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AUSTRALIA'S WAR HISTORY

TEACHING RESOURCE: YEAR 9 & 10

HISTORY

Acknowledgments

Contact information

AUSTRALIA'S WAR HISTORY

TEACHING RESOURCE: YEARS 9 & 10

Introduction

This learning module provides an overview of Australia's war history, focusing primarily on the First and Second World Wars, with an emphasis on events in Europe and the Asia-Pacific regions. It is aligned with Year 9 and 10 curriculum content.

The readings in this resource trace key moments from Australia's colonisation through to the aftermath and consequences of the First and Second World Wars. Conflict remains a reality in the contemporary world, and Australians continue to serve in peace operations globally, reflecting an enduring commitment to international security and humanitarian efforts.

The impact of the First and Second World Wars was far-reaching and complex. This module provides a broad contextual overview of these conflicts while also including personal stories from a smaller group of individuals to help Year 9 and 10 students develop historical empathy and engage in inquiry-based learning. While particular emphasis is placed on selected case studies — including prisoner-of-war experiences in the Asia-Pacific — it is important to recognise the scale and diversity of Australia's contribution.

More than 400,000 Australians volunteered to fight overseas in the First World War, and about one million Australians served in uniform during the Second World War. Australians served in the Army, Navy, and Air Force, and fought in campaigns across many parts of the world. In the First World War, they fought at Gallipoli, on the Western Front, and in the Middle East, with battles such as the Somme marking significant moments.

In the Second World War, Australians fought against Germany and Italy in Europe, the Mediterranean, North Africa, and the Middle East, and against Japan in South-East Asia, the Pacific, and New Guinea, in campaigns including Tobruk, El Alamein, Greece, Kokoda, and Syria.

The Royal Australian Air Force played a significant role in the air war over Europe during the Second World War, while the Royal Australian Navy operated across the Mediterranean, Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific Oceans. These contributions formed an essential part of the Allied war effort.

This learning module provides reading articles, educational videos, an interactive timeline, classroom learning experiences, and assessment guides, all mapped to the Australian, New South Wales, and Victorian curriculums. Together, these materials provide a broad contextual overview and stimulate questioning and further inquiry into the scale, diversity, and impact of Australia's wartime service and sacrifice — including the contributions of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, women, and civilians.

The resource opens with the Australian Wars and concludes with a list of Australia's military involvement since the Second World War as contextual reading, recognising that the World Wars are part of a longer story of Australia's war history.

**Please visit seriouslysocial.org.au
to access educational videos and an interactive
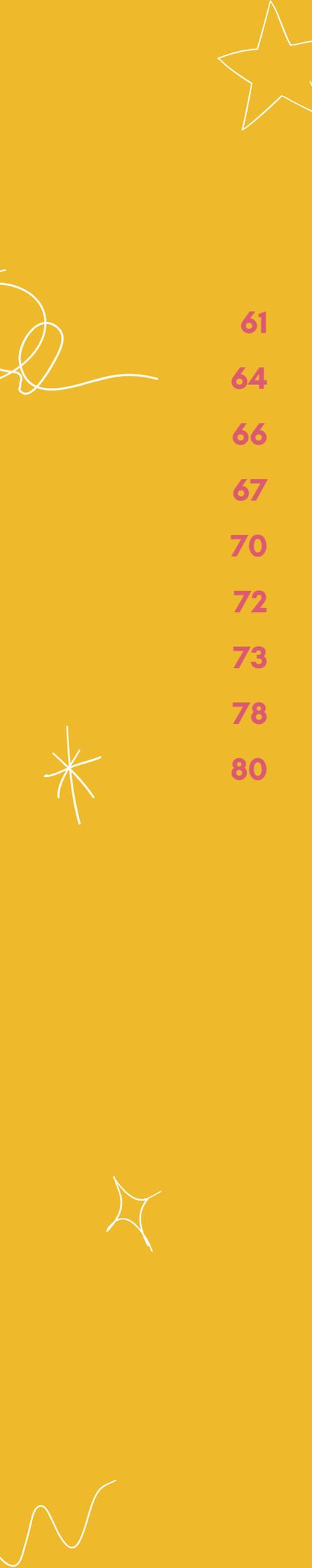timeline that complement this learning resource.**

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Teacher Guidance

Teaching about the World Wars supports students to understand the causes and effects of conflict, while also acknowledging and commemorating the service and sacrifice of those who served Australia and its allies in wars, conflicts, and peace operations.

War is a complex historical and human phenomenon, shaped by multiple causes and wide-reaching consequences. This complexity is evident in both World Wars. Historians continue to debate the origins, motivations, and decisions that led to these global conflicts, and many questions remain open to interpretation. Encouraging students to develop their own inquiry questions and research pathways supports deeper understanding of historical causation, interpretation, and the ongoing relevance of these histories in their lives today.

The outbreak of war can be approached through long-term structural factors—such as militarism, nationalism, and alliance systems—alongside short-term decisions made by governments. Students may also find it valuable to examine how tensions develop when a rising power challenges an established one, such as Britain's concerns over Germany's expanding naval capabilities in the early twentieth century. These themes offer meaningful connections to contemporary discussions about international relations.

This learning module includes reading articles that provide an overview of Australian and global experiences of war. The World War articles are organised into thematic sections to support differentiated learning, allowing teachers to reduce or extend content as needed. These readings are complemented by an **interactive timeline** (see image below, available at: chronoflotimeline.com/timeline/shared/23172/War-History/) and educational videos, offering multimodal entry points that cater to diverse learning needs.

World War themes, events and key people are presented as suggested topics to guide teaching, learning, research and assessment. All the material in this learning module is set out to promote differentiation, with explicit instructions provided beginning with knowledge content that is then expanded with frameworks that guide student inquiry, research, interpretation and writing. The learning module can be used in sequence or segments within the module can be extracted for individual use.

SHARED NORMS FOR WAR HISTORY DISCUSSION

CURIOSITY AND CONTESTABILITY

War affects many people. History is often interpreted differently. We acknowledge and explore different viewpoints.

ENGAGE CRITICALLY

Our learning is grounded in reliable sources and historical thinking, with evidence, rather than personal opinion.

RESPECT FOR EACH OTHER

Others may have personal heritage or connections to conflict. We listen to understand and we avoid making assumptions about anyone's background.

RESPECT FOR SENSITIVE CONTENT

War history includes trauma, loss, and human suffering. We approach difficult topics with empathy and care. Some topics may be confronting or upsetting. Let others know how you are feeling if needed.

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Sequenced learning experiences

This learning sequence is a flexible, inquiry-driven model that can be adapted to diverse classrooms and learner levels. It uses explicit instruction to introduce learning, followed by sequenced structure, offering clear scaffolds that guide learning, engage students, and support their success throughout both the process and the final assessment options.

1. Establish shared norms for the history classroom (see available poster)

Purpose: Create a safe, respectful environment for discussing sensitive and complex war-related content.
Process: Teacher led discussion about shared norms with student input and agreement.

2. Entry point: shared current knowledge and introduce new learning

Purpose: Connect learners to the topic and determine what they already know to inform teaching focus.
Process: Group discussion using a structured protocol (e.g., Think-Pair-Share) to surface what students already know about WWI and WWII, misconceptions, curiosity, sensitive aspects and attitudes towards themes to be encountered.

3. Research orientation: Introduce the Investigation Triangle

Purpose: Help students understand how historians investigate complex events. Investigation Triangle (see template provided in this booklet): View and discuss the investigation triangle checklist and considerations.
Process: Students pay attention to the investigation triangle, as core learning continues and information is collected.

4. Core learning input: view Seriously Social educational videos and interactive war history timeline

Purpose: Provide accessible, high-quality content as a foundation for inquiry. These videos and timeline act as anchor resources that build baseline knowledge, conceptual understanding and an awareness of themes (e.g., causation, imperialism, alliances).
Process: Students take notes using a guided viewing template aligned to the investigation triangle.

5. Targeted reading articles (tailored to themes or student learning needs)

Purpose: Provide differentiated content linked directly to student-chosen inquiry topics. This can be structured with a core article that all students read, a choice of articles (topic-based), or differentiation with reading content adjusted depending on student literacy needs.

Process: Students annotate or summarise key points identified during reading, as part of their growing evidence base. Revisit investigation triangle to form a question.

7. Research Starter List: where to find information

Purpose: The research starter list provides a range of sources available to students to conduct a deeper investigation.

Process: Students refer to the research starter list and independently explore these to seek more information about World Wars. This list ensures students can find valid, accessible information beyond the initial reading articles.

8. Scaffold learning through planning templates

Purpose: Scaffolded learning in preparation for essay writing.

Process: Students record their research using the templates: Evidence Table and Paragraph Planners.

9. Final task: writing or alternate assessment task

Purpose: Students demonstrate their understanding of the World Wars through evidence, reasoning, and historical thinking.

Process: Explicit instruction to support students as they learn to build clear topic sentences, link ideas, and draw together the information captured in their planning templates. Where school writing instructional frameworks (SWIF) exist, draw from this. Writing frameworks such as PEEL (Point, Evidence, Explain/Elaborate, Link), TEEL (Topic sentence, Evidence, Explain, Link), 7 Steps, or other strategies can be woven into the teaching sequence. Consider building a graphic organiser to assist. A PEEL graphic organiser is provided as part of this learning module. Offering a range of writing frameworks, adapting the content of the framework and considering alternative assessment formats, such as an oral presentation, can help differentiate effectively so that all students can demonstrate their learning in a meaningful and individually relevant way.

Australian Wars (1788-1930)

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, also known as First Nations Australians, have lived on the Australian continent for at least 65,000 years.

In 1788, the British arrived at Warung (Sydney) with soldiers on the First Fleet to set up a prison colony and colonise Australia. This marked the beginning of many different battles and conflicts between British settlers and Aboriginal peoples, which have been referred to as the Frontier Wars or Australian Wars. These conflicts continued across the country for over 100 years, until 1928. Colonial Frontier Massacres, Australia, 1780 to 1930 provides an interactive map with further information to show the extent of the massacres that occurred during this time: c21ch.newcastle.edu.au/colonialmassacres/map.php.

Some people don't agree that the Australian Wars were "proper wars" because they weren't led by different governments and did not look like the battles between countries that we often learn about in history. The fighting was spread out over time and happened in different places across Australia. It often involved small groups of soldiers, police or settlers against Aboriginal warriors, rather than big armies. But many historians today agree that the Australian Wars were real wars, because they involved organised resistance and deadly battles, and had a huge impact on the people and land.

The Frontier or Australian Wars haven't always been taught in schools, but this is starting to change. Learning about these conflicts gives us a chance to remember everyone who was affected, to understand why cultural differences led to conflict, and to use that knowledge to help build peace between people today.

During the early stages of colonisation, there were some attempts to create cooperation between the British and Aboriginal peoples. However, misunderstandings and disagreements about land often led to violence. The Australian Wars involved events like forced displacement, revenge attacks and massacres. Colonial authorities acted on behalf of the British Crown and had advanced technology, including guns, railway, telegraph lines and ships, as well as horses.

The British emigrated in large numbers to settle in colonial Australia, as well as other colonial sites of the British Empire. Many Aboriginal warriors resisted this invasion for as long as they could. The British saw this resistance as a crime against the Crown. The Australian Wars led to the deaths of both British and Aboriginal people, but far more Aboriginal people died. This was partly because of the advanced technology of the British soldiers.

The Bathurst War is part of the Australian Wars. This took place in 1824 when British Governor Macquarie declared martial law against the Wiradjuri people trying to stop their land being taken. A turning point in the violence between Aboriginal peoples and British settlers occurred when a Wiradjuri Aboriginal warrior named Windradyne decided to surrender. He requested peace and gave in to Governor Macquarie and the British attacks to take over the land, as he wanted his people to survive.

In Tasmania, the Palawa people fought a determined campaign during the 1820s to resist British settlement. To control the conflict, Governor Arthur issued the 1828 Proclamation of Demarcation. This proclamation required Aboriginal people to have a passport to enter "settled" areas, which were occupied by Europeans and their livestock, such as sheep. The fact that Aboriginal people were treated as needing permission to enter these areas suggests they were seen as outsiders, rather than as British subjects.

Other conflicts that are part of the Australian Wars spread over time across different parts of Australia. The Australian Wars took place right across the Australian continent. Sometimes, the conflict involved individual incidents, like the death of a European or Chinese shepherd being killed in revenge for the death or abduction of an Aboriginal person. Other times, it included large battles, with British soldiers or Native Police fighting against hundreds of Aboriginal warriors over a series of raids.

The impacts of colonisation were often immediate and devastating. For example, in 1842, at Kilcoy in Queensland, poison was used to kill 60 Aboriginal people. The lives lost were so sudden and tragic that many Aboriginal people couldn't fully understand what had happened. In many cases, the conflict continued for decades after such massacres, and areas weren't considered "settled" by the British until much later.

The actions of the Native Police in Queensland, where any Aboriginal person found during a "dispersal" could be shot by paramilitary forces, can be seen as acts of war or even genocide. In 1857 at Hornet Bank, and again in 1861 at Cullin-la-ringo in Central Queensland, 30 Europeans and then over 600 Aboriginal people were killed during the Australian Wars.

The Australian Wars resulted in the deaths of thousands of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, destroyed their economies by taking their land and severely impacted the passing down of language and culture. This loss is mourned today, yet there are very few memorials to remember it. Despite initial successful resistance, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples were ultimately defeated in all the Australian Wars.

Their resistance and resilience should be recognised in its many forms, such as targeting outstations, burning land and spearing livestock to drive off stock. This resistance continued until the Coniston Massacre of 1928 in the Northern Territory.

In some cases, figures like Pemulwuy in Sydney, Multuggerah, who led the Yuggera people west of Brisbane, Yagan and Jandamarra, who resisted the occupation of their land in Western Australia, became legends.

The survival of women and others, like those removed to the Bass Strait Islands in Tasmania, ensured the survival of entire Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities.

We commemorate wars and conflicts not to celebrate them, but to remember the sacrifices of those who came before us, their lives, experiences and the suffering they endured. The Australian Wars, as with all wars, provide an opportunity to honour the lives lost and offer lessons for reconciliation.

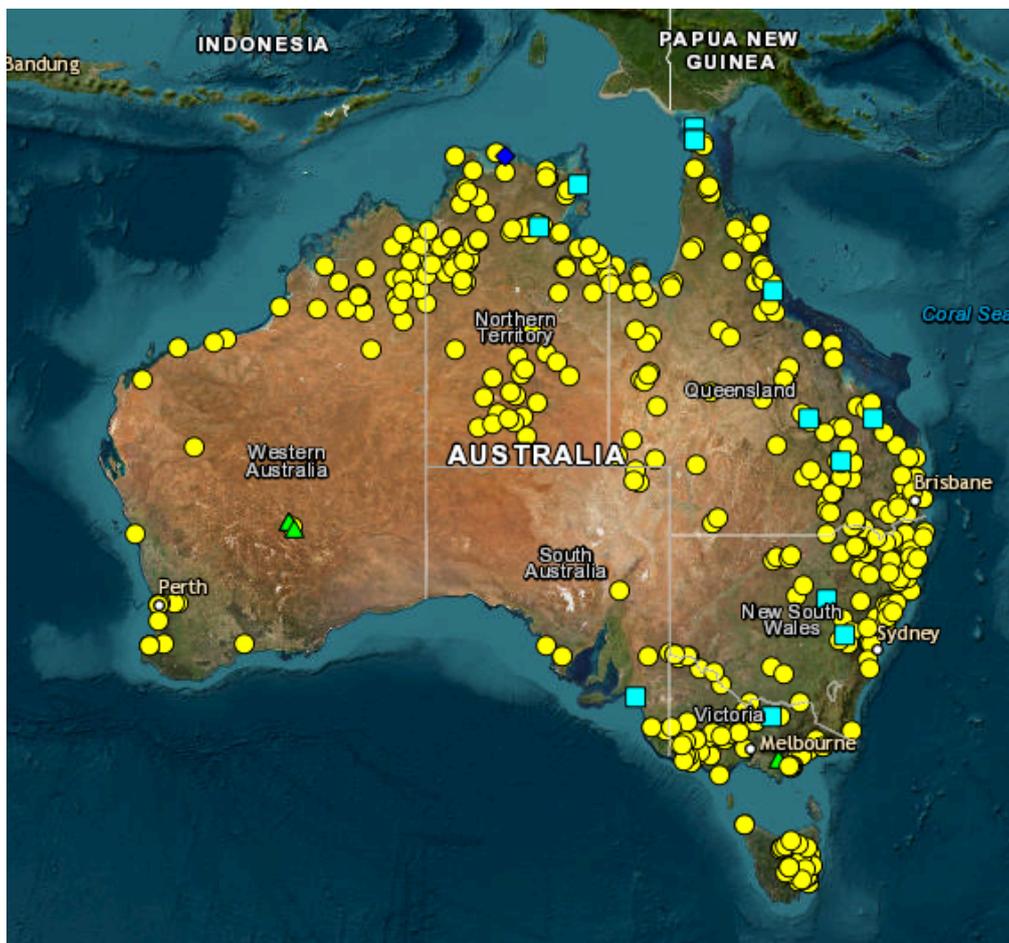The Australian Wars continued throughout and beyond the First World War.

Image: Massacre Maps, available at c21ch.newcastle.edu.au/colonialmassacres/map.php

First World War (1914–1918)

Reflections about the First World War have generated huge debate, significant research and many thousands of books, and the question remains unresolved even today as to what the cause of the First World War was. The European crisis that is said to have led to the First World War began with the killing of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, and his wife Sophie in Sarajevo on 28 June 1914. Yet the Great War or First World War was far more complex than this one event.

The following topics about the First World War will be presented in reading articles that can be read sequentially or individually:

- Nationalism, imperialism and race
- Militarism
- Alliances
- Imperialism
- Mobilisation plans
- The chain of events that followed the assassination of Franz Ferdinand
- Why and how did Australians become involved?

Image: Unidentified Australian soldiers collect timber from the ruins of the Cloth Hall, Ypres, Belgium. Built between 1200 and 1304, the Cloth Hall was damaged during the First Battle of Ypres (19 October–22 November 1914), one of the first major battles on the Western Front. AWM 2017.274.32

First World War

Nationalism, imperialism and race

The outbreak of war in Europe was tied to the historical circumstances and future aspirations of participating countries, and was closely linked to ideas of nationalism, imperialism and race. Nationalism called for people's main loyalty to be to a nation or state rather than a region or local area. It was promoted in newspapers and magazines to gain wide support from society and was based on national stereotypes.

Imperialism was the belief that powerful nations had the right to take over weaker countries or territories, thus expanding their empires and access to resources in Europe and across the world.

Race was linked to an idea called Social Darwinism, which saw war as necessary to prove which ethnic group was the fittest and deserved to survive. Some leaders were motivated by war to demonstrate the strength of their people, nation or empire.

The decline of the Ottoman Empire contributed to the possibility of war, as it led to instability in the Balkans and the Middle East and fostered the growth of nationalism in the region. The Ottoman Empire, which had extended from Turkey, gradually lost its European land. This decline in Ottoman power encouraged nationalist movements among different ethnic groups such as the Serbs, who sought independence from 1878 onwards.

Austria-Hungary also faced territorial and nationalist claims within its own empire. In 1908, it had formally annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, with its capital Sarajevo. Austria-Hungary was fearful of the growth of Serbia and other nationalities in the Balkan area wanting independence and more land. Austro-Hungarian leaders felt that they could not back down, as this would cause other groups to seek their own independent country. Austria-Hungary was backed in this policy by the military power of Germany.

On the other hand, Balkan states such as Serbia were supported by Russia, which was also Slavic ethnically and in language, shared the Christian orthodox religion and had longstanding ambitions in the area.

In 1912, Serbia and other Balkan nations joined together to defeat the Ottoman Empire in the First Balkan War. Bulgaria was then defeated by its former allies and the Ottomans in the Second Balkan War, and Serbia became larger and more powerful as a result of the peace settlement. This increased power further alarmed Austria-Hungary.

First World War

Militarism

A big factor in this war was the increase in militarism or an arms race. This was linked to the massive industrialisation across Europe in the late 19th century, especially in Great Britain, France and Germany. Competition for empire especially increased after Germany became a nation in 1871 under its kaiser or emperor, and Germany started to challenge the naval dominance of Great Britain. This competition was a key cause of war.

From the 1870s onwards, all the great powers of Europe increased the money spent for war preparation. Each year, stockpiles of weapons grew, and new weapons were invented, such as the machine gun. Most nations, apart from Britain, also conscripted their men to prepare for war by making military training and service in any future war compulsory.

Great Britain had developed the largest navy to service what was the largest empire of the day, which spanned territories in Asia, North America, Africa and the Pacific. From 1914, Germany built submarines. Germany's navy continued to expand, which increased its power and posed a challenge to Britain. While Britain built its navy, a united Germany grew its army to be the biggest on mainland Europe.

Image: Landing at Anzac Cove, 25 April 1915 (Source: Charles Dixon, NZ History)

First World War

Alliances

Linked to militarism was the growth of alliances to ensure that countries would not be alone if a war broke out. The first key alliance was the Dual Alliance of 1879 between Germany and Austria-Hungary. From 1882, this also included Italy, and became known as the Triple Alliance.

Russia linked with France in the Dual Entente from 1891 onwards. Russia also expanded its industry with French funding to increase its army. It was at this time that France needed an ally against Germany, as it had lost the Franco-Prussian war in 1871 and Germany had become a new united nation in Europe. With its defeat, France lost a large region called Alsace-Lorraine and desired revenge against Germany.

Then in 1904, Great Britain and France signed agreements called the Entente Cordiale. This helped settle differences between European countries which were targeting countries like Egypt to colonise in Africa. In 1907, Great Britain and Russia settled their differences in Asia, and the Triple Entente (also known as the Allied Powers) emerged, joining Britain, Russia and France in a pact to support each other if war broke out. Although intended to deter warfare, in fact, this alliance increased war preparations in Germany, which was isolated from these alliances and surrounded by potentially hostile powers.
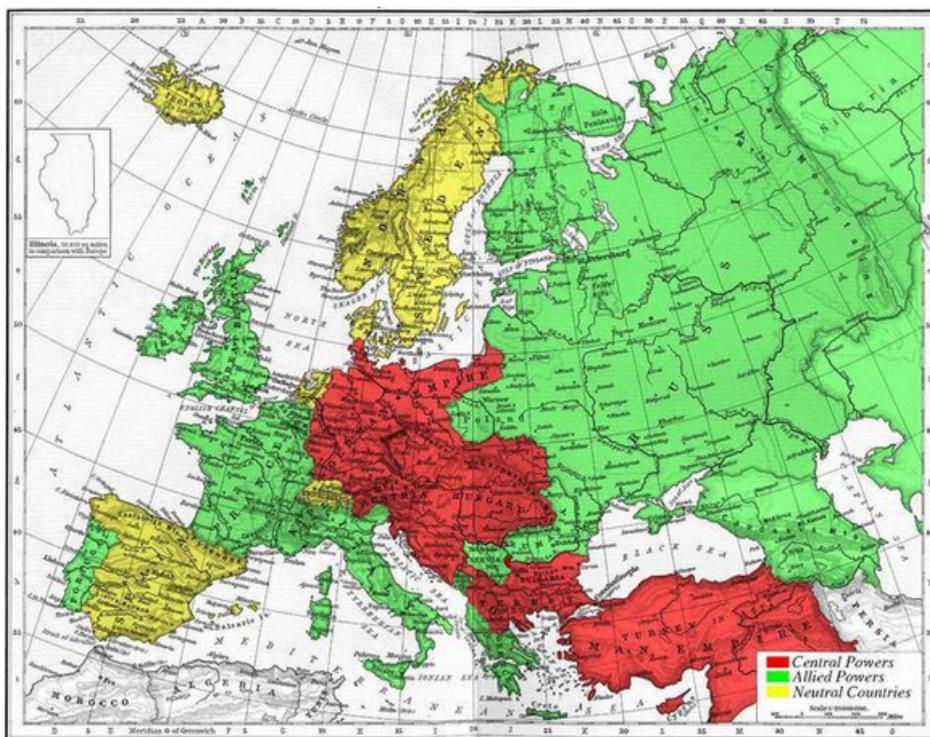

Image: Alliances WW1 map.
(Source: free-images.com/md/ce1e/map_1914_wwi_alliances.jpg)

First World War

Imperialism

An important factor in the drift to war in the early 20th century was the race to claim territories as part of expanded empires. While Great Britain was the largest empire at this time, other nations such as France and Germany also competed to control areas across the globe. This colonisation was partly to secure raw materials and markets for manufactured goods as well as ports to refuel shipping. It was also driven by the idea of European superiority or a mission to "civilise" others. From 1870 to 1914, most of Africa was divided up among the European nations in what was called the Scramble for Africa. This rivalry for new colonies nearly led to conflict in Morocco in 1905 and 1911, and contributed to the general atmosphere of aggression and distrust amongst the European powers.

The First World War is sometimes seen as a colonial war because European powers used people and resources from their colonies to fight. Countries in Asia and Africa, which were under European control, had little say in the war but were still heavily involved, and many people from these places suffered greatly. For example, India was a British colony. Over one million Indian soldiers were sent overseas to fight for Britain in the First World War and more than 70,000 of them died. Another example is France, which recruited thousands of West African soldiers to fight in the war, mostly in Europe. Many of them faced harsh conditions, racism and high death rates. After the war, people in many colonies started to question why they were fighting for empires that didn't treat them equally. This helped build anti-colonial movements. For instance, India gained independence from Britain in 1947.

Australia and New Zealand, as dominions of the British Empire, also entered the war in support of Britain. Their involvement reflected the close political and cultural ties they had with Britain at the time.

State Library Victoria – WWI posters from the Library's collection

First World War

Mobilisation plans

When war did occur in 1914, the empires of the large European nations would join the battle and thus a world war occurred. The last and least understood cause was the complex war plans. These plans were developed to ensure that when war did break out, each nation would be the first to be ready. This was called mobilisation. In particular, the German army in the first decade of the 20th century called for Germany to invade France through neutral Belgium to secure a quick victory over France. This invasion plan meant that a general war was more likely, as it drew other powers such as Britain into the conflict in defence of Belgium.

Image: German officer reads the Kaiser's mobilisation orders on 1 August 1914 in Belgium (source: Public domain via Wikimedia Commons)

First World War

Events following Franz Ferdinand's assassination

On 28 June 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria was assassinated by a Bosnian Serb. This has been identified as the key trigger that started the First World War. Austria-Hungary responded to the assassination by placing heavy demands on Serbia, which would have reduced its independence. When Serbia refused to accept these demands, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia on 28 July, with unconditional German support. Russia, in turn, prepared to come to the defence of Serbia.

This set off a chain of events as the members of the two rival alliances responded to their treaty commitments. The following key events in 1914 detail how the conflict spread:

- 28 July: Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia.
- 29 and 30 July: Austria-Hungary and Russia fully mobilised for war.
- 30 July: Great Britain refused Germany's demand to be neutral.
- 1 August: The German Government declared war on Russia.
- 3 August: Germany declared war on France and planned to invade France through Belgium. The Belgian Government refused German access through Belgian lands and Britain guaranteed its support of Belgium neutrality.
- 4 August: Due to Germany's invasion of Belgium and the breaking of the Treaty of London, 1839, Great Britain declared war on Germany.
- The Ottoman Empire entered the war on the side of Germany and Austria-Hungary on 29 October 1914, and Italy joined the Allied fight on 26 April 1915.
- Bulgaria joined the Central Powers in October 1915.
- The USA and Japan supported the Allied war effort, and the US joined the fighting in Europe on 6 April 1917.
- The war continued until 11 November 1918, when an armistice silenced the guns on the western front.

Image: Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand (Source: URL: nzhistory.govt.nz/page/assassination-archduke-ferdinand, Manatū Taonga — Ministry for Culture and Heritage)

First World War

Why and how did Australians become involved?

When Great Britain declared war on Germany on 4 August 1914, Australia, as a part of the British Empire, was automatically at war.

Andrew Fisher, who would be re-elected as prime minister in September 1914, stated that Australia would "stand beside the mother country to help and defend her to the last man and the last shilling" (adb.anu.edu.au/biography/fisher-andrew-378).

Joseph Cook, who lost this election, also campaigned for total support for the war. Fisher and Cook were both born in Great Britain.

A key reason many Australians supported the war was because of such family connections to Great Britain. In the 1911 census, over 500,000 Australians, in a population of over 4.5 million, had been born in Great Britain.

Over 98.83 per cent of Australians were European and British due to Australia's convict heritage and free settlers. The Immigration Restriction Act of 1901 meant non-Europeans could not enter Australia after federation.

Not all Australians wanted to become involved in the First World War. Although the anti-war movement in Australia was small, there were some groups who were opposed to war on religious, moral or political grounds.

Those Australians who did join the war did so for various reasons. The rate of pay to volunteer was considered good, adventure was promised, with travel to other countries, there was motivation to protect loved ones in Australia, and some joined out of a sense of duty to the nation or king and country.

From 1914 to 1918, there were approximately 416,000 Australian men who volunteered to join the First World War, but fewer than about 300,000 went overseas. Of these men, over 60,000 were killed, and more than 156,000 were wounded, gassed or taken prisoner. In 1918, Australia's population was estimated to be just over 5,000,000 people.

Australia's involvement in the First World War began in late 1914 in what was then a German colony in New Britain. The first major battle involving Australian forces took place at Gallipoli in 1915, where Australians and New Zealanders, known as ANZACs, fought together under British command against Turkish troops. Throughout the war, Australian forces were heavily involved on the front lines across Europe, continuing to fight until the war ended in November 1918.

In the early 1900s, Australia had a part-time army that was not allowed to fight overseas. In 1909, the government made it compulsory for some men to train in this army, but only to defend Australia, not to go to war in other countries. When the First World War started, Australia needed soldiers to fight in defence of Britain overseas. Since the existing army couldn't be sent, a new group called the Australian Imperial Force was created. Only volunteers could join. The 1909 Defence Act was amended in 1917 to allow Aboriginal Australians with a European parent to enlist. All Australians, regardless of their background, were volunteers. This included over 1,000 First Nations Australians.

The government could have passed a law to force men to join the Australian Imperial Force through conscription, but Prime Minister Billy Hughes chose to ask the people what they thought. He held two national votes, which were referred to as referenda. Technically, these votes were plebiscites (not a referendum) because it wasn't about changing the constitution; it was just to find out what the public wanted. The majority of the public voted against forcing men to join the AIF, so instead, volunteers were relied on.

The Australians who volunteered were mostly sent to fight on the front line in battle. New Zealanders who volunteered were also sent to the front line. This was because ANZACs were part of the British forces. The British forces oversaw strategic and military leadership of the war. Because Australian and New Zealand soldiers were often placed on the front line, they suffered very high rates of injury and death. This had a devastating impact on their societies back home.

Australian communities, from small country towns to large cities, were changed by the war. Soldiers and nurses returning to Australia from the First World War unfortunately brought back the Spanish Flu, which caused a pandemic and as many as 15,000 Australian deaths. Soldiers, often injured in the war, died on average 20 years before a man who had not volunteered.

Today, Australia pays tribute to the men and women who served in the First World War, with ANZAC Day (25 April) and Remembrance Day (11 November).

Second World War (1939–1945)

Between the First World War and the Second World War, many important events happened that helped lead to the second conflict. One was the Treaty of Versailles, the peace agreement that officially ended the First World War in 1919. It was signed by victorious Allied countries like Britain, France, and the United States of America, and by Germany, who had lost the war. The Treaty of Versailles said that Germany was responsible for starting the war, forced Germany to give up land and pay heavy fines (called reparations), and changed the map of Europe by creating new countries.

The Treaty of Versailles also led to the creation of the League of Nations, an international group formed to help maintain peace. However, the league struggled to prevent future conflict because not all major countries joined or remained as members. This meant the League of Nations had little real power to stop countries that chose to ignore the Treaty of Versailles or use military force to expand their territories.

The following topics about the Second World War will be presented in reading articles that can be read sequentially or individually:

- Totalitarian dictatorship
- Economic crisis
- First World War legacy
- Axis Powers
- Racism and ideology
- How did the Second World War begin?
- Europe invasion
- The Pacific War and global conflict
- The fall of Singapore
- The impact of the Second World War on Australians at home (1939–1945)
- Australian women's roles during the war
- The end of the war in Europe and the Pacific
- Consequences of the Second World War
- Australians in captivity
- Mateship & motivation – Sandakan and the Death Marches (1942–1945)
- Resilience & reconciliation – Java and the Burma-Thailand railway (1942–1945)

Second World War

Totalitarian dictatorship

Many Germans felt the Treaty of Versailles was unfair and humiliating, which led to anger and social unrest in the years that followed the First World War. This anger was increasingly directed by German leaders toward Jewish people and other marginalised groups. More broadly in Europe, social unrest contributed to the rise of totalitarian dictatorships, which were governments where one person or party has complete control and did not allow opposition. At this time, many countries faced political and economic instability, creating the conditions for major changes. In Russia, the 1917 Russian Revolution led to the collapse of the monarchy and the rise of a communist government, following two revolutions and a civil war. This marked the beginning of the world's first socialist state and inspired both hope and fear across Europe. While some countries saw communism as a model for equality, others reacted against it.

In places like Germany and Italy, fascist leaders, who believed in strong control, nationalism, and often violence to keep order, rose to power by rejecting both communism and the Treaty of Versailles. They promoted strong control and extreme nationalism, and used violence and military expansion to restore what they saw as lost national pride. Japan, although not directly impacted by the Treaty of Versailles, also became more militaristic during the interwar years, invading parts of Asia to gain power and resources. These rising tensions and aggressive actions by authoritarian regimes contributed directly to the outbreak of World War II. In countries like Germany and Italy, fascist leaders rejected the Treaty of Versailles and used aggressive military actions to gain power and resources. Communism, which is a system where the government controls all property and wealth to create equality, also became more popular in some places during this time.

Image: Delegations during signing of the Treaty of Versailles in the Hall of Mirrors at the Palace of Versailles, France, on June 28, 1919. (Source: Iconic Press Wordpress)

Second World War

Economic crisis

The USA, which joined in the First World War fighting only in 1917, emerged stronger and wealthier than most other countries after the war. Its factories and economy grew because the war created a high demand for American goods. Before the war, the USA owed money to countries like Britain and France, but the wartime success of industries like weapons manufacturing meant that the US became a major financial lender to European nations. The USA loaned money to Germany to help it pay reparations.

During the 1920s, the USA Government focused on domestic issues and chose not to join international organisations like the League of Nations. However, in October 1929, the American stock market crashed as a result of risky financial lending and high interest rates. The crash triggered the Great Depression, a time of very low economic activity that spread across the world, causing high unemployment and poverty.

Image: Men pictured looking for work in Australia in 1930 during the Great Depression.
(Source: National Library of Australia)

Second World War

First World War legacy

From 1929 onwards, the Nazi Party in Germany began blaming mass unemployment and social unrest on Jewish people, communists, and foreigners. As economic conditions worsened, support for the Nazis grew, and their seats in the German Parliament increased with more votes at each election. In January 1933, Adolf Hitler was appointed Chancellor, and in 1934, he became the Chancellor and President of Germany. He quickly established a totalitarian state and promised to restore Germany's strength by ending unemployment and fixing problems caused by the Great Depression. However, he did this by rearming Germany and breaking the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. These actions became key causes of the Second World War.

Image: Hitler accepts the ovation of the Reichstag after announcing the peaceful acquisition of Austria. It set the stage to annex the Czechoslovakian Sudetenland, largely inhabited by a German- speaking population. Berlin, March 1938. (Source: The U.S. National Archives and Records Administration)

Second World War

Axis Powers

Italy's government became fascist under the leadership of Benito Mussolini, who promised a return to Rome's great past and sought to expand Italy's power. In 1935, Italy invaded Ethiopia in Africa, breaking international law and showing its aggressive ambitions. Italy later was an ally of Nazi Germany.

Meanwhile, in 1931, Japan invaded Manchuria, a region in China, to gain resources and expand its empire. This aggressive act also broke international law and showed Japan's growing militarism.

Between 1936 and 1939, the Spanish Civil War took place. Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy sent troops to support the fascist nationalists, helping them win the war. This conflict encouraged the rise of totalitarian leaders and increased fears of communist power in Europe.

In 1936, Italy and Germany officially formed a military and political alliance known as the Rome-Berlin Axis. Japan later joined this alliance, and together these three countries became known as the Axis Powers. They cooperated closely during the Second World War, united by their aggressive expansion and opposition to the Allied countries.

In 1938, Nazi Germany took over Austria in what was called the Anschluss. Later that year, Hitler demanded the Sudetenland, a part of Czechoslovakia with many German-speaking people, be joined with Germany. Britain and France hoped to avoid another war, and in a policy called Appeasement, allowed Germany to take land with German-speaking people as long as it promised not to take any more territory. However, in March 1939, Hitler broke this promise and took over the rest of Czechoslovakia.

Image: Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini in Munich, Germany, ca. June 1940.
(Source: The U.S. National Archives and Records Administration)

Second World War

Racism and ideology

Racial ideology was a central motivating factor behind the actions of both Nazi Germany and Imperial Japan during the Second World War. In 1935, Adolf Hitler's government introduced the Nuremberg Laws, which legally defined Jewish people as a separate and inferior racial group and stripped them of citizenship rights. These laws were part of a broader Nazi racial ideology that promoted the idea of a master race with a strict criterion for what Germans should look like and how they should behave. Those who did not fit this ideal, including Jewish people, Romani people, disabled individuals, homosexuals, and others, faced severe discrimination, persecution, violence and death. Victims were imprisoned in concentration camps and extermination camps, or killed in mass shootings or gas chambers.

Between 1941 and 1945, this ideology culminated in the Holocaust, the systematic, state-sponsored genocide carried out by the Nazi regime. Approximately six million Jewish people were murdered, alongside millions of others considered undesirable by the Nazis.

Similarly, Imperial Japan pursued aggressive expansion based on ideas of racial and national superiority. Between 1937 and 1945, Japanese forces committed numerous war crimes and atrocities across Asia. One of the most infamous was the Nanjing Massacre (also known as the Rape of Nanjing) in late 1937 and early 1938, during which Japanese troops killed an estimated 200,000 to 300,000 Chinese civilians and disarmed soldiers, and committed widespread rape and looting. During the war, Japanese forces also treated prisoners of war brutally.
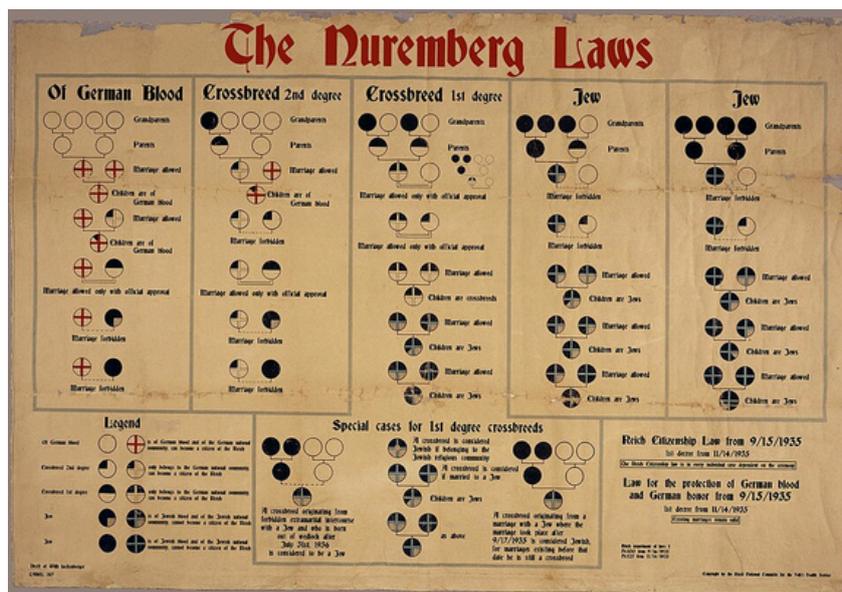

Image: Racial classifications under Nuremberg Laws (1935) of Nazi Germany.
(Source: Government of Germany, Public domain, via Wikimedia Commons)

Second World War

How did the Second World War begin?

The Second World War began in Europe on 1 September 1939 when Germany invaded Poland, followed by a declaration of war against Germany by Great Britain and France two days later.

On 3 September 1939, Australia's Prime Minister Robert Menzies announced to his stunned fellow Australians that:

"It is my melancholy duty to inform you officially that, in consequence of the persistence of Germany in her invasion of Poland, Great Britain has declared war upon her, and that, as a result, Australia is also at war."

The horror of the First World War of 1914-18, with its terrible losses of life and suffering had scarcely diminished, and now, for the second time in just over 20 years, not only Australia, but most of the world was at war.

Patriotic young men rushed to recruiting offices to enlist in the Second Australian Imperial Force. This was the volunteer army Australia raised to fight overseas during the Second World War.

Even though Prime Minister Robert Menzies had announced that the country was at war, nothing much happened at first. People expected big battles, but the first few months seemed quiet. This led many to call it the "Phoney War," as if the war wasn't real yet.

Image: January 1940 Sydney, a view of the AIF Troops as they march through the city. AWM 000674

Image: Soldiers carry out bayonet drill during training in June, 1940. AWM 002013/20

Second World War

Europe invasion

That changed on 10 May 1940, when Germany invaded France. The fighting was fast and intense. In just a few days, the British, French, and Belgian armies were forced to retreat, and many soldiers were trapped on the beaches of Dunkirk in northern France.

In an incredible effort, the British navy and hundreds of small private boats crossed the sea and rescued over 338,000 Allied troops between 26 May and 4 June 1940. This became known as the Dunkirk evacuation, and it gave people hope during a moment when defeat by Nazi Germany seemed likely and there was a real risk of Hitler's army taking over all of Europe.

But despite this miracle, the situation remained grim. In addition to Austria and Czechoslovakia, by mid-1940, Nazi Germany had taken control of Poland, Norway, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and France. Britain now stood alone as the last major power in Western Europe resisting Hitler's domination.

In this moment of crisis, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill delivered one of the most powerful and inspirational speeches ever made by a world leader — a speech now known as Their Finest Hour: "*The Battle of France is over. I expect that the Battle of Britain is about to begin. Upon this battle depends the survival of Christian civilisation. Upon it depends our own British life, and the long continuity of our institutions and our Empire... Let us therefore brace ourselves to our duties, and so bear ourselves that, if the British Empire and its Commonwealth last for a thousand years, men will still say, 'This was their finest hour.'*"

Image: French nationals watch on as German soldiers march into the French capital, Paris, on June 14, 1940, after the Allied armies had been driven back across France. (Source: The U.S. National Archives and Records Administration)

Second World War

The Pacific War and global conflict

The Second World War spread to the Asia-Pacific region, with conflict in this area known as the Pacific War. The Pacific War began soon after the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor in Hawai'i on 7 December 1941. This drew the USA into the conflict.

Japan continued to advance quickly through Southeast Asia and the Pacific, invading places such as the Philippines, Malaya, Singapore, Indonesia, and Papua New Guinea.

Australia came under direct threat when Japan bombed Darwin in February 1942, the first of more than 100 air raids on northern Australia. On the evening of 31 May Japanese midget submarines entered Sydney Harbour, launching an attack that sank and killed Australian sailors aboard HMAS Kuttabul, a Sydney Harbour ferry. These events marked the first time the Australian mainland had come under enemy attack.

Australian forces fought in key battles across the Pacific, as well as in North Africa, Europe, and the Middle East. By 1942, the Second World War had become a truly global conflict, with battles across Europe, Africa, Asia, the Pacific, and Australia.

Image: USS SHAW exploding during the Japanese raid on Pearl Harbor. December 7, 1941.
(Source: The U.S. National Archives and Records Administration)

Second World War

The impact of the Second World War on Australians at home

During the Second World War, life in Australia changed dramatically as the war came closer to home. Australian Prime Ministers Robert Menzies (1939-1941), and later, John Curtin (1941-1945), introduced new laws and regulations to support the war effort and ensure civilians at home had access to resources. These included strict controls over the media and censorship to manage information.

Many everyday aspects of life were affected, particularly after war spread to the Pacific. Men and women could be directed to work in essential industries to help support the troops. The government controlled agricultural and industrial production to ensure enough resources were available for defence. Petrol rationing began in 1940, and by 1942, personal identity cards and ration books were introduced. Basic items like food, clothing, and footwear were rationed, and prices were tightly controlled. Daylight saving and shorter holiday periods were also introduced to increase working hours and boost production. Domestic pensions were extended to deserted wives and widows, and women were drawn into employment. During the war, about 12,000 German, Italian, and Japanese Australians and non–citizens were interned as prisoners of suspicion, in case they were connected to enemy war efforts.

Image (above): 1943 WW2 poster encouraged women to join the services or become involved in industry to help in the war effort. AWM ARTV08836

Image (right): 6th Division Australian Imperial Force troops leave train prior to embarkation. AWM 000428

Second World War

Australian women's roles during the war

Women played an essential part in Australia's war effort in the Second World War, both through their voluntary activities and as the war progressed in taking on many jobs traditionally held by men, who were away fighting. By 1943, around 800,000 Australian women were in paid employment in Australia. Many were employed in war-related industries such as munitions. Some contributed to the rural sector through the Women's Land Army, which helped replace male farm workers. Wages for some women increased through the Women's Employment Board.

The women's military services were first formed in the Second World War and included:

- Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS): Formed in July 1940 with over 24,000 women signed up to serve in Australia and overseas. AWAS members worked in artillery, intelligence, mechanical, and electrical units, transport, clerical work, and parachute packing.
- Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF): Formed March 1941. More than 27,000 women enlisted. Roles included radio operators, signals, radar technicians, meteorologists, clerks, caterers, flight mechanics and electricians. They served only within Australia.
- Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS): Established in April 1941 and had over 3,000 members who supported the navy in various capacities.
- Nurses: Around 3,000 Australian nurses served in the First World War, the majority in the Australian Army Nursing Service (AANS), with others working in organisations such as the Red Cross. During the Second World War, around 5,000 women worked as nurses in the AANS and in other military medical services and with other organisations.

Image: Informal group portrait of nurses in their tropical uniforms at No 1 Medical Receiving Station RAAF in New Guinea in 1945. AWM OG3354_99997

Image: Small arms ammunition factory, Footscray. Female workers filling machine gun ammunition belts in 1939. AWM 000010

Second World War

The fall of Singapore

Australia and New Zealand had relied on the "Singapore Strategy," introduced by Britain after the First World War, as a key part of their defence against possible Japanese aggression. This strategy assumed that, in the event of a threat, Britain would send a powerful naval force to defend Singapore and protect the Asia-Pacific region.

By 1940, Australia had committed most of its troops to the war in Europe, North Africa and the Middle East, and depended heavily on Britain to defend Southeast Asia. Mostly British and Indian forces were stationed in Malaya and Singapore, but many lacked training, had outdated equipment and lacked air support.

Australia's 8th Division began arriving in Malaya and Singapore from February 1941 to strengthen the defence of the region. When Japan entered the war in December 1941, its forces quickly advanced through Malaya towards Singapore. Additional Australian reinforcements arrived in early 1942, but many were inexperienced.

After conquering Malaya, about 30,000 Japanese troops attacked Singapore Island on 8 February 1942. They were well trained, well equipped and supported by modern and strong air power. Allied air forces had already been largely destroyed. Australian and Allied troops were overwhelmed, and on 15 February 1942 Singapore surrendered.

British, Indian, Australian and local troops became prisoners of war. Around 15,000 Australians were captured. Many later died due to harsh treatment, forced labour, disease and starvation while held by the Japanese.

Photo: HMAS Perth leaving Singapore, c. 1941–42 — This photograph, taken by Able Seaman David Ralph Goodwin, RAN, shows the ship evacuating troops under heavy fire. Goodwin later wrote on the back: "Last we saw of Singapore." (Source: Museums Victoria collections.museumsvictoria.com.au/items/1715429)

Second World War

The end of the war in Europe and the Pacific

By early 1945, the Allies, including the United States, Britain, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (Russia), and Canada, were defeating Germany from both the west and east. On 8 May 1945, Germany surrendered unconditionally. This day became known as Victory in Europe Day (VE Day). On 5 June 1945, the Allies officially took full control of Germany through the Berlin Declaration, dividing the country into four occupied zones shared between Britain, the USA, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and France.

As Allied forces advanced through Europe, they uncovered the horrors of the Holocaust, the mass murder of around 6 million Jewish people and other groups of people who didn't fit the racist beliefs about German superiority set by Nazi Germany between 1941 and 1945.

In July 1945, the leaders of the UK, USA, and Union of Soviet Socialist Republics met at the Potsdam Conference to decide what would happen after the war. They agreed to divide Germany and Austria into occupation zones, return land taken by Germany, and move German populations out of other countries. On 26 July 1945, the Allies also sent a warning to Japan, demanding its surrender or it would face prompt and utter destruction. Japan refused to surrender. At this point, the USA had successfully tested the atomic bomb through the Manhattan Project.

On 6 August 1945, the USA dropped the first atomic bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima, killing at least 150,000 people. Japan still did not surrender, assuming the USA had no more bombs. Then on 9 August, a second bomb was dropped on Nagasaki, killing an estimated 70,000 people. The same day, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics declared war on Japan and invaded Japanese-occupied Manchuria.

On 15 August 1945, Japan agreed to surrender, after the Allies guaranteed the emperor could remain as a symbolic leader. The official surrender was signed on 2 September 1945, marking the end of the Second World War. Japan was placed under Allied occupation, led by the USA, until 1952.

Image: Hiroshima, Japan after the USA dropped the first atomic bomb. (Source: The U.S. National Archives and Records Administration)

Second World War

Consequences of the Second World War

At the end of the Second World War, in both Europe and the Asia-Pacific region, government and military leaders were put on trial for crimes against humanity. In Germany, leading members of the Nazi regime were prosecuted in the Nuremberg Trials (1945–1946). While some Nazi leaders were found guilty of war crimes, many others, including thousands of members of the SS (the Nazi paramilitary group), the Gestapo (secret police), and the German army, escaped trial and punishment. In Japan, senior leaders were also tried for war crimes during the Tokyo Trials, held between 1946 and 1948.

The formation of the United Nations in 1945 and the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rightsin 1948 were direct responses to the atrocities committed during the Second World War. These efforts aim to promote peace, cooperation, and accountability among nations, and to prevent such crimes from happening again.

Australia played an active role in the post-war efforts to build peace. It was a founding member of the United Nations and has continued to support peacekeeping operations around the world ever since. Australian personnel have participated in more than 70 United Nations and multilateral peacekeeping missions, including in Cambodia, East Timor, Rwanda, Sudan, and the Solomon Islands. These missions often focus on maintaining ceasefires, supporting elections, delivering humanitarian aid, and helping rebuild conflict-affected societies. Australia also contributed to the post-war occupation of Japan (1946–1952), where Australian troops helped disarm Japanese forces and assist in reconstruction efforts.

In Great Britain, rationing of essential goods continued until 1954, as the country struggled to recover from its involvement in both the European and Pacific theatres of war. To support post-war recovery, the United States launched the Marshall Plan in April 1948. This initiative provided economic aid to help rebuild war-torn European nations and to limit the spread of Soviet communist influence beyond Eastern and Central Europe. While the Marshall Plan stimulated European recovery, it also expanded USA access to European markets and strengthened American influence in the region.

Although the Second World War had ended, a new era of global tension had begun, one defined by rivalry between former allies: the USA, the United Kingdom and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. This period became known as the Cold War.

Second World War

Australians in captivity

On 15 February 1942, the Allied commanders had no option but to surrender to the Japanese after the Fall of Singapore. The next day, tens of thousands Allied troops, including approximately 15,000 Australians, became prisoners of war. The prisoners of war (POWs) were marched to a huge pre-war military complex near Changi, on the eastern end of the island, where the 15,000 Australians occupied Selarang Barracks.

The Japanese had not expected such a large number to surrender and become prisoners of war, all of whom had to be fed, housed and clothed. In most matters, they did not consider themselves to be bound by the 1929 Geneva Convention which spelt out the rights of POWs. In order to make use of their unexpectedly large potential labour force, they decided to set the POWs to work on various projects in their newly acquired and vast empire.

The first group of Australians, numbering some thousands, were transferred in May 1942 to Burma (now Myanmar) with A Force, where they engaged in airfield construction, before commencing work on the infamous Burma-Thai Railway. Two months later, another 1,500 Australians were placed on the B Force draft, destined for airfield construction at Sandakan in British North Borneo (now Sabah, East Malaysia).

The following two articles offer some insights into the experiences of Australian prisoners of war.

Sandakan and the Death Marches

This reading explores the strong sense of mateship that developed among young Australian servicemen during the Second World War, some as young as 16. Through personal accounts, it examines motivations for enlistment and how shared hardship forged lasting friendships.

Java and the Burma-Thailand Railway

This shorter reading focuses on the experiences of senior officers, highlighting resilience, leadership, and moral courage during captivity as prisoners of war. It also encourages reflection on reconciliation, empathy, and the broader human impact of war.

Image: Prisoners of war living quarters, Kuching, Sarawak, Borneo, September 1945. Accommodation used by prisoners held by Japanese forces. AWM 118601

Sandakan and the Death Marches (1942-45)

Two months after the fall of Singapore 1,500 Australians were placed on the B Force draft. Although destined for airfield construction at Sandakan in British North Borneo (now Sabah, East Malaysia), the Japanese claimed they were going to a camp suitable for convalescents and older men – anyone over the age of 39.

Believing it was to be a rest camp, Australian senior officers took the opportunity to transfer a number of officers, regarded as "useless mouths," as they were not required to work under the terms of the Geneva Convention, and to also rid themselves of disciplinary problems, including a number of under-aged, highly-spirited teenaged soldiers, all of whom had lied about their ages to enlist.

William "Billy" Young, aged just 16 and an orphan, was certainly under-age, as were his mate Harry Longley and three other members of B Force – Eric Davis, Alan Quailey and Keith Botterill – all infantry soldiers, who had been in battle. On 7 July, they boarded a rusting cargo ship, Yubae Maru, where they and their hundreds of companions were confined to three cramped holds for a nightmare voyage that took 11 days to complete.

William "Billy" Young

Harry Langley

Alan Quailey

Keith Botterill (taken 1949)

Eric Davis

(All photos provided by Lynette Silver)

Sandakan and the Death Marches (1942–45)

POW life begins at Sandakan

On arrival at their camp, situated 13 kilometres from the town of Sandakan, on British North Borneo's north-easterly coast, the four youths were assigned, with other youngsters, to a hut at the very end of a row. Because their elders viewed their lack of discipline with disfavour, they were dubbed "The Dead End Kids," or "Dead Enders," for short.

Apart from a handful of medical orderlies, administrative and kitchen staff, the rank and file, numbering some 1,300, were put to work six days a week to build the airstrip for the Japanese military, toiling from dawn until dusk with hand tools to clear the site, then level it. The guards could be brutal, administering kicks and blows with sticks or rifle butts at regular intervals.

The Japanese commandant, Hoshijima Susumi, the engineer in charge of the airfield construction, allowed the prisoners to have entertainment in the form of concerts, boxing matches and community singing. They also conducted illegal gambling dens in the elevated space beneath their huts, which, in tropical style, were on stilts. When first captured, the POWs had plenty of food – about 750 grams of dry rice per day per man, far too much for the Australians to eat. They stored a portion of the excess and traded some of it for other food with local people near the airfield.

The POWs did their best to slow down the rate of progress on the airstrip, by losing shovels and picks, sabotaging a mechanical digger and downing tools whenever the opportunity arose. However, despite their best efforts, stage 1 of the airfield was completed before the end of the year, and the first enemy planes landed.

Billy Young, a still-growing lad who was always hungry, constantly risked severe punishment by going out under the wire at night or absenting himself from work during the day, in order to forage for extra rations from surrounding farms. Punishment was usually confinement to a small cage for up to a week or more.

However, in February 1943, Billy found himself in great trouble after he and an older mate, known as "MP" Brown, foolishly decided to try to escape from the airstrip during a lunch break. Their absence was soon detected, and they were hunted down, caught and bashed into unconsciousness.

Since escaping from custody was a capital crime, the pair was sent to POW headquarters at Kuching, in Sarawak, for trial. Found guilty, they were lucky not to be executed. Instead, they were sent to Singapore, to endure terrible privation, much of it in solitary confinement, in a punishment gaol run by the Japanese military police. Many did not survive incarceration. Billy, malnourished and brutalised, spent the remainder of his teenage years in gaol, until he was freed in September 1945 by liberating Allied forces, just before his 20th birthday.

Disaster strikes (1943)

In April 1943, after Billy had left, the labour force at Sandakan swelled with the arrival of about 750 British prisoners, who occupied a camp near the airstrip, about 1.5 kilometres from the Australian compound. A few weeks later, E Force, comprising 500 Australians, arrived and were housed in a separate camp near their countrymen. Work continued without let-up on a second runway, but life was tolerable until July, when the Japanese discovered that the B Force prisoners not only had a radio, but were also involved in a local underground movement, run by civilians loyal to the British.

One of those actively involved in securing radio parts was Dead Ender Eric Davis, aged 19, who had been assigned to work outside the compound at the camp's power plant. He was allowed to move about freely, and, when collecting his daily rations from the camp, smuggled vital components from underground workers in the pockets of his shorts. However, Eric's comings and goings had attracted the attention of the Japanese. Worried he might be detained and questioned, the Australian camp administration decided to transfer him to the Kuching camp, along with a group of senior officers and troublemakers who were making life difficult for others. Fortunately, Eric's transfer occurred before the Japanese discovered the radio.

Arrests inside and outside the camp followed and names were revealed under brutal interrogation. At the end of what was a reign of terror lasting weeks, 52 civilians and 20 Australians were sent to trial. Almost all were found guilty of subversive activities. Eight local people and the senior Australian officer involved were executed by firing squad. The remaining POWs and senior civilians were sent to the punishment gaol in Singapore, where some would not survive. The rest were gaoled locally.

Repercussions

After the discovery of what was termed "The Sandakan Incident," the Japanese transferred almost all of the officers, Australian and British, to Kuching. Security at the Sandakan POW camp was increased and life became very much more difficult. To keep a closer watch on the prisoners, the Japanese moved E Force into the B Force compound. The British had already recently been moved to a compound alongside the E Force camp.

In addition, security increased, punishments grew harsher, entertainment was reduced, rations were cut, Red Cross aid parcels were withheld, new rules were introduced, and prisoners were forced to work even harder. As the Japanese began to lose the war, violence by the guards increased during 1944. The incidence of malaria, beriberi and dysentery, all avoidable with proper diet and medication, also rose, and the death toll, previously kept under control, crept higher.

The transfer of 100 British to build an airstrip on Labuan Island, off British North Borneo's west coast, further diminished the available labour force. By October 1944, there were 2,434 POWs left at Sandakan, both alive and dead.

In December, Allied planes, which had begun to bomb Sandakan town in September, totally destroyed the airfield, leaving POWs with no work to do. The Allies likely targeted the camp as part of their preparation for an attack on Borneo.
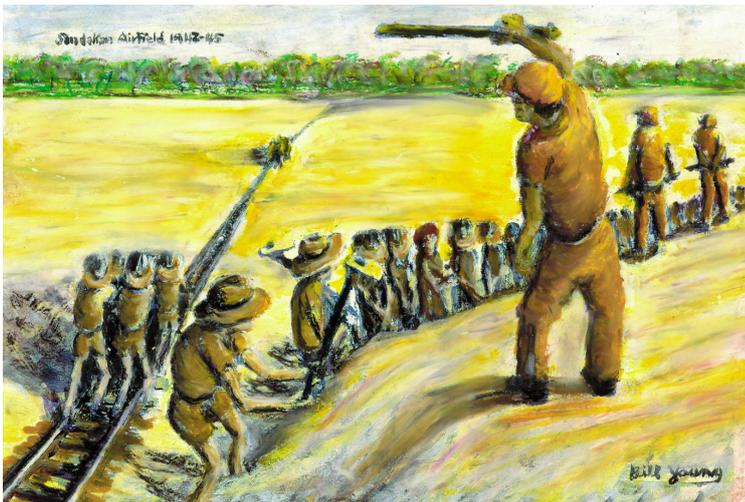
Left: the Australian POWs at work on the Japanese airfield in Sandakan.

Left: flying practice, a common group punishment inflicted on the POWs where they were to stand in the heat with their arms spread. Dropping of the arms would result in beatings.

Images painted by Billy Young, supplied by Lynette Silver

The following month, Hoshijima cut the rice ration for the Australians to zero, forcing them to fall back on their hoarded supplies. Not knowing how long the rice had to last, and with very little other food to supplement it, the Australian quartermaster set the daily ration at 100 grams per man per day, then 70 – one tenth of the amount issued in 1942.

The marches begin

With the drastic reduction in food, the death toll escalated dramatically in January. Consequently, when Hoshijima announced that 500 POWs were to transfer to a camp where there was plenty of food, many volunteered. Ultimately, only 455 were deemed fit enough to be placed on the draft, which, at the end of January, began to leave the camp in groups of about 50 each, accompanied by the same number of regular Japanese soldiers, and camp guards.

However, their destination was not to another, better camp. They were bound for the west coast, hundreds of miles away, on foot and carrying supplies for the Japanese, following a recently cut supply trail that passed through crocodile infested swamps and over rugged, uninhabited, jungle-clad mountain ranges.

Keith Botterill, now aged 20, and fellow Dead Ender Alan Quailey, were assigned to Group 3, along with Botterill's closest mate, the much older Richard Murray, on what would become known as the first death march.

It was the wet season and the going was tough. Laden down with stores and equipment, the prisoners struggled to keep a footing in the pouring rain, as they toiled across swamps and up precipitous mountainsides. The incentive to keep going, however, was great – anyone who could not keep up was "disposed of," either with a bullet or a bayonet thrust to the heart. Food dumps were supposed to have been supplied along the way, but, when the groups stopped to rest, there was often little or no food available. Botterill's group of 49 found only six cucumbers and a small amount of tapioca to last them four days, an ordeal that saw five men shot on one hillside because they were too overcome with exhaustion to go any further.

Despite this, about 75 per cent of the marchers reached their destination. As Allied bombing in the west had put an end to plans to take them any further, they were unexpectedly halted at the tiny villages of Ranau and Paginatan, 155 miles and 129 miles respectively from Sandakan.

After marching for 17 days, Botterill's group was now reduced to 37. His mate Alan Quailey did not finish the journey. On 14 February, Group 3 was only 11 miles from Ranau when Quailey slumped against a tree and said he could go no further. Although Murray tried to encourage him to move on, he refused. The killing squad, bringing up the rear, bayoneted him to death.

The Ranau death camps

At Ranau and Paginatan, food was reduced to a small handful of rice, and medical assistance non-existent. Dysentery broke out, and the prisoners, weakened by starvation, died like flies. Botterill and Murray, realising that to stay at the Ranau camp meant certain death from illness and malnutrition, volunteered to join a rice-carrying party to transfer supplies to Paginatan. As long as a POW could carry the 20-kilogram sack across two mountain ranges, he had opportunities to steal food from native gardens along the way, forage for edible snails and fern tops, and syphon rice from the sack through a piece of hollow bamboo. Botterill and Murray went on five of the six trips, a journey that took five days – three days out, and two days back.

The POWs at Paginatan saw very little of the rice. At the end of March, the numbers were so depleted that the survivors were marched to Ranau to join those who were still alive there. A month later, just 56 were left from the 455 who had set out from Sandakan only three months before.

When Allied planes began bombing a grass airstrip close to the POW hut, Botterill, Murray and the rest of the group were moved to a small camp in nearby jungle. Three weeks later, with only 30 left alive, and, realising that their chances of survival were practically zero unless they could escape, Botterill and Murray and two other mates stole food from a Japanese store to sustain them while on the run.

The theft was not discovered immediately, but, when it was, the camp guard commander lined the prisoners up and demanded that the culprit confess. Although the penalty for stealing food was death, Richard Murray, to save the others, took the blame. After being severely beaten, he was taken away and bayoneted.

On 10 June, when the Japanese announced prisoners were to transfer to a camp hidden in deep jungle to the south of Ranau, there were just 20 left alive. Ten made the move. The rest, who were ill, were killed.

Sixteen days later, the survivors of the first march, now reduced to six, saw a line of creatures, barely recognisable as human, stagger down the hillside to their jungle camp, now known as the Last Camp. They were all who were left from the second death march – just 183 from the 536 who had set out from Sandakan a month before.

The march had begun on 29 May, following an Allied aerial and sea attack on Sandakan of such magnitude that the Japanese and the remaining 800 or so POWs concluded that invasion from the nearby Philippines, now in American hands, was imminent. However, the attack was simply a ploy to divert attention from the west coast, where, on 10 June, a huge Allied force would land to liberate Labuan Island, before proceeding inland to occupy British North Borneo and nearby Brunei.

The death toll on this march was much higher than the first, with two-thirds of the group dying or being disposed of along the way. As it was regarded as a "retreat," any Japanese who could not keep up were also killed, in accordance with Japanese military regulations.

However, not all the POWs who failed to arrive at the Last Camp had been murdered. A considerable number, in what had become a very strung-out column, had dropped out and slipped away into the jungle to avoid the inevitable, while a number of others had escaped. Helped by Dusun villagers, two escapees reached the safety of Allied lines. In addition, a party of about 100, siphoned from the column earlier in the march, were used as a labour force to carry supplies back and forth between Mile 15 and Mile 84.

The final days

Conditions at the Last Camp were appalling, with no shelter for the newcomers and food reduced to way below sustenance level. Although barely alive, the prisoners were still obliged to work. This included hauling heavy buckets of water from the nearby river up a steep hillside to the officers' camp, a task so enervating that it killed all but one of those forced to carry it out. Dysentery was rife, with prisoners dying at an alarming rate.

It was not until 7 July that the remnants of the first march, isolated on the far side of a river from the others, were allowed to join the new arrivals. However, there had been some fleeting contact two days before when Botterill's small group of six chanced upon Dead Ender Harry Longley. A much-loved larrikin of the first order, who had taken up smoking at a very young age, Harry came from the country town of Yass, in NSW, where his family were well-known graziers.

While labouring in his camp area for the Japanese, Harry had collapsed from malaria and starvation. Botterill, who was passing by on a working detail, propped his nicotine-addicted friend against a tree and put a cigarette in his mouth before quickly going on his way. Shortly afterwards, shots were heard. Harry Longley, the Dead End Kid who had so loved life and lived it to the limit, was dead.

On the night of 7 July, Botterill and three others escaped. They eluded the search parties and were hidden by Dusun villagers, deep in a valley five miles to the west of Ranau. One of the party died but the other three remained in hiding until rescued six weeks later on 24 August, by Australian commandoes who had parachuted into the area.

On 28 July, two more escaped from the Last Camp and were also sheltered by local people. One died on 8 August. The other was rescued that afternoon by another group of commandoes.

Back at the Last Camp, on 1 August, there were just 32 left alive from the 183 who had arrived 34 days previously. Of these, 17 who were very ill were killed that day. The remaining 15 lasted until 27 August, when all were shot, 12 days after the war ended. That same day, in what appears to be a blanket order for disposal, 55 POWs still alive from the 100 carrying supplies were also shot near the Muanad River, 49.5 miles from Sandakan.

The fate of those left behind

Back at Sandakan, 288 POWs had been left behind when the second march departed. As the Japanese had torched the Australian compound, they were in a wired-off section of the British compound, awaiting the arrival of invading Allied troops. As time wore on, the Japanese realised there would be no invasion from the Philippines, but the guards were instructed to remain there until the last POW died, and then move into the interior.

However, not all prisoners left behind were ill. Some were ambulancemen, who stayed to look after the sick in anticipation of liberation in a few days. Others, suffering from malaria, had weathered the attacks and were no longer incapacitated.

In mid-June, 64 POWs (the Japanese later stated 75) were put on trucks and transported to the end of the road at Mile 15, to begin a third march. All were dead before they reached Mile 42, either from illness or malnutrition, or dispatched by the Japanese.

At Sandakan, the rest clung to life, aided by some medical supplies and occasional bags of vegetables slung over the barbed wire by the guards, and by local Chinese who crept up at night to push food under the wire. Consequently, 23 who looked as if they might last for some time were taken to the airstrip on 13 July and shot. The senior British officer also lost his life when he was crucified after he stole a pig from the Japanese pen to feed the men under his care.

On the evening of 14 August, there were just two POWs, both Australian, left alive. One died during the night. The following morning, at around 7.15 the sole survivor was decapitated by the guard commander. Five hours later, Emperor Hirohito announced that Japan had surrendered. The war was over.

The worst atrocity

The beheading of Sandakan's last POW, and those murdered on 27 August, brought the death toll at Sandakan, Ranau and on the marches, to 2,428 consisting of 1,787 Australians and 641 British. Just over 1,000 died on the marches or at Ranau. The remaining died at Sandakan.

There has been much debate since 1945 as to why the Sandakan POWs were never rescued. Some argue that a planned rescue mission for April 1945 was cancelled after faulty intelligence stated that all prisoners had been moved to the west coast. Others claim there was simply not enough reliable information about the prisoners' exact location. A further contested theory is that, even if a mission had been attempted, the Japanese might have killed all the POWs in retaliation. Regardless of these explanations, a rescue mission was never carried out, tragically leaving almost all prisoners to their fate.

The six Australians who escaped were the sole survivors.

Of approximately 22,000 Australians taken prisoner by the Japanese in South-east Asia, about one in three died in captivity, or 33 per cent. With a death rate of 99.75 per cent, Sandakan and the death marches are the greatest atrocity perpetrated against Australians in the Second World War.
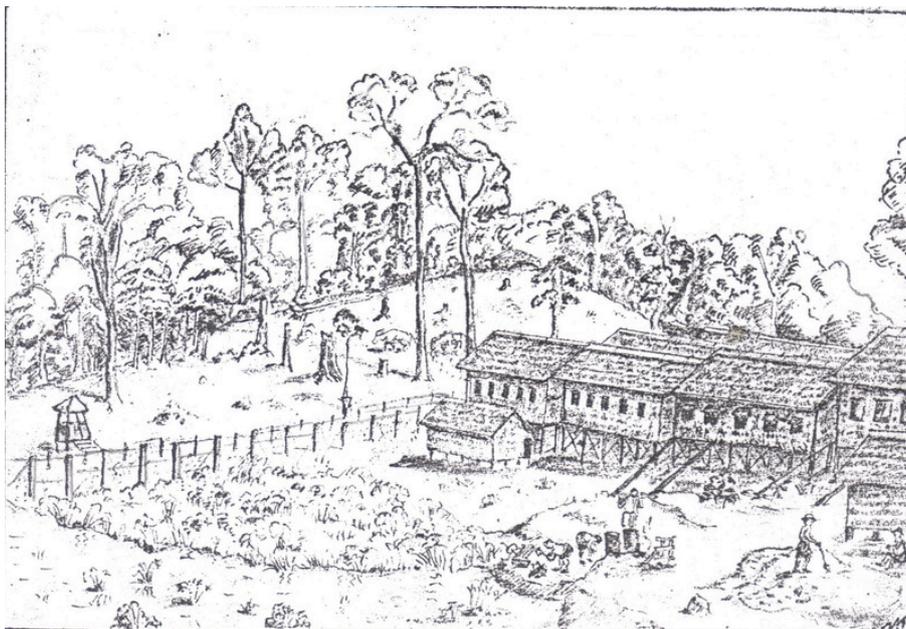

Image: Sketch of Sandakan POW camp (Source: Lynette Silver)

Java and the Burma-Thailand railway (1942–1945)

When Singapore fell in February 1942, thousands of Australian soldiers from the 8th Division and its support units were taken as POWs by the Japanese. Among them were men of the 2/30th, 2/29th, and 2/26th Battalions. Many were sent north to join thousands of Asian labourers, as part of Japan's plan to build a 420-kilometre railway linking Thailand and Burma. The line, carved through dense jungle and steep mountains, became known as the Burma-Thai Railway, or the "Death Railway," because of the enormous suffering and loss of life involved in its construction. The Japanese hoped the railway would support their military operations in Burma by allowing them not to have to send supplies around Singapore.

One of the Australian POWs was Sir Edward "Weary" Dunlop. Born in 1907 at Major Plains near Wangaratta, Victoria, his childhood on a dairy farm taught him hard work, independence, and compassion. A talented student and athlete, he studied pharmacy and then medicine at the University of Melbourne, where he also played rugby for the Wallabies. Known for his calm and practical nature, Weary joined the Australian Army Medical Corps before the Second World War, believing it was his duty as a doctor to serve where he was needed most. He was captured in Java in early 1942 and was sent to the railway, via Changi, in January 1943.

Another Australian, Stan Arneil, was studying law at the University of Sydney when he enlisted in the Second AIF in 1941. Born in Sydney in 1918, he grew up during the Great Depression in a close Catholic family that valued faith, discipline, and perseverance. He joined the 2/30th Battalion, part of the 8th Division, which was sent to defend Malaya, and later, Singapore. As a young lieutenant, Arneil and his unit fought bravely in the Battle of Gemas, one of the first successful ambushes against Japanese forces in the Malayan campaign. After the fall of Singapore, he became a prisoner of war. Later, he was sent to work on the Burma-Thai Railway, where he faced brutal conditions, starvation, and disease.

Weary Dunlop, captured separately in Java, served as a medical officer in "Dunlop Force," a group of Australian and British prisoners sent to Thailand in early 1943 to work on the railway near Hintok and Konyu. Stan Arneil, with the "F Force" group, was sent from Changi to work on the upper section of the line near Songkurai. The two men were separated by hundreds of kilometres, so they never met throughout the war, yet they have been identified for displaying similar courage, compassion, and leadership. Both men held positions of responsibility in the camps: Arneil as a sergeant and Weary as a medical officer. Officers were expected by the Japanese to manage their fellow POWs, were not required to perform the same forced labour, and thus experienced lower mortality rates compared with enlisted men.

Life and labour

Conditions on the railway depended on the location. The more remote the area, the harsher the conditions and the greater the suffering and loss of life among the POWs. Prisoners worked long hours in tropical heat and monsoon rain, hacking through rock and jungle with hand tools, laying sleepers in flooded cuttings, and carrying heavy loads barefoot through mud. Disease spread rapidly, with cholera, malaria, and dysentery being common illnesses. Food was scarce. The Japanese, unprepared for so many captives, treated the men harshly and often brutally.

Medical officers such as Colonel Albert Coates (working in Burma) and Weary Dunlop provided both medical care and moral support. With little equipment, they performed amputations with sharpened spoons and built surgical tables from bamboo. Their courage saved hundreds of lives.

The men also found ways to keep hope alive. Smuggled radios brought news of Allied advances, and prisoners quietly spread these updates to lift morale. Some risked their lives to sabotage the railway by loosening bolts or misaligning tracks. Others traded food, including Dunlop, who engaged in a black market trade with locals, even though discovery meant execution.

Courage in the face of darkness

In mid-1943, during what became known as the "Speedo Period," the Japanese demanded the railway be completed faster. Prisoners worked up to 18 hours a day, and deaths of POWs increased. At Hellfire Pass, men carved through solid rock by hand under the glow of bamboo torches. Survivors later described the eerie light and echoing hammer blows as hell on Earth.

During this time, Australian POWs responded to the extreme conditions in different ways. Some demonstrated courage and selflessness, while others focused primarily on their own survival. Weary Dunlop gained a reputation as a leader, largely through his role as a medical officer, where he was regularly observed assisting others. He wrote about his time as a POW stating, "It is only when we look beyond ourselves that we truly find the strength to endure."

Image: Australian prisoners of war carrying railway sleepers in Burma. AWM P00406.026

Signs of survival

By late 1943, the railway was finished. Of the 13,000 Australians who worked on it, more than 2,800 had died. It is estimated that approximately 90,000 Asian workers died too. Those who survived were weak and skeletal. Some men lost the will to live due to the hardships, while some manifested courage and an unbreakable spirit. They created secret classes, played music, and staged plays to lift each other's morale. Australian artists secretly sketched life in the camps, preserving powerful evidence later used in war crimes trials.

When liberation finally came in August 1945, some prisoners weighed less than 40 kilograms. The stories of ex-POWs returning home emphasised the Anzac qualities of endurance, brotherhood, and quiet defiance, with their survival seen as a triumph. Many kept the realities of their experiences to themselves.

Legacy

The Burma-Thai Railway remains both a monument to suffering and a symbol of resilience. The Australians who worked and died there showed strength and compassion under unimaginable conditions. In the years after the war, many veterans returned to Thailand and Burma, not to seek revenge, but to build memorials of remembrance and reconciliation.

Their legacy reminds future generations that true courage is not only found in battle, but also in endurance, kindness, and the refusal to surrender one's humanity.

A voice for reconciliation

For many, forgiveness after such suffering seemed impossible. Families had lost fathers, sons, and brothers. But Weary Dunlop believed that peace could come only through understanding. He visited Japan many times, meeting former enemies with respect and compassion. He encouraged cooperation between Japanese and Australian doctors and supported Japanese students studying in Australia.

Weary once said, "We must learn to forgive, but never forget. We must remember, so that such suffering never happens again."

His message was not about excusing the past, but about freeing people from hatred and building bridges toward a better future.

1950–2021 Australia's war involvement

Although the Second World War ended, conflict remains a reality in the contemporary world. Australia continues to maintain and train its defence forces, not only to contribute to peace operations across the globe, but also to be prepared in the event of war or emerging security threats. These efforts reflect an enduring commitment to protecting Australia, supporting international security, and contributing to humanitarian operations worldwide.

1950–2021 Australia's war involvement

Australian forces have served in conflicts such as the Korean War, the Vietnam War, the Confrontation with Indonesia, and more recently in Iraq and Afghanistan. These involvements have often reflected Australia's alliances with the United States and membership of the United Nations, and its commitment to supporting international security and regional stability.

Korean War (1950–1953)

After North Korea invaded South Korea, Australia joined a United Nations force to defend South Korea. Over 17,000 Australians served from army, navy and air force. More than 340 were killed. The war ended in a ceasefire, although no peace treaty has been concluded. Australia's involvement showed its strong support for the United Nations and for resisting the spread of communism in Asia.

Vietnam War (1962–1975)

Australia joined the United States in supporting South Vietnam against communist North Vietnam. More than 60,000 Australians served, including many who were conscripted (forced to serve through National Service). The war became deeply unpopular at home because of this compulsory military service and the graphic media coverage of the long campaign. This led to protests and debates about Australia's alliance with the U.S. Around 520 Australians died and over 3,000 were wounded. The war ended with the fall of Saigon to the North Vietnamese in 1975, and it had a lasting impact on Australian politics and society.

Confrontation with Indonesia (1963–1966)

This conflict, known as Konfrontasi, occurred when Indonesia opposed the creation of Malaysia as a federation of former British colonies. Australian forces served alongside British and Malaysian troops to protect Malaysia from Indonesian attacks along the border of Borneo. It was a small but tense conflict, and 23 Australians died. It helped strengthen Australia's relationship with several Southeast Asian neighbours.

Iraq War (2003–2009)

In 2003 claims that the government of Saddam Hussein was developing weapons of mass destruction (which were never found) saw Australia join a U.S.-led invasion of Iraq. The goal was to remove Hussein and end Iraqi support for terrorist activities. Australian troops helped in combat early on, then shifted to training Iraqi forces and reconstruction programs. Most Australian troops left Iraq by 2009. The war was controversial, being so closely tied to US interests, and many Australians questioned whether joining was the right decision.

Afghanistan (2001–2021)

Australia joined the US-led and NATO after the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks in a campaign to remove the Taliban from Afghanistan and stop that country being used as a base for terrorism. Over 39,000 Australians served across 20 years, making it Australia's longest involvement in a war. The mission focused on fighting terrorism, training Afghan forces, and providing aid, mainly in Uruzgan province. Forty-one Australians died, and many more were injured. By 2020 most Australian troops had been withdrawn. The Taliban regained control in 2021, leading to reflection on the war's outcome and cost.

Australia and other nations continue to work through international organisations to build peace and respond to new threats and challenges.

Investigation Triangle

The triangle below shows how to think like a historian. It is by creating questions about people, places and events that historians investigate by considering perceptions and searching through information to answer questions.

Finding information in both primary and secondary sources helps to provide more reliable evidence to answer questions.

- Primary sources show what people saw, said, or did at the time.
- Secondary sources explain or interpret those events later.

It is important to think about and plan how to research and investigate to answer questions. The research starter list and investigations consideration template is a starting point for this.

Perceptions:
What points of view or biases exist?

Inquiry:
What question about war history would you like to answer?

Primary Sources:
What original evidence exists from the time?

Secondary Sources:
What have historians or scholars said about this?
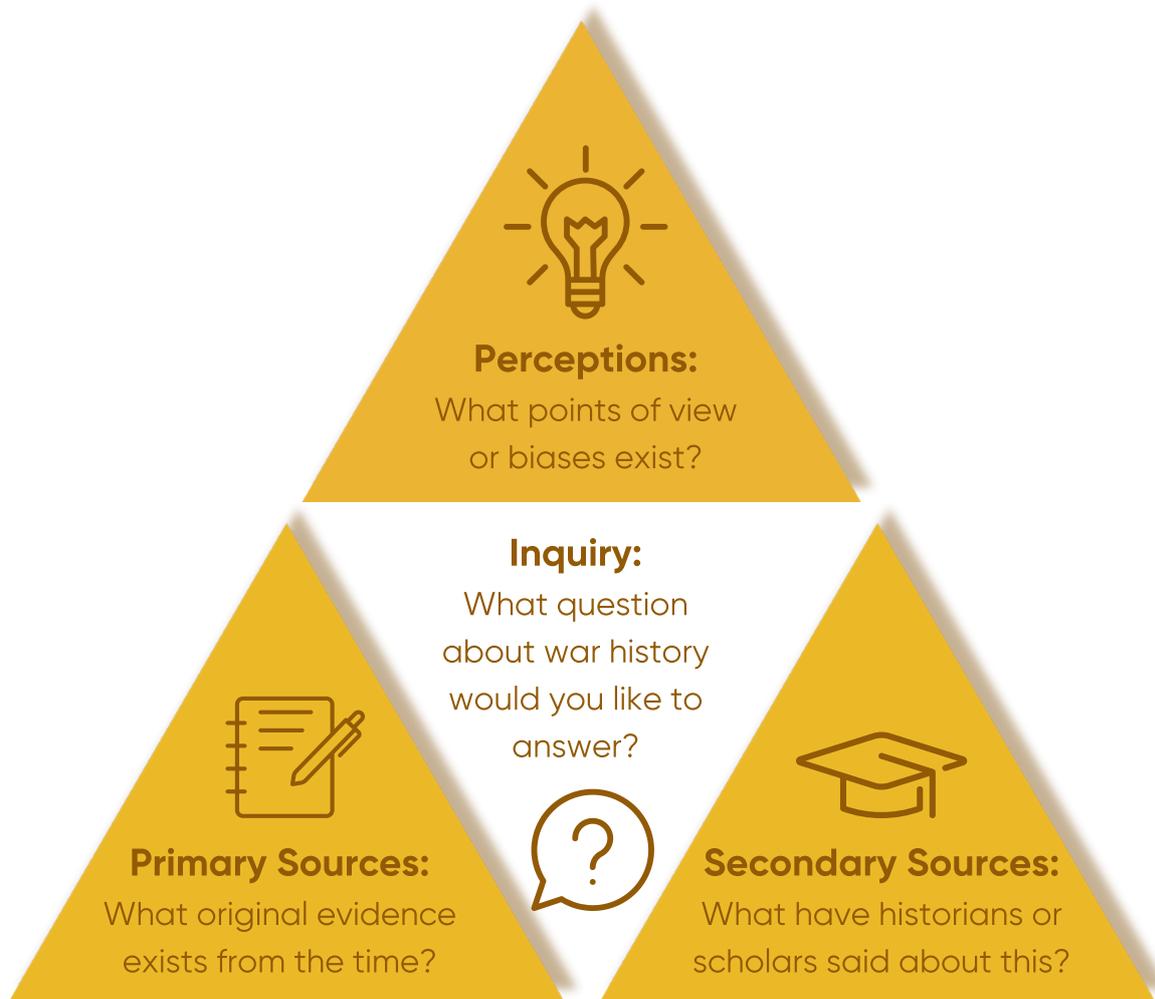
Guided Viewing Template

Use the following prompts, not as an exhaustive list, but to guide information that can be collected about World Wars to inform learning.

Primary sources	Notes
Using evidence from the time of the event (e.g. letter, photo, diary, object) • Who created this source? • Why do you think this source was preserved? • Where was it made or found? • How close is it to the time of the event? • Why was it made/created? (e.g. to inform, persuade, record, celebrate) • How reliable is it? • What does it reveal or hide?	

Secondary sources	Notes
Looking at how history is interpreted after the event (e.g. books, websites, documentary, article) • Who wrote or produced this interpretation? • Who was the audience? • What evidence do they use? • Where is this source from? (e.g. book, website, documentary) • When was it written? • How much later than the event? • Why was it created? • Does this source help develop understanding?	

Guided Viewing Template

Perceptions	Notes
Understanding bias, point of view, and historical context • Who is expressing this view or opinion? • What is their background or possible bias? • Where are they located, and might this affect their view? • When was this perspective recorded? • Why might they hold this opinion? • What are their motivations? • Are there different perceptions?	

Inquiry questions	Notes
Framing your historical investigation • Can this question be answered? • What are the people, places or events involved in my question? • What is the main thing that I want to understand? • How will I use evidence to answer my question? • Who or what was involved in my inquiry question? • Where is a good place to start looking for answers?	

Teacher guidance for See–Think–Wonder

See-Think-Wonder is a thinking routine that activates students' prior knowledge to help connect new information. This process builds curiosity to simulate a desire for further investigations to inform essay writing. Finally, See-Think-Wonder provides a structured way to frame thinking that can be conducted through conversation and documentation. This thinking strategy can be used before or after consideration of the Investigation Triangle.

How to run the routine

Before the lesson

- Select 3-5 short sources: a reading, a video clip, a map, a poster, or a primary source excerpt.
- Prepare the See-Think-Wonder template for students.

During the lesson

Step 1: SEE (10-15 minutes) Students independently observe the sources and record what they see without interpreting.

Step 2: THINK (10-15 minutes) Students explain what they think is happening and start linking ideas to the question that they have identified when working through the investigation triangle process.

Open ended questions starters can encourage student thinking:

- *"[E.g. Australia's location compared to Europe] could have been an influenced how…"*
- *"What might this mean for [women, people in society, government]…"*
- *"This connects with what themes of war history…"*

Step 3: WONDER (10 minutes) Students generate questions that become research sub-questions to further guide their study.
Prompt with:

- *"What do you still want to know?"*
- *"What questions could lead to a strong essay?"*

After working through the routine of See-Think-Wonder, students share their questions with partners or in groups. They consider if questions raised add value to and can act as sub questions to the investigation triangle.

See-Think-Wonder Template

SEE - What do you notice?

Write down key things you notice from your readings, videos, maps, images, or primary sources. You can include facts, quotes, statistics, people, places, events, or anything that stands out.

Consider turning SEE observations into evidence by collecting quotes or references for your essay:

THINK – What do you think is going on? Why?

Write your ideas or interpretations. What do these facts or images suggest? What themes do you see that link to question that has been identified when working through the investigation triangle process (e.g., causes of war, technology, propaganda, alliances, life on the home front)?
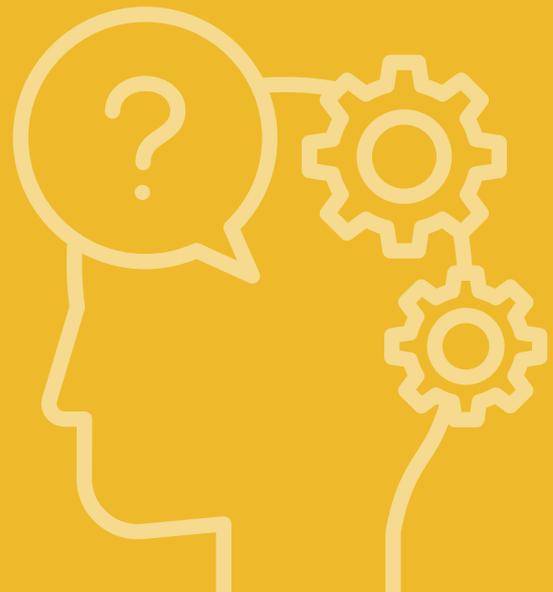
Consider turning THINK reflections into arguments or claims that you can use in your essay:

WONDER – What other questions do you have? What do you want to explore further?

Turn your curiosity into more questions. These are called sub-questions that help you to look for answers and guide your study further.

Consider turning WONDER responses into a research focus by creating sub-questions that break down your big question further:

Research starter list: where to find information

Library Sources

- Non-fiction books (overview texts, biographies, historical summaries)
- Reference books (textbooks, atlases, timelines)
- Academic books (more detailed explanations of events or people)

Online Sources

- State and national library websites (e.g. National Library of Australia)
- Museum websites (Australian War Memorial, state museums)
- Government archives (Trove, National Archives of Australia)
- Digital exhibitions with photos, letters, documents
- Trusted history websites (BBC History, Australian History sites)

Primary Source Collections

- Photographs, letters, diaries, posters, speeches
- Newspapers from the time (e.g. Trove digitised newspapers)
- Artefacts (museum collections)
- Maps, charts and census material
- Oral histories or recorded interviews

Secondary Source Collections

- Documentaries and history series
- Podcasts from experts and historians
- Newspaper articles written after the event
- Online articles from trusted educational organisations
- Textbooks

People as Sources

- Historians or guest speakers
- Community members with lived experience
- Interviews with local experts (museum staff, librarians)

Evidence Table

Investigation question (from investigation triangle)

One main research question, from investigation triangle. Example prompts: What caused…? How did…? To what extend did …. Influence…?

Background and Context

Explain what you already know. Consider time, place, key events such as when and where did this happen, what developments occurred, what was the period of time and location.

Sub-questions

Break your main question into 3–5 smaller questions, to help guide your investigation, from see–think–wonder.

Research sources used

Refer to the Research Starter List and Investigation Triangle Viewing Template to write down a range of sources that you will use to search for answers to you main and sub questions.

Findings/Evidence

Summaries your key findings and make notes of any quotes or statements that you would like to use for reference in your essay, with information about where to locate this if relevant.

Reference List

Keep a reference list for your essay.

AI considerations for teachers

The Australian Framework for Generative Artificial Intelligence in Schools (Commonwealth of Australia, 2023) provides national guidance for the ethical, safe, and responsible use of generative AI in Australian schools. It recognises that AI tools are rapidly shaping how teaching and learning occur and highlights the importance of maintaining student wellbeing, privacy, academic integrity, and meaningful learning.

This learning module supports teachers to integrate AI into classroom practice in ways that align with the Framework. It offers practical guidance, classroom strategies, and student reference guides to help AI use to enhance learning, rather than replacing thinking, creativity, or human judgement.

All materials provided in this module have no copyright restrictions and may be adapted to suit your local context, school policies, curriculum, and student learning needs.

1. Purpose of AI Use in the Classroom

Teachers are encouraged to use AI in ways that:
- Support student understanding and skill development
- Encourage critical and creative thinking
- Promote responsible and ethical technology use
- Complement teacher instruction and student effort
- AI should be positioned as a learning support tool, similar to a calculator or spell-checker, rather than a shortcut for completing work.

2. Ethical and Responsible Use

Consistent with the national framework, it is recommended that teachers:
- Explain what AI is and how it works at an age-appropriate level
- Discuss limitations, bias, and potential inaccuracies in AI outputs
- Reinforce that students remain responsible for their learning and submitted work
- Model and provide ways to acknowledge where and how AI has been used (see APA referencing guide and Using AI Responsibly classroom poster in this resource).
- Students should understand that AI generated content may be helpful, but it is not automatically correct or reliable.

3. Academic Integrity and Assessment

Make expectations about AI use explicit by:
- Clarifying when AI use is permitted, limited, or not allowed
- Explaining how students acknowledge when AI has been used

4. Teaching Students How to Use AI Well

Effective classroom practice includes teaching students to:
- Provide AI with prompts and information that they understand themselves
- Check any information provided by AI with multiple sources
- Edit, improve, and personalise anything that AI has generated

5. Privacy and Safety Considerations

It is recommended to:
- Use school/department approved AI where available
- Avoid entering personal or sensitive information into AI
- Teach students about protecting their digital identity
- Follow school and department policies

6. Suggested Classroom Applications

AI may be used to support:
- Brainstorming ideas
- Give examples or explanations
- Draft and edit writing

Teachers are encouraged to adapt all content from this learning module to accommodate the local context, student learning needs, school and state/territory policies and practices.

AI consideration for students

AI tools can support your learning by helping you to think critically and creatively, but AI makes mistakes and can't replace your learning. You need to understand learning well enough to instruct AI like an assistant if this is allowed by your class teacher and school.

What AI can be used for:

- Brainstorming ideas
- Helping plan writing
- Explaining difficult topics in simple language
- Checking grammar, readability and spelling
- Summarising information

What AI should not be used for

- Writing whole assignments
- Copying and pasting answers
- Creating work that you do not understand
- Replacing research from real sources (be careful here as AI often gives wrong information)

Always check AI information. AI can make mistakes.

- Check facts with reliable sources
- Use trusted websites (see 'Research Starter List' in this resource)
- Do not rely on AI as your only source

Keep your own voice

- Rewrite information in your own words
- Make sure you understand everything that you include from AI

Think ethically

- Using AI responsibly means being honest, respectful, and doing your own learning
- If you used AI to help with ideas, planning, or editing, say so (See APA Referencing Guide)
- If you are unsure whether you can use AI for a task, ask your teacher first

Assessment and writing planner

P Point	*Turn your investigation question and sub questions into an explanation.*
E Explain/ Elaborate	*Body Paragraph 1: Claim (what answer did your sub-question present) + evidence (how do you know this to be true?). Consider different perspectives and significance.*
E Explain/ Elaborate	*Body Paragraph 2: Claim (what answer did your sub-question present) + evidence (how do you know this to be true?). Consider different perspectives and significance.*
L Link	*Conclusion: Sum up what has been presented in the explain/elaborate sections, link back to the research question and link back to the broader World Wars context.*

Assessment and writing planner

PEEL (depending on the word length additional evidence sections could be included or removed)	Explanation
Point	Turn your investigation question and sub questions into an explanation.
Explain/Elaborate	Body Paragraph 1: Claim (what answer did your sub-question present) + evidence (how do you know this to be true?). Consider different perspectives and significance.

Explain/Elaborate	Body Paragraph 2: Claim (what answer did your sub-question present) + evidence (how do you know this to be true?). Consider different perspectives and significance.
Link	Conclusion: Sum up what has been presented in the explain/elaborate sections, link back to the research question and link back to the broader World Wars context.

APA Referencing Guide

Referencing shows where your information comes from, that you have checked your facts, and helps others verify your sources. Education communities like schools and universities value evidence, reasoning, and justified ideas, which are shown through referencing.

You need to reference in two places:
- **In-text citation** – inside your writing
- **Reference list** – at the end of your work

1. In-text citations (inside your writing)
Use the author's surname and the year.

Basic format (Author, Year)
Example:
Australia entered World War I in 1914 (Australian War Memorial, 2020).

If you mention the author in your sentence show – Author (Year)
Example:
The Australian War Memorial (2020) explains that many Australians served overseas.

If there is no author – Use the organisation name or title.
Example:
(Department of Veterans' Affairs, 2019)

If you use a direct quote – Add a page number if available.
Example:
"Over 60,000 Australians lost their lives" (Australian War Memorial, 2020, p. 3).

2. Reference List (at the end of your writing)

- Title the page: **References**
- List sources in **alphabetical order**
- Use a **hanging indent** (first line left, next lines indented)

2. Reference List - Common Source Types

Book Format
Author, A. A. (Year). Title of book. Publisher.
Example
Beaumont, J. (2013). Australia's war 1914-1918. Allen & Unwin.

Website Format
Author or Organisation. (Year). Title of webpage. Website name. URL
Example
Australian War Memorial. (2020). Australians at war. https://www.awm.gov.au

Online Article Format
Author, A. A. (Year). Title of article. Website name. URL
Example
Smith, J. (2021). Life on the Western Front. History Australia.
https://www.historyaustralia.com

Video (e.g., YouTube) Format
Creator. (Year). Title of video [Video]. Website. URL
Example
Australian War Memorial. (2019). Gallipoli explained [Video]. YouTube.
https://www.youtube.com

Artificial Intelligence
Referencing AI is a new concept for everybody. Check with your teacher about what is required, but this following table is one way to use AI ethically.

AI Tool	Purpose of use	Prompts used	Anything used for assignment from AI
E.g. ChatGPT	Brainstorm	"Please give me some good ideas to research about the involvement of women in WW2"	I selected women as mechanics from the brainstorm results as my topic.
E.g. Copilot	Provided feedback	I put my opening chapter into Copilot and asked it, "Please tell me if this reads well for an opening Year 10 assignment about women as mechanics in the Second World War".	I did change two of my original sentences, not the same as what Copilot showed, but close to it.

Assessment guide

Years 9–10 War History Assessment Guide

Curriculum Alignment

History	Subject	Learning content
Australian Curriculum v9.0	Year 9 Year 10	First World War (1914–1918) Second World War
NSW Curriculum	Stage 5	**Historical context (core):** The Making of the Modern World **Depth studies (core):** *Australia: Making a nation* – from Federation to WWI; *Australia at War* – WWII (Assessment guide is based on the 2012 History Syllabus, with the learning content referenced to the 2024 Syllabus History 7–10 organisation due to the implementation of the 2024 syllabus not due until 2027)
Victorian Curriculum Version 2.0.	Year 9–10	**Strand:** Historical Knowledge and Understanding **Sub-strand:** Investigation: Australians at war (1914–1945)

Australian Curriculum v9.0

Knowledge and Understanding: Causes, events, experiences, consequences and legacies of the world wars

Historical Skills: Questioning and researching, using historical sources, historical perspective and interpretations, communicating.

Achievement standards: Year 9

By the end of Year 9, students explain the historical significance of the period of the early modern world up to 1918. They explain the causes and effects of events, developments, turning points or movements globally, in Australia and in relation to the First World War or in an Asian context. They describe the social, cultural, economic and/or political aspects related to the changes and continuities in a society or a historical period. Students explain the role of significant ideas, individuals, groups and institutions connected to the developments of this period and their influences on the historical events.

Students develop and modify questions about the past to inform historical inquiry. They locate, select and compare primary and secondary sources, and use information in sources as evidence in historical inquiry. They explain the origin, content, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources. Students compare sources to determine the accuracy, usefulness and reliability of sources as evidence. They explain causes and effects, and patterns of continuity and change connected to a period, event or movement. Students compare perspectives of significant events and developments, and explain the factors that influence these perspectives. They analyse different and contested historical interpretations. Students use historical knowledge, concepts and terms to develop descriptions, explanations and historical arguments that acknowledge evidence from sources.

Content descriptors

AC9HH9K08 – the causes of the First World War and the reasons why Australians enlisted to fight in the war
AC9HH9K09 – the places of significance where Australians fought, their perspectives and experiences, including the Gallipoli campaign, the Western Front and the Middle East
AC9HH9K10 – significant events and turning points of the war and the nature of warfare, including the Western Front Battle of the Somme and the Armistice
AC9HH9K11 – the effects of the First World War on Australian society, such as the role of women, political debates about conscription, relationships with the British Empire, and the experiences of returned soldiers
AC9HH9K12 – the commemoration of the First World War, including different historical interpretations and debates about the nature and significance of the Anzac legend and the war
AC9HH9S01 – develop and modify a range of historical questions about the past to inform historical inquiry
AC9HH9S02 – locate, identify and compare primary and secondary sources to use in historical inquiry
AC9HH9S03 – identify the origin and content of sources, and explain the purpose and context of primary and secondary sources
AC9HH9S05 – analyse cause and effect, and evaluate patterns of continuity and change
AC9HH9S08 – create descriptions, explanations and historical arguments, using historical knowledge, concepts and terms that incorporate and acknowledge evidence from sources

Year 9 assessment checklist
For adaptation based on teaching and learning focus and established inquiry question.

Student demonstrates:	Yes	Developing	Not evident
An explanation of the causes of the First World War			
Explains reasons why Australians enlisted to fight in the First World War			
Identifies and describes places of significance where Australians fought (e.g. Gallipoli)			
Describes significant events that impacted the war			
Explains effects of the war on Australian society			
Explains political debates about why Australians joined the war			
Explains impacts on returned soldiers			
Describes how the First World War is commemorated in Australia			
Explains the significance of the Anzac legend and the war			
Uses referenced historical sources as evidence to support responses			
Uses historical terms and concepts accurately			
Communicates ideas clearly and logically			

Achievement standards: Year 10

By the end of Year 10, students explain the historical significance of the period between 1918 and the early 21st century. They explain the causes and effects of events, developments, turning points or movements in 20th century Australia and internationally, leading up to and through the Second World War, and the post-war world. They describe social, cultural, economic and/or political aspects, including international developments, related to the changes and continuities in Australian society over this historical period. Students explain the role of significant ideas, individuals, groups and institutions connected to the developments of this period and their influences on Australian and global history.

Students develop and modify a range of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry. They locate, select and compare a range of primary and secondary sources and synthesise the information in sources to use as evidence in historical inquiry. They analyse the origin, content, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources. Students evaluate the accuracy, usefulness and reliability of sources as evidence. They sequence events and developments to analyse cause and effect, and patterns of continuity and change, connected to a period, event or movement. They evaluate perspectives of significant events and developments, and explain the important factors that influence these perspectives. They compare and evaluate different and contested historical interpretations. Students use historical knowledge, concepts and terms to develop descriptions, explanations and historical arguments that synthesise evidence from sources.

Achievement standards: Year 10

Content descriptors
AC9HH10K01 – the causes, outbreak and course of the Second World War and the significance of Australian involvement
AC9HH10K02 – the places where Australians fought, and their perspectives and experiences during the Second World War, such as the fall of Singapore, prisoners of war (POWs), the Battle of Britain and Kokoda
AC9HH10K03 – the significant events and turning points of the Second World War, including the Holocaust and use of the atomic bomb
AC9HH10K04 – the effects of the Second World War, with a particular emphasis on the continuities and changes on the Australian home front, such as the changing roles of women and First Nations Australians, and the use of wartime government controls
AC9HH10K05 – the significance of the Second World War to Australia's immediate post-war economic, political and social development, and Australia's international relationships in the 20th century
AC9HH10K06 – the commemoration of the Second World War, including different historical interpretations and debates
AC9HH9S01 – develop and modify a range of historical questions about the past to inform historical inquiry
AC9HH9S02 – locate, identify and compare primary and secondary sources to use in historical inquiry
AC9HH9S03 – identify the origin and content of sources, and explain the purpose and context of primary and secondary sources
AC9HH9S05 – analyse cause and effect, and evaluate patterns of continuity and change
AC9HH9S08 – create descriptions, explanations and historical arguments, using historical knowledge, concepts and terms that incorporate and acknowledge evidence from sources

Year 10 assessment checklist
For adaptation based on teaching and learning focus and established inquiry question.

Student demonstrates:	Yes	Developing	Not evident
Explains the main causes of the Second World War			
Describes how and why the Second World War began			
Explains the significance of Australia's involvement in the war			
Identifies places where Australians fought during the war			
Explains perspectives and experiences of Australians during the war			
Explains experiences of prisoners of war (POWs)			
Describes significant events and turning points of the war			
Explains effects of the war on the Australian home front			
Explains continuities and changes in roles of women			
Explains wartime government controls and their effects			
Explains significance of WWII to Australia's post-war development			
Describes how WWII is commemorated in Australia			
Develops and refines historical inquiry questions			
Uses referenced historical sources as evidence to support responses			
Uses historical terms and concepts accurately			
Communicates ideas clearly and logically			

NSW Curriculum assessment guide:
Australians at War – World Wars I and II

Stage: 5, Depth Study: 3 – Australians at War: World Wars I and II (1914–1918, 1939–1945)
Learning Outcomes & Curriculum Links
(based on 2012 Syllabus, with 2024 Syllabus due for implementation 2027)

Outcome code	Description	Assessment focus
HT5-1	Explains and assesses the historical forces and factors that shaped the modern world and Australia	Students explain causes of WWI and WWII, and why Australians enlisted.
HT5-2	Sequences and explains patterns of continuity and change in the modern world and Australia	Students sequence key campaigns, events, and the evolving nature of warfare.
HT5-4	Explains and analyses causes and effects of events and developments in the modern world and Australia	Students analyse effects of wars on soldiers, civilians, and Australia's international relationships.
HT5-5	Identifies and evaluates the usefulness of sources in the historical inquiry process	Students evaluate primary and secondary sources for reliability and perspective.
HT5-7	Explains different contexts, perspectives, and interpretations of the modern world and Australia	Students explore perspectives of soldiers, women, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.
HT5-9	Applies historical terms and concepts when communicating and understanding of the past	Students use terms such as "trench warfare," "ANZAC legend," and "propaganda" correctly in assignments.
HT5-10	Selects and uses appropriate oral, written, visual, and digital forms to communicate effectively about the past for different audiences	Students present reports, timelines, exhibitions, or digital projects for different audiences.

Related Life Skills outcomes:

HTLS-3, HTLS-4, HTLS-6, HTLS-7, HTLS-9, HTLS-11, HTLS-12, HTLS-13

Learning Content & Suggested Assessment

Topic	Content	Assessment ideas
Causes of War & Enlistment	Outline main causes of WWI and WWII. Explain why Australians enlisted. Locate and sequence where Australians fought.	- Short response - Timeline - Map activity - Class discussion - Oral presentation - Written essay - Visual poster - Diary/journal entries - Debate - Case study - Infographic - Research report - Digital storytelling - Role-play
Nature and Scope of Warfare	Describe warfare in Gallipoli, trench warfare, Holocaust, atomic bombs. Explain outcomes of key campaigns.	
Experiences of Australians at War	Investigate POWs, specific campaigns (Western Front, New Guinea), women's roles, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander participation, specific incidents (Battle of Hamel, Fall of Singapore).	
Impact on Australia	Examine government control on the home front: conscription, propaganda, changing roles of women, enemy 'aliens,' wartime censorship, changing government policies.	
Significance of the Wars to Australia	Impact on returned soldiers/civilians. Australia's changing international relationships post-WWII.	
Commemoration & ANZAC Legend	Explain how Australians commemorate the wars and the multiple perspectives on the ANZAC legend.	

Victorian Curriculum 2.0

VC2HH10K13–VC2HH10K23 The causes of World War 1 and World War 2

The following table presents content descriptions with subheadings taken directly from the Victorian Curriculum 2.0. The text box below each subheading provides contextualised elaborations that suggest student learning opportunities drawn from the Seriously Social war history learning module.

In addition to these learning experiences, Seriously Social provides a free debate guide for classroom teachers at seriouslysocial.org.au. This guide supports the use of debate as a teaching strategy where the indicators for student learning below involve debating.

Students learn about the causes of World War I and World War II (VC2HH10K13)
This may involve students: • creating a concept map to analyse the causes of World War I or World War II • identifying and describing the long-term causes of World War I, such as militarism, the alliance system among European countries in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, imperialism and nationalism, and short-term triggers of World War I, such as the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary • identifying significant events and ideas between World War I and World War II, including the Treaty of Versailles, the Great Depression and the rise of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party in Germany from 1933, and evaluating their significance as causes of World War II • analysing the major events leading up to the outbreak of World War II, such as the attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941 • evaluating the impacts of the Treaty of Versailles on Germany, the structural weaknesses of the League of Nations, the rise of fascist and militarist regimes, and the failure of appeasement policies as factors contributing to World War II
Students learn about the reasons that Australians, including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, fought in the world wars (VC2HH10K14)
This may involve students: • the significance of Australia's loyalty to Britain as an aspect of Australian identity • examining the responses of Australia's political leaders to the outbreak of war • describing the reasons why Australian men enlisted in the Australian Imperial Force • examining the reasons for Australia's involvement in World War II and prime minister Robert Menzies' 'Australia is also at war' speech • comparing and contrasting the reasons for Australia's involvement in World War I and World War II

Students learn about significant places where Australians fought (VC2HH10K15)

This may involve students:
- identifying the places where Australians fought during World War I
- identifying places where Australians fought during World War II and evaluating their significance to Australia's war effort and to the war as a global conflict

Students learn about the experiences and perspectives of those who fought or were deployed overseas, including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and women (VC2HH10K16)

This may involve students:
- Researching the roles of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander service personnel in World War I and World War II, building on the reading's brief reference to Indigenous volunteers and using additional sources to explore their experiences.
- Comparing the experiences of prisoners of war (POWs), using the reading's description of the treatment of POWs by Japanese forces and linking this to case studies from different theatres of war.
- Examining the perspectives of specific POW groups, such as those forced to work on the Thai–Burma Railway, prisoners held at Sandakan, or army nurses captured in Singapore, as extensions of the reading's discussion of wartime atrocities and imprisonment.

Students learn about significant events and turning points of the world wars (VC2HH10K17)

This may involve students:
- Ranking the significance of key Asia–Pacific events (1941–1945), using the reading's discussion of the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor and the expansion of the Pacific War as a starting point to investigate and compare major battles and events in the region.

Students learn about continuities and changes in the nature of warfare (VC2HH10K18)

This may involve students:
- Comparing the targeting of civilian populations in World War I and World War II, using the reading's discussion of the Holocaust, Japanese atrocities in Asia, and wartime bombing in the Second World War, and contrasting this with the First World War's primary focus on soldiers fighting on front lines.
- Investigating the nature of warfare in World War I, using the reading's explanation of militarism, mass mobilisation, and new weapons such as the machine gun and gas, as a starting point to explore trench warfare and technological change.
- Evaluating changing aspects of warfare in World War II, drawing on the reading's references to rapid invasions, total war, mass mobilisation, and the expansion of conflict into the Pacific following Pearl Harbor.

- Examining the race to build the atomic bomb, using the reading's description of global alliances and escalating total war to frame why nations sought increasingly powerful weapons.
- Investigating the consequences of atomic weapons, building on the reading's emphasis on civilian suffering and wartime atrocities to explore short- and long-term human and environmental impacts in Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

Students learn about significant consequences of the world wars on Australian society and the experiences and historical perspectives of those on the home front, including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples and women (VC2HH10K19)

This may involve students:
- Investigating the changing roles of women in Australia during WWII, such as participation in the military, the Women's Land Army, and factory work, and comparing these roles to women's work before and after the war.
- Investigating the local and national impacts of WWII, using examples like the Japanese submarine attacks on Sydney.
- Using the investigation triangle, identifying barriers to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander enlistment, including distrust of their loyalty, denial of their Indigenous status, and concerns about harmony in the armed forces.

Students learn about the causes of the Holocaust (VC2HH10K20)

This may involve students:
- Discussing the meaning of racism, discrimination, antisemitism, and genocide, as described in the reading's explanation of Nazi beliefs about master races and inferior groups.
- Investigating global attitudes and contexts before and during World War II, including how widespread prejudice, totalitarian regimes, and nationalist ideologies contributed to the Holocaust.
- Examining the historical context in Germany, including Nazi ideology, propaganda, the erosion of democracy, the rise of fascism, and racial laws such as the Nuremberg Laws, as outlined in the reading.

Students learn about significant events, individuals and developments of the Holocaust (VC2HH10K21)

This may involve students:
- Evaluating the roles of organisations and individuals, such as the Nazi Party, Adolf Hitler, the SS, collaborators in occupied countries, and the general civilian population, as described in the reading.
- Evaluating the significance of key events and developments, including the Nuremberg Laws, the establishment of concentration and extermination camps, and other actions that enforced Nazi racial ideology.

Students learn about the diverse experiences and perspectives of Jewish and non-Jewish peoples during the period of the Holocaust (VC2HH10K22)

This may involve students:

- Explaining Nazi racial and political policies, as outlined in the reading, which targeted Jewish people and other groups, including disabled people, Romani and Sinti communities, Slavic peoples, Soviet Communists, and other political prisoners.
- Examining examples of Jewish resistance, such as armed uprisings, spiritual resistance, or concealment, as referenced in the reading's discussion of persecution and survival strategies.
- Investigating non-Jewish people who protected or saved Jewish people, including stories of rescuers who opposed Nazi policies, as implied by the reading's context on oppression and persecution.

Students learn about different interpretations and debates about the significance and legacies of the world wars (VC2HH10K23)

This may involve students:

- Explaining the impacts of the First World War on Australian soldiers, including high casualty rates at Gallipoli and Europe, injuries, psychological trauma, and the return of the Spanish Flu. The investigation triangle allows for specific research, including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers who volunteered.
- Investigating the ANZAC tradition, looking at how Gallipoli shaped Australian identity, why ANZAC Day is commemorated, and how historians have debated its meaning over time.
- Evaluating Australia's international relationships, such as its ties to Britain in WWI, cooperation with New Zealand at Gallipoli, and links with the USA during WWII after Pearl Harbor.
- Considering the global legacies of WWII, including the rise of totalitarian regimes like Nazi Germany and Imperial Japan, the creation of the United Nations, and the rebuilding of Germany and Japan after the war.
- Discussing the Holocaust and its impacts, using examples from the reading about Nazi racial laws, concentration camps.
- Debating human rights as a legacy of WWII, connecting the war crimes and atrocities described in the reading to the development of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

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