2016 VCE Australian History examination report

General comments

Responses to the historical sources and interpretations in Sections A and C of the 2016 Australian History examination were generally good, and students attempted to provide a structured and sequenced response in Section B. Responses to Section D were also managed very well; however, the second question was often not attempted or completed.

Students were able to demonstrate accurate and detailed knowledge, made relevant and coherent arguments and supported their ideas by using a variety of sources and accounts as evidence. Understanding the meaning of the various command terms in the questions also helped students to score more highly, as did recognising the various parameters of the questions to limit content. Responses established and maintained sound historical understanding, supported by evidence, and were not dominated by sequences of unattached quotes or lists of content. The aim to complete clear and focused responses is particularly important in an examination that has four ten-mark questions. Students scored more highly when they were able to use language precisely, qualifying their assertions appropriately to reflect the complexity of the subject and avoiding the tendency to produce an unqualified narrative. The higher-scoring students managed their time well, ensuring that they covered all sections of the examination with sufficient detail to develop complex responses when required. They also allocated their time appropriately within each section of the examination, paying attention to the various questions or components of each task. Some students filled the exact number of lines allocated to each question. Students should not think that they have to fill in all lines available or that they can only use these lines. Assessors read all material, including the extra space at the end of the book or answers written in a separate book.

Characteristics of low-scoring responses included lapses into narrative or general summary, vague or incorrect information, prepared answers that ignored the terms of the question or others that simply agreed with a statement when the question demanded an evaluation. It was also obvious that some students were relying on textbooks from the previous study design and included content that was no longer relevant. While these texts contain material that is still useful, they should be used with discretion. Close attention to the current study design, especially the specified areas of content, is essential preparation for the examination. Some students also answered both questions in Section C but this wasted valuable time and space. It is strongly recommended that teachers and students familiarise themselves with the layout of the examination paper prior to the examination.

Specific information

Note: Student responses reproduced in this report have not been corrected for grammar, spelling or factual information.

This report provides sample answers or an indication of what answers may have included. Unless otherwise stated, these are not intended to be exemplary or complete responses.
The statistics in this report may be subject to rounding resulting in a total more or less than 100 per cent.

**Section A**

Students were required to answer questions related to Sources 1–3.

**Question 1a.**

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Student responses needed to describe the attitudes of European settlers towards land in the Port Phillip District/Victoria between 1834 and 1860, as revealed in Source 1 and Source 2. There was no need to use any other information or sources. Most responses demonstrated a clear understanding of both sources and what they revealed. Most higher-scoring responses discussed these sources separately, clearly identifying each source and what it revealed. For Source 1, responses identified how Europeans thought of land as a source of power and wealth, as individualistic property that could be bought and sold. They quoted Broome clearly and succinctly. For Source 2 higher-scoring responses discussed Daintree’s photograph as a goldfield, noting the private property of individual residences but more importantly discussing the exploitation of land in the search for gold, irrespective of any environmental damage. Some low-scoring responses discussed only one of the sources, ignored the fact that Source 2 was a photograph of the gold diggings at Forest Creek, or discussed Aboriginal attitudes towards land or brought in other sources or information, neither of which was required by the question.

**Question 1b.**

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Students were asked to identify in Source 3 one Aboriginal response to the changed circumstances resulting from European settlement. Most students did this well, suggesting a range of possible interpretations of Gill’s image but were fairly consistent in noting the peaceful nature of the interaction, the implied position of European power and the Aborigines’ desire for European food, most likely a result of their dispossession. The second part of the question required students to measure how typical this response was. Higher-scoring responses were able to discuss briefly at least two other possible responses, usually discussing resistance and then adaptation, negotiation or accommodation. Some specific examples were given to support the discussion, often highlighting Aboriginal agency as a contrast to the passivity depicted in Source 3. Low-scoring responses did not move on from the source or tended to discuss European responses to Aborigines, which was not relevant to the question.

**Question 1c.**

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Responses needed to evaluate the extent to which a desire for land was the most significant motivation for immigration to the Port Phillip District/Victoria between 1834 and 1860. High-scoring responses sustained a controlled sequential discussion, using detailed evidence from a range of sources or examples. These responses usually began by acknowledging the importance of land across the entire time period but then went on to discuss the significance of gold. This was then
balanced by the identification of other factors, such as food, work or even marriage. Some answers linked the desire for land with more general principles of material advancement or economic security. With so much possible content, the higher-scoring answers maintained a clear focus and used examples directly. Low-scoring responses provided a general description rather than the evaluation required by the question, often limiting their examples to before 1850. Students should have practice in dealing with specific date ranges across the area of study.

The following is an example of a high-scoring response. This response includes a range of motivations and supports the evaluation with evidence from contemporary accounts, secondary sources and historical interpretations.

A desire for land was certainly a very significant motivation for immigration, particularly among wealthier migrants, but other factors – like escaping poverty and finding courtship – were also of great importance.

The desire to benefit off the Port Phillip District’s land was undoubtedly a significant motivation for immigration. The land was viewed in favourable terms, and identified as potentially very profitable. Indeed, John Batman described it as ‘the most beautiful sheep pasturage’ he had ever seen; such descriptions of ‘untold wealth’, Richard Broome contends, quickened the hearts of many men and spurred on immigration. European settlers largely valued the land in terms of its monetary value; so the Port Phillip District, which was perceived as up for the taking and very suitable to pastoralist needs, was considered an alluring destination for migration. This shows that a desire for land was certainly a significant motivation for immigration; but other factors were also quite prevalent.

The allure of gold was another significant motivation for immigration. Gold was perceived as a quick way to secure a fortune; so many migrants came on the back of a desire to find wealth on the alluvial fields. The significance of the allure of gold can be seen by the demographic changes induced by its presence; historian Sarah Mirams contends that Victoria’s population ‘increased sevenfold’. Historian Geoffrey Serle supports this, contending that Melbourne’s population swelled from 23,000 to over 80,000, while the colony of Victoria as a whole increased to 250,000.

Indeed, the allure of gold was certainly also a significant motivation for immigration; while its significance may be considered diminished because it was only prevalent from 1851-1860, the great and widespread demographic change the presence of gold produced points towards its importance as a motive for immigration.

Another significant motivation for immigration to the Port Phillip district was the desire to escape poverty and find employment, as well as, for women, to find courtship and marriage. Set against the backdrop of the disputes and potatoe famines of the 1840s, the district was considered an attractive location to improve one’s life. Indeed, Michael Martin, a shepherd, wrote how that it had ‘plenty of provisions and plenty of employment’ and Rev. D. Lang wrote that the district was ‘in the highest degree conducive to the physical comfort and happiness of man’. Such mellifluent descriptions encouraged migration. Some women also came to find a husband, as the district was heavily male orientated. Mirams supports this, ‘Migration was touted as the antidote to lonely spinsterhood’.

Section B

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Page 3
Students were required to write an essay on either Question 2 or Question 3.

It was obvious that most students were familiar with the style of essay writing demanded by the assessment criteria. There were many very good essays that addressed the question in an introduction and established a relevant sequence of well-constructed and coherent paragraphs, each making use of a range of evidence from both contemporary accounts and historians’ perspectives. Many students also displayed an amazing depth of knowledge and an ability to remember many specific details and exact quotes from their reading. Higher-scoring responses not only contained more detail and developed a more complex or wide-ranging argument, but also recognised the specific terms and parameters of the question. Mid-range responses often displayed good knowledge of the area of study but lost touch with the question as they continued to list content. In contrast, using historical sources and interpretations in the service of an argument was a feature of higher-scoring responses. Over the course of the year, it is worthwhile for students to discuss the assessment criteria and how they might be addressed.

Most answers to Question 2, which was the more popular question, did not include detailed discussion of the Great War as a ‘force that shaped the new nation’, with students preferring instead to limit their chosen content to the period before 1914, despite the period available being 1890–1920. The first assessment criterion addressed the ‘specific demands of the essay question’ while the second criterion covered ‘knowledge … appropriate for the essay question’. Students and teachers should note that when the time period specified within the question includes the war period, it is expected that some consideration of the impact of the Great War will be a part of the response.

Question 2 asked students to measure the extent that ‘White Australia’ was ‘the dominant force that shaped the new nation’. Many students argued that this was the case to a very large extent, pointing to racist elements in the development of Australian nationalism and then how those ideas became embodied in various constitutional, legislative and judicial decisions. Students could also discuss how the Great War affirmed Australians’ sense of nationhood and racial superiority as the Anzac replaced the bushman as a national archetype. Other students chose to challenge the idea of ‘White Australia’ as a ‘dominant force’, arguing that loyalty to Britain, economic security and political imperatives were also significant forces.

The following extract is the concluding part of a high-scoring response. It shows clear engagement with the question, builds on the previous paragraph about the legislation that enacted the White Australia Policy and uses information and historical interpretations as evidence.

The dominant vision of a ‘White Australia’ also dictated that the vision of a ‘working man’s paradise’ was only applicable to whites. An example of this was the invalid and Old Age Pension Act of 1908 where those over the age of 60 or those permanently emancipated from work received annual salaries of £26. The paradigm of the pension is encapsulated by Rod Kemp, who stated that ‘the nation began to realise a sense of deep national responsibility to every single unit in the community.’ Yet this is not entirely accurate as non-whites were excluded from the bill. Another example of a victory for the workingman that was contained to whites was the 1907 Harvester Judgement, which led to the establishment of a basic wage of 42 shillings a week. According to sitting judge, Justice Higgins, it allowed workers for the first time to live in ‘frugal comfort’. McDonald argues that the decision also embodied the public interest that ‘the selfish energy of capitalism had to be disciplined by the moral rigour of social justice.’ Hence the period between 1890 and 1920 brought possible prosperity to those who were both working class and fitted the dominant vision of a ‘White Australia’.

The vast disparity in experiences between white men and women and Aborigines and other non-Europeans demonstrated that visions of Australia being a ‘working man’s paradise’ and a ‘social laboratory’ were present. However they were confined in their application because of the overall dominant vision of a ‘White Australia’.
Question 3 asked students to measure the extent that World War I disrupted ‘the optimism underpinning the new nation’. While no time period was specified many students rightly assumed that material from the years 1890–1920 was available for use, though most responses focused on the post-Federation period. Many answers built a strong case for disruption, establishing the optimism of the pre-war period and contrasting that with the political, economic and social consequences of the War. There was a large number of responses that provided some challenge to this idea, usually concerning the Anzac legend and pride in the achievements of the Australian Imperial Force. Low-scoring responses struggled to discuss the term ‘optimism’ effectively or simply tried to establish the disruption caused by the War in a general manner.

The following high-scoring student response is a thoughtful and in some ways provocative argument, contending that optimism was in some ways destroyed, fostered in others or even reaffirmed.

*The Australian experience of WWI in some ways disrupted the optimism of the new nation, but in other ways provided opportunities for unification and celebration behind new national symbols. Societal division was common in the war, leading in some ways to a bitter population. However, in other instances, the war allowed for nationalistic sentiments to be fostered and pride in old visions to be increased.*

Prior to World War I, the new nation of Australia was largely confident and assured. A large part of the nation’s optimism stemmed from its reputation, as historians Peel and Twomey put it, as a ‘social laboratory’, and by its egalitarian and democratic nature. Due to the conflict, large parts of this optimism faced testing, and some of it was destroyed. The conscription referendum campaign was one event which led to societal splintering, and a degradation of the nation’s hope and confidence. Historian Russel Ward contends that the ‘conscription referendum campaign divided the nation into rancorously hostile groups’, and that ‘labour parliamentarians were hopelessly divided on the issue’. The divisive nature of the conscription debate thrust the Australian nation into conflict, dividing the public along sectarian as well as conscientious lines. Such instances of division were exacerbated by the increased levels of class conflict taking place at that time. Prior to the war, the workingman and his family were recipients to many progressive benefits, like greater power in industrial disputes through the conciliation and arbitration Act of 1904. During the war, however, this sense of egalitarianism was in some cases forgotten, and industrial disputes became increasingly inflamed. Indeed, historian Joan Beaumont contends that workers ‘had lost faith in the ability of the arbitration system’, and that further ‘Australia lost the capacity for the political and social experimentation which had placed it in a vanguard internationally in the years before 1914’. In this way, it can be seen that the optimism which underpinned the new nation was in many ways disrupted – degraded by increasing sectarian and class division.

However, the crisis of WWI also saw Australia’s optimism and pride fostered through new channels. Prior to the conflict, many Australians placed great value in the figure of the bushman, a strong and revolutionary character. This celebration of the bushman can be seen in Tom Robert’s famous painting ‘Shearing of the Rams’ led to new national celebration and pride, rather than a disruption of optimism.

The conflict of WWI also reaffirmed some parts of the vision which underpinned Australia’s optimism. Particularly, the war increased Australia’s belief in the superiority of the White race and the inferiority of others. Many Australians had always held a strong conviction in the superiority of the white race, expressed by Prime Minister Alfred Deakin, ‘at the very first instant of our national career we are as one for a white Australia’. The War increased and emphasised these beliefs. Historian Stuart Macintyre supports this: ‘an upsurge in anti-foreign behaviour swept the country as the passions released by war hardened the identification of nations with race’. The war also saw German Australians cast under the umbrella of discrimination; McKernan suggests they were ‘harassed by neighbours and vilified in newspapers’. The increased belief in this ethos of White superiority, and the belief that, as Prime Minister Edmund Barton said, other races were ‘unequal and inferior’, is another way in which the optimism of
Australia was not destroyed.

Ultimately, the experience of World War I destroyed some of the optimism which underpinned the nation. Disruption was caused by the conscription debates and increased class division. In other ways, however, the nation’s pride was focussed and increased; the ANZAC became a source of great nationalistic sentiment, and the Australian’s belief in especially racial superiority was enhanced and focussed.

Section C

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Section C asked students to answer either Question 4 (using sources 4 and 5) or Question 5 (using sources 6 and 7).

However, some students attempted both Question 4 and Question 5, or parts thereof. Students need to follow the instructions on the exam.

Both Questions 4a. and 5a. were handled very well. Responses to Question 4a. noted the need to supplement food at a local school, the shoeless child in the foreground of the Hood photograph and the obvious needs of even large public institutions, were all signs of deprivation. The key word in the question was ‘wellbeing’ and was specifically addressed by the majority of responses. Responses to Question 5a. pointed to Australia’s relationship with Britain as a reason for Australian involvement in World War II, though higher-scoring responses acknowledged German aggression and the invasion of Poland, the patient negotiation and the position of Australia as one of a ‘great family of nations’ as part of Menzies’s explanation. Source 7 offered a more direct explanation of imminent danger as a reason for involvement in the Pacific War without reference to Britain or other nations. Some low-scoring responses either ignored the sources or went beyond them. Both questions required discussion of the sources only.

In contrast, responses to Questions 4b. and 5b. contained much discussion of the sources, at times repeating information that had been used in the previous questions. Question 4b. asked for a measure of the accuracy of the sources in relation to the ‘shared experience of the Great Depression’. High-scoring responses provided a brief contention followed by two or three points, each supported by information or evidence from students’ own knowledge. There was a wide range of possible content, though most students agreed that the sources were illustrative of
common experiences but not all-encompassing. Responses used examples of similar suffering or deprivation and balanced these with examples of those who were not affected by the Depression or those who may have even benefited. Most were able to refer to one or more of Potts, Cottle, McCalman or Lowenstein, albeit briefly. Question 5b. asked for identification of two changes called for in Source 7 and then an explanation of the changes. High-scoring responses identified the demands for contribution and compliance, then explained the demand by using their own knowledge of the period of ‘total war’. It is worth considering answering a question like this with two paragraphs, with clear identification and the attached explanation in each paragraph. Perspectives from McKernan, Darian-Smith and Macintyre were often quoted, though information of the context of the War (usually focused on 1942) was also provided as effective evidence.

Many responses to Questions 4c. and 5c. were very general in content, while others were limited in range or lacking in knowledge. High-scoring answers to Question 4c. discussed various federal and state governments (and the specific plans that were proposed and/or instituted) in measuring government effectiveness. It was important to move beyond one government or plan. High-scoring answers to Question 5c. distinguished between the Menzies and Curtin governments and avoided simple conclusions about their ability to maintain cohesion. Low-scoring responses tended to portray the Menzies government as ineffective, while the Curtin government saved Australia. It was important to acknowledge the different phases of the War and the different levels of cohesion as a consequence of government action.

The following high-scoring responses illustrate direct discussion supported briefly by evidence. They also demonstrate an attempt to provide some complexity.

Question 4c.

Undoubtedly, the Australian government’s responses to the crisis of the Depression were initially futile in combatting the crisis. However, it would be remiss not to note that the government eventually became more effective in combatting the crisis of the depression.

Initially, the government responded ineffectively to the crisis. Sir Otto Niemeyer’s advice that Australia should ‘tighten [its] belt’ and prioritise loan repayment to England was a biased and ineffective response to the Depression crisis given that it did not address the ‘growing issue’ (Miram) of unemployment and those in poverty. Similarly, Scullin’s ‘grow more wheat’ campaign was futile as it made wheat, a commodity which had already lost its value, go into surplus and did not address the issues created by the Depression. Arguably, it exacerbated them. Theodore’s plan, which was to simply ‘print more money’ (Engwerda) was an ineffective response rejected by parliament as it would only cause hyper-inflation. The strongest response of all, Jack Lang’s plan which included ‘halting all payments on loan to England’ (Engwerda) and increasing employment was rejected by a conservative parliament. Thus, the government initially responded ineffectively.

However, it must be noted that eventually the government responded more effectively. The creation of ‘The Sustenance’ (colloquially known as ‘the susso’ (Miram)) helped alleviate some of the strain created by the Depression. Relief works such as the Great Ocean Road which 66% of the unemployed were involved in 1932 also helped relieve some of the impact of the Depression as well as the recovery of the economy.

Thus, the government did not respond entirely ineffectively to the issues created by the Depression.

Question 5c.

To a relatively large extent, the Menzies and Curtin governments were able to maintain cohesion in Australian society, though in many cases they did not so much maintain it as suppress opposition.
The Menzies’ government’s introduction of the National Security Bill in 1939 essentially gave Menzies the right to ‘bypass democracy’ as historian Rosie Noble put it, and impose regulations on the population with the same status as laws. Throughout the period of 1939-1945, over 2000 regulations and 400 acts were passed. This extraordinary level of control, however, did not provoke significant backlash; rather, the urgency of the situation accentuated in government propaganda posters such as ‘He’s coming south’ inspired incredible cohesion. However, many argue that it was Curtin’s leadership, not Menzies, which inspired such cohesion. Historian Stuart Macintyre argues ‘it was the quality of John Curtin’s leadership that meant Australians were able to accept the sacrifices of this second war without the deep divisions of the first.’ This was evidenced by gallop polls showing that Curtin had an 80% approval rating of Australians.

However, as historian Michael McKernan argues ‘Because the period was quieter [than WWI], we should not assume there were no disputes or divisions.’ This is certainly true when considering the division between Australia’s working and middle classes. McKernan argues that the middle class ‘had little comprehension of the sacrifices made’ by the working class, who were forced to work 12-13 hour shifts in munition factories which they had been redirected to by the Manpower Directorate. However, workers generally could not strike or they would be shunned as ‘traitors’ in the media and their patriotism questioned by the middle class.

Therefore, the urgency of the situation and government appeals were able to inspire significant cohesion, but the notion of ‘equality of sacrifice’ is debatable considering that the working class bore much of the burden.

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Higher-scoring responses addressed the question directly, establishing a point of view that was argued consistently in a sequential, sustained discussion. They were clear, direct and relevant. Low-scoring responses tended to provide simple conclusions without any supporting evidence or simply ignored the question and wrote generally on the topic.

Question 6 – Australia’s involvement in the Vietnam War

This was the most popular question, and the majority of responses were able to provide some discussion of the role that loyalty to the United States played in generating unity among the Australian people. Many pointed to the early years of Australian involvement, especially Holt’s statement, ‘All the way with LBJ’ and Johnson’s visit to Australia in 1966. High-scoring responses provided some complexity in this discussion, including the early opposition to the War and other factors in the Australian involvement in Vietnam, such as the domino theory or fear of communism. Most high-scoring responses were able to refer to the growing division in society, referring to the Tet Offensive and My Lai massacre before moving on to the moratorium movement and wider abhorrence of the War as key factors that overrode loyalty to the United States. Low-scoring responses struggled with the complex nature of the question, ignoring either the degree of unity of the Australian people or the role of loyalty to the United States.

The following is an example of a high-scoring response.
Initially loyalty to the United States was one of the primary unifying factors in terms of support to the Vietnam War. However once the nature of war was exposed loyalty to the United States was overtaken by opposition to the war.

Menzies decision to send troops to Vietnam in April 1965 was initially met with united support from the Australian people. Despite the domino theory, that communism would eventually spread to Australia if Vietnam became communist, loyalty to the US was arguably the primary factor in entering the war. Menzies after the war admitted that in seeking to remain loyal to the Unites States ‘we were looking for a way in and not a way out’. However Ham argues that entering the Vietnam War ‘was a realistic assessment of Australia’s dependence on the United States.’ A mutual fear of communism present in both the US and Australia also united the people in support of involvement in the Vietnam War. … Thus loyalty to the United States was the primary but not sole cause in initially uniting the Australian people in support of the war.

Support for involvement in Vietnam did not last however and after being exposed to the atrocity of the war through the media, opposition became the most significant factor. In particular the events of the Tet offensive in February 1968 and the My Lai massacre on the 16th of March 1968 eroded support to an extent where loyalty to the US was no longer of utmost importance. Support of Australia’s involvement in the war fell from 62% in May 1967 to just 49% in 1968 implying a far from unified Australian people. Moreover the 1970 Moratoriums demonstrated that the Australian people were no longer unified by loyalty to the United States. McDonald argues that after 1968, it was no longer just individual aspects of the war that were wrong, the ‘war itself was wrong’. However there was still evidence of loyalty to the United States as Australian troops were not withdrawn by William McMahon until 1971, two years after the gradual withdrawal of US troops began. Ham adds that the government ‘could not be seen to make policy at the beck and call of a street march’. Loyalty to the United States initially united the Australian people in support for the war, such support dissipated as the atrocity of the war was exposed.

Question 7 – Aboriginal land rights

A large number of high-scoring responses drew on a wide range of content to support evaluations of the success of the strategies adopted by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities in their push for land rights. Most managed to make the distinction between protests, judicial proceedings and subsequent legislation and were able to build a brief chronology of change, establishing the strengths and weaknesses of at least two or three key movements. High-scoring responses were able to point to areas of success while acknowledging other ways in which these successes were limited, constrained or resisted. There were quite a few responses that discussed the 1967 Referendum at some length. While important to the context of the demands for land rights and the growth of Aboriginal nationalism, the 1967 Referendum is not specifically mentioned in the current study design. With so much material to draw from in such a limited time students and teachers should discuss the most effective choice of content, referring to the study design as their guide.

The following is an example of a high-scoring response.

The success of the strategies that were adopted by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities and leaders was relatively successful in their push for land rights, even though there were some limitations.

The use of the courts by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities and leaders was mostly successful in achieving land rights for the significant decisions. This is mostly seen through the Mabo and Wik decisions. This is because, as an Aboriginal spokesman said it, ‘is an unusual and stressful time’ for these people who ‘have to face alien laws and courts to prove they were the first people’. Consequently, the use of the courts for significant claims meant that the greater Australian public would not be fearing the land rights. The Mabo decision after 10 years in court was accepted and Justice Brennan stated that ‘it would be a great injustice’ if the
notion of ‘terra nullius continued.’ Subsequently, this meant that Aboriginal people were recognised as the first occupants of Australia and that the notion of terra nullius was therefore inadequate. Consequently, this ‘historic decision’ and ‘fundamental truth’ (Keating) meant that ‘historic legislation’ (Keating) was introduced in the Native Title Act (1993).

Furthermore, the Wik peoples’ claim for native title was won in 1996, where the notion that Native Title and pastoral interests could co-exist. Consequently, 42% of Australia’s mainland was made available for land rights claims and journalist Marlow said it was ‘a stepping stone’ to the Native Title amendment in 1998. Subsequently, the use of the courts was significant by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

The use of protests was also a significant and successful use adopted by Aboriginal people in pushing land rights claims. Events such as the Wave Hill Walk off in 1966 and the Tent Embassy (1972) are also of significant importance because it raised the issue to the Australian government, but also lead to the introduction of the Native Title (NT) Act in 1976. The Wave Hill Walk off had large community support as argued by Broome, and this lead to the significant moment of Whitlam pouring dirt in Vincent Lingiari’s hands in 1975, which lead to Paul Kelly’s song ‘From little things, big things grow’. Furthermore, the Tent Embassy (1972) adopted the five point policy which resulted in most of the claims being implemented by Whitlam when he was in office.

However, not all Torres Strait Islander and Aboriginal peoples and communities were successful in their claims. The Yolngu case in 1963 and the Yorta Yorta case in 1998 were both rejected because they couldn’t provide evidence that they still have a connection to the land, but they both showed faults, with the Native Title Act (for the Yorta Yorta people) and the unfair rights for the Yolngu people.

Overall, Indigenous and Torres Strait Islander peoples and communities were relatively successful with their strategies for adopting land rights.

**Question 8 – Equality for women**

A number of students provided a discussion of the changes in the role of women during World War II, which was outside the time frame of this area of study. Most responses, however, were able to recount the demands for workplace equality and high-scoring responses then pointed to changes in traditional gender roles that might have resulted from these demands. Many responses were able to show that in some ways changes in the workplace did not result in changes to gender roles. High-scoring responses also presented a discussion that pursued other factors that contributed to changes to gender roles.

The following is a high-scoring response that demonstrates some of the above qualities.

Widespread change to traditional gender roles in Australia predominantly stemmed from demands for workplace equality. Nevertheless, the achievement of substantial reform was also assisted by a plethora of campaigns and protests, as well as the widespread distribution of feminist literature. Demands for workplace equality were vital in the sense that they prompted the government to recognise the 25% pay disparity, with Nancy Anderson notably protesting ‘I work as a man, get paid as a woman’ in 1969. These protests considerably altered the domestic structure as women pioneered themselves into positions of employment that were intrinsically masculine. However, the achievement of the Equal Pay Act (1969) was ostensibly constrained by the fact it only benefitted 18% of the female population. Although this was ‘altered’ in 1972, men often reclassified positions to avoid paying women full wages. Reform to the gender roles that previously plagued the female populace were also induced by protests of groups such as the Women’s Action Committee (WAC) and the Women’s Electoral Lobby (WEL). The WEL was instrumental in raising awareness about rape in marriage and introducing the concept of fault free divorce. Moreover it influenced the decisions of Gough Whitlam, who ‘produced an aura of revolutionary government’ through establishing women’s refuges and quality childcare with Elizabeth Reid. Further more feminist literature such as Betty Friedan’s ‘The Feminine Mystique’...
and Kate Millett’s ‘Sexual Politics’ castigated traditional domestic roles placed onto them by the patriarchy, with Millett claiming ‘women are helpless because men control the basic mechanisms of society.’ Through these feminist texts emerged the utilisation of conscious raising, which heavily empowered women and offered them with an environment to convey experiences of oppression. Ultimately the demands for workplace equality, feminist lobby movements and feminist literature were vital in introducing change to traditional gender roles.

**Question 9 – New patterns of immigration**

High-scoring responses gave considerable attention to the new policy of multiculturalism in 1973, explaining the end of the White Australia Policy but acknowledging that there were significant continuities in Australians’ attitudes to non-white immigration. Many responses used the controversy created by Geoffrey Blainey and the emergence of One Nation as examples of these continuities. Lower scoring responses to this question tended to include material from other areas of study, especially the 1901 Immigration Restriction Act. While a brief mention of material from before 1965 was appropriate to build a context, the focus of the responses to this area of study should have been drawn from 1965–2000.

The following is an example of a high-scoring response.

> While the introduction of multiculturalism represented a new approach to resettlement, it did not entirely reflect a shift in the true attitudes of the Australian people towards immigration. Upon the Whitlam government coming to power, Immigration minister Al Grassby proclaimed the White Australia policy to ‘be dead’ and instead he espoused the notion of multiculturalism. During Whitlam’s government, however, there was a lack of change in immigration patterns, therefore mitigating the opportunity for the Australian public to shift their perception due to changes around them. Whitlam adopted a strict stance on Vietnamese refugees, announcing that Australia would only accept wives and students of Vietnamese or Australian residents. Not only did this prevent an opportunity to enact a widespread multiculturalist policy, but it saw net migration fall from approx. 140,000 in 1969 to just 13,515 in 1975. Furthermore, far from shifting public opinion, the introduction of multiculturalism somewhat inflamed public sentiment. A part of a gradual shift towards a non-discriminatory immigration program that had been commenced by the 1966 Migration Act, the policy indicated progress that was not necessarily supported by public opinion. Reflecting on this period, both the Migration Act and the shift towards multiculturalism have led Kelly to conclude that the ‘White Australia policy was dismantled by stealth’, while Betts argues that ‘public resistance was circumvented by the use of administrative procedures and secrecy rather than open debate’. This would form the premise for later resentment, with the number of Australians who viewed migrants as ‘too many’ peaking at 73% in 1991, while One Nation Senator Pauline Hanson declared in her maiden speech on 10 Sept 1996 that: ‘for far too long, ordinary Australians have been kept out of any debate by the major parties’. While changes in migration patterns did occur by the year 2000, with 5.6% of Australia’s population being Asian born by 2000 and 23.4% of its migrant intake also being Asian, there is little evidence to suggest that there was a shift in public opinion. Instead, attitudes remained divided along class divides – with a 1996 election study finding those who were university educated were 32% less likely to view Australia’s immigration intake as ‘too high’. Thus, Gwenda Tavan refers to the ‘long slow death of White Australia’ in the Australian conscience, reflecting the lack of any policies, including multiculturalism to shift attitudes towards immigration.

**Question 10 – A global economy**

Few students responded to this question. The question requested a measure of the impact of the theory of economic rationalism and the changes to the Australian economy that resulted. High-scoring answers would have also needed to consider other global factors that influenced the Australian economy at this time.