returned soldiers in the community and by the government after World War II. Compare this to the treatment of non-Indigenous servicemen after the war.

REVIEW 6.24

- 1 List the potential problems faced by veterans returning from both wars.
- 2 Explain why the government had to set up a Repatriation Department in 1917. Explain what its role was.
- 3 What were 'bride ships'? Explain why they were necessary.

AUSTRALIA AFTER WORLD WAR II

Australia's changing relationships with Britain and the USA

World War II changed the way Australians viewed their place in the world and fundamentally altered Australia's relationship with Britain. Stretched in its goals to defend itself and fight Germany and Italy in Europe and North Africa, Britain could only send limited resources to Asia. The fall of Singapore forced Australia to realise that Britain would always look after its own interests before those of its former colonies.

To address this changing situation, Australia now focused on a strategic relationship with the USA. Prime Minister JoÚ Curtin moved Australian troops from the Middle East, against the advice of the British government, and 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.

The USA emerged from the war as a global superpower, and in the post-war years Australia continued to link its interests, its security and its future to the USA. 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 .137 US sailors and soldiers on their arrival in Australia quickly made friends wherever they went, and were received with hospitality.

Social and economic changes

One million American service personnel came to Australia during the war, and their presence 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 into 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.

As in the period after World War I, wartime industries encouraged the growth of manufacturing and services after World War II. For the first time in the nation's history, farming ceased to be the major area of economic activity. Food processing and canning, the expansion of steel production, and the manufacture of consumer goods such as washing machines, refrigerators and cars increased during and after World War II.

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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

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).

Post-war migration to Australia

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 future threats. The slogan 'Populate or perish' was first used by the Immigration Minister, Arthur Calwell, to promote this new immigration policy. The campaign initially focused on encouraging British migrants, but when this failed to increase the population enough, Australia began to seek migrants from continental Europe for the first time.

The war had left somewhere between 11 and 20 million **refugees** in Europe, including Holocaust survivors and people who had fled the Soviet occupation of Eastern Europe. In 1947, Australia reached an agreement with international organisations to eventually resettle approximately 180 000 refugees. The government also encouraged people from southern and central Europe to migrate to Australia. In the 20 years following the end of World War II, almost two million people migrated to Australia. This surge in migration forever changed the nature of Australian society, its 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 prevent armed conflict and promote peace, had clearly failed. Even while World War II was still in progress, plans were underway to create a new international body that would be more successful. The **United Nations** (UN) officially came into existence in 1945, with 51 nations as founding members. Australia's Minister for External Affairs, Herbert 'Doc' Evatt, played a key role in drafting the Charter of the United Nations. 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 went on to become one of the first Presidents of the General Assembly.

APPLY 6.15

- 1 The Charter of the United Nations outlines the role of the UN as an international organisation to prevent war, with provisions to aid refugees, support post-war reconstruction and protect human rights. Other agencies of the UN include the:
 - World Health Organization
 - World Bank
 - International Atomic Energy Commission
 - International Court of Justice
 - United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization.Select one of these organisations and investigate its role and significance in today's world.

REVIEW 6.25

- 1 Which event made Australia realise it could no longer rely on Britain for its defence?
- 2 Who was given broader command of Australian forces in the Pacific during World War II? Who made that decision?
- 3 How was Australian society influenced by American culture during World War II?
- 4 Explain how the Australian economy changed as a result of World War II.
- 5 Outline the way the Commonwealth government became more powerful as a result of World Wars I and II.
- 6 What was the purpose of the 'Populate or perish' campaign?
- 7 Which Australian politician played a key role in drafting the UN Charter?



Source 6.138

Immigrants arrived from all corners of Europe as part of the 'Populate or perish' campaign.

EXTEND 6.18

- 1 One way of looking at the importance of Australia's increasing political links to the United States is to examine post-war treaties such as ANZUS. Find out who was involved in ANZUS, when it was introduced and what it guaranteed.

6.6

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WAS THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WARS TO AUSTRALIA?

» Explain the impact of the wars on returned soldiers and civilians

- 1 Examine Sources 6.139 and 6.140 and answer the following questions.
 - a Describe the type of society that the soldiers in Source 6.139 would be returning to after World War I.
 - b What continuities and changes can you identify between Source 6.139 and 6.140?
 - c Outline some of the evidence you could use to support an argument that returning soldiers had difficulty adjusting to life in Australia after World War I and World War II. (15m marks)

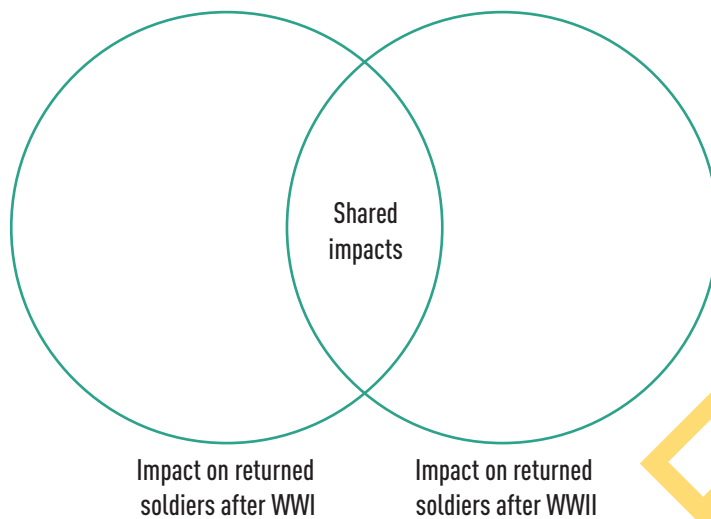


Source 6.139
Australian soldiers returning from World War I as invalids in 1917 (AWM C01035)



Source 6.140
Australian soldiers and the Royal Navy seamen who were bringing them to Australia after World War II (AWM 125099)

- 2 Copy and complete a Venn diagram (such as the one shown below) to summarise the similarities and differences of the impact of war on servicemen returning from World War I and World War II. (10 marks)



- 3 Outline the specific difficulties Indigenous Australian soldiers faced when returning to civilian life. (5 marks)
- » **Analyse the changing relationship of Australia with other countries after World War II**
- 4 Outline the key decisions Prime Minister Curtin made to ensure the security of Australia during World War II, and the consequences for Australia's relationships with other countries. (10 marks)
- 5 Explain how the adoption of the 'populate or perish' migration program started to change Australia and its relationship with other countries. (5 marks)
- 6 What evidence is there of Australia's international standing at the time of the foundation of the United Nations? (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Returning home – the challenges

- 1 Soldiers returning from World War I faced a number of challenges. In groups, select one of the following events. Find out what the incident was about, the role that returned soldiers played in it, and the viewpoints of opposing groups.
- The Red Flag riots in Brisbane (1919)
 - May Day protests in the Domain in Sydney and Brisbane (1921)
 - The Fremantle Wharf Riot (1919)
 - Melbourne Police Strike (1923)
 - Anti-conscription protest in Melbourne (15 December 1917)
- 2 Prime Minister William Hughes said Australia offered returning soldiers a 'land plot for heroes' at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. Write a letter to Hughes from a disillusioned former soldier who has been involved in one of the protests/riots you researched, asking him where 'the land plot for heroes' was.
- 3 As a class, discuss the way in which different perspectives can affect the way a source is used and interpreted.

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

6.7

SECTION

HOW ARE THE WARS COMMEMORATED?

In this section, we look at how Australia commemorates World War I and World War II. We also explore the growth of the ANZAC legend and discuss different perspectives on the importance of this legend in defining Australia's national identity.

COMMEMORATING THE WARS

Even before the end of World War I, Australians looked for a way in which the whole nation could recognise the efforts of the Australian forces and remember their sacrifices. Today, we continue this tradition with two official commemoration days – Anzac Day and Remembrance Day.

Anzac Day

In 1916, 25 April was chosen as a day of **commemoration** (a day to remember and show respect) for the ANZACs. Fittingly, this day became known as Anzac Day. Ceremonies and marches were held all around Australia, and a march was also held in London, England, where the ANZAC troops were hailed by local newspapers as 'The Knights of Gallipoli'. By 1927, Anzac Day had become a public holiday in Australia, with marches and dawn services held around the country every year. Many Australians also travel to Gallipoli to be present at the dawn service at Anzac Cove. Anzac Day ceremonies traditionally conclude with the words from Laurence Binyon's poem 'For the Fallen' (see Source 6.141).

Source 6.141

They shall grow not old, as we that are left grow old;
Age shall not weary them, nor the years condemn.
At the going down of the sun and in the morning
We will remember them.

Laurence Binyon, 'For the Fallen'

Remembrance Day (Armistice Day)

Anzac Day is the main day for war commemoration in Australia and New Zealand. However, Remembrance Day, 11 November, is a more general recognition of the sacrifices made in war. This date marks the day and the hour when the Armistice (ceasefire) was signed, bringing an end to World War I. In many countries, people pause for one minute at 11 a.m. on Remembrance Day to remember those who gave their lives in war.

APPLY 6.16

- 1 You may be familiar with some of these aspects and symbols of commemoration ceremonies in Australia. Conduct research on the origins and significance of some of these:
 - slouch hat
 - The Last Post
 - one-minute silence
 - riderless horse
 - red poppies
 - wattle
 - rosemary
 - game of remembrance.
- 2 How many of the aspects of the commemoration ceremonies are unique to Australia?

THE ANZAC LEGEND

The events at Gallipoli occupy a special place in Australia's history. The origin of the ANZAC legend that surrounds it can largely be linked to the fact that it was the first time that Australians had fought in a war. As a united country, Australia had only existed for 13 years at the time it went to war. Australians at home waited eagerly for accounts of the first encounter of the Australian Imperial Force. When news of the first battles at Gallipoli appeared in Australian papers on 8 May 1915, the fact that the landing had been a failure was almost completely overlooked.

Commentators at the time, and historians in the years since 1915, have developed the theme that Gallipoli was a defining national experience. It has been said that it was Australia's 'baptism of fire' and that Australia 'came of age' as a nation at Gallipoli. Some historians argue whether this ignores the importance of Federation and the decades after Federation when Australia led the world in social and political reforms. They argue that workers' rights, pension and votes for women are important parts of Australian history, and they helped to make the character of the nation and the characters of the brave men and women who served in the wars. In other words, did the characteristics of bravery and sacrifice, which are thought of as ANZAC characteristics, only first appear at Gallipoli or were they evident much earlier?

The ANZAC legend has not remained static. It was expected that as the last of the World War I diggers died (see Source 6.142), the significance of Gallipoli would begin to fade. There was some decline in interest in Anzac Day in the decades after World War II, but since the 1980s there has been a resurgence of interest in the ANZAC legend and the Gallipoli story. The reasons for this are complex, possibly related to the attention paid to the declining numbers of World War I veterans, films such as *Gallipoli*, and the pilgrimage of Gallipoli survivors in 1990 to mark the 75th anniversary of the campaign.

Perspectives on the ANZAC legend

Perspectives on the ANZAC legend have changed over the decades, and there are as many views or perspectives on the idea of Anzac as there are Australians. Some have suggested that other war engagements are more deserving of national commemoration. The battles at Pozières and Villers-Bretonneux in World War I, Tobruk and Kokoda in World War II, and the Battle of Long Tan in the Vietnam War have all been suggested as possible replacements for Gallipoli. Others have argued that the focus on Anzac Day glorifies war and that other aspects of the national story, good and bad, should be recognised alongside (or instead of) the Gallipoli landing.

APPLY 6.17

- 1 As a class, discuss the arguments for and against the idea that 'Australia became a nation on the shores of Gallipoli'.
- 2 What evidence is there to show that political leaders and ordinary Australians see a need for Anzac Day?
- 3 Locate some articles and opinion pieces that have appeared in Australian newspapers about Anzac Day. Examine the contrasting perspectives on Anzac Day and its role in Australia's sense of national identity contained in these articles.



Source 6.142 Alec Campbell, the last living Gallipoli veteran. He died on 16 May 2002 at the age of 103. Campbell enlisted in the AIF at age 16, after lying about his age to meet the minimum age requirement of 18 years. On the day of his funeral, flags were flown at half mast around Australia and overseas, to pay respect to this final link of Gallipoli.

EXTEND 6.19

- 1 What evidence is there to show that governments in Australia see a need for Anzac Day?

Perspectives on the Anzac legend

Source 6.143

The legend of Anzac was born on 25 April 1915, and was reaffirmed in eight months' fighting on Gallipoli. Although there was no military victory, the Australians displayed great courage, endurance, initiative, discipline, and mateship. Such qualities came to be seen as the Anzac spirit.

Many saw the Anzac spirit as having been born of egalitarianism and mutual support. According to the stereotype, the Anzac rejected unnecessary restrictions, possessed a sardonic sense of humour, was contemptuous of danger, and proved himself the equal of anyone on the battlefield.

Extract from the Australian War Memorial website

Source 6.144

The qualities of egalitarianism, initiative and resourcefulness underpinned much of the immediate post-war ... portrayals of the 'digger' ... However, the personal post-war struggles of returned soldiers ... ill-health, permanent incapacity, alcoholism, unemployment and severe depression ... were conditions that characterised some of the lives of returned ... men ... Many men and their families would endure the mental and physical debilities ... silently and stoically ... they, perhaps unconsciously, supported the emerging 'digger' stereotype. It was ironic that the ceremonial tradition of the Anzac legend, through its powerful and symbolic celebration of the 'digger' and Empire loyalty, effectively muted the voices of dissent and veiled the many individual sufferings and unpleasant memories of returned ... soldiers and their families.

Extract from Dale Blair, *Dinkum Diggers*, Melbourne University Press, 2001, p. 194

Source 6.145

We suggest that Australians might look to alternative national traditions that gave pride of place to equality of opportunity and the pursuit of social justice: the ideals of a living wage and decent working conditions, the long struggle for sexual and racial equality. In the myth of Anzac, military achievements are exalted above civilian ones; events overseas are given priority over Australian developments; slow and patient nation-building is eclipsed by the bloody drama of battle; action is exalted above contemplation.

The key premise of the Anzac legend is that nations and men are made in war. It is an idea that had currency a hundred years ago. Is it not now time for Australia to cast it aside?

Extract from *What's wrong with Anzac?*, Marilyn Lake and Henry Reynolds, 2010, p. 167

INTERPRET 6.23

- 1 Do any of these perspectives on Anzac Day reject primary sources? Do you think this is significant?
- 2 Categorise these sources into pro- and anti-Anzac Day perspectives. What evidence is used to support these perspectives?
- 3 Categorise these sources into official and non-official. Identify any links between these categories and their perspectives. Discuss your findings as a class.

REVIEW 6.26

- 1 When was Anzac Day first commemorated? When did it become a public holiday?
- 2 How long did it take Australian newspapers to publish news of the Australian landing at Anzac Cove on 25 April 1915? How did they report it?
- 3 Who was the last living veteran of the Gallipoli campaign?
- 4 Which battles are sometimes suggested as alternatives to Gallipoli as battles that could be commemorated?

6.7

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

HOW ARE THE WARS COMMEMORATED?

» Explain how and why Australians have commemorated the wars

- 1 Create a list of symbols and traditions that are used to commemorate Anzac Day, such as red poppies. How many of these are used in your school's Anzac Day ceremony and why are they used? (5 marks)
- 2 Explain how Sources 6.143, 6.144 and 6.145 help you to understand the way Anzac Day is commemorated in Australia. (10 marks).
- 3 In a short written statement, explain Anzac Day to an overseas visitor. (10 marks)

» Explain different perspectives on the Anzac legend

- 4 What evidence is there to support the idea that 'interest in Anzac Day has never been stronger'? (5 marks)
- 5 Outline the reasons why Anzac Day came to be recognised as Australia's national day. (10 marks)
- 6 Provide arguments that Anzac Day is no longer relevant to the Australia of the 21st century. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

An alternative national identity?

- 1 Conduct research on the Australasian Antarctic Expedition (1911–1914) led by Douglas Mawson. During your research look for evidence that would support this official statement by the Australian government: 'The AAE has joined the ranks of those expeditions that are legendary for the sheer tenacity of spirit, physical endurance, loyalty and accomplishment that was achieved under profoundly difficult circumstances.'
- 2 Analyse the characteristics of Mawson's expedition that could contribute to Australia's sense of national identity.
- 3 In a 500-word reflective piece of writing, consider the following questions.
 - a Why do you think Australians chose to celebrate Australia's nationhood through military achievements, such as Gallipoli, rather than the peaceful achievements of Australians in Antarctica?
 - b Do you think Australia's sense of national identity would be any different today if its involvement in Antarctic exploration had been seen as 'Australia's coming of age'?

Perspectives of war from around the world

- 1 Few Australians know about the heroic deeds of the Canadian troops on the Western Front during World War I. Canada was the oldest dominion of the British Empire and, in that sense, it was senior to Australia. The Canadians had more troops on the Western Front than Australia and fought in more battles.
 - a Conduct research to find out about the contribution of Canada's troops to the Allies' victories in World War I and compare it to Australia's involvement, including the achievements of forces under the brilliant Canadian commander General Arthur Currie.
- 2 It is likely that Canadian students would know little about the ANZACs, other than the fact that they failed at Gallipoli and came to the Western Front late.

Talk to someone in your community who grew up in another country to:

 - find out their level of knowledge and perspectives on the ANZACs at Gallipoli
 - find out about the military heroes and events that hold a place in the war legends of that country.