The Australian War Memorial

The Australian War Memorial commemorates the sacrifice of Australian servicemen and women who have died in war. Its mission is to help Australians to remember, interpret and understand the Australian experience of war and its enduring impact on Australian society. Every year more than five million people visit the Memorial and its website.

The Memorial was conceived as both a memorial and a museum that supports commemoration through understanding. Its development through the years has remained consistent with this concept.

In recent years the Memorial has undergone a major revival. It is an outstanding museum, which houses world-class exhibitions and a diverse collection of material that relates to the Australian experience of war. It is also a centre of historical research for Australian military history and an archive, which holds extensive official and unofficial documents, diaries and papers.

The Memorial is a cultural institution of international standing. It is also one of Australia’s leading major tourist attractions.

The National Collection

The Australian War Memorial houses one of Australia’s most significant museum collections. The origins of the Memorial’s National Collection lie with the Australian War Records Section, established by Charles Bean in May 1917 to preserve records and relics of the battlefields of the First World War. The collection has continued to grow to the present day.

The National Collection is a resource of historical material relating to Australian military history. It is used to support exhibitions in the Memorial’s permanent galleries, its temporary and travelling exhibitions, as loans to other public institutions, the Memorial’s education and public programs and the Memorial’s website.

Today, over four million items record the details of Australia’s involvement in military conflicts, from colonial times to the present day. Many items in the collection are icons that have come to symbolise Australia’s experience of war: the Lancaster bomber “G for George”, Dobell’s painting The billy boy, the diaries of Sir Edward “Weary” Dunlop, and the photography of Frank Hurley and Damien Parer. These all have a unique place in Australia’s military history.

Official records collected since the First World War provide researchers with detailed records of units and campaigns. Over 8,500 private records present Australians’ experiences of war through letters, cards, music and pamphlets.

An official war art scheme, begun in the First World War, continues today with recent art and photographic commissions to Afghanistan and Iraq. Along with an active acquisitions program, this scheme has brought together over 30,000 works of art. The film holdings and photography collection, which comprise over 900,000 images, constitute one of the most significant visual records of Australia’s involvement in world conflict.

Holdings in the military heraldry and technology collection are perhaps the most varied, and range from rockets, tanks, and aircraft, to Victoria Crosses and George Crosses awarded for the highest acts of bravery. This collection also has uniforms from every conflict and service, small mementos saved by soldiers, and large collections of vehicles and weapons.

The National Collection is one of the most important means by which the Memorial presents, in the most engaging way possible, the stories of Australians who served in war. It is displayed in the Memorial’s permanent galleries and in its travelling exhibitions. Official and Private Records from the collection can be consulted by the public in the Memorial’s Research Centre and online. Images of many collection items and photographs are featured on the Memorial’s website and can be ordered online.
How does the National Collection grow?

The Memorial’s collection is developed largely by donations received from serving or former members of Australia’s military forces and their families. These items come to the Memorial as direct donations or bequests, or as donations under the Cultural Gifts program. In addition, the Memorial works closely with the Australian Defence Force (ADF) to acquire material that relates directly to current activities.

The percentage of the Memorial’s collections acquired by purchase is very small, compared to other museums of similar size and importance. More recently, important additions to the collection have been funded by several major donations and sponsorships.

Objects acquired for the National Collection relate specifically to the wars and warlike operations in which Australians have served on active service, including the events leading up to, and in the aftermath of, such operations. Also collected are items that relate to the operations of the Australian Defence Force during peacetime, including recent humanitarian operations. Other items acquired relate to the wartime experiences of Australians, such as merchant seamen, war correspondents, and civilians; of Australians in non-Australian forces; and of non-Australian nationals serving in Australian forces.

Items which provide information about Australia’s enemies, allies and neutral third parties may also be significant if they relate to events in which Australians have been involved.

The Memorial supports the concept that its collection forms part of a Distributed National Collection held in partnership with other major libraries, museums and archives around Australia. In developing its collection the Memorial is mindful of the collecting activities of other institutions, and often consults with them to avoid duplication. In some cases, as with the National Archives of Australia, the Memorial has a formal agreement which defines the roles of both collecting institutions.

The Memorial also actively contributes to cooperative arrangements between cultural institutions to offer efficient public access to their combined collections. The image portal PictureAustralia is one example.

Developing the National Collection

Developing a National Collection is a complex undertaking. The Memorial’s curators cannot accept every item offered for donation: they must assess each item proposed for acquisition against a number of criteria.

In the first instance, an object is assessed for its historic, social, aesthetic and scientific or technological importance: its known association with people, events, places and themes; its expression of community identity; its craftsmanship, style, or beauty; and its potential to illustrate technological development.

It is also assessed against the existing collection. For example, curators compare the object to items already in the collection: does it replicate objects already held? Does it illustrate additional facets of military history? Does it have a better provenance than similar items already held? Is it of greater aesthetic value, or rarity, or is it in better condition than similar items?

When it accepts material for the National Collection, the Memorial must ensure that objects are not subject to any legal, moral or financial impediments, or for which clear title is not available, or for which the copyright, licensing and reproduction restrictions have not been clearly determined and documented.


The Collection Development Plan

The Collection Development Plan is divided into sections based on the various conflicts covered by the National Collection. In this plan a brief historical note is provided for each conflict, as well as an indication of the Memorial’s collecting aims and priorities for that period. For some conflicts the collection is well developed and only a small number of particular items are sought. For others, there are significant gaps which the Memorial seeks to fill. Material relating to recent conflicts is given a high priority.
Section 1

Australia’s Early Military History

Historical Background

Colonial military forces

In the hundred years from 1788, British settlements were established on the Australian continent and in its surrounding islands. British naval and military officers governed the colonies and British ships and regiments provided security against possible foreign threats. Twenty-four regiments of the British army served in rotation until 1870. The garrison was directed toward internal threats – Aboriginal resistance, convict uprising and bushrangers. In 1854 British troops suppressed the Eureka rebellion at Ballarat.

Externally the Royal Navy was the first line of security, and behind it a series of fortifications and local naval forces was progressively developed in several colonies. British warships remained on what was known as the Australia Station until 1913.

During the second half of the 19th century the colonies each formed local volunteer and militia forces, some of which included small regular artillery or engineer units. Although mostly part-time, they were the main land forces, and established the citizen-army (or volunteer) philosophy for Australia’s defence that remained dominant until the mid-20th century.
New Zealand, 1860–66
From the early 1840s to the late 1860s the Maori peoples of New Zealand resisted British settlement in a series of conflicts known variously as the Maori, Anglo-Maori or New Zealand wars. Though other British colonies in Australasia were involved as sources of supply and a base for British forces, the Australian colonies had little direct involvement. A warship from Victoria served in the Taranaki war of 1860–61, and 2,368 Australians served in the Waikato war of 1863–64.

The first Australian force to participate officially in conflict overseas was the Victorian colonial warship HMVS Victoria.

The main engagement in which the colonial force was involved took place when two officers and 30 sailors operated as part of a naval brigade which attacked Maori fortifications at Matarikoriko in December 1860.

Conflict resumed in the Waikato district, south of Auckland, in 1863. The New Zealand colonial authorities sought volunteers from the Australian colonies. Most of the Australians were assigned to four Waikato Regiments and the Taranaki Military Settlers, while others served as river boat crews (notably on the Avon and the Pioneer) and with irregular forces, particularly the Forest Rangers. Many of the Waikato volunteers remained in New Zealand after their service.

Sudan (NSW Contingent), 1885
During the 19th century European powers created or extended colonial possessions in Africa. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 increased British interest in north-east Africa and encouraged the expansion of Egypt, then an Ottoman dependency, into the Sudan.

The British policy of expansion up the Nile into the Sudan, which began in 1820, ultimately led to the rise of the religious leader Mohamed Ahmed, known as the Mahdi, who was supported by a large following of devout Muslims. By 1881, the uprising by the Mahdi and his followers resulted in a large number of Egyptian casualties. To provide support to the Egyptian forces, Britain dispatched Major General Charles Gordon in an attempt to resolve the conflict. After several years of fighting, Gordon and what remained of his forces were captured and slaughtered at Khartoum in 1885.

News of the defeat reached Sydney on “Anniversary Day”, 26 January 1885, the day on which the colony celebrated its foundation. The defeat of the British forces prompted the NSW Cabinet Council to offer military support. On 3 March 1885, a contingent of 770 infantry, artillery and medical personnel were dispatched to the Red Sea port of Suakin. The force saw little active service. It participated in a march across the desert to Tamai but was mostly used to guard the construction of a railway from Suakin to Berber.

The contingent returned to Sydney in June 1885 after six weeks’ service. It lost nine members, several of whom died after returning to Sydney. Though it achieved little, the New South Wales contingent to the Sudan established the possibility that troops from self-governing British colonies could be useful to the empire in wartime.

South African War (Boer War), 1899–1902
From the time of its acquisition by Britain during the Napoleonic wars, southern Africa had been shared between British colonies and independent republics of Dutch-Afrikaner settlers, known as Boers. Throughout the 19th century the two powers had maintained a wary co-existence, although increasingly the question became whether Britain or the Boers should control southern Africa. The two had already fought an inconclusive war in 1880. The discovery of gold and diamonds in the Boer republics in the 1880s intensified rivalry, and British imperial ambition and Boer independence resulted in friction that in October 1899 provoked the Boers to attack, in order to forestall what they saw as an impending British conquest.

This war became the British Empire’s largest conflict between 1815 and 1914 and called upon large numbers of troops from Britain’s colonies. In 1902, following the federation of the Australian colonies, eight battalions of Commonwealth troops were sent to the war.

The first Australian troops arrived in South Africa late in 1899 and participated in the British advance into the Orange Free State and the Transvaal in 1900 that ended formal Boer resistance. During the subsequent guerilla war Australian units served as parts of British columns. They were used to hunt Boer guerillas and to enforce the policy of destroying the Boer capacity to continue by impounding civilians, killing stock and burning farms and crops.

The Australian troops sent to South Africa were virtually all mounted, with a higher proportion from rural areas than in any other war. Some units, echoing the bush ethos, were actually named Bushmen’s Contingents. The war was well covered in
the Australian press, and was commemorated by significant sculpture and other war memorials in major towns and cities. Many Australian leaders of the First World War gained experience in South Africa.

Australians also served in British and South African units (many of them “irregular”) during the war’s later guerrilla phase. Two of these men, Harry Morant and Peter Handcock, were convicted of having killed civilians and were executed in February 1902. The Morant-Handcock case remains the most durable Australian memory of the war, made famous by the film *Breaker Morant*.

China, 1900–01 (Boxer Rebellion)

By the end of the 19th century the balance of the lucrative trade between China and merchants from America and Europe, particularly Britain, lay almost entirely in the West’s favour. As Western domination of the China trade grew, anti-European secret societies began to form. Among the most violent and popular of these was the *I-ho-ch’uan*, which was translated as the Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists. Dubbed “Boxers” by western correspondents, they gave the Boxer Rebellion its popular name.

Throughout 1899 the *I-ho-ch’uan* and other militant societies combined in a campaign against Westerners and Chinese Christians. By March 1900 the uprising had spread beyond the secret societies and Western nations intervened, ostensibly to protect their nationals in China but with one eye firmly on the threat to their territorial and trade ambitions.

By the end of May 1900, Britain, Italy, and the United States had warships anchored off the Chinese coast at Taku, the nearest port to Peking, and contingents from France, Germany, Austria, Russia, and Japan were en-route to China. In June, as a Western force marched on Peking, the Dowager Empress sent imperial troops to join the Boxers against them. As the conflict widened, further Western reinforcements were dispatched to China.

As the situation in China deteriorated through 1899 and into 1900, the Australian colonies were keen to offer material support to Britain. With the bulk of their regular and volunteer forces engaged in South Africa, the colonies looked to their navies to provide men for the war in China. The colonial navies provided an immediately available pool of trained, professional full-time crews, as well as groups of reservist-volunteers, including many ex-naval men. Contingents from New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia went to China.

Over the northern winter of 1900–01, the Australian contingents remained in Tientsin and Peking where they carried out police and guard duties and occasionally acted as railway men and firefighters. There was some dissatisfaction among the Australians regarding this focus on non-martial activities.

In March 1901 the entire naval brigade left China; several Australians had died of sickness and injury – none were killed as a result of enemy action. While they had been away, the colonies from which they sailed only nine months before had become a commonwealth, and Queen Victoria had died.

Collecting Aims and Priorities

The significance in collecting material relating to colonial military forces is to provide context for the establishment of the defence force in Australia. The current collection is small but generally representative. Australian and British military heraldry relating to this period would be considered, including examples of uniforms and headwear worn by units of the six colonial forces, both army and navy, and particularly of local pattern; local copies and the “Australian” styles adopted after the 1880s; completion of specimen sets of local medals; unofficial colours; and objects with important colonial military connections. Lithographs of the period that illustrate the colonial military forces, barracks and portraits, and soldiers’ diaries and letters would be sought as a high priority.

In the overall context of Australia’s military history, Australian involvement in the New Zealand wars and the Sudan is of limited significance, although it represents the first deployment in conflict of Australian forces overseas. The current collections are small and some enhancement is appropriate, although an active program of acquisition is not proposed.

A formed collection would ideally include material relating to the Victorian naval unit serving in 1860–61, such as photographs of participants, letters or diaries and uniforms or other equipment relating to known participants. For the period 1863–64 some enhancement would be relevant: material relating to recruitment in Australia; letters or diaries of the Australian volunteers serving in the campaign as a whole and particularly in the Waikato Regiments; items from key events, particularly the engagement at Titi Hill; and material relating to Orakau and Te Ranga.
For Sudan, the probability that significant items relating to the NSW Contingent of 1885 will be available is low. Few weapons will be available, and there is little likelihood that uniforms and flags will have survived. Works of art by contemporary artists such as J.R. Ashton, C.H. Hunt, Livingston Hopkins and Walter Paget; medals awarded to senior officers or for distinguished service, mentions in despatches, casualties; commemorative medallions or the badge of the colony; and heraldry items relating to service by chaplains and war correspondents would be considered.

In respect of casualties, the South African War was the third largest war in which Australia has been engaged. The collection of material related to this conflict is given relatively high priority, especially considering its rarity in some areas. While not a vast collection, the South African collection overall is of high quality. Works of art are the most likely area for enhancing the collection, but other items might be considered: Australian service uniforms; locally made and British-issue items as used by Australians; harness and saddlery; military decorations; and personal battle relics.

The significance of Australians (South Australia, New South Wales, and Victorian Naval Brigades) in China is limited. They did not see any conflict, being principally involved with guard duties and firefighting. However, the Naval Brigade was an armed fighting force, equipped in Australia for service overseas. Items relevant to this period may be considered for collection, especially paintings or prints; diaries and other written accounts from the conflict; original officer and rating uniforms, as well as the winter uniforms supplied by the Canadian government; and other items from the servicemen of foreign allied nations. Examples of period leather equipment unique to the Naval Brigade, and ship’s badges, flags, or similar equipment from the Protector or troopship Salamis may be considered, as well as colonial naval flags, notable examples of the China Medal, and badges of the colonial forces. These items would broaden the context of the Australian material.
Section 2

First World War, 1914–18

Historical Background

The First World War remains the costliest conflict in which Australia has been involved. From a population of fewer than five million, 417,000 men enlisted and 332,000 served overseas, of whom 60,000 were killed and 156,000 were wounded, gassed, or taken prisoner.

When Britain and Germany went to war in August 1914, Prime Minister Andrew Fisher’s government pledged full support for Britain. The outbreak of war was greeted in Australia, as in many other places, with great enthusiasm. The Royal Australian Navy (RAN) was placed at the service of the Admiralty. The RAN made a significant contribution early in the war when HMAS Sydney destroyed the German raider SMS Emden near the Cocos (Keeling) Islands in November 1914. The Australian Government raised the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force (AN&MEF) of 1,500 men who, in October 1914, took possession of German New Guinea and the neighbouring islands of the Bismarck Archipelago. Australia raised a volunteer Australian Imperial Force (AIF). The first units of the AIF, numbering 20,000 troops, were sent to Britain for training but were diverted to Egypt as there was no suitable accommodation for them in Britain at the time.

In March 1915 the Australians departed by ship for the Gallipoli peninsula, together with troops from New Zealand, Britain, and France. The Australians landed at what became known as ANZAC Cove on 25 April 1915. During the early days of the campaign, British Empire forces struggled to break through the Ottoman lines as the defenders tried to drive the allied troops off the peninsula. A stalemate continued for the remainder of 1915. The most successful part of the campaign was the evacuation...
After Gallipoli the AIF was re-organised and expanded from two to five infantry divisions, all of which were progressively transferred to France, beginning in March 1916. Most of the AIF mounted units that had served as additional infantry during the campaign remained in the Middle East. When the AIF divisions arrived in France, the war on the Western Front had long settled into a stalemate, with the opposing armies facing each other from trench systems that extended across Belgium and north-east France, from the English Channel to the Swiss border, a distance of approximately 760 kilometres. The development of machine-guns and artillery favoured defence over attack, compounding the impasse, which lasted until the final months of the war.

During 1916 and 1917 the Australians formed a small part of the British army. In their first major action on the Western Front, at Fromelles in July 1916, the Australians suffered 5,533 casualties in just 24 hours. On the Somme the Australians were given the task of capturing the ruined village of Pozieres. Over six weeks of fighting there and at Mouquet Farm approximately 23,000 officers and men were lost. In 1917 the Australians sustained further heavy casualties in battles such as those at Bullecourt, Messines, and the four-month campaign around Ypres, known as the battle of Passchendaele.

In March 1918 the German army broke the deadlock by launching Operation Michael, its final offensive of the war; the Germans hoped to gain a decisive victory before the military and industrial strength of the United States could be mobilised. The Australians played a notable part in halting the German offensive, in particular through the major attack they launched at Villers-Bretonneux on the night of 24–25 April.

Whereas the war in France was the scene of the greatest battles and most recognised military actions, the war in the Middle East was a campaign of attrition rather than movement. Australians in the Middle East fought a mobile war against Turkey in conditions completely different from the mud and stagnation of the Western Front. The light horsemen and their mounts had to survive extreme heat, harsh terrain, and water shortages. Nevertheless, casualties were comparatively light, with 1,394 Australians killed or wounded in three years of war. This campaign began in 1915 with Australian troops participating in the defence of the Suez Canal and the allied re-conquest of the Sinai peninsula. In the following year Australian and other allied troops advanced into Palestine and captured Gaza and Jerusalem; by 1918 they had occupied Lebanon and Syria. On 30 October 1918 Turkey sued for peace.

Australians also served in the newly formed Australian Flying Corps (AFC). The First World War was the first armed conflict in which aircraft were used; about 3,000 Australian airmen served in the Middle East and France.

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Australian women volunteered for service in auxiliary roles. While the government welcomed the service of nurses, it generally rejected offers from women in other professions to serve overseas. Australian nurses served in Egypt, France, Greece, and India, often in trying conditions or close to the front, where they were exposed to shelling and aerial bombardment.

The war was also felt at home. Families and communities grieved following the loss of so many men, and women increasingly assumed the physical and financial burden of caring for families. Anti-German feeling emerged with the outbreak of the war, and many Germans living in Australia were interned. Censorship and surveillance were sometimes used as an excuse to silence political opposition, and increased as the conflict continued. Social division also grew, reaching a climax in the bitterly contested conscription referendums held in 1916 and 1917. When the war ended, thousands of ex-servicemen, many disabled with physical or emotional wounds, had to be re-integrated into a society that was keen to consign the war to the past and resume normal life.

Collecting aims and priorities

While the collection is substantial, future gallery redevelopment is an important factor in considering how the collection should be developed. In general, the existing collection provides good representation for all the major battles, although the collection for Bullecourt could be developed.

Captured enemy equipment is one of the collection’s particular strengths; by comparison, Australian provenance technology objects are less well represented. Military heraldry weaknesses include harness and equipment to complement transport items,
and material related to prominent leaders and personalities is scarce. The collection is weighted towards the latter years of the war, holding far more 1918 items than those from the period 1915–17.

Additional photographic material for the RAN is desirable. Although the photographic collection is essentially formed, additional images will be acquired if they depict personnel listed on the Roll of Honour, the Commemorative Roll, or the Remembrance Book, or if they cover specifically identified weaknesses.

In general, the art collection is quite strong from 1918 onwards, owing to the official war art program instituted by the Australian War Records Section. Collecting aims for this collection are to supplement or “round out” those areas currently under-represented. These include naval operations, the AFC, women’s service, and involvement at home and abroad. The home-front part of the collection needs particular strengthening, especially in the area related to the two conscription referenda.

The Official Records collection is particularly rich and extensive as the Memorial has been the official repository for these records. Although individual records passed into private hands prior to the creation of the Archives Act, these would be few: nevertheless, if the opportunity arises to add them to the collection, this will be considered.

The Memorial’s First World War letters and diaries collection is exceptional, with donations still regularly received. Collections would be sought for units which are not represented and to address the lesser numbers of RAN and RAAF items.

Likewise the Memorial’s published works holdings for the First World War is very comprehensive. A number of collections are considered to be complete and are no longer being collected unless a particularly significant item is identified. This includes France and Belgium series maps and aerial photos, postcards, newspaper clippings, newspapers, and cigarette and trade cards.
Section 3

Second World War, 1939–45

Historical Background

Almost a million Australians, both men and women, served in the Second World War. Australian servicemen fought in campaigns against Germany and Italy in Europe, the Mediterranean, and North Africa; and against Japan in south-east Asia and in other parts of the Pacific. The Australian mainland came under direct attack for the first time as Japanese aircraft bombed towns in north-west Australia and Japanese midget submarines attacked Sydney Harbour.

The Royal Australian Navy (RAN) participated in operations against Italy after its entry into the war in June 1940. A few Australians flew in the Battle of Britain in the same year, but the Australian army was not engaged in combat until 1941, when the 6th, 7th and 9th Divisions joined Allied operations in the Mediterranean and North Africa. Following early successes against Italian forces in North Africa, the Australians suffered defeat with the Allies at the hands of the Germans in Greece and Crete. In June and July 1941 Australians participated in the brief but costly Allied invasion of Syria, a territory of Vichy France. Up to 14,000 Australians held out against repeated German attacks in the Libyan port of Tobruk, where they were besieged between April and September 1941, until relieved in October. In early 1942 the 6th and 7th Divisions departed from the Mediterranean theatre for the war against Japan. The 9th Division remained to play an important role in the Allied victory at El Alamein in October 1942 before it also left for the Pacific. By the end of 1942 the only Australians remaining in the Mediterranean theatre were airmen serving either with the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) or in the Royal Air Force (RAF).
While Australia’s major effort from 1942 onwards was directed at defeating Japan, thousands of Australians continued to serve with the RAAF in Europe. Even though more Australian airmen served in the Pacific, losses among those involved in the air war against Germany were far higher. Some 3,500 Australians were killed in this campaign, making it the costliest of the war.

Japan entered the war in December 1941 and swiftly achieved a series of victories which resulted in the occupation of south-east Asia and large areas of the Pacific by the end of March 1942. By then Singapore had fallen, along with the island garrisons of New Britain, Ambon, Timor and Java. The defeats in south-east Asia saw 22,000 Australians go into captivity. After the bombing of Darwin in February, many RAN ships in the Mediterranean theatre returned to Australian waters: eight served in the Pacific. In response to the heightened threat, the Australian government called up men for the militia, and the size of the service expanded. The government also called for an overhaul of economic, domestic, and industrial policies to give it special powers to mount a total war effort at home.

In 1942 Australians feared that invasion by Japan was imminent, though no such invasion was planned. With the arrival of General Douglas MacArthur as Supreme Commander in the South-West Pacific Area in March 1942, the United States committed itself to fighting the Japanese in the South Pacific. This helped foster the strong alliance with Australia, as MacArthur strongly influenced Australia’s military effort. The Japanese were halted and defeated in a series of battles on the perimeter of its conquests: in the Coral Sea, at Midway, at Milne Bay, along the Kokoda Trail, and on Guadalcanal.

Further Allied victories against the Japanese followed. Australian and American troops cleared Papua of Japanese resistance by early 1943. Australian troops were mainly engaged in land battles in New Guinea, with the defeat of the Japanese around Wau and Salamaua, and clearing Japanese forces from the Huon Peninsula and the Markham–Ramu Valley. These, Australia’s most complex offensives of the war, were not completed until April 1944. Australian forces also began a new series of campaigns in late 1944 against isolated Japanese garrisons stretching from Borneo to Bougainville, which saw more Australian troops in action than at any other time in the war. These campaigns were fought on Bougainville, New Britain, at Aitape–Wewak in New Guinea, on Tarakan, around Brunei Bay, and at Balikpapan in Borneo. Australian forces were still fighting in Borneo when the war ended in August 1945.

Over 30,000 Australian servicemen were taken prisoner in the Second World War. Two-thirds of those taken prisoner were captured by the Japanese during their advance through south-east Asia within the first few weeks of 1942. While those who became prisoners of the Germans had a strong chance of returning home at the end of the war, about a third of those imprisoned by the Japanese died in captivity.

Nurses had gone overseas with the AIF in 1940, but during the early years of the war women were generally unable to make a significant contribution to the war effort in any official capacity. Labour shortages forced the government to allow women to take a more active role in war work, and in February 1941 the RAAF received cabinet approval to establish the Women’s Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF). At the same time, the RAN also accepted female telegraphists, a breakthrough which eventually led to the establishment of the Women’s Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS) in 1942. The Australian Women’s Army Service (AWAS) was established in October 1941, with the aim of releasing men from certain military duties in base units in Australia for assignment with fighting units overseas. Outside the armed services, the Australian Women’s Land Army was established to encourage women to work in rural industries while a huge range of uniformed and non-uniformed organisations provided philanthropic and fund-raising services. The war affected women’s employment patterns profoundly, with women “manpowered” into war work, including construction, light industrial, and munitions industries.

Some 40,000 Australians died in the Second World War. Notwithstanding the higher casualties of the First World War, the Second World War was, in almost all other respects, a more extensive and significant conflict for Australia. It involved more people and more places, in conflict overseas and even in Australia itself; it entailed arguably more profound changes to society and economy; it decisively changed Australia’s international perspectives and led to an engagement with the neighbouring region, and altered the nature of Australia’s armed forces.
Collecting aims and priorities

As the strength of holdings for the conflict varies, the collection is discussed under relevant operational headings. The Second World War collection is large and complex, with strengths and weaknesses varying throughout the various campaigns. Official Records is the only collection which is reasonably strong throughout the conflict. Overall, collecting for the Second World War is given a high priority owing to its significance and the importance of strengthening specific themes in the near future before the opportunity to identify material passes.

For the Middle Eastern theatre, particularly with regard to RAN and RAAF service, items of historical provenance associated with events and personalities are lacking. Material relating to the War in the Pacific 1941–42, from the Midway, Coral Sea, Guadalcanal, and Papua campaigns, including Milne Bay, Kokoda, Buna/Gona/Sanananda, and from coastwatchers, was collected postwar. The RAAF collection requires strengthening while naval material is almost non-existent: very few relics of any kind survive from naval battles.

The Battle of the Atlantic (including Australians in the war against Germany) is represented by a small number of items relating to Nos. 10 and 461 (Sunderland) Squadrons, RAAF, with a very few relics pertaining to the activities of the RAN or merchant navy, including DEMS (Defensively Equipped Merchant Ships).

For the South-West Pacific, 1943–45 (including New Guinea 1943–44), strengthening the military technology collection’s representations of Japanese and Allied armour, “soft skinned” vehicles, artillery, US Army/Navy air forces, Australian aircraft (the B-24 Liberator and the Boomerang) and other air operations would be considered.

Few objects describing the Australian home front were gathered during the war except those regarding women’s civilian activities. Material relating to the Japanese submarine attacks on Sydney is held, but attacks on Darwin and the role of the US in the defence of Australia require greater representation.

Overall, the collections for prisoners of war and internees are strong, particularly of material relating to Australian prisoners of the Japanese. Items relating to German or Italian captivity are still sought, as are items relating to internment of prisoners of war or civilians in Australia. VE Day and VJ Day (including repatriation, surrender, British Pacific Fleet, Australians in the Philippines, RAN against Japan) are represented by such items as the Hermann Goering crest from his Berlin residence, surrendered Japanese swords, and Hiroshima relics: there is, however, comparatively little RAN material.

Overall, collections of photographs, sound and film recordings are extensive, with coverage in most areas except the Merchant Navy, Crete, and Greece. Additional images will be acquired if they depict personnel listed on the Roll of Honour, the Commemorative Roll, the Remembrance Book, or strengthen specific themes.

Although most material was collected after the event, the art collections, too, are relatively strong for the Pacific 1941–42, and the South-West Pacific, 1943–45, with less extensive representation for Greece, Crete, the Middle East, and RAAF and RAN subjects. Art’s coverage of the home front, although strong, is uneven, with a good range of images for the attacks on Darwin but very little on the attacks on Sydney Harbour. The experiences of Japanese prisoners of war are well represented, but the experiences of European prisoners of war and of internees in Australia are less well covered.

The Second World War Official Records collection is the single most important collection of historical records that document Australia’s military involvement, especially of the Australian army, in the war. This collection is comprehensive in its coverage. There is an evident shift in personal record keeping practices from the First World War, in that people involved in the Second World War appear to have kept fewer diaries. The collection does not hold an abundance of letters.

Over the last decade, more personal material has been offered. As with the First World War, there is a strong bias toward the army’s fighting arms, reflective of Australia’s involvement and trends in donations. Substantial collections are held for army higher command, but additional material for the RAN and RAAF would be welcome.

The following collections are considered formed and are not being collected unless items are of particular significance: newspapers (unless not held elsewhere); Second World War Christmas books; New Guinea maps; cigarette and trading cards; Japanese leaflets; and aerial photographs of the South-West Pacific Area.
Historical Background

Allied forces occupied Japan to enforce the terms of the unconditional surrender that had ended the war in August 1945. The main body of Australian troops to join the British Commonwealth Occupation Force (BCOF) arrived in Japan on 21 February 1946. Up to 16,000 Australians served in BCOF, including an air force wing of 2,200, and RAN ships serving as part of the British Pacific Fleet. For two-thirds of the period of occupation the Commonwealth was represented solely by Australians, and throughout its existence BCOF was always commanded by an Australian officer.

The BCOF area of responsibility included the western prefectures of Shimane, Yamaguchi, Tottori, Okayama, Hiroshima and Shikoku Island. At the peak of its involvement the Australian component of BCOF was responsible for over 20 million Japanese citizens and 57,000 square kilometres of country.

The main Australian occupation component was the 34th Infantry Brigade, which arrived in early 1946, and was made up of the 65th, 66th and 67th Battalions. The RAN ships that served were HMAS Australia, Hobart, Shropshire and the destroyers HMAS Arunta, Bataan, Culgoa, Murchison, Shoalhaven, Quadrant and Quiberon. Landing Ships Infantry HMAS Manoora, Westralia and Kanimbla were used for transport. The RAAF component was stationed at Bofu, in Yamaguchi Prefecture. The RAAF Squadrons which served were No. 76, No. 77 and No. 82, all flying Mustangs.

For the first time families were able to accompany service personnel on overseas deployment. Seven families of BCOF personnel lived in Japan.
By early 1947, BCOF had begun to decline from its peak of nearly 40,000 service personnel from Britain, New Zealand, India and Australia and by the end of 1948 was composed entirely of Australians. BCOF ceased to exist on 28 April 1952 when the peace treaty with Japan came into effect.

**Australia’s role in BCOF**

The primary objective of BCOF was to enforce the terms of the surrender treaty that had ended the war the previous August. The task of exercising military government over Japan was the responsibility of the US forces. BCOF was required to maintain military control and supervise the demilitarisation and disposal of the remnants of Japan’s war-making capacity. To this end, Australian army and air force personnel were involved in locating and securing military stores and installations. BCOF Headquarters gave the Intelligence Sections of the Australian battalions targets to investigate in the form of grid references for dumps of Japanese military equipment. Warlike materials were destroyed and other equipment was kept for use by BCOF or returned to the Japanese. Under Australian supervision, Japanese civilians carried out the destruction or conversion to civilian use of military equipment. Regular patrols and road reconnaissances were initiated and carried out in the Australian area of responsibility as part of BCOF’s general surveillance duties.

The RAN component of BCOF was responsible for patrolling the Inland Sea to prevent both smuggling and the illegal immigration of Koreans to Japan. They were assisted by the RAAF, whose aircraft were also involved in tracking vessels suspected of smuggling or transporting illegal immigrants. RAAF squadrons also flew surveillance patrols over each of the prefectures in the BCOF zone in order to help locate leftover weapons and ordnance.

By the end of 1946 the task of demilitarising Japan was requiring less effort and the nature of BCOF’s duties was changing. From then on, guard duties and training began to occupy more of the occupying forces’ time.

**Australia’s role in BCFK**

The formal name of the Commonwealth army, naval and air units serving with the United Nations in the Korean War was the British Commonwealth Forces Korea (BCFK). Australian, British, Canadian, Indian and New Zealand units were included in the force. Prior to 1952, the BCOF commanders in Japan officially controlled all Commonwealth personnel in Korea (with the exception of some serving in US formations). The position of BCFK Commander-in-Chief was always held by Australian Army officers, the first being Lt Gen Sir Horace Robertson.

The RAN provided the carrier HMAS *Sydney* and other ships. The only front-line unit from a Commonwealth air force to serve under BCFK was No. 77 Squadron, RAAF, which initially flew P-51 Mustang fighters and later converted to Gloster Meteor jets. British and Canadian aircrews also served with the RAAF and some Commonwealth personnel also served with US Air Force formations.

**Collecting aims and priorities**

Overall, the collection is considered to be representative and adequate for current purposes. The strong collection of official records and photographs are all held either by the Memorial or the National Archives; the military heraldry and technology and film collections are small but adequate. Material may be considered for those areas with extremely small holdings, such as private records and sound; a BCOF-marked vehicle might be a worthy addition. The material in the art collection is considered adequate to give coverage of Australian BCOF activities and the situation in postwar Japan. The collection could be enhanced by examples of soldier art or work by other Commonwealth official artists, but this is considered to be a low priority.
Section 5

Korean War, 1950–53

Historical Background

The United Nations first went to war in Korea, fighting against the North Korean invasion of South Korea, in June 1950. The war saw the first operational use of jet aircraft by the RAAF, and was the first and only time Australia deployed its own Fleet Air Arm operationally.

In 1950 BCOF’s Japanese bases, although being run down, acquired a new significance when Australia entered the Korean War. Following the defeat of Japan, Korea had been partitioned along the 38th parallel of latitude, with the north being administered by the Soviet Union and the south by the United States. Two distinct areas developed, between which tensions were high. On 25 June 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea. This unprovoked attack elicited an immediate response from the United Nations in support of South Korea. Australia entered the war as part of a UN force under the operational command of the United States. HMAS Shoalhaven and Bataan, and No. 77 (Fighter) Squadron, RAAF, came from Japan as North Korean forces moved to occupy the Korean peninsula.

In mid-September 1950 the UN forces struck back, forcing the North Koreans into retreat. At the end of September, 3rd Battalion, the Royal Australian Regiment (3RAR), arrived from Japan to join the 27th British Commonwealth Brigade in Korea.

Fighting alongside the United States, other UN, and South Korean troops, 3RAR, participated first in the advance to the Chinese border and then the subsequent retreat south of the 38th Parallel after China entered the war in October 1950. In late 1951 the war became a stalemate and when, after two years of negotiations, an armistice was reached in July 1953, the two Koreas were formally divided along an agreed demarcation line which mostly ran a short distance north of the original 38th Parallel.
As part of one of the 27th and 28th British Commonwealth Brigades, 3RAR fought at Yongju, Pakchon, and Chongju in the advance northwards, at Kapyong during the Chinese spring offensive of 1951 and at Maryang San during the static warfare around the Imjin River in 1951. 3RAR was joined in 1952 by the regiment’s 1st Battalion, which was replaced in turn in 1953 by the 2nd Battalion. No. 77 Squadron flew Mustang and later Meteor fighters in interceptor and ground support roles as part of the US Fifth Air Force, while Australian ships joined British and US task forces in blockading the Korean coast. Three hundred and thirty-nine Australian service personnel died during the war in Korea.

**Collecting aims and priorities**

In general, items relating to the Korean War are keenly sought. The lack of provenance of some materials, such as uniforms, and the general lack of personal items and battlefield relics for telling the story of the individual in Korea make development of the collection desirable. Naval coverage in relics, photographs and film could be developed, especially in regard to HMAS Sydney’s operations. Major strengths of the collection include photographs, aircraft, and official records: the technology collection is good.

One major theme virtually unrepresented in the collection is the battle of Kapyong: weapons, photographs and personal objects carried by participants are sought. There appears to be minimal potential for acquiring works of art from the period related to this engagement. A major acquisition in 2007 was a diorama of the battle of Kapyong for the Memorial’s new galleries, Conflicts 1945 to Today.

Naval coverage in relics, photos and film is weak, especially in regard to Sydney’s operations. In general, all pertinent official records are held either by the Memorial or the National Archives. Commonwealth Military Forces (CMF) posters of the period, post conflict work by Australian and Australian/Korean artists, and home-front cartoons will be considered.

The Korean War had high priority for active acquisition of material as part of the Conflicts 1945 to Today galleries, attracting substantial collection donations by veterans. The Korean War oral history program has also developed the collection significantly.
Section 6

Malayan Emergency, 1950–60; Indonesian Confrontation, 1963–66

Historical Background

Malayan Emergency

In the wake of the Second World War the European possessions in Asia confronted nationalist movements. In Malaya the Malayan Communist Party (MCP) began an armed campaign. In June 1948, after three estate managers were murdered in Perak, northern Malaya, the British declared a state of emergency and began a campaign to suppress “Communist Terrorists” — “CTs” — of the MCP, a conflict to which Australia, New Zealand, Federation of Malaya, Fiji and Southern Rhodesia also contributed forces.

Australia’s increased involvement in the Emergency began in 1950 with the arrival of RAAF aircraft and personnel in Singapore. Dakotas of No. 38 Squadron were deployed on cargo runs, troop movements and paratroop and leaflet drops in Malaya, while six Lincoln bombers of No. 1 Squadron bombed the CTs’ jungle sanctuaries.

By October 1955, when 2nd Battalion, Royal Australian Regiment (2RAR), arrived in Penang, the outcome of the Emergency was no longer in doubt, although a lengthy “mopping up” stage followed, largely undertaken by Australian troops. Each of the three battalions of the Royal Australian Regiment served in Malaya, acquiring a strong expertise in counter-insurgency operations. The Malayan Government declared the Emergency over on 31 July 1960. Australian troops remained
to help garrison the British Commonwealth Far East Strategic Reserve (FESR).

In addition to air and infantry forces, Australia also provided artillery and engineering support, and an airfield construction squadron built the main runway for the air force base at Butterworth. RAN ships also served in Malayan waters and had occasion to fire on suspected communist positions in 1956 and 1957. Australian forces in Malaya formed part of Australia’s contribution to FESR, which was set up in April 1955 primarily to deter external communist aggression against countries in south-east Asia, especially Malaysia and Singapore.

Lasting 13 years, the Malayan Emergency was one of the longest continuous military commitments in Australia’s history. Fifty-one Australian servicemen were killed in Malaya, although only 15 of these deaths occurred as the result of operations. Twenty-seven men were wounded, most of whom were members of the army.

**Indonesian Confrontation**

Between 1962 and 1966 Indonesia and Malaysia fought a small, undeclared war which came to involve troops from Australia and Britain. The conflict resulted from a belief by Indonesia’s President Sukarno that the creation of the Federation of Malaysia, which became official in September 1963, represented an attempt by Britain to maintain colonial rule behind the cloak of independence granted to its former colonial possessions in south-east Asia.

The term “Confrontation” was coined by Indonesia’s Foreign Minister, Dr Subandrio, in April 1963, and it has come to refer to Indonesia’s efforts at that time to destabilise the new federation, with a view to breaking it up. The actual war began when Indonesia launched a series of cross-border raids into Malaysian territory in early 1963.

The antagonism that gave rise to Confrontation was already apparent in December 1962, when a small party of armed insurgents, with Indonesian backing, attempted to seize power in the independent enclave of Brunei, only to be defeated by British troops from Singapore. By early 1963 military activity had increased along the Indonesian side of the border in Borneo, as small parties of armed men began infiltrating Malaysian territory on propaganda and sabotage missions. These cross-border raids, carried out by Indonesian “volunteers”, continued throughout 1963; by 1964 Indonesian regular army units had also become involved.

Australian units which fought during Confrontation did so as part of a larger British and Commonwealth force under overall British command. Australia’s commitment to operations against Indonesia in Borneo and West Malaysia fell within the context of its membership in the Far East Strategic Reserve.

At first the Australian government kept its troops from becoming involved in Confrontation, not least because of fears that the conflict would spread to the long and difficult-to-defend border between Papua New Guinea and Indonesia. Requests from both the British and Malaysian governments in 1963–64 for the deployment of Australian troops in Borneo were met with refusal, though the Australian government did agree that its troops could be used for the defence of the Malay peninsula against external attack. In the event, such attacks occurred twice, in September and October 1964, when Indonesia launched paratroop and amphibious raids against Labis and Pontian, on the south-western side of the peninsula. Members of 3RAR were used in clean-up operations against the invading troops. Although these attacks were easily repelled, they did pose a serious risk of escalating the fighting; the Australian government relented in January 1965 and agreed to the deployment of a battalion in Borneo.

The first Australian battalion, 3RAR, arrived in Borneo in March 1965 and served in Sarawak until the end of July. During this time the battalion conducted extensive operations on both sides of the border, was engaged in four major contacts with Indonesian units, and twice suffered casualties from land mines. Its replacement in the 28th Brigade, 4RAR, also served in Sarawak – from April until August 1966. Although it had a less active tour, the 28th Brigade also operated on the Indonesian side of the border and was involved in clashes with Indonesian regulars. Altogether, two squadrons of the Special Air Service, a troop of the Royal Australian Signals, several artillery batteries, and parties of the Royal Australian Engineers were involved in Borneo, in addition to the two infantry battalions. Ships of the RAN served in the surrounding waters and several RAAF squadrons were also involved in Confrontation.

Continuing negotiations between Indonesia and Malaysia ended the conflict, and the two sides signed a peace treaty in Bangkok in August 1966. Twenty-three Australians were killed during Confrontation, seven of them on operations, and eight were wounded. Because of the sensitivity of the cross-border operations, which remained secret at the time, Confrontation received very little coverage in the Australian press.
Collecting aims and priorities

The Memorial aims to represent the major phases of Australia’s involvement in these conflicts. Given the paucity of additional material known to exist, capturing oral histories is the most realistic way to enhance the collection. Additional photographic images will be acquired if they depict personnel listed on the Roll of Honour, the Commemorative Roll, the Remembrance Book, or strengthen specific themes.

There is a notable absence of personal items or military equipment whose provenance communicates personal stories or illustrates connections to personalities and events. The collection tends to consist of type examples, particularly of weaponry. Material related to domestic aspects of the conflicts is desirable. No contemporaneous works of art about these conflicts are known; however, the collection could be developed by modern commissions. Very few letters, diaries or memoirs are held: personal records are keenly sought. Official records holdings are good.
Historical Background

Australian support for South Vietnam in the early 1960s was in keeping with the policy of other western nations, particularly the United States, to stem the spread of communism in Europe and Asia. In 1961 and in 1962, Ngo Dinh Diem, leader of the government in South Vietnam, repeatedly requested assistance from the US and its allies to improve security in the struggling Republic of Vietnam. Australia eventually responded with 30 military advisers, dispatched as the Australian Army Training Team Vietnam (AATTV). Their arrival in South Vietnam during July and August 1962 was the beginning of Australia’s involvement in the war in Vietnam.

By early 1965, with South Vietnam under severe pressure from communist insurgents and their North Vietnamese supporters, the US commenced a major escalation of the war. By the end of the year, it had committed 200,000 troops to the conflict.

The Australian government dispatched 1st Battalion, the Royal Australian Regiment (1RAR), in June 1965 to serve as part of the US 173rd Airborne Brigade in Bien Hoa province.

In March 1966, the Government announced the dispatch of an independent task force consisting of two battalions and support elements, to be based at Nui Dat in Phuoc Tuy province. Unlike 1RAR, the taskforce was assigned its own areas of operations and included conscripts who had been called up under the National Service Scheme introduced in 1964. All nine battalions of the regiment served in the task force at one time or another before it was withdrawn in 1971. At the height of Australian involvement in mid-1969 the task force numbered over 5,000 Australians.

In August 1966, D Company of 6RAR was engaged in one of the heaviest Australian actions of the war near Long Tan. After three hours of fierce fighting, during which it seemed...
that the Australian forces would be overrun, the Viet Cong withdrew, leaving 245 dead. Eighteen Australians had been killed and 24 were wounded, and the battle challenged communist dominance over the province.

1968 began with a major offensive by the Viet Cong and North Vietnamese Army, launched during "Tet", the Vietnamese lunar New Year holiday. The timing and scale of the Tet offensive came as a complete surprise, involving 40 cities, towns and military installations in South Vietnam. US military planners began to question whether a decisive victory could be achieved and the offensive stimulated the US public’s growing opposition to the war.

By 1969 anti-war protests were gathering momentum in Australia. Opposition to conscription mounted as more people opposed Australian involvement in Vietnam. A “Don’t Register” campaign, dissuading young men from registering for conscription, gained increasing support and some of the protests grew violent. The US government began to implement a policy of “Vietnamisation”, a gradual withdrawal of US forces from South Vietnam. Australians based in Phuoc Tuy province increasingly trained South Vietnamese regional and Popular Forces.

At the end of April 1970, US and South Vietnamese troops crossed the border into Cambodia. The extension of the war into a sovereign state, formally neutral, further inflamed anti-war sentiment in the US and provided the impetus for further anti-war demonstrations in Australia.

By late 1970, Australia had begun to wind down its military effort in Vietnam. The withdrawal of troops continued throughout 1971: the last battalion left Nui Dat on 7 November and the last task force units left Vietnam in March 1972. A handful of advisers belonging to the AATTV remained. In December 1972 they became the last Australian troops to return home. Their unit had seen continuous service in South Vietnam for ten and a half years.

From the time of the arrival of the first members of the AATTV in 1962, some 50,000 Australians, including Army, RAAF and RAN personnel, served in Vietnam. Five hundred died and 3,129 were wounded. The war was the cause of the greatest social and political dissent in Australia since the conscription referendums of the First World War. Many draft resisters, conscientious objectors and protesters had been fined or gaol, while soldiers sometimes met a hostile reception on their return home.

**Collecting aims and priorities**

Strengths and weaknesses vary across the collection: maps, official army records and official photographs are strong. The acquisition of the bridge and other components of HMAS Brisbane in 2001 significantly strengthened the RAN and technology representation for this conflict, although radio and communication equipment remains poorly represented.

Combat uniforms, private records, and works of art for periods not covered by the official war artists are given a high priority for active development. Personal relics, significant medals, RAN and RAAF material, unofficial photographs, and film and sound require selective enhancement.

Overall, the Vietnam War had high priority for acquisition of material as part of the Conflicts 1945 to Today galleries development program. It is a significant conflict and the potential to enhance the collection is very good.
Section 8

Peacekeeping Since 1947

Historical Background

In 1947 Australians were among the very first group of UN peacekeepers — military observers attached to the UN Consular Commission before being transferred to the UN Good Offices Commission (UNGOC). These observers monitored the ceasefire between the Dutch and the republican Indonesians in the Netherlands East Indies, and ultimately oversaw Indonesia’s independence.

Since that time, the defence force and civilian police have participated in more than 55 peacekeeping operations. Missions may continue in operation over long periods, with observers rotating through them, usually (in Australia’s case) on six- or twelve-month postings. The scale of Australia’s contribution to such forces varies greatly depending on the nature of the operation.

Observer missions: Kashmir, Middle East

Following their successful deployment in Indonesia, Australian military observers have served in a number of missions. For 35 years, from 1950 to 1985, there were Australian observers in Kashmir (disputed between India and Pakistan), including the commander from 1950 to 1966, Lt Gen Robert Nimmo. For over 60 years, since 1956, Australian observers in the Middle East have monitored peace and war between Israel and Lebanon, Syria, Jordan and Egypt. Observers have also served in Iran, East Timor and elsewhere.
Southern Africa: Zimbabwe and Namibia

From 1979 to 1980 an Australian infantry force of 150 officers and NCOs took part in a non-UN operation overseeing Zimbabwe’s transition to independence. A decade later an even larger contingent, composed largely of engineers, assisted a UN operation with a similar role in Namibia.

Cambodia

For a period in 1993 Australia had over 2,000 peacekeepers in the field, with large contingents in both Cambodia and Somalia. In Cambodia, Australia had taken a leading diplomatic role in the search for a settlement to the civil war in a country still suffering the effects of the genocidal Pol Pot regime of the 1970s. The Australian contribution to the resulting UN operation included the force commander, Lt Gen John Sanderson, and the operation’s communications component.

Somalia

The UN ultimately failed to bring peace to Somalia, a country which had largely fallen into anarchy after the end of the Cold War. Nevertheless, for a few months in early 1993 an Australian battalion group, part of a US-led mission, was successful in allowing the delivery of humanitarian aid in the Baidoa area. Australians also served with UN missions in Somalia.

Rwanda

A year later, Australians were in Rwanda, another country to fall victim to genocidal civil violence. This time the Australian contingent consisted of a medical unit with infantry support, and was able to treat many of the local people, in addition to members of the UN force.

Bougainville

From 1997 to 2003 Australians served at Bougainville, monitoring a peace process to settle a long-running conflict between the Papua New Guinea government and the separatist Bougainville Revolutionary Army.

East Timor

In 1999 Australia led a peace enforcement operation which dwarfed all its previous peacekeeping efforts, as East Timor achieved independence from Indonesia. Australia had contributed police to a UN mission, which conducted the August 1999 referendum on East Timorese independence, but the referendum was followed by widespread violence, looting and arson carried out by militias with Indonesian support. Soon afterwards, on behalf of the UN, Australia organised and led a multinational force, Interfet, to restore order in the territory before handing over to a UN mission in early 2000. Interfet, commanded by Australian Maj Gen Peter Cosgrove, included 5,500 Australians (half its strength). Australia continued to support the subsequent UN missions which helped to prepare East Timor for independence and assist its development afterwards. In 2006 a substantial number of Australian troops returned to East Timor when conflict again broke out.

Solomon Islands

Civil disorder and conflict between different groups has led to more than one regionally-based peacekeeping operation in Solomon Islands. From 2000 to 2002, Australians (mainly police and other civilians) served with a mission which unsuccessfully attempted to disarm the groups. In 2003 Australia was the main contributor to a much larger regional mission, Ramsi, which succeeded in settling the troubled state. However, unrest flared again in 2006 amid increasing unhappiness with Ramsi’s presence.

Naval peacekeeping

Though most Australian peacekeepers have come from the army, naval personnel have contributed to peacekeeping operations since 1947. RAN ships have regularly provided essential logistic support to peacekeeping deployments, and have on occasion served as offshore bases, but the direct use of ships to achieve a peacekeeping mission has been rare. The most prominent example was the deployment through the 1990s of RAN ships with the MIF in the Persian Gulf, Gulf of Oman, and Red Sea, helping to enforce UN sanctions against Iraq. During the First Gulf War and since 2001, the ships’ roles have included support for war fighting as well as peace enforcement.

Air Force peacekeeping

Like the RAN, the RAAF has provided personnel to peacekeeping operations since 1947, and RAAF aircraft have routinely provided logistic support to deployments. The aircraft have themselves formed part of peacekeeping missions in several cases: a Caribou flew in Kashmir in the late 1970s, Iroquois helicopters flew in the Sinai with Unef II in the 1970s and the MFO in the 1980s, and there was heavy RAAF involvement in East Timor.
Police peacekeeping

Since the 1960s, peacekeeping forces have generally included civilian police as well as military personnel. Australian civilian police (originally from the states, more recently federal) have served with the UN force in Cyprus since 1964, and have since served in many parts of the world, including Cambodia, Somalia, Mozambique, Haiti, Bougainville, East Timor and Solomon Islands. In exhibitions and publications, the Memorial has always treated the police role as an integral part of the history of peacekeeping.

Collecting aims and priorities

As the Australian War Memorial Act precluded coverage of peacekeeping as one of its roles until 1980, peacekeeping operations prior to 1980 are unevenly represented in the National Collection. The Memorial seeks to build collections representative of all operations in which Australians have been involved, with more extensive coverage for the major commitments.

For Cambodia, Somalia, and Timor, the Memorial has maintained a close relationship from the outset with the ADF to ensure that well-documented material is collected during deployments. Personal and military objects, particularly those telling personal stories, are sought from the early, often small, peacekeeping commitments. Material depicting the high level of participation by women in more recent deployments is equally important. The most serious restriction on collecting is the non-availability of technical equipment still in use, such as radios, vehicles, and aircraft.

Active collecting of photographic, sound and film recordings will continue to cover current commitments, with pre-1980 material and the collection of images for the Roll of Honour, the Commemorative Roll, and the Remembrance Book being a high priority. Documentary materials and oral history interviews are also being collected under the auspices of the Official History of Australian Peacekeeping, Humanitarian and Post–Cold War Operations.

Art depicting Australia’s early peacekeeping activities in Asia and Africa from 1947 until the 1980s is scarce, while collections for the Middle Eastern, Cambodian, Western Sahara, Somali and Rwandan operations are good. Works of art, posters, cartoons or “soldier art” relating to Australia’s most recent involvements in peacekeeping in the Pacific and Africa, as well as peacekeeping operations in the former Yugoslavia (Bosnia, 1992– late 1990s), will be collected. Relevant work by émigré artists and commissioned pieces depicting the homecoming and departures of peacekeeping military forces might be collected. With East Timor, the commissioning of official war artists and photographers reinvigorated an important acquisition methodology, which resulted in significant documentation of these events; there is a need, however, for a broader range of material and artistic interpretation of Australia’s role and involvement there.

Comprehensive acquisition of Official Records of all Australian peacekeeping operations is desirable under existing arrangements with Defence and the National Archives. The development of a comprehensive and representative collection of personal letters, diaries, memoirs and published records covering all Australian peacekeeping operations is desirable. This conflict theme is represented in the Conflicts 1945 to Today galleries, and collection development continues for these operations.
Section 9

Recent Conflicts

Historical Background

First Gulf War, 1991

The invasion of Kuwait by Iraq on 2 August 1990 aroused widespread international condemnation and four days later the UN Security Council unanimously approved a trade embargo against Iraq. A blockade of Iraq’s access to the sea followed within weeks as the United States assembled a large multinational task force in the Persian Gulf while another was formed in Saudi Arabia. By January 1991 this force numbered some 680,000 troops from 30 countries.

In November 1990 the UN Security Council set 15 January 1991 as the deadline for an Iraqi withdrawal from Kuwait.

On 17 January coalition forces began an aerial bombardment of Iraq that continued without respite until the war ended 43 days later. On 24 February 1991, the coalition’s ground forces moved against Iraqi positions in Kuwait; in Iraq itself Iraq’s forces were ordered to withdraw from Kuwait to the positions they had occupied before August 1990. Two days after this, the coalition ceased hostilities and declared victory.

Australian forces were deployed in the Gulf War under US leadership but in accordance with UN Security Council resolutions. The RAN provided vessels for the multi-national naval force, which formed an interception force in the Persian Gulf to enforce UN sanctions. The RAN presence included two frigates and the replenishment ship HMAS Success, with a detachment from the Army’s 16th Air Defence Regiment. In January 1991, the replenishment tanker HMAS Westralia
left Fremantle to relieve Success. Four warships, HMAS Sydney, Adelaide, Brisbane and Darwin also served tours of duty in the Persian Gulf. During the operational phase of their deployment they formed part of the anti-aircraft screen for the carrier battle groups of the US Navy. A RAN clearance diving team was also dispatched for explosive ordnance and demolition tasks.

In addition to the naval units, Australian personnel took part on attachment to various British and American ground formations. A small group of RAAF photo-interpreters was based in Saudi Arabia, together with a detachment from the Defence Intelligence Organisation. Four medical teams were also dispatched at the request of the US. Although the ships and their crews were in danger from mines and possible air attack, Australia’s participation was relatively uneventful and there were no casualties. At war’s end 75 Australian personnel were sent to northern Iraq to assist the delivery of humanitarian aid to Kurds living in the UN-declared exclusion zone while ships of the RAN remained on station at US request to maintain trade sanctions. Through the 1990s Australians also served with the UN weapons inspection mission in Iraq, UNSCOM.

**Afghanistan: International Coalition Against Terrorism (ICAT), 2001—present**

On 11 September 2001, terrorists linked to the Al Qaeda organisation used hijacked civilian airliners to attack the World Trade Center in New York and the Pentagon in Washington. In response, the US President, George W. Bush, proclaimed a “war on terror” and called upon friendly countries to join an International Coalition Against Terrorism (ICAT).

Afghanistan, long believed to be the haven of Al Qaeda and its leader, Osama Bin Laden, soon became the focus of the war on terror. In October 2001 US and British forces commenced military operations, in partnership with the Afghan Northern Alliance, to overthrow the Taliban government after it refused to hand over Bin Laden for trial. A new Afghan government was installed in December 2001, but military operations, both offensive and reconstructive, continued through 2007.

In October 2001 Prime Minister John Howard announced Australia’s initial contribution to ICAT, to be known as Operation Slipper. It included a special forces task group based on a squadron from the Special Air Service (SAS) Regiment for operations in Afghanistan; two RAN ships to reinforce the frigate already deployed with the Multinational Interception Force (MIF) in the Persian Gulf; two RAAF Boeing 707 tanker aircraft supporting coalition operations from Kyrgyzstan; a detachment of four RAAF F/A-18 fighters to provide combat air patrol from Diego Garcia; and a detachment of two P3-C maritime patrol aircraft to support MIF in the Persian Gulf (not deployed until early 2003).

By the beginning of 2003, with momentum gathering for an invasion of Iraq, Australia’s commitment to ICAT had effectively ended. Three RAN vessels and the RAAF P3-C detachment continued to operate in the Persian Gulf as part of, or supporting, MIF, but its focus remained on Iraq.

Australia did not commit significant forces ICAT again until August 2005, when a new special forces task group (SFTG) consisting primarily of elements from the SAS and 4th Battalion, the Royal Australian Regiment (4RAR), was deployed to Afghanistan to conduct operations against the resurgent Taliban. From March 2006 SFTG was supported by a detachment of CH-47D Chinook helicopters from 5th Aviation Regiment. In August 2006, the focus of Australian operations in Afghanistan switched from offensive operations to the development of civilian infrastructure. The SFTG was withdrawn and replaced with the Reconstruction Task Force, which the Chinook detachment remained to support.

**The Second Gulf War: Iraq, 2003—present**

Following the Gulf War of 1991 Iraq was subject to a regime of sanctions and weapons inspections aimed at ensuring the destruction of that country’s chemical and biological weapons. “No-fly zones” were also enforced over the Kurdish region of northern Iraq and Shi’a areas in southern Iraq in an attempt to protect groups who had, at the urging of the United States, mounted uprisings during the war. The next ten years were characterized by Iraqi obstruction of UN weapons inspectors, regular bombings of Iraq by British and US aircraft, and the decline of the Iraqi economy. RAN vessels with MIF participated in the enforcement of sanctions for much of this period, and when a renewed offensive against Iraq seemed imminent in February 1998 Australia deployed a special forces task group and two 707 tankers to Kuwait.

After the terrorist attacks on the United States of 11 September 2001, pressure on Iraq increased. The United States, supported by Britain and Australia, sought to draw links between the 11 September attacks and the Iraqi regime led by Saddam Hussein. Central to the United States’s case was Iraq’s continuing
obstruction of UN weapons inspectors. The rhetoric of the United States and its supporters escalated throughout 2002, although they failed to gain authorisation from the UN Security Council for military action.

The United States led a “coalition of the willing”, including Australia and Britain, in an invasion of Iraq in March 2003. This action was widely opposed both internationally and by people in the participating countries. Overwhelming force led to the defeat of Iraq’s armed forces and the demise of the Hussein regime by May 2003, but in the years that have followed resistance to allied occupation and internecine fighting between Iraq’s different ethnic and religious communities has intensified dramatically.

Australia’s military contribution to the invasion of Iraq was limited both in size and duration. The invasion phase ended with the occupation of Baghdad: when major hostilities were declared over, Australian combat forces were withdrawn. The Australian forces involved comprised a headquarters staff numbering some 60 personnel; the frigates HMAS ANZAC and Darwin and two P-3C Orion maritime patrol aircraft, all of which were already involved in MIF operations; HMAS Kanimbla with a complement of 350 crew and air defence and landing craft detachments from the Army; RAN Clearance Diving Team 3, 14 F/A-18 Hornet fighters and 3 C-130H Hercules transport aircraft from the RAAF; and a special operations task group consisting of troops from the SAS, 4RAR, the Incident Response Regiment and 3 CH-47D Chinook helicopters from 5 Aviation Regiment.

Australia refused requests from both the United Nations and the United States to provide large numbers of ground troops for the occupation and rehabilitation of Iraq. Initial contributions to this phase of the operations were small and specialized: air traffic controllers at Baghdad airport, a military training team, a medical detachment at the US hospital at Balad, and a security detachment for the Australian diplomatic mission. Both the Hercules and Orion detachments remained deployed, and the contribution to maritime interception operations was maintained with a single frigate. In April 2005 the nature of Australia’s commitment to Iraq again changed when an Army task group consisting of infantry and light armoured vehicles deployed to Al Muthana province to support a Japanese engineering unit. This group remained in Al Muthana until July 2006, by which time the Japanese had withdrawn and Iraqi authorities had resumed security duties in the province. The Australian task group redeployed to Tallil airbase, from which it continues to support the work of the Iraqi security forces.

Collection Development Plan

Collecting aims and priorities

The Gulf War collection overall is small but very strong: given Australia’s limited role in this conflict, it is not expected that holdings will be greatly expanded. Active acquisition through liaison with ADF at the time of the conflict ensured comprehensive coverage of most subjects and material. The acquisition of the bridge and other components of HMAS Brisbane significantly strengthened the RAN and technology representation, although other equipment, still in service, remains poorly represented for this conflict.

For the current deployments to Afghanistan and Iraq, the Memorial has from the outset maintained a close relationship with the ADF to undertake acquisition during the conflicts: the most serious collecting restriction being the non-availability of technical equipment still in use. Personal and military objects from men and women, especially uniforms, badges, medal groups and firearms telling personal stories, are sought.

In terms of collecting, these deployments present particular challenges. The move to electronic communication means that interpersonal communications are more likely to be ephemeral, with written records such as diaries and letters less likely to be created and kept. Official records, photographs, film, and sound recordings will also increasingly be generated in digital formats. The comprehensive transfer from the Department of Defence of all pertinent Official Records for these operations is expected. Letters, diaries, maps, aerial photos, ephemera, and published material from both conflicts are a priority for collection.

For all operations, the commissioning of war artists, photographers, and cinematographers has resulted in significant documentation of these events. Art depicting the conflict in Afghanistan may also come into the National Collection from relevant émigré artists and by enhancing the existing poster collection. For Iraq it is desirable to collect soldier art, works related to Australia’s involvement in the war by contemporary Australian artists, and works by Iraqis (including refugees) now living in Australia. The collection of filmed interviews with official artists, photographers, and cinematographers to record their impressions is also desirable, as is the collection of images of all personnel listed on the Roll of Honour and the Commemorative Roll, or in the Remembrance Book.
Historical Background

1901–39

This period is interpreted as extending from the establishment of the Commonwealth armed services in the years following Federation to the start of the Second World War, but excluding the First World War. This is a key period because it influenced the nature and scope of Australia’s contribution to both world wars. These decades saw the creation of all three Australian armed services; the establishment of military and naval colleges, including the world’s first military flying school; and the development of local defence industries including the manufacture of weapons, munitions, and harness. The RAN and the RAAF were professional organisations from their inception (in 1911 and 1921, respectively), but part-time citizen soldiers, trained and administered by a very small number of full-time officers and NCOs, were the mainstay of the army throughout this period.

Although defence issues were considered to be amongst the prime motivators for Federation, for much of this period defence was not given a high priority by Australian governments. Australia’s armed forces were, as a result, inadequately trained and poorly equipped. Australia was content to rely upon the security provided by the British Empire and was without an independent defence strategy. Prior to the First World War, arrangements in place for Australia to contribute to the defence of the Empire in time of war included placing the RAN under British Admiralty control and providing an expeditionary force. In 1923 Australian strategy in the Asia-Pacific region was shackled to the British naval base at Singapore, and remained so until Singapore’s fall in 1942.

Senior British officers reported regularly on the state of Australia’s armed forces, prompting some of the most significant developments of the period: Field Marshal Herbert Kitchener’s report of 1910 resulted in the introduction of universal compulsory military training in 1911; Lieutenant General Ernest Squires’s report of 1938 recommended the formation of a full-time all-arms field force and resulted in the Darwin Mobile Force, Australia’s first break with the citizen-soldier tradition, and its first step towards an Australian regular army.
1946–Present

This period is interpreted as extending from the end of the Second World War until the present day, but excludes periods of conflict and other operational deployments. It is significant in providing context to Australia’s overseas commitments, including the development of an independent Australian defence policy, albeit one still heavily dependent on the support of major allies.

Britain remained Australia’s major alliance partner in the immediate postwar period, and the commitments made to Korea, Malaya and Borneo were as part of British Commonwealth forces. The United States gradually replaced Britain as Australia’s pre-eminent ally, a status confirmed in more recent times by commitments to American-led coalitions. The foundations of Australian defence policy have turned full circle. “Forward defence”, aimed at defeating any potential threat long before it was in a position to threaten Australia, was the dominant strategic principle until the end of the Vietnam War. Replaced by a “defence of Australia” strategy that shunned expeditionary forces and sought to defeat potential threats by dominating the “sea–air gap” to Australia’s north, “forward defence” re-emerged as the central pillar of Australian strategy in the late 1990s under the Howard government.

The changing nature of warfare during this period has resulted in a significant reduction in the size of Australian armed forces, as well as a steadily increasing technical sophistication.

The period has seen the rise of the Australian Regular Army, formed in 1947, and a commensurate lessening of the influence and significance of the citizens’ forces, renamed the Army Reserve in 1980. The last peak of the citizen-soldier tradition was the national service scheme that operated from 1951 to 1959. For the RAN, the period witnessed the acquisition, and then the loss, of aircraft carriers and an increasing emphasis on border protection operations. Since the early 1990s the training and operations of the three services have been increasingly integrated, in some instances blurring the traditional distinctions between them.

From the Memorial’s perspective the post–Second World War peacetime forces form a background to war service and other deployments.

Collecting Aims and Priorities

Until 1980 documenting the history of the ADF fell outside the Memorial’s role. A representative holding to illustrate key changes in military organization, development, and significant events including humanitarian missions, is sought: items collected will provide context for the periods of active service.

Overall, the collection supporting this subject is limited, but contains some items of outstanding quality, such as the Deperdussin aircraft. Current uniforms, insignia, equipment, and badges should be obtained while readily available, and to ensure that the army badge collection covers the entire period from the 1850s to the present day. In addition, uniforms and personal material related to military commanders and significant personalities are also sought.

Photographic, sound and film recordings are sought for significant events, especially for deployments recently reclassified as warlike, such as FESR. Art depicting events and subjects in this category are under-represented, especially about operational exercises and military daily life in different periods. Art on these subjects appears rarely: commissioned works may offer the best means of expanding this theme.

Letters and diaries have not been collected deliberately or extensively outside periods of particular conflicts or peacekeeping. Some representative collections on particular events or activities may be sought.
Historical Background

The Australian War Memorial

In August 1916 Charles Bean recognized the importance of commemorating the experiences of the First World War and began to form the idea of a national memorial.

Central to that memorial were the records created and the relics collected by the Australian War Records Section under the leadership of Lieutenant John Treloar, who would later become the Memorial’s second and longest serving Director.

After the war, there were considerable delays in constructing the Memorial building. Initial delays in arousing public and government enthusiasm were succeeded by the difficulties of the Depression. In the meantime large long-running exhibitions were held in Melbourne and Sydney. An architectural competition in 1927 failed to produce a satisfactory single design for the building. Two of the entrants in the competition, Sydney architects Emil Sodersteen and John Crust, were encouraged to submit a joint design incorporating Sodersteen’s vision for the building and Crust’s concept of a cloisters to house a Roll of Honour. The joint design was accepted and forms the basis of the current building.

As Australia entered the Second World War, the Memorial in Canberra was still incomplete. In 1941 the government extended the Memorial’s charter to include the Second World War; in 1952 it was extended again to include all wars in which Australia has been involved. In 1980, the Act was further extended to include documenting the history of the ADF.
Commemoration

While the majority of the Memorial’s collecting activity relates to specific conflicts, collecting material that relates more broadly to commemoration is also appropriate. The importance in collecting material related to this subject is in providing context to the commemorative function and activity of the Memorial.

Collecting aims and priorities

The aim is to provide a record of the key events, programs and commemorative activities of the Australian War Memorial, recording changes to the buildings, grounds and exhibitions; major commemorative and other ceremonies; the development of educational, exhibition and other programs; and the Memorial’s policy and governance. The contemporaneous collection of material recording Memorial history is important in capturing the record of the Memorial as it develops. Material of this kind is collected for documentary and commemorative purposes, for use in exhibitions and displays, and as a research resource for curators and other researchers.

In recording the history of its development, the Memorial will collect material largely from its own internal programs; for example, the selective collection of staff uniforms and photographic records of significant events and ceremonies. The selective acquisition of items from external sources will also be considered, such as significant photographs, film and recordings of the Memorial taken by well-known photographers, film-makers, and producers of radio programs.

Enhancing the existing collection of art images of the Memorial, both historical and contemporary, as well as ensuring representation of significant events and anniversaries, is an important collecting aim. Selective acquisition of material which enhances the understanding of the Memorial’s development as a national institution will be undertaken. A representative collection of photographic, sound, film, and works of art that are not related to specific conflicts, but which offer commemorative commentary on war, military forces, the nature of conflict, or the enduring and various effects of war on society or the individual, provide a broader artistic and social context in which to place the Memorial’s commemorative role.

The collection of ephemera produced by and about the Memorial has increased considerably in the last ten years, owing to the growth of commemorative, educational and exhibition programs. Comparison between contemporaneous ephemera, including pages from the Memorial’s website, and pre-2005 items collected retrospectively, reveals changes in the Memorial’s programs, and the public’s reactions to them, over time.

The commemorative theme is also developed through the acquisition of items which complement the existing collection and which might reasonably be displayed in the galleries. Such items are usually accepted only if they were used or manufactured at the time of the conflict, or shortly thereafter, by individuals or groups actually involved.