

Mathematics Level 7

Chapter 1 — Overview: the making of the modern world

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What made the modern world: industry, migration and empire

Curriculum: VC2HH10K01

Linked elaborations: VC2HH10K01.E01 VC2HH10K01.E02 VC2HH10K01.E03 VC2HH10K01.E04

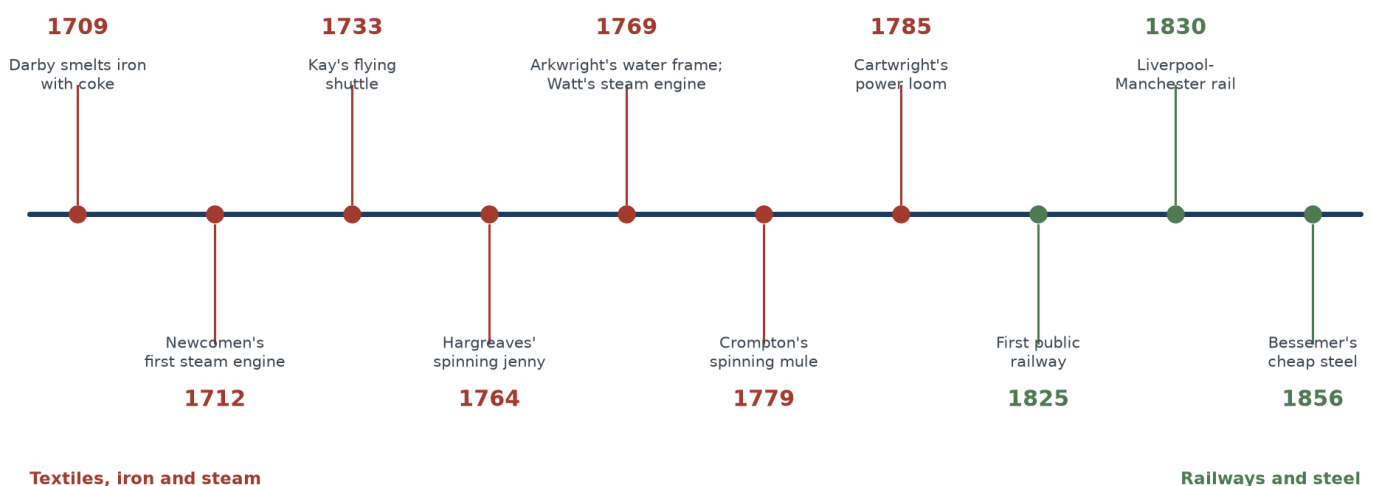
Theory

This is an **overview** section. It steps back to look at three great changes that, together, made the modern world between about 1750 and 1900: the **Industrial Revolution**, the vast **movement of peoples**, and **European imperialism**. None of the three happened on its own. Each one pushed and pulled on the others, as the closing diagram in this section shows.

Part 1 — The Industrial Revolution: machines, factories and their effects (VC2HH10K01.E01)

Before about 1750, most goods in Britain were made by hand in people's homes or in tiny workshops. This was called the **domestic system** (or **cottage system**). Then, beginning in Britain in the mid-1700s, a series of inventions moved work out of the home and into large buildings full of machines. Historians call this change the **Industrial Revolution**: the shift from hand tools and human or animal power to machines driven first by water and then by steam, and from home work to the **factory**.

Ten technical advances of the Industrial Revolution



Timeline of ten technical advances in the Industrial Revolution, from Darby's coke iron in 1709 to Bessemer's steel in 1856

The significant technical developments, and what each one did, were:

- **Iron and steel.** Abraham Darby (1709) showed how to smelt iron using coke, giving cheaper, stronger iron; Henry Bessemer (1856) made cheap steel. Iron and steel built the machines, bridges and rails.
- **Steam power.** Thomas Newcomen (1712) built the first practical steam engine to pump water from mines; James Watt (1769) made it far more efficient, so steam could drive factories, mines, ships and trains.
- **Textiles (cloth).** The flying shuttle (John Kay, 1733) sped up weaving; the spinning jenny (James Hargreaves, 1764), the water frame (Richard Arkwright, 1769) and the spinning mule (Samuel Crompton, 1779) sped up spinning; the power loom (Edmund Cartwright, 1785) mechanised weaving. Cloth became Britain's biggest industry.
- **Transport.** Canals, better roads and then railways (the first public railway in 1825) moved heavy goods cheaply, tying factories, mines and ports together.

Impact on manufacturing. Work moved from the domestic system to the **factory system**. The difference is shown below. Because machines were expensive, only a wealthy owner could buy them, so work gathered under one roof and the owner set the pace. Goods were produced faster and in far greater numbers, and their price fell.

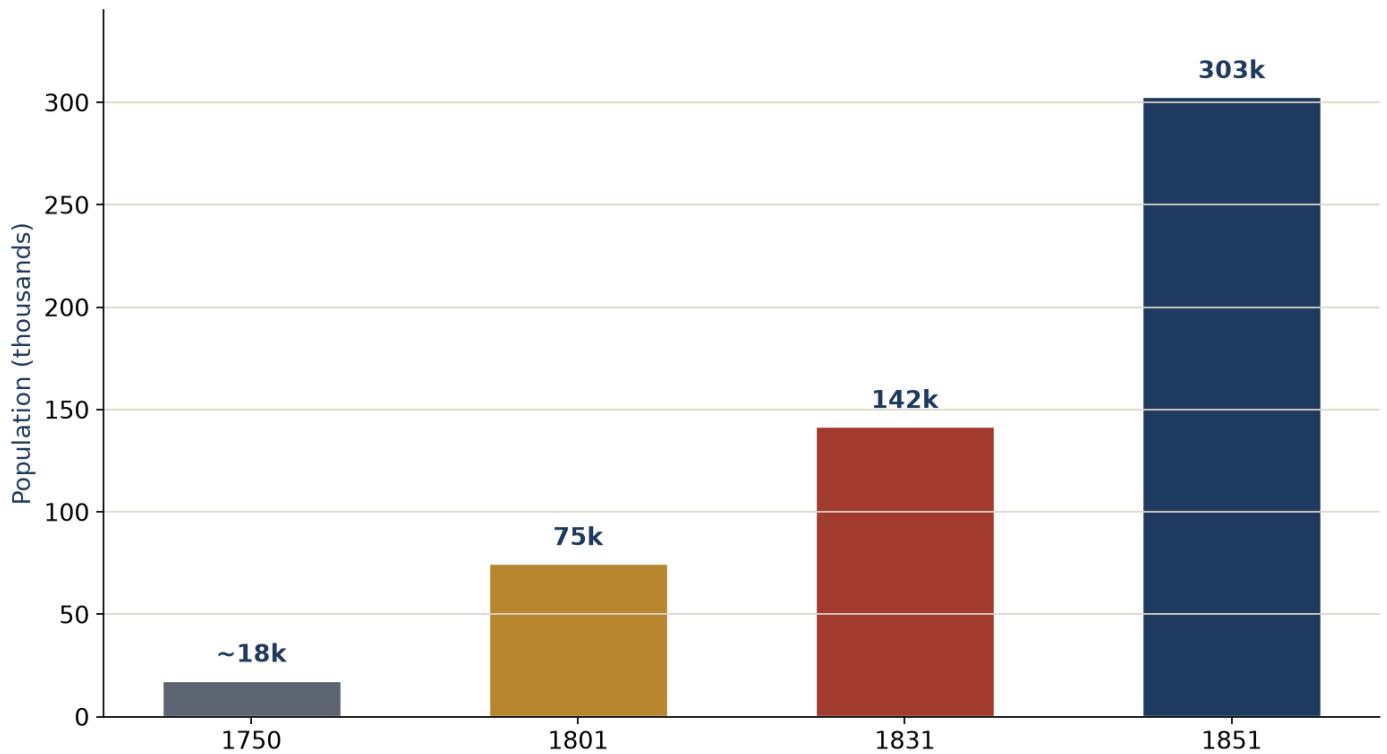
From the domestic system to the factory system

Feature	Domestic (cottage) system	Factory system
Where work happened	In workers' own homes and small workshops (the 'domestic' or 'cottage' system)	In large mills and factories, under one roof
Who owned the tools	Workers usually owned their own simple tools, such as spinning wheels and hand-looms	The factory owner owned the machines and the building
Source of power	Human hands, foot treadles, and sometimes water wheels	Water wheels, then steam engines driving many machines
Pace and hours	Workers set much of their own pace and their own hours	Strict hours set by the clock and the machine; long days
Who did the work	Whole families worked together, often part-time with farming	Wage workers, including many women and children

Comparison table of the domestic cottage system and the factory system across five features

Impact on social organisation. Factories were built where power, coal and transport were, so people moved from the countryside into towns. This growth of towns and cities is called **urbanisation**. Manchester, a small market town, became a great cotton city, as the chart shows.

Manchester's population grew about 17-fold in a century



1750 is an estimate; 1801-1851 are British census figures. Growth was driven by factory work and migration.

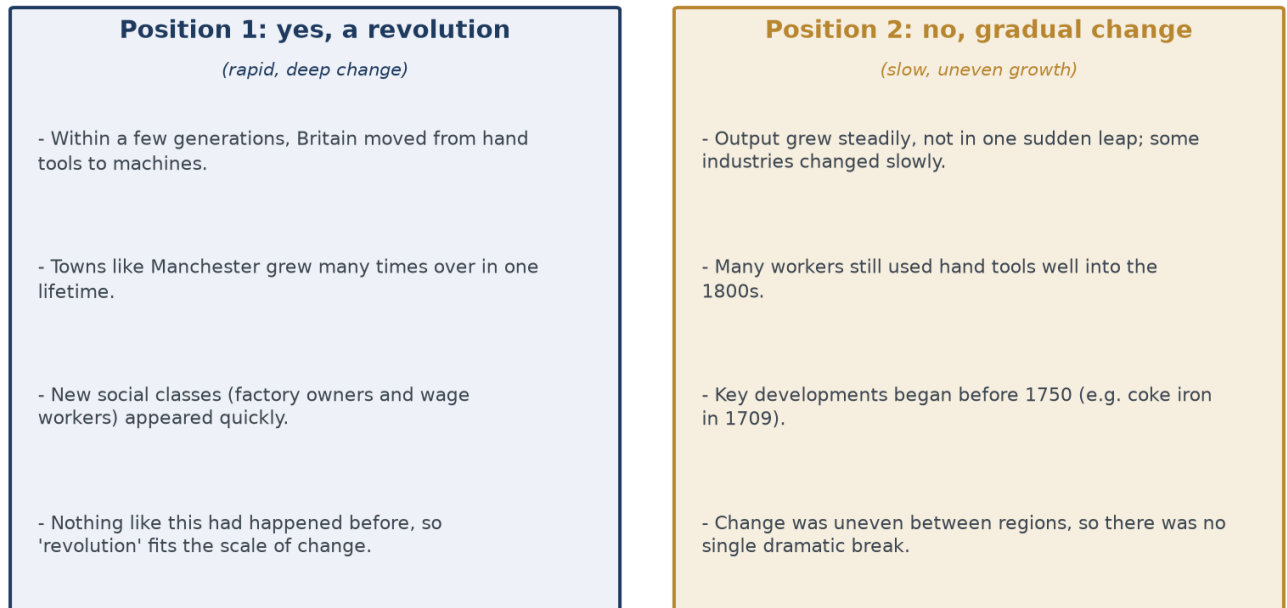
Bar chart showing Manchester's population growing from about 18,000 in 1750 to 303,000 in 1851

Urbanisation created two new broad social groups: a **middle class** of factory owners, merchants and managers who often grew rich, and a **working class** of wage workers who owned only their labour. Working and living conditions were often harsh: long hours, low pay, dangerous machines, and the employment of children; and the fast-growing towns were crowded, dirty and short of clean water. Over time, workers organised into **trade unions** and governments passed factory laws to limit hours and child labour.

Impact on trade. Factories needed raw materials (above all raw cotton) and needed markets to sell their cheap goods. British trade therefore spread across the world, and Britain became known as the “workshop of the world”. This hunger for raw materials and markets is one of the threads that leads to imperialism, and the search for work is one of the threads that leads to the movement of peoples.

Was it really a “revolution”? Historians disagree, and each side has a fair case.

Historians' debate: was it really a "revolution"?



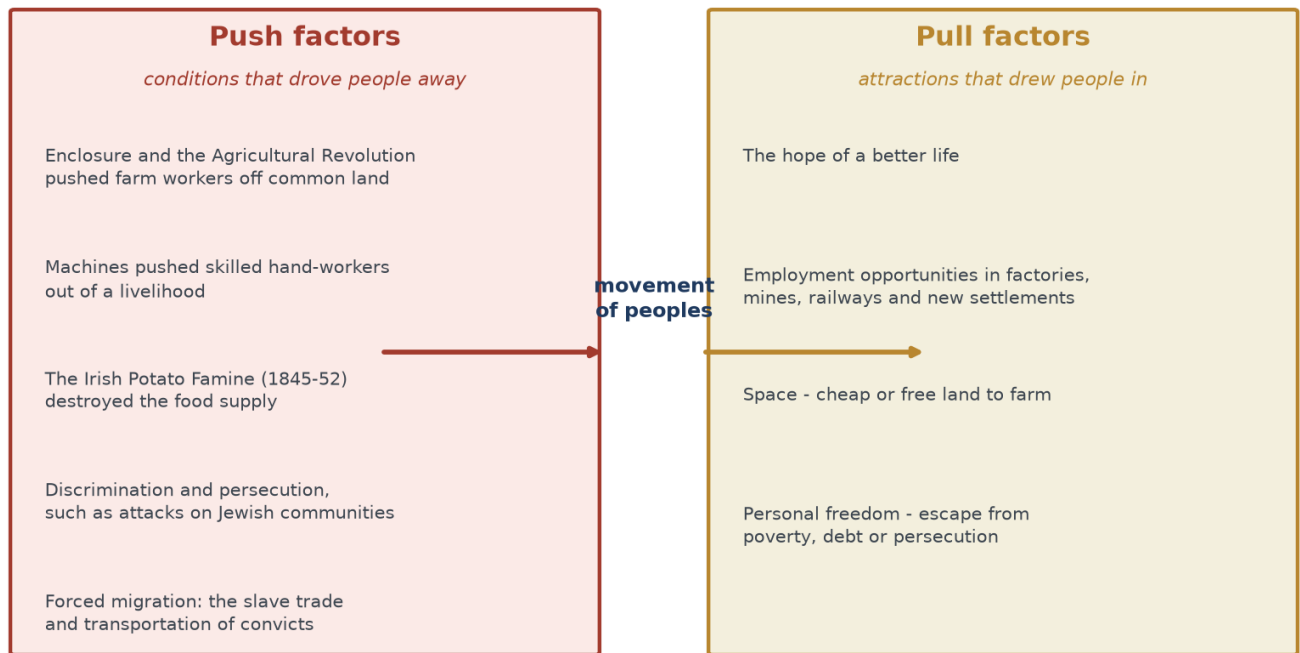
Both positions use real evidence. The debate turns on how we define 'revolution' and how we weigh the evidence.

Diagram presenting the strongest version of two positions on whether the word revolution fits, one stressing the speed and scale of change and the other stressing that change was slow and uneven

Part 2 — The movement of peoples: push and pull (VC2HH10K01.E02)

In the same period, more people moved across the world than ever before. Historians explain this **movement of peoples** using **push factors** (conditions that drive people away from a place) and **pull factors** (attractions that draw them towards a new place).

Why people moved: push factors and pull factors



Two-panel diagram listing push factors such as famine and persecution on the left and pull factors such as work and land on the right

- **Push: the Agricultural Revolution and enclosure.** New farming methods and **enclosure** (the fencing-off of common land that poor villagers had once shared) meant fewer farm workers were needed and many lost their right to use the land. They had to move to find work.
- **Push: machines.** As machines took over spinning and weaving, skilled hand-workers lost their livelihood and had to seek factory work in the towns or a new start overseas.
- **Push: famine.** The **Irish Potato Famine** (1845-52), caused by a crop disease called blight, destroyed the food of the poor and forced over a million people to leave Ireland.
- **Push: discrimination and persecution.** Groups facing violence or unfair treatment left to be safe; for example, many Jewish families fled attacks in the Russian Empire in the late 1800s.
- **Push: forced migration.** Not everyone moved by choice. Enslaved Africans were carried across the Atlantic against their will, and Britain transported convicted criminals (convicts) to settlements such as Australia.
- **Pull:** the hope of a better life, paid work in factories, mines and on railways, cheap or free land to farm, and personal freedom from poverty, debt or persecution.

Part 3 — European imperialism and its consequences (VC2HH10K01.E03)

A key term here needs care. *Imperialism* is a contested word that the Victorian Curriculum uses but does not define. In this section, *imperialism* is used to mean **the extending of one country's rule or control over other lands and peoples, usually by taking colonies**; a **colony** is a territory ruled by a distant power. Every question in this section is answerable on that definition alone. Other writers use the word more loosely for any strong influence one country has over another; that wider sense is noted here but not used.

European countries — above all Britain, but also France, Spain, Portugal and the Netherlands — built vast empires in Asia, Africa, the Americas and the Pacific. Their motives mixed economics (raw materials, markets and wealth), rivalry with each other, and a belief in their own superiority that they used to justify taking other peoples' lands.

The consequences for colonised peoples were severe, and E03 names three kinds.

Consequences of European imperialism on colonised peoples

Consequence	What it meant	Examples
Dispossession (loss of land)	Colonised peoples lost their land, its resources and the income from it.	The British East India Company took control of Bengal after 1757; across Africa and Asia, settlers and companies seized fertile land and minerals.
Disease	Illness spread through crowded, coerced labour, forced moves and famine.	Disease killed many alongside hunger in the Bengal famine of 1770 and the Irish famine of the 1840s.
Destruction of existing social structures and cultures	Local rule, law, work and ways of life were broken or replaced by those of the colonising power.	Bengal's fine cloth industry was broken as Britain sold its own machine-made textiles; in Ireland, law and schooling favoured English language and customs.

These consequences are described in VC2HH10K01.E03.

Table of three consequences of imperialism for colonised peoples, dispossession, disease and destruction of social structures and cultures, each with examples

- **Dispossession** (loss of land): in India, the British East India Company took control of Bengal after the Battle of Plassey (1757) and collected its land revenue; across Africa and Asia, settlers and companies seized fertile land and minerals.
- **Disease:** illness spread through crowded, coerced labour, forced moves and famine, killing many alongside hunger in the Bengal famine of 1770 and the Irish famine of the 1840s.
- **Destruction of social structures and cultures:** local rulers, laws, work and ways of life were broken or replaced. Bengal's fine hand-made cloth industry was ruined as Britain flooded the market with cheap machine-made textiles, and in Ireland law and schooling favoured English language and customs over Irish ones.

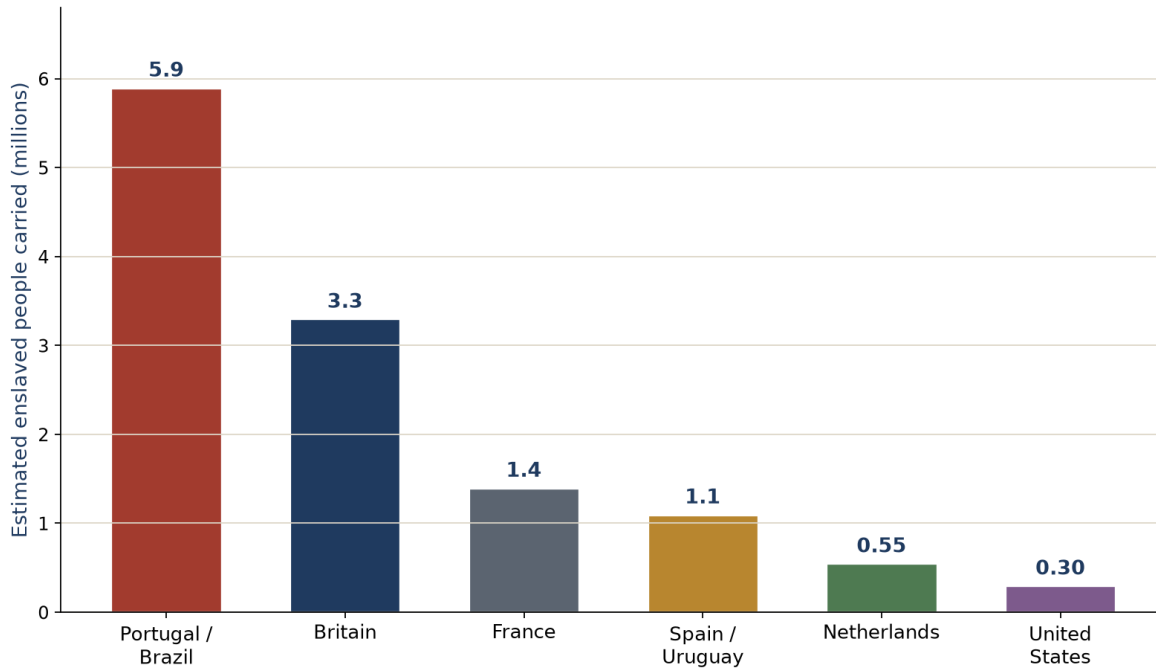
These consequences are the perspective from the colonised side, and later sources in this section (Source B) let you hear it in the words of someone who lived under that rule.

Part 4 — Measuring the movement of peoples (VC2HH10K01.E04)

Historians use data to measure the movement of peoples. Two datasets stand out.

The transatlantic slave trade. Between the 1500s and the 1860s, European ships carried about 12.5 million enslaved Africans across the Atlantic; about 1.8 million died on the crossing. The nations whose ships carried the most people were Portugal (mostly to Brazil), Britain, France and Spain, with the Netherlands and the United States also involved.

Estimated number of enslaved Africans carried across the Atlantic, by the nation whose flag the ships flew



Estimates: Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade Database, SlaveVoyages.org (about 12.5 million in total).

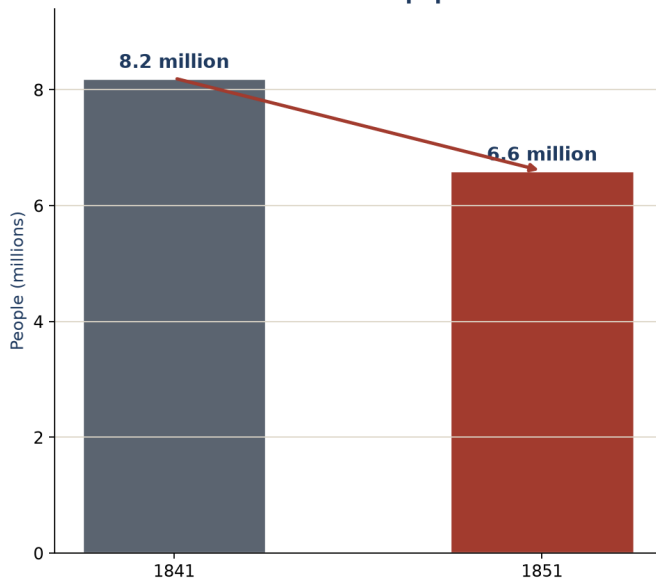
Bar chart of the estimated number of enslaved Africans carried across the Atlantic by the nation whose flag the ships flew, led by Portugal and Britain

Estimates from the SlaveVoyages database (slavevoyages.org), retrieved 26 August 2026.

The Irish Potato Famine. Census figures show Ireland's recorded population falling from about 8.2 million in 1841 to about 6.6 million in 1851, a drop of about 1.6 million in ten years through death and emigration. Most who left sailed to the United States and Canada; many also went to Britain and to Australia, and emigration continued for decades after the famine itself ended.

The Irish Potato Famine, 1845-1852: a fall of about 1.6 million in ten years

Ireland's recorded population



About 1 million people died

from starvation and from diseases such as fever, carried by hunger and crowded conditions

About 1 million or more left Ireland

most sailed to the United States and Canada; many also went to Britain and to Australia

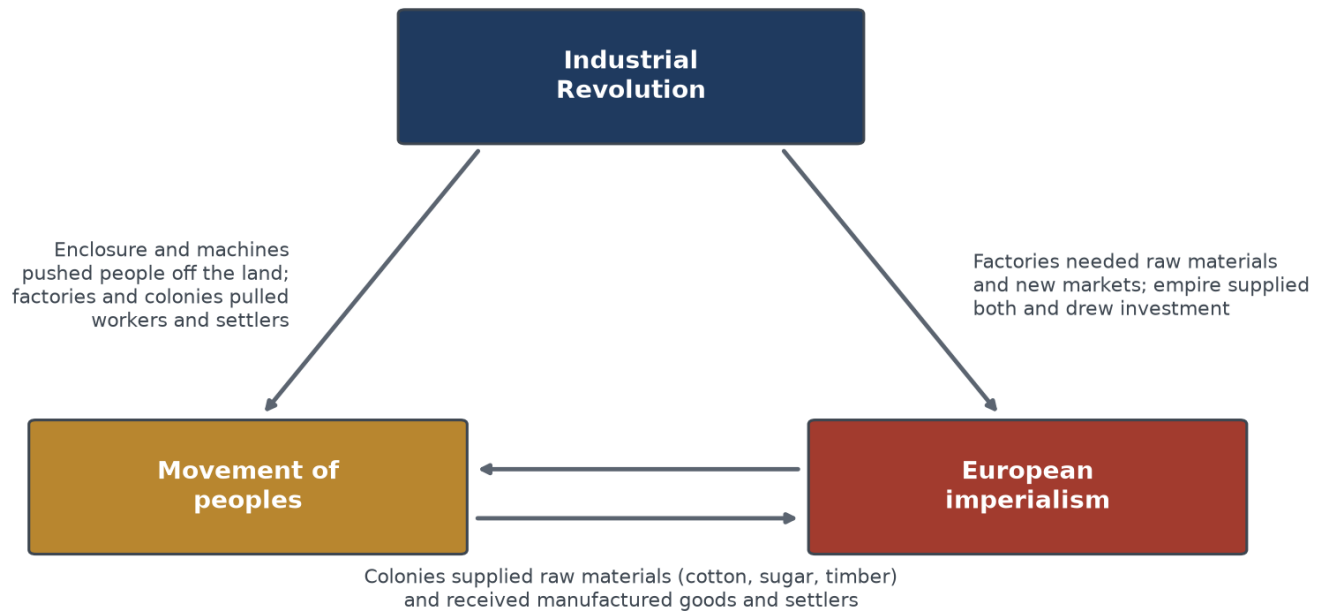
Ireland's population kept falling for decades, as emigration continued long after the famine ended.

Chart and notes showing Ireland's population falling from 8.2 million in 1841 to 6.6 million in 1851, with about one million deaths and over one million people leaving, mainly to the USA, Canada, Britain and Australia

Census of Ireland 1841 and 1851; famine death and emigration estimates as commonly recorded by historians (figures retrieved 26 August 2026).

How the three changes connect. The closing model pulls the parts together: industrialisation pushed and pulled people (Part 2) and needed raw materials and markets that empire supplied (Part 3); colonies in turn received manufactured goods and settlers, and the movement of peoples supplied labour to farms, mines and factories across the world.

How industrialisation, the movement of people and imperialism connected



Each process fed the others, making the modern, connected world.

Model diagram with three connected boxes, Industrial Revolution, Movement of peoples and European imperialism, with arrows labelled to show how each process fed the others

Worked source analyses

Analysis 1 — Source A: an industrial city (scaffolded)

SOURCE A

A description of an industrial city

'The town itself is ... a wilderness of dirty, old, tumble-down houses, built on ... uneven ground, without any plan ... and here a population of workers is crowded together, whom the wealth of the town has heaped up ... The factories are surrounded by closely packed dwellings of the poor ... into which the sun and fresh air can hardly penetrate.'

Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working Class in England* (1845), describing the industrial city of Manchester. Abridged; wording lightly modernised.

Source A, an abridged 1845 description by Friedrich Engels of the crowded, dirty housing around the factories of Manchester

Step 1 — What kind of source is it? It is a **primary source**: it was written in 1845, close to the time it describes, by Friedrich Engels, a German writer who had visited Manchester and seen the city for himself.

Step 2 — What is its purpose? Engels wanted to expose the misery of factory towns and argue for change. A source written to persuade will tend to emphasise the worst, so we read it with that in mind.

Step 3 — What does it say (content)? It describes Manchester as a “wilderness” of dirty, tumble-down houses built without any plan, with workers crowded together and the poor living in homes that almost no sunlight or fresh air can reach.

Step 4 — What is its perspective? It is the view of a critic of the factory system. A factory owner (such as Richard Arkwright’s successors) would have given a very different account, praising jobs and cheap goods.

Step 5 — How valuable is it as evidence? It gives a first-hand picture of how an industrial city looked and felt, which matches other evidence such as Manchester’s rapid growth (see the urbanisation chart) and official reports on town conditions. Because it is one-sided, a historian would **check it against** other sources (for example, census data and factory reports) rather than take it alone. That checking is what makes it useful.

Analysis 2 — Source B: an Indian view of British rule (scaffolded)

SOURCE B

An Indian view of British rule

'The benefits of British rule are ... outweighed by the evil it has done. Wealth is being taken out of India, and not returned ... What is made in India is made by Indian labour and skill, but the profit does not stay with the Indian people. It is drained away, and India is made poorer year by year.'

Dadabhai Naoroji, *Poverty and Un-British Rule in India* (1901). Naoroji, an Indian scholar and member of the British Parliament, argued that Britain's rule drained wealth from India. Abridged and lightly modernised.

Source B, an abridged 1901 statement by Dadabhai Naoroji arguing that British rule drained wealth from India

Step 1 — What kind of source is it? A **primary source**: published in 1901 by Dadabhai Naoroji, an Indian scholar and a member of the British Parliament.

Step 2 — What is its purpose? To persuade British readers that their rule was making India poorer, by arguing that the wealth India produced was “drained away” instead of staying with its people.

Step 3 — What does it say (content)? That what is made in India is made by Indian labour and skill, but the profit does not stay with the Indian people, so India is “made poorer year by year”.

Step 4 — What is its perspective? It is the perspective of the colonised, which E03 asks you to treat as important. Naoroji was a critic of British rule, so he stresses the harm; but he backed his claim with figures, which is why historians give his “drain” argument real weight as evidence of how imperial rule was experienced.

Step 5 — How valuable is it as evidence? It lets you hear a colonised people’s own account of imperialism’s consequences (dispossession of wealth and, with it, of control over their own economy). It pairs with the consequences table in Part 3, and, like Source A, is best used **alongside** other evidence such as trade and tax records.

Practice questions

Scaffolded

Q1. Look at the timeline. Name one development in (a) iron and steel, (b) steam power and (c) textiles, and give the year and inventor for each. (*Hint: the timeline groups these for you.*)

Q2. Using the domestic/factory comparison table, state two ways the factory system changed (a) where work happened and (b) who owned the tools. (*Hint: read across one row at a time.*)

Q3. The urbanisation chart shows Manchester’s population. About how many times larger was it in 1851 than in 1750? (*Hint: divide 303 by 18 and round.*)

Q4. Sort each item from the push/pull diagram into the correct column: (a) cheap land to farm; (b) the potato famine; (c) paid work on railways; (d) persecution; (e) the hope of a better life. (*Hint: ask whether each one pushes people away or pulls them in.*)

Q5. Look at the slave-trade chart. (a) Which two nations' ships carried the most enslaved Africans? (b) About how many people did they carry between them? (*Hint: add the two tallest bars.*)

Q6. From the famine chart and notes, state (a) the fall in Ireland's recorded population between 1841 and 1851, and (b) the two main causes of that fall. (*Hint: the two boxes on the right name the causes.*)

Without a scaffold

Q7. Explain two impacts of the Industrial Revolution on **social organisation**, using Manchester as an example.

Q8. "The movement of peoples in this period was driven more by push factors than by pull factors." Do you agree? Give one reason and one specific example for your view.

Q9. Describe two consequences of imperialism for colonised peoples (E03), giving a specific place for each.

Q10. Look at the debate diagram. Explain why historians disagree about whether the word "revolution" fits, and say which position you find more convincing and why.

Answers

Q1. (a) Iron and steel: Abraham Darby, coke iron, 1709 (or Henry Bessemer, cheap steel, 1856). (b) Steam power: Thomas Newcomen, first steam engine, 1712 (or James Watt, better steam engine, 1769). (c) Textiles: James Hargreaves, spinning jenny, 1764 (or Richard Arkwright, water frame, 1769; Samuel Crompton, spinning mule, 1779; Edmund Cartwright, power loom, 1785).

Q2. (a) Work moved from workers' own homes and small workshops to large mills and factories under one roof. (b) Under the domestic system workers usually owned their own simple tools; under the factory system the owner owned the machines and the building.

Q3. $303 \div 18 \approx 17$, so Manchester was about 17 times larger in 1851 than in 1750.

Q4. Pull: (a) cheap land to farm; (c) paid work on railways; (e) the hope of a better life. Push: (b) the potato famine; (d) persecution.

Q5. (a) Portugal and Britain. (b) About $5.9 + 3.3 =$ about 9.2 million people between them.

Q6. (a) A fall of about 1.6 million (from about 8.2 million to about 6.6 million). (b) About one million deaths from starvation and disease, and the emigration of about one million or more people.

Q7. Model points: urbanisation - people left the countryside for factory towns, and Manchester grew about 17-fold in a century; new social classes - a middle class of factory owners and managers and a working class of wage workers; and often harsh living and working conditions (crowded, dirty towns; long hours; child labour), which later led to trade unions and factory laws.

Q8. Model points: either view can be defended with reasons and examples. Agree (push stronger): e.g. the Irish left because the famine destroyed their food, and enslaved Africans were forced across the Atlantic - both are push/force, not choice. Disagree (pull stronger): e.g. many British and European migrants chose to go to the USA, Canada or Australia for cheap land and paid work. A good answer gives one clear reason and one specific example and acknowledges the other side.

Q9. Model points: dispossession - in India the East India Company took control of Bengal after 1757 and its land revenue; disease - illness spread with famine and coerced labour, as in the Bengal famine of 1770 and the Irish famine; destruction of social structures and cultures - Bengal's hand-made cloth industry was ruined by cheap British machine textiles, and Irish law and schooling favoured English over Irish. (Any two, each with a named place.)

Q10. Model points: historians disagree because they define "revolution" differently and weigh the evidence differently. Position 1 (yes): within a few generations Britain moved from hand tools to machines, towns grew many-fold and new classes appeared - change on a scale never seen before. Position 2 (no): output grew steadily rather than in one leap, hand tools remained common into the 1800s and key developments began before 1750 - so change was gradual and uneven. A good answer states which position it prefers and justifies it with at least one piece of evidence from the timeline or the urbanisation chart.

The ideas that reshaped politics and society

Curriculum focus: this section owns VC2HH10K02 and develops elaborations .E01–.E06.

Between 1750 and 1900, the way human beings lived was turned upside down. Most people stopped working at home in the fields, and millions began working in factories and cities. Colonies in America broke away from a king and declared that all men are created equal. Workers in Britain demanded the vote. Enslaved people were set free. And in one single year, 1848, revolutions broke out right across Europe. None of this happened by accident. Behind every one of these changes stood **ideas** — ideas about who should rule, who should vote, who should own what, and who counts as equal.

This section looks at nine of those key ideas, then follows them through five big historical changes: the Industrial Revolution, the American Revolution, Chartism, the reform movements driven by religious belief, and the revolutions of 1848. In every case we ask the same two questions a historian asks: *where did the idea come from?* and *what consequences did it cause?*

About the key words. The Victorian Curriculum uses the key words below but does not define them, so this section defines every one at first use, and every question in this section can be answered on those definitions alone. Some of these words are also contested: careful historians disagree about exactly what they mean. *Democracy* meant something narrower in 1838 than it means today; *liberalism* meant something different in the 1800s from what it often means in everyday speech now; and the *Industrial Revolution* was not a single event but a long, uneven change. Where a word is contested, this section says so out loud and tells you the meaning it will use.

Teaching sequence

Part 1 — Nine key ideas (.E01)

These are the working definitions used throughout this section. Each one names a key idea about how society and politics should be organised, and each one has a history: it appeared somewhere, at some time, and caused real consequences.

- **democracy** — a way of running a country in which the citizens choose their government by voting. In the 1800s almost no country was a democracy in today's sense, and people argued fiercely about who should count as a citizen.
- **capitalism** — an economic system in which trade, land and industry are mostly owned by private people and businesses rather than by the state, and goods are produced for profit in a market.
- **nationalism** — the belief that a nation (a people who see themselves as one community) should rule itself, usually in its own country.
- **liberalism** — in the 1800s sense used here: the belief that government should be limited and should protect individual rights, such as free speech, equality before the law, and private property.
- **imperialism** — the policy of building empire by extending one country's power over other lands and peoples, often by force.
- **conservatism** — the belief that change should be slow and careful, and that existing institutions — monarchy, church, property — are worth keeping.
- **socialism** — the belief that wealth, land and industry should be shared more equally, and owned or run by the whole community or the state rather than by private owners alone.
- **anarchism** — the belief that government itself is unfair and should be done away with, leaving people to organise their affairs together, by choice.

- **egalitarianism** — the belief that all people are equal and deserve equal rights and opportunities.

Nine ideas that changed the modern world

Working definitions used in this section. These are contested terms: historians argue about where exactly to draw each line.

Idea	What it means here	Where it grew	Its consequences
Democracy	Rule by the people, exercised through voting and elected representatives.	Ancient roots; grew through the revolutions of the 1700s and the reform campaigns of the 1800s.	More people won the vote; parliaments became answerable to voters, not just to kings and nobles.
Capitalism	Trade and industry owned by private people and firms, run for profit.	Grew with long-distance trade, then with factories; explained by Adam Smith in <i>The Wealth of Nations</i> (1776).	New industries and great wealth, but also low wages and inequality - part of what pushed socialism forward.
Nationalism	Loyalty to a nation - a people who see themselves as one political community.	Grew out of the French Revolution and the revolutions of 1848.	Movements to unite or create nations, such as Germany and Italy; pride and rivalry between states.
Liberalism	Government should protect individual rights and be limited by law.	Enlightenment thinking; the American Revolution (1776) and the French Revolution (1789).	Written constitutions, bills of rights, and freedoms such as speech and religion.
Imperialism	Extending one state's rule over other peoples and their lands.	Industrial demand for markets and raw materials, plus rivalry between European powers.	Empires across Asia and Africa; for colonised peoples, conquest and loss of self-rule, and resistance movements.
Conservatism	Keep established institutions - monarchy, church, custom - and prefer slow, careful change.	A response to the French Revolution; set out by Edmund Burke in 1790.	Defence of tradition and order; cautious, gradual reform instead of sudden upheaval.
Socialism	The economy should be directed for everyone's good, not private profit alone, so wealth is shared more equally.	A response to industrial poverty; Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels published <i>The Communist Manifesto</i> in 1848.	Trade unions, labour parties, and reforms such as shorter hours and public services.
Anarchism	Opposition to all imposed authority, especially the state.	Nineteenth-century critics of both state power and capitalism.	Influence in some labour movements; in some countries, political violence by small groups.
Egalitarianism	All people are of equal worth and should be treated as equals.	Enlightenment ideas of equality, and religious teachings on the equal worth of every person.	Pushed the movement against slavery, votes for women, and the long campaign for votes for all adults.

Each definition is the sense used in this section. If you meet a different definition elsewhere, note it - that disagreement is part of the history.

Table of nine key ideas - democracy, capitalism, nationalism, liberalism, imperialism, conservatism, socialism, anarchism and egalitarianism - each with its meaning, where it grew in the 1800s, and the consequences it caused

Check: pick any three of the nine ideas. For each, say in one sentence who would have welcomed it in the 1800s, and who would have feared it.

Part 2 — The Industrial Revolution (. E02)

From about 1760, Britain became the first country where machines driven by steam, and factories, began to replace handwork in the home. Historians call this long change the **Industrial Revolution** — a revolution not in politics but in how work was done. It changed work practices, social structures, politics and cities, and it is the engine behind most of the demands you will meet in the rest of this section.

How industrial change led to political change

Each step is a cause of the next. Trace the chain, then find the consequences it set off.



Continuity check: not everything changed. Monarchy, churches and old landowners kept real power for decades.

Five-step cause-and-consequence chain from new machines to factories, to growing cities, to new social groups, to new political demands, with a continuity check noting that monarchy, churches and old landowners kept real power for decades

Read the chain as a historian reads cause and consequence: each step is a cause of the next. **Work practices** changed first. Spinning and weaving moved out of cottages and into mills, and paid work ran by the clock instead of by the season. Then **social structures** changed. A new society formed around two groups: owners and managers with capital (money and machines) on one side, and a large working class paid by the week on the other. Then **cities** changed, because the factories pulled people in.

One century of change: the same country, a new kind of place

Read both panels. Change and continuity always sit together - look for both.

A market town, about 1750

- A market square and a church at the centre.
- Most work is done in homes and small workshops; spinning and weaving are handwork.
- Fields and common land close by; towns are small and grow slowly.
- Travel is by foot, horse and cart; news moves at the same speed.

An industrial city, about 1850 - Manchester

- The world's first industrialised city - 'Cottonopolis', the largest market on Earth for cotton goods.
- 108 cotton mills at the 1853 peak; chimneys and mills set the skyline.
- Grown at an astonishing, unplanned rate as people moved in for work.
- Crowded rows of worker housing; smoky air; by 1851, 15 per cent of the population was Irish-born.

Sources: Wikipedia, 'Manchester' and 'History of Manchester'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Two panels comparing a market town of about 1750 - market square, church, handwork in homes, slow growth - with Manchester of about 1850, the world's first factory city, 'Cottonopolis', with 108 cotton mills at the 1853 peak, unplanned growth and crowded worker housing

Manchester is the classic case. In 1750 it was a modest market town; by 1851 it was the world's first industrialised city, grown at an unplanned, astonishing rate, with chimneys setting the skyline and rows of worker housing packed around the mills. Cities like this became the home of the new working class — and of the new political demands in the chain.

Finally, **politics** changed. A working class of this size, living and working in these conditions, began to ask why it had so little voice in Parliament. Every movement later in this section — Chartism, the factory reforms, the labour unions — grows out of the chain you have just traced.

One habit of mind matters here: change and continuity always sit together. While factories rose, the monarchy, the churches and the old landowning families kept real power for decades. A good answer about the Industrial Revolution always names what changed *and* what stayed the same.

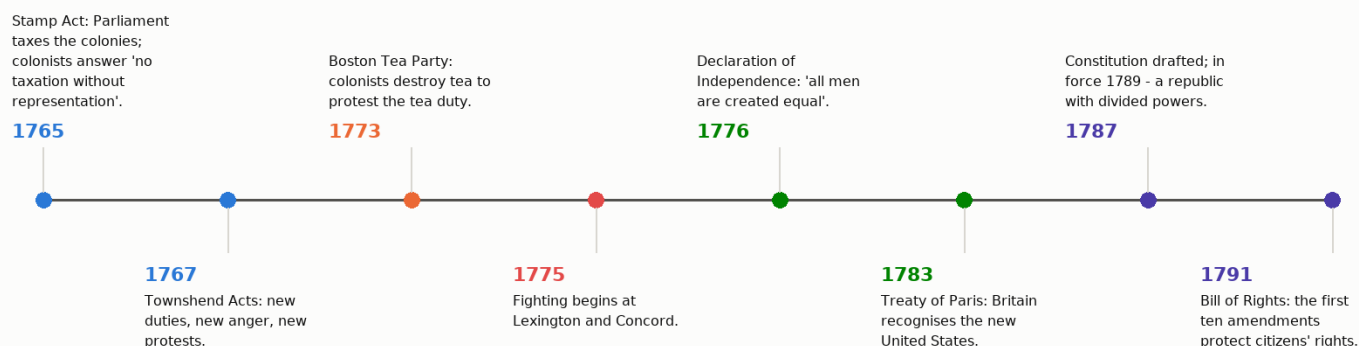
Part 3 — The American Revolution (. E04)

The thirteen British colonies on the east coast of North America were the first place where the ideas of Part 1 were turned into a new country. The causes built up over about twenty years:

- **1765 — the Stamp Act.** Britain, paying off debts from its long war with France, taxed the colonies' printed papers. The colonies had no members in the British Parliament, so the cry went up: *no taxation without representation*.
- **1767–1773 — more taxes, more resistance.** New duties on tea and other goods were met with boycotts, and in 1773 Boston protesters dumped the East India Company's tea into the harbour.
- **1775 — war.** Fighting broke out between British troops and colonial militia at Lexington and Concord.
- **1776 — the Declaration of Independence.** On 4 July, the colonies declared themselves free and independent states. Thomas Jefferson's Declaration put the ideas of Part 1 in writing: all men are created equal, and governments get their just power from the consent of the governed.
- **1783 — peace.** Britain recognised the United States.
- **1787–1791 — a constitution.** The new United States wrote a constitution — a written rule-book setting out how the country is run — which came into force in 1789, and added a Bill of Rights in 1791, listing citizens' rights such as free speech.

The American Revolution, 1765-1791

From taxes without consent to a republic with a bill of rights.



The ideas travel

France 1789: revolution and the Rights of Man (Lafayette helped shape the draft) - and Britain 1791: Thomas Paine's Rights of Man sells widely.

Sources: US National Archives, 'Declaration of Independence'; Wikipedia, 'American Revolution' and 'Rights of Man'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Timeline of the American Revolution from the Stamp Act of 1765 to the Bill of Rights of 1791, with a ribbon showing the two directions the ideas travelled: to France and to Britain

The impacts reached far beyond the new republic. In **France**, soldiers such as the Marquis de Lafayette had fought for the Americans and brought the ideas home; when France's own revolution came in 1789, it produced the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, adopted on 26 August 1789 with Lafayette's help. In the **United Kingdom**, the loss of the colonies sharpened arguments about representation and reform, and radicals — people who wanted thorough change — pointed to America as proof that a republic could work.

Two declarations of rights, a world apart no more

Both came from the idea that government must protect rights - and that people may change a government that fails to.

	Declaration of Independence	Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen
When, where	4 July 1776, in the thirteen American colonies breaking from Britain.	26 August 1789, in France, as its old order fell.
Who made it	The Continental Congress; drafted by a five-member committee, with Thomas Jefferson as the writer.	The National Constituent Assembly; Lafayette helped shape an early draft.
Key claim	'All men are created equal'; rights to 'Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness'; governments rule only with the 'consent of the governed'.	'Men are born and remain free and equal in rights'; sovereignty resides in the nation; law is the expression of the general will.
What it changed	Declared a new republic; led, in time, to a written Constitution (1787) and a Bill of Rights (1791).	Set out the rights of citizens as the French Revolution's base; its language outlived the kings it overthrew.
A limit to test	Written by men who kept enslaved people: the promise and the practice clashed from day one.	At first it left women and enslaved people in the colonies outside its promise - and people pushed back.

Sources: US National Archives, 'Declaration of Independence'; Wikipedia, 'Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Comparison table of the American Declaration of Independence of 1776 and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen of 1789: who made them, their key claims, who was left out, and a limit to test each document against

A historian's check on both declarations: *who is left out?* In practice the new American republic did not treat women, enslaved Africans or Native Americans as equals — slavery was not abolished in the United States until 1865. The declarations state ideals, not finished facts. That gap between the ideal and the reality is itself one of the Revolution's biggest impacts: it gave later movements — including the movements in Part 5 — a standard to hold governments to.

Sources: US National Archives, 'Declaration of Independence' and 'Bill of Rights'; Wikipedia, 'American Revolution', 'Stamp Act 1765' and 'Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Part 4 — Chartism: where an idea came from (.E03)

Elaboration .E03 asks two things about an idea: *why did it emerge, and what was the basis of that idea?* Chartism — the British movement built around the People's Charter (1838) — is the perfect case.

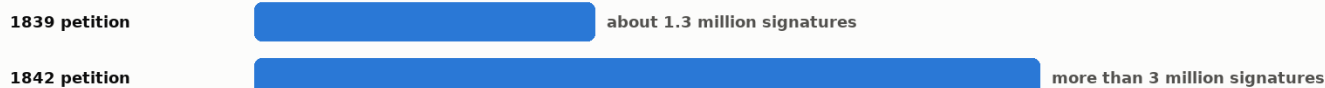
Why it emerged: after the Reform Act of 1832, middle-class men had gained the vote, but working men still had none, even though they paid taxes and made the country rich. That was the **basis** of the idea: a country that claims to be fair cannot tax and govern a whole class of people who have no voice in choosing it. The Charter, drafted by William Lovett of the London Working Men's Association, demanded six changes.

The People's Charter, 1838: six points, and what became of them

Chartists demanded these six changes. Follow each point to its fate.

Point	What it demanded	Outcome
Vote for every adult man	Every adult man may vote in elections.	Achieved 1918 - all adult men could vote.
Secret ballot	Votes cast in private, so no boss or landlord can check them.	Achieved 1872 (Ballot Act).
No property test for MPs	Anyone may stand for Parliament; owning property is not required.	Achieved 1858.
Pay for MPs	MPs receive a salary, so an ordinary worker can afford to serve.	Achieved 1911.
Constituencies of roughly equal size	Each vote should carry roughly equal weight across the country.	Moved towards by the redistribution of seats in 1885 (single-member constituencies).
A new Parliament every year	A general election every year to keep MPs answerable.	Never achieved - no Parliament adopted it.

The petitions that carried the Charter



A third petition followed in 1848. Parliament refused all three - yet five of the six points were later made law. Ideas can win without winning the vote.
Source: Wikipedia, 'Chartism'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Table of the six points of the People's Charter (1838) - votes for all adult men, the secret ballot, no property test for MPs, pay for MPs, equal-sized constituencies and annual Parliaments - with the date each point was achieved or a note that it never was, and bars for the petitions of 1839 and 1842

The Chartists carried their demands to Parliament in three giant petitions — about 1.3 million signatures in 1839 and more than 3 million in 1842 — and Parliament refused them all. In the short run, Chartism looked like a failure. But follow the ideas forward: **universal male suffrage** came in 1918, when all adult men finally got the vote, and the **secret ballot** came in 1872 with the Ballot Act. Five of the six points became law. An idea can lose every vote in Parliament and still win the century.

Part 5 — Religious belief and four movements for change (. E05)

Not every idea in this section began as a political theory. For many reformers, the engine of change was religious belief: the conviction that God required them to act. Four movements show the pattern.

Faith in action: religious belief and four movements for change

For many reformers, belief was not private. It was the engine of public change.

Where belief drove change	People and groups	What happened	When
Ending the slave trade	Quakers; the 1787 committee with Granville Sharp, Thomas Clarkson and William Wilberforce; Olaudah Equiano, a freed man whose 1789 book moved readers.	Petitions, boycotts and speeches turned public opinion; Parliament first banned the trade, then slavery itself.	1783 Quaker petition; Slave Trade Act 1807; Slavery Abolition Act 1833
Softening the ills of industry	Lord Ashley, later Earl of Shaftesbury, a Christian who called reform a religious duty.	Child labour limited and inspected; women and children banned from underground work; the working day shortened.	Factory Act 1833; Mines Act 1842; Ten Hours Act 1847
Votes for women	Church-based campaigners such as the Woman's Christian Temperance Union.	Women won colonial votes, then the federal vote - Australia among the first countries in the world.	South Australia 1894; Western Australia 1899; Commonwealth 1902
The rise of organised labour	Chapel networks such as the Methodists; the Tolpuddle Martyrs, including local preacher George Loveless.	Six farm workers were convicted for a union oath and transported; public protest won their pardon; unions grew.	convicted 1834; pardoned 1836

Fair play to the other side: many said faith belonged in church, not politics - and some churches defended the old order as well as challenging it.

Sources: Wikipedia, 'Abolitionism in the United Kingdom', 'Factory Acts', 'Tolpuddle Martyrs', 'Women's suffrage in Australia' and 'Anthony Ashley-Cooper, 7th Earl of Shaftesbury'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Table of four movements driven by religious belief - ending the slave trade, softening the ills of industry, votes for women, plus the rise of organised labour - each with its people and groups, what happened, and the key dates

- **Ending the slave trade.** Quakers petitioned Parliament against the slave trade as early as 1783, and in 1787 a committee including Granville Sharp, Thomas Clarkson and William Wilberforce organised the cause. Olaudah Equiano, a freed man, told the trade's horrors first-hand in his 1789 book. Petitions, boycotts of slave-grown sugar and speeches turned public opinion; the Slave Trade Act of 1807 banned the trade, and the Slavery Abolition Act of 1833 ended slavery itself across most British possessions.
- **Softening the ills of industry.** Lord Ashley, later the Earl of Shaftesbury, was a Christian who called factory reform a religious duty. His campaigns helped pass the Factory Act of 1833, which limited child labour and appointed inspectors to enforce it, the Mines Act of 1842, which banned women and children from underground work, and the Ten Hours Act of 1847, which shortened the working day.
- **Votes for women.** Church-based campaigners, such as the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, argued that women needed the vote to protect families. South Australia gave women the vote in 1894, Western Australia in 1899, and the new Commonwealth of Australia in 1902 — among the first countries in the world to give women the federal vote.
- **The rise of organised labour.** Chapel networks, above all the Methodists, gave working people meeting places, speakers and discipline. The Tolpuddle Martyrs show the link: in 1834 six farm workers, including the Methodist local preacher George Loveless, were convicted for swearing a union oath and transported, as a punishment, to a penal colony in Australia; public protest won their pardon in 1836, and the unions grew.

Fair play to the other side: belief cut both ways. Many people said faith belonged in church, not politics, and some churches defended the old order — including slavery and the power of landowners — as well as challenging it. Perspective matters: the same belief was quoted by reformers and by their opponents.

Sources: Wikipedia, 'Abolitionism in the United Kingdom', 'Factory Acts', 'Tolpuddle Martyrs', 'Women's suffrage in Australia' and 'Anthony Ashley-Cooper, 7th Earl of Shaftesbury'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Part 6 — 1848: the springtime of the peoples (.E06)

In 1848, revolutions broke out across Europe in a single year: in France, in the German states, in the Austrian Empire and in the Italian states. The ideas were the ones from Part 1 — nationalism, liberalism, democracy, socialism — and the demands were constitutions, votes for men, and national self-rule.

1848, the 'springtime of the peoples'

In one year, revolutions broke out across Europe. Most failed - and still changed the future.

Where	What happened	By 1849	What outlived it
France	A February rising ended the monarchy; the new republic gave all men the vote; the June Days crushed the workers' uprising.	Louis-Napoleon was elected president in December 1848 - and later seized full power.	The vote for men stayed. France has been a republic for most of the time since.
The German states	Street fighting in Berlin; a Frankfurt Parliament tried to unite Germany under a constitution.	The Prussian king refused the crown it offered; the parliament was wound up.	National unity stayed a live demand, achieved in 1871.
The Austrian Empire	Vienna rose and Metternich fled; Hungarians and others fought for self-rule.	The army, with Russian help, crushed the revolts and restored control.	Serfdom was abolished - a real and lasting change for millions.
The Italian states	Milan and Venice rose against foreign rule; Mazzini proclaimed a Roman Republic.	Old rulers were restored with foreign armies.	The 1848 ideas fed the unification of Italy in the 1860s.

Look for the pattern: the revolts lost the battles, yet their ideas - national unity, constitutions, votes for men - kept spreading.

Source: Wikipedia, 'Revolutions of 1848'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Table of the 1848 revolutions in France, the German states, the Austrian Empire and the Italian states: what happened in each, the position by 1849, and what outlived the defeat

By 1849 nearly every revolt had been crushed, and it would be easy to call 1848 a failure. But elaboration .E06 asks about **consequences and political institutions**, and the consequences were real:

- In the **Austrian Empire**, serfdom — the old system binding peasants to a lord's land — was abolished, a lasting change for millions of people.
- In **France**, the monarchy was ended and the vote for men survived; France has been a republic for most of the time since.
- In the **German and Italian states**, the revolts failed, but national unity stayed a live demand: Italy united in the 1860s and Germany in 1871, and most European states moved, step by step, towards written constitutions and parliaments.

The pattern is the same as Chartism's: the revolts lost the battles, yet their ideas kept spreading, and political institutions changed in the end.

Source: Wikipedia, 'Revolutions of 1848'; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Part 7 — Pulling the threads together

Every case in this section is analysed with the same three habits of mind, and you should use them in every answer you write.

1. **Cause and consequence.** Each idea is a cause; each law, revolution or reform is a consequence. Trace the chain — the industrial chain in Part 2 works exactly the same way as the chain from the People's Charter to the Ballot Act of 1872.
2. **Continuity and change.** They always sit together. Factories rose while landowners kept power; 1848 crushed the revolts but not the ideas; Manchester changed utterly while Britain kept its monarchy.
3. **Perspective.** The same change looks different from different positions. A mill owner, a mill worker and a woman shut out of the vote experienced the Industrial Revolution in three different ways. The declarations of Part 3 looked like freedom to some men and like a promise broken to women, to enslaved people and to Native Americans.

Worked analyses

Both analyses use the five-question scaffold in the figure below. Use it in the same order for the source question in practice.

How to work a source: five questions, in order

Use this scaffold for both worked analyses in this section, and for the source question in practice.

1

Origin

Who made this, and when? Is it a primary source (made at the time) or a secondary source (made later)? How did it survive?

2

Purpose

Why was it made, and for whom? What did the maker want to happen - persuade, declare, demand, record?

3

Content

What does it actually say or show? Which words, claims or details carry the most meaning?

4

Context

What was happening when it was made? What side of events was the maker on, and what could they not have known?

5

Usefulness and limits

What is it strong evidence for - beliefs, values, the claims people made in public? What can it not show - voices left out, or whether claims were true?

A source never tells you everything. Historians build conclusions by putting sources side by side and checking one against the other.

The five-question source scaffold in order: origin, purpose, content, context, and usefulness and limits, each with its guiding questions

Worked analysis 1 — the Declaration of Independence (.E04)

Source A. “We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal ... That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.”

Adapted from the Declaration of Independence, 4 July 1776, drafted chiefly by Thomas Jefferson. Public domain; retrieved 26 August 2026 from the US National Archives.

Worked analysis.

1. **Origin.** A primary source: the public declaration issued by the thirteen colonies on 4 July 1776, written chiefly by Thomas Jefferson, announcing that the colonies were now free and independent states.
2. **Purpose.** Made for two audiences at once. To the world, it explains why the colonies are leaving Britain. To the colonists themselves, it turns a tax dispute into a fight for rights, so people will risk a war for it.
3. **Content.** Two claims carry the meaning. First, all men are created equal. Second, government is only lawful when it has the consent of the governed — power comes from below, not from a king above.
4. **Context.** Written in 1776, a year after war began, in a country where British taxes were imposed on colonists who had no members in Parliament — *no taxation without representation*. Jefferson could not have known whether the war would be won, or that the words would be quoted for centuries.
5. **Usefulness and limits.** Superb evidence for the ideas the Revolution claimed to fight for — equality and consent. Its limit is the gap you met in Part 3: in 1776 the words did not apply in practice to women, to enslaved Africans or to Native Americans. A declaration shows what a society *says* it believes; other sources are needed to find out what it did.

Worked analysis 2 — the People's Charter (. E03)

Source B. The six demands of the People's Charter, 1838, in summary: a vote for every man over twenty-one; the secret ballot; no property test for members of Parliament; pay for members; constituencies of roughly equal size; and a new Parliament every year.

Adapted from the People's Charter, published in London in 1838 by the London Working Men's Association; retrieved 26 August 2026.

Worked analysis.

1. **Origin.** A primary source: the programme of a political movement, drafted by William Lovett and the London Working Men's Association in 1838, after the Reform Act of 1832 had left working men without the vote.
 2. **Purpose.** Made to demand, in one short list, every change needed to put working men inside the political system — not to overthrow it, but to be represented in it.
 3. **Content.** Read the points as one argument: the vote and the ballot protect the voter from the landlord and the boss; no property test and pay for members let ordinary men *serve*; equal constituencies and annual Parliaments keep representatives answerable. Every point attacks the same target — a Parliament owned by property.
 4. **Context.** Written in the hard late 1830s, when working men paid taxes yet had no voice, so the basis of the idea was simple: taxation and representation must go together. The Chartists could not have known that five of the six points would become law.
 5. **Usefulness and limits.** Superb evidence for what working-class reformers demanded and why. Its limits: it is the movement's own public document, so it shows the demands, not how many people truly supported them (the petitions do that), and not the views of women, whom the Charter left outside the vote it asked for.
-

Practice questions

Scaffolded

Q1. (. E01) Copy and complete each sentence with one idea from Part 1. Word bank: *nationalism, conservatism, socialism, egalitarianism, imperialism*.

- (a) The belief that a nation should rule itself in its own country is _____.
- (b) The belief that change should be slow and existing institutions kept is _____.
- (c) The belief that all people deserve equal rights and opportunities is _____.
- (d) The policy of building empire over other lands and peoples is _____.
- (e) The belief that wealth and industry should be shared more equally is _____.

Q2. (. E02) The five steps of the industrial chain from Figure 1b_chain are listed below out of order. Write them in the correct order, then name one thing the figure's continuity check says did *not* change.

New social groups · New machines · New political demands · Cities grow · Factories

Q3. (.E04) Using Figure 1b_america, copy and complete the table. The first row is done for you.

Year	Event
1765	The Stamp Act taxes the colonies' papers
1773	_____
1776	_____
1783	_____
1791	_____

Q4. (.E03) Using Figure 1b_charter, copy and complete the table. The first row is done for you.

Point of the Charter	Outcome
Secret ballot	Achieved 1872 (Ballot Act)
Vote for every adult man	_____
No property test for MPs	_____
A new Parliament every year	_____

Q5. (.E05) Using Figure 1b_faith, name the movement described.

- (a) Its campaigners included the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. _____
- (b) A committee of 1787 included Sharp, Clarkson and Wilberforce. _____
- (c) Its martyrs included the Methodist local preacher George Loveless. _____
- (d) Its champion called factory reform a religious duty. _____

Q6. (.E06) Using Figure 1b_1848: (a) in which part of Europe was serfdom abolished as a result of 1848? (b) which demand outlived 1848 in the German states, and when was it achieved? (c) who crushed the revolts in the Austrian Empire?

Unscaffolded

Q7. (.E02) Explain two ways the Industrial Revolution changed work practices, and one way those changes led to new political demands.

Q8. (.E04) The American Revolution affected politics and citizens' rights beyond the United States. Explain its impact on **either** the United Kingdom **or** France.

Q9. (.E05) Choose two of the four movements in Figure 1b_faith. For each, explain the part religious belief played in driving change.

Q10. (.E06) 'The revolutions of 1848 were a failure.' How far do you agree? Use evidence from Figure 1b_1848 to support your answer.

Q11. (.E04) Read the extract below, then answer the questions that follow.

"Men are born and remain free and equal in rights."

Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, Article 1, France, 26 August 1789. Public domain; retrieved 26 August 2026.

- (a) **Origin.** Who issued this declaration, and when? (1 mark)
- (b) **Content.** What does Article 1 claim? (1 mark)
- (c) **Context.** Name one way the American Revolution helped bring about this French declaration. (2 marks)
- (d) **Usefulness and limits.** What is this source strong evidence for, and what can it not show? (2 marks)

Answers

Q1. (a) nationalism (b) conservatism (c) egalitarianism (d) imperialism (e) socialism. **Q2.** New machines → Factories → Cities grow → New social groups → New political demands. Continuity: the monarchy, the churches and the old landowners kept real power for decades. **Q3.** 1773: Boston protesters dump the East India Company's tea into the harbour. 1776: the Declaration of Independence. 1783: Britain recognises the United States. 1791: the Bill of Rights is added. **Q4.** Vote for every adult man: achieved 1918. No property test for MPs: achieved 1858. A new Parliament every year: never achieved. **Q5.** (a) Votes for women (b) Ending the slave trade (c) The rise of organised labour (d) Softening the ills of industry. **Q6.** (a) The Austrian Empire. (b) National unity, achieved in 1871. (c) The army, with Russian help. **Q7.** See model response. **Q8.** See model response. **Q9.** See model response. **Q10.** See model response. **Q11.** (a) Revolutionary France (the new French government after 1789), 26 August 1789. (b) That all men are born free and equal in rights. (c) For example: Lafayette had fought in America and brought the ideas home; or: the American example showed that a written declaration of rights could found a new government. (d) See model response.

Model responses

Q7. Two changes to work practices: work moved out of homes and cottages into factories, where it was organised by the clock and by paid wages instead of by the season; and work was gathered under one roof around machines, so a large working class formed, paid by the week and living near the mills. The political consequence followed from the social one: a working class of that size, packed into cities like Manchester, began to demand a voice — votes, unions and protective laws — which is the last step of the chain in Figure 1b_chain.

Q8. France. French soldiers such as Lafayette fought for the American colonists and brought home the idea that government needs the consent of the governed. When France's own crisis came in 1789, that example helped produce the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, which copied the American habit of writing rights down: men are born free and equal in rights. The American Revolution thus helped start a French revolution that changed citizens' rights in Europe. (United Kingdom, alternative: the loss of the colonies sharpened British arguments about representation, and radicals such as Thomas Paine pointed to America as proof that a republic could work — pressure that fed the long campaign for reform of Parliament.)

Q9. Ending the slave trade: Quakers petitioned against the trade as a sin as early as 1783, and Wilberforce, Clarkson and Sharp ran the campaign as a moral and religious duty, so belief supplied the organisation and the moral force that turned public opinion and won the Acts of 1807 and 1833. The rise of organised labour: Methodist chapel networks gave farm workers meeting places and leaders, which is why a local preacher, George Loveless, stood among the Tolpuddle Martyrs; the oath that convicted them was a union oath, but the habit of organising came from the chapel. In both cases belief was the engine, not a decoration.

Q10. I agree in part. In the short run the revolutions failed: by 1849 the French republic's workers had been crushed in the June Days, the Prussian king had refused the German crown, and Austrian and Russian armies had restored the old rulers in the Austrian and Italian states. But the consequences were real: serfdom was abolished in the Austrian Empire, the vote for men survived in France, and the demands of 1848 — national unity and written constitutions — were achieved later in Italy in the 1860s and Germany in 1871. So the revolts lost the battles while their ideas changed political institutions in the end — the same pattern as Chartism.

Q11. (d) The source is strong evidence for the ideals the French Revolution claimed: that rights belong to all men from birth, not as a gift from a king. It cannot show how far the ideals were honoured in practice — in 1789 France, women and enslaved people in French colonies were not treated as equals — so it shows what the revolutionaries said, not yet what they did.

Teacher notes (not student-facing)

- **Scope.** This section teaches VC2HH10K02 through .E01–.E06 only. Per the book's coverage decisions, no Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander content appears in this section; the enfranchisement of women is taught through the Australian colonial and Commonwealth franchises without the Act's excluded groups, which sit outside this book's scope.

- **Contested terms.** Democracy, liberalism and Industrial Revolution are treated as defined in Part 1–2; every question is answerable on those definitions alone.
- **Sources.** All external sources were retrieved 26 August 2026: US National Archives (Declaration of Independence, Bill of Rights); Wikipedia (American Revolution, Stamp Act 1765, Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, Chartism, Revolutions of 1848, Abolitionism in the United Kingdom, Factory Acts, Tolpuddle Martyrs, Women’s suffrage in Australia, Anthony Ashley-Cooper 7th Earl of Shaftesbury, Manchester). Primary extracts are adapted for reading level and labelled as adapted; both originals are public domain.
- **Vocabulary.** Student-facing text has been checked against the house vocabulary ladder at ceiling rank 9, with exemptions limited to the curriculum’s own words (VC2HH10K02 and its elaborations) and subject terms defined at first use in this section.

1945 to today: the developments that shaped our world

Curriculum trace — Victorian Curriculum 2.0 History, Levels 9 and 10

Owns VC2HH10K03

Draws on — VC2HH10K03.E01, VC2HH10K03.E02, VC2HH10K03.E03, VC2HH10K03.E04

Builds on — section 1A (VC2HH10K01) and section 1B (VC2HH10K02).

In section 1A you saw how the Industrial Revolution, the vast movement of people across the globe, and European imperialism reshaped the world between 1750 and 1914. In section 1B you saw how significant ideas and developments shaped societies and politics into the twentieth century. This section moves to 1945 and beyond. It surveys the developments and events that have driven **global change** — change that has reached nearly every country, and nearly every household, on Earth. Figure 1 previews those developments and events on one annotated timeline.

Annotated timeline: global developments, 1945 to 2022

Each event is placed with equal spacing so crowded decades stay readable



Events and dates from section 1C. The timeline is a model: students extend it in Q12.

Annotated vertical timeline of 25 global developments and events from 1945 to 2022, each shown as a coloured dot and year beside a central line and grouped by theme in the legend: political and military, science and technology, environment, and economy and society.

Figure 1. Annotated timeline of global developments, 1945 to 2022 (source: section 1C, parts 1–8; the timeline is a model that Q12 asks you to extend).

By the end of this section you should be able to identify the key developments and events since 1945, place them on an annotated timeline, and explain their causes, their intended and unintended consequences, and their significance — including where people’s perspectives on them differ.

Theory

1. The world at the end of World War II (VC2HH10K03)

The content description for this section lists **World War II** itself among the developments that have shaped global change. That is because the war’s *consequences* built the post-1945 world. Chapters 3 and 4 of this book study the world wars in depth; here the war matters for what it left behind.

The war ended in 1945. Germany surrendered in May. On 6 and 9 August the United States dropped atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, killing tens of thousands of people in each city, many of them civilians. Japan announced its surrender on 15 August, and the surrender was signed on 2 September 1945. The war had killed an estimated 60 million people or more, across Europe, Asia and beyond. Cities lay in ruins, millions of people were displaced, and whole economies had to be rebuilt.

Two countries emerged from the war as **superpowers** — countries strong enough to shape events across the world. The **United States** had the world’s largest economy, the new atomic bomb, and its homeland untouched by fighting. The **Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (the USSR)** — a union of republics in eastern Europe and northern Asia, governed from Moscow by the Communist Party under Joseph Stalin — had the largest army in Europe and had suffered the war’s heaviest losses. (The USSR is often called by other names in books you may read; in this section we use *the USSR*.)

The wartime alliance between these two superpowers did not survive the peace. Within a few years, the world was divided between them — a division explored in part 3 below. At the same time, the war had weakened the European empires, and the first waves of newly independent nations were appearing (part 4). In 1945, the foundations of a new international order were also being laid — above all, the United Nations (part 2).

2. The United Nations: a new international organisation (VC2HH10K03)

An **international organisation** is a body set up by agreement between countries to deal with problems that cross borders. After World War I, countries had created the **League of Nations** to keep peace. It failed: it could not stop the aggression of the 1930s or prevent a second world war. In 1945 the victors of World War II tried again, with a stronger design.

Delegates from 50 countries met in San Francisco in April 1945 and drafted the **Charter of the United Nations** — the written agreement that set the new organisation up. The Charter was signed on **26 June 1945** and came into force on **24 October 1945**, the date now kept as United Nations Day. Poland, which had been unable to send delegates, signed later, making **51 founding members**. Australia was one of them.

The Charter’s purposes, set out in its opening articles, are to maintain international peace and security, to develop friendly relations between nations, to solve international problems, and to promote respect for human rights. Figure 2 reproduces the Charter’s preamble — its opening statement of intent — as Source 1.

SOURCE 1

Charter of the United Nations — signed at San Francisco, 26 June 1945

WE THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS DETERMINED

to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and

to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and

to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and

to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

AND FOR THESE ENDS

to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours, and

to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and

to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and

to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples,

HAVE RESOLVED TO COMBINE OUR EFFORTS TO ACCOMPLISH THESE AIMS.

*Read it as a statement of what the founders feared,
and what they hoped the new organisation would do.*

Reproduced from the Charter of the United Nations, signed 26 June 1945 (preamble).

Source card reproducing the preamble to the Charter of the United Nations, signed 26 June 1945, beginning ‘*WE THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS DETERMINED*’ and ending with the highlighted line ‘*HAVE RESOLVED TO COMBINE OUR EFFORTS TO ACCOMPLISH THESE AIMS*’.

Figure 2. Source 1 — the preamble to the Charter of the United Nations, signed 26 June 1945 (source: United Nations, [un.org](https://www.un.org/); accessed 26 August 2026).

Notice the phrase *twice in our lifetime*: the founders were writing in 1945, within weeks of the end of the second world war in a single generation. The founders’ language is formal: *scourge* means a repeated cause of great suffering,

and *succeeding generations* means the generations still to come. Worked source analysis 1 below reads this source in full.

The UN's headquarters were built in New York. Its first Secretary-General, from 1946, was **Trygve Lie** of Norway. The Australian politician and judge **H. V. Evatt**, a key figure at the San Francisco conference, served as President of the UN General Assembly in 1948–49.

The UN's most famous early achievement was the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**, adopted on **10 December 1948**. It was the first worldwide statement of the basic rights every person should enjoy. The committee that drafted it was chaired by **Eleanor Roosevelt** of the United States, widow of wartime president Franklin Roosevelt. Figure 3 gathers these founding facts into one table.

The United Nations at a glance

Key facts from the UN's founding years

Feature	Detail
Founded	Charter signed 26 June 1945; came into force 24 October 1945 (now United Nations Day)
Founding members	51 (50 signed at San Francisco; Poland signed later)
Headquarters	New York
First Secretary-General	Trygve Lie (Norway), from 1946
Australia	Founding member; H. V. Evatt, President of the General Assembly 1948-49
Key early document	Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted 10 December 1948; drafting committee chaired by Eleanor Roosevelt (USA)
Purposes	International peace and security; friendly relations between nations; solving international problems; promoting respect for human rights

Source: United Nations, 'History of the United Nations', [un.org](https://www.un.org) (accessed 26 August 2026).

Table titled 'The United Nations at a glance', listing the UN's founding facts: Charter signed 26 June 1945, 51 founding members, headquarters in New York, first Secretary-General Trygve Lie of Norway, Australia's H. V. Evatt as President of the General Assembly in 1948-49, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted 10 December 1948.

Figure 3. The United Nations at a glance (source: United Nations, 'History of the United Nations', [un.org](https://www.un.org); accessed 26 August 2026).

The UN could not end the rivalry between the superpowers — but it gave the world a forum that has lasted more than 75 years, and agencies that feed refugees, protect children's welfare and coordinate health responses worldwide.

3. The Cold War: two superpowers, one divided world (VC2HH10K03, VC2HH10K03.E02)

Defining the term. The curriculum uses the term *Cold War* but does not define it, and historians use the phrase in more than one way. The writer George Orwell used the phrase "cold war" in an essay of October 1945, and the American adviser Bernard Baruch popularised it in a speech of April 1947; the journalist Walter Lippmann fixed it in print with his 1947 book *The Cold War*. In this section, *the Cold War* (capitalised) means: **the rivalry between the United States and the USSR, together with their allies, from about 1945 to 1991 — a rivalry conducted through threats, propaganda, espionage, an arms**

race and wars fought by other countries, but never through direct, declared war between the two superpowers themselves. Later writers have applied the phrase to other rivalries (for example, talk of “a new cold war”); those uses are not the same as this one, and every question in this section is answerable on the definition above alone.

Why did the alliance of 1945 break down so fast? The two superpowers wanted different things for the post-war world, and each believed the other’s system threatened its own way of life.

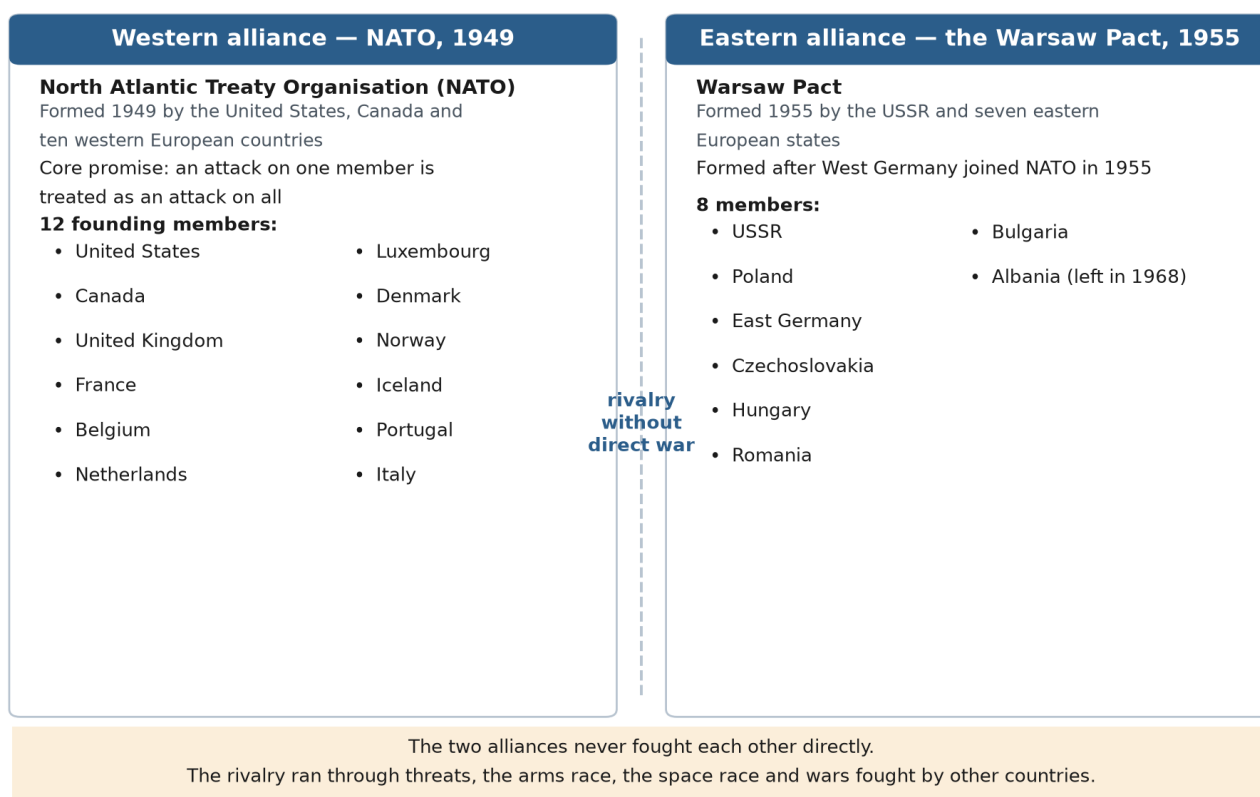
- The **United States** was a democracy with a market economy: private owners ran most businesses, and elections decided who governed.
- The **USSR** was a **communist** state. *Communist*, as used in this section, describes a system in which a single party controls the government, and the state directs the economy. Stalin’s USSR tolerated no opposition parties and no free press.

At the war’s end, the USSR’s armies occupied eastern Europe, and communist governments friendly to Moscow took power there, one by one, between 1945 and 1948. In 1946 the wartime British leader Winston Churchill declared that an “iron curtain” had come down across Europe. Germany — defeated in 1945 — was divided between the two sides, and in 1961 the communist East German government sealed its half of the divided city of Berlin with a wall.

Both sides then organised **alliances** — formal agreements to defend one another. In 1949 the United States, Canada and ten western European countries formed the **North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)**. Its core promise: an attack on one member would be treated as an attack on all. In 1955, after West Germany was admitted to NATO, the USSR and seven eastern European states answered with their own military treaty, the **Warsaw Pact**. Figure 4 sets the two alliances out.

The two alliances of the Cold War

Formal agreements to defend one another, formed within six years of each other



Source: section 1C, part 3.

Labelled diagram comparing the two Cold War alliances side by side: the western alliance, NATO, formed in 1949 with its 12 founding members listed, and the eastern alliance, the Warsaw Pact, formed in 1955 with its 8 members listed, with a divider between them reading ‘rivalry without direct war’.

Figure 4. The two alliances of the Cold War, 1949 and 1955 (source: section 1C, part 3).

The rivalry stayed “cold” between the superpowers themselves because of nuclear weapons. Both sides built thousands of them — a competition called the **arms race** — and each knew that attacking the other would bring destruction on itself. Historians describe the result as a balance of fear: neither side could win a nuclear war, so neither began one. Instead, the rivalry was fought in other ways:

- **Proxy wars** — wars in which the superpowers backed opposite sides without fighting each other directly. Figure 5 lists the major ones: Korea (1950–53), Vietnam (1955–75), the Cuban missile crisis (1962) and Afghanistan (1979–89).
- The **space race** — a contest for prestige through technology. The USSR launched **Sputnik 1**, the first artificial satellite, on 4 October 1957, and put the first human, **Yuri Gagarin**, into space on 12 April 1961. The United States answered with the Apollo program, landing **Neil Armstrong** and **Buzz Aldrin** on the Moon in July 1969 while **Michael Collins** orbited above.
- Espionage, propaganda, and competition for influence in the newly independent countries of Asia and Africa.

Key Cold War conflicts and crises

The superpowers backed opposite sides without fighting each other directly

Conflict	When	Where	What happened
Korean War	1950-53	Korea	North Korea, backed by the USSR and China, invaded South Korea. UN forces led by the USA defended the South. An armistice ended the fighting; the border changed little.
Vietnam War	1955-75	Vietnam	Communist North Vietnam fought the South. The USA sent combat troops in 1965 and withdrew in 1973. In 1975 the North took Saigon and the country united under communist rule.
Cuban missile crisis	October 1962	Cuba	US spy planes found USSR missile sites being built in Cuba, 150 km from the US coast. A thirteen-day standoff between Kennedy and Khrushchev ended with the missiles withdrawn. The closest the Cold War came to nuclear war.
War in Afghanistan	1979-89	Afghanistan	The USSR invaded to prop up a friendly government and fought Afghan rebels backed by the USA and others. The USSR withdrew in 1989.

All four were fought by other countries or through crisis, not by USA and USSR troops against each other. Source: section 1C, part 3.

Table of four key Cold War conflicts and crises: the Korean War of 1950-53, the Vietnam War of 1955-75, the Cuban missile crisis of October 1962, and the war in Afghanistan of 1979-89, each with its dates, place and a summary of what happened.

Figure 5. Key Cold War conflicts and crises (source: section 1C, part 3).

The Cold War’s closest brush with nuclear war came in **October 1962**, when American spy planes found USSR missile sites being built in Cuba, 150 kilometres from the US coast. For thirteen days — the **Cuban missile crisis** — presidents and premiers of the world waited while US president John F. Kennedy and USSR leader Nikita Khrushchev bargained. Khrushchev withdrew the missiles; the US secretly removed some of its own missiles from Turkey. Both sides had looked over the edge.

The end of the Cold War. By the 1980s the USSR’s economy was struggling to keep up. Its new leader from 1985, **Mikhail Gorbachev**, introduced reforms allowing more openness and some private enterprise, and negotiated arms reductions with US president Ronald Reagan — including a 1987 treaty removing an entire class of nuclear missiles

from Europe. In 1989 the communist governments of eastern Europe fell one after another, and on **9 November 1989** the Berlin Wall was opened. Germany reunited on 3 October 1990. In 1991 hardliners in the USSR tried and failed to seize power; the union itself broke apart, and the USSR ceased to exist on **26 December 1991**.

What changed, and what continued? The superpower rivalry ended, and dozens of formerly communist states chose their own paths. But nuclear weapons remained, NATO remained, and in some places — such as south-eastern Europe in the 1990s — the end of the Cold War unleashed conflicts that the rivalry had frozen in place.

4. Decolonisation: the wave of new nations (VC2HH10K03.E02)

Decolonisation is the process by which colonies gain their independence from the imperial power that ruled them. (The word comes from the curriculum's own list of post-1945 developments in VC2HH10K03.E02.) Between 1945 and the 1970s, dozens of colonies in Asia and Africa became independent states — one of the largest political changes of the twentieth century.

Why did it happen when it did? Three causes stand out:

1. **The war weakened the imperial powers.** Britain, France and the Netherlands had been drained by World War II; Japan had overrun their Asian colonies in 1941–42, showing that European rule could be broken.
2. **The war's ideas worked against empire.** The Allies had fought for freedom and self-government. In 1941 Churchill and US president Franklin Roosevelt had signed the **Atlantic Charter**, which included the right of peoples to choose their own form of government. The new UN Charter spoke of equal rights and self-government too.
3. **Nationalist movements had grown stronger.** Organised movements in the colonies — with leaders trained in law, politics and protest — demanded independence and negotiated, marched or fought for it.

Key examples, with their dates:

- **India and Pakistan** — August 1947. Britain granted independence to its vast South Asian empire, divided into two new states: majority-Hindu India, led by Jawaharlal Nehru as its first prime minister, and Pakistan, created as a homeland for Muslims under the leadership of Muhammad Ali Jinnah. The **partition** — the division — displaced millions of people across the new borders, and the violence that accompanied it killed vast numbers of people; estimates vary, but hundreds of thousands at least died. Independence brought freedom and tragedy together.
- **Indonesia** — proclaimed 17 August 1945. Nationalist leader Sukarno declared independence days after Japan's surrender; after four years of fighting, the Netherlands recognised Indonesian independence in December 1949.
- **Ghana** — 6 March 1957. Under Kwame Nkrumah, Ghana became the first colony in sub-Saharan Africa to win independence, inspiring the continent.
- **1960, “the year of Africa”** — seventeen colonies, most of them French, became independent states in a single year.
- **Algeria** — July 1962, after a bitter war against France (1954–62).

The consequences were enormous. Within two decades the UN's membership roughly doubled as new states joined; the world map was redrawn; and the new nations faced the hard tasks of building governments, economies and national unity. Many stayed poor and dependent on trade with the countries that had ruled them — a pattern critics describe as continuing dependence without formal rule. Perspectives on decolonisation differed sharply: for nationalist movements it was the prize of generations of struggle; for imperial powers it meant the loss of territory and prestige; for ordinary families caught in partitions and wars, it could mean upheaval and loss.

5. The technology revolution (VC2HH10K03.E01)

No development since 1945 has touched more daily routines than technology. The curriculum sorts the key developments into three areas; Figure 6 sets them out as a table.

Key technology developments since 1945

Sorted into the three areas named by the curriculum

Area (from the curriculum)	Key developments	What changed
The household	Television spreads (Australia's first stations, 1956); washing machines, refrigerators and other appliances; central heating and cooling	News, sport and entertainment arrive inside the home; housework changes; households across a country share the same programs
Travel and trade	First passenger jet service (the Comet, 1952; the Boeing 707, 1958); container shipping (first container ship, the Ideal X, April 1956)	Overseas travel takes hours, not days; the cost of moving goods collapses, feeding world trade
Globalisation, mass consumption and communications	The transistor (1947); the microchip (1958-59); satellites (Sputnik 1, 1957; communications satellites from the 1960s); personal computers (IBM personal computer, 1981); the internet (ARPANET's first message, 1969); the World Wide Web (1989-91); mobile phones	Digital systems connect the world's households, businesses and trade

The three areas come from VC2HH10K03.E01. Source: section 1C, part 5.

Table of key technology developments since 1945, sorted into the three areas named by the curriculum: the household; travel and trade; and globalisation, mass consumption and communications, with a 'what changed' column for each area.

Figure 6. Key technology developments since 1945, by area (source: section 1C, part 5).

The household. Television spread through the rich world in the 1950s — Australia's first television stations opened in 1956, in time for the Melbourne Olympic Games — and appliances such as washing machines, refrigerators and vacuum cleaners transformed housework. Central heating and cooling made homes comfortable in every season. The consequence: news, sport and entertainment arrived inside the home, and households across a country began sharing the same programs at the same time.

Travel and trade. Two changes shrank the world. First, passenger jets: the British-built **Comet** became the world's first jet airliner in 1952, and the American **Boeing 707** opened the jet age for airlines from 1958 — flights that once took days took hours. Second, shipping: in April 1956 the American trucking operator **Malcom McLean** sent the converted tanker *Ideal X* from Newark to Houston carrying 58 standard-sized metal boxes. Containers of one size could move between ship, train and truck without repacking, and the cost of moving goods collapsed. Cheap shipping is one of the physical foundations of modern world trade.

Globalisation, mass consumption and communications. Three curriculum terms need definitions here:

- **Globalisation** — the growing connections between countries through trade, technology, migration and ideas.
- **Mass consumption** — the purchase of goods in large quantities by ordinary households, not just the wealthy.
- **Digital systems** — machines and networks that store and send information as numbers (digits), rather than as sound or pictures directly.

The hardware behind all three began with the **transistor**, a tiny switch that controls electric current, built in December 1947 at Bell Laboratories in the United States by John Bardeen, Walter Brattain and William Shockley (they shared the 1956 Nobel Prize in Physics for it). In 1958–59 the Americans Jack Kilby and Robert Noyce built the first **integrated circuits** — microchips — putting many transistors on one small piece of silicon. At the same time the

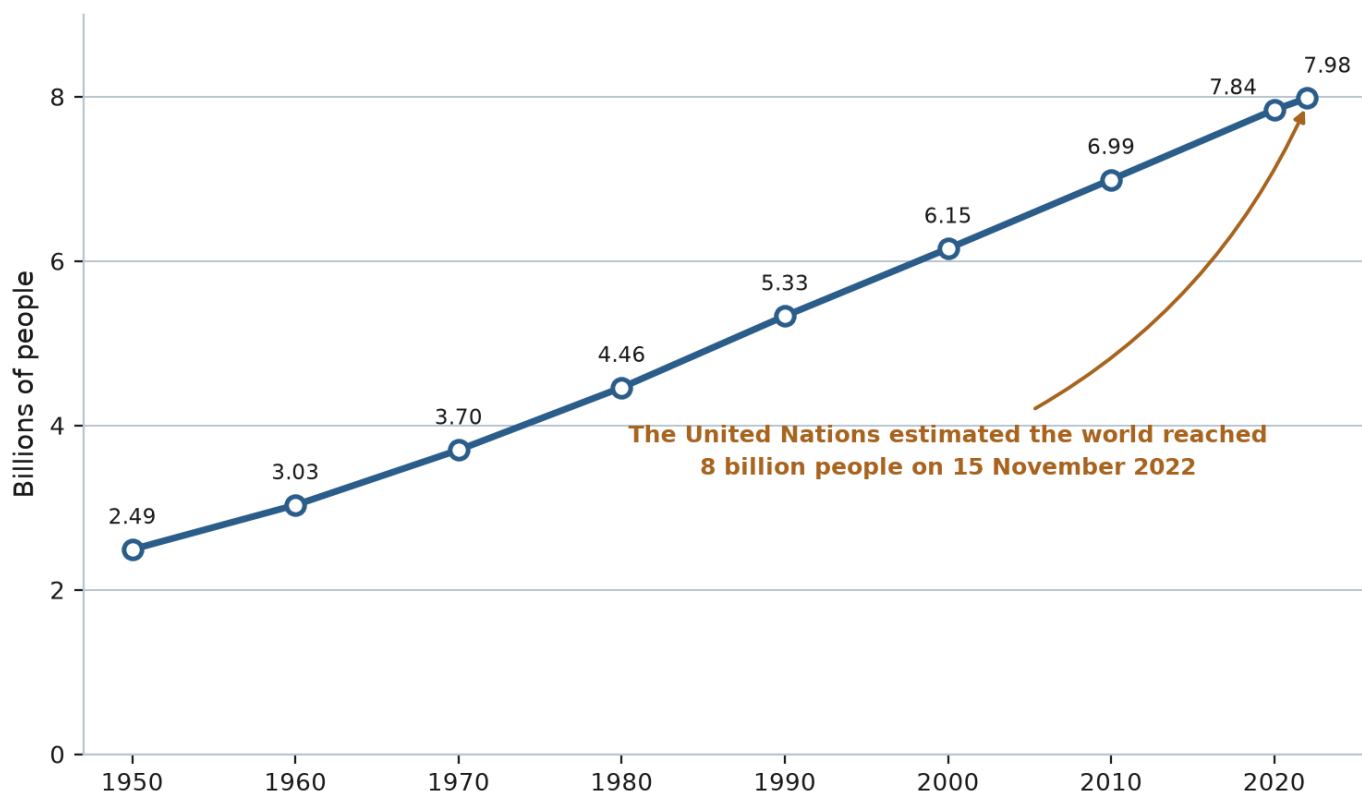
space age delivered **satellites**: after Sputnik (1957), communications satellites from the early 1960s carried telephone calls and television across oceans. Then came **personal computers** from the mid-1970s (the IBM personal computer arrived in 1981), the **internet** — whose ancestor network, ARPANET, sent its first message on 29 October 1969 — and the **World Wide Web**, proposed in 1989 by the British scientist Tim Berners-Lee at CERN, the European physics laboratory in Switzerland. By the 2000s mobile phones had become pocket computers, connecting billions of people.

The consequences were intended and unintended: faster trade and cheaper goods (intended); but also the loss of some local industries to overseas competition, and new arguments over privacy and screen time (unintended).

6. More people, longer lives, strained resources (VC2HH10K03.E03)

The twentieth century saw the largest and fastest growth in human population in history. In 1950, about **2.5 billion** people lived on Earth. By November 2022 the United Nations estimated the world had reached **8 billion**. Figure 7 charts the growth; Figure 8 compares life expectancy across regions.

Growth in the world's population, 1950 to 2022



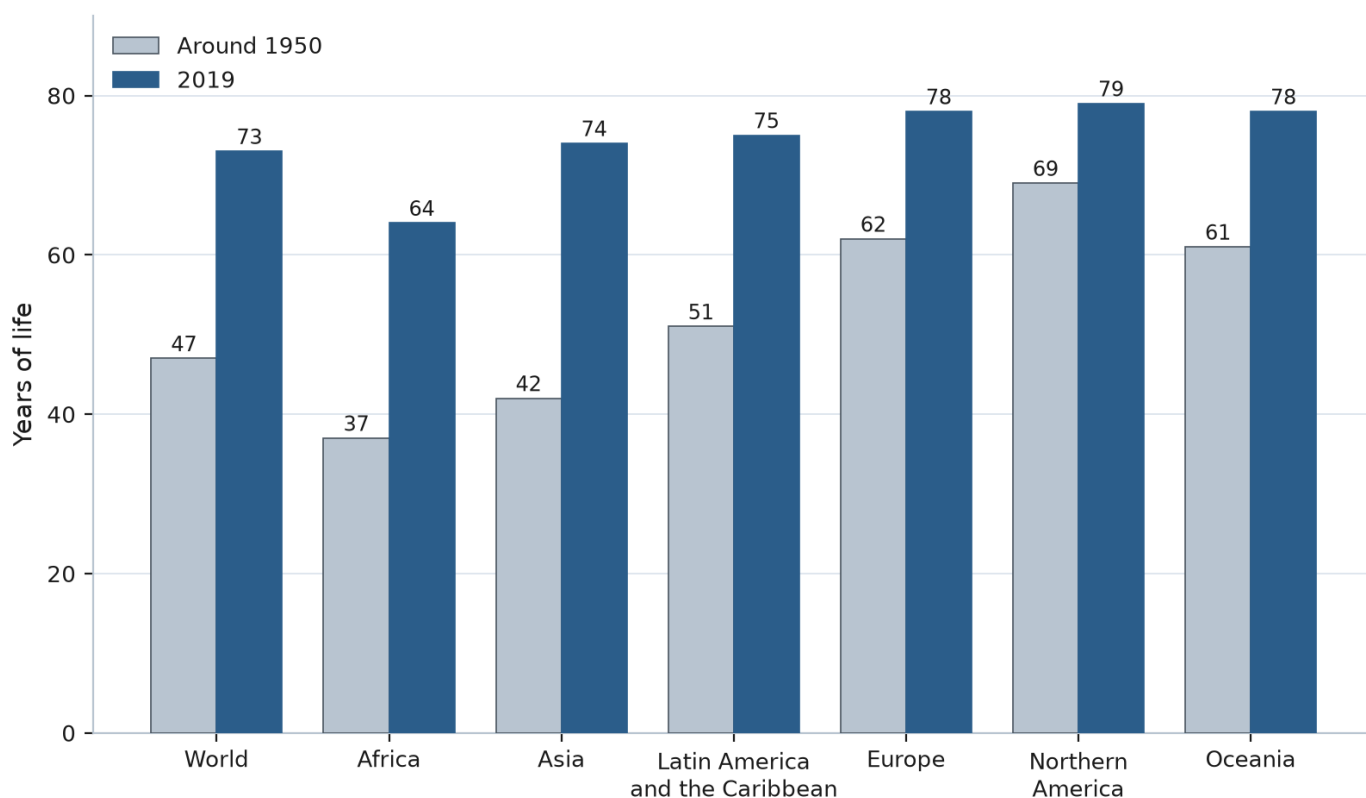
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects 2022 (estimates), accessed 26 August 2026.

Line chart showing growth in the world's population from 2.49 billion people in 1950 to 7.98 billion in 2022, with each decade labelled and an arrow noting that the United Nations estimated the world reached 8 billion people on 15 November 2022.

Figure 7. Growth in the world's population, 1950 to 2022 (source: United Nations, World Population Prospects 2022; accessed 26 August 2026).

Life expectancy — the average number of years a person can expect to live — rose in every region. In 1950–55 the world average was about 47 years; by 2019 it was about 73. The gains came from cleaner water, better food production, and medicine — above all, vaccines. Smallpox, which had killed hundreds of millions of people across history, was wiped out entirely: the World Health Organization certified it eradicated in 1980. Yet the gaps remained real. A person born in Africa in 2019 could expect about 64 years, against about 78 in Europe — a measure of how unevenly the gains were shared.

Life expectancy at birth: around 1950 compared with 2019



Figures are rounded estimates. Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects 2022 (estimates), accessed 26 August 2026.

Bar chart comparing life expectancy at birth around 1950 with 2019 for the world and for six regions: Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Europe, Northern America, and Oceania, with every region showing a large gain.

Figure 8. Life expectancy at birth, around 1950 compared with 2019 (source: United Nations, World Population Prospects 2022; accessed 26 August 2026).

Population growth has caused worth tracing: longer lives, and — in many regions — more children surviving infancy. It has consequences too. More people, living longer, consuming more per person, place greater demands on **natural resources** — the materials and energy that nature supplies: fresh water, fertile soil, forests, fish stocks, and fossil fuels such as coal, oil and gas. **Depletion** — using a resource faster than it can be replaced — became a global concern in the second half of the twentieth century, as demands grew faster than ever before. That concern fed the movement described next.

7. Going green: new ways of seeing the planet (VC2HH10K03.E04)

In September 1962 the American scientist and writer **Rachel Carson** published **Silent Spring**. The book warned that chemicals such as DDT — sprayed widely on farms after the war to kill insects — were not staying put: they moved through food chains, killing birds, poisoning fish and threatening human health. The title imagines a spring season with no birdsong. The opening sentence is worth reading closely; worked source analysis 2 examines it.

There was once a town in the heart of America where all life seemed to live in harmony with its surroundings.

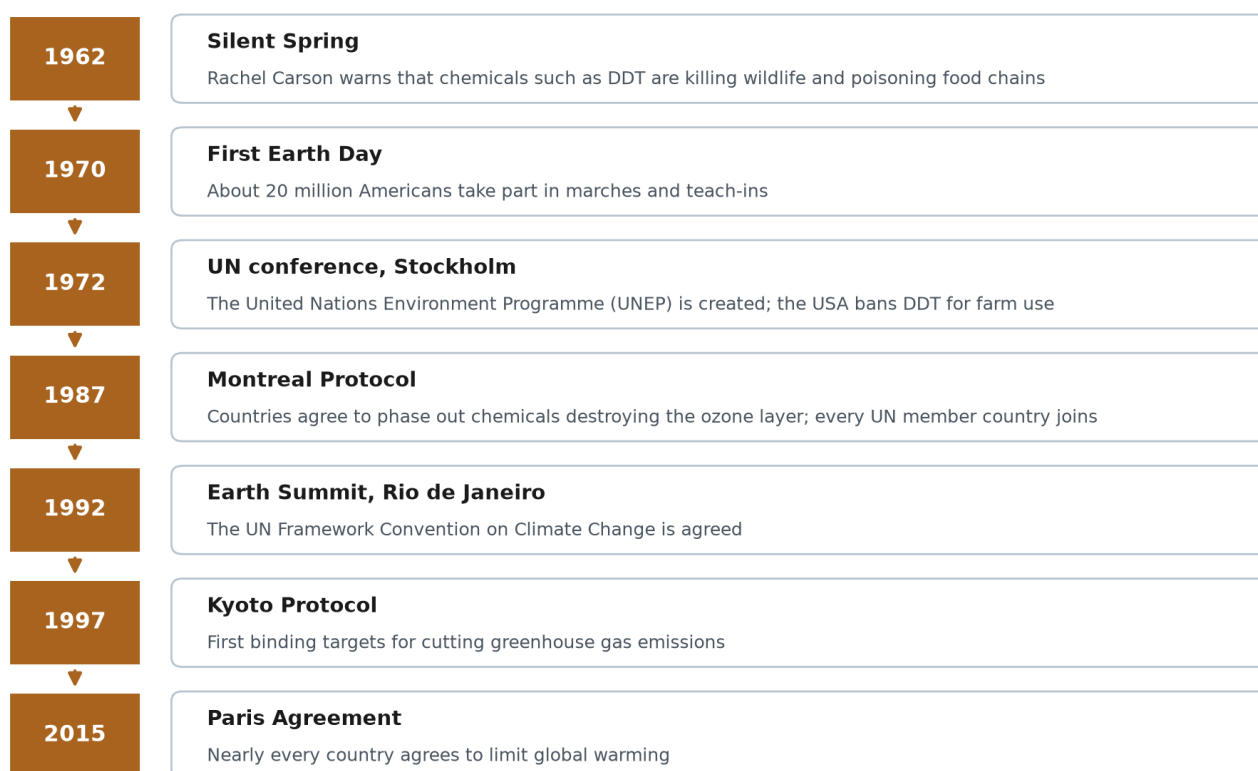
(Rachel Carson, *Silent Spring*, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1962, ch. 1)

Carson's critics — including the chemical companies that made the products — argued that pesticides had increased food production and protected people from insect-borne disease, and that Carson overstated the risks. Carson's supporters answered that the evidence showed the chemicals accumulating in living things, and that short-term gains were buying long-term harm. Both sides stated their case publicly, and governments investigated. The book is widely credited with launching the modern **environmental movement**: the United States banned DDT for farm use in 1972.

The movement grew from books into public action and international agreements:

- **22 April 1970** — the first **Earth Day**: about 20 million Americans took part in marches and teach-ins demanding action against pollution (Earth Day Network).
- **1972** — the first UN conference on the environment, in Stockholm, led to the creation of the **United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)**.
- **1987** — the **Montreal Protocol**, in which the world's countries agreed to phase out the chemicals destroying the **ozone layer** — the part of the upper atmosphere that screens out harmful rays from the sun. Every UN member country has joined it, the first agreement in history to do so.
- **1992** — the “Earth Summit” in Rio de Janeiro produced the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, under which countries later negotiated the **Kyoto Protocol (1997)** and the **Paris Agreement (2015)**, in which nearly every country agreed to limit global warming. Figure 9 gathers these milestones together.

Milestones of the world's environmental movement, 1962 to 2015



**Perspectives changed: from treating nature as a resource to use,
to seeing the environment as something to protect**

Two everyday results: renewable energy (sunlight, wind) became a major industry, and recycling became normal household practice

Source: section 1C, part 7.

*Flow diagram of seven milestones of the world's environmental movement, from Rachel Carson's **Silent Spring** in 1962 to the **Paris Agreement** in 2015, with a highlighted box noting that perspectives changed from treating nature as a resource to use, to seeing the environment as something to protect.*

Figure 9. Milestones of the world's environmental movement, 1962 to 2015 (source: section 1C, part 7).

These agreements tracked a change in **perspectives**. Where post-war governments had treated nature chiefly as a resource to use, growing numbers of people now saw the environment as something to protect. Two everyday consequences: **renewable energy** — power from sources that replace themselves, such as sunlight and wind —

moved from experiments to a major industry, and **recycling** became normal household practice, with kerbside collections spreading across Australian cities from the 1990s.

The pace of change remains contested. Those urging faster action argue that the science shows mounting damage to climate, soils and oceans, and that early change is cheaper than late repair. Those urging caution argue that rapid change threatens jobs, raises energy prices for poorer households, and depends on technologies not yet ready. Both positions have reasons; the historical record shows the movement has already changed technology, law and daily habits worldwide.

8. A connected and contested century: 1991 to the present (VC2HH10K03.E02)

Three more developments shape the decades you have lived through.

New global economic powers. After the Cold War, economic weight shifted. **China**, following the market reforms begun under Deng Xiaoping in 1978, grew into a manufacturing giant, joined the World Trade Organization in 2001, and by 2010 was the world's second-largest economy. **India**, reforming from 1991, became a centre for information technology services. Brazil and other large developing economies grew in influence too, and from 2009 their leaders met as the **BRICS** grouping. The world economy no longer revolved around the United States and Europe alone.

The War on Terror.

Defining the term. On 11 September 2001, nineteen members of the Islamist group al-Qaeda hijacked four passenger planes in the United States, crashing two into the World Trade Center towers in New York and one into the Pentagon; nearly 3,000 people were killed. In the weeks that followed, US president George W. Bush used the phrase “**the War on Terror**” for the campaign that followed — the invasion of Afghanistan in October 2001 to remove the government sheltering al-Qaeda, and from 2003 the Iraq War. Historians treat the phrase as **contested**: those who defend it argue that it named a real campaign against organised terrorist networks and the states that sheltered them. Those who criticise it argue that terror is a method, not an enemy, so a “war on terror” cannot be won or ended, and that the phrase helped justify wars with heavy civilian costs. In this section the term is used only as the name commonly given to the period of security policy and conflict that began in 2001, led by the United States.

The Global Financial Crisis, 2007–08. The crisis began in the United States, where banks had given large home loans to buyers who could not repay them. When prices fell, the losses spread: in September 2008 the investment bank Lehman Brothers collapsed, lending froze, world trade fell sharply, and unemployment rose across the rich world — the worst global downturn since the 1930s. Governments spent heavily to keep their economies moving, and recovery was slow. Consequences included tighter regulation of banks, deeper public mistrust of financial institutions, and protest movements demanding accountability.

The novel coronavirus pandemic. In December 2019 a new virus appeared in Wuhan, China, and spread worldwide within months; on 11 March 2020 the World Health Organization declared a **pandemic** — an outbreak affecting many countries at once. Governments closed borders, closed schools and ordered lockdowns; health systems worked at capacity; by 2023 more than 7 million deaths had been recorded worldwide, and the true toll was higher. The pandemic tested every institution described in this section — governments, the UN's health agencies, world trade — and accelerated trends already under way, from working from home to digital commerce. It is the clearest recent example of a global event: no country was outside it.

9. Bringing it together (VC2HH10K03)

The content description names four shapers of global change since 1945: **World War II** (whose consequences set the agenda), **the Cold War**, **the United Nations**, and **technologies**. This section has added three linked developments the curriculum's elaborations draw out: **decolonisation**, the **population and resource changes** of the twentieth century, and the **environmental movement**. Figure 1 places them all on one timeline.

As you work through the rest of this book, watch how these overview threads return in depth: Chapter 5 investigates Asia through China's own experience of global change, and Chapter 6 investigates the globalising world since 1945 through migration experiences. Section 1D picks up the threads this section has only touched on: the movements that changed the world since 1945.

Sources for this section

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Worked examples

Both analyses below use the same five moves, set out in Figure 10.

A model source analysis: five moves

Question: what can historians learn from Source 1 about the aims and fears of the UN's founders?

1 Identify the source	Source 1 is the preamble to the Charter of the United Nations, signed on 26 June 1945.
2 Describe the content	The founders commit to saving future generations from war, defending human rights and dignity, upholding justice and agreements between nations, and promoting social progress.
3 Explain the context	It was written weeks after the end of World War II, following the League of Nations' failure to prevent a war - the phrase 'twice in our lifetime' points to both world wars.
4 Read the perspective	The source speaks for the 51 founding member states together, and its purpose is to win the world's trust in the new organisation; notably, it says nothing about the rivalry already forming between the United States and the USSR.
5 State the significance	Historians can infer that the founders' greatest fear was a third world war - and they saw rights and progress as part of the way to prevent one.

Every move is backed by evidence in the source and its context - not by what you already assume.

Source: section 1C, Worked source analysis 1.

Diagram showing a model source analysis in five numbered moves: identify the source; describe the content; explain the context; read the perspective; and state the significance, each with a coloured label and a worked sentence applying it to the preamble of the Charter of the United Nations.

Figure 10. A model source analysis in five moves (source: section 1C, Worked source analysis 1).

Worked source analysis 1 — with help

Question. Read Source 1 (the preamble to the Charter of the United Nations, 1945 — reproduced in Figure 2). What can historians learn from this source about the aims and fears of the UN's founders?

Working	Comment
Step 1: Identify the source. It is the preamble — the opening statement — of the Charter of the United Nations, the treaty that set up the UN, signed in San Francisco on 26 June 1945 by delegates of 50 countries (Poland signed later, making 51 founders).	Start with what the source <i>is</i> : an official, public document — not a private diary or a newspaper opinion. That shapes what it can tell us.
Step 2: Describe the content. The founders commit “we the peoples” to four aims: to save future generations from war; to reaffirm faith in human rights, dignity and	Use the source’s own words where you can.

Working	Comment
equal rights; to create conditions where justice and respect for treaty obligations can be maintained; and to promote social progress and better standards of life.	
Step 3: Explain the context. The source was written in 1945, within weeks of the end of World War II. The League of Nations had failed to prevent that war. The phrase “twice in our lifetime” points to World War I and World War II.	Context explains <i>why</i> the founders wrote what they wrote.
Step 4: Read the perspective and purpose. The source speaks for the founding member states together — including democracies and the communist USSR. Its purpose is to state the new organisation’s aims and win the world’s trust. Note what it avoids: no mention of any single enemy, and no mention of the rivalry already forming between the USA and the USSR.	Perspectives include what a source does not say.
Step 5: State significance and inference. Historians can infer that the founders’ greatest fear was another world war, and that they saw human rights and better living standards as part of preventing one. The source is significant as the founding statement of the organisation that still anchors international cooperation.	An inference must be based on evidence in the source plus its context — not on what you already assume.
Answer: the preamble shows an organisation founded in fear of a third world war and in hope that rights, justice and progress could make peace last.	

Worked source analysis 2 — with help

Question. Read the opening sentence of Rachel Carson’s *Silent Spring* (1962), quoted in part 7 above. What makes this book a significant source for the history of the environmental movement?

Working	Comment
Step 1: Identify the source. It is the opening of a book of science writing by Rachel Carson, an American scientist and writer, published in September 1962. The opening chapter is a fable — an invented town used to make a scientific warning vivid.	Knowing the form matters: this is an argument written for the general public, not a technical report.
Step 2: Describe the content. The sentence pictures a town where all life lives “in harmony with its surroundings”. The rest of the chapter reveals a “strange blight” — which the book later explains as the effects of chemicals such as DDT moving through food chains.	Carson first invites the reader to love the scene she is warning will be lost.
Step 3: Explain the context. After 1945, new chemicals were sprayed widely on farms with little public understanding of their effects. There was no federal environmental protection in the United States yet.	The book appeared at the start of public awareness, not after it.
Step 4: Read the perspective and purpose. Carson writes as a scientist warning the public. Chemical companies attacked the book, arguing that pesticides increased food and protected people from insect-borne disease and that Carson overstated the risks; Carson’s supporters pointed to evidence that the chemicals accumulated in living things. Both cases were heard publicly before governments acted.	A strong analysis presents the strongest case on each side before judging.

Working	Comment
Step 5: State significance and inference. The book helped launch the modern environmental movement: the United States banned DDT for farm use in 1972, and new environment agencies and laws followed. Historians can infer that one well-argued book can shift public perspectives — the theme of part 7.	Connect the source back to the change it helped cause.

Answer: *Silent Spring* is significant because it turned expert knowledge into a public argument that changed laws, technology and perspectives on the environment.

Practice questions

With help

Q1. Key developments and events.

- List four developments or events since 1945 named in the content description for this section.
- Choose one of them and state one way it contributed to global change.
- Why does the content description list World War II — which ended in 1945 — among developments *since* 1945?

Q2. The United Nations.

- When was the Charter of the United Nations signed, and how many founding members did the UN have?
- Using the preamble quoted in part 2, state two aims of the UN in your own words.
- Name one person involved in the UN's early work and describe their role.

Q3. The Cold War.

- In your own words, define *the Cold War* as this section uses the term.
- Give two features of the rivalry that show why it stayed “cold” between the USA and the USSR themselves.
- Why is the phrase “cold war” described as contested rather than precisely defined?

Q4. Alliances and proxy wars. Use Figure 4 and Figure 5.

- Name the two alliances formed in 1949 and 1955, and give one founding member of each.
- Why did neither superpower attack the other directly?
- Choose one conflict from Figure 5 and summarise it: where, when, and who backed whom.

Q5. Technology since 1945. Use Figure 6.

- Sort these developments into the three areas from VC2HH10K03 . E01 (the household; travel and trade; globalisation, mass consumption and communications): passenger jets, television, the microchip, central heating and cooling, container shipping, satellites.
- Choose one development and trace one consequence of it for daily life.
- Why did standard-sized containers change world trade?

Q6. Population and life expectancy. Use Figures 7 and 8.

- What was the world's population in 1950, and what did the United Nations estimate it had reached by November 2022?
- Give two reasons life expectancy rose during the twentieth century.
- Explain why more people living longer places greater demands on natural resources.

On your own

Q7. Decolonisation. Explain two causes of decolonisation after 1945 and two consequences of it, using at least two named examples from part 4.

Q8. Perspectives. The same development can be experienced differently by different groups. Choose one development from this section (for example, television, passenger jets or container shipping) and explain how two different groups might have experienced it differently, and why their perspectives differ.

Q9. The environment movement. Explain how the environmental movement changed people's perspectives after 1962, using at least one named person, book or agreement. Then give one reason some people urged caution rather than faster action.

Q10. Continuity and change. Identify one feature of international relations that **changed** between 1945 and 1991, and one feature that **continued** across the same period. Justify each choice with evidence from this section.

Q11. Significance. "Which development or event since 1945 has done the most to shape global change?" State your choice, give two criteria you used to judge significance (for example, how many people it affected, how much it changed daily life, how many consequences it produced), and argue your case in one paragraph.

Q12. Annotated timeline. Using Figure 1 as your model, add three developments or events from this section to your own timeline. For each one, write one sentence explaining why it deserves a place (its significance).

Answers

Q1. (a) Any four from: World War II, the Cold War, the United Nations, technologies. (b) Answers will vary; for example, technologies such as the microchip connected economies and households worldwide. (c) Because its *consequences* — the UN, the Cold War, decolonisation, new technology — shaped everything after 1945.

Q2. (a) Signed 26 June 1945; 51 founding members. (b) Any two aims, for example: to protect future generations from war; to defend human rights and dignity; to uphold justice and respect for agreements between nations; to promote social progress and better living standards. (c) For example: Trygve Lie of Norway, first Secretary-General from 1946; Eleanor Roosevelt, chair of the committee that drafted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; H. V. Evatt of Australia, President of the General Assembly 1948–49.

Q3. (a) The rivalry between the USA and the USSR and their allies, about 1945–1991, conducted through threats, propaganda, espionage, the arms race and wars fought by other countries, but never through direct war between the two superpowers. (b) Any two from: nuclear weapons on both sides made direct attack too dangerous; rivalry was fought through proxy wars instead; competition took forms like the space race and espionage. (c) Because different writers have used the phrase in different ways — Orwell in 1945, Baruch in 1947, Lippmann's book, and later writers applying it to other rivalries — so this section states the sense it uses.

Q4. (a) The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), 1949 — for example the USA, Canada or the United Kingdom; the Warsaw Pact, 1955 — for example the USSR, Poland or East Germany. (b) Because both sides held nuclear weapons and knew an attack would bring destruction on themselves. (c) For example: the Korean War, 1950–53 — North Korea, backed by the USSR and China, invaded South Korea; UN forces led by the USA defended the South; an armistice ended the fighting in 1953.

Q5. (a) Globalisation, mass consumption and communications: satellites, the microchip. Household: television, central heating and cooling. For travel and trade: container shipping, passenger jets. (b) Answers will vary; for example, television brought news and entertainment into the home, so whole countries shared the same programs. (c) Because one standard size could move between ship, train and truck without repacking, which cut the cost of moving goods and made world trade much cheaper.

Q6. (a) About 2.5 billion in 1950; about 8 billion by November 2022. (b) Any two from: cleaner water, better food production, vaccines and medicines, better sanitation. (c) More people means more demand for water, food, land and energy; living longer adds to that demand; and higher consumption per person multiplies it — together using resources faster than they can be replaced.

Q7. Causes (any two): the war weakened the imperial powers; the war's ideas — freedom and self-government, as in the Atlantic Charter — worked against empire; nationalist movements grew stronger. Consequences (any two): new independent states and a redrawn world map; UN membership roughly doubled; partitions and wars displaced and killed many people; new states faced the tasks of building governments and economies. Examples: India and Pakistan (August 1947), Indonesia (proclaimed 1945, recognised 1949), Ghana (March 1957), the seventeen states of 1960, Algeria (July 1962).

Q8. Answers will vary. Example: television — a city household in Australia experienced it as new entertainment and shared national events (such as the 1956 Olympic Games), while a new nation's government might experience broadcast technology as a tool for building national unity — and its cost as a mark of the gap between rich and poor countries. Perspectives differ because groups stand in different places: what counts as convenience, status, expense or power depends on the group's situation.

Q9. Carson's *Silent Spring* (1962) turned expert knowledge into a public warning about chemicals such as DDT; it helped launch the environmental movement: the first Earth Day drew about 20 million Americans in 1970, the United States banned DDT for farm use in 1972, and international agreements followed (Montreal Protocol 1987; Paris Agreement 2015). Perspectives shifted from treating nature as a resource to use, to seeing the environment as something to protect. Caution: some argued that rapid change threatens jobs, raises energy prices for poorer households, and depends on technologies not yet ready.

Q10. Changed (example): Europe was divided into two armed camps in 1945–49, and by 1991 the eastern camp — including the USSR itself — had dissolved, leaving the USA as the only superpower. Continued (example): nuclear weapons remained on both sides throughout, and the fear of nuclear war shaped decisions on both sides from the

1940s to the 1980s. Justification must use section evidence (for example, the arms race, the Cuban missile crisis, the 1987 missile treaty).

Q11. Answers will vary. Award: a clear choice; two stated criteria; a paragraph arguing the case with section evidence; acknowledgment that other choices could be defended. Example choice: the microchip — affected billions, changed daily life greatly, and produced consequences across trade, communications and work.

Q12. Answers will vary. Each entry needs a correct date and a significance sentence; for example: 1962 *Silent Spring* published — launched the modern environmental movement.

Fully-worked solutions

Q1.

- (a) The content description lists World War II, the Cold War, the United Nations and technologies.
- (b) Example: the United Nations gave the world a permanent forum for negotiation and agencies that feed refugees, protect children and coordinate health responses — forms of cooperation that did not exist before 1945.
- (c) World War II ended in 1945, but the curriculum lists it among developments *since* 1945 because its consequences built the post-war world: the United Nations was founded to prevent a third world war, the wartime alliance between the USA and the USSR collapsed into the Cold War, the weakened European empires faced decolonisation, and wartime technology — atomic energy, rockets, early computers — fed post-war developments. The war is on the list as the event whose results shaped everything that followed.

Q2.

- (a) The Charter was signed on 26 June 1945 and came into force on 24 October 1945. The UN had 51 founding members (50 signed at San Francisco; Poland signed later).
- (b) Two aims, in student words: first, to protect future generations from war, because two world wars had already brought “untold sorrow” within one lifetime. Second, to defend basic human rights and the dignity of every person. (Also accepted: to create conditions in which justice and respect for agreements between nations can be maintained; to promote social progress and better standards of life.)
- (c) Example: Eleanor Roosevelt of the United States chaired the committee that drafted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted on 10 December 1948 — the first worldwide statement of the basic rights every person should enjoy. (Also accepted: Trygve Lie of Norway, first Secretary-General from 1946; H. V. Evatt of Australia, a key figure at the San Francisco conference and President of the General Assembly in 1948–49.)

Q3.

- (a) The Cold War, as this section uses the term, was the rivalry between the United States and the USSR, together with their allies, from about 1945 to 1991. It was conducted through threats, propaganda, espionage, an arms race and wars fought by other countries — but never through direct, declared war between the two superpowers themselves.
- (b) Two features: first, both sides built up nuclear weapons — the arms race — and each knew that attacking the other would bring destruction on itself, so neither began a direct war. Second, where the two sides genuinely clashed — Korea, Vietnam, Cuba, Afghanistan — the fighting was done by other countries or through crises resolved by negotiation, not by American and USSR troops fighting each other.
- (c) The phrase is contested because it was never given one official meaning. George Orwell wrote of a “cold war” in October 1945, Bernard Baruch popularised the phrase in April 1947, Walter Lippmann fixed it with his book *The Cold War* later in 1947 — and later writers have applied the phrase to entirely different rivalries, such as talk of “a new cold war”. Because the meaning shifts with the user, this section states the exact sense in which it uses the term, as required by the house rule on contested terms.

Q4.

- (a) The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) was formed in 1949 by the United States, Canada and ten western European countries — for example the United Kingdom or France. The Warsaw Pact was formed in 1955 by the USSR and seven eastern European states — for example Poland or East Germany.
- (b) Neither superpower attacked the other directly because both held nuclear weapons. A direct attack risked a nuclear exchange in which both sides — and much of the world — would be destroyed. Historians describe this as a balance of fear: neither side could win a nuclear war, so neither began one.
- (c) Example: the Cuban missile crisis, October 1962. American spy planes found USSR missile sites being built in Cuba, about 150 kilometres from the US coast. For thirteen days the world waited while President John F. Kennedy and USSR leader Nikita Khrushchev bargained. Khrushchev withdrew the missiles and the United States secretly removed some of its own missiles from Turkey. It was the closest the Cold War came to nuclear war. (Also accepted: the Korean War 1950–53; the Vietnam War 1955–75; the Afghanistan war 1979–89.)

Q5.

- (a) Globalisation, mass consumption and communications: satellites; the microchip. Household: television; central heating and cooling. For travel and trade: container shipping; passenger jets.
- (b) Example: television. Consequence: news, sport and entertainment arrived inside the home. Households across a country began sharing the same programs at the same time — in Australia, television arrived in 1956 in time for the Melbourne Olympic Games, which millions then watched at home. A further consequence: advertisers could now reach whole nations at once, feeding mass consumption.
- (c) Standard-sized containers changed world trade because one size could move between ship, train and truck without repacking. Before containers, goods were loaded by hand in mixed sizes, slowly and expensively. After Malcom McLean's *Ideal X* voyage of April 1956, loading became fast and mechanical, the cost of moving goods collapsed, and cheap shipping became one of the physical foundations of modern world trade — goods made on one side of the world could be sold on the other at prices ordinary households could pay.

Q6.

- (a) About 2.5 billion people lived on Earth in 1950. The United Nations estimated the world reached 8 billion people on 15 November 2022.
- (b) Two reasons: first, vaccines and medicines — smallpox, which had killed hundreds of millions across history, was certified eradicated by the World Health Organization in 1980. Second, cleaner water and better food production meant fewer people, especially children, died young. (Also accepted: better sanitation, improved care of mothers and newborns.)
- (c) More people means more mouths, more homes, more farms and more factories — so greater demand for fresh water, fertile soil, forests, fish stocks and fossil fuels. Longer lives add to that demand, because each person uses resources for more years. And as incomes rose, consumption per person rose too. The result is pressure on resources faster than they can be replaced — depletion — which became a global concern in the second half of the twentieth century.

Q7.

Model answer. Decolonisation — the process by which colonies gain independence from the imperial power that ruled them — reshaped the world map between 1945 and the 1970s.

Two causes. First, World War II weakened the imperial powers: Britain, France and the Netherlands were drained by the war, and Japan's conquest of their Asian colonies in 1941–42 had shown that European rule could be broken. Second, nationalist movements had grown stronger: organised movements with trained leaders demanded independence and negotiated, marched or fought for it. The war's own ideas worked in the same direction — the Atlantic Charter of 1941 had spoken of the right of peoples to choose their own form of government.

Two consequences, with named examples. First, dozens of new states appeared and the world map was redrawn: India and Pakistan became independent in August 1947, and the UN's membership roughly doubled within two decades as

new states joined. Second, independence could come with terrible human costs: the partition of India displaced millions of people across the new borders, and the violence that accompanied it killed hundreds of thousands of people at least. (Other accepted examples: Indonesia's proclaimed independence of 1945 and the fighting until the Netherlands recognised it in 1949; Ghana's independence of March 1957 under Kwame Nkrumah; the seventeen states of 1960; Algeria's war of 1954–62.)

Q8.

Model answer. Development chosen: container shipping.

Group 1 — workers on the docks. For dock workers, containers meant the end of their traditional work: goods that had been loaded and unloaded by hand, piece by piece, now moved in sealed boxes handled by cranes. Fewer hands were needed. A development that made goods cheaper could cost a dock worker their job — so many dock workers experienced containerisation as a threat, not a benefit.

Group 2 — households in wealthy countries. For ordinary shoppers, cheaper shipping meant cheaper goods: clothes, electronics and food produced on the other side of the world became affordable. Mass consumption grew, and households experienced containerisation as rising choice and falling prices.

Why the perspectives differ: the two groups stand in different places in the same change. The dock worker meets the change as a cost to their own labour; the shopper meets it as a benefit to their own budget. The development is one, but the experience — and therefore the perspective — depends on position. That is why historians ask *whose* perspective a source or an event reflects.

Q9.

Model answer. In September 1962 the American scientist and writer Rachel Carson published *Silent Spring*, warning that chemicals such as DDT, sprayed widely on farms, were moving through food chains, killing birds, poisoning fish and threatening human health. The book turned expert knowledge into a public argument. Its consequences show how perspectives changed. In the United States, the first Earth Day on 22 April 1970 drew about 20 million Americans to marches and teach-ins; DDT was banned for farm use in 1972; and the United Nations Environment Programme was created the same year. Internationally, the Montreal Protocol of 1987 phased out the chemicals destroying the ozone layer — joined by every UN member country — and the Paris Agreement of 2015 committed nearly every country to limiting global warming. Where post-war governments had treated nature chiefly as a resource to use, growing numbers of people came to see the environment as something to protect — visible in renewable energy moving from experiment to industry, and in recycling becoming normal household practice.

The caution: some people argued that rapid change threatens jobs and raises energy prices for poorer households, and that it depends on technologies not yet ready. On this view, a slower, managed change protects livelihoods while still moving in the same direction.

Q10.

Model answer. One feature that **changed**: the division of Europe into two armed camps. Between 1945 and 1949 the USSR's armies occupied eastern Europe and communist governments took power there, while the western states formed NATO in 1949; the Warsaw Pact answered in 1955. By 1991 that division had dissolved: the communist governments of eastern Europe had fallen in 1989, the Berlin Wall had been opened on 9 November 1989, Germany had reunited in October 1990, and the USSR itself ceased to exist on 26 December 1991. The defining feature of the period — a divided continent — had ended.

One feature that **continued**: nuclear weapons. Both superpowers built them from the 1940s onward — the arms race — and both still held thousands of them in 1991. The fear of nuclear war shaped decisions on both sides across the whole period: it kept the war “cold” in the 1940s and 1950s, it drove the Cuban missile crisis of 1962, and it drove the arms-reduction treaty of 1987. The weapons outlasted the rivalry that produced them — an example of continuity running straight through a period of dramatic change.

Q11.

Model answer (one of several defensible choices). Choice: the microchip.

Criteria used: (1) how many people the development affected, and (2) how many further consequences it produced across different areas of life.

Argument: the microchip has done the most to shape global change because it sits under nearly every other post-1945 development. Kilby and Noyce built the first integrated circuits in 1958–59, and from them came personal computers from the mid-1970s, the internet (ARPANET's first message went in October 1969), the World Wide Web from 1989–91, and mobile phones that became pocket computers. By the 2000s billions of people carried one. No other development touches so many lives daily. And its consequences spread across every area of this section: it changed the household (entertainment, appliances), travel and trade (booking, logistics, container ports), globalisation and mass consumption (world supply of goods and services), and even the environment (monitoring climate and energy use). The United Nations and the Cold War shaped politics; the microchip reshaped politics *and* work *and* daily routine at once. Other choices — the UN, decolonisation, nuclear weapons — could be argued with equal care; on these two criteria, the microchip's reach is the widest.

Q12.

Model answer — three additions to an annotated timeline.

1. **1962 — *Silent Spring* published.** Significance: Rachel Carson's book turned expert knowledge about chemicals into a public argument, helping launch the modern environmental movement; the United States banned DDT for farm use within a decade.
2. **1991 — the USSR dissolves.** Significance: the end of the Cold War's eastern superpower removed the rivalry that had divided the world since 1945, redrew the map of Europe and Asia, and opened the way for new conflicts and new cooperation alike.
3. **2008 — the Global Financial Crisis.** Significance: the worst global downturn since the 1930s showed how closely connected the world economy had become: failures in one country's home lending cost jobs across the world within months, and deepened public mistrust of financial institutions.

Movements that changed the world since 1945

Curriculum: owns VC2HH10K04 · draws on K04.E01, K04.E03, K04.E04, K04.E05, K04.E06.

Since 1945, groups of ordinary people have organised to change their world. They have won independence for whole nations, challenged racist laws, won rights for women, for gay and transgender people, and pushed governments to protect the natural environment. This section looks at what these movements wanted, the methods they used, and the difference they made.

Before we begin: what do these words mean?

Some words in this section are **contested** — people do not all agree on one fixed meaning. We will state clearly how they are used here, so every question can be answered on that meaning alone.

- **Movement.** The Victorian Curriculum speaks of movements for change but does not define “movement”. This section treats a **movement** as a large group of people, organised over a period of time, working to change — or to resist change in — laws, government, or the way society treats people. A movement is bigger than one protest: it has a shared goal, some organisation, and many supporters.
- **Social change** means a change in how people live and in how society treats different groups — for example, attitudes to women at work, or to people of different races or sexualities.
- **Political change** means a change in who holds power, how government works, or what the law says — for example, a colony becoming an independent country, or a parliament passing a new rights law.
- **Rights.** The word *rights* is contested: people disagree about exactly which rights exist and where they come from. This section uses *rights* in the sense given by the United Nations’ *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948) — rights that every person has simply because they are human. Other definitions exist and are not interchangeable with this one.

Keep these meanings in mind as you read. When a question asks about “change”, notice whether it is asking about social change, political change, or both.

1. What is a movement for change?

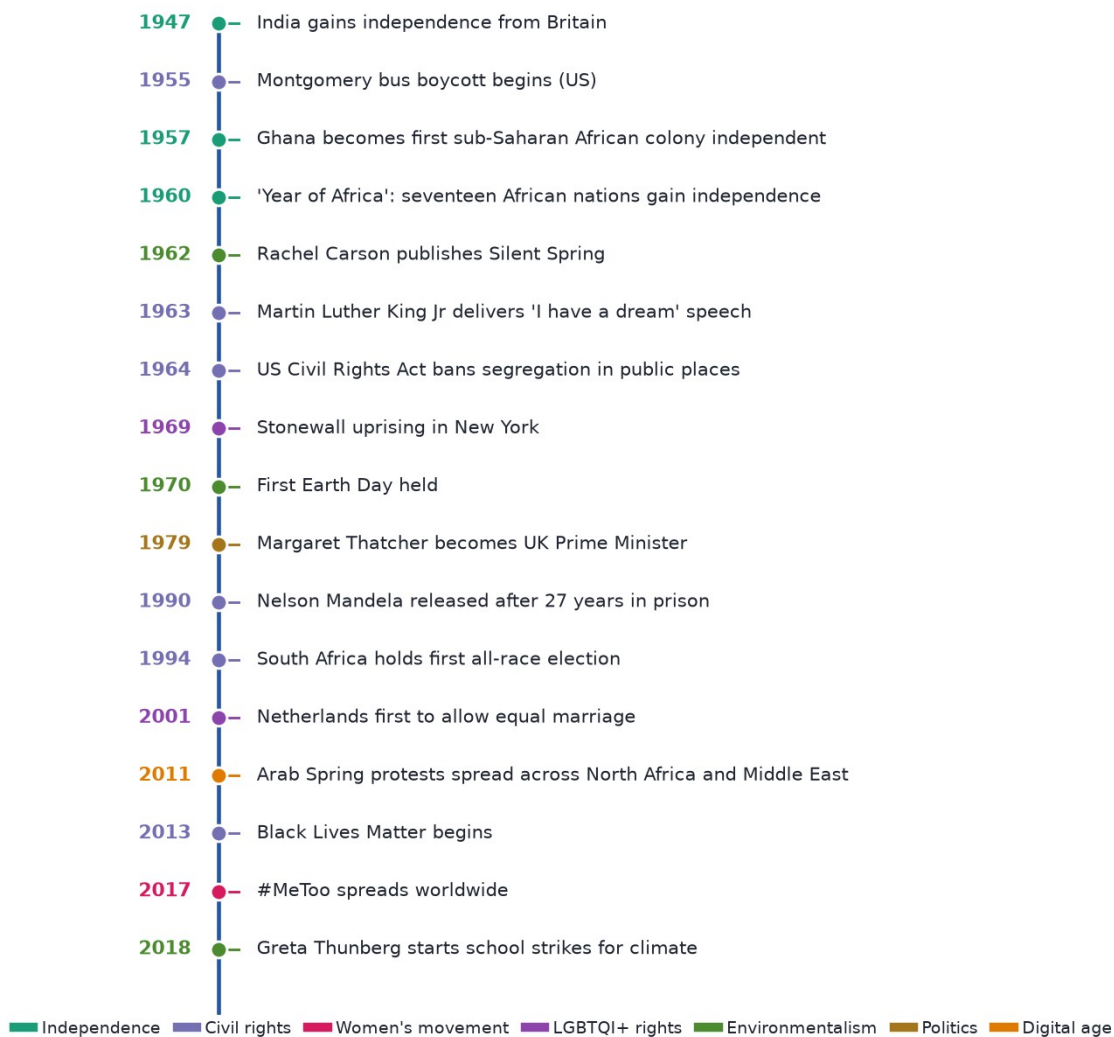
A movement usually grows because a group of people believes something is unfair and that government or society is not fixing it. Movements can aim to **change** things (win a new right, end an unfair law) or to **conserve** things (protect a way of life or a set of beliefs from change). This matters: both progressive and conservative movements are part of this story.

Movements matter to historians because they show that change is not only made by leaders and governments. Ordinary people, acting together, have been a cause of some of the biggest changes since 1945. As you read, track three historical ideas:

- **Cause and consequence** — why did each movement begin, and what flowed from it?
- **Continuity and change** — what stayed the same, and what changed, over time?
- **Perspective** — different people and groups saw the same events differently, including people *inside* a movement.

The timeline below gives you the shape of the whole section before we zoom in.

Movements that changed the world since 1945



Timeline of major movements for change from 1945 to the present day

2. Independence movements

In 1945, much of Africa and Asia was ruled by European empires, especially Britain and France. These ruled territories were called **colonies**. The Second World War (1939–1945) weakened the European powers and spread the idea that every people should be free to govern itself. This idea is called **self-determination**: the right of a people to choose their own government.

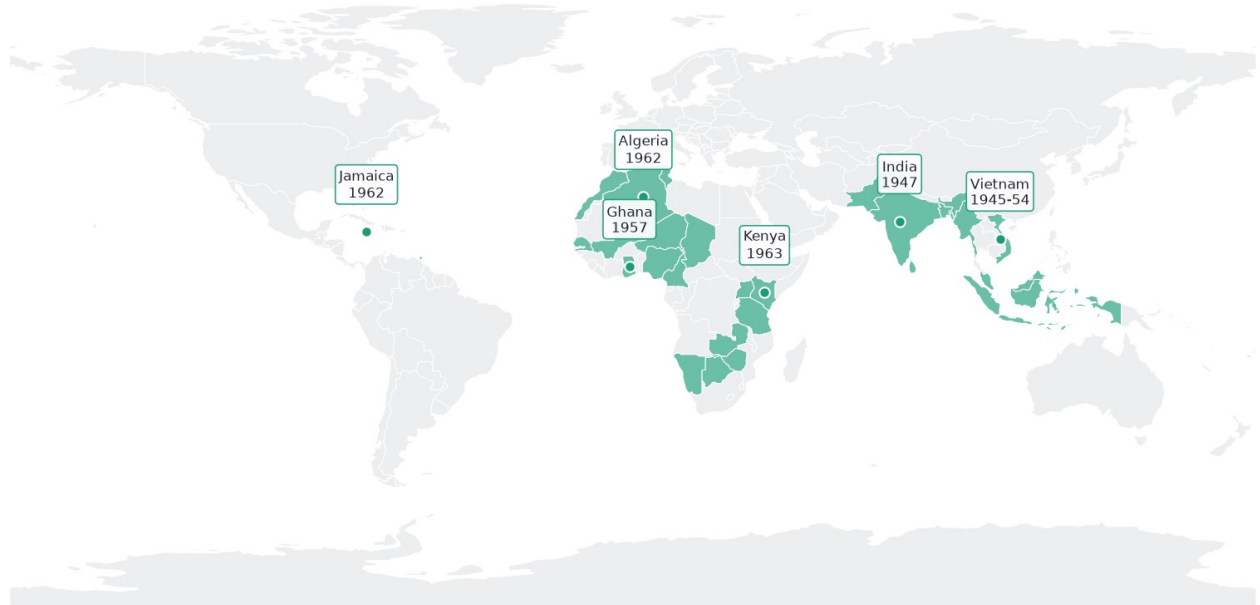
After 1945, colony after colony won independence. A few key examples:

- **India (1947).** India won independence from Britain. The Indian National Congress, and leaders such as Mohandas Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru, had long used non-violent protest and civil disobedience against British rule. India was split into two countries, India and Pakistan, in a painful division called Partition.
- **Ghana (1957).** Ghana became the first colony in sub-Saharan Africa to win independence from Britain. Its leader Kwame Nkrumah inspired independence movements across Africa.
- **The “Year of Africa” (1960).** In 1960 alone, seventeen African nations became independent.
- **Vietnam and Algeria.** Vietnam fought a long war against French rule, and Algeria fought for independence from France. Both showed that independence sometimes came only after conflict.

This wave of colonies winning their freedom was one of the biggest political changes of the 20th century: in 1945 most of the world's people lived under foreign rule; within a few decades most lived in independent states. Historians describe it as the fall of empires and the rise of many new nations.

Cause: weakened European empires, the idea of self-determination, and organised local movements. **Consequence:** dozens of new nations and a changed world map.

Countries that gained independence after 1945



Teal: countries that became independent after 1945 (selection shown). Between 1945 and 1975 more than eighty colonies won their freedom.

World map highlighting countries that gained independence after 1945

Quick check (draws on K04.E01). On a blank world map, mark and label four countries that became independent after 1945. For each, note the year and which empire it left.

3. Nationalist and conservative political movements

Two broad kinds of political movement shaped the period.

Nationalism is strong pride in, and loyalty to, one's nation, and the belief that it should be independent and self-governing. Nationalism helped drive the independence movements above: people wanted their *own* nation run by *their own* people. Nationalism can unite people, but historians also note it can exclude or turn against minorities, so we treat it as a term with more than one side.

Conservatism is a political outlook that values tradition, order, personal responsibility and, usually, free markets and smaller government spending. Since the 1970s, conservative movements gained power in several countries. The clearest example is **Margaret Thatcher**, who became Britain's first woman Prime Minister in 1979. Her supporters called her approach "Thatcherism": selling state-owned industries to private owners, cutting some government spending, and stressing individual effort.

A fair hearing for both sides. Conservatives argue that free markets and personal responsibility create wealth and that too much government control slows people down. Critics argue that these policies widen the gap between rich and poor and cut services that vulnerable people rely on. Historians see evidence for both claims, and your task is to weigh the evidence, not to pick a side by instinct.

4. The civil rights movement

The civil rights movement campaigned for equal rights and an end to racism — especially for Black people in the United States and in South Africa.

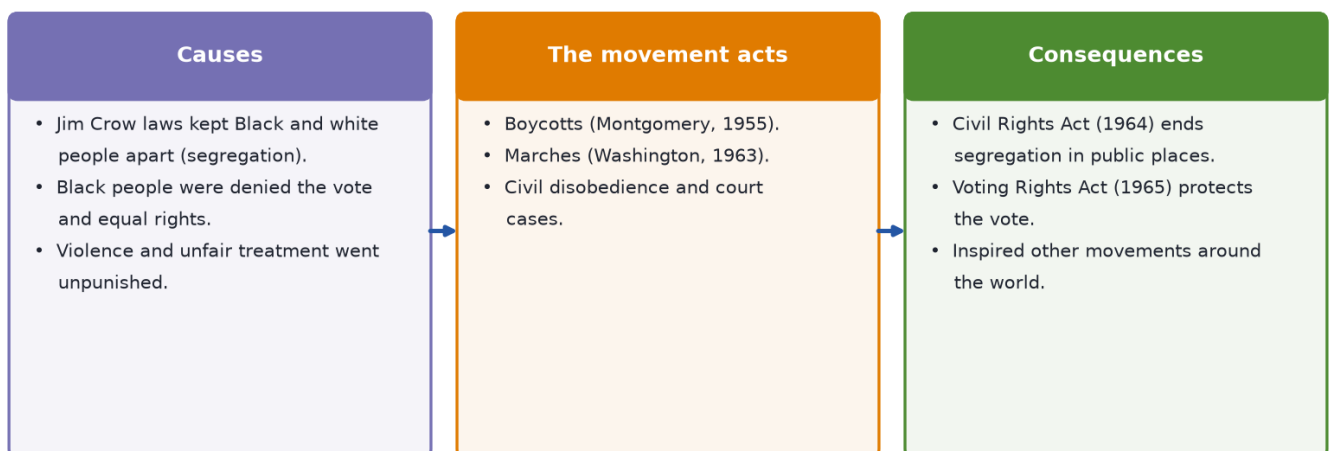
The United States. In the southern states, laws called **Jim Crow** laws kept Black and white people separate — a policy of **segregation**. Black people had fewer rights and faced violence. The movement pushed back, largely through non-violent protest:

- **Rosa Parks (1955).** In Montgomery, Alabama, Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat on a bus to a white passenger. Her arrest sparked the Montgomery bus boycott, a year-long protest that ended with the courts ruling bus segregation unlawful.
- **Martin Luther King Jr.** A Baptist minister, King became the movement's best-known leader. He argued for non-violent protest and civil disobedience. In 1963, at the March on Washington, he gave his famous "I have a dream" speech.
- **The law changed.** The Civil Rights Act of 1964 banned segregation in public places, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965 protected Black people's right to vote. King was assassinated in 1968.

South Africa. South Africa was ruled by a system of laws that kept the races apart and gave power to the white minority. Black South Africans were denied the vote and forced to live in separate areas. The African National Congress (ANC), and leaders such as **Nelson Mandela**, campaigned against this system. Mandela was imprisoned for 27 years. Released in 1990, he helped negotiate an end to white-minority rule, and in 1994 he was elected president in South Africa's first election open to all races.

Cause: racist laws and the denial of basic rights. **Consequence:** new laws guaranteeing equal rights, and a powerful example of non-violent change — though racism did not disappear, and historians debate how complete the change was.

Cause, action and consequence: the US civil rights movement



continuity: racism and inequality did not disappear - historians debate how complete the change was

Diagram of the causes, actions and consequences of the United States civil rights movement

Perspective note. Within the movement, people disagreed about methods. King and others argued that non-violent protest was the most effective and right approach. Others, who faced daily violence, argued that Black people had a right to defend themselves. Both views were held by people who wanted the same goal — equality. Presenting both sides in a fair way helps us understand the movement, rather than judging it from only one angle.

5. The women's movement

The women's movement — also called feminism — has campaigned for equal rights for women. Historians often describe it in "waves", though each wave had many voices.

- **First wave (late 19th and early 20th century):** the campaign for women's right to vote (**suffrage**). New Zealand gave women the vote in 1893, the first self-governing country to do so. Britain gave some women the vote in 1918 and equal voting rights in 1928; the United States followed in 1920.
- **Second wave (1960s–1970s):** campaigners pushed beyond the vote into work, pay and family life. **Betty Friedan**, an American writer, argued in her 1963 book *The Feminine Mystique* that many housewives felt trapped and unfulfilled, even though society told them a home and family were all they should want. She helped found the National Organization for Women in 1966. Second-wave campaigns won equal-pay laws and opened more jobs and education to women.
- **Later waves (1990s–today):** feminism broadened to include many different women's experiences and to fight for equality worldwide.

A living example: Malala Yousafzai. In Pakistan, Malala campaigned for girls' right to go to school. In 2012, when she was 15, she was shot and badly wounded by men who opposed girls' education. She survived and continued her campaign, and in 2014 became the youngest person ever to receive the world's best-known peace prize. Her story shows that the campaign for women's and girls' rights is still happening now.

Continuity and change. What changed: women won the vote, greater access to education and work, and equal-pay laws. What continued: women still, on average, earn less than men and are under-represented in positions of power. Noting both is good history.

The waves of the women's movement

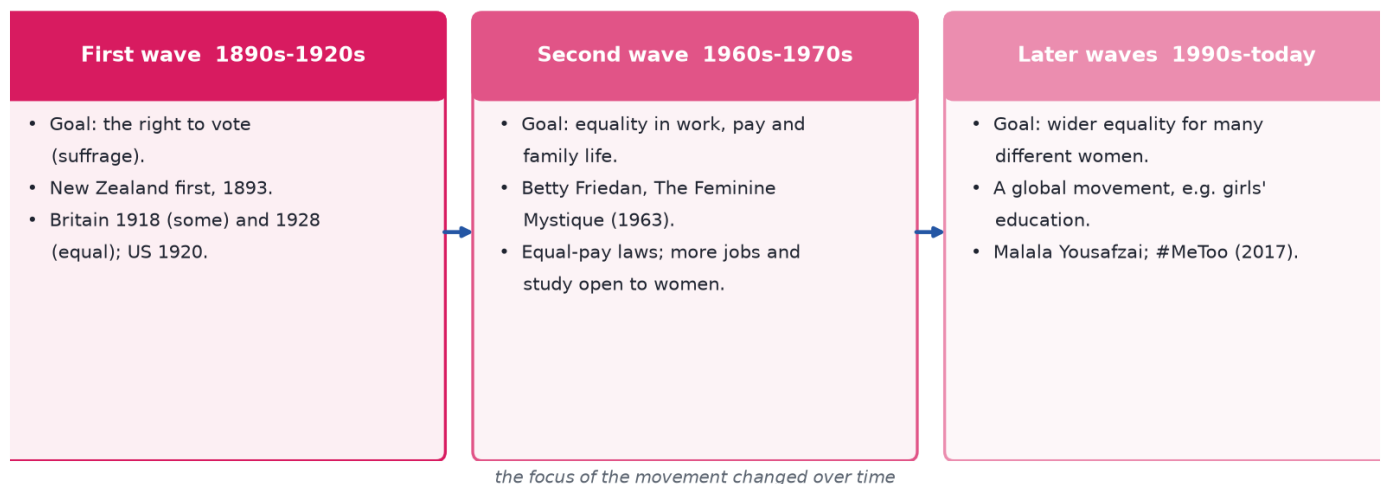


Diagram of the waves of the women's movement from the 1890s to today

6. LGBTQI+ rights

LGBTQI+ describes people who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer or intersex. In this section it refers to the movement for equal rights and fair treatment for these people.

For much of the 20th century, same-sex relationships were against the law in many countries, and gay people faced prejudice and lost jobs or homes. The movement for change grew over decades:

- **Stonewall (1969).** In New York, police raided a bar called the Stonewall Inn where gay people gathered. Instead of accepting the raid, people fought back, and days of protest followed. Stonewall is often seen as the start of the modern LGBTQI+ rights movement.
- **Decriminalisation.** From the late 20th century, many countries removed laws that made same-sex relationships a crime.
- **Equal rights and marriage.** Campaigners then won protection from unfair treatment, and later the right to marry. The Netherlands became the first country to allow same-sex marriage in 2001, and many others followed. In 2017, Australia changed its law to allow same-sex couples to marry.
- **Transgender rights.** More recently, the movement has also campaigned for the rights and fair treatment of transgender people.

Change over time is striking here. In living memory the movement moved from same-sex relationships being a crime, to marriage being allowed. That is one of the fastest changes in social attitudes of the period.

Change over time in LGBTQI+ rights



Timeline of change in LGBTQI+ rights from criminalisation to marriage equality

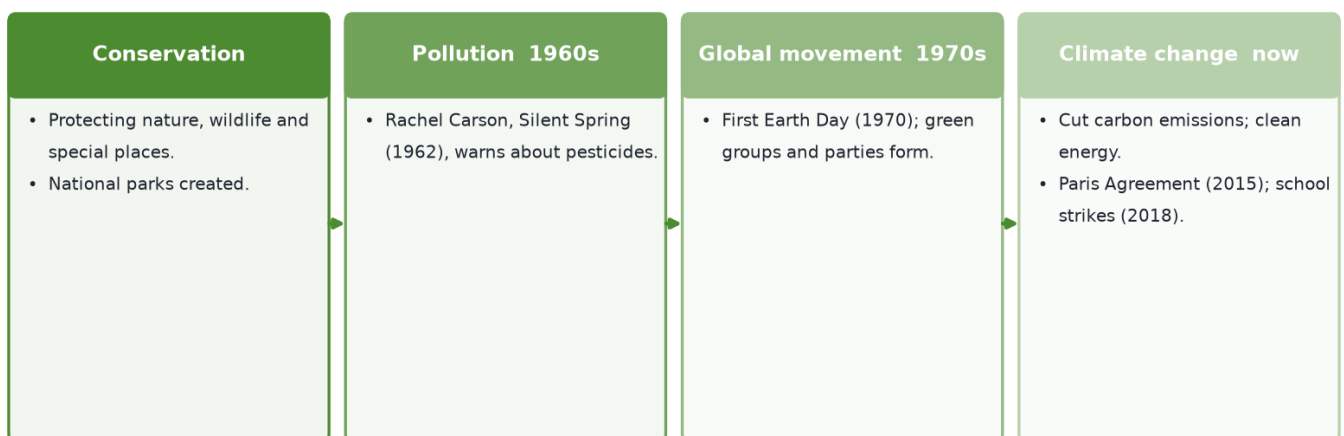
7. Environmentalism

Environmentalism is the movement to protect the natural world. Its focus has changed over time.

- **Conservation (earlier focus):** protecting nature, wildlife and special places, such as creating national parks.
- **Pollution and pesticides (1960s):** the American scientist **Rachel Carson** wrote *Silent Spring* (1962), warning that pesticides were harming birds, animals and people. The book helped start modern environmentalism.
- **A global movement (1970s on):** the first Earth Day was held in 1970. Green groups and parties formed, and governments created environment departments.
- **Responding to climate change (recent focus):** as scientists gathered evidence that human activity is warming the planet, the movement's focus shifted toward cutting carbon emissions and moving to clean energy. Countries met at United Nations summits and signed agreements, such as the Paris Agreement of 2015, to limit warming.
- **Greta Thunberg (2018 on).** In 2018, Swedish student Greta Thunberg began skipping school on Fridays to protest outside her parliament about climate change. Her action inspired millions of young people around the world to strike and march, showing that young people can drive a global movement.

Continuity and change. The goal — protecting the environment — continued. The focus changed, from conserving special places, to fighting pollution, to responding to climate change.

How the focus of environmentalism changed



the goal (protect the environment) continued; the focus changed

Diagram showing how the focus of environmentalism shifted from conservation to climate change

8. How movements push for change: methods

Movements use different methods, often at the same time. Three common ones (draws on K04.E04):



Method	What it is	Example
Direct action	Protests that directly show opposition or disrupt business as usual: marches, rallies, strikes, boycotts, sit-ins.	The Montgomery bus boycott (1955–56); school strikes for climate (2018 on).
Civil disobedience	Breaking a law on purpose and in the open, because you believe it is unjust, without violence, and accepting the punishment, to show the law's unfairness.	Gandhi's non-violent campaigns against British rule in India.
Legal campaigns	Using courts and parliaments: taking cases to court, or lobbying to pass or change laws.	The US Civil Rights Act (1964); campaigns for marriage equality.

A fair hearing for both sides of a common debate. Some argue that real change comes from protest and direct action, because those in power rarely give up power willingly; marches and boycotts make injustice visible and force attention. Others argue that lasting change comes through law and courts, because only new laws and rulings actually change people's rights, and protests without legal change can fade. Both positions are defensible, and the historical evidence points to both: the US civil rights movement used marches and boycotts *and* court cases and new laws. Decide, with evidence, which you think mattered more in a case you have studied.

Three methods movements use to push for change

Direct action	Civil disobedience	Legal campaigns
- Protests that show opposition or disrupt normal life. - Examples: marches, rallies, strikes, boycotts, sit-ins. - Montgomery bus boycott (1955–56). - School strikes for climate (2018 on).	- Breaking a law on purpose, openly and without violence, to show it is unfair. - People accept the punishment to prove their point. - Gandhi's campaigns against British rule in India. - Sit-ins at 'whites only' lunch counters (US).	- Using courts and parliaments to change the law. - Taking cases to court; lobbying for new laws. - US Civil Rights Act (1964). - Campaigns for equal marriage.

Comparison table of methods used by movements for change

9. Movements in the digital age

In the 21st century, the internet, social media and phones changed how movements organise (draws on K04.E05). Ideas and videos can now spread across the world in hours, and people can organise events without needing big organisations or much money.

Recent movements that grew quickly with the help of social media:

- **The Arab Spring (2010–11).** Protests for political change spread across North Africa and the Middle East. Social media helped protesters organise and share what was happening.
- **Occupy (2011).** Protesters highlighted the gap between rich and poor, using the slogan “We are the 99 per cent”.
- **Black Lives Matter (from 2013).** A campaign against racism and against violence toward Black people, especially by police. It grew into a global movement.
- **#MeToo (from 2017).** Women around the world shared their experiences of harassment and assault, using the hashtag #MeToo, forcing public attention onto a problem long kept quiet.

- **Extinction Rebellion (from 2018).** A group that uses eye-catching direct action to demand stronger action on climate change.

A balanced view. Technology helps movements spread fast and lets more voices be heard. It also brings problems: false information can spread just as quickly, and an online “like” is not the same as real-world action. Historians are still working out how much difference digital organising really makes.

Movements that spread through social media and the internet

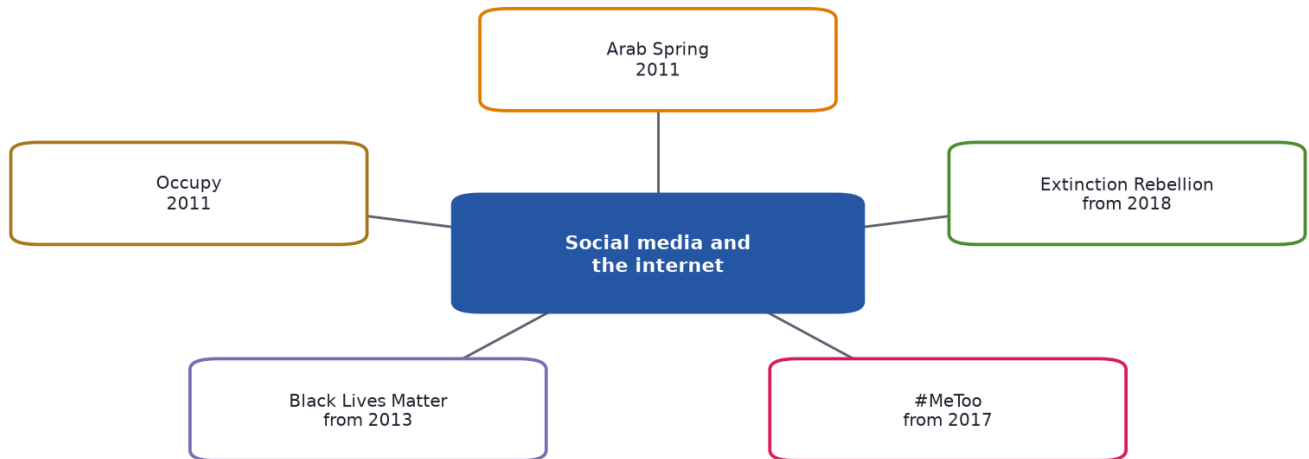


Diagram of movements since 2010 that spread through social media and the internet

10. How movements change over time, and different views within them

Movements are not fixed. They change their goals and methods over time, and the people inside them often disagree (draws on K04.E06).

Change over time — some clear examples:

- **Feminism:** from winning the vote, to equal pay and work rights, to today’s wider campaigns for equality across many areas of life.
- **Racial justice:** from the campaign against slavery, through the civil rights movement, to Black Lives Matter today.
- **LGBTQI+ rights:** from same-sex relationships being a crime, to marriage and growing recognition of transgender people’s rights.
- **Environmentalism:** from conserving nature, to responding to climate change.
- **Self-determination and decolonialism:** from colonies winning independence, to continuing debates about the lasting effects of empire.

Different perspectives within a movement. People who share a goal often disagree about methods or priorities. In the US civil rights movement, some leaders insisted on non-violent protest while others argued for self-defence. Within feminism, women have disagreed about which goals should come first and about whose experiences the movement speaks for. Noticing these disagreements is important: a movement is many people, not one single voice.

Key activists since 1945. The table below links some of the people you have met to the movement they are most associated with (draws on K04.E03).

Activist	Movement	Country	Contribution
Mohandas Gandhi	Independence	India	Non-violent resistance to British rule
Kwame Nkrumah	Independence	Ghana	Led Ghana to independence (1957)

Activist	Movement	Country	Contribution
Martin Luther King Jr	Civil rights	United States	Non-violent protest; “I have a dream” speech (1963)
Rosa Parks	Civil rights	United States	Her arrest sparked the Montgomery bus boycott (1955)
Nelson Mandela	Civil rights	South Africa	27 years in prison; first president elected by all races (1994)
Betty Friedan	Women’s rights	United States	<i>The Feminine Mystique</i> (1963); co-founded NOW (1966)
Malala Yousafzai	Women’s rights	Pakistan	Campaign for girls’ education; youngest winner of a major peace prize
Margaret Thatcher	Conservatism	Britain	First woman Prime Minister (1979); “Thatcherism”
Rachel Carson	Environmentalism	United States	<i>Silent Spring</i> (1962) warned about pesticides
Greta Thunberg	Environmentalism	Sweden	School strike for climate (2018); global youth movement
Ernesto “Che” Guevara	Revolution	Cuba	Revolutionary who helped overthrow Cuba’s government (1959)
Mao	Revolution	China	Led the communist revolution that created the People’s Republic of China (1949)

Key activists for change since 1945

Activist	Movement	Country	Contribution
Mohandas Gandhi	 Independence	India	Non-violent resistance to British rule
Kwame Nkrumah	 Independence	Ghana	Led Ghana to independence (1957)
Martin Luther King Jr	 Civil rights	United States	Non-violent protest; 'I have a dream' speech (1963)
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Malala Yousafzai	 Women's rights	Pakistan	Campaign for girls' education; youngest major peace prize winner
Margaret Thatcher	 Conservatism	Britain	First woman Prime Minister (1979); 'Thatcherism'
Rachel Carson	 Environmentalism	United States	Silent Spring (1962) warned about pesticides
Greta Thunberg	 Environmentalism	Sweden	School strike for climate (2018); global youth movement
Ernesto 'Che' Guevara	 Revolution	Cuba	Helped overthrow Cuba's government (1959)
Mao	 Revolution	China	Led the 1949 revolution that created the People's Republic of China

Table of key activists for change since 1945

Worked source analysis

Historians use **sources** — evidence from the past — to understand movements. A **primary source** comes from the time being studied (a speech, photo, law or letter). A **secondary source** is made later by someone studying the past (a textbook or documentary). Let us analyse a primary source together.

Source 1. Extract from a speech by Martin Luther King Jr, delivered at the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom, 28 August 1963.

“I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the colour of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream today.”

— Martin Luther King Jr, ‘I Have a Dream’, 28 August 1963. Text held by the US National Archives; retrieved 26 August 2026.

“**I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the colour of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream today.**”

Martin Luther King Jr, 'I Have a Dream', delivered at the March on Washington, 28 August 1963. Text held by the US National Archives.

A primary source extract from Martin Luther King Jr's 1963 I Have a Dream speech

Worked analysis. Here is how a historian works through this source.

1. **What kind of source is it?** A primary source — a speech given in 1963, during the events it describes.
2. **Context.** It was delivered at the March on Washington, a huge rally for jobs and freedom, at the height of the US civil rights movement — a year before the Civil Rights Act of 1964.
3. **Content.** King speaks of a future where people are judged by character, not skin colour. The repeated phrase “I have a dream” builds hope and a clear vision of equality.
4. **Perspective.** This is King's perspective — a civil rights leader committed to non-violent protest and racial equality. He is speaking to persuade and inspire.
5. **Message.** All people should be treated equally regardless of race; the speaker believes a better future is possible.
6. **Usefulness and limits.** The source is highly useful for understanding the movement's goals and King's message, and for how the movement wanted to be seen. Its limit: it is one leader's perspective, so it does not, by itself, show the views of other leaders, of opponents, or of ordinary protesters. To understand the whole movement, we need more sources.

Notice the shape of the reasoning: identify, give context, describe content, name the perspective, state the message, then weigh usefulness and limits. Use this shape for any source.

Practice tasks

A. Recall and understanding

1. Define **movement**, **social change** and **political change**, using the definitions from “Before we begin”.
2. Name two countries that gained independence after 1945. For each, give the year and which empire it left (K04.E01).
3. What is **self-determination**? Why did it become a powerful idea after 1945?
4. Outline one example of nationalist politics and one example of conservative politics since 1945.
5. Give two methods used by the US civil rights movement and one law it helped bring about.

B. Source skills

6. Read Source 1 again. Write two sentences of context for the speech and one sentence about its usefulness (K04.E04, K04.E05).
7. Find or recall a second source from this section (for example, a photograph of a march or a law such as the Civil Rights Act). State whether it is primary or secondary, and why.

C. Explanation and analysis

8. “Movements for change achieve most through protest.” Do you agree? Use at least two examples from this section and give reasons. Weigh both sides before you decide.
9. Choose one movement from this section. Explain one **cause** of the movement, one **consequence**, and one thing that **changed** and one thing that **stayed the same** (continuity).
10. Explain how the internet and social media changed how movements organise. Give one benefit and one problem (K04.E05).

D. Extended response

11. “Since 1945, ordinary people working together have helped change the world.” Write a short response (one paragraph) using evidence from at least two different movements in this section (K04.E03, K04.E06).

How these are marked. Marks are given for the quality of your reasoning, not for reaching a particular conclusion. A strong answer: uses the defined terms correctly, gives specific named evidence, considers more than one perspective, and states a limit or counterpoint. Two students who reach different conclusions can both do well if both reason well from evidence.

Model paragraph (for task 11). Since 1945, ordinary people working together have helped change the world. In the United States, Black people and their allies used boycotts, marches and court cases to end segregation, helping bring about the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In the same decades, women organised to win equal pay and greater access to work and education. In both cases, change came not from one leader alone but from many people acting together over years, and in both cases the change was real but unfinished. This shows that movements are a major cause of modern change, even though their goals are not always fully reached.

Key terms

Term	Meaning used in this section
Movement	A large, organised group working over time to change, or resist change in, laws, government or society
Social change	Change in how people live and how society treats different groups
Political change	Change in who holds power, how government works, or what the law says
Rights	What every person has simply because they are human (per the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948)
Self-determination	The right of a people to choose their own government
Colonisation	One country taking control of another territory and settling it
Nationalism	Strong pride in and loyalty to one's nation
Conservatism	An outlook valuing tradition, order and, usually, free markets
Segregation	Keeping people of different races apart by law or custom
Suffrage	The right to vote
Civil disobedience	Openly and non-violently breaking a law believed to be unjust
Primary / secondary source	Evidence from the time studied / a later account of the past

How Australian women campaigned for change

Curriculum trace — Victorian Curriculum 2.0 History, Levels 9 and 10

Owns VC2HH10K05

Draws on — VC2HH10K05.E01, VC2HH10K05.E02

Scope note — this section teaches the movement itself: its groups, campaigners, methods and leaders, and the changes they helped win. The legal milestones also appear in section 1F (rights and freedoms), which defers the people and campaigns to this section; the global story of movements sits in section 1D. Under this book's §2A register (CONTENT_POLICY Rule 1), First Nations content is **not taught here**; see the front-of-book note.

Builds on — section 1D and section 1F.

The laws in section 1F did not pass themselves. Behind each one stood a **movement** — women, and some men, organising, writing, petitioning, protesting and standing for office across more than a century. This section follows that movement: the groups that made it, the campaigns they ran, the leaders they produced, and how their work changed **women's roles and standing** in Australia. Two sources — the masthead of *The Dawn* (Source 1) and the national gender pay gap (Source 2) — are analysed in the worked examples.

Before we begin: what do these words mean?

Some words in this section are **contested** — people do not all agree on one fixed meaning. We state the sense used here, so every question can be answered on that sense alone.

- **The women's movement.** As used here: the organised effort, by groups and individuals, to improve the rights, role and status of women in Australia — through campaigns for the vote, for entry to parliament, for fair pay and fair treatment at work, and for an equal place in public life. Other definitions exist; this is the sense every question here can be answered on.
- **Feminism.** A contested word. Here we use the sense given by the *Oxford English Dictionary*: support for the rights of women on the basis of equality of the sexes. Other senses exist and are not interchangeable with this one.
- **Suffrage.** Simply, the right to vote in elections.
- **Petition.** A written request, signed by members of the public, sent to parliament.
- **Marriage bar.** The rule that forced women to resign from the Commonwealth public service when they married (1902-1966).
- **Gender pay gap.** As measured by the Workplace Gender Equality Agency: the difference between the average pay of men and the average pay of women across the whole workforce, reported as a percentage. It is a whole-workforce average, not a measure of any one workplace.
- **Equal pay for work of equal value.** The rule that work done mostly by women must be paid no less than different work of similar worth done mostly by men.

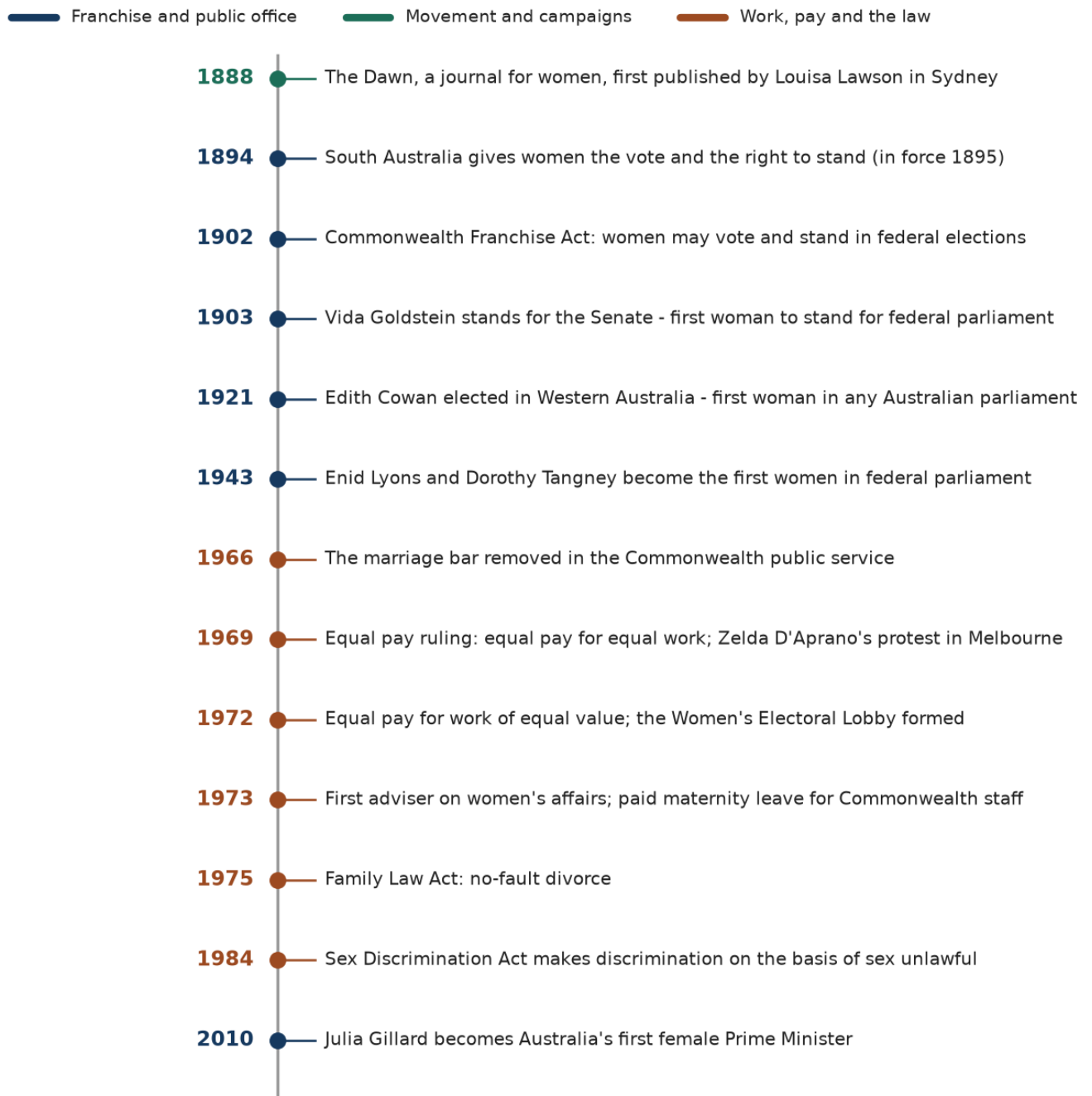
Keep these meanings in mind as you read. When a question asks about the movement's effect, notice *what* changed, *how fast*, and *who* did the work.

Theory

1. One movement, many campaigns (VC2HH10K05)

The women's movement was never a single organisation. It was a web of groups — suffrage leagues, journals, unions, lobbies — across the colonies and later the states, sharing one aim: to improve the rights, role and status of women. Figure 1 gives the section's timeline; every event on it is either a win the movement worked for, or a step in the movement itself.

How Australian women campaigned for change: a timeline, 1888-2010



This section's timeline; dates and events as taught in section 1E.

Vertical timeline of how Australian women campaigned for change from 1888 to 2010, colour-coded into three tracks - franchise and public office, movement and campaigns, and work, pay and the law - with thirteen dated events from The Dawn in 1888 to Julia Gillard becoming the first female Prime Minister in 2010

Read the three colour tracks. The movement's campaigns come first; the wins in law and office follow them. That ordering is itself an argument: **the changes were caused, not given.**

2. The first great campaign: votes for women (VC2HH10K05)

Before 1894, no Australian colony let women vote in its parliament. Between 1894 and 1908 every colony — and then the new Commonwealth in 1902 — changed that. Section 1F gives the full table of dates; here we study **who made it happen**, and how.

Who made the suffrage campaigns? Groups, campaigners and methods

The vote was won colony by colony. Each colony had its own organisations, speakers and petitions.

Colony	Key group	Key campaigners	What they did, and the outcome
South Australia	Women's Suffrage League	Mary Lee, co-secretary	Petition of over 11,000 signatures (1894). Women won the vote and the right to stand (law of 1894, in force 1895).
Victoria	Victorian Women's Suffrage Society (formed 1884)	Vida Goldstein	The "Monster Petition" of about 30,000 signatures presented to parliament (1891). State vote won in 1908.
New South Wales	Womanhood Suffrage League (formed 1893)	Rose Scott; Louisa Lawson	Regular meetings in Scott's home; Lawson's journal <i>The Dawn</i> argued the case. State vote won in 1902.
Western Australia	Women's Service Guilds (from 1909)	Edith Cowan	Women won the vote in 1899; Cowan kept campaigning and won a seat in 1921 - the first woman in any Australian parliament.
Commonwealth	Federal campaigns	Catherine Helen Spence; Vida Goldstein	Spence stood for the Federal Convention in 1897, the first woman to stand for office in Australia. Goldstein stood for the Senate in 1903.

Dates: the law's passing, except South Australia (in force 1895). Cross-reference: section 1F, Figure 2, for the full table of dates.

Table of the suffrage campaigns colony by colony - South Australia, Victoria, New South Wales, Western Australia and the Commonwealth - naming the key group, the key campaigners and what they did, from Mary Lee's petition of over 11,000 signatures to Vida Goldstein standing for the Senate in 1903

The methods matter as much as the wins. **Petitions** — South Australia's carried over 11,000 signatures, Victoria's "Monster Petition" about 30,000 — **public meetings**, **journals**, and **standing for office** itself were all tools of the movement: Catherine Helen Spence stood for the Federal Convention in 1897, the first woman to stand for office in Australia, and Vida Goldstein stood for the Senate in 1903. Notice the pattern: the vote was won colony by colony, so the campaign was run colony by colony, by local groups with local leaders.

3. Source 1: the movement's own voice (VC2HH10K05)

Movements need words. The most famous instrument of the early movement was *The Dawn*, a monthly journal published and printed in Sydney by **Louisa Lawson** from November 1888 until 1905. Figure 3 reproduces its masthead; read it as Source 1.

THE DAWN

A JOURNAL FOR AUSTRALIAN WOMEN

First published in Sydney, November 1888

Published and printed by Louisa Lawson

A monthly journal that argued for women's rights,
including votes for women. It ran until 1905.

Reproduced for this section from the journal's title details;
original held by the State Library of New South Wales.

Reproduction of the masthead of The Dawn, a journal for Australian women, first published in Sydney in November 1888 and published and printed by Louisa Lawson, with a note that the journal argued for women's rights including votes for women and ran until 1905

A journal run *by* a woman, *for* women, arguing for votes for women: the masthead is itself evidence of the movement — women making a public voice at a time when most public voices were men's. Worked example 1 analyses this source.

4. From the vote to the parliament room (VC2HH10K05)

Winning the vote did not fill parliament with women. It took until **1921** for a woman to win a seat in any Australian parliament — **Edith Cowan** in Western Australia — and until **1943** for the federal parliament, with **Enid Lyons** in the House of Representatives and **Dorothy Tangney** in the Senate. The movement's task changed with that: from winning the *right* to stand, to backing women who actually stood. **Vida Goldstein** stood for the federal parliament five times and never won a seat, yet her campaigns put women's issues — peace, welfare, equal rights — into public debate. **Enid Lyons** became the first woman in a federal cabinet in 1949. (For the firsts and the numbers since, see section 1F, parts 2-3.)

5. Work, pay and the law since 1945 (VC2HH10K05.E01)

After 1945, the movement's centre of weight moved to **work and pay**. The curriculum's own list of events (.E01) anchors this part; Figure 4 sets out what each change meant for working women.

Women and paid work since 1945: milestones and what changed for working women

These are the events listed in the curriculum for this section (draws on VC2HH10K05.E01).

Year	Event	What changed for working women
1966	The marriage bar removed	Married women could now hold permanent jobs in the Commonwealth public service without resigning.
1969	Equal pay ruling	Women doing the same work as men were entitled to the same pay - but the ruling covered a limited share of working women.
1972	Equal pay for work of equal value	Pay had to match the worth of the work, even where women and men did different jobs.
1973	Maternity leave and a women's adviser	Paid maternity leave for Commonwealth staff; the first adviser on women's affairs appointed to a prime minister.
1975	Family Law Act	Marriage could end by consent without proving fault, which made it easier for women to leave broken marriages.
1984	Sex Discrimination Act	Treating a person less favourably on the basis of sex became unlawful in work, education, housing and services.

Source: taught content of section 1E; see the Sources list for this section.

Table of women and paid work since 1945 - the marriage bar removed in 1966, the equal pay rulings of 1969 and 1972, maternity leave and a women's adviser in 1973, the Family Law Act of 1975 and the Sex Discrimination Act of 1984 - with a column for what changed for working women

The people behind the milestones:

- **The marriage bar.** A 1958 inquiry (the Boyer Report) recommended ending it; women public servants, unions and women's groups kept pressing; the rule fell on **18 November 1966**.
- **Equal pay.** In **1969** a federal pay case granted equal pay for equal work — and many campaigners judged it too limited. **Zelda D'Aprano** chained herself to a Commonwealth building in Melbourne in protest, and helped build the Women's Liberation Movement. In **1972** a second pay case went further: equal pay for work of equal value.
- **Inside government.** The **Women's Electoral Lobby** was founded in 1972; in **1973** the Whitlam government appointed **Elizabeth Reid**, the first adviser on women's affairs to a prime minister anywhere in the world, and introduced paid maternity leave for Commonwealth staff.
- **The law follows.** The *Family Law Act 1975* let marriage end by consent, without proving fault; the *Sex Discrimination Act 1984* made it unlawful to treat a person less favourably on the basis of sex in work, education, housing and services.

Hearing past views — steelmanned. Not everyone in 1969 supported equal pay. Figure 5 states the debate at its strongest, for and against; read both panels before you judge. The third box applies a test: swap the sex of the worker in each claim — if a claim only works for one sex, then the sex of the worker is doing the work, not the logic. Stating a past view is not endorsing it.

Steelmanned: the equal pay debate of 1969

Each side is stated in the strongest form its own supporters would recognise. Stating a past view is not endorsing it.

The case FOR (unions and women's groups)

- The same work deserves the same pay, no matter the worker's sex.
- Women's wages keep real households; some women are the only earners.
- Award wages set a public standard, so a lower rate for women drags down all standards.

The case AGAINST (employer groups, as argued in 1969)

- Raising women's pay raises costs; some firms may raise prices or take on fewer workers.
- Pay should reflect responsibility; many young women worked for a few years before marriage.
- Change should be gradual so firms can adjust without job losses.

Assumptions to test (both sides)

"Women are dependants." Test: what of widows, sole parents, and homes with no male earner? The claim fails for every household that relied on a woman's wage.

"A worker's wage matters less if someone else in the home earns." Swap the worker's sex: would we say the same about a married man whose wife also earns? If not, the sex of the worker is doing the work, not the logic.

"Equal pay cannot cost jobs." That is also a claim needing evidence, not a fact. Historians test both sides' claims against what actually happened to employment after the rulings.

Outcome: the 1969 ruling granted equal pay for equal work; the 1972 ruling extended it to work of equal value.

Steelmanned two-panel figure of the equal pay debate of 1969 - the case for from unions and women's groups and the case against from employer groups as argued in 1969 - with a box of assumptions to test on both sides and the outcome that the 1969 ruling granted equal pay for equal work and the 1972 ruling extended it to work of equal value

6. The gender pay gap: continuity inside change (VC2HH10K05.E01)

Equal pay in law did not mean equal pay in fact. The **gender pay gap** is the measure governments and historians use for that difference. Read Figure 6 as Source 2.

The national gender pay gap: 12.0 per cent (2024)

Average weekly ordinary-time earnings of full-time adults, indexed: men's average = 100



Reading the figure: on this measure, women on average earned about 88 cents for every male dollar in 2024.

The gap is a whole-workforce average. It is NOT proof that any one employer paid a woman less than a man for the same job. It stands for many patterns at once: which jobs men and women hold, hours, breaks in service for care, and pay differences across industries. Historians use it as a measure of where women stood in the workforce, not as a finding about any single workplace.

Source: Workplace Gender Equality Agency, national gender pay gap, from Australian Bureau of Statistics average weekly earnings (November 2024); retrieved 26 August 2026.

Horizontal bar chart of the national gender pay gap in 2024 - women's full-time average indexed at 88 against a male average of 100, a gap of 12.0 per cent - with a note that the gap is a whole-workforce average and not proof about any one workplace, sourced to the Workplace Gender Equality Agency and ABS average weekly earnings of November 2024

On this measure, women working full-time averaged about 88 cents for every male dollar in 2024 — a gap of **12.0 per cent**. The gap is a whole-workforce average: it mixes which jobs men and women hold, the hours they work, breaks taken for care, and pay differences between industries. That is exactly why it is useful to historians — it measures where women stand in the workforce as a whole. Worked example 2 analyses this source.

7. Significant female leaders (VC2HH10K05.E02)

The curriculum names four fields for the leaders you examine: politics and activism, social reform, sport, and the arts. Figure 7 gives three from each — twelve of many.

Significant women leaders in Australian public life

The four fields the curriculum names: politics and activism, social reform, sport, and the arts.

Political leaders

Edith Cowan

1861-1932

First woman elected to any Australian parliament (WA, 1921); worked for women's and children's causes.

Enid Lyons

1897-1981

First woman in the House of Representatives (1943) and first woman in federal cabinet (1949).

Julia Gillard

born 1961

Australia's first female Prime Minister (2010-2013).

Activists and reformers

Vida Goldstein

1869-1949

Suffrage leader; first woman to stand for federal parliament (1903); stood for the Senate five times.

Jessie Street

1889-1970

The only woman in Australia's 1945 United Nations delegation; helped set up the UN commission on women's status.

Zelda D'Aprano

1928-2018

Union campaigner; chained herself to a Commonwealth building in Melbourne in 1969 to demand equal pay.

Sporting identities

Dawn Fraser

born 1937

Olympic 100 m freestyle champion in 1956, 1960 and 1964; first woman to swim the race in under one minute.

Shirley Strickland de la Hunty

1925-2004

Three Olympic gold medals in athletics (1952, 1956); seven Olympic medals in all.

Margaret Court

born 1942

24 Grand Slam singles tennis titles - still the record; won all four majors in 1970.

Artists and entertainers

Nellie Melba

1861-1931

Opera singer; the first Australian to win lasting world fame on the stage.

Ethel Turner

1871-1958

Novelist; Seven Little Australians (1894) is still in print more than a century on.

May Gibbs

1877-1969

Author and artist; Snugglypot and Cuddlepig (1918) remains a classic of children's books.

Twelve of many. Your teacher can extend this list with leaders from your own state or territory.

Grid of twelve significant women leaders in Australian public life across four fields - political leaders Edith Cowan, Enid Lyons and Julia Gillard; activists and reformers Vida Goldstein, Jessie Street and Zelda D'Aprano; sporting identities Dawn Fraser, Shirley Strickland de la Hunty and Margaret Court; artists and entertainers Nellie Melba, Ethel Turner and May Gibbs - each card with dates and one achievement

Examine means more than list. Ask of each: *what barrier did she face, what did she do about it, and what did it change for other women?* **Dawn Fraser** won the Olympic 100 m freestyle three times running (1956, 1960, 1964), making women's sport front-page news; **Jessie Street** was the only woman in Australia's 1945 United Nations delegation, and helped set up the UN commission on the status of women; **Margaret Court** won 24 Grand Slam singles titles, still the record; **May Gibbs** and **Ethel Turner** made Australian children see themselves in Australian books.

8. Causes, consequences, continuity and change (VC2HH10K05)

Pull the section together with the historian's tools. Figure 8 reads the whole sweep in three rows.

Continuity and change: women's roles and standing in Australia

Read across each row to see what changed; read down each column to see one moment in time.

	Around 1900	Around 1960	Now
Paid work	Few married women worked for pay. Jobs open to women were limited - domestic service, factories, teaching, shops.	More women in paid work, especially after the world wars - but the marriage bar stood until 1966, and many jobs stayed closed to women.	Women make up close to half of the paid workforce and work in every field; patterns of part-time work and pay still differ from men's.
Public life	Women won the vote colony by colony (1894-1908). No woman had yet won a seat in any parliament.	One woman entered parliament in 1921. Seven women sat in federal parliament from 1943 - but numbers stayed small.	Women hold seats at every level; the 47th Parliament (from 2022) has the most women yet; a woman has served as Prime Minister.
The law	No law protected women from being treated worse on the basis of sex. Marriage law assumed a husband's authority.	Equal pay not yet won; divorce required proof of fault.	The Sex Discrimination Act (1984) makes sex-based treatment unlawful in work, education and services; divorce needs no proof of fault (1975).

Change is clear in every row - but each row also names what has not yet finished changing. That is continuity inside change.

Three-by-three table of continuity and change in women's roles and standing - paid work, public life and the law, each compared at around 1900, around 1960 and now - with a footnote that each row also names what has not yet finished changing, continuity inside change

- **Causes, short- and long-term.** Short-term: a petition, a protest, a ruling — the Monster Petition of 1891, D'Aprano's chain in 1969. Long-term: the slow work of journals, leagues and lobbies; and the world wars, which put women into paid work in numbers and made the old rules harder to defend (see section 3G on the home front).
- **Intended and unintended consequences.** The vote was intended to give women a say; an unintended consequence was that women's issues entered party platforms, because politicians now answered to women voters. Equal pay was intended to end lower female rates; an unintended consequence was that some employers slowly regrouped women into different jobs and grades — one reason the pay gap did not simply disappear.
- **Continuity inside change.** In every row of Figure 8, something has not yet finished changing. The gap of 12.0 per cent is the number that says so.
- **Perspectives.** A woman public servant forced to resign in 1950, a unionist in 1969, an employer in 1969, and a woman entering parliament in 2010 did not see the same story. Historians use sources — like the two in this section — to hear those perspectives, and state each at its strongest before judging it.

Sources for this section

Retrieval date for all online sources: **26 August 2026.**

1. *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902* (Commonwealth), assented 12 June 1902.
2. *Sex Discrimination Act 1984* (Commonwealth), summarised.
3. *Family Law Act 1975* (Commonwealth), no-fault divorce provisions, summarised.

4. *The Dawn* (Sydney, 1888-1905), title details of the journal, published and printed by Louisa Lawson; original held by the State Library of New South Wales, consulted via Trove.
5. Workplace Gender Equality Agency, national gender pay gap, from Australian Bureau of Statistics average weekly earnings (November 2024).
6. Parliament of Australia, records of women in parliament.
7. Australian Dictionary of Biography (National Centre of Biography, Australian National University): entries on Edith Cowan, Vida Goldstein, Mary Lee, Louisa Lawson, Jessie Street and Enid Lyons.
8. Wikipedia: “Women’s suffrage in Australia”, “Zelda D’Aprano”, “Women’s Electoral Lobby”, “Elizabeth Reid”, “Dawn Fraser”, “Shirley Strickland de la Hunty”, “Margaret Court”, “Nellie Melba”, “Ethel Turner”, “May Gibbs”. All retrieved 26 August 2026.

Worked examples

Worked source analysis 1 — with help

Question. Read Source 1 (the masthead of *The Dawn*, 1888). What can historians learn from this source about the women’s movement at the time?

Working	Comment
Step 1: Identify the source. It is the masthead of <i>The Dawn</i> , a monthly journal first published in Sydney in November 1888, published and printed by Louisa Lawson.	Start with what the source <i>is</i> : a journal made by a woman, for women.
Step 2: Describe the content. The paper calls itself “a journal for Australian women”, and it ran until 1905 — seventeen years of continuous publishing.	The dates show effort kept up over time, not a one-off protest.
Step 3: Explain the context. In 1888 no Australian colony had given women the vote; the campaign was being built colony by colony, and New South Wales would not grant it until 1902.	Context explains <i>why</i> a women’s journal mattered: most public voices were men’s.
Step 4: Read the perspective. Lawson’s journal argued for women’s rights, including votes for women — the perspective of the movement itself, from inside it.	A source made <i>by</i> the movement shows how the movement wanted to sound: reasonable, public, persistent.
Step 5: State an inference and a limit. We can infer that there was an audience of women wanting their own public voice, because the journal survived seventeen years. The limit: a masthead shows the movement’s own view of itself — not the views of its opponents, and not the views of women who never read it.	An inference rests on the source plus its context; a limit names whose voice is missing.

Answer: the source shows the movement making its own public voice — a woman publishing and printing a journal that argued for women’s rights years before any colony had granted the vote — evidence that by 1888 the movement was organised, persistent and self-directed.

Worked source analysis 2 — with help

Question. Read Source 2 (the gender pay gap, 2024). A student says: “This figure proves that employers still pay women less than men for the same job.” Is that a fair reading? Use the source to answer.

Working	Comment
Step 1: Identify the source. It is the national gender pay gap, published by the Workplace Gender Equality Agency from ABS average weekly earnings (November 2024): 12.0 per cent on the full-time measure.	Start with what the source <i>is</i> : an official whole-workforce average.
Step 2: Describe the content. Women’s full-time average	The figure states an average difference, not a set of

Working	Comment
is indexed at 88 against a male average of 100.	individual cases.
Step 3: Check what the source can support. The source's own note says the gap mixes job types, hours, breaks for care and pay differences between industries — it is not a finding about any single workplace.	A source must be used for what it can actually show.
Step 4: Judge the student's claim. The claim goes too far: the figure does not prove same-job underpayment by any one employer. A fair reading is that, across the whole workforce, women's average pay still sat 12.0 per cent below men's in 2024.	"Proves" is the tell: the source measures a gap; it does not prove a cause.
Step 5: State what the source is good for. It is a measure of where women stand in the workforce as a whole — and, set beside the 1969 and 1972 rulings, a measure of how far the movement's equal-pay work still had to go in 2024.	Sources gain meaning in context: here, beside the section's timeline.
Answer: no — the student's reading goes too far. The figure is a whole-workforce average (12.0 per cent in 2024), shaped by many patterns at once; it measures the gap, it does not prove same-job underpayment by any one employer. Used carefully, it shows that equal pay in law had not yet become equal pay in fact.	

Practice questions

With help

- Q1.** Using Figure 1, name the event on the “movement and campaigns” track, and the four events on the “work, pay and the law” track between 1966 and 1973.
- Q2.** Name the group that ran the suffrage campaign in South Australia, and the size of its 1894 petition (Figure 2).
- Q3.** Who published and printed *The Dawn*, in what city, and from when (Source 1)?
- Q4.** Using Figure 4, place these in order: the Sex Discrimination Act; the marriage bar removed; equal pay for work of equal value; paid maternity leave for Commonwealth staff.
- Q5.** Figure 5 states the 1969 case for and against equal pay. Give one claim from each panel.
- Q6.** Using Figure 7, name one leader from each of the four fields, and one achievement for each.

On your own

- Q7.** Explain why the suffrage campaign was run colony by colony, using two rows of Figure 2 as evidence.
- Q8.** “*The Dawn* was more important to the movement than any petition.” Discuss this claim, giving evidence on both sides before you reach your own judgement.
- Q9.** Using the language of cause and consequence, explain how one event from Figure 4 changed the role of women in the workforce. Name one intended and one unintended consequence where you can (part 5).
- Q10.** Source 2 carries a warning about how to read the gap. Explain, in your own words, why a whole-workforce average is not proof about any one workplace, and name one pattern the gap mixes (Figure 6).
- Q11.** Using Figure 8, write one paragraph on continuity and change in women's paid work from around 1900 to now. Use Figure 9 as your model for the paragraph's shape.

Q12. Significance. “Which was the more important win for the movement: the vote (1894-1908) or equal pay in law (1969-1972)?” State your choice, name the criterion you used (for example, how many women it affected, or how deep the change went), and defend your choice in two or three sentences. Marking rewards the quality of the reasoning, not the conclusion.

Answers

Q1. Movement and campaigns: 1888, *The Dawn* first published by Louisa Lawson in Sydney. Work, pay and the law, 1966-1973: the marriage bar removed (1966); the equal pay ruling (1969); equal pay for work of equal value and the Women's Electoral Lobby formed (1972); the first adviser on women's affairs and paid maternity leave for Commonwealth staff (1973).

Q2. The Women's Suffrage League (Mary Lee, co-secretary); a petition of over 11,000 signatures.

Q3. Louisa Lawson; Sydney; from November 1888 (the journal ran until 1905).

Q4. Marriage bar removed (1966); equal pay for work of equal value (1972); paid maternity leave for Commonwealth staff (1973); Sex Discrimination Act (1984).

Q5. Any one from each panel. For: the same work deserves the same pay, no matter the worker's sex. Against: raising women's pay raises costs, and some firms may take on fewer workers. (Other pairs acceptable.)

Q6. Any four, one per field, with a matching achievement. Example: politics — Edith Cowan, first woman elected to any Australian parliament (WA, 1921); activists — Vida Goldstein, first woman to stand for federal parliament (1903); sport — Dawn Fraser, three straight Olympic 100 m freestyle wins; arts — Ethel Turner, *Seven Little Australians* (1894), still in print.

Fully-worked solutions

Q7. The campaign was run colony by colony because each colony made its own franchise law; before 1901 there was no single parliament to win over. Figure 2 shows this in its rows: in South Australia the Women's Suffrage League petitioned the South Australian parliament with over 11,000 signatures (1894) and won there in 1894-95; in Victoria the Victorian Women's Suffrage Society sent the Monster Petition of about 30,000 signatures to the Victorian parliament (1891) and won there only in 1908. Two different colonies, two different groups, two different dates — the method and the timetable were set colony by colony, so the campaign had to be too.

Q8. A strong answer weighs both sides. *For* the claim: a petition was a single event, however large — the Monster Petition of 1891 did not win Victoria in 1891; the state vote came only in 1908 — while *The Dawn* argued the case every month for seventeen years (1888-1905), carried the argument into ordinary homes, and made its publisher, Louisa Lawson, a leader who could organise as well as write. *Against* the claim: petitions were the movement's show of numbers — over 11,000 signatures in a small colony was more than any journal's readership could match — and parliaments counted signatures, because members could not ignore that many names; South Australia's petition helped deliver the first win, in 1894-95. A reasoned conclusion might be that the two tools did different jobs: the petition showed how *many*, the journal showed how *serious* — and the movement needed both.

Q9. Example using the marriage bar (1966). Cause: long-term pressure from women public servants, unions and women's groups, and the 1958 Boyer Report recommending the bar's end, on top of the experience of women working through two world wars. Consequence, intended: married women could hold permanent jobs in the Commonwealth public service without resigning, so more women stayed in paid work and built careers. Consequence, unintended: married women staying in paid work slowly changed what employers expected of women and what families expected of work — one step toward the much larger female workforce of today. The language used: a long-term cause produced an intended consequence (women kept their jobs) and an unintended one (workplace custom about married women began to shift).

Q10. A whole-workforce average adds many different things together: which jobs men and women hold, the hours they work, breaks taken for care, and pay differences between industries. A single employer paying a man and a woman the same for the same job would still sit inside a 12.0 per cent national gap if, across the economy, women were grouped more into lower-paid work or part-time hours. So the gap measures the *pattern* of the whole workforce; by itself it cannot prove what any one employer did. That is why the source's own note warns against reading it as a finding about a single workplace.

Q11. Model shape (point-evidence-explanation-link, as in Figure 9). *Point:* women’s paid work changed a great deal between around 1900 and now, yet some patterns have not finished changing. *Evidence:* around 1900, jobs open to women were largely limited to domestic service, factories, teaching and shops, and few married women worked for pay; the marriage bar stood until 1966; today women make up close to half of the paid workforce and work in every field. *Explanation:* the change was caused by the movement’s wins — the bar removed in 1966, equal pay in 1969 and 1972, the Sex Discrimination Act in 1984 — which made it lawful for women to stay and to be paid the same as men for work of equal worth, so more stayed. *Link:* yet the gap of 12.0 per cent in 2024 shows a continuity inside the change: women’s place in paid work grew, but full equality of outcome is still in progress.

Figure 9 shows that model paragraph, labelled, with a note on how each part works.

Model paragraph, labelled

Question: How did events of the women's movement change women's roles and standing in Australia?

POINT

The women's movement changed women's role in paid work by turning custom into law.

EVIDENCE

In 1966 the Commonwealth public service removed the marriage bar; in 1969 and 1972 federal pay rulings established equal pay, first for equal work and then for work of equal value; and the Sex Discrimination Act of 1984 made it unlawful to treat a person less favourably on the basis of sex.

EXPLANATION

Each step was a cause of a larger change: because women could keep their jobs when they married, and could no longer be paid less just because they were women, more women stayed in the workforce, so that today women make up close to half of Australia's paid workers.

LINK

Yet the change was not complete: the national gender pay gap still stood at 12.0 per cent in 2024, which is why historians describe the movement's work as change with continuity inside it.

How this paragraph works: the POINT answers the question directly; the EVIDENCE gives dated events; the EXPLANATION uses cause-and-consequence language to connect the events to the bigger change; the LINK returns to the question and adds judgement - here, that the change was real but unfinished.

Model paragraph labelled point, evidence, explanation and link, answering how events of the women’s movement changed women’s roles and standing in Australia - point: the movement turned custom into law; evidence: the marriage bar removed 1966, the equal pay rulings 1969 and 1972, the Sex Discrimination Act 1984; explanation: more women stayed in the workforce; link: the 12.0 per cent gap of 2024 shows change with continuity inside it

Q12. A strong answer names a criterion and applies it. For example: “Using the criterion ‘how deep the change went’, equal pay in law is the more important win, because the vote changed who could choose the lawmakers, but equal pay and the Sex Discrimination Act changed daily life in every workplace — how women were paid and treated each day.” A student choosing the vote could score full marks by defending it on a different criterion: “Using the criterion ‘what made the rest possible’, the vote came first and caused the rest, because without women voters the equal-pay laws may never have been passed.” Marking rewards the quality of the reasoning, not the conclusion.

Key terms

Term	Meaning used in this section
Women's movement	The organised effort to improve the rights, role and status of women (sense stated in "Before we begin")
Feminism	Support for women's rights on the basis of equality of the sexes (per the <i>Oxford English Dictionary</i> sense)
Suffrage	The right to vote
Petition	A written request, signed by members of the public, sent to parliament
Marriage bar	Rule forcing women to resign on marriage (Commonwealth public service, 1902-1966)
Equal pay for equal work	Same pay for the same work (1969 ruling)
Equal pay for work of equal value	Same pay for different work of similar worth (1972 ruling)
Gender pay gap	The whole-workforce average difference between men's and women's pay (WGEA measure)
Sex discrimination	Treating a person less favourably on the basis of sex, unlawful under the <i>Sex Discrimination Act 1984</i>
Continuity	What stays the same across a period of change
Change	What becomes different across a period
Cause / consequence	Why something happened / what flowed from it
Primary source	Evidence from the time studied (a journal, a speech, a law, an official record)
Perspective	A particular person's or group's view of events

Still fighting for rights: migrants and women in Australia

Curriculum trace — Victorian Curriculum 2.0 History, Levels 9 and 10

Owns VC2HH10K06

Draws on — VC2HH10K06.E02, VC2HH10K06.E03

Scope note — under this book’s §2A register (CONTENT_POLICY Rule 1), elaborations .E01 and .E04 and the First Nations referent of the content description are **not taught here**. This section teaches the content description through its **migrant** strand (.E03) and **women** strand (.E02). See the front-of-book note.

Builds on — section 1D and section 1E.

Rights and freedoms in Australia were not given all at once, and they did not grow by themselves. They were won through **continuing efforts** — people organising and protesting, parliaments passing new laws, courts making new rulings, and Australia’s place in the world shifting around it. This section follows two of those efforts: the long campaign for **women’s rights**, and the slow change in **migration policy** from restriction based on race to a system that made race-based discrimination unlawful.

Before we begin: what do these words mean?

Some words in this section are **contested** — people do not all agree on one fixed meaning. We state the sense used here, so every question can be answered on that sense alone.

- **Civil rights.** The Victorian Curriculum uses this term but does not define it. This section uses *civil rights* in the sense given by the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948): the rights that protect a person’s part in public life — the right to vote, to stand for parliament, to be treated equally before the law, and to use public places. Other definitions exist and are not interchangeable with this one.
- **Freedoms.** Here, the areas of life where a person should be free from unfair interference — for example, freedom from being treated worse than others at work, in housing or in public places.
- **Discrimination.** Here we use the sense given by the *Racial Discrimination Act 1975* (Commonwealth): treating a person worse than someone else in a similar situation because of their race, colour, descent, or national or ethnic origin. Other definitions exist and are not interchangeable with this one.
- **Suffrage.** Simply, the right to vote in elections.

Keep these meanings in mind as you read. When a question asks about “change”, notice *what* changed, *how fast*, and *who* worked for it.

Theory

1. The drivers of change (VC2HH10K06)

Across this section, four drivers keep appearing. Change rarely came from one of them alone; it came when several worked together. Figure 1 maps them.

What drives continuing efforts for change in Australia's rights and freedoms?

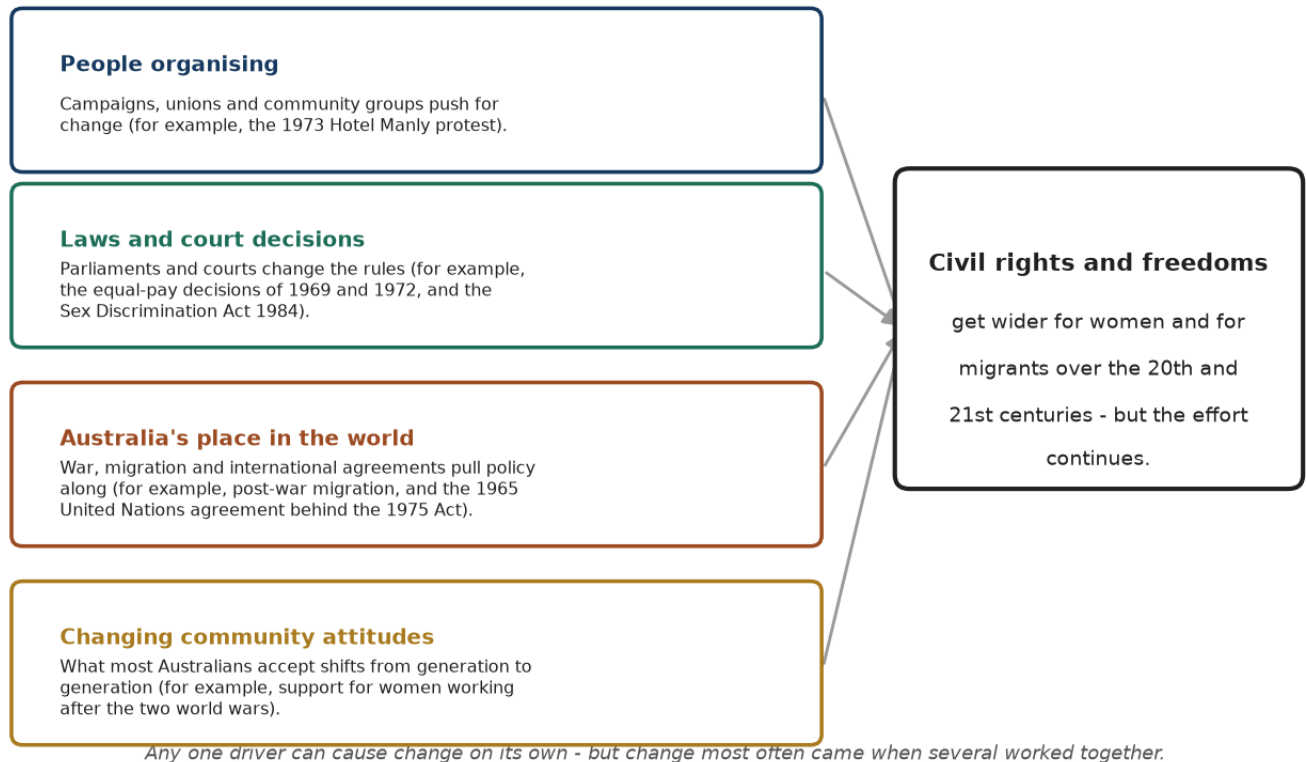


Diagram showing four drivers of change - people organising, laws and court decisions, Australia's place in the world, and changing community attitudes - each pointing to a box reading civil rights and freedoms get wider for women and migrants but the effort continues

You will meet each driver in both stories below. As you read, ask: *which driver was at work here?* That question is the historian's tool for this whole section.

2. Part 1 — Women's rights: the vote and the right to stand (VC2HH10K06.E02)

The first effort was **suffrage** — the right to vote. Australian women won it colony by colony before Federation. South Australia led the world: its 1894 law, in force from 1895, gave women the vote **and** the right to stand in the same act. But the two rights did not always arrive together. In some places women could vote years before they could stand, and winning a seat came later still.

When Australian women won the right to vote - and the right to stand

The vote let women choose representatives; the right to stand let them become representatives.

Parliament	Right to vote	Right to stand
South Australia	1895	1895
Western Australia	1899	1920
Commonwealth (federal)	1902	1902
New South Wales	1902	1918
Tasmania	1903	1921
Queensland	1905	1915
Victoria	1908	1923

South Australia's 1894 law, in force from 1895, was a world first: it gave women the vote and the right to stand in the same act. Women in South Australia and Western Australia voted in the first federal election in 1901, before the Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902 gave the federal vote and the right to stand to women across the new nation (assented 12 June 1902). The right to stand often came years after the vote - winning a seat came later still.

Table of the years each Australian colony and state, and the Commonwealth, gave women the right to vote and the right to stand, from South Australia 1895 to Victoria 1923

Read the table carefully. The **vote** lets a person choose their representatives; the **right to stand** lets a person *become* a representative. A parliament chosen only by men, even when women can vote, still keeps women out of the room where laws are made. That is why the two rights are studied separately.

3. First in the door: women enter parliament (VC2HH10K06.E02)

Having the right to stand is one thing; winning a seat is another. It took nearly two decades after 1902 before a woman won a seat in any Australian parliament.

- **1921** — **Edith Cowan** won the seat of West Perth in the Western Australian Legislative Assembly: the first woman elected to any Australian parliament. Read her words in Source 1.
- **1943** — **Enid Lyons** became the first woman in the House of Representatives, and **Dorothy Tangney** the first woman in the Senate.
- **1989** — **Rosemary Follett** became the first female head of government in Australia, as Chief Minister of the ACT.

- **2010** — **Julia Gillard** became Australia's first female Prime Minister.

SOURCE 1

Words attributed to Edith Cowan's first speech, Western Australian Legislative Assembly, 1921

*"It is a great responsibility to be the only
woman here, and it is up to me to justify the
presence of women."*

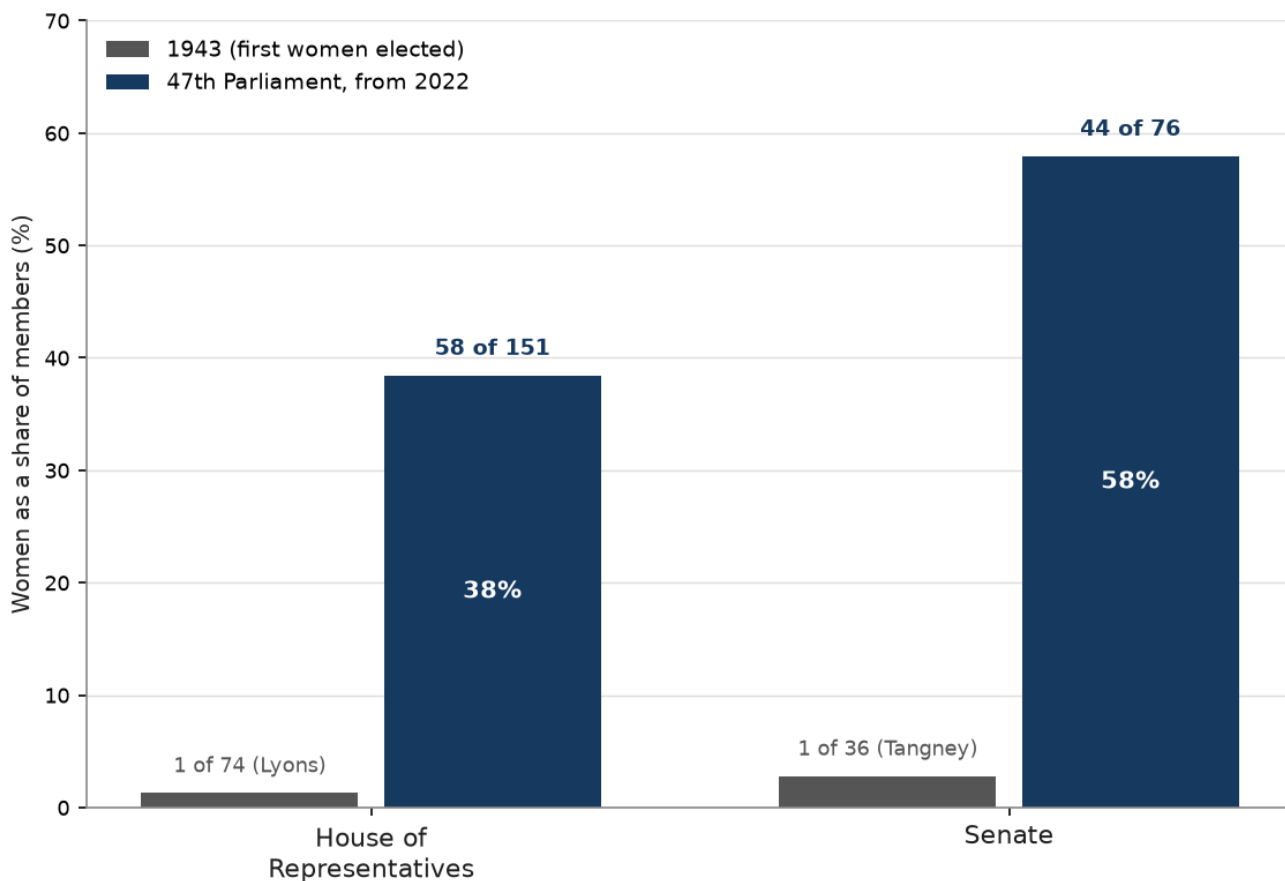
Edith Cowan (1861-1932) won the seat of West Perth in 1921, becoming the first woman elected to any Australian parliament. She campaigned for laws to protect women and children, including the children's court. These words have appeared on Australia's fifty-dollar note since the note was first issued in 1995.

Source: Edith Cowan, first speech, 1921; text as printed on the Australian fifty-dollar note (Reserve Bank of Australia); cross-checked via Wikipedia, 'Edith Cowan' (retrieved 26 August 2026).

Source card with the words attributed to Edith Cowan's first speech to the Western Australian Legislative Assembly in 1921

Even after 1943, numbers grew slowly. The 47th Parliament (from 2022) holds the record: 58 of 151 members of the House of Representatives (about 38 per cent) and 44 of 76 senators (about 58 per cent) were women.

Women in the federal parliament: from one in each chamber to record numbers



*It took until 1943 for a woman to win a federal seat, forty-one years after women won the right to stand. Numbers then grew slowly; the 47th Parliament (from 2022) holds the record.
Source: Parliament of Australia, records of women in parliament (retrieved 26 August 2026).*

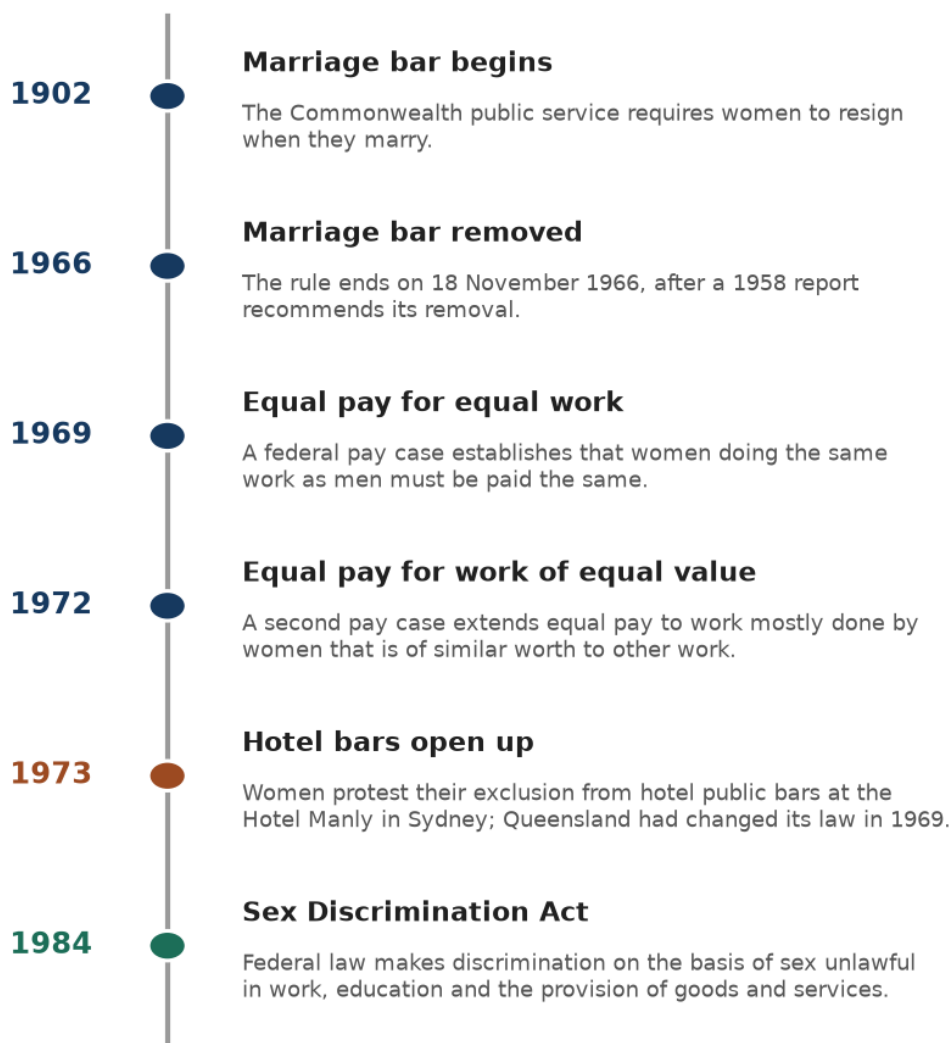
Grouped bar chart comparing women in the federal parliament in 1943, when one woman entered each chamber, with the 47th Parliament from 2022, when women made up about 38 per cent of the House and about 58 per cent of the Senate

Compare the two bars for each chamber. The change from “one” to “a record” is real — but notice that neither chamber has yet reached half. Historians describe this as **continuity inside change**: the door opened, and numbers grew, but full equal numbers is still an effort in progress.

4. Rights at work and in public places (VC2HH10K06.E02)

Winning the vote changed who could make laws. Changing daily life took further effort, over decades. Figure 5 gives the key milestones.

Milestones in women's rights at work and in public places



Gains at work and in public places came step by step - through court decisions, new laws and public protest.

Vertical timeline of milestones in women's rights at work and in public places, from the marriage bar in 1902 to the Sex Discrimination Act in 1984

- **The marriage bar.** From 1902, the Commonwealth public service forced women to resign when they married. A 1958 report (the Boyer Report) recommended ending it; the rule was finally removed on **18 November 1966**.
- **Equal pay.** In **1969** a federal pay case established “equal pay for equal work”. In **1972** a second case went further: “equal pay for work of equal value” — the idea that work mostly done by women should be paid no less than different work of similar worth.
- **Public places.** Until the early 1970s, women were excluded from the public bars of hotels; they were admitted only to separate “ladies’ lounges”. Queensland changed its law in 1969. In January 1973 women protested their exclusion at the Hotel Manly in Sydney; within a few years the exclusion had largely ended in the cities.
- **The Sex Discrimination Act 1984** made discrimination on the basis of sex unlawful in work, education, housing and the supply of goods and services, and covered sexual harassment.

(You will study the people and campaigns behind these changes in more depth in **section 1E**, the women’s movement.)

5. Six areas of change for women (VC2HH10K06.E02)

The curriculum content for this section covers six areas of change: suffrage, standing for parliament, employment law, access to public places, reproductive rights, and protections against family and domestic violence. Figure 6 gathers

them into one table. Two of the areas — **reproductive rights** (a person's rights over whether and when to have children) and **protections against family and domestic violence** — continued to change into the 21st century. For example, Victoria's *Abortion Law Reform Act 2008* treated abortion as health care rather than a crime; New South Wales removed abortion from its criminal law in 2019. And family violence orders became recognised automatically across all states and territories from **25 November 2017**, so protection follows the person protected.

Areas of change in women's rights across the 20th and 21st centuries

Area of change	Key changes
The vote and election to parliament	Suffrage won colony by colony from 1895; the federal vote and the right to stand in 1902; first women elected 1921 (state) and 1943 (federal); first female head of government 1989; first female Prime Minister 2010.
Employment law	The marriage bar removed in 1966; equal pay for equal work in 1969; equal pay for work of equal value in 1972; the Sex Discrimination Act 1984.
Reproductive rights	Abortion law reformed in South Australia in 1969, and in Victoria the same year through a court ruling; Victoria's Abortion Law Reform Act 2008; New South Wales in 2019.
Access to public places	Women excluded from hotel public bars until the early 1970s; Queensland changed its law in 1969; the 1973 Hotel Manly protest in Sydney.
Protections against family and domestic violence	The Family Law Act 1975 (no-fault divorce); dedicated state and territory family-violence laws from 1986; orders recognised automatically across Australia from 25 November 2017.

The range above follows elaboration VC2HH10K06.E02: suffrage, election to parliament, employment law, access to public places, reproductive rights, and protections against family and domestic violence.

Table of the areas of change in women's rights - the vote and standing for parliament, employment law, access to public places, reproductive rights, and protections against family and domestic violence - with key changes for each

6. Part 2 — Migration policy: restriction at Federation (VC2HH10K06.E03)

Turn now to the migrant strand. One of the first acts of the new federal parliament in **1901** was the *Immigration Restriction Act*. Its key tool was the **dictation test** — read Source 2.

SOURCE 2

Section 3(a) of the Immigration Restriction Act 1901 (Commonwealth), which defined a 'prohibited immigrant' - the dictation test

"Any person who when asked to do so by an officer fails to write out at dictation and sign in the presence of the officer a passage of fifty words in length in an European language dictated by the officer ..."

The test let an officer choose the language, so an unwanted arrival could always be failed. In 1934 the journalist Egon Kisch was tested in Scottish Gaelic - chosen because he might have passed in other European languages. From 1905 the law allowed 'any language', widening the officer's power. The test was rarely given - its power lay in the threat - until the Migration Act 1958 abolished it.

Source: Immigration Restriction Act 1901 (Commonwealth), Act No. 17 of 1901, s 3(a), as enacted; amendment of 1905 noted; cross-checked via Wikipedia, 'Immigration Restriction Act 1901' (retrieved 26 August 2026).

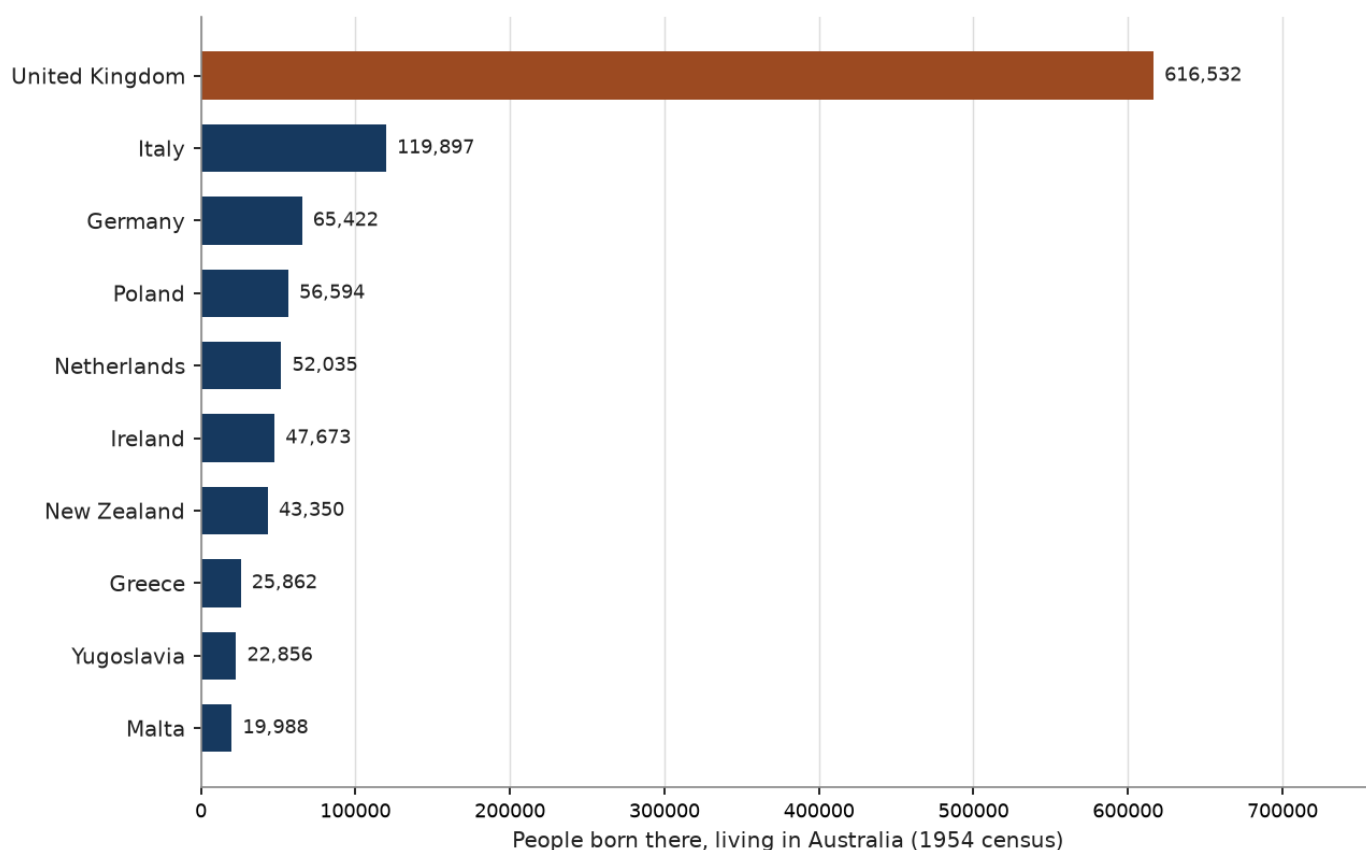
Source card showing the text of section 3(a) of the Immigration Restriction Act 1901, the dictation test, with a note on how officers chose the language

Hearing past views — steelmanned. Historians try to understand why people in the past acted as they did, even when we judge their actions harshly. In 1901, supporters of restriction argued that keeping non-European arrivals out would protect the wages and conditions of local workers and keep society stable; they presented the policy as a defence of what they saw as a British Australia. Opponents — including some churches, traders with links to Asia, and voices in Japan and India — argued that a test based on race was unjust and damaged Australia's friendships in its own region. Both positions are stated here in the strongest form their holders would recognise; stating them is not endorsing them. The policy's effect was to sort arrivals by race for decades, and judging that effect is part of the historian's task.

7. After World War II: "populate or perish" (VC2HH10K06.E03)

World War II changed Australia's place in the world, and with it, migration policy. The war showed that a small population would struggle to defend a large continent. Under the Chifley government, the first Minister for Immigration, **Arthur Calwell**, launched a mass migration program from 1945, summed up in the slogan "**populate or perish**". More than one million British people came under the assisted-passage scheme (the "Ten Pound Poms"), and hundreds of thousands of displaced Europeans also came. The 1954 census already showed the change.

Where Australia's overseas-born residents came from, 1954



After World War II most arrivals were still from Britain, but hundreds of thousands also came from southern and eastern Europe - changing the make-up of Australian society within a single decade.
Source: Australian census 1954, overseas-born residents; Wikipedia, 'Immigration to Australia' (retrieved 26 August 2026).

Horizontal bar chart of overseas-born residents in Australia at the 1954 census, with the United Kingdom largest at 616,532, then Italy, Germany, Poland, the Netherlands, Ireland, New Zealand, Greece, Yugoslavia and Malta

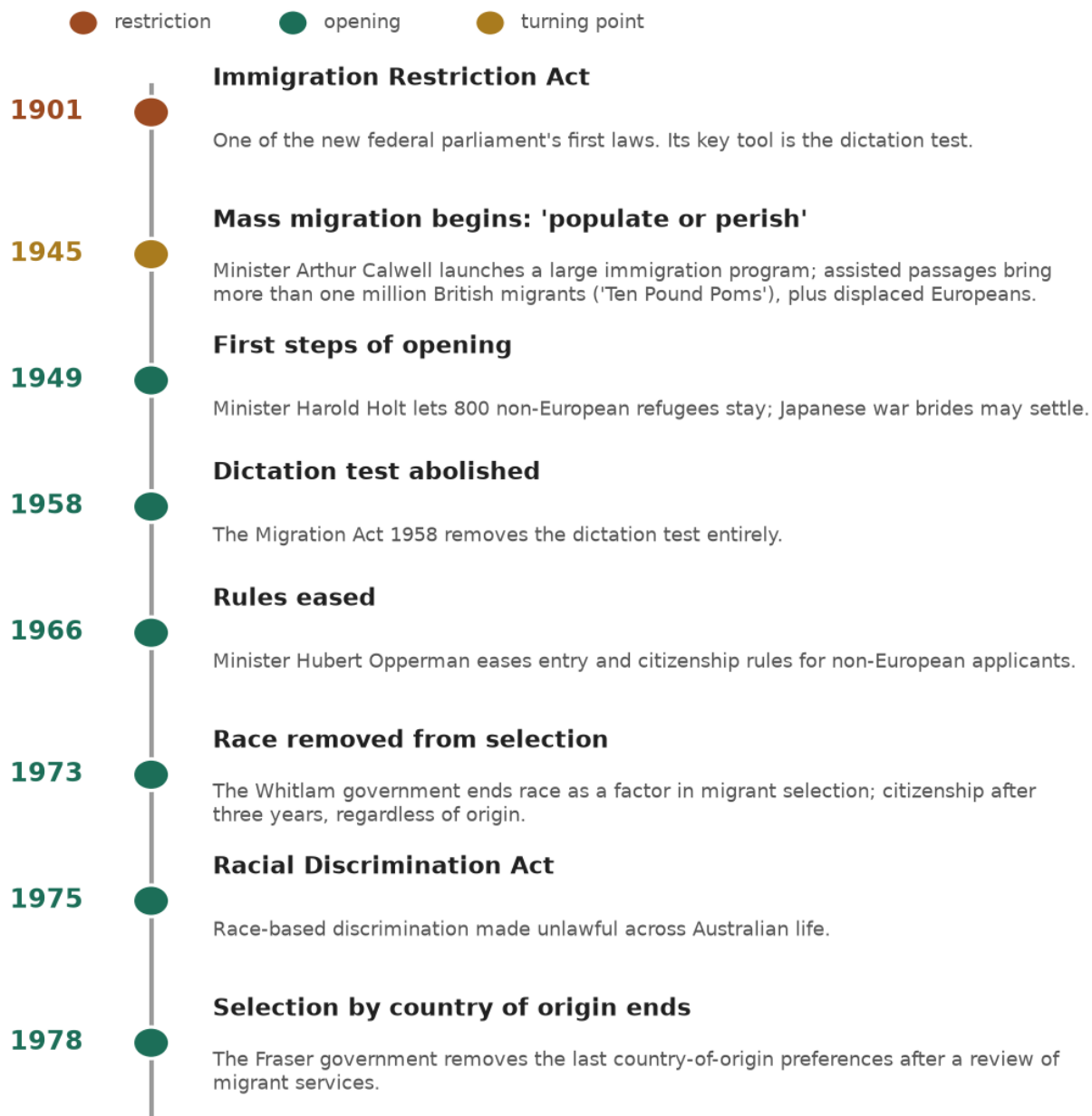
Read the chart. Britain was still by far the largest source — but the next biggest groups now came from southern and eastern Europe. The make-up of Australian society was changing within a single decade.

8. The long opening, 1901-1978 (VC2HH10K06.E03)

The restriction system was then dismantled step by step over nearly three decades. Figure 9 tracks the whole sweep.

Australian migration policy: from restriction to opening, 1901-1978

Each policy shift both reflected and reshaped Australia's place in a changing world.



Vertical timeline of Australian migration policy from the 1901 Immigration Restriction Act to 1978, colour-coded as restriction, opening and a turning point at 1945

Year	Change	Who
1901	<i>Immigration Restriction Act</i> introduces the dictation test	first federal parliament
1945	mass migration begins: "populate or perish"	Arthur Calwell, first Minister for Immigration
1949	800 non-European refugees allowed to stay; Japanese war brides may	Harold Holt, Minister for Immigration

Year	Change	Who
	settle	
1958	<i>Migration Act 1958</i> abolishes the dictation test	Alick Downer, Minister for Immigration
1966	entry and citizenship rules eased for non-European applicants	Hubert Opperman, Minister for Immigration
1973	race removed as a factor in selection; citizenship after three years	Whitlam government
1975	<i>Racial Discrimination Act 1975</i> makes race-based discrimination unlawful	Whitlam government (enacted 11 June 1975)
1978	selection by country of origin ends	Fraser government

The 1975 Act is the key marker. Read Source 3.

SOURCE 3

Section 9(1) of the Racial Discrimination Act 1975 (Commonwealth), summarised in plain words

It is unlawful for a person to do any act that treats another person worse than they would treat someone else in a similar situation, because of that person's race, colour, descent, or national or ethnic origin.

The Act was enacted on 11 June 1975. It put into Australian law the country's obligations under the 1965 United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. It was the first federal human-rights law of its kind in Australia, and it still stands today.

Source: Racial Discrimination Act 1975 (Commonwealth), s 9(1), summarised; enacted 11 June 1975; cross-checked via Wikipedia, 'Racial Discrimination Act 1975' (retrieved 26 August 2026).

Source card summarising section 9(1) of the Racial Discrimination Act 1975 in plain words, noting it implements Australia's obligations under the 1965 United Nations convention against racial discrimination

9. Why did policy change? Australia's place in the world (VC2HH10K06.E03)

The changes in part 2 did not happen in a vacuum. They **both reflected and reshaped Australia's place in a changing world** — exactly what elaboration .E03 asks you to investigate.

- **Security and the economy.** Post-war defence fears and the need for workers drove the big intake from 1945, which made the old race-based rules harder to keep.
- **Australia's region.** As trade and diplomacy with Asia grew, a migration policy based on race did not sit well with Australia's nearest neighbours.

- **International obligations.** Australia agreed to the 1965 United Nations convention against racial discrimination; the *Racial Discrimination Act 1975* put that agreement into Australian law.
- **Community attitudes.** Migrants themselves, community groups, and a generation that had lived through a world war pushed against the old restrictions.

Sources for this section

Retrieval date for all online sources: **26 August 2026.**

1. *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902* (Commonwealth), assented 12 June 1902.
2. *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* (Commonwealth), Act No. 17 of 1901, s 3(a), as enacted; 1905 amendment noted.
3. *Racial Discrimination Act 1975* (Commonwealth), s 9(1), summarised; enacted 11 June 1975.
4. *Migration Act 1958* (Commonwealth), abolishing the dictation test.
5. Edith Cowan, words from her first speech, Western Australian Legislative Assembly, 1921, as printed on the Australian fifty-dollar note (Reserve Bank of Australia).
6. Parliament of Australia, records of women in parliament (first women elected 1943; 47th Parliament).
7. Australian census 1954, overseas-born residents by birthplace.
8. Wikipedia: “Women’s suffrage in Australia”, “Edith Cowan”, “Marriage bar”, “Racial Discrimination Act 1975”, “Immigration Restriction Act 1901”, “Immigration to Australia”, “Egon Kisch”. All retrieved 26 August 2026.

Worked examples

Worked source analysis 1 — with help

Question. Read Source 1 (words attributed to Edith Cowan’s first speech, 1921). What can historians learn from this source about a woman’s place in politics at the time?

Working	Comment
Step 1: Identify the source. It records words from Edith Cowan’s first speech to the Western Australian Legislative Assembly in 1921, the year she became the first woman elected to any Australian parliament.	Start with what the source <i>is</i> : a speech by the only woman in that parliament.
Step 2: Describe the content. Cowan says it is “a great responsibility to be the only woman here”, and that “it is up to me to justify the presence of women”.	Use the source’s own words.
Step 3: Explain the context. Women had won the vote and the right to stand in Western Australia only in 1899 and 1920 respectively, and Cowan was the sole woman in the chamber.	Context explains <i>why</i> she felt that weight.
Step 4: Read the perspective. Cowan felt she carried the case for <i>all</i> women — that her own conduct would be judged as the case for or against women in parliament.	A single member carrying a whole group’s case is itself evidence of how rare women were.
Step 5: State an inference and a limit. We can infer that some people at the time doubted a woman’s place in politics — that is why she felt she must “justify” it. The limit: it is one woman’s view, so it does not show the views of the men around her, or of women who did not want to enter parliament.	An inference rests on the source plus its context; a limit names whose voice is missing.

Answer: the source shows that a woman’s entry into parliament was seen, by Cowan herself, as a test case for all women — evidence that women’s place in politics was still contested in 1921.

Worked source analysis 2 — with help

Question. Compare Source 2 (1901) and Source 3 (1975). Both are laws passed by the federal parliament. How do they differ, and what does that difference show about change and continuity?

Working	Comment
Step 1: Identify each source. Source 2 is s 3(a) of the <i>Immigration Restriction Act 1901</i> ; Source 3 is s 9(1) of the <i>Racial Discrimination Act 1975</i> .	Two Commonwealth laws, 74 years apart.
Step 2: Describe what each does. Source 2 lets an officer exclude a person by a test in a chosen language, sorting entrants by race. Source 3 makes it unlawful to treat a person worse because of race.	One sorts people by race at the border; the other protects people from race-based treatment.
Step 3: Note the continuity. Both were made by the same institution — the federal parliament — using the same law-making power.	Continuity can sit inside dramatic change.
Step 4: Note the change. The role of race flipped: in 1901 it was a lawful ground for exclusion; by 1975 it was a ground on which discrimination was unlawful.	Change is clearest when the <i>same</i> concept (race) changes its legal role.
Step 5: Judge significance with a stated criterion. Using “how many people it affected”, the 1975 Act reaches further: it changed daily life for everyone in Australia, not only who could enter.	Always name the criterion you use to judge significance.

Answer: the two sources mark the ends of one long change — from a parliament that sorted people by race to one that made race-based treatment unlawful — while the institution itself continued.

Practice questions

With help

- Q1.** Using the suffrage table (Figure 2), name the colony where women won the vote and the right to stand in the same act, and the year it took effect.
- Q2.** Name the first woman elected to any Australian parliament, the year, and the parliament she entered (part 3).
- Q3.** What was the marriage bar, and when did it end in the Commonwealth public service (part 4)?
- Q4.** Using Figure 5, place these in order: the Sex Discrimination Act; the marriage bar removed; equal pay for equal work; women protest at the Hotel Manly.
- Q5.** Using Figure 8, name the largest source of overseas-born residents in 1954, and two countries from southern or eastern Europe in the top five.
- Q6.** What was the key tool of the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* (Source 2), and which Act abolished it (Figure 7)?

On your own

- Q7.** Explain why the right to vote and the right to stand are different rights, using one row of the suffrage table as evidence (Figure 2).
- Q8.** “The changes in women’s rights after 1945 mattered more than the vote.” Discuss this claim, giving evidence on both sides before you reach your own judgement.
- Q9.** Explain how ONE post-war change in Australia’s place in the world led to a change in migration policy. Use the language of cause and consequence (part 9).

Q10. Using Figure 9, explain why historians describe the end of the dictation-test era as gradual rather than sudden. Give two dated steps as evidence.

Q11. Compare Source 2 and Source 3. Write one paragraph explaining the change and one continuity between them. Use Figure 11 (the model paragraph) as your guide.

Q12. Significance. “Which of the two sources, 2 or 3, was the more important turning point in Australian civil rights?” State your choice, name the criterion you used (for example, how many people it affected, or how long it lasted), and defend your choice in two or three sentences.

Answers

Q1. South Australia; 1895 (the 1894 law, in force from 1895).

Q2. Edith Cowan, 1921, the Western Australian Legislative Assembly (seat of West Perth).

Q3. A rule forcing women to resign from the Commonwealth public service when they married; it ended on 18 November 1966.

Q4. Marriage bar removed (1966); equal pay for equal work (1969); Hotel Manly protest (1973); Sex Discrimination Act (1984).

Q5. United Kingdom (616,532). Two of Italy, Germany, Poland (any two of these, from the top five).

Q6. The dictation test; the *Migration Act 1958*.

Fully-worked solutions

Q7. The vote lets a person choose representatives; the right to stand lets them become one. They are separate rights, and the table shows they did not arrive together. In Western Australia women won the vote in 1899 but the right to stand only in 1920 — a gap of 21 years. So for those years, WA women could help choose the parliament but could not sit in it. (Victoria shows the same pattern: vote 1908, stand 1923.)

Q8. A strong answer weighs both sides. *For* the claim: the vote (won federally by 1902) did not by itself change daily life; the later changes — the marriage bar removed (1966), equal pay (1969, 1972), the Sex Discrimination Act (1984), and protections against family violence — changed work, pay and safety for women every day. *Against* the claim: the vote was the foundation that made the later changes possible, because it let women help choose the lawmakers; without it, the later laws may never have come. A reasoned conclusion might be that the vote opened the door and the later changes walked through it — so both mattered, in different ways.

Q9. Cause: after World War II, Australia feared it could not defend a large continent with a small population, and needed workers to rebuild. Consequence: the Chifley government, through Arthur Calwell, launched mass migration (“populate or perish”), bringing over a million British migrants and many displaced Europeans. This intake made the old race-based rules harder to keep, which later helped drive the opening of the 1950s-70s. The language used: a long-term cause (defence and the economy) produced an intended consequence (a bigger population) and an unintended one (a more diverse society).

Q10. The end was gradual because it came in dated steps, not one act. For example, 1949 let 800 non-European refugees stay; 1958 abolished the dictation test; 1966 eased rules for non-Europeans; 1973 removed race as a factor; 1975 made race-based discrimination unlawful; 1978 ended selection by country of origin. Any two of these show a process spread over about thirty years, so “gradual” is the better description.

Q11. Change. Between 1901 and 1975 the legal role of race flipped: Source 2 let officers sort entrants by race, while Source 3 made it unlawful to treat a person worse because of race. *Continuity.* Both were made by the same federal parliament using the same law-making power, so the institution continued even as its choices changed. (The model paragraph, Figure 11, shows how to combine these with a stated criterion.)

Figure 11 shows that model paragraph, with a checklist of why it works.

Model paragraph: comparing Source 2 (1901) and Source 3 (1975)

MODEL ANSWER

Between 1901 and 1975 the federal parliament changed what race meant in Australian law. Source 2, the dictation test in the Immigration Restriction Act 1901, let officers exclude unwanted arrivals, sorting entrants by race. Source 3, section 9 of the Racial Discrimination Act 1975, does the opposite job: it makes it unlawful to treat a person worse because of their race. Both are Commonwealth laws made by the same parliament, which shows continuity. But the change is fundamental: race went from being a lawful ground for exclusion to a ground on which it is unlawful to treat someone worse. Judged by how many people it affected and how long it lasted, the 1975 Act was the bigger turning point, because it changed the rules of daily life for everyone already in Australia, not only who could enter.

Why this paragraph works

- Identifies both sources: what each is and when it was made.
- States what each source does, in its own words.
- Names one continuity (same parliament) and one change (the role of race).
- Uses evidence from the section, not opinion.
- Applies stated criteria (scale, lasting effect) to reach a judgement.

Model paragraph card comparing Source 2 from 1901 and Source 3 from 1975, with a checklist of why the paragraph works

Q12. A strong answer names a criterion and applies it. For example: “Using the criterion ‘how many people it affected’, Source 3 is the more important turning point, because the 1975 Act changed the rules of daily life for everyone already in Australia, not only who could enter — and its effect has lasted to today.” A student choosing Source 2 could also score full marks by defending it well on a different criterion, such as “it set the policy that defined Australia for half a century.” Marking rewards the quality of the reasoning, not the conclusion.

Key terms

Term	Meaning used in this section
Civil rights	Rights protecting a person’s part in public life (per the <i>Universal Declaration of Human Rights</i> , 1948)
Freedoms	Areas of life free from unfair interference
Discrimination	Treating a person worse because of race, colour, descent, or national or ethnic origin (per the <i>Racial Discrimination Act 1975</i>)
Suffrage	The right to vote
Marriage bar	Rule forcing women to resign on marriage (Commonwealth public service, 1902-1966)
Dictation test	The language test in the <i>Immigration Restriction Act 1901</i> used to exclude arrivals
Continuity	What stays the same across a period of change
Change	What becomes different across a period
Cause / consequence	Why something happened / what flowed from it
Primary source	Evidence from the time studied (a speech, law, photo, letter)
Perspective	A particular person’s or group’s view of events