

WAR AND UPHEAVAL

STUDY AND EXAM GUIDE

FOR VCE AUSTRALIAN HISTORY

SAMPLE PAGES

HTAV

Charlene Landvogt
Ian Lyell



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Key to icons used in this book



Economic impacts



Social impacts



Military impacts



Political impacts



REVISION CHECKLISTS



AREA OF STUDY 1: FOUNDATIONS (1909–1950)

Below is all the relevant key knowledge for Area of Study 1 (AOS1) in the VCE Australian History Study Design. You may be required to answer a SAC or an exam question about any of these.

Revise each point carefully. Test whether you can explain it to another person or write about it in a practice exam question. Once you have revised each item, tick it off the checklist.

There are four key knowledge dot points. These are associated with significant events, key ideas, diverse perspectives, and change and continuity.

AOS1	KEY KNOWLEDGE	TOPICS	Notes	Test
 The significant events that contributed to debates about Australia's involvement and participation in war.	<i>Defence Act 1909</i>	1.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The outbreak of World War I	2.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The conscription referendums of 1916 and 1917	2.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The outbreak of World War II in Europe	3.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The 1914 declaration of war against Japan	4.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The 1942 Fall of Singapore	4.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The deployment of conscripts beyond Australia in World War II	4.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
 The ideas that influenced attitudes to and perspectives on Australian participation in conflicts.	Loyalty to the British Empire	1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	A developing Australian identity	1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The beliefs about compulsory military training and service	1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Pacifism	2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Home defence	3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Fears of invasion	1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The place of women in military service and on the home front	2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



	KEY KNOWLEDGE	TOPICS	Notes	Test
 The diverse and competing perspectives that influenced debates about participation, enlistment and conscription in World War I and World War II.	Religious beliefs and sectarianism	1.2, 2.2, 3.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Political beliefs	1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Women's movements	1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The ways in which these perspectives were reflected in propaganda and censorship	1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	How these debates differed from those occurring in other parts of the British Empire	1.2, 2.2, 3.2, 4.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
 The extent to which the social experiences and responses to the impact of World War I and World War II on the home front changed and/or remained the same.	Economic pressures	2.3, 4.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Industrial unrest	2.3, 4.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Voluntary work	2.3, 4.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The impacts of government Acts (<i>War Precautions Act 1914 and National Security Act 1939</i>)	2.3, 4.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Women's experiences of war	2.4, 4.4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Restrictions to enlistment	2.3, 4.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The experiences of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and other races	2.4, 4.4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The impact of increased government activity in the economic and social life of Australia	2.3, 4.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The repatriation of returned servicemen	2.3, 4.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>




AREA OF STUDY 2: TRANSFORMATIONS (1950–1992)

Below is all the relevant key knowledge for Area of Study 2 (AOS2) in the VCE Australian History Study Design. You may be required to answer a SAC or an exam question about any of these.

Revise each point carefully. Test whether you can explain it to another person or write about it in a practice exam question. Once you have revised each item, tick it off the checklist.

There are five key knowledge dot points. These are associated with significant events, key ideas, diverse perspectives and change and continuity.

AOS2	KEY KNOWLEDGE	TOPICS	Notes	Test
 The significant events that contributed to debates regarding Australia's reasons for involvement in war and conflict after 1950.	The Cold War	5.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The 1951 ANZUS Treaty	6.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The 1954 SEATO	7.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The Korean war	6.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	War in the Indo-Malayan region in the 1950s	6.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The Vietnam War	7.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The establishment and abolition of conscription	7.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The 1987 Welcome Home parade in Sydney	8.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
 The ideas that influenced attitudes and perspectives.	Fears of communism and the Domino Theory	6.2, 7.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Alliances with the United Kingdom and the United States	6.2, 7.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The principle of forward defence and regional security	6.2, 7.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Equality for service personnel	7.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	KEY KNOWLEDGE	TOPICS	Notes	Test
 The diverse and competing perspectives about, and reasons for, involvement in conflict, voluntary enlistment and compulsory service.	Introduction of National Service and conscription since 1951	6.3, 7.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Changing alliances	7.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Australia's commitments to the United Nations and ensuing concerns	6.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The ways in which Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples served	6.3, 7.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The participation of women in the armed forces	6.3, 7.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Allowing LGBTQIA+ people to serve openly	8.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Debates regarding enlistment and participation in conflicts from political parties and other groups	7.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The influence of the media	6.3, 7.3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
 The extent to which the social experiences, participation in, and responses to conflict, voluntary enlistment and compulsory service in Australia changed and/or remained the same.	Support and opposition for participation in conflicts overseas	9.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The differing experiences of war veterans	9.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The Save Our Sons campaign	9.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The Moratorium Movement	9.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The impact of these conflicts on Australian popular culture	9.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	The influence of war commemoration and memorials	9.1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
 The extent of continuity and change in Australia's experiences of war and conflict from 1909–1992.	The extent of continuity and change in Australia's experiences of war and conflict from 1909–1992	9.1, 9.2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

AREA OF STUDY 1: FOUNDATIONS

TOPIC 1: THE EVE OF WORLD WAR I

Timeline of key events, 1909–1913

Lord Kitchener arrives in South Australia in 1910. *State Library of South Australia: PRG 280/1/4/172.*



**Prime Minister
Alfred Deakin
(Liberal Party)**

—**1909** Great Britain proposes the introduction of a Pacific naval fleet.

—**21 September 1909**
Prime Minister Alfred Deakin introduces a bill for compulsory training.

—**13 December 1909** The *Defence Act 1909* is introduced.

—**21 December 1909** Lord Kitchener begins tour of Australia.

—**21 February 1910** Lord Kitchener's tour of Australia ends.

**Prime Minister
Andrew Fisher
(Labor Party)**

—**29 April 1910** Prime Minister Andrew Fisher takes office.

—**1 January 1911**
Compulsory clauses in the Defence Act are introduced. The post-Federation army effectively ends; the cadet scheme commences.

—**23 May–20 June 1911**
Imperial Conference: Australia promises Great Britain the Royal Australian Navy (RAN) and 20,000 men if Great Britain enters a war.

—**27 June 1911** Royal Military College, Duntroon, opens.

—**10 July 1911** The RAN is formed.

—**December 1911**
Recruitment for the Australian Flying Corps commences in London.

—**1912**
The South Australian Quakers form the Australian Freedom League.

**Prime Minister
Joseph Cook
(Liberal Party)**

—**24 June 1913** Prime Minister Joseph Cook takes office.

—**4 October 1913** RAN's newest ships arrive in Australia.

1.1 SIGNIFICANT EVENTS, 1909–1913

Significant events that contributed to debates about Australia's involvement and participation in war

KEY KNOWLEDGE	CAUSES	HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE
<p>Defence Act 1909</p>	<p><i>The Defence Act was originally passed in 1903 and allowed the 'compulsory call-up of men for home defence in time of war'.¹</i></p> <p>Long-term causes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Public, military and political censure collectively caused the demise of Australia's post-Federation army and the momentum to create a new one.² ▶ In addition to the inadequacies of the post-Federation army, there were many imperial threats that worried Australia: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▷ Much of the Royal Australian Navy (RAN) had returned to the United Kingdom to counter the German threat. British garrisons had left Australia by 1870. ▷ Australia feared Japan's expansion following the Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905). ▷ Australia feared French expansion (e.g., New Hebrides [modern-day Vanuatu]). ▷ Australia feared German imperialism (e.g., in New Guinea) and German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck's threat of making Germany a naval superpower. ▷ Mounting tensions in Europe could result in another war. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ The problems in the post-Federation army were significant, as they resulted in change. The Australian government realised that it needed to improve home defence. ▶ The Australian government's desire to amend the <i>Defence Act 1903</i> revealed how fearful Australia was of imperialist expansion and potential war with Germany, Japan and France.
	<p>Short-term cause</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ In 1909, British Field Marshal Horatio Herbert Kitchener visited Australia and recommended the introduction of compulsory military service to generate an army of 80,000 men. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ The Defence Act was significant because a large number of Australians were impacted by the introduction of the Universal Service Scheme, 1911–1929. The following was stipulated in the Defence Act: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▷ Boys aged 12–14 years had to join junior cadets and engage in 90 hours of training per year. ▷ Boys aged 14–18 years had to join senior cadets and engage in 64 hours of training per year. ▷ Men aged 18–25 years had to join the Commonwealth Military Force, requiring 16 full days of training per year. ▷ Men over 25 had to renew their annual registration to the militia each year.³

KEY KNOWLEDGE	CAUSES	HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE
Defence Act 1909, Section 138.1(b)	<p><i>It became apparent that the Defence Act was not adequate to ensure Australia's defence. As a result, the Act was amended in 1909, with changes taking effect in 1911. Two important amendments occurred:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <i>The introduction of compulsory military training</i> <i>The exclusion of people not of sufficient European descent from this training</i> 	
	<p>Long-term causes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ In 1909, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples were not considered citizens of Australia. ▶ The White Australia policy (1901) had spread the idea that non-Europeans—especially non-white Europeans—were not welcome in Australia. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Despite being barred from service, the number of Indigenous peoples who did participate in World War I was significant, as it revealed their commitment to Australia. ▶ This section of the Defence Act was significant because it revealed the extent of racism and anti-Indigenous Australian sentiment that existed in prewar Australia.

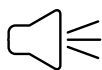
1.2 IDEAS THAT INFLUENCED, 1909–1913

Ideas that influenced attitudes to and perspectives on Australian participation in conflicts, 1909–1913

KEY KNOWLEDGE	IDEAS THAT INFLUENCED	DIVERSE AND COMPETING PERSPECTIVES
<p>Beliefs about compulsory military training and service</p> <p><u>pacifist</u> Someone who opposes war and violence.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Compulsory military training resulted in boys as young as 12 being schooled in the defence of their country. This generated some resistance and division in Australian society. Debate surrounded the extent of opposition to the scheme. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▷ Historian Peter Stanley suggests that the scheme led to many joining the Australian Freedom League (established in 1912).⁴ ▷ The Quakers (a religious <u>pacifist</u> group against the war) opposed the scheme, as they believed military training would be 'morally injurious' to young boys.⁵ ▷ Some members of the public also opposed the scheme. Between 1911 and 1915, 34,000 men who failed to enlist in the militia were prosecuted, and a further 7000 were sentenced to jail. Many others faced fines. Exemptions to service could be granted based on special criteria (e.g., physical handicap, illness, residence).⁶ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'The time allowed for the registration of lads under the Defence Act ends on January 31. Great reluctance is being shown by many parents in the enrolment of their boys.' ('Defence Act,' <i>Clarence and Richmond Examiner</i>, 21 January 1911, 9) • 'I think it [compulsory training] is a splendid idea.' ('Compulsory Military Training,' <i>The Albury Banner and Wodonga Express</i>, 27 November 1908, 13)

KEY KNOWLEDGE	IDEAS THAT INFLUENCED	DIVERSE AND COMPETING PERSPECTIVES
Developing Australian identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ The creation of an army of Australian men was undoubtedly linked to the creation of a growing Australian identity. ▶ Some worried patriotism was lacking in the 'youth' of the 1900s and viewed compulsory military service as a way of developing an Australian identity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'A true patriotic feeling, with its necessary self-denial and self-sacrifice, is almost entirely absent in our young population. This want of patriotism [is] one of the forces working against the introduction of the proposed scheme of defence.'⁷ (J.C. Brünnich, chemist in the Queensland Department of Agriculture and Stock)
Fears of invasion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Many Australians feared German and Japanese expansion. ▶ The fear of non-white migration, which many Australians considered invasion, still permeated the Australian mindset. ▶ Many Australians viewed compulsory military training as essential to calming these fears. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'Our Australian youths seem to take the world easy—football, cricket, champion fights and so forth. But my idea is to be ready. It will be too late when our flag goes down and the yellow flag is hoisted. ... I do not think there is much hope of a Chinese invasion. I do not believe in compulsory military training, for ours is a free land, but it would not be free if we were compelled to train.' ('Compulsory Military Training,' <i>The Albury Banner and Wodonga Express</i>, 27 November 1908, 13)
Loyalty to the British Empire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ The government tried to appeal to Australians' sense of loyalty to Great Britain to encourage men to complete their compulsory service. ▶ Writing by Australian journalist William H. Fitchett was used to inspire patriotism and compel young men to engage in military service. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'The history of the Empire of which we are subjects—the story of the struggles and sufferings by which it has been built up—is the best legacy which the past has bequeathed to us.'⁸ (William H. Fitchett)
Political beliefs <u>Industrial Workers of the World</u> A general labour union established in 1905 for workers of all industries, regardless of sector.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Most members of the Australian Labor Party and other far-left political groups opposed conscription. One group was the <u>Industrial Workers of the World</u>, a far-left socialist union that gained prominence in World War I for its anti-conscription and anti-war campaigns. ▶ A major exception to this was Labor leader Billy Hughes, who would become prime minister in 1915. He saw compulsory training as part of the Australian duty. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'If there were men who utterly failed to realise their responsibilities, it is the Britishers of today, the Australians of today. ... We [talk] about peace, and about the glorious might of the British Navy, we invent any excuse, we put forward any plausible lie, rather than do our plain duty.'⁹ (Billy Hughes) • 'Members of this party refuse to fight for a country they don't own!' ('Socialists' Celebration,' <i>The Singleton Argus</i>, 4 May 1911, 4)

The ways in which perspectives were reflected in propaganda and censorship



Propaganda and political beliefs


Understandably, the 'boy conscription' debate was publicised in the media. The Bulletin published this cartoon on its front cover on Thursday 11 October 1906. The caption reads, 'The Sentinel of the Pacific: Wanted, Compulsory Military Training.'

*A sentinel is someone who has been tasked with guarding something.



KEY KNOWLEDGE	IDEAS THAT INFLUENCED	DIVERSE AND COMPETING PERSPECTIVES
Religious beliefs and sectarianism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Generally, the Presbyterian and Anglican congregations supported the Universal Service Scheme. ▶ Of course, there were pockets of resistance within certain religious groups. For example, many Quakers supported the Australian Freedom League, who opposed conscription.¹⁰ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'The [Australian Freedom] league ... had only one purpose, namely, to abolish conscription by [reversing] the compulsory clauses of the Defence Act.' ('Australian Freedom League,' <i>The Advertiser</i>, 2 April 1914, 12) • '[The] supporting motions in the Anglican, Presbyterian and Methodist Assemblies and Synods lead to the unavoidable conclusion that the [powerful] weight of religious thought in Australia is in favour of the Defence Act.' ('Australian Defence Act,' <i>Clarence and Richmond Examiner</i>, 6 September 1913, 5)


How debates differed from those occurring in other parts of the British Empire




Comparison of sectarianism in Australia and the United Kingdom

Sectarian divisions originated in Great Britain and spread to the Australian colonies. Generally, two differing groups had emerged in Ireland before World War I. The first, Catholics, considered themselves Irish nationalists and wanted a free Ireland that was not under the control of England. The second, Protestants, were unionists and wanted Ireland to remain in the United Kingdom. Tensions between these groups were longstanding and had a ripple effect in Australia.¹¹

sectarian
Relating to religious, political or cultural groups and the differences between them.

KEY KNOWLEDGE	IDEAS THAT INFLUENCED	DIVERSE AND COMPETING PERSPECTIVES
Women's movements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Given the gains women had made from 1902, many felt more comfortable using their voice. ▶ Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902: non-Indigenous women aged 21 and over were given the right to vote in federal elections and stand for parliament. ▶ 1908: women were given the right to vote in Victorian elections. <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-top: 10px;">  <p>These dates are before the dates outlined in AOS1. However, the information proves useful for broader contextualisation.</p> </div>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'Happily, we are no longer obliged to discuss the question as to whether women should have a vote. ... The next step now is to direct the attention of women generally to their new responsibilities as electors, and to induce them to avail themselves of the privileges of the franchise.' ('Why Women Should Vote,' <i>The Score Advocate</i>, 25 November 1902, 4) • 'The "new woman" is the most ridiculous production of modern times and destined to be the most ghastly failure of this century. The "new woman" wants to retain all the privileges of her sex and secure besides all those of a man. She wants to be a man, and to remain a woman.' ('Should Women Vote,' <i>Delegate Argus and Border Post</i>, 23 August 1902, 7)

How debates differed from those occurring in other parts of the British Empire



Comparison of suffrage

Australia was one of the first Commonwealth nations to grant women suffrage. Other countries soon followed; however, many imposed limitations, such as restricting suffrage to property owners.¹²

When women were offered the franchise for federal elections

Australia: 1902 (limited to women of European background, aged 21 and over)

Canada: 1917

Great Britain and Ireland: 1918 (two-thirds of women, based on property qualification); 1929 (all women)

New Zealand: 1893

How To Answer Explanation Questions

Some exam questions will require you to develop a detailed explanation of a particular historical development and to use both the source and evidence from your own knowledge in your response.

These questions will likely use verbs like ‘explain’ and will be worth a few more marks (e.g., 4–6 marks). You should write at least as many sentences as the mark value of the question and aim to fill or exceed the allocated writing space.

The best responses to these questions will move smoothly between evidence from the sources and evidence from your own knowledge. Treat the source like a ‘springboard’: use evidence from it to launch into your response, then dive into exploring other developments you know about in great depth. End your response by returning to the source with a second (or third) short quotation that helps sum up your answer and clarifies how you are responding to the question.

Below are examples of how to unpack and respond to the two explanation sub-questions given on page 124.

Q **b. Using Source 10, Source 11 and your own knowledge, explain how anti-conscription propaganda influenced the perspectives of different groups in Australia. (6 marks)**

Unpacking the question

- The verb ‘explain’ means you need to give a step-by-step explanation of a historical process.
- The key knowledge point assessed by this question is anti-conscription propaganda.
- The scope of the question is the propaganda’s influence, which is a related term for the historical thinking concept ‘consequence’.
- The question instructs you to use both Source 10 and Source 11. You must select 1–2 feature(s) or quotation(s) from each to gain full marks. If you do not use the sources, you will not be able to achieve full marks, no matter how good your response is.
- The question also instructs you to use your own knowledge. This means you need to extend beyond the features of the source and include other points. To get full marks, you will need some specific evidence (such as laws, facts, dates, battles, statistics, quotations, etc.).

Unpacking the sources

- Start by reading the description of the sources. These will tell you that they are posters made by anti-conscription campaigners in 1917, meaning they are primary sources (made during the period being studied). This means the sources relate to the second conscription campaign.
- We have already examined Source 10. Quickly skim Source 11 to get a general understanding of what it is about.
 - » Source 11 was made by the Australian Labor Party, who opposed conscription and campaigned for Australians to vote ‘no’. By 1917, Prime Minister Billy Hughes was part of the Nationalist Party, as the Labor Party had fractured following the 1916 referendum.
 - » Read the text in Source 11. Who is it appealing to? Who is speaking? What are they saying?
 - » Look at the graphics used in Source 11. What is the relationship between the two people? What does the body language suggest?

- Then, closely re-examine both sources. This will ensure that you have not missed anything and will allow you to select information to use in your response. You could even annotate the sources to show features that will help you to answer the question. Do this by listing what you see in the source and explaining how this might connect to the question. Here is an example of how you might annotate Source 11:

Authorised by the Labor Party = appeals to those who have remained loyal to Labor.

Mum = appeals to mothers.

Embrace = mother figure is characterised as protective and maternal; appeals to women with children.



Anti-conscription = appeals to those who oppose conscription.

Dad = appeals to those who have fathers or husbands.

No = appeals to those who either intend to vote 'no', or are being persuaded to vote 'no'.

Gathering evidence from your own knowledge

Now, reflect on what you have learnt about anti-conscription propaganda. Gather 3–4 facts and determine how these help explain the influence such material had on the perspectives of different groups of Australians.

- During World War I, women were involved in pacifist organisations. Some notable examples include the Women's Peace Army (1915) and the Sisterhood of International Peace (1915).
- The Sisterhood of International Peace created propaganda that encouraged women to vote 'no' in the conscription referendums.
- Given the large involvement in peace movements, it made sense that the anti-conscription movement targeted women. Many anti-conscription posters targeted women's maternal instincts in particular. A famous example is the pacifist song 'I Didn't Raise My Son to Be a Soldier'.
- Women were not the only group who opposed conscription and were targeted by, or featured in, anti-conscription propaganda:
 - » Unions opposed conscription, as they worried that non-European workers would be needed to fill the positions of conscripted men.
 - » Many Catholics, notably Archbishop Daniel Mannix, opposed conscription. This reflected long-held sectarian divisions between Irish Catholics and English Protestants.
 - » Many members of the Labor Party opposed conscription. This opposition intensified after the failure of the 1916 referendum.
 - » While many soldiers serving overseas voted in support of conscription, this majority was not as large as Hughes had hoped.